

7

Discursive Procedures of Knowledge Attribution in Linguistics and Philosophy Theses Across Two Academic Levels

René Venegas, Paulina Meza Guzmán, and Juan Martínez Hincapié

Several authors interested in the field of academic writing agree that knowledge attribution is a discursive process that indicates responsibility for the content presented in academic discourse. Knowledge attribution is commonly conceived of as evidence of author's position in his/her writing (Beke, 2008; Bolívar et al., 2010; Hyland, 2004a). The aim of this paper is to compare the discursive process of knowledge attribution in undergraduate and MA theses in linguistics and philosophy. In order to accomplish this goal, we have focused on two categories of analysis: the use of first person and the use of external citations. The corpus consisted of 20 theses (5 BA in linguistics, 5 MA in linguistics, 5 BA in philosophy, and 5 MA in philosophy). Overall, the results indicate that there are differences between disciplines and degree levels in the way authors carry out knowledge attribution. Our results also reveal a range of subtypes of citations not found in previous investigations. In conclusion, the field is urged to consider the many ways in which authors attribute knowledge and how those ways differ across discourse communities and genres.

In recent years, the number of studies focused on academic writing research and interested in the different genres produced by students has increased (Bunton, 2002; Carlino, 2005; Hyland, 2002; Samraj, 2008; Thompson, 2005). In this context, several authors have used different approaches to study how writers position themselves within their own compositions (Beke, 2008; Bolívar et al., 2010; Hyland, 2004a; Meza & Martínez, 2011; Samraj, 2008), as can be attested by studies related to the linguistic markers of the author's positioning (Bolívar et al., 2010), to the way the writer-reader relationship is established through the

use of different linguistic strategies (Hyland, 2005), and to the teaching and use of the various linguistic devices that authors employ in order to introduce themselves both explicitly or implicitly (Montolío, 2000).

Even though there is considerable research into this issue, studies on undergraduate and MA theses that center on knowledge attribution (as proposed by Hyland, 2004a) are rare. Therefore, we set out to investigate the extent to which writers display authorial presence in their work and the ways in which they attribute the ideas of other authors in their writing. In this context, our goal is to compare the discursive function of knowledge attribution in undergraduate and MA theses written by linguistics and philosophy students. For this reason, we established a contrast across both disciplines (linguistics and philosophy) and academic degree levels (undergraduate and MA).

To achieve this goal, we have used two linguistic-discursive categories to account for knowledge attribution: the use of citations, on the one hand, to learn how other authors are introduced in student theses; and, on the other, the use of the first person to know how student authors establish their own authorial presence. Using these categories helped us identify the possible similarities and differences associated with academic degree levels and/or disciplinary fields. In this article, we first introduce the object of study and develop the theoretical framework that guided our analysis. Then, we present the results of the study. Finally, we discuss the findings obtained from the textual analysis of our corpus in order to put them back into conversation with the theoretical framework we used before concluding the article with a discussion of potential future directions.

Academic Writing

Academic writing is defined as the activity of composing written texts by people who belong to the academic world and whose main audience is members of the same field (Carlino, 2005). Consequently, both the topics addressed in academic texts and the register possess particular features that make them considerably different from other genres, such as news articles or op-eds (Pak-Tao, 2008).

In academic writing, writers typically seek to answer research questions that emerge from their professional field and are of interest to researchers, professors, and experts in that field. Additionally, academic writing constitutes a set of highly formal conventions that can be found in different academic genres, such as dissertations, research articles, or handbooks (Parodi et al., 2010).

On the other hand, an important concept directly related to academic writing is academic discourse. Bhatia (2002, p. 25) defines it as “a unified register

in applied linguistic literature, especially in language teaching and learning.” Academic discourse, then, occurs within university academic communities in order to train undergraduate and graduate students in discursive disciplinary practices (Bhatia, 2002). Such practices develop following the discursive traditions of a specific academic community (Kabatek, 2001; Kayser, 2002; Koch, 1997; Schlieben-Lange, 1983). These traditions manifest themselves at the different linguistic-discursive levels (lexical, syntactic, semantic, pragmatic) across the different genres that are used to communicate within any one particular discourse community. In the present study, we claim that the thesis genre is one of the most important textual-communicative instances where students have to demonstrate specific knowledge to their communities by relying on the specific features of their disciplines’ discursive practices.

Another concept closely related to academic discourse and, in turn, to academic writing is genre, a concept that has been studied by a wide range of theoreticians and researchers. One of the most recurrent definitions of genre was proposed by Swales (1990), who regarded it as a communicative event with specific purposes that have been identified and defined by the members of a determined academic or professional community, who construct genres based on particular forms and contents. In the following section, we describe in further detail the thesis genre.

The Thesis

The key discursive practice in the transition from university student life to the academic-scientific life is the production of an undergraduate thesis (Bunton, 2002; Moyano, 2000). Through this genre, novice writers demonstrate their mastery of the expected rhetorical structures of the texts that are a part of their field, and in doing so, their inclusion in the discursive community of interest. Therefore, those who pursue a BA, an MA, or a PhD degree must demonstrate in written form research that accurately articulates the discursive practices expected in their academic field.

Koutsantoni describes this genre and its close relationship with the research article, identifying both as academic genres. She claims that “both genres are produced at advanced stages of individuals’ enculturation in disciplinary communities and present original research which aims to persuade the academic community to accept new knowledge claims” (2006, p. 19). Hyland defines the thesis using a more social approach, pointing out that “the dissertation is a high stakes genre at the summit of a student’s academic accomplishment. It is perhaps the most significant piece of writing that any student will ever do” (2004b, p. 134).

For Moyano (2000), the thesis is a genre whose aim is to inform and grant academic advancement and whose content is the result of a research study. Consequently, if approved by the academic community, this genre gives students the opportunity to transition from university student life to academic life by allowing them to become new members of their disciplinary discourse community. For this transition to be granted, thesis writers need to create authorial presence in their work and demonstrate knowledge of other authors by means of inscribing their own persona and that of the other authors in their writing. This is what has been named knowledge attribution (Hyland, 2004a; Swales, 1990).

Knowledge Attribution

Knowledge attribution is a feature that is typical of scientific research articles and other academic genres (Hyland, 2005; Sabaj & Páez, 2011; Swales, 1990). This concept refers to responsibility for the content presented, either attributed to the writer-researchers' own voice or to the voices of other authors who were brought to the text. Thus, this discursive technique shows the writers' efforts to choose from among various linguistic and discursive options in order to demonstrate disciplinary knowledge, even though academic scientific genres have traditionally been presented as objective and neutral (Beke, 2008; Kaiser, 2002). According to Bolívar, Beke and Shiro, the decision that writers make to select this or that voice satisfies "on the one hand, the need to be explicit on the degree of accuracy of the information reported, and on the other hand, the need to manifest how committed to the information they are, what is their position and their evaluation" (2010, p. 109).

Knowledge attribution can be identified through two discursive devices. On the one hand, we can use the citation to examine other voices included by the writer-researcher to present their contribution to knowledge as part of a continuous disciplinary conversation. On the other hand, we can use first-person linguistic markers to analyze how the authorial presence is created using the authors' own voice in their research. In the next sections, we examine how citations and first-person linguistic markers help demonstrate knowledge attribution in linguistics and philosophy BA and MA theses.

Citation

According to Reyes (1996, p. 9), citation is defined as "a linguistic representation of a text... This representation can be full or partial, accurate or approximate." Consequently, the degree of similarity between the original text and

the one that reproduces it depends on a variety of factors that are determined by the speakers' communicative intention.

Several authors agree on the fundamental role that citations play in academic research. In fact, referencing other authors has been considered one of academic writing's essential features (Hyland, 2004a; Sabaj & Páez, 2011; Samraj, 2008; Swales, 1990). Hyland observes that citation is one of the main means that academic writing has to attribute content to other sources, and its importance lies in that "[it] is central to the social context of persuasion as it can provide justification for arguments and demonstrate the novelty of one's position" (2004a, p. 20). He further adds that citing is a procedure of ratification of what the writer states, since through it the cited authors become a kind of justifiers, that is, "peers who provide the social justification which transforms beliefs into knowledge" (Hyland, 2004a, p. 20).

One of the most important functions of this type of discursive procedure is to help define either the specific context of the knowledge or the issue to which the study is contributing (Hyland, 2004a). Beke (2008) adds that evoking other authors' voices has three essential functions: (a) to show how the textual information fits into what the experts already know about the topic; (b) to contribute to the writers' argument by reinforcing an idea; and (c) to demonstrate knowledge on a specific topic and that the study is worth reading. Beke also points out that "from a pragmatic point of view, through the references and citations of other authors we reinforce our arguments, and, at the same time, we position ourselves as versed in the subject matter; we justify the newness of our contribution to a broader narrative about the topic we are researching" (2008, p. 16). Moreover, from a rhetorical point of view, references and citations help us to contextualize our research and scaffold our contribution to both the topic and the discipline.

All of the authors reviewed here agreed that there are numerous ways to cite other work and, therefore, numerous ways with which to classify different types of citations. Thus, in this study, we divided these citation classifications into two major groups. On the one hand, we present a classification depending on how citations are incorporated into the text (using either direct or indirect speech). On the other hand, we present a classification according to the presence or absence of the author cited in the syntactic-semantic structure of the sentence (using integral and non-integral citations). It is worth noting that covert citations are also included in the first classification; however, they are not considered in this study, as their identification requires specific disciplinary knowledge. Using these two classifications, we sought to identify all of the direct integrated and indirect integrated citations in our corpus.

In the following section, we describe our research procedures and methods.

Direct and Indirect Speech

This division between direct and indirect speech is often referred to as literal and nonliteral citations (Calsamiglia & Tusón, 1999; Massi, 2005; Reyes, 1996).

- **Direct speech:** The inclusion of this type of citation maintains two enunciative situations, since it entails a rupture or discontinuity between the main discourse (D₁) and the cited discourse (D₂), in which two different speakers are held accountable (Calsamiglia & Tusón, 1999). Generally, this type of citation is introduced with a colon and quotation marks to indicate that another person's words (or those of the writer) are being reproduced and presented in the identical way they were originally pronounced or written (Reyes, 1996).

Santander (2002, p. 86) points out that this procedure is the “type of linguistic behavior that seems a hundred percent objective,” in the sense that it has no need to select from a set and also because it maintains the dissociation between the “I” and the discourse. According to Santander, this type of citational practice extracts the discourse of another figure and then frames it within the context of the new discourse. Moreover, in utilizing direct speech, speakers are not only reproducing a text produced by others, but also carrying out an assertive speech act, as you only quote what you consider relevant (Santander, 2002).

- **Indirect speech:** It is used to introduce one discourse into another. In this case, it is presented as a single speaker that integrates a single deictic center, using an introductory citation-related referent (Calsamiglia & Tusón, 1999). Likewise, the second discourse is represented with deictic marks corresponding to the same speaker as the first discourse, maintaining only one utterance. This causes the narrated words to undergo some changes because the original text is paraphrased, thus adjusting it to the communicative situation. In this sense, according to Reyes (1996), this type of citation cannot retrieve the original discourse.

Integral and Non-Integral Citations

Swales (1990), within the framework of his CARS model, distinguishes between integral and non-integral citations, which result from “a decision to give greater emphasis to either the reported author or the reported message” (Hyland, 2004a, p. 23). This distinction has been used by several authors interested in citation procedures (Beke, 2008; Hyland, 2004a; Sabaj & Páez, 2011; Samraj, 2008). Similarly, Weissberg and Buker (1990) use the terms *prominent author* for integral citations and *prominent information* for non-integral ones.

- **Integral citations:** The cited author appears within the referential sentence; namely, the cited source fulfills a syntactic function in the text where the author has been cited (Swales, 1990). For Thompson (2005), this type of citation is used when the focus is on the researcher, the cited text, or the cited study. Beke clarifies this point by describing it as:

a research report where the reported author is named within the sentence and has a syntactic-semantic function. In fact, the cited author can fulfil the function of a verb's subject in active and passive constructions, or it can be included in a noun phrase, a prepositional phrase, or an adjunct. In the citation, the author's full name and the date may appear in between parentheses (Beke, 2008).

For example: "Hyland (2004) points out that..." "Academic discourse has been described by Hyland (2004)"]

- **Non-integral citations:** The name of the cited author appears between parentheses or in a footnote, so it does not fulfill any syntactic function in the sentence where it is referenced (Swales, 1990). According to Thompson, this type of citation is used to emphasize the proposition (for instance, a finding or an important concept) and de-emphasize the author or the research. For example, "...it is one of the main characteristics of academic discourse (Hyland, 2004)."

For Beke, the main function of this type of citation is to "attribute to another author a proposition that the article writer can indicate as true or question it in their argumentation" (2008, p. 19). To this, she adds that by using this type of citation, the author-researcher generally intends to show that they do not commit to or share the cited author's point of view (Beke, 2008).

Inclusion of the Author

The writer's demarcation of their own voice can be understood from different points of view. In enunciation theory, speakers use a formal linguistic mechanism in order to enunciate their position as speakers through specific cues (Benveniste, 1999).

From a text linguistics perspective, Calsamiglia and Tusón (1999, p. 139) argue that "the use of 'I' in public becomes a compromised, risky choice." For this reason, speakers are unlikely to refer to themselves explicitly and prefer to use the first-person plural (in Spanish) so that they can integrate their voice into a group, thus acquiring the authority and legitimacy associated with a collective. Moreover, the act of obscuring the speaker can be taken

even further when choosing the third person or impersonal constructions (Benveniste, 1999; Calsamiglia & Tusón, 1999; Smiko, 1992).

Within academic discourse, Hyland (2002) observed that the representation of the “I” in academic writing is as important as the content presented; for that reason, authors establish their authority by evaluating and committing to their ideas. One of the clearest manifestations used to reveal authority is the first-person singular pronouns. However, although these manifestations are a powerful rhetorical strategy, not all authors dare to use them. Hyland’s argument is that authors representing themselves in their own work is central to the construction of a credible researcher profile to influence their audience. Therefore, the use of the first person allows authors to emphasize their own contributions by clarifying their own points of view to the reader or readers. Therefore, this grammatical form becomes a powerful means to express identity and authority, two key aspects of successful academic writing (Hyland, 2002).

Other research into academic discourse has revealed that scientific research article writers primarily use the first person to set the objective or purpose of the article, to delineate the procedures that were carried out, and to assert knowledge (Harwood, 2005; Hyland, 2001; Kuo, 1999). Writers position themselves according to the content they express; hence, they use the first person when they intend to show individual contributions to the discourse, and at the same time, assert that they are considered members of the community (Hyland, 2001, 2002). Cherry (1988) points out that writers often write themselves into their work with two main goals: to gain credibility by showing themselves as competent members of the discipline and to display the rhetorical qualities of a credible and trustworthy individual. In this sense, the linguistic choices that writers make not only affect the conceptual content but also influence the readers’ impression of the writer (Hyland, 2001). The present article addresses the inclusion of the “I” to determine how and to what extent writers use the first person to show authorial presence in their work. It is worth noting that the English language identifies the inscription of the first person through pronouns required by the language. In Spanish, however, there are many other possibilities (see subsection 5.2) that must be considered when studying this variation of academic discourse.

Methodology

In this section we present the methodology used to carry out this study, which follows a quantitative approach with a descriptive scope. We include a description of objectives, the corpus, and analysis procedures.

Our first general goal was to compare the discursive process of knowledge attribution between theses in linguistics and philosophy at the undergraduate

and MA level. To achieve this, we identified and described both the types of citations and the different uses of the first person. Using the results from the analysis of these categories, we subsequently compared the discursive processes of knowledge attribution in the disciplines of linguistics and philosophy at both the MA and undergraduate levels.

Corpus Description

The corpus is made up of twenty theses written between 2000 and 2009, which are divided as follows: five linguistics undergraduate theses (64,763 words), five linguistics MA theses (121,425 words), five philosophy undergraduate theses (85,284 words), and five philosophy MA theses (17,571 words). These texts were randomly selected from a larger corpus that contained theses on linguistics, philosophy, psychology, and literature from both undergraduate and MA degrees granted by Pontificia Universidad Católica de Valparaíso. These theses make up part of the *TFG-2010 Corpus* collected for the 1101039 FONDECYT Project (Venegas, 2010). For the purposes of our study, it is worth noting that all the analyzed theses were single-authored by students.

Procedures and Analytical Tools

First, it is important to note that the analysis procedures were fully applied to each section of the theses comprising the corpus. The categories that guided the analysis were the use of citations and the inclusion of the first person, which, in turn, enabled the description of how authors position themselves and others in their own work.

The first category of analysis—the use of citations—was manually created, i.e., by reading all theses and identifying both the type of citation and the way they were integrated into each thesis. To analyze the second category—the inscription of the first person—we relied on the computer tool *El Manchador de Textos*. This tool helps calculate and show the frequency of occurrences of one or more sequences of linguistic features in digitalized corpora (Venegas, 2008). We used the tool in two ways: first, to identify all verbal endings that indicate the use of the singular and plural first-person; and, second, to locate the pronouns and adjectives that correspond to those uses. Accordingly, we established six sequences:

- **Sequence 1:** first-person singular pronoun in the dative and accusative form (me) [me, to me]
- **Sequence 2:** first-person possessive pronoun in its singular, plural, masculine, and feminine forms (nuestro, nuestros, nuestra, nuestras) [our]

- **Sequence 3:** possessive adjective in its shortened form, singular, and plural (mi, mis) [my]
- **Sequence 4:** feminine and masculine possessive adjective (mío, mía) [my]
- **Sequence 5:** first-person singular pronoun (yo) [I]
- **Sequence 6:** shortened first-person plural personal pronoun (nos) [us, to us].

We carried out the analysis procedures based on all of these categories and then orchestrated statistical tests in order to establish whether the differences obtained were statistically significant.

Analysis and Discussion

Analysis of the Citation Practices

Even though direct, indirect, integral, and non-integral citations have been extensively studied, citations that have not been described in previous studies emerged in our results. We named these emergent categories *subtypes of citations* because they are part of the broader categories of citations already described. Additionally, it should be noted that in one discipline we found subtypes of direct citations, whilst in the other only the subtypes of indirect citations were found (see Figures 7.1 and 7.4). Because these subtypes of emerging citations have not been described in other studies, we explain each below and provide examples from the corpus. We included in between brackets the code from the thesis where the example has been taken.

Table 7.1 Emerging Types of Citations in Philosophy

Type of Citation	Definition	Example
Direct speech (DS)-Integral - Traditional (DSI-T1)	This citation includes the author and year of publication with a syntactic function in the sentence in which another person’s words (or the author’s own words) are reproduced identically as they were pronounced or written.	“Stephen Hawking (1988) ... la última interrogante: ‘¿Por qué el universo va a tornarse la molestia de existir? ¿Es tan imperiosa la teoría unificada que conlleva su propia existencia? ¿O necesita un creador, y, si es así, tiene Él algún efecto en el universo aparte de ser responsable de su existencia? ¿Y quién le creó?’” [TfL2_2009] [“Stephen Hawking (1988) ... the ultimate question: ‘Why does the universe bother to exist? Is the unified theory so compelling that it brings about its own existence? Or does it need a creator, and, if so, does He have any effect on the universe apart from being responsible for its existence? And who created Him?’”]

Type of Citation	Definition	Example
DS- Integral - Compound (DSI-Co)	This citation is divided into two parts: one is presented in the text and the other as a footnote. These tend to be lengthy citations.	<p>“Como señala Kripke (1995) ‘A veces (la necesidad) se usa de una manera epistemológica y bien podría entonces querer decir simplemente a priori’... de dos áreas diferentes: la epistemológica y la metafísica” continúa a pie de página “Considérese por ejemplo ... le pertenece por necesidad” [TfL1_2008]</p> <p>[“As Kripke (1995) points out, ‘sometimes (necessity) is used in an epistemological way and might then simply mean a priori’ ... from two different areas: epistemological and metaphysical,” it continues in the footnote, “Consider, for example ... it belongs to it by necessity.”]</p>
DS-Integral - (DSI-So)	Made up of an excerpt of an author’s text, which is the thesis’ subject of analysis.	<p>“Por esto, Hegel (1992) afirma más adelante: ‘Quien mira racionalmente el mundo, lo ve racional. Ambas cosas se determinan mutuamente’” [TfL2_2008]</p> <p>[“For this reason, Hegel (1992) later asserts: ‘Whoever looks at the world rationally sees it as rational. Both things determine each other mutually.’”]</p>
DS-Integral - Partial (DSI-Pa)	The author of the citation is mentioned, but not the year of the publication from which it was taken.	<p>“Aristóteles argüía: ‘[es] realmente extraño que algo pueda estar encerrado por nada” [TfL2_2009]</p> <p>[“Aristotle argued: ‘[It is] truly strange that something could be enclosed by nothing.’”]</p>
DS-Non-Integral - Epigraphic (DSNI-Ep)	Epigraph at the beginning of some chapters.	<p>“A teacher who enchanted and inspired the brightest youth of Greece; a public figure who lived a turbulent life in a turbulent world. He bestrode antiquity like an intellectual colossus. No man before him had contributed so much to learning. No man alter him might aspire to rival his achievements (Jonathan Barnes)” [TfL1_2009]</p>
DS-Autonomous (DS-Aut)	Direct speech citation without a footnote, or year or author, i.e., only the cited text is included.	<p>“La naturaleza está totalmente sometida a los preceptos de la geometría” [TfL2_2009]</p> <p>[“Nature is completely subject to the precepts of geometry.”]</p>

The frequency of appearance of each one of these subtypes of citations at the different university levels is presented in Figure 7.1.

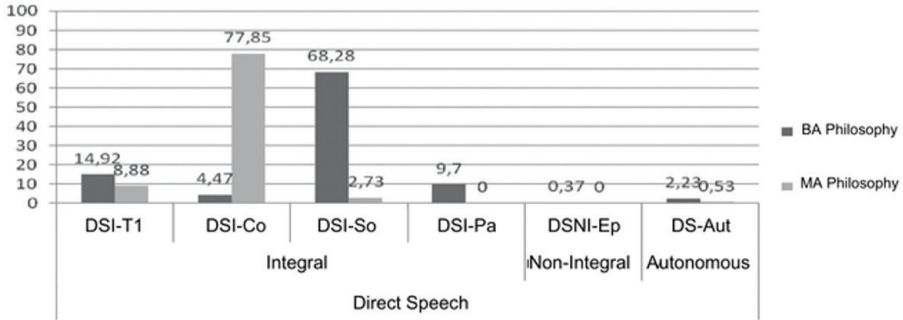


Figure 7.1 Frequency of Appearance of Direct Speech Citations in Philosophy

It is important to highlight that the previously presented types of citations emerged only from the undergraduate and master’s philosophy theses. With respect to each one of these subtypes, it is possible to say, first, that the DSI-T_I occurred more often in undergraduate than in master’s theses (14.92% vs. 8.88%), a difference that, according to the Z-test for proportion comparisons, turned out to be statistically significant ($Z=2.68$; $p=0.008$). This type of citation was used as an argument to justify what has been stated; that is, the text is introduced identically to how it appeared originally, but now using the speech utterance in a different context. For this reason, as Santander argues (2002), direct speech citations are considered a hundred percent objective; thus, there is absolute trust in attributing knowledge to the cited author. As Santander adds, in using direct speech, speakers are not only reproducing a text enunciated by others, but also they are carrying out an assertive speech act because they are including only what they consider relevant.

It must also be clarified that the ideas in the previous paragraph are not universally applicable because direct citations may be used to contradict what has been enunciated. However, in the present study, cases where citations contradicted or criticized the author were absent. Additionally, it is worth noting that in philosophy theses, direct speech citations were rarely commented on; that is, the voice of the cited author is seldom accompanied with a comment by the thesis’ author. From these results, it can be asserted that when writing an argument in philosophy, students rely more on other authors’ voices, and that this happens more frequently at the undergraduate level than at the MA level. This might happen because undergraduate students’ body of knowledge is more limited, as well as their authority to attribute knowledge to themselves.

The DSI-Co citation is used when the author of the thesis indicates that the cited excerpt in the body of the text is more relevant than the one in the

footnote. In this sense, there would be a lesser degree of commitment to what is said, since, although these elements are brought into the work, they are not integrated into the main body of the text. This type of citation is more used in MA theses than in undergraduate theses ($Z=20.874$; $p=0.00$); in percentage terms, 77.85% and 4.4%, respectively. It should be mentioned that, although both academic degrees include extensive citations (even two or three pages), MA students tend to break down such citations in order to emphasize only one part of them—that which is included in the body of the text. In that sense, we think that at the MA level, there is much more precision in selecting the outside information included in the writing of the thesis.

The use of DSI-So is also noticeably higher in the undergraduate level than at the MA level (68.28% vs 12.73%); resulting in a statistically significant difference between them ($Z=17.454$; $p=0.00$). This might be because, in earlier academic levels, students need to rely more on the text being analyzed, which demonstrates that the analysis is appropriate and is backed up by the cited source. This type of citational practice appears only in philosophy, and we think the reason for this is that philosophy students tend to engage with a particular author's ideas, a less frequent occurrence among linguistics students.

The DSI-Pa is absent from master's theses. Thus, its use might indicate a more limited demonstration of knowledge in terms of the thesis genre and the forms used to include sources, or, alternatively, it might simply be a sign of careless writing. In fact, it is interesting to note that, according to the available data, this phenomenon is not present in the master's theses because they are supposed to have more experience with these features or with academic writing.

Another emerging subtype is the DS-Aut, where there is no bibliographic backup (work, year, or author), which assumes a reader with solid disciplinary knowledge. Thus, if readers come across the citation "I think, therefore I am," for example, they must know that Descartes said it in 1637 in *Discourse on Method*. These citations are rarely included across both academic levels, although they are more frequently found in undergraduate theses ($Z=6.35$; $p=0.0001$).

Finally, we included the DSNI-Ep, because it is another way of attributing knowledge to others. The occurrence of this type of direct citation is minimal: it was present in only one thesis.

Figure 7.2 depicts the emerging citations in philosophy theses.

Moreover, it should be noted that in linguistics' theses, only indirect speech citations emerged, in contrast to philosophy, where we found multiple subtypes of direct speech citations. We define and provide examples of the subtypes of citations found in our linguistics corpus in Table 7.2.

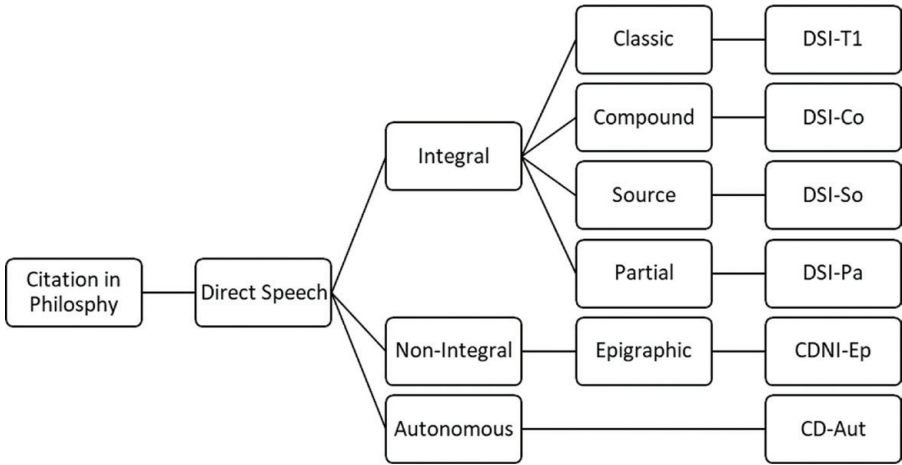


Figure 7.2 Model of Emerging Citations in Philosophy

Table 7.2 Types of Emerging Citations in Linguistics Theses

Type of Citation	Definition	Example
IS-Integral - Traditional (ISI-T)	When the author of a text and its publication date are indicated in between parentheses in the body of the text.	“Por su parte, Rosenblatt (1978) hace una distinción entre dos modalidades en la experiencia de la lectura: la lectura estética y lectura eferente.” [Tesis: TLingM2007 1, pág. 8]. [“For his part, Rosenblatt (1978) distinguishes between two modes of reading experience: aesthetic reading and efferent reading.”]
IS-Integral - Incomplete (ISI-I)	The author’s name is integrated into the body of the text, but the publication date is not provided.	“Esta definición de García y Barragán involucra la complejidad de fenómenos que encierra el concepto ‘cultura’.” [TLing 2008 3, pág. 24]. [“This definition by García and Barragán involves the complexity of phenomena encompassed by the concept ‘culture’.”]
IS-Integral - Open (ISI-Op)	The author and the text’s publication date are placed outside of the parentheses.	“El primer trabajo que consideró un grupo de variables fue el realizado por Gardner y Lambert en 1959, cuyos resultados mostraron...” [TLing 2008 3, Pág. 23]. [“The first study that considered a group of variables was conducted by Gardner and Lambert in 1959, whose results showed ...”]

Type of Citation	Definition	Example
IS-Integral - Analogous (ISI-An)	When there is no direct reference to the author, but a co-referent is used, and the year of publication is missing.	“Siguiendo esta última línea de investigación, Johnson-Laird (1983) ha abordado el problema que él denomina ‘competencia inferencial’ y ‘actuación inferencial.’ Él niega la existencia de una ‘lógica mental” [TLingM 2008 4, pág. 12]. [“Following this latter line of research, Johnson-Laird (1983) has addressed the problem he calls ‘inferential competence’ and ‘inferential performance.’ He denies the existence of a ‘mental logic.”]
IS-Non-Integral - Incomplete (ISNI-I)	The author’s name is included, and the year of the text’s publication is missing.	“...integrar las ideas del procesamiento de la información (Stenberg) y el interaccionismo social (Vygotsky y Feuerstein) para identificar el potencial de aprendizaje.” [TLing 2008 3, pág. 40]. [“integrating ideas from information processing (Stenberg) and social interactionism (Vygotsky and Feuerstein) to identify learning potential.”]
IS-Non-Integral - Traditional (ISNI-T)	The author and the date of publication are included in between parentheses.	“...la orientación, el ángulo de visión y las características del usuario (Dillon, McKnight y Richardson, 1988).” [Tesis: TLingM2007 1, pág. 6]. [“the orientation, viewing angle, and user characteristics (Dillon, McKnight, & Richardson, 1988).”]

In Figure 7.3, we show the model of emerging citation in linguistics. Figure 7.4 illustrates each of the subtypes of citations in the model.

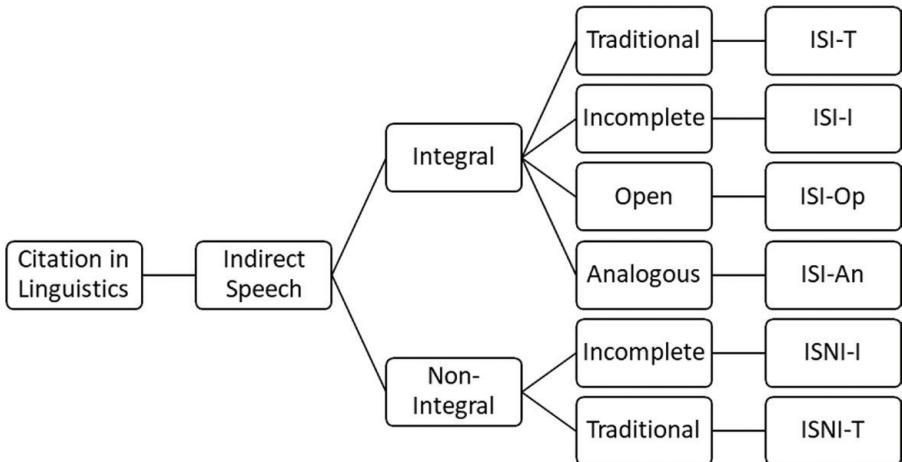


Figure 7.3 Model of Emerging Citation in Linguistics Theses

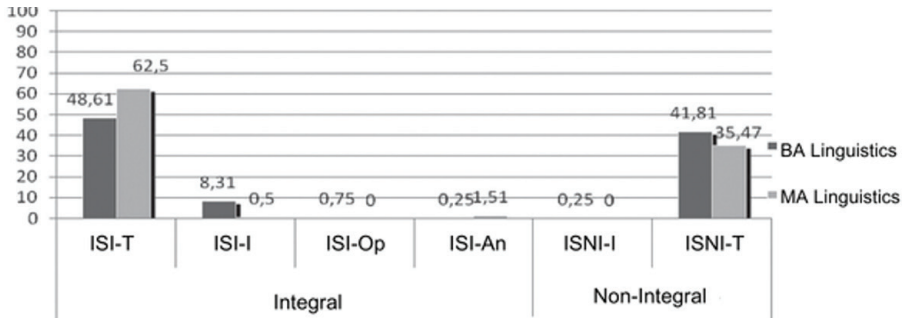


Figure 7.4 Comparison Between the Subtypes of Emerging Indirect Speech Citations in Linguistics' Undergraduate and MA Theses

Figure 7.4 illustrates that two of the emerging citation categories occur at a very low percentage in the undergraduate level and are nonexistent in the master's level. This has been the case for the ISI-Op citation (which was detected three times in only one undergraduate thesis) and for the ISI-I citation, which occurs in one other undergraduate thesis. Therefore, these two cases are unique forms of citation.

It was also observed that the ISNI-T is used in MA theses more than in undergraduate theses (62.5% vs 48.61%). This difference turns out to be statistically significant ($Z=4.512$; $p=0.00$). Following Swales (1990) and Sabaj and Páez (2011), it is possible to suggest that the writers of master's theses tend to show a weaker commitment or closeness to the message conveyed in the citation. Likewise, this type of indirect speech citation, as compared to the other emerging types, is the most frequent in both academic degrees; however, as has been pointed out, the percentage of use is higher in MA theses. In other words, among the indirect citations, which are argumentatively less strong than the direct citations because they are presented through the filter of the author's perspective, those with greater argumentative force are used in both academic degrees, but the percentage of use increases in master's theses. This suggests that, in linguistics, when researchers choose how to present citations in a communicative situation with the purpose of attributing knowledge to others, they distinctly choose the one with greater argumentative force to strengthen their work (Krestel, 2007; Ruiz, 2006; Smirnova, 2009).

Another citation type identified is ISI-T, which is significantly more frequent ($Z=2.062$; $p=0.039$) in the BA than in the MA corpus (41.81% versus 35.47%). Thus, we can assert that undergraduate researchers choose not to commit to the other voices presented, maybe because of a lower level of disciplinary knowledge compared to the master's students. In this sense, we might be able to conclude that the author introduces in their work non-integral

citations to attribute knowledge, but to which they do not necessarily commit or fully agree (Beke, 2008). From another perspective, non-integral citations are used to emphasize the message over its author (Castelló, 2007; Gallardo, 2010; Hyland, 2004a; Swales, 1990). Consequently, when combining integral and non-integral citations with direct and indirect citations, we can create a *continuum* across which the integral direct speech citation evidences a closer proximity to the author of the source text and the citation. On the other hand, non-integral indirect citations convey a further distance between text and author (Sabaj & Páez, 2011).

The citation ISNI-I is almost nonexistent in master's theses; in fact, it only occurred in a single thesis (four times). In undergraduate theses, this number increased to 33 and occurred in 4 of the 5 theses. According to Bolívar, Beke and Shiro (2010, p. 109), this happens when "the cited authors belonging to the discourse community' share the knowledge." Nonetheless, it is surprising to identify more confidence in shared knowledge in undergraduate theses than in MA theses. This may be due to students at lower educational levels assuming that readers and thesis evaluators already have vast knowledge.

Finally, we also identified the citation ISI-An. In this type of citation, we found a double paraphrasing of the citation and the author, since the author's name is replaced with a referent. This technique shows more manipulation of the citation on the part of the writer. This citation occurred six times more at the MA level than in the undergraduate theses.

Therefore, based on the analyses of Figures 7.1 and 7.2, it is worth recapping that in linguistics, subtypes of indirect speech emerged, while in philosophy, the opposite occurred; namely, all the citations that emerged were subtypes of direct speech. Following our theoretical framework, these results are interesting because the writers are the ones who decide how to position the other authors and how they include those to whom they attribute knowledge. This raises the question: why does a writer in a discipline and of a specific discourse community choose to attribute knowledge to another author in a particular way that's different from writers from another discourse community?

Figure 7.5 synthesizes the previous information so that the data can be visualized in a more globalized way. In the figure, we can see that in the undergraduate philosophy and in the undergraduate and postgraduate linguistics theses, the use of indirect speech citations is pervasive; that is, knowledge is attributed to other authors mostly by paraphrasing what they have said. Moreover, when analyzing each variable separately, starting from the academic level, it is possible to observe first that in the philosophy undergraduate theses, the number of indirect citations is almost double the amount of direct citations.

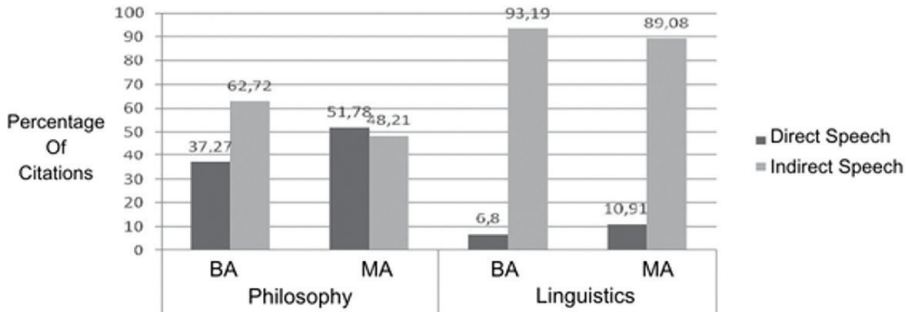


Figure 7.5 Comparison of the Use of Direct and Indirect Speech Between the Undergraduate and Master’s Theses in Linguistics and Philosophy

On the contrary, in the MA theses, the percentage of their use is almost the same, with a slight tendency favoring the use of direct citations. This may be due to the type of work done in philosophy, where, generally, the object of study is either a particular author or the specific topics addressed by that author, thus inviting the direct voice of the cited author.

In undergraduate linguistics theses, the use of indirect speech citations dwarfs the use of direct speech citations, whose frequency of use is quite limited (93.19% vs. 6.8%), this difference being statistically significant ($Z=25.145$; $p=0.00$). This predominance slightly decreases in the linguistics MA theses, although the gap is still very wide: 89.08% of use of indirect citations as compared to 10.91% of direct ones (a statistically significant difference: $Z=32.918$; $p=0.00$). This suggests that when researchers attribute knowledge to others, they make the citation suit their own communicative situation in order to maintain only one enunciation, one deictic center, and one speaker.

As for the comparison between disciplines, we noted that in both disciplines, the use of direct and indirect speech citations was twice as much at the MA level. In the undergraduate philosophy theses, the total number of citations was 719, while in the MA theses, it was 1,456 (66.9%). On the other hand, there were 426 total citations in the undergraduate linguistics theses and 889 (67.6%) in the MA theses. Therefore, we can assert that at the master’s level, writers from both disciplines try to support their ideas by bringing in the voices of other expert authors on the subject. In other words, the construction of disciplinary knowledge is supported by the contribution of other authors through attributing knowledge to experts rather than strictly through or from the researcher-writers themselves. The cited authors then act as justifiers (Hyland, 2004a); as a result, the more justification from experts, the more argumentative force is found in the thesis by means of the so-called

arguments of authority (Perelman & Olbrechts-Tyteca, 1989; Hyland, 2004a; Toulmin, 2007). In our study, argumentative soundness in linguistics is evidenced through attributing knowledge to others regarded as experts. Even though this happens in both disciplines, there is a difference between the two. In general terms, in philosophy theses, a citation is included but is not commented on. Conversely, in linguistics, every time a citation is included, it is commented on and put in relation to the work itself.

In this sense, we consider that in linguistics knowledge is not only attributed to others as a way of providing argumentative strength to one's own foundations, but there is also discursive interaction with the cited author. Consequently, in linguistics, the construction of knowledge is evidenced on the part of the one who employs the citation, drawing upon the prior ideas of other authors.

In summation, we can assert that the many different ways of citing help differentiate ways of constructing and communicating knowledge in diverse disciplinary communities. Likewise, although the selection of one or the other types of citation depends on the author's rhetorical purposes (Thompson, 2005), our findings indicate that such purposes are shared within a discipline; that is, there are common textual practices within one single disciplinary context of production.

First Person Use

Figure 7.6 shows the results of the analysis of the use of the first person in Spanish using verbal endings, pronouns, and adjectives typical of the grammatical first person. This will help complete the description of knowledge attribution in the theses on philosophy and linguistics at these two academic levels.

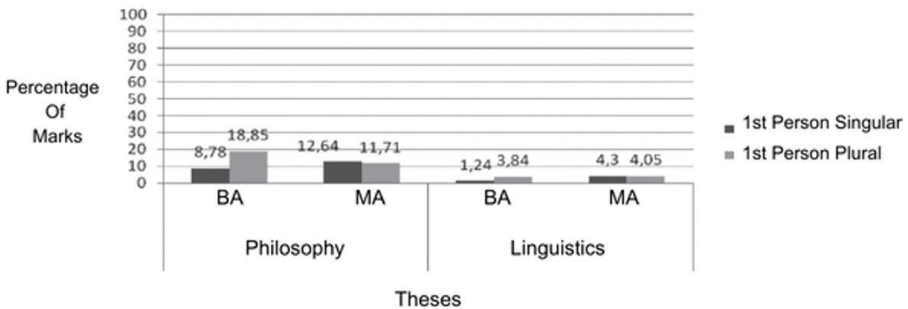


Figure 7.6 Use of the First Person in Undergraduate and Master's Linguistics and Philosophy Theses

Firstly, Figure 7.6 shows that in both disciplines the use of verbal forms in first-person plural predominates, which suggests that, in accord with the literature (Bolívar, Beke & Shiro, 2010; Montolío, 2000), authors seek the support of the scientific community to which they belong. In other words, the researcher attempts to demonstrate that there are other researchers who would say the same things they say. Every time researchers wish to attribute knowledge to themselves, they do not risk or compromise their personal reputation as they would if using the first-person singular. Instead, they join a group to seek the necessary support to engage since, as when using this first-person plural verbal form, they try to find legitimization within a group of experts. It is also worth remembering that all of the theses were single-authored. Secondly, first-person plural forms are often used to define concepts: “entendemos” (we believe), “hacemos referencia” (we refer to), among others. It also occurs when interpreting or comprehending some other linguistic aspects: “reconocemos” (we admit that); in other cases, these verbal forms structure the text and the procedures to be followed: “describiremos” (we will describe), “analizaremos” (we will analyze), among others. A closer analysis shows that all these concepts are actions that writers will perform, so it would make sense to use the first-person singular. However, instead, they prefer to use the first-person plural to protect their reputation and demonstrate support from their community of experts in order to gain more credibility for their arguments (Hyland, 2001).

With respect to the use of the first-person singular, which is an indicator of knowledge attribution to oneself, the data showed that it has a very low occurrence at both academic levels and in both disciplines. The use of the first-person singular in public gets compromised and, therefore, at risk; because of this, writers make use of this type of verbal form very few times. They would rather not expose, let alone compromise, their reputation as researchers (Calsamiglia & Tusón, 1999). This is probably because they do not feel they have the authority to do it, or simply because they favor objectivity rather than knowledge attribution to themselves.

Another salient feature was the occurrence of the first-person singular far more in philosophy than in linguistics theses. In fact, in linguistics theses, knowledge attribution to the authors themselves is almost nonexistent. In this sense, although the percentage of use of the first-person is quite low in both disciplines, proportionally, the authors of philosophy theses expose and put at risk their reputation much more than the linguistics authors. Thus, in the philosophy undergraduate theses the difference is 8.78% in philosophy versus 1.24% in linguistics, a statistically significant difference ($Z=74.52$; $p=0.00$); whereas in the philosophy MA theses is 12.64% versus 4.3% in

linguistics MA thesis, a variation that turns out to be statistically significant as well ($Z=82.75$; $p=0.00$). This suggests that philosophy writers compromise their reputations as researchers considerably more by attributing knowledge to themselves. What is more, undergraduate writers attribute knowledge to themselves much more than the master's writers. This conflicts with the findings from previous investigations (Samraj, 2008) that confirm that the higher the academic level, the more knowledge attribution to oneself is found.

Among the different ways of including the first-person, most frequently used in both disciplines and academic degrees is Sequence 6, i.e., the shortened first-person singular pronoun: "nos" [we/us]. This suggests, first, that objectivity is prioritized when presenting the data in all the analyzed theses and, second, the writer seeks the support from the scientific community to which they belong. It is interesting to note that in the linguistics MA theses, half of the first-person indicators are absent, which suggests that as the academic level increases, there is a greater degree of objectivity and a reduced inclusion of the author's own voice and self-attribution of knowledge.

Moreover, we found a more frequent use of the first person in philosophy as compared to linguistics, an idea that we previously commented on when analyzing the verbal forms of said grammatical persons. Overall, the analyses and discussion of the results suggest that there is a common pattern in both disciplines and academic levels.

Conclusions

Our first conclusion is that in the discourse communities from the social sciences and the humanities, there is evidence of statistical variation in the way writers attribute knowledge through citations in theses. This accords with Beke's (2008) claim that writers resort to various linguistic and discursive options in order to position their knowledge before a discourse community with established expectations. Consequently, in the philosophy theses, for instance, a variety of subtypes of direct speech citations emerged; on the contrary, in linguistics theses we found several types of indirect citations. Despite the differences in the use of citations, there is also evidence of similarities in knowledge attribution. For example, we found that knowledge attribution does not focus on the writers themselves, but that the writers instead favor others' knowledge and voices over their own. This is confirmed by the analysis of data from both disciplines and applies when the writers are master's students. At this academic level, writers might be more aware of the functions of others' voices in a text, so they might be using that knowledge in their advantage. One of these functions concerns the use of arguments by authority, whose

main purpose is to make the research findings more convincing. Through these types of citation practices, writers demonstrate knowledge of the topic and of academic conversations, thus giving credit to a greater body of knowledge at the master's level than at the undergraduate level. Similarly, using citations reinforces the writers' research since through the use of others' voices they communicate the theories that support their findings.

Another important point is that the thesis writers not only make use of citations to demonstrate knowledge of the topic, but also to construct knowledge. This is especially true in linguistics theses because the researchers use citations and then comment on their content, which emphasizes the argumentative force that the citations may have.

The emergence of citation categories seems to be a relevant finding because it yielded novel results. This is evidenced, for instance, in the philosophy theses. Samraj (2008) found that in philosophy theses, the knowledge attribution was almost completely given to the writers because the corpus they analyzed had very few or virtually no citations. This may be because Samraj's (2008) did not consider the citations that we included in our study under the label of Source Integral Citation, since they constitute the research object itself. However, in considering this category, the results of our study dramatically changed.

In regard to the use of first-person, the first-person plural is generally favored over the first-person singular, a choice that speaks of the writer's preference to give an account of the knowledge as part of a group whose main function is to legitimize the results presented. In other words, writers do not attribute knowledge to themselves in particular, but they attribute it to a group that they belong to and where knowledge is validated. From this, it follows that both in philosophy and linguistics, the writers engage less with the knowledge they convey; their stance toward knowledge attribution is taken on using a group approach, not on an individual basis.

Philosophy writers tend to attribute knowledge from a first-person perspective as compared to linguistics writers. In this sense, it can be asserted that among the philosophy theses, greater subjectivity is exhibited than in linguistics since authors of that discipline tend to communicate their theories, ideas, and results from a personal perspective or as an individual belonging to a group recognized by the discursive community.

Summing up, thesis writers turn to various discursive options to both construct disciplinary knowledge and persuade their readers that their work has validity and that it should be accepted.

This study contributes to linguistics and, particularly, to discourse analysis, because as we mentioned earlier, there are no significant developments in the

study of the analyzed genre. The existing studies, for example, Samraj (2008), focused on the writers' positionality only in theses introductions. In other studies such as Bolívar, Beke, and Shiro (2010), this positionality is described in a different genre, the scientific research article. Even though the analysis of the use of the first person has been studied a little further, it has not been studied as a mechanism that indicates knowledge attribution in the context of academic discourse.

Future research should consider the study and analysis of the ratio between the length of the works cited and the length of the thesis because, after reading the theses, we observed that a great portion of the philosophy theses in both academic levels contain a considerable number of sources, which in some cases occupy one or more pages. On the other hand, it is important to triangulate our findings with interviews of students and their thesis advisors in order to know, for example, whether the subtypes of emerging citations showing a very low percentage of occurrence are due to the students' lack of knowledge or to drafting errors or if they are actually indicative of the discursive community to which they belong. In this study, we adopted a descriptive stance; however, if the results were to have a pedagogical application, the emergence or rejection of certain subtypes on the part of the disciplinary community should be investigated. In that sense, we assert that any pedagogical application concerning thesis writing derived from this study possesses great value because it would consider the disciplinary differences.

References

- Beke, R. (2008). El discurso académico: la atribución del conocimiento en la investigación educativa [The academic discourse: Knowledge attribution in educational research]. *Núcleo*, 25, 13-35.
- Benveniste, E. (1999). *Problemas de lingüística general* [Problems of general linguistics]. Siglo XXI.
- Bhatia, V. (1993). *Analysing genre: Language use in professional settings*. Longman.
- Bhatia, V. (2002). A generic view of academic discourse. In J. Flowerdew (Ed.), *Academic Discourse* (pp. 21-39). Longman.
- Bolívar, A.; Beke, R., & Shiro, M. (2010). Las marcas lingüísticas del posicionamiento en las disciplinas: Estructuras, voces y perspectivas discursivas [Linguistic markers of positioning among disciplines: Structures, voices, and discursive perspectives]. In G. Parodi (Ed.), *Alfabetización Académica y Profesional en el Siglo XXI: Leer y escribir desde las disciplinas* (pp. 95-125). Planeta.
- Bunton, D. (2002). Generic moves in PhD thesis introductions. In J. Flowerdew (Ed.), *Academic discourse* (pp. 57-75). Pearson.
- Calsamiglia, H. y Tusón, A. (1999). *Las cosas del decir. Manual de análisis del discurso* [The things of saying: A handbook of discourse analysis]. Ariel.

- Carlino, P. (2005). *Escribir, leer y aprender en la universidad: una introducción a la alfabetización académica* [Writing, reading, and learning at university: an introduction to academic literacy instruction]. Fondo de Cultura Económica.
- Castelló, M. (Ed.) (2007). *Escribir y comunicarse en contextos científicos y académicos: conocimientos y estrategias* [Writing and Communicating in Scientific and Academic Contexts: Knowledge and Strategies]. Graó.
- Cherry, R.D. (1988). Ethos vs. persona: self-representation in written discourse. *Written Communication*, 5, 251-276.
- Descartes, R. (1999). *Discurso del método* [Discourse on the method]. Porrúa.
- Freedman, A. & Medway, P. (1994). Locating genre studies: antecedents and prospects. In A. Freedman & P. Medway (eds.), *Genre and the new rhetoric* (pp. 1-22). Taylor & Francis.
- Gallardo, S. (2010). La citación en tesis doctorales de Biología y Lingüística [Citation in biology and linguistics doctoral theses]. *Revista de Lenguaje y Cultura Íkala*, 15, 26, 21-34.
- Harwood, N. (2005). 'We do not have a theory. The theory I present here attempts to fill this gap': Inclusive and exclusive pronouns in academic writing. *Applied Linguistics*, 26, 343-375.
- Hasan, R. (1989). The structure of a text. In M. A. K. Halliday & R. Hasan (eds.), *Language, context, and text: Aspects of language in a social-semiotic perspective* (pp. 52-69). Oxford University Press.
- Hyland, K. (2001). Humble servants of the discipline? Self-mention in research articles. *English for Specific Purposes*, 20, 207-226.
- Hyland, K. (2002). Authority and invisibility: authorial identity in academic writing. *Journal of Pragmatics*, 34, 1091-1112.
- Hyland, K. (2004a). *Disciplinary discourses*. The University of Michigan Press.
- Hyland, K. (2004b). Disciplinary interactions: Metadiscourse in L2 postgraduate writing. *Journal of Second Language Writing*, 13, 133-151.
- Hyland, K. (2005). Stance and engagement: A model of interaction in academic discourse. *Discourse Studies*. 7 (2), 173-192.
- Kabatek, J. (2001). ¿Cómo investigar las tradiciones discursivas medievales? [How to investigate medieval discursive traditions?]. In D. Jacob & J. Kabatek (Eds.), *Lengua medieval y tradiciones discursivas en la Península ibérica: descripción gramatical—pragmática histórica—metodología* (pp. 97-132). Vervuert Iberoamericana.
- Kaiser, D. (2002). *Wege zum wissenschaftlichen Schreiben. Eine kontrastive Untersuchung zu studentischen Texten aus Venezuela und Deutschland* [Paths to academic writing: A contrastive study of student texts from Venezuela and Germany]. Stauffenburg.
- Koch, P. (1997). Diskurstraditionen. Zu ihren sprachtheoretischen Status und zu ihrer Dynamik. [Discourse traditions: Their linguistic theoretical status and dynamics]. In B. Frank, Th. Haye & D. Thopinke (eds.), *Gattungen mittelalterlicher Schriftlichkeit* (pp. 43-79). Narr.
- Koutsantoni, D. (2006). Rhetorical strategies in engineering research articles and research theses: Advanced academic literacy and relations of power. *Journal of English for Academic Purposes*, 5(1), 19-36.

- Krestel, R. (2007) Automatic analysis and reasoning on reported speech in newspaper articles. Master's Dissertation. Universität Karlsruhe. Karlsruhe.
- Kuo, C. (1999). The use of personal pronouns: Role relationships in scientific journal articles. *English for Specific Purposes*, 18, 121-138.
- Massi, M. (2005). Las citas en la comunicación académica escrita [Citations in written academic communication]. *Revista Iberoamericana de Educación*, 36(5), 1-8.
- Meza, P. & Martínez, J. (2011). *La atribución del conocimiento en los TFG de psicología y de literatura en los niveles académicos de licenciatura y magíster* [Knowledge attribution in bachelor's and master's theses in psychology and literature]. Cátedra Unesco para el Mejoramiento de la Calidad y Equidad de la Educación en América Latina con base en la Lectura y la Escritura Conference, Universidad del Norte, Barranquilla, Colombia.
- Montolío, E. (2000). *Manual de Escritura Académica* [Handbook of academic writing]. Ariel.
- Moyano, E. (2000). *Comunicar ciencia* [Communicating science]. Universidad Nacional de Lomas de Zamora.
- Pak-Tao, P. (2008). *Effective writing: A guide for social science students*. The Chinese University Press.
- Parodi, G., Ibáñez, R. & Venegas, R. (2010). Genres in PUCV-2006 Corpus of Academic and Professional Spanish: Criteria, definitions and examples. In G. Parodi (Ed.), *Genres in Spanish: Academic and professional connections* (pp. 39-68). Benjamins.
- Perelman, Ch. & Olbrechts-Tyteca, L. (1989). *Tratado de la argumentación. La nueva retórica* [Treatise on argumentation: The new rhetorics]. Gredos.
- Reyes, G. (1996). *Los procedimientos de cita: citas encubiertas y ecos* [Citation procedures: Covert citations and echoes]. Arco Libros.
- Ruiz, L. (2006). *Hechos pragmáticos del español* [Pragmatic facts of Spanish]. Universidad de Alicante.
- Sabaj, O. & Páez, D. (2011). Tipos y funciones de las citas en artículos de investigación de tres disciplinas [Types and functions of citations in research articles across three disciplines]. *Literatura y Lingüística*, 22, 117-134.
- Samraj, B. (2008). A discourse analysis of master's theses across disciplines with a focus on introductions. *Journal of English for Academic Purposes*, 7, 55-67.
- Santander, P. (2002). El acceso como mecanismo de control discursivo en el género informativo de la televisión chilena [Access as a mechanism of discursive control in the informative genre of Chilean television]. [Doctoral dissertation, Pontificia Universidad Católica de Valparaíso].
- Schlieben-Lange, B. (1983). *Traditionen des Sprechens. Elemente einer pragmatischen Sprachgeschichtsschreibung* [Traditions of speaking: Elements of a pragmatic history of language]. Kohlhammer.
- Smiko, T. (1992). *A writer's workbook*. St. Martin's Press.
- Smirnova, A. (2009). Reported speech as an element of argumentative newspaper discourse. *Discourse Communication* 3(1), 79-103.

- Swales, J. (1990). *Genre analysis. English in academia and research settings*. Cambridge University Press.
- Thompson, P. (2005). Points of focus and position: Intertextual reference in PhD theses. *Journal of English for Academic Purposes*, 4, 307-323.
- Toulmin, S. (2007). *Los usos de la argumentación* [The uses of argumentation]. Península.
- Venegas, R. (2008). La densidad informacional en registros diversos: Aproximación computacional utilizando el “Manchador de Textos” [Informational density in diverse registers: Computational approach using the “Text Spotter”]. *Revista de Lingüística Teórica y Aplicada (RLA)*, 46(2), 53-79.
- Venegas, R. (2010). Caracterización del macro-género trabajo final de grado en licenciatura y magíster: Desde los patrones léxico-gramaticales y retórico estructurales al andamiaje de la escritura académica [Characterization of the macro-genre final degree project in bachelor’s and master’s degrees: From lexicogrammatical and rhetorical-structural patterns to the scaffold of academic writing]. FONDECYT Research Report.
- Weissberg, R. & Buker, S. (1990). *Writing up research: Experimental research report writing for students of English*. Prentice Hall Regents.

Reflection

The development of this study and subsequent publications were motivated by different factors. Firstly, it is necessary to point out that knowledge attribution has been defined (in brief) as a mechanism that evidences the interaction that the author of a text, either oral or written, establishes with other authors by means of the use of citational mechanisms (e.g., direct, indirect, etc.). Clearly, there are ways to indicate to whom the creation of knowledge or knowledge of a subject is attributed; that is, the stance of the author of the text expressed through pronouns. There are also other strategies of the rhetorical-discursive type by means of which authors reveal their participation in the construction and communication of knowledge.

Citing allows authors to bring voices to the text using ideas and information from other authors through following the principle of acknowledging the work of others and their contributions to a certain field. Citing helps to retrieve and update other authors’ voices as well as the positionality of their ideas. Granted, the citation mechanism is not homogeneous; citations are a part of a broader system of attribution which is composed of various sources all of which show the many different ways the argumentative force and integration of knowledge that the author of a particular text constructs or communicates.

At the time this article was released, there were no other publications that gave an account of the sources employed for citing nor that empirically

investigated the citational techniques of theses in the humanities. What began as de-structured intuitions and observations grew into the construction of a corpus made up of BA theses written at a Chilean university. This corpus helped both confirm those initial observations and come up with new categories with which to investigate citational practices further. This study opened up the possibility of research into potentially new categories of citational mechanisms supported by and subordinated to the particular genre in which it takes place, a practice that, in turn, is defined according to the discipline, and the historic, social, and cultural contexts where it circulates or in the discursive community to which it belongs.

- René Venegas