CHAPTER II
LITERATURE REVIEW

This chapter presents a detailed review of the literature, beginning with a brief overview of linguistics, discourse analysis, and then followed by an exploration of the concept of metadiscourse within the field. It examines definitions, key theories, and practical applications of metadiscourse. The chapter also discusses various classifications of metadiscourse, highlighting different frameworks and models used for its analysis. In addition, it investigates the role of metadiscourse in academic writing, focusing on how it guides readers, organizes discourse, and conveys the writer's stance. Through this review, the chapter aims to provide a comprehensive understanding of metadiscourse in the context of academic communication.

A. Linguistics

A common definition of linguistics is the subjective speech system that people use to interact with one another.[12] Chaer provides an additional interpretation, saying that linguistics studies the fundamentals of language in general as well as a particular language.[13] Brinton went on to say that linguistics is the study of language systems. Semantics, phonology, syntax, morphology, and are the four components that make up the language system in this context. According to Brinton, The linguistic systems of these four components are different.[14]

According to a variety of expert viewpoints that explained above, Anjeria came to the conclusion that linguistics is a study that studies language and how language structures such as sounds, words, and sentences that can be generated in speaking and writing. The five branches of linguistics are pragmatics, morphology, syntax, semantics, and phonology. Understanding language theory is a prerequisite for studying linguistics. Understanding how language functions and how it is utilized, evolved, and maintained across time is possible through linguistics. To put

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[12] Edward Finegan, *Language: Its Structure and Use*, 5th ed. (University of Southern California, 2003).
[13] Abdul Chaer, *Linguistik Umum* (Jakarta, 2012).
[14] Laurel J. Brinton, *The Structure of Modern English: A Linguistic Introduction* (Universities of British Columbia, 2000).

it another way, linguistics is the fundamental field that studies language structure. Of the many branches and materials studied in linguistics, one of them is discourse analysis in which metadiscourse is studied.[15]

B. Discourse

Discourse is generally defined as language in use that extends beyond isolated sentences to form meaningful, coherent communication in spoken or written form. From a linguistic perspective, discourse involves the organization of language at levels higher than the sentence, such as conversations, texts, narratives, and interactions, where meaning is constructed through the relationship between language and context[16].

In a broader academic sense, discourse is not merely a neutral medium for conveying information, but a social practice that both reflects and shapes social reality. Gee argues that discourse encompasses ways of using language that enact identities, social roles, and relationships, making it inseparable from cultural and institutional contexts[17]. Thus, discourse plays a crucial role in how individuals understand the world and position themselves within it.

Furthermore, discourse is closely connected to power, ideology, and knowledge production. Scholars such as Fairclough emphasize that discourse contributes to the maintenance and transformation of social structures by legitimizing certain perspectives while marginalizing others. Through repeated patterns of language use, discourse can influence beliefs, norms, and values within a society[18].

In academic research, discourse analysis is employed to examine how meaning is constructed, negotiated, and contested through language. This approach allows researchers to explore not only what is said or written, but also how and why

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[15] Ella Anjeria, *The Analysis on Derivational and Inflectional Morphemes in Reading Texts of English Textbook for Senior High Schools Published by Ministry of Education and Culture* (Universitas Islam Riau, 2018)

[16] David Crystal, *A Dictionary of Linguistics and Phonetics*, 6th ed. (Oxford: Blackwell, 2008).

[17] James Paul Gee, *An Introduction to Discourse Analysis: Theory and Method*, 4th ed. (London: Routledge, 2014).

[18] Norman Fairclough, *Critical Discourse Analysis: The Critical Study of Language* (London: Longman, 1995).

particular forms of language are used in specific contexts. Consequently, discourse is a key concept for understanding the relationship between language, society, and meaning in various fields, including linguistics, sociology, education, and cultural studies.

Discourse can be categorized into several types based on its function, context, and communicative purpose. Each type of discourse employs specific linguistic features, including metadiscourse, which plays a crucial role in organizing text and guiding readers' interpretation.

C. Discourse Analysis

Discourse analysis is a qualitative research approach that examines language as a social practice and focuses on how meaning is constructed through spoken, written, or visual texts within specific contexts. It is concerned not only with what is said or written, but also with how and why language is used in particular ways. Through discourse analysis, researchers seek to understand how language reflects social values, ideologies, and power relations, and how it contributes to the construction of social reality. This approach views language as dynamic and context-dependent, emphasizing that meaning cannot be separated from the social, cultural, and institutional settings in which communication occurs.[19]

Discourse analysis plays an important role in academic research, especially in fields such as linguistics, education, sociology, media studies, and political science. By analyzing patterns of language use, researchers can uncover how identities are shaped, how knowledge is produced, and how dominance or inequality is maintained or challenged through discourse. For example, critical discourse analysis, as proposed by Fairclough and van Dijk, highlights how texts and talk may reproduce social power and ideological control, often in subtle ways. This makes discourse analysis a valuable tool for examining issues such as gender

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[19] Norman Fairclough, *Critical Discourse Analysis: The Critical Study of Language* (London: Longman, 1995)

representation, political communication, educational practices, and media narratives.[20]

D. Metadiscourse

In order to describe a method of language comprehension used as an attempt by a writer or speaker to influence the recipient's interpretation of a text, Zellig Harris first used the word "metadiscourse" in 1959. The idea has been expanded upon by authors like Vande Kopple[21] and Crismore.[22]

Vande Kopple defines metadiscourse as 'the linguistic material which does not add propositional information but which signals the presence of an author', and Crismore views metadiscourse as a form of authorial intrusion into the text, explicitly or implicitly instructing the reader on how to understand the text and how to view the author. Furthermore, Crismore et al. agreeing with Vande Kopple by define metadiscourse as a linguistic component in spoken or written discourse that does not add any propositional content but helps the listener or reader organize, interpret, or evaluate known information.[23]

On the other hand, Hyland argue that metadiscourse offers a framework for understanding communication as social engagement. It illuminates some aspects of how we project ourselves into our discourses by signalling writers/speakers attitude towards both the content and the audience of the text. With the judicious addition of metadiscourse, a writer is able not only to transform what might otherwise be a dry or difficult text into coherent, reader-friendly prose, but also to relate it to a given context and convey their personality, credibility, audience-sensitivity and relationship to the message.[24]

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[20] Teun A. van Dijk, *Discourse as Social Interaction* (London: Sage Publications, 1997); Ruth Wodak and Michael Meyer, *Methods of Critical Discourse Analysis*, 2nd ed. (London: Sage Publications, 2009).
[21] W. J. Vande Kopple, "Some Explanatory Discourse on Metadiscourse," *College Composition and Communication* 36 (1985): 82–93
[22] A. Crismore, *Talking with Readers: Metadiscourse as Rhetorical Act* (New York: Peter Lang Publishers, 1989).
[23] Hyland, *Metadiscourse*. 2005
[24] Ibid

E. Metadiscourse Markers

Metadiscourse markers are linguistic devices that writers use to organize their texts, guide readers, and express their stance toward both the content and the audience. Metadiscourse does not add new information to the propositional content of a text; instead, it helps writers manage the interaction between themselves and their readers by making the structure of the text clear and by signaling attitudes, evaluations, and levels of commitment. In academic writing, metadiscourse markers play a crucial role in improving coherence, clarity, and reader engagement.[25]

It should be noted that discourse markers and metadiscourse are different. Fairclough[26] describes discourse as a social practice that plays an important role in shaping and reflecting social structures, ideology, and power in society. In his view, discourse analysis does not only consider linguistic structures at the phonological, grammatical, and lexical levels, but also how texts function within socio-cultural practices, including the system of turn-taking and the generic structure of communicative activities. Thus, discourse is seen as a means to understand the relationship between language and its social context.

Meanwhile, as mentioned above, Hyland introduced the concept of metadiscourse as a framework for understanding communication as social engagement. He emphasizes that metadiscourse allows writers to project themselves into the text through linguistic cues that indicate their attitude toward both the content and the audience. Through the proper use of metadiscourse markers, writers can make a text more coherent, easier to understand, and simultaneously demonstrate their personality, credibility, and sensitivity to the audience.[27] In other words, while discourse according to Fairclough focuses on how language functions in a broader social context, metadiscourse according to Hyland highlights how writers manage interpersonal and textual relationships within the text itself.[28]

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[25] Hyland. *Metadiscourse.* 2005
[26] Fairclough, *Discourse and Social Change* (Cambridge: Polity, 1992).
[27] Ibid
[28] Ibid

Although discourse itself also contains discourse markers, words and phrases like *but, so, then,* and *therefore* that connect ideas and maintain the flow of the text,[29] these markers primarily serve the logical structure of the text rather than guiding the reader or reflecting the writer's stance. Some of these words can also have function as metadiscourse markers depending on context: when a marker signals the writer's attitude, emphasizes important points, or directs the reader's attention, it operates at the metadiscursive level.[30] This distinction clarifies that while discourse markers are intrinsic to the structure and cohesion of discourse, metadiscourse markers function to manage the writer-reader relationship and interaction within the text.

Another difference is, although discourse markers and metadiscourse markers both help organize communication, their scope and use are different. Discourse markers are more flexible because they can appear in both spoken and written communication. They function to connect ideas, signal relationships between sentences, and manage the flow of conversation. Schiffrin identifies items such as *oh, well, now, then, you know,* and *I mean* as typical discourse markers that perform important functions in conversation.[31] In contrast, metadiscourse is predominantly found in written, especially academic text discourse, although it may also appear in spoken contexts where speakers reflect on or organize their own speech.[32]

Hyland divides metadiscourse into two categories: interactional and interactive. According to Hyland, there are a number of subgroups within interactive and interactional metadiscourse. A writer's awareness of his audience is the focus of interactive metadiscourse. From the author's point of view, interactional metadiscourse involves incorporating the reader into the conversation and then letting them reply and contribute by providing propositional knowledge,

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[29] M. A. K. Halliday and Ruqaiya Hasan, *Cohesion in English* (London: Longman, 1976).
[30] Ibid
[31] Deborah Schiffrin, *Discourse Markers* (Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 1987).
[32] A. Ädel, *Metadiscourse in L1 and L2 English: A Global Perspective* (John Benjamins Publishing, 2006).

orientation, and intention concerning the reader.[33] The following is a further explanation regarding the two categories of metadiscourse:

1. Interactive Metadiscourse

An interactive resource enables the author to help the reader correctly perceive the content by managing the information flow. They focus on structuring discourse in a way that anticipates readers' prior knowledge and reflects the author's judgment of what must be made clear in order to limit and direct what may be gleaned from the text.[34] These resources include the following:

a. Transitions

Transitions comprise an array of devices, mainly conjunctions, used to mark additive, contrastive, and consequential steps in the discourse, as opposed to the external world. In other word, Zemach and Rumisek claim that transitional words and phrases are employed in English to link thoughts and sentences together and provide a connection between them. Based on each transition's purpose, the following table lists common transitions that Zemach and Rumisek recommend using.[35]

Table 2.4
Common transition markers based on its purpose

Chronology	Comparison	Contrast	Additional Information	Example	Cause and Effect	Concluding Ideas
before after then since first, second while when	likewise compared to similarly	however on the other hand but yet in spite of in contrast eventhou gh instead	and also in addition in fact furthermore moreover	for example in general generally for instance specifical ly in particular	therefore so thus as a result because	In conclusion in summary finally to summarise

The following are examples of transitions in sentence:

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[33] Hyland, *Metadiscourse*. 2005.
[34] ibid
[35] Dorothy E. Zemach and Lisa A. Rumisek, *Academic Writing from Paragraph to Essay* (Oxford: Macmillan Publishers Limited, 2005).

1. **Furthermore**: "The study shows significant results; furthermore, it highlights areas for future research."
2. **In addition**: "In addition to improving literacy rates, the program also fosters critical thinking skills."
3. **Moreover**: "The findings are compelling; moreover, they align with previous research."
4. **However**: "The theory is widely accepted; however, it has faced significant criticism."
5. **On the other hand**: "Some researchers advocate for traditional methods; on the other hand, others support innovative approaches."
6. **As a result**: "The experiment was poorly designed; as a result, the data collected was unreliable."
7. **Therefore**: "The evidence supports the hypothesis; therefore, we can conclude that further studies are warranted."
8. **Consequently**: "The team worked diligently to meet the deadline; consequently, they completed the project ahead of schedule."

b. Frame Markers.

Text boundaries and schematic text structure components are marked by frame markers, which are interactive metadiscourse markers. There markers signaling words for sequencing, labeling stages, proclaiming aims, and changing topics are among the four subcategories of frame markers. The list of frame markers that Hyland and Zou[36] supplied is as follows. which are grouped into a table by Gregorio P. Ebron, Jr.[37] in their article:

Table 2.5
Common frame makers and its function

Frame Markers	Examples of common Frame Markers
Sequencing	Finally, First/ Firstly, First of all, Last/ lastly, Next thus, so, there are three reasons for this (etc.) þ listing (a,b,c, etc) Second/Secondly subsequently Then Third/Thirdly to begin, to start with
Label stages	in conclusion, in short, in sum, in summary, on the whole overall, so far, thus far, to conclude, to repeat, to sum up, to summarize, all in all, at this point,

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[36] Hang Zou and Ken Hyland, "Reworking Research: Interactions in Academic Articles and Blogs," *Discourse Studies* (2019).
[37] Gregorio Ebron Jr., Romualdo Mabuan, and Shirley Dita, A Corpus-Based Investigation of Occurrences and Functions of Frame Markers in Filipino University Students' COVID-19 Written Narratives, in *Proceedings of the 37th Pacific Asia Conference on Language, Information and Computation*, 570–581 (Hong Kong, China: Association for Computational Linguistics, 2023)

	at this stage, by far, for the moment, in a word, in brief.
Announce goals	objective, purpose, seek to, to better understand, want to, wish to, would like to, (in) this chapter (in) this part (in) this section aim desire to, focus, goal, intend to, intention.
Shift topic b	resume, return, to revisit, shift to, so, to look more closely, turn to, , well, with regard to, back to digress, in regard to, move on, now, regarding.

Below are the examples of frame markers:

1. Sequencing Frame Markers

   "**First**, we will examine the historical context of the issue."
   "**Next,** I will discuss the implications of these findings."
2. Stage Labeling Frame Markers

   "**In this section**, I will outline the methodology used in the study."
   "**To summarize**, the key findings are as follows."
3. Goal Announcing Frame Markers

   "**The aim** of this paper is to explore..."
   "**My goal** here is to demonstrate that..."
4. Topic Shifting Frame Markers

   "Now, let us **turn to** the next point."
   "**moving on** to a different aspect..."

c. Endophoric Markers

Endophoric markers are markers that direct readers to other texts or utterances within the text, according to Hyland.[38] Endophoric markers are phrases that designate various speech components. Below are Examples of Endophoric Markers:

"**As noted above**, the results indicate a significant correlation between variables."
"**See Figure 2** for a graphical representation of the data."
"The methodology **outlined earlier provides** a framework for this analysis."
"This study builds on the findings discussed **in the previous chapter**."
"**In summary**, the evidence presented supports our hypothesis."
"To elaborate on this point, **refer to Table 1**."

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[38] Hyland, *Metadiscourse*. 2005.

d. Evidentials.

Hyland claimed that thismarkers aids in giving the speech listener evidence regarding a discourse that they believe to be reliable. When writing, the writer does this to win the reader's trust.[39] These markers typically make reference to other people's or even an expert's statements in order to support the writers's position. Below are Examples of Evidentials

> "**According to** Johnson (2020), climate change is accelerating at an unprecedented rate."
> "**As stated by** Willian (2019), effective communication is essential for successful teamwork."
> "**The phenomenon was mentioned** by Kim (2021) in her recent study on social behavior."
> "**As noted in a previous study**, there is a significant correlation between exercise and mental health (Smith, 2020)."
> "**It has been reported** that urban areas are experiencing higher temperatures than rural areas (David, 2018)."

e. Code Glosses.

According to Hyland, this marker is about how language is used, like what words the speaker or writer picks to guide the audience's understanding.[40] Code glosses have function to provide additional information by elaborating and clarifying the propositional meaning previously conveyed. In other words, code glosses help ensure that the reader fully understands the writer's intended message. Examples of code glosses include *that is, for example, such as,* etc. below are Examples of Code Glosses:

> "The process is quite simple; **that is**, it involves just three main steps."
> "The results were inconclusive. **In other words**, we could not determine a clear outcome from the data."
> "Many fruits are high in vitamin C; **for example**, oranges and strawberries."
> "There are several factors to consider; **namely**, cost, time, and resources."
> There are various programming languages available, **such as** Python, Java, and C++."
> "The experiment yielded no significant results. **This means that** our hypothesis was not supported."

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[39] Ibid
[40] Ibid

2. Interactional Metadiscourse

Interactional metadiscourse serves to convey the author's persona or self-image and establish a tone that aligns with academic conventions and customs within a field. The focus is on the relationship between the author and the reader. In this context, metadiscourse refers to the author's efforts to regulate the extent to which their personality or personal attitudes are expressed in the text, as well as how they establish appropriate relationships with facts, arguments, and their audience. In other words, metadiscourse indicates the level of intimacy, expression of attitudes, conveyed commitment, and reader engagement within the writing. (Hyland, 2004) They include:

a. Hedges.

According to Hyland, hedges are a type of epistemic modality that expresses a reluctance to make a commitment to a notion plain and total. For example, auxiliary verbs, epistemic adverbs, epistemic adjectives, and lexical verbs like might, seem, possible, etc., all demonstrate it.[41] Below are the Examples of Hedges:

> "The results **may** indicate a correlation between sleep and academic performance."
> "Students **often** struggle with time management during exams."
> "The findings **suggest** that further research is needed."
> "It is **possible** that economic factors contributed to the decline."
> "**It seems** that there is a trend towards remote work."
> "**Some** researchers believe that climate change impacts biodiversity."

b. Boosters.

Hyland asserted that boosters let the writer make claims or arguments whenever they want to avoid conversation partners or reader interrupting them.[42] Below are Examples of Boosters in sentence:

> "**Clearly**, the data supports the hypothesis that increased exercise leads to better health outcomes."
> "The results **definitely** indicate a strong correlation between study habits and academic performance."
> "**Undoubtedly**, climate change poses a significant threat to global ecosystems."
> "**It is clear that** technological advancements have transformed communication methods."

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[41] Ken Hyland, "Persuasion and Context: The Pragmatics of Academic Metadiscourse," *Journal of Pragmatics* 30 (1998): 437–455.
[42] Hyland, *Metadiscourse.* 2005.

"We **must** recognize the importance of mental health in educational settings."

"**Certainly**, further research is needed to explore these findings in depth."

c. Attitude Markers.

The speaker's sentiments and attitudes on the message they are conveying through their words are displayed by attitude markers. These marker are used by writers or speaker to convey their viewpoint to the audience and encourage participation by having them react to the material. [43] Below are Examples of Attitude Markers:

"**Unfortunately**, the project was delayed due to unforeseen circumstances."
"**Surprisingly**, the results contradicted our initial hypothesis."
"**I believe that** education is crucial for societal progress."
"**Clearly**, more research is needed to draw definitive conclusions."
"**I think** this approach could lead to significant improvements in efficiency."
"**Admittedly**, there are some limitations to this study."
"**Naturally**, we expect some resistance to change from long-standing employees."

d. Engagement Markers.

According to Hyland, engagement markers have two primary functions. By addressing the reader while arguing with reader pronouns like you, your, etc., and interjections like "you may notice," it first acknowledges the necessity of the reader's expectations. Furthermore, it entails the audience's rhetorical positioning, participation in the discussion, and direction of the readers toward the desired interpretation. Questions, instructions (notice, consider, must, should, etc.), and knowledge-sharing references are how these markers are carried out.[44] Below are Examples of Engagement Markers in sentence:

"As **you** can see, the results indicate a significant trend." (The use of "you" directly addresses the reader, making them feel included in the discussion.)
"**Consider** the implications of these findings for future research." (The imperative "consider" invites the reader to actively think about the information presented.)
"What does this mean for our understanding of climate change?" (This rhetorical question engages the reader by prompting them to think critically about the topic.)
"**As we know**, exercise is beneficial for mental health." (The phrase "as we know" assumes a shared understanding between the writer and reader, fostering a sense of community in knowledge.)

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[43] Ibid

[44] Hyland, *Metadiscourse*. 2005.

> **"You should** take these factors into account when making your decision."
> (This directive clearly instructs the reader on what actions they might consider based on the information provided.)
> **"Let's** explore how these theories apply to our daily lives." (The use of "let's" includes both the writer and reader in the exploration, promoting collaboration in thought.)

e. Self-mentions.

According to Firdaus, The use of possessive adjectives and first-person pronouns to explicitly refer to the author's presence is known as self-mention.[45]Additionally, by using first-person pronouns to indicate personal projection, the author's presence may offer a potent tool for self-representation. Below are example of self mention:

> **"I** argue that the findings support a new understanding of social behavior."
> "In **my research**, I found that there is a significant relationship between diet and health."
> **"We** conducted a survey to gather data on public opinion regarding climate change."
> "In this paper, **I** will present my findings from several years of research."
> **"I believe** that further studies are necessary to fully understand this phenomenon."

3. The Function of Metadiscourse

Metadiscourse plays a crucial role in helping writers organize their texts and guide readers in understanding logical relationships and interactions within academic writing. The primary functions of metadiscourse are divided into two main categories: interactive metadiscourse, which focuses on structuring the discourse and sequencing ideas, and interactional metadiscourse as explained before, which reflects the writer's engagement with the reader through expressions of stance, hedging, and emphasis. The following table presents a comparison of the functions of metadiscourse types according to the theoretical frameworks of

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[45] Salwa Fadila Firdaus, Ypsi Soeria Soemantri & Susi Yuliawati, A Corpus-Based Study of Self-Mention Markers in English Research Articles, *International Journal of Language Teaching and Education* 5, no. 2 (2021): 37–46.

Hyland[46] and Crismore et al[47], two prominent scholars widely referenced in metadiscourse research.

Table 2. 6
The functions of metadiscourse types based on Hyland and Crismore et al.

Metadiscourse Type	Subtype	Hyland (2005) – Function	Crismore et al. (1993) – Function
Interactive Metadiscourse	Transition markers	Signal logical relations between clauses and sentences (contrast, addition, cause-effect)	Indicate logical connections (e.g., however, therefore)
	Frame markers	Label discourse stages and sequence arguments	Mark discourse structure and sequencing (e.g., first, in conclusion)
	Endophoric markers	Refer to other parts of the text (e.g., see above)	Refer to internal textual elements
	Evidentials	Refer to external sources or authorities (e.g., according to X)	Cite or reference external sources
	Code glosses	Clarify or elaborate on propositions (e.g., namely, in other words)	Explain or clarify ideas
Interactional Metadiscourse	Hedges	Express uncertainty or caution (e.g., might, possibly)	Soften claims and express tentativeness
	Boosters	Express certainty or emphasis (e.g., clearly, indeed)	Strengthen claims
	Attitude markers	Convey writer's feelings or attitudes (e.g., surprisingly)	Express emotions or evaluations
	Self-mentions	Explicit reference to author(s) (e.g., I, we)	Mark author presence or voice
	Engagement markers	Address reader directly (e.g., consider, note that)	Include reader in discourse

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[46] Hyland, *Metadiscourse.* 2005.

[47] A. Crismore, R. Markkanen, and M. Steffensen, Metadiscourse in Persuasive Writing: A Study of Texts Written by American and Finnish University Students, *Written Communication* 10 (1993): 39–71

F. Academic Writing

Academic writing is the process of expressing ideas, arguments, and analyses in a structured, formal, and evidence-based manner.[48] It plays a crucial role in higher education as a means of knowledge construction and scholarly communication. Unlike informal or creative writing, academic writing follows specific conventions and aims to inform, argue, or persuade using well-researched evidence.[49]

Academic writing benefits both writers and readers. Through writing, students learn to organize and communicate complex ideas logically and effectively. Moreover, it naturally fosters critical thinking skills. At Tidar University, for instance, students who successfully publish their work in nationally recognized journals receive higher grades in the academic writing class. This opportunity encourages them to produce high-quality research papers related to literature, linguistics, or education.

However, the process of academic writing is not always easy. It presents numerous challenges that may stem from both internal and external factors. Lesmana and Ariffin identified vocabulary, grammar, and sentence structure as the main sources of internal difficulties among students. These three elements are interconnected weakness in any one of them can negatively affect the quality of a student's writing. This demonstrates that academic writing is a complex process requiring continuous problem-solving rather than a quick or straightforward task.[50]

Academic writing encompasses a wide range of forms and genres. Regardless of form, it is typically characterized by an objective tone, reliance on research-based evidence, and communication aimed at a critical and knowledgeable audience. While academic writers primarily addressed to the academic community, their work can also influence broader fields such as journalism and public discourse.

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[48] Ramadayanti Yovie, *The Use of Estafet Writing Method to Improve the Students Writing Ability at the Eleventh Grade of SMA Muhammadiyah 1 Ponorogo* (S1 thesis, Universitas Muhammadiyah Ponorogo, 2019).

[49] A. Ahmad, *Principles of Academic and Scientific Writing* (Academic Press, 2020)

[50] Lesmana, Nadella & Ariffin, Kamisah. Problems in Writing Scholarly Articles in English among Indonesian EFL Post-Graduate Students. *International Journal of Academic Research in Progressive Education and Development*. (2020): 9

According to Ahmad, effective academic writing is well-prepared, objective, and clear about the significance of the topic, providing enough detail for others to replicate findings. A good paper also employs appropriate academic rhetoric while avoiding overly generic or vague language.[51]

Writing styles differ among individuals. Native and non-native English writers often exhibit distinct writing habits and rhetorical patterns when composing academic texts in English. The type of publication also influences the level of formality and linguistic precision required; for example, reputable journals demand more refined academic language.[52]

Moreover, college assignments often labeled as "academic writing tasks" can more accurately be viewed as "literacy tasks" because they require more than grammatical accuracy or paragraph coherence. They demand critical literacy, research abilities, comprehension of complex texts, familiarity with disciplinary concepts, and skills in synthesizing, evaluating, and responding critically to new information within limited timeframes.[53]

In summary, academic writing serves as both a learning tool and an evaluative measure of students' understanding and analytical abilities. It reflects the writer's mastery of disciplinary knowledge, ability to think critically, and skill in communicating ideas effectively. Researchers must therefore be familiar with the specific conventions and terminology of their respective fields and be capable of producing various academic genres. such as essays, research reports, theses, and dissertations that systematically and objectively convey information and arguments.

G. Systemic Literature Review

A Systematic Literature Review (SLR) identifies, evaluates, interprets and analyses the available research findings related to formulated research questions, topic area or phenomenon. The main purpose of conducting a systematic review is

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[51] A. Ahmad, *Principles of Academic and Scientific Writing*.
[52] L. Lennie Irvin, *Writing Spaces: Readings on Writing, Volume 1* (Parlor Press, 2010).
[53] Ibid

to construct a general vision, gather evidence of specific questions and give a summary of the literature.[54]

Unlike traditional narrative reviews, which may rely on the author's selective interpretation, an SLR follows a transparent and replicable process designed to minimize bias and ensure comprehensive coverage of existing studies. This process typically includes developing a detailed protocol that specifies the research question, search strategy, inclusion and exclusion criteria, and methods for data extraction and analysis. Through this systematic procedure, researchers are able to collect relevant literature from multiple databases, critically appraise the methodological quality of the studies, and synthesize findings in a way that provides a clear overview of what is known and unknown within a field.[55] As a result, SLRs have become a cornerstone of evidence-based research, offering not only a foundation for theoretical understanding but also practical guidance for future investigations.[56]

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[54] Shahrol et al., A Systematic Literature Review on Teaching and Learning English Using Mobile Technology, *International Journal of Information and Education Technology* 10, no. 9 (2020): 709–714

[55] M. Petticrew and H. Roberts, *Systematic Reviews in the Social Sciences: A Practical Guide* (Oxford: Blackwell Publishing, 2006).

[56] G. Lame, Systematic Literature Reviews: An Introduction, *Proceedings of the Design Society: International Conference on Engineering Design* 1, no. 1 (2019): 1633–1642.