INSTITUTIONEN FÖR SPRÅK OCH LITTERATURER

CHALLENGES IN ACADEMIC WRITING FOR SECOND LANGUAGE STUDENTS

Focusing students with Somali background

Christina El Saidi

Uppsats/Examensarbete: 30 credits

Program och/eller kurs: African Languages master's essay, Independent project

Nivå: Second cycle
Termin/år: Spring term 2020

Handledare: Prof. Laura J. Downing

Examinator: Prof. Anna Forné

Rapport nr: xx (ifylles ej av studenten/studenterna)

Abstract

Uppsats/Examensarbete: 30 credits

Program och/eller kurs: African Languages master's essay, Independent project

Nivå: Second cycle
Termin/år: Spring term 2020

Handledare: Prof. Laura J. Downing

Examinator: Prof. Anna Forné

xx (ifylles ej av studenten/studenterna

Rapport nr:

Academic writing, Higher Education, Somali, language and culture,

language and knowledge formation, second language acquisition,

Nyckelord: language support

The aim of this thesis is to investigate and describe what specific challenges second language students in general and students with Somali background in particular, face in Higher Education in Sweden. The aim is also to argue for what type of support that would benefit this group of students most.

The investigation and description of the challenges are founded, partly on theories on how language and culture, and language and knowledge formation are linked and intertwined, partly on theories on second language acquisition. In addition, there is a short description of the educational level within the Somali community in Sweden in comparison with the level of education for other groups, and a short description of Somali in comparison with Swedish.

To reach the aim, 17 texts written by students at the University of Gothenburg were analysed. The texts written by students with Somali background were in focus, while the texts written by students with Swedish background were used for comparison. The texts were analysed on three different levels, global levels, local levels and regarding referencing, against the background of the theories on language and culture, language and knowledge formation and second language acquisition.

The results show that the students with Somali background benefit from the same type of support that benefit students with Swedish background. However, the results indicate that it is especially important for the success of students with Somali background that the academic discourse and the demands of the academic writing are made explicit, which is underlined by the finding that these students do not seem to benefit from previous experiences in Higher Education. In addition, the results show that the type of support that benefits these students most is language support regarding vocabulary and grammar.

Contents

1. Introduction	1
1.1 Aim and research issues	1
1.1.1 Aim	1
1.1.2 Research issues	2
2. Challenges in Academic Writing for Second Language Students	3
2.1 Level of education in Sweden	3
2.2 Language and culture	6
2.3 Language and knowledge formation	8
2.4 Second language acquisition	11
2.5 The Somali language in comparison with Swedish	15
2.5.1 Language relationship and language history	15
2.5.2 Language structure	16
2.6 Summary	24
3. The Study	26
3.1 Methodology	26
3.1.1 Data collection	26
3.1.2 Data analysis	27
3.2 Information about the participants	28
3.2.1 Participants with Somali background	28
3.2.2 Participants with Swedish background	31
3.3 Texts	34
3.3.1 Analysis of the texts written by the participants with Swedish background	36
3.3.2 Analysis of the texts written by the participants with Somali background	39
3.4 Summary	46
4. Result and Analysis	47
4.1 Language challenges in texts written by students with Somali background	47
4.2 A comparison between language challenges in Swedish academic texts written by Somali and Swedish background	students with 48
4.3 The impact time in Sweden has on students' with Somali background achievement writing in Swedish	
4.4 How students with Somali background benefit from previous experience in Higher	Education 54
4.5 The type of writing support that benefits students with Somali background	56
4.6 Summary	62
5. Discussion and Conclusion	63
6. References	68
7. Appendices	74

Lists of Figures and Tables

List	οf	fia	ures
LIUL	O.	119	ui co

Figure 2: Acquisition and learning in second language production
Figure 4: Somali vowel chart
Figure 5: Swedish vowel chart
List of tables
Table 1: Level of education in Sweden 2018
Table 2: Percentage first year students with a non-Swedish background at the HEIs with the largest number of firs year students, school year 2013/2014
Table 3: Percentage first year students with a non-Swedish background at the HEIs with the largest number of firs year students, school year 2016/2017
Table 4: Level of education of in Sweden 2018
Table 5: The representation and pronunciation of the Somali consonants
Table 6: Personal pronouns in Somali
Table 7: Independent possessive pronouns in Somali
Table 8: The four basic prepositions in Somali
Table 9: Word order in independent clauses in Swedish24
Table 10: A summary of the participants' with Somali background years in Sweden and experiences in HE, and type of bilingualism
Table 11: A summary of the participants' with Swedish background experiences in HE and reasons for contacting ASK
Table 12: Challenges on the global levels in SvTexts:1-9
Table 13: Challenges on the local levels in SvText:1-9
Table 14: Challenges concerning referencing in SvText:1-9
Table 15: Challenges on the global and local levels, and concerning referencing in the SvTexts
Table 16: Challenges on the global levels in SoTexts:1-8
Table 17: Challenges on the local levels in SoTexts:1-8.
Table 18: Challenges concerning referencing in SoText:1-8
Table 19: Challenges on the local and global levels, and concerning referencing in the SoTexts
Table 20: Challenges on the global levels in SoText:2, SoText:3, SoText:4, SoText:6, SoText:7 and SoText:85
Table 21: Challenges on the local levels in SoText:2, SoText:3, SoText:4, SoText:6, SoText:7 andSoText:852
Table 22: Challenges on the local levels in SoText:2, SoText:3, SoText:4, SoText:6, SoText:7 and SoText:852
Table 23: Challenges in referencing in SoText:2, SoText:3, SoText:4, SoText:6, SoText:7 and SoText:8, and number of years the participants have lived in Sweden

1. Introduction

According to Sweden's Act of Higher Education, the higher education in Sweden is obliged to actively attract and include students from all societal groups (SFS 1992:1434). To achieve this, Higher Education Institutions (HEI) in Sweden focus on broadening recruitment and broadening participation which involves the recruitment of e.g. men, persons who come from non-academic homes, persons with a non-Swedish background, and persons who live outside the urban areas (Göteborgs universitet, 2016). To meet the needs of students included in the broadening recruitment, the University of Gothenburg has taken measures to support the students' academic language and writing. The university has, for example designed two courses, building on each other, for newly arrived immigrants who are authorised to study in the Higher Education (HE) in Sweden, except regarding Swedish and English, and want to continue studying in Sweden (Göteborgs universitet, 2020a, Göteborgs universitet, 2020b). Furthermore, the broadening recruitment, and thus the need to support students' academic writing and reading has led to the development and establishing of writing centres at most HEIs (Lennartsson-Hokkanen, 2016). The Unit for Academic Language (ASK) at the University of Gothenburg is a case in point. One of ASKs aims is to increase the teachers' awareness of how language development in general and academic writing in particular can contribute to the students' knowledge building (Enheten för akademiskt språk, 2018). Another of ASKs aims is to contribute to creating structures that facilitates the use of language and writing as a tool for learning for students. However, supporting students' academic language and writing grammatically and orthographically is not a part of ASKs assignment or the assignments of other supporting activities at the University of Gothenburg. Thus, there does not seem to be enough or adequate support for students with a non-Swedish background in need of support regarding their Swedish academic writing (Fernsten & Reda, 2011).

1.1 Aim and research issues

1.1.1 Aim

The aim of this thesis is to investigate what challenges students with a non-Swedish background, in particular students with a Somali background face in their studies in Higher Education, specifically at the University of Gothenburg, and what kind of writing support they would benefit from the most. The aim is also to see whether these students can benefit from previous experiences from Higher Education studies, in Sweden or any other country. The study will hopefully, contribute to the understanding of this understudied topic, and to the improvement of the writing support offered to students with a Somali background.

1.1.2 Research issues

To reach the aim, the following research issues have been investigated.

- What challenges do students with Somali background encounter in their Swedish academic writing at the University of Gothenburg and how do these problems differ from the challenges students with Swedish background face?
- Does the time, students with Somali background have been in Sweden, have impact on their achievements in academic writing in Swedish?
- Can students with Somali background, benefit from previous experience in Higher Education studies in Sweden and other countries, in their academic writing in Swedish?
- What type of writing support would benefit students with Somali background the most?

To reach the aim and to answer the research issues, this thesis begins with a background description of the challenges in academic writing second language students face when entering HE. Firstly, this includes presenting background information about the level of education within the Somali community in Sweden, and how it differs from the level of education for Swedish people in general. Secondly, it includes arguing for the similarities between the processes of entering an unfamiliar ethnical culture and entering the academic discourse. Thirdly, it includes reasoning about the close connection between language and knowledge formation, and thus, the importance of mastering the language of instruction, both to learn subject matter and to express the outcomes of this learning. Lastly, it includes a short description of the Somali language concerning language relationship, the history of written language, and language structure, regarding orthography and syllable structure, grammar, phonology, and phonotactics followed by a clarification about the main differences between Somali and Swedish on these points. This section ends with a summary of the challenges Somali speakers might face when writing in Swedish in HE. After this background description, there is first a presentation of the data including information about the collection, the participants, the texts and the method used to compare Somali and Swedish students' texts to find the main challenges in academic writing for Somali students. Second, there is a presentation of the answers to the research issues, followed by an analysis of these answers. Third, there is a discussion of the findings and a concluding remark, and a list of references is attached. After the list of references, there is an appendix with follow-up questions to get some background information about the Somali and Swedish students' previous experiences in the academic discourse, their view on the main characteristics of and challenges with academic writing, and what support they think the HE should offer. In addition, there are examples of instructions the students with Somali background received during two courses at the University of Gothenburg spring term 2015 and spring term 2016.

2. Challenges in Academic Writing for Second Language Students

All students in Higher Education face various types and amounts of challenges. However, compared to first language students, second language students face additional challenges. This chapter investigates what different types of challenges students with a Somali background encounter in their Swedish academic writing at the University of Gothenburg, and how these problems differ from the challenges students with a Swedish background face.

2.1 Level of education in Sweden

One of the challenges students with Somali background in Sweden might face in their academic writing in HE, can be found in the level of education within the Somali community in Sweden. The general level of education in Sweden has increased, especially in the past 40 years. In the 1990's, the highest education for 30% of the population was nine years of Elementary school and only 10% had more than three years of Higher Education (SCB, Befolkningens utbildning 2018, 2019). Today, the situation is almost the opposite, 11% of the population in Sweden have no higher education than nine years of Elementary School and 28% have more than three years of Higher Education. However, even though the level of education in Sweden has increased in general, the increase is unevenly spread over different societal groups. The group with the highest level of education is young women born in Sweden and the group with the lowest level of education is people who have immigrated for refugee reasons (SCB, Befolkningens utbildning 2018, 2019). Table 1 below shows the level of education born in Sweden and outside Sweden:

Table 1: Level of education in Sweden 2018

		Percentage with at most 9 years of	Percentage with at most Secondary	Percentage with Higher Education
		Elementary School	Education	Inghei Education
Born in Sweden	Men	11	51	37
	Women	7	42	50
	In total	9	47	44
Born outside Sweden	Men	19	34	39
	Women	19	31	44
	In total	19	32	41

Källa: SCB Befolkningens utbildning 2018 (2019)

Furthermore, the statistics in Table 2 and Table 3 below concerning the recruitment to the ten HEIs with most first year students with a non-Swedish background for school years 2013/2014 and 2016/2017, show that there is a considerable difference between percentage of first year students born outside Sweden and first year students born in Sweden but with a non-Swedish background, i.e. both parents born outside Sweden:

Table 2: Percentage first year students with a non-Swedish background at the HEIs with the largest number of first year students, school year 2013/2014

	First year students born			First year students born in Sweden		
Higher Education Institutions	outside Sweden		both parents born outside Sweden			
	In total	Women	Men	In total	Women	Men
Stockholm University	15	17	12	11	11	10
University of Gothenburg	12	13	10	8	7	8
Lund University	8	10	7	7	7	7
Uppsala University	11	12	9	7	7	7
Linnæus University	9	9	10	4	4	5
Umeå University	9	9	10	3	3	3
Linköping University	8	9	7	6	6	6
Malmö University	18	18	17	13	13	13
Luleå University of	8	8	8	4	4	5
Technology						
KTH Royal Institute of	15	17	13	13	13	14
Technology						

Source: SCB Universitet och högskolor (2014)

Table 3: Percentage first year students with a non-Swedish background at the HEIs with the largest number of first year students, school year 2016/2017

Higher Education Institutions	First year students born outside Sweden		First year students born in Sweden both parents born outside Sweden			
	In total	Women	Men	In total	Women	Men
Stockholm University	19	21	15	11	11	11
University of Gothenburg	17	17	16	10	10	10
Uppsala University	14	15	13	8	9	7
Lund University	9	10	8	8	8	9
Linköping University	11	13	10	8	8	8
Linnæus University	13	13	14	7	7	7
Umeå University	10	10	11	5	5	4
Malmö University	21	22	19	14	13	17
Örebro University	12	12	12	12	11	13
KTH Royal Institute of Technology	16	16	16	15	15	14

Source: SCB Universitet och högskolor (2018)

The reason for this difference might be that many of the students born outside Sweden come here with the sole purpose of studying and thus have already been recruited when they enter Sweden. Another thing worth noticing, is the significant increase of students from both categories in school year 2016/2017 compared to school year 2013/2014, but that the increase for students born outside Sweden is considerably larger than the increase for students with a non-Swedish background born in Sweden. Consequently, the gap between the two groups have increased. Nevertheless, the increase for both student categories, presented in the two tables above, shows that the policy for broadening recruitment and broadening participation has had effect.

The fifth largest immigrant community in Sweden is the Somali community, and in the statistics for education people with Somali background stand out as shown in Table 4:

Table 4: Level of education of in Sweden 2018

		Percentage with at most 9 years of	Percentage with at most Secondary	Percentage with Higher
		Elementary School	Education	Education
Born in Sweden	Men	11	51	37
Bolli ili Swedeli		11	_	
	Women	7	42	50
	In total	9	47	44
Born outside Sweden	Men	19	34	39
	Women	19	31	44
	In total	19	32	41
Born in Somalia	Men	42	34	16
	Women	55	31	8
	In total	49	32	12

Source: SCB Befolkningens utbildning 2018 (2019)

Table 4 shows that approximately 50% of those who were born in Somalia have no higher education than Elementary School, compared to 9% for people born in Sweden and 19% for all people born outside Sweden. In addition, women born in Somalia have a lower rate of Higher Education, 8% compared to 50% for women born in Sweden. In view of that the Somali community is the fifth largest immigrant community in Sweden, and that 50% of the Somali immigrants in Sweden have no higher education than Elementary School, the conclusion is that there must be many children with a Somali background in Sweden that come from homes which lack experience from studies in Higher Education. In connection to this, statistics show that there is a strong connection between the level of education of parents and the level of education of their children; 80% of the children whose parents have a Higher Education will also study at the University, while only 25% of the children whose parents have no higher education than elementary school will study at the university (SCB, 2016).

Based on the above tables, there is a desired increase in the number of students with a non-Swedish background and/or from homes with no experience of studies in Higher Education. However, even if these students have a Swedish Secondary School Education and thus are formally competent to conduct studies in the Higher Education, they sometimes have difficulties in meeting the linguistic requirements demanded concerning reading and writing (Abrahamsson & Bergman, 2005) and students with a Somali background seems to be a particularly vulnerable group, since it is likely that they have parents with no experience of studies in HE. Thus, as the HEIs' policy of broadening recruitment has an increasingly higher impact, there is an increasing need for development and establishing of writing centres in the Higher Education in Sweden.

In sum, one challenge in academic writing for students with Somali background in Sweden can be found in the level of education for this group. Since the level of education is markedly lower for people within the Somali community in Sweden than for Swedish people in general, the lack of experience from HE

is an additional challenge, students with Somali background might face in HE in Sweden compared to the challenges, students with Swedish background face.

2.2 Language and culture

"Language is a product of culture, but simultaneously, it gives shape and expression to culture. It is the main tool for individual assimilation of culture". (Scheu, 2000 p. 132)

A second challenge students with Somali background in Sweden might face when entering Higher Education is the encounter of the academic culture. This is challenging for all students, but perhaps especially for second language students who might also be unfamiliar with Swedish culture in general, and even more so for students with Somali background, who might lack a general experience of HE, which is shown in section 2.1. Connected with the encounter of the academic culture is the encounter of the academic discourse and the academic language, which is challenging for all students, but perhaps even more for second language students since they might not be proficient in other registers of the Swedish language. Cultures, culture shocks, and the connection between culture and language, have been explored and described by numerous researchers, mostly from the perspective that cultures are different ethnical groups and languages are different spoken and/or written varieties that are not mutually intelligible. This section starts with the presentation of a framework for analysing these types of cultures and languages which then is used to problematise the culture and the language of the academic world.

Entering a new or unfamiliar cultural context, also known as boundary crossing, is often demanding and challenging. (Jackson, 2014). There are two types of boundary crossers, voluntary and involuntary. The incentive for the voluntary boundary crossers is primarily pull factors in the new cultural context, while the incentive for the involuntary boundary crossers are push factors from the cultural context they are leaving. Independent of whether the boundary crossing is voluntary or involuntary, it often involves some kind of transition shock and different strategies to handle them. There are mainly four types of transition shocks: culture shock, language shock, identity shock and role shock (Jackson, 2014). Culture shock and language shock refers to the boundary crosser's encounter with new and unfamiliar culture and language codes while identity shock and role shock refers to the new and unfamiliar expectations the environment has on the boundary crosser and his/her role. When a boundary crosser, almost inevitably, experiences culture shock, it can be dealt with through four different strategies: assimilation (the boundary crosser does not keep his/her original cultural identity), integration (the boundary crosser keeps his/her original identity and develops a sound relationship to the new culture), segregation (the boundary crosser wants to keep his/her and original culture and therefore avoids participating in the new

culture) and marginalisation (the boundary crosser does not keep his/her original culture and does not participate in the new culture) (Jackson, 2014).

According to the description above, there is a strong connection between language and culture and entering a new culture most often also includes entering a new language. In connection with this, it has been of interest to discuss the generalities and specificities of languages and ethnical cultures; on the one hand, different languages and cultures have many characteristics in common because of the general similarities between peoples, on the other hand specific ethnical/cultural contexts call for specific language tools to mediate context bound messages (Scheu, 2000 on Fishman et al., 1985). In addition, mastering a language involves acquiring knowledge and understanding of both the "context of situation" and the "context of culture" (Scheu, 2000 on Malinowski, 1953). "The "context of situation" is related to the relevant factors of a speech act in a specific situation, whereas the "context of culture" refers to all the specific and relevant factors of the culture involved". (Scheu, 2000 p. 135). It has also been of interest to discuss the connection between language and identity: "When language is a core value of a cultural group, it may be an important factor in determining the members' cultural identity." (Scheu, 2000 p. 134). In this sense language can work both as gate opener and as gatekeeper; if you have the "right" language, you will be recognised as a member of the community, and if you do not have the "right" language you might not be invited into the community.

However, the concepts of culture and language do not only cover ethnical groups or communities, and their communication. The concept of culture also comprises cultures within ethnical cultures, i.e. subcultures, often characterised by the use of a particular variety of the main language. Language, in turn, does not only cover different spoken and/or written varieties that are not mutually intelligible, but can also comprise specific varieties or styles within a language. Within this frame of definition, the academic world is a subculture and the academic language is one of its characteristics, and the mechanisms of culture shock and the strategies dealing with it, as well as the mechanisms of generalities and specificities, and gate opening and gatekeeping, also apply here. So, when entering Higher Education, the students not only enter an education but also a culture and a language, and they have to handle new and unfamiliar expectations on their roles and identities. The knowledge and understanding of the academic culture and the skills in academic writing are not innate and consequently have to be acquired. This includes acquiring knowledge and understanding of both the "context of situation", i.e. the academic language, and the "context of culture", i.e. other academic codes. The process of acquirement will be more demanding for students who are included in the broadening recruitment policy, e.g. students from non-academic homes and persons with a non-Swedish background, particularly persons with a Somali background. Research shows that if the formal demands of the academic discourse is not made explicit, there is a risk that these students will be disfavoured since it is probable that they have not been introduced to the Swedish academic discourse at home (Fernsten & Reda, 2011), or have previous experience from HE in Sweden.

In sum, a second challenge in academic writing for students with Somali background in Sweden might be found in the encounter with the academic culture and the academic language. If students with Somali background themselves lack experience from HE studies or come from homes that do, and in addition are not proficient in any register of the Swedish language, the challenges they face in HE is more demanding than the challenges students with Swedish background face.

2.3 Language and knowledge formation

A third challenge students with Somali background in Sweden might face when entering Higher Education is formation of knowledge. The formation of knowledge is a core element in HE studies and a challenge for all students regardless of background. However, since knowledge formation is closely connected with language, knowledge formation might be even more challenging for second language students, especially for students with Somali background, since they may not have come in contact with Swedish academic language before.

In all education, also in HE, the teaching and learning of subject matter is central, and most of the teaching and learning is performed through the use of language. In HE, knowledge of and skills in the academic discourse, are essential, not only because HE studies to a large extent involve writing and reading, but also because there is as strong connection between language and knowledge formation, and the students, most often, have to acquire the academic language and knowledge of subject matter simultaneously. However, how the academic language is used in order to obtain understanding of subject matter and convey this understanding, is a tacit knowledge and therefore hard to grasp (Svensson, Anderberg, Alvegård, and Johansson, 2009). To make this knowledge explicit, it is vital that the teachers use language in a way that facilitates the learning and understanding of subject matter so that the student can make use of the language to make the subject matter more understandable. In addition, it is important that teachers make explicit to their students how to write about their subject matter. Three areas that has been found particularly challenging for newcomers in HE, are referencing, critical thinking and academic language since they require new ways of thinking, new ways of relating to contents, and new ways of expressing knowledge (Hathaway, 2015). These three areas involve competences, which are the core of all academic writing, and therefore crucial for the students to acquire when they want to join a new knowledge community. Thus, the teaching should involve making the specific words, concepts and phrases that are used in the current field and subject explicit to the students (Svensson et al., 2009).

In sum, research suggests that to be able to write academically, integrated and independently about subject matter, the academic writer must have appropriated the subject knowledge, i.e. made it their own (Blåsjö, 2009), and to be able to do this the subject specific use of words and concepts must be made explicit to the students.

Making the tacit knowledge of the academic discourse explicit is of great importance to all students, but perhaps more so for the students who does not write in their first language since they, because of this, beside the general challenges also face difficulties tied to their language background. One such difficulty is that bi- or multilingual writers have to relate to several different languages and discourses when writing in the target language (Canagarajah & Jerskey, 2009). Another difficulty, especially challenging for second language students, is focusing on both language and an advanced content simultaneously (Abrahamsson & Bergman, 2005). This is a highly complex act which demands both skill and energy, and even experienced academic writers tend to write less academically, integrated and independently when they write about subjects outside their own field (Blåsjö, 2009), However, research shows that students who have experience and knowledge of academic writing in their first language also can benefit from that when writing in their second language (Canagarajah & Jerskey, 2009). Research also shows that students might face problems putting this knowledge into practice when writing in their second language (Galbreith, 2009). A consequence of this might be that second language students' face challenges in forming a positive identity as academic writers. Studies on students' reflections on their own academic writing have shown that second language students, to a higher extent than first language students, risk forming a negative identity of themselves as academic writers, characterised by low selfconfidence and failure; understanding their own processes of studying and writing, and how their multilingual background affects their view of themselves as writers within the academic discourse, seems to be a challenge for second language students (Fernsten & Reda, 2011).

Thus, it is clear that second language students and students from non-academic homes are disfavoured if the knowledge of academic writing and academic language is tacit and implicit. In addition, research shows that negative attitudes towards multilingualism, i.e. regarding multilingualism a problem rather than an asset, are disadvantageous for second language students. The reason for this is that there is a positive link between multilingualism and linguistic and cognitive development and knowledge formation, that these students might not benefit from if they are met with negative attitudes (Otterup, 2018 on Cummins, 2017). An explanation for the positive link between multilingualism and linguistic and cognitive development and knowledge formation is expressed in the interdependence hypothesis: a person's different languages form an interdependent relationship, which means that the languages support each other in the acquisition of knowledge and skills (Cummins, 1979). In addition, knowledge

of subject matter in the first language can promote the acquisition of the same subject matter in the second language. This was shown in a study conducted by Ganuza and Hedman (2017). The study was performed on Somali-Swedish bilinguals in Somali mother tongue instruction in a Swedish school and revealed not only that the mother tongue instruction improved the pupils' results concerning reading in Somali, but also had a positive impact on the pupils' school results in general. However, second language students might be bereaved of the positive effect of knowing two languages if their bilingualism is met with negative attitudes.

If the knowledge of academic discourse and academic language is tacit and implicit, it can also be difficult for second language students and students from non-academic homes to benefit from individual response and supervision from a supervisor or a teacher (Dysthe, Hertzberg & Hoel, 2011). The purpose with individual response and supervision from a supervisor or a teacher is to make the tacit knowledge of the academic discourse explicit to the students, and students from a non-Swedish background and from non-academic families in particular, benefit from this. If the tacit knowledge of the academic discourse is not made explicit, these students, risk being disadvantaged since they most often have not been introduced to the academic discourse at home (Fernsten & Reda, 2011). This can also apply to the writing process. If second language students are not introduced to different types of writing processes, which processes are successful and why, and if their own writing processes are not made explicit to them, they will face larger challenges than necessary (Hort, 2020). To meet the students' needs for individual response and supervision concerning academic writing, many HEIs have developed writing centres. However, research shows that since writing centres risk being marginalised because they address an often marginalised group, they run the danger of being unsuccessful in supporting students in their academic writing (Lennartsson-Hokkanen, 2016).

In sum, a third challenge students with Somali background in Sweden might face when entering Higher Education is formation of knowledge since knowledge formation is closely connected with the academic discourse and the academic language, which might, to a larger extent, be unfamiliar to students with Somali background compared to students with Swedish background. In addition, the challenge increases for second language students if the nature of the academic discourse and the academic language is a tacit and implicit knowledge, which might increase the gap between second language and first language students.

2.4 Second language acquisition

A fourth challenge students with Somali background in Sweden might face when entering Higher Education is acquiring the academic register. Possessing knowledge of and skills in the academic language is important for all students in HE since language is closely connected with knowledge formation, which is described in section 2.3. Acquiring the academic register is challenging for all students regardless of background, but perhaps even more so for second language students in general, since they might not master any register of the Swedish language, which is described in section 2.2, and students with Somali background in particular, since it is likely that they have not come in contact with the academic register before, which is shown in section 2.1.

Second language acquisition can be discussed from a number of different perspectives. A person can for example be bilingual, i.e. possess two or more languages, regarding proficiency and acquisition in several different ways. The proficiency of a bilingual speaker can, in a continuum, range from being a novice to being an equalingualist, i.e. equally proficient in both languages (Scheu, 2000). Concerning the acquisition, the speaker can be a coordinate bilingual or a compound bilingual. Coordinate bilingualism refers to speakers "who develop dual linguistic systems from early childhood, each language acquired directly in a separate context /.../, with no explicit linguistic or mental connection between the two." (Scheu, 2000, p. 136), while compound bilingualism refers to adult speakers who already have obtained a first language and then acquired a second. Of the participants with Somali background in this study, seven are Somali-Swedish compound bilinguists and two are Somali-Swedish coordinate bilinguists.

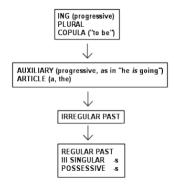
In the research field of language acquisition, scholars make a distinction between acquiring a first language and acquiring a second language. In addition, in second language acquisition, scholars make a distinction between the acquisition of a second language and the acquisition of a foreign language. Second language acquisition is the umbrella term for both the acquisition of a second language and the acquisition of a foreign language since they both deal with acquiring a new language after a first language has been established (Håkansson, 2013). However, there is a difference concerning the conditions and the contexts of the acquisition and the use of the second language and the foreign language. Foreign language acquisition involves learning the language in a classroom context without the opportunity of using the language outside the classroom, i.e. the target language is not widely spoken outside the classroom context (Håkansson, 2013 on Hammarberg, 2004). Furthermore, the learning of the second language happens in relation to the first language through conscious connections between the two languages. The interdependent hypothesis, described in section 2.3, implicates that a high

proficiency level in a speaker's first language facilitates a higher proficiency level in the speaker's second language; competences in the first language can promote the development of competences in the second language (Ganuza & Hedman, 2018).

Several theories on how a second language actually is acquired have been put forward by a number of scholars, and one of the first was Stephen Krashen who published the Second Language Acquisition Theory (SLA-Theory) in 1982. Krashen's theory focuses on spoken language and builds on five hypotheses of second language acquisition: the acquisition-learning hypothesis, the natural order hypothesis, the monitor hypothesis, the input hypothesis, and the affective filter hypothesis. The first hypothesis, the acquisition-learning hypothesis is based on the distinction between acquiring and learning a second language. In the context of the SLA-Theory, acquisition is an unconscious, natural process, similar to the process children have when they develop their first language, while learning is a conscious process regarding, for example, the development of grammar and vocabulary. Earlier, the view among some second language researchers was that children acquire and adults learn, however, the acquisition-learning hypothesis claims that adults not only learn but "also acquire languages, that the ability to 'pick up' languages does not disappear at puberty." (Krashen, 1982, p. 10). The point here is not that adults necessarily always can become as proficient as native speakers, but that adults too have an innate "language acquisition device".

The second hypothesis, the natural order hypothesis states that grammatical devices in a language are acquired in a particular or natural order. However, this natural order is different for children acquiring their first language compared to children acquiring their second language. In addition, the hypothesis claims that the natural order for second language acquisition for children and adults are similar. Figure 1 below shows the average order in which both adults and children acquire English grammatical morphemes in second language acquisition (Krashen, 1982, p. 13):

Figure 1:"Average" order of acquisition of grammatical morphemes for English



The natural order of acquiring grammatical morphemes are, according to Krashen's natural order hypothesis generally the same for first and second language acquisition regarding the bound morphemes ING (progressive), PLURAL, IRREGULAR PAST, REGULAR PAST, III SINGULAR -s, and POSSESSIVE -s. One difference, however, is that the acquisition of COPULA ("to be") and AUXILIARY (progressive as in "he *is* going") tend to come earlier in second language acquisition than in first language acquisition.

The third hypothesis, the monitor hypothesis, explains the two different functions that acquisition and learning have in second language performance: acquisition is connected to the speaker's fluency and when the acquired language is realised as speech, learning functions as a monitor of the utterances and makes changes and adjustments. This is illustrated in Figure 2 below (Krashen, 1982, p. 16):

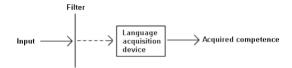
Figure 2: Acquisition and learning in second language production



Figure 2 shows how the knowledge, i.e. the Monitor, of a language, which the second language speaker has developed through learning, is used to correct the form of the spontaneous speech that has been required through acquisition. However, the focus of the SLA-Theory is acquisition rather than learning, and thus, the fourth hypothesis, the input hypothesis, is related to acquisition. The input hypothesis states that language is acquired through exposition to language structures that are beyond the level of the learner (i.e. input + 1). This requires what Krashen defines as extra-linguistic information, which is given by the context. In other words, Krashen claims that second language speakers acquire language through first acquiring meaning, and then, as a consequence, acquiring structure. Thus, the input hypothesis claims the opposite of the most common pedagogical ideas in second language teaching, namely to teach contents first and structure second.

The fifth hypothesis, the he affective filter hypothesis explains how affective factors influence the process of acquiring a second language. Krashen has found three affective factors that are of importance for second language acquisition: motivation, self-confidence, and anxiety, which he finds do not relate to learning, only to acquisition, which is described in Figure 3 below (Krashen, 1982, p. 32):

Figure 3: The influence of the affective filter on language acquisition



As shown in Figure 3, high motivation, high self-confidence, and low anxiety are beneficiary factors in the second language acquisition process. According to Krashen, the affective filter hypothesis explains why the level of a second language acquirer's language skills does not correspond to the level of skill a first language user has; the affective filter prevents the acquirer to develop any further. This condition is also known as fossilisation, a term coined by Selinker in 1972 (Krashen, 1982).

The SLA-Theory makes three important claims. Firstly, acquisition is more significant than learning. Secondly, for effective acquisition, the input has to be understood and challenging (input + 1). Thirdly, for effective acquisition, the acquirer has to have a high level of motivation and self-confidence, and a low level of anxiety. These insights not only have implications for the view of second language acquisition and learning as such, but also for second language teaching. Krashen concludes that the primary function of language teaching is to provide comprehensible input to acquirers who do not have access to input sources outside the classroom or do not comprehend the language used outside the classroom. However, language acquirers who have large input sources outside the class can benefit from language teaching, since teaching can provide conscious learning that can be used by the Monitor to correct the output of the acquired language.

In sum, it is important for second language students to have good knowledge of and skills in their first language since it promotes both knowledge formation and skills in their second language. Krashen's theory on second language acquisition has been used as a starting point for numerous researchers in their design of other similar or conflicting theories on language learning and acquisition, but has been criticised and he has over the years, modified his hypotheses and made some additions partly as a consequence of the criticism (Long, 1993). In addition, voices have been raised to advocate that there is no universal paradigm for acquiring or learning languages and that language acquisition or learning therefore cannot be captured in a theory. Nevertheless, Krashen's theory on second language acquisition is used in chapter 4 to investigate if it still holds and still can shed some light on the language situation for today's second language students at the University of Gothenburg, even though its focus is on spoken language, and thus, bring some interesting angles into the analysis of the situation for these students.

2.5 The Somali language in comparison with Swedish

A fifth challenge students with Somali background in Sweden might face when entering Higher Education is perhaps that their first language is Somali. This section compares Somali and Swedish regarding language relationship and history, and language structure.

2.5.1 Language relationship and language history

The language situations in Africa and Europe differ on many points, but the most striking difference is perhaps the number of languages spoken on the continents and in the separate countries. The number of indigenous languages in Europe is estimated to about a hundred languages, but depending on the definition of language the number can also be estimated to at least two hundred languages ("Europa", 2014), and most of the inhabitants in a European country have that country's main language as their mother tongue, as is the case for Sweden (Lundén, 1993). In comparison, there are approximately 2,000 languages spoken in Africa (Heine & Nurse, 2000), which means that many countries have an extremely multilingual situation; in some countries even more than 100 languages are used. A case in point here is Tanzania, in eastern Africa, with a population of about 35 million (including Zanzibar) and an estimated number of 124 languages (Topan, 2008). Another, perhaps even more striking example, is Cameroon, in western Africa, with a population of 16 million and an estimated number of between 248 and 285 languages (Bilboa & Echu, 2008). Two consequences of this that most African countries do not have a clear dominating main language, and most inhabitants in an African country do not speak that country's largest language.

The African languages are classified in four different phyla: Afro-Asiatic, Nilo-Saharan, Niger-Congo, and Khoisan (Heine & Nurse, 2000). The Afro-Asiatic phylum is of interest here, since Somali is an Afro-Asiatic language. The Afro-Asiatic phylum consists of six branches: Semitic, Egyptian, Berber, Cushitic, Chadic, and Omotic. The Somali language is Cushitic, more precisely; an East-Cushitic language spoken in Somalia, including Puntland and Somaliland, and the neighbouring areas in eastern Kenya and Ethiopia, and south eastern Djibouti. The other sub-branches of Cushitic are Beja, Central-Cushitic, and South-Cushitic. In total, there are approximately 10 million Somali speakers in Somalia and the neighbouring countries (Serzisko, 2006). The Somali language situation is unusual since Somalia does not, like so many other African countries, have a multilingual language situation. Even though the Somali language contains many dialect groups that are not all mutually intelligible, only one language, Standard Somali, is used throughout Somalia as a lingua franca (Orwin, 2006). Standard Somali is a variety based on the dialects in northern Somalia and is also the language used on radio, television, and in written media. However, until the beginning of the 1970's Somali had been little written, but in 1972, the military government introduced a written script for Somali, elaborated by Shire

Jaamac Axmed, based on the Latin alphabet (Orwin, 2006). Before this, Arabic, during the precolonial times, and English and Italian, during the colonisation, had been used for written language communication and as a medium of instruction in Primary, Secondary and Higher Education in Somalia. After the decision to make Shire Jaamac Axmed's script the official Somali script and Somali the official language of Somalia, the government launched official literacy programmes in all parts of the country, which included making Somali the medium of instruction in Primary and Secondary Education (Orwin, 2006). However, English is still the medium of instruction in HE in Somalia, and one consequence of this is that there is no established academic register in Somalia.

In comparison, the language situation in Sweden is rather uncomplicated. Ever since the first part of the 16th century, Swedish has had a standardised written form; Sweden's first king Gustav Vasa had first The New Testament (1526) and then The Bible (1541) translated to Swedish as part of the Reformation, which he introduced in Sweden. These translations had great importance for the stabilisation and standardisation of grammar and orthography (Bergman, 2013). Measures to support and uphold the Swedish language have been taken since the last part of the 18th century, when the Swedish king Gustav III, established the Swedish Academy. It was, however, not until the 7th of December 2005 that a language policy that determines Swedish as the official language of Sweden was established (Lindberg, 2009). The reason there was no official language policy until 2005 is perhaps that Swedish had been the undisputed official administrative and liturgical language since Gustav Vasa. Four years later, in 2009, a Language Act to protect the position of Swedish in Sweden from the influence of other languages, mainly English, passed. This Language Act was a result of the protectionist view on languages that arose in European countries in the aftermath of globalisation (Lindberg, 2009). The protection of the Swedish language, however, happens at the expense of linguistic minorities that are disfavoured in, for example the educational system (Lindberg, 2009). In addition, the Language Act reinforces the view that the goal for a bilingual person is to reach the linguistic skills of a first language speaker in both languages, which may lead to unacceptance and intolerance of grammatical and other types of mistakes in the language of second language speakers in education and elsewhere.

2.5.2 Language structure

The interest for the Somali language grew among European linguistic scholars during the colonisation of Somalia in the late 19th century. Worth mentioning in this context are the two militaries Lieutenant C. P. Rigby and Captain F. M. Hunter, who both wrote brief language sketches on the Somali language, in 1849 and 1880 respectively (Kirk, 1905), and J. W. C. Kirk, who drew on their knowledge when he compiled *A Grammar of the Somali Language*, in 1905. Interestingly, Kirk was also a military and served with the Somali army during the war against Mullah Mohammed Abdallah in 1902-1904.

However, it was not until 1971 that the first grammar on the Somali language written by Somalis was published, and it was authored by the military government's language commission from 1971. Today, there are many descriptions of the structure of the Somali language. The description in this chapter, which is mainly based on John Ibrahim Saeed (1993 and 1999) and partly on my previous research in Somali during a contrastive introductory course in Somali, SOL150 (El Saidi, 2015), is not set out to be exhaustive. It accounts for what is relevant regarding the language challenges students with Somali background might face when writing in the academic register in Swedish, which is further discussed in chapters 3 and 4. The structure of the Somali language is contrasted with a description of the structure of the Swedish language based on Ljung and Ohlander (1982).

2.5.2.1 Orthography and phonology

As mentioned in section 2.5.1, the Latin script was used to form the Somali orthography. The Somali orthography uses the following symbols: a, b, c, d, dh, e, f, g, h, i, j, k, kh, l, m, n, o, q, r, s, sh, t, u, w, x, y, and '. In addition, the long pronunciation of the vowels is represented by double vowel symbols: aa, ee, ii, oo, uu. The pronunciation of the consonants can be described as in Table 5 below (Saeed, 1993):

Table 5: The representation and pronunciation of the Somali consonants

Standard orthography	IPA-symbol	Phonetic description of the basic form
b	b	voiced bilabial plosive
t	ţ	voiceless dental plosive
d	ď	voiceless dental plosive
dh	đ	voiced post-alveolar retroflex plosive
k	k	voiceless velar plosive
g	g	voiced velar plosive
q	q	voiced uvular plosive
1	3	glottal stop
f	f	voiceless labiodental fricative
S	S	voiceless alveolar fricative
sh	ſ	voiceless palato-alveolar fricative
kh	χ	voiceless uvular fricative
X	ħ	voiceless pharyngeal fricative
С	٤	voiced pharyngeal fricative
h	h	voiceless glottal fricative
j	dз	voiced palato-alveolar affricate
m	m	voiced bilabial nasal
n	n	voiced alveolar nasal
r	R	voiced alveolar roll
1	1	voiced alveolar lateral
w	w	voiced labio-velar approximant (or glide)
у	j	voiced palatal approximant (or glide)

Worth noticing in Table 5, are the digraphs kh, sh, dh, which represent sounds that lack specific characters in the Latin script. Their presence in the alphabet, suggest that the Somali script has an ambition of being close to the pronunciation, at least regarding the quality of the consonants. However, the quantity of the pronunciation of the consonants is not represented in the alphabet; there are no digraphs representing long consonants. Even though Somali and Swedish both use the Latin script, there are some differences regarding the use of some of the characters representing consonants. One obvious difference, apart from the fact that the Somali alphabet lacks p, is that the Swedish alphabet does not contain digraphs like the Somali alphabet does. Another difference is that the symbols c and x represent totally different sounds in Somali compared to Swedish.

Compared to the consonants, there is an opposite relationship regarding the quantity and quality of the pronunciation of the vowels; the quantity of the pronunciation of the vowels is well represented in the orthography through the double spelling, while the quality of the pronunciation of the vowels is not. For example, the quality of the long and the short vowels differ, but this difference is very rarely meaning differentiating, and therefore not marked in the orthography. In addition, each of these ten different vowel sounds (five long + five short) in Somali can be pronounced with an advanced tongue root (ATR), which means that Somali, in fact, has 20 different vowel sounds. However, also the ATR-vowels are very rarely meaning differentiating, and therefore not represented in the orthography either. In comparison, Swedish has 17 different vowel sounds. These 17 vowel sounds are represented in the orthography by the nine symbols a, e, i, o, u, y, å, ä, and ö. The difference between the pronunciation of the vowels in Somali and Swedish is illustrated in the two figures below. Figure 4 shows a vowel chart of the short front vowels and the short ATR-, or back vowels in Somali (Saeed, 1993), and Figure 5 shows a vowel chart of all the Swedish vowel sounds (Engstrand, 1999):

Figure 4: Somali vowel chart

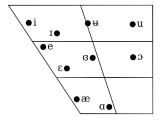
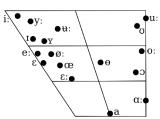


Figure 5: Swedish vowel chart



Even though the long vowel sounds in Somali are not represented in the Somali vowel chart, since there only is a slight difference in the quality of the short and the long vowels, Figure 4 and Figure 5 clearly illustrate that the vowel sounds spread differently in Somali and Swedish: the Somali vowels spread quite evenly, while the Swedish vowels are constricted to the middle and upper front and to the back of the chart. In addition, Somali has no low back vowels. This might be a source of difficulties for second

language users of Swedish with Somali background, especially regarding the use of the symbols e and \ddot{a} representing the front vowel sounds [e:], [ϵ], and [ϵ :], and the use of the symbol a representing the back vowel sounds [a] and [a], which is shown in chapters 3 and 4. Furthermore, Somali, like Swedish, is a tone language. In Somali the tone is used to mark grammatical differences, while in Swedish tone is used to mark semantic differences. In Somali there are three different tones: high tone, written as \dot{a} , e.g. \dot{a} ; low tone, not marked, e.g. \dot{a} ; and falling tone, written as \dot{a} , e.g. \dot{a} . The two different tones in Swedish are not visible in the orthography.

Apart from representing the close relation between spelling and pronunciation, the orthography realises the restrictions Somali has concerning phonotactics, or syllable structure. In Somali, these phonotactic restrictions mainly concern the use of consonants. One such restriction involves consonant clusters; Somali phonotactics does not allow initial or final consonant clusters. This means that the longest possible syllable structure in Somali is CVC, e.g. sác (cow), or CVVC, if VV represents the same long vowel, e.g. géed (tree). In practise, however, consonant clusters of two consonants are allowed when a syllable with a final consonant and a syllable with an initial consonant together form a word, e.g. qaáddo (spoon). The syllables in this word are qaád- and -do, and their structures are CVVC and CV respectively. In comparison, Swedish allow consonant clusters of three consonants word initial, e.g. skriva (to write), and clusters of up to five consonants word final, e.g. västkustskt (an adjective meaning 'from the west coast'). Another phonotactic restriction that involves consonants is the phonological principle that a syllable in Somali cannot end in /m/, /k/ or /t/, with some exceptions, e.g. *Isláam*. This affects the spelling of loan words that end in these consonants and the strategy is to replace /m/, /k/ and /t/ with /n/, /g/ and /d/, respectively. One example of this is the Arabic loan word /mucallim/ (teacher), which consequently becomes macállin in Somali. Another example is the English loan word 'film' which becomes *filin* in Somali. The spelling of the word *filin* follows both principles presented above; no final /m/, hence the replacement of /m/ with /n/, and no final consonant clusters, hence the epenthesis of /i/ between /l/ and /n/. Interestingly, /m/ is also subject to special spelling rules in Swedish. In Swedish the long consonant is typically doubled in the spelling, but there are exceptions to this with /m/; /m/ is only doubled word medial between vowels, and very rarely word final.

2.5.2.2 Grammar

This presentation of the Somali grammar involves descriptions of the grammatical categories, or word classes, including the use of the copula, and the word order. The categorisation of the word classes differs between Somali and Swedish. The word classes in Somali are; nouns, pronouns, verbs, adjectives, prepositions, determiners, focus words, classifiers, conjunctions and adverbs. The word classes in Swedish are; nouns, pronouns, verbs, adjectives, prepositions, numerals, interjections,

conjunctions and adverbs. One difference between Somali and Swedish regarding the word classes is that Swedish does not have focus words and classifiers, and in Somali, numerals are not a separate part of speech, but are classified as a subcategory of nouns.

The nouns in Somali have two grammatical genders, masculine and feminine. The nouns are inflected for definiteness and number with suffixes that has to agree with the gender, i.e. there are special plural and definite suffixes for masculine and special definite and plural suffixes for feminine, which is quite similar to Swedish where plural and definiteness also are marked with suffixes attached to the noun. The definite suffixes in Somali are the masculine -ka and the feminine -ta, with different varieties of the consonant depending on the preceding phoneme. The most common plural suffix in Somali is -o, e.g. $k\dot{a}b - kabo$ (shoe – shoes). In addition, with this suffix there are different varieties depending on the preceding phoneme. There are also nouns that have an irregular plural form, e.g. $il - indh\acute{o}$ (eye – eyes). Furthermore Somali, has four cases, absolutive, subject, genitive and vocative. This is something that differentiates Somali and Swedish since Swedish only has two cases, nominative and genitive. Another thing that differs between Somali and Swedish concerning cases is that, while the genitive case in Swedish is marked by an ending, -s, it is marked by LOW-HIGH tone pattern on the head of the genitive construction in Somali. This can be illustrated by the following example: búugíi Calí (Ali's book), where the head of the genitive construction, Calí, has a LOW-HIGH tone pattern, compared to the absolutive Cáli, which has HIGH-LOW tone pattern. Moreover, a similarity between Somali and Swedish is that compound words is a productive strategy of creating new words in both languages (Saeed, 1999, and Ljung & Ohlander, 1982), and in both languages compound words are marked with accentual patterns.

The verbs in Somali have three tenses, three aspects, and six moods. The tenses are the present, the past (preterite) and the future; the aspects are the simple, the progressive and the habitual; and the moods are the declarative, the interrogative the imperative, the conditional, the optative, and the potential. There is also an infinitive form of the verb. In comparison, Swedish has five tenses, no aspects (unless you count the aspectual use of the perfect present tense) and three moods. While Somali has one past tense, preterite, Swedish has three past tenses, preterite, present perfect and past perfect. Another difference concerning verbs in Somali and Swedish is that verbs in Somali are inflected by person (first, second and third), number (singular and plural), and gender (masculine and feminine in third person singular), while they are not in Swedish. In the context of this thesis, the most important disparity is the difference concerning the use of the infinitive and the present tense, and in addition, the use of the future tense. The future tense in Somali is formed by a main verb in the infinitive form followed by the auxiliary *doonaa* ('is going to'). In Swedish the auxiliary *ska* (will), which mark the future tense precedes the main verb. The present tense in Swedish is mainly formed by adding the suffix -r to the stem of the verb.

There are not many words in Somali that originally are adjectives, but adjective can be derived from nouns and verbs with suffixes. The main difference between adjectives in Somali and Swedish is that the adjectives in Somali does not agree with the noun by either gender, number or definiteness, which they do in Swedish. The comparison of adjectives also differ, in Swedish adjectives are compared with suffixes both in the comparative and the superlative forms, but in Somali adjectives are compared with a preposition placed before the adjective. Regarding pronouns, the Somali pronouns have a number of subcategories that are also found in Swedish: personal pronouns (subject and object), indefinite pronouns, possessive pronouns, demonstrative pronouns, and interrogative pronouns. However, in traditional Somali grammar, possessives, demonstratives and interrogatives are not categorised as pronouns, but as determiners. In addition, pronouns in Somali and Swedish differ on some other points. Somali has three sets of personal pronouns, independent forms, verbal subject forms and verbal object form, as shown in Table 6 below:

Table 6: Personal pronouns in Somali

	Personal pronouns					
	Independent forms	Verbal subject forms	Verbal object forms			
1st pers. sing.	aníga	aan	i			
2 nd per. sing.	adíga	aad	ku			
3 rd . pers. sing. m.	isága	uu	-			
3 rd . pers. sing. f.	iyáda	ay	-			
1st pers. plur. excl.	annága	aannu (aan)	na			
1st pers. plur. incl.	innága	aynu	ina			
2 nd pers. plur.	idínka	aydin (aad)	idin			
3 rd . pers. plur.	iyága	ay	-			

The verbal forms, sometimes referred to as clitic forms are (almost) obligatory, and the independent form is mainly used for clarification. Another significant difference from Swedish is that Somali has two different pronouns in the 1st person plural, one form that excludes the listener from the 'we' and one form that includes the listener in the 'we'. Another difference is that there is no object form for the 3rd person singular and plural. There is also a difference regarding the use of indefinite pronouns. Instead of using an indefinite pronoun, various constructions with the nouns, e.g. *wax* (a thing), are used in Somali, to create meanings such as 'something'. Interestingly, the use of *wax* (a thing) resembles the construction of the Swedish indefinite pronouns *någonting* (something) and *ingenting* (nothing) where the last part, *-ting* means 'thing'.

The possessive pronouns in Somali are inflected by number for all persons and by gender for the 3rd person singular, and there are both independent forms and suffix forms as shown in Table 7:

Table 7: Independent possessive pronouns in Somali

	Independent Possessive Pronouns				
	Masc. sing.	Fem. sing.	Plur.		
1 st pers. sing.	kàyga	tàyda	kuwayga		
2 nd per. sing.	kàaga	tàada	kuwaaga		
3 rd . pers. sing. m.	kìisa	tìisa	kuwiisa		
3 rd . pers. sing. f.	kèeda	tèeda	kuweeda		
1st pers. plur. excl.	kaayága	taayáda	kuwayaga		
1st pers. plur. incl.	kèenna	tèenna	kuweenna		
2 nd pers. plur.	kìinna	tìinna	kuwiinna		
3 rd . pers. plur.	kòoda	tòoda	kuwooda		

The independent forms of the possessive pronouns can also be used as clitic pronouns.

The demonstrative pronouns function roughly in the same way in Somali and Swedish, but there is a discrepancy concerning the determinative pronouns, also referred to as definite articles in traditional Somali grammar. In Swedish, the determinatives are used to indicate that the information presented is already known to the listener, while the determinatives (or definite articles) in Somali are used to indicate that more information about the noun is following. In Somali, the determinatives have one independent masculine form, kii, and one independent feminine form, tii. There are also corresponding determinative suffixes, -kii and -tii.

Prepositions do not exist and function in the Somali language in the same way they do in Swedish. Swedish has about ten prepositions that express various positions and relations, and they are placed before the noun they govern. In contrast, Somali only has four real prepositions, and they are placed before the verb. The four prepositions in Somali are \acute{u} , $k\acute{u}$, $k\acute{a}$, and $l\acute{a}$. Their basic meaning is explained in Table 8:

Table 8: The four basic prepositions in Somali

Preposition	Meaning
ú	to, for
kú	in, into, on, at, with, by means of
ká	from, away from, out of
lá	with (in company with)

To illustrate that the position of the preposition is next to the verb regardless of the position of the noun, the following two examples are used:

Shandádda kú rid! and Kú rid shandádda! 'Put it into the bag!' bag-the into put put into bag-the

The two sentences show that the position of the preposition is before the verb. To express a more specific position in Somali, various constructions with nouns and possessive suffixes are used. Here is an example with the noun *hoos* (underside):

mìiska hóostìisa 'under the table' table-the underside-its

Another difference between Somali and Swedish is the nominal sentences. In Swedish, in contrast to Somali, there are no nominal sentences, i.e. all sentences contain a verb. However, in Somali, a copula, *yahay* (masc.) or *tahay* (fem.) must be used when the predicative is an adjective:

Cáli waa wanaagsán tahay 'Ali is good' Ali CLASS good is

The word waa should not be mistaken for a copula; it is a classifier, which is yet another difference between Somali and Swedish, since classifiers do not exist in Swedish. Classifiers indicate the sentence type, e.g. if the sentence is a statement or a question, and all sentences, except for imperatives, must have a classifier The classifiers, waa and $m\acute{a}$, mark what type of sentence it is: waa, indicates that the sentence is a statement or an interrogative question; $m\acute{a}$ indicates, together with the subjunctive form of the verb, that the sentence is either a negated statement or, together with the with indicative form of the verb, a polar question. In addition, there are three focus words, $b\grave{a}a$, $ay\grave{a}a$ and $w\acute{a}xa(a)$, which mark where the focus of the sentence is: $b\grave{a}a$ and $ay\grave{a}a$ indicate that a preceding word is focused, and $w\acute{a}xa(a)$ indicates that the focus is on a word after the predicate verb. Another function of the focus words is to mark the difference between independent clauses and subordinate clauses; independent clauses must have sentence markers, while subordinate clauses cannot have sentence markers. This is an important feature for distinguishing relative clauses from independent clauses, since Somali lacks relative pronouns. The absence of relative pronouns in Somali is yet another difference between Somali and Swedish.

Lastely, there are some differences between the word order in Somali and Swedish. The basic, neutral word order in Somali is Subject, Object, Verb (SOV), and in Swedish, it is SVO in independent clauses. Another difference is that the noun modifiers are placed after the noun in Somali and before the noun in Swedish. However, the most significant difference concerns how restricted or unrestricted the word order is in independent clauses. In Swedish the word order in independent clauses is relatively fixed, which is often described with a word order template. Here the sentence *Han dricker aldrig kaffe på kvällen*. (He never drinks coffee in the evening) is used as an example:

Table 9: Word order in independent clauses in Swedish

Fundament	Finite verb	Subject	Sentence adverb	Infinite verb	Object/Predicative	Adverbial
Han	dricker		aldrig		kaffe	på kvällen.
På kvällen	dricker	han	aldrig		kaffe.	ри куштен.
Varför	dricker	han	aldrig		kaffe	på kvällen?
	Dricker	han	aldrig		kaffe	på kvällen?

This template shows, among other things, that the position of the finite verb is restricted to the second slot, and that the subject is always placed adjacent, either before or after, to the verb. In Somali the word order is also restricted, but in a different way. In order to understand the nature of the Somali word order, there is a need to focus on the phrases that constitutes a clause. A clause in Somali consists of a verb phrase and a number of noun phrases. The word order between these phrases is quite unrestricted, but the word order within in these phrases is entirely restricted. For example, the head of the verb phrase is always in the final position of the phrase, while the head of the noun phrase always is in the initial position of the phrase. In addition, the prepositions are always a part of the verbal phrase, as mentioned above.

In sum, the language situation in Somalia and Sweden is similar in the sense that both countries are largely considered monolingual countries; however, there are also differences. One difference is that the Somali script is relatively young compared to the Swedish script; the Somali script was established approximately 50 years ago, while the Swedish script was established approximately 350 years earlier. In addition, Somali has no established academic register. Regarding the script, some differences in the spelling of the vowels might be a challenge for people with Somali background writing in Swedish. Other challenges for people with Somali background might be the use of adjectives, prepositions and the copula, and the word order in the noun phrase and independent clauses in Swedish.

2.6 Summary

The challenges for Somali students in HE in Sweden are many. Firstly, a majority of the people within the Somali community in Sweden have no experience of studies in the HE. This probably means that they are not familiar with the academic discourse, either in Swedish or in Somali, especially Somali, since Somali does not have an academic writing tradition and therefore has not established an academic register. Firstly, this gives the Somali students a disadvantage, in particular, those who immigrated to Sweden at an adult age, since the skills of a first language, support the acquisition of a second language, and if Somali does not have an established academic register it cannot support the Somali students' acquisition of the Swedish academic register. In addition, there might be a disadvantage for children with Somali background born in Sweden, since it is likely that they grow up in a family with no academic traditions. Secondly, research has found that there is a strong connection between language and

acquisition of subject matter and knowledge formation, and since there is not an established academic register in Somali, and since Somali is not the language of instruction in HE in Somalia, the students with Somali background do not have the support from their first language when forming knowledge in HE in Sweden. In addition, research has shown that negative attitudes to bi- or multilingualism undermines second language students' ability to perform well. This concerns both the students' negative attitudes towards themselves as academic writers and negative attitudes from the surroundings in HE. The Swedish Language Act from 2009 perhaps contributes to this since it reinforces the view that the goal for a bilingual person is to reach the linguistic skills of a first language speaker in both languages (Lindberg, 2009), which might lead to intolerance for grammatical and other language mistakes in the academic register of Swedish. This is unfortunate for all second language students, and thus for the students with a Somali background who struggle with the Swedish grammar, perhaps especially the use of prepositions, tenses, adjective noun agreement, definiteness, and word order in their academic writing.

3. The Study

To further investigate the challenges students with Somali background might face in academic writing in Sweden, and to examine the impact their time in Sweden and their previous experience in Higher Education studies in Sweden and other countries might have on their academic writing in Swedish, and what type of writing support would benefit students with a Somali background the most, I conducted a study at the University of Gothenburg in the spring term of 2020. The study is described in this chapter. The participants, nine students with Somali background and eleven students with Swedish background, are students that I came in contact with during my work as a teacher in a course for Somali mother tongue teachers and as a language supervisor and at the Unit for Academic Language (ASK) at the University of Gothenburg. The participants contributed with texts they had written during their studies at the University of Gothenburg, and by answering a number of follow-up questions via e-mail. It is the texts written by the students with Somali background that is in focus in this study; the text written by the students with Swedish background are used for comparison.

3.1 Methodology

3.1.1 Data collection

During the spring term of 2016, I was invited to teach in a course for Somali mother tongue teachers, and during that course the students was given a number of different written assignments of various difficulty. These texts were submitted digitally on GUL, the learning management system that was in use then, so they were still accessible. I contacted the course coordinator, Morgan Nilsson, lecturer at the Department of Languages and Literatures at the University of Gothenburg, to obtain the e-mail addresses of the course participants to send an e-mail to them asking if they were willing to participate in my study. Of the in total 19 participants (17 men and two women) that received this e-mail, seven (five men and two women) answered, six (four men and two women) via e-mail and one man via telephone. The participant who telephoned wanted to have further information on the purpose of the study and how the texts would be used, which he received. These seven participants all gave their permission for the use of their texts in this study, and in addition, six of them (four men and two women) said they were available for follow-up questions. The seventh participant made reservations about having time for further participation. In total, these seven participants have contributed with seven texts.

In addition, texts from the Swedish and Somali participants in this study were acquired during spring term 2020 from students I met through my work as a language supervisor at ASK at the University of Gothenburg during autumn term 2019 and spring term 2020. The students that had received language supervision during the autumn term were contacted via e-mail, and the students from spring term 2020

were asked during their supervising sessions if they were willing to give permission for the use of their texts in this study. In total, 14 students were contacted, twelve with Swedish background and two with Somali background. Out of the twelve students with Swedish background, eleven students (four men and seven women) answered. All eleven Swedish students and both Somali students (both women) gave permission for the use if their texts, and everyone except for one of the Somali students, said they were available for answering follow-up questions.

After analysing the texts, an e-mail with nine follow-up questions was sent to the to the nine Somali students (Appendix I), and an e-mail with eight follow-up questions was sent to the eleven Swedish students (Appendix II). After a month, having received only one answer, from one of the Somali women and four answers from the Swedish students (one man and three women), another e-mail was sent, after which an additional four answers from the Somali students (four men and one woman) and an additional six answers from the Swedish students (two men and four women) were received. Thus, in total six participants with Somali background and ten participants with Swedish background answered the follow-up questions.

3.1.2 Data analysis

To distinguish what challenges the participants had in academic writing, their texts were analysed regarding structure, language and referencing. The method used to analyse these texts, is based on Dysthe's et al. (2011) description of the different areas and levels involved in academic writing.

According to Dysthe et al. (2011) the writing of an academic text involves knowledge and skills regarding: writing situation (purpose and target group, and cultural frame); topic and outlining of the academic text; sentence structure and coherence; vocabulary and how to use it; spelling and punctuation; and formalities regarding referencing. These different areas can be categorised as, global level concerns or local level concerns. The global levels involve the writing situation, the topic and outlining, and the sentence structure and coherence, while the local levels involve the vocabulary, the spelling and punctuation, and the formalities regarding referencing. In the English academic tutoring tradition, the concepts Higher Order Concerns (HOCs) and Lower Order Concerns (LOCs) are used to describe these levels (Blau, Hall and Sparks, 2002). However, since this terminology implies an hierarchic order between the concerns, and since what is of higher or lower order concern in tutoring a text is not always clear because the different levels of a text are intertwined and interdependent, the concepts global levels, corresponding HOCs, and local levels, corresponding LOCs, are used in Swedish academic tutoring tradition (Dysthe at al. 2011).

The analysis of the texts in this study is conducted on three different levels based on Dysthe's et al. ideas; global levels, local levels and referencing. The reason I chose to add a third level and to view referencing as a separate level and not a part of the local levels, is that, in my opinion, referencing has an impact on the global levels of a text, as well as the local levels of the text. The texts in this study are analysed regarding outlining, headlining, V-structure, paragraphing, topic sentences, and coherence on the global levels; regarding syntax, punctuation, and grammar on the local levels; and regarding lists of referencing, citation, paraphrasing, and quoting concerning the referencing. The use of some concepts in the analysis, need clarification. V-structure, refers to the idea of moving from general information to more specific information when writing a paragraph, a section, a chapter, or the whole text, which is symbolised by the V. A hybrid paragraph, is a paragraph that is neither marked by spacing nor indentation. A topic sentence, is a sentence that summarises the main contents of a paragraph and is normally the first sentence of a paragraph. Comma splice, is the use of a comma instead of a full stop or a conjunction between two independent clauses: Många lärare arbetar på flera skolor, detta resulterar i att de inte kan få en bra relation till eleverna. (Many teachers work at several schools, this results in that they cannot form a good relation to the students). Spacing in compound words, is when the writer wrongly puts a space between two words in a compound: ämnes kunskaper (subject knowledge). Dangling modifier, is a modifier that has no grammatically correct noun phrase, noun or pronoun, to modify in the main clause: Begreppet specialpedagog nämns inte i Skollagen men den berör ändå dess yrkesroll indirect (The concept special needs teacher is not mentioned in the School Act but it still touches on its professional role indirectly).

3.2 Information about the participants

This section contains a summary of the information about the participants I obtained in my encounter with them and through the follow-up questions, starting with the information about the participants with Somali background, followed by the information about the participants with Swedish background. The information concerns the participants' studies at the time of writing the texts, and their previous experiences in HE in Sweden or any other country. In addition, there is information about the participants' with Somali background length of time in Sweden, and the reasons why the participants with Swedish background and one of the participants with Somali background booked advising sessions at ASK.

3.2.1 Participants with Somali background

The majority of the Somali participants in this study (seven out of nine), were Somali mother tongue teachers and they all attended a course for Somali mother tongue teachers, SOL140, at the University of Gothenburg during spring term 2016. The reason I encountered these students, is that I was one of the

teachers at the course this particular term. This course, SOL140 The Somali Language in the Swedish School (7,5 credits), aims at improving the mother tongue teachers' insights in and understanding of their roles as transmitters of the Somali language and culture to, often very heterogeneous teaching groups, as well as their roles as tutors in the other school subjects (Göteborgs universitet, 2020c). The aim of this course is also to give the participants tools to independently further develop, based on scientific research, their pedagogical and didactical competences, in the subject of Somali. This course builds on the course and SOL120 The Structure of the Somali Language (7.5 credits), which aims at giving the students a possibility to deepen and develop their understanding of Somali as a language system. SOL120 and SOL140 are weekend courses, to make it possible for the mother tongue teachers to continue to work during their studies, and thus make the course more attractive. The additional two students with Somali background were students at the programme in diagnostic radiology nursing at Sahlgrenska Academy at the University of Gothenburg, and when they contacted ASK they were writing their degree project. At the Programme of Diagnostic Radiology Nursing, the students write their degree projects in pairs, which means that these two students contributed to this study with one text.

From the follow-up questions (Appendix I and Appendix II), information about some of the participants' background was obtained. The students with Somali background, were asked questions about if they were born in Sweden and if not, for how long they had lived there. In addition, they were asked if they had any previous experience from HE and thus, academic writing, in Sweden or any other country. In order to uphold the anonymity of the participants, they are referred to with a code and it is not revealed which of the students are men and which are women. The students with Somali background are coded So:1-8b. Students who wrote their text in pairs are referred to with the same number and an addition of 'a' or 'b'. Participants So:2, So:3, So:4, So: 6, So:7 and So:8a answered the follow-up questions:

So:2 had at the time of his/her participation in SOL140 the spring term of 2016, lived in Sweden for five years. So:2 did not have any previous experience from HE studies in Sweden before attending SOL140, but had two years of post-Secondary Education as a teacher in Somalia. So:2 stated that s/he had little experience of academic writing before attending SOL140.

So:3 had at the time of his/her participation in SOL140 the spring term of 2016, lived in Sweden for eight years. So:3 had previous experience of HE studies in Sweden before attending SOL140.

So:4 had at the time of his/her participation in SOL140 the spring term of 2016, lived in Sweden for six years. So:4 had no previous experience of studies in HE in Sweden. However, s/he had experience from Adult Secondary Education in Sweden; vocational education in working with children. In addition, s/he

had previous experience from academic studies in both Somalia and Kenya; a BA from Mogadishu University and an MA from Nairobi University. Both the Bachelor's thesis and the Master's thesis were written in English. Moreover, So:4 took an evening class in academic writing in connection with writing his/her Master thesis at Nairobi University. However, So:4 had no experience of academic writing in Somali, since, according to him/her, the language of instruction in HE in Somalia is English, but s/he thought s/he might be able to write an academic text in Somali if s/he tried.

So:6 had at the time of his/her participation in SOL140 the spring term of 2016, lived in Sweden for seven years. So:6 had no previous experience of HE studies in Sweden or any other country. However, after his/her studies at SOL140, s/he started studying biomedicine at the University of Gothenburg.

So:7 had at the time of his/her participation in SOL140 the spring term of 2016, lived in Sweden for 16 years. Before his/her studies at SOL140 at the University of Gothenburg, s/he took a freestanding course at Uppsala University. So:7 had no other previous experience of studies in HE in Sweden or any other country.

So:8a was born in Sweden, and is now in his/her early twenties, which means that s/he has attended Primary and Secondary Education in Sweden. So:8a had no previous experience of HE studies in Sweden or any other countries before s/he started his/her education at the Programme of Diagnostic Radiology Nursing at Sahlgrenska Academy at the University of Gothenburg, but at the time of the writing of the text s/he contributed with to this study, s/he had participated in the programme for two years. When booking an advising session at ASK s/he stated that s/he wanted assistance with the Swedish language in their text. In addition, So:8a were asked questions about his/her parents backgrounds. Both his/her parents were born and raised in Somalia. So:8a's father came to Sweden in 1990 and his/her mother in 1995. Before they came to Sweden, they both had finished Upper Secondary School in Somalia. In Sweden So:8a's father studied media and journalism at a Folk High School, but he does not work in that area now. So:8a's mother has no further education in Sweden, except for studies in SFL, Swedish as Foreign Language. This means that So:8a's family situation regarding education is statistically typical according to the information in section 2.1; neither of his/her parents have experience from studies in HE, and So:8's mother has no higher education than Upper secondary School.

Regarding the nature of these participants' bilingualism, all five participants from SOL140, who answered the follow-up questions, So:2, So:3, So:4, So:6, and So:7, are considered compound bilinguals, since they arrived in Sweden as adults and already had developed Somali as their first language, and then acquired Swedish. The participant from the programme in diagnostic radiology

nursing, So:8a, is considered a coordinate bilingual, since So:8a was born in Sweden and acquired Somali and Swedish simultaneously.

Table 10 below shows a summary of the participants' with Somali background years in Sweden and experiences in HE:

Table 10: A summary of the participants' with Somali background years in Sweden and experiences in HE, and type of bilingualism:

	Years in	Course at the	Previous	Previous experience	Type of bilingualism	
	Sweden	University of	experience from	from HE outside	coordinate	compound
		Gothenburg	HE in Sweden	Sweden		
So:2	5	SOL140	No	Yes		Х
So:3	8	SOL140	Yes	No		Х
So:4	6	SOL140	No	Yes		Х
So:6	7	SOL140	No	No		Х
So:7	16	SOL140	Yes	No		Х
So:8a	Born in	Diagn. Rad. Nurs.	Yes	No	X	
	Sweden	Pr.				

In sum, six of the in total nine participants with Somali background answered the follow-up questions, and five of these were students who participated in the SOL140 during spring term 2016. Of these, one participant, So:7, had lived in Sweden 16 years, and the other four, So:2, So:3, So:4 and So:6, had lived in Sweden less than half that time, five, eight, six and seven years respectively, at the time of their studies at SOL140. The sixth participant, So:8a, was born in Sweden. In addition, five of the six participants with Somali background had previous experience from HE studies, three in Sweden and two outside Sweden, in Kenya and Somalia; So:6 had no previous experience of HE studies. Furthermore, five of the six participants are compound bilinguals, and the sixth participant, So:8a, is a coordinate bilingual. Since So:8a and So:8b were the only ones of the Somali participants who contacted ASK for support, the fact that they stated that they needed support with their language is not presented in the table.

3.2.2 Participants with Swedish background

The participants with Swedish background, studied at different departments at the University of Gothenburg; the Department of Psychology, the Department of Sociology and Work Science, the Department of Social Work, the Department for Political Science, the Department of Education and Special Education, and the Department of Political Economy and Statistics. The participants with Swedish background were asked questions about their previous experiences in HE education. There is also some additional information about their present studies and reasons for contacting ASK, retrieved

from the form students are required to fill out when booking an advising session. Ten of the eleven answered the follow-up questions. The students with Swedish background were coded Sv:1-9. Students who wrote their text in pairs are referred to with the same number and an addition of 'a' or 'b'. Participants Sv:1, Sv:2, Sv:3, Sv:4, Sv:5a, Sv:6:a, Sv:6b, Sv:7, Sv:8, and Sv:9 answered the follow-up questions.

Sv:1 was at the time of writing his/her text, studying at the Department of Sociology and Work Science at the University of Gothenburg and had previous experience in HE at the University of Gothenburg. S/he had not studied at a programme but had taken freestanding courses in criminology and social psychology, and this was his/her third term doing so. Sv:1 had no previous experience from HE in any other country. When booking an advising session, Sv:1 said that s/he needed support with his/her academic writing in general, and grammar and sentence structure in particular.

Sv:2 was at the time of writing his/her text, studying at the Department of Sociology and Work Science at the University of Gothenburg and had previous experience of Vocational Studies in HE in Sweden, a two-year education in Production Logistics. Sv:2 had no previous experience from HE in any other country. When booking an advising session, Sv:2 asked for support with vocabulary, and shaping paragraphs and sentences. S/he also wrote that the readers of his/her texts often find it hard to understand what s/he is writing, since his/her texts are incoherent. Sv:2 also mentioned that s/he had reading and writing difficulties.

Sv:3 was at the time of writing his/her text, studying at the Department of Social Work at the University of Gothenburg, and had previous experience of studies in HE both in Sweden and abroad; s/he had previously studied both at the University of Gothenburg, and at Umeå University in Sweden, and had also taken a course in English at Cambridge in Great Britain. Sv:3 was recommended by her teacher to turn to ASK for support, and when booking an advising session, Sv:3 asked for support with structuring the text and "formalities". S/He also mentioned that she had dyslexia.

Sv:4 was at the time of writing his/her text, studying at the Department of Education and Special Education at the University of Gothenburg. S/He had previous experience from HE studies in Sweden from an Institute of Education and from a University of the Arts, and no experience from HE in any other country. When booking an advising session, Sv:4 wrote that s/he wanted support with structuring the contents and shaping the form of the text.

Sv:5a was at the time of writing his/her text, studying at the Department of Political Economy and Statistics at the University of Gothenburg. Sv:5a had previous experience from studies in HE in Sweden, a number of freestanding courses and a college degree in management economy. Sv:5a had no previous experience from HE in any other country. Sv:5a was writing his/her text together with Sv:5b, who did not answer the follow-up questions. When booking an advising session, they asked for support with their academic language and the shaping of their text.

Sv:6a was at the time of writing his/her text, studying at the Department of Political Economy and Statistics at the University of Gothenburg. Sv:6a had previous experience of HE studies from Malmö Academy of Music where s/he attended the Performance programme of Music at the BA level. Sv:6a had no previous experience of HE studies in any other country. Sv:6a was writing his/her text together with Sv:6b, and, when booking an advising session, they asked for support with "flow" and "clarity" in the introduction of the thesis.

Sv:6b was at the time of writing his/her text, studying at the Department of Political Economy and Statistics at the University of Gothenburg. Sv6b had previous experience of studies in HE in Sweden, a freestanding course in psychology (15 credits) followed by two and a half years at a BA programme in National Economy. Sv:6b has no experience from HE abroad. Sv:6b is writing his/her text together with Sv:6a, and, when booking an advising session, they asked for support with "flow" and "clarity" in the introduction of the thesis.

Sv:7 was at the time of writing his/her text, studying at the Department of Psychology at the University of Gothenburg. S/he had previous experience from studies in HE in Sweden the past twenty years, among other things a Bachelors' degree and Vocational Education. Sv:7 had no previous experience of HE studies abroad. When booking an advising session, Sv:7 stated that s/he wanted support with structuring his/her thesis. Sv:7 did not answer the follow-up questions so there is no information about his/her previous studies.

Sv:8 was at the time of writing his/her text, studying at the Department for Political Science, Centre for European Studies at the University of Gothenburg. Sv:8 had pervious experiences of HE studies in Sweden, but gave no further information about this. Sv:8 had no previous experience from studies in any other countries. When booking an advising session, Sv:8 said that s/he needed help with writing and crafting an essay in general, and with the introduction in particular.

Sv:9 was at the time of writing his/her text, studying at the Unit for Subject Teacher Education at the University of Gothenburg. Sv:9 had previous experience from studies in HE in Sweden, general psychology (30 credits), family psychology (30 credits), sports psychology (15 credits), criminology 30 (credits), and academic writing (7,5 credits). Sv:9 had no previous experience from studies in HE in any other country. The thesis Sv:9 contributed to this study, was written at the Faculty of Humanities. When booking an advising session, Sv:9 explained that s/he needed support with writing more concentrated and efficiently, since s/he had dyslexia. Table 11 below shows a summary of the participants' with Swedish background experiences of higher education and reasons for contacting ASK:

Table 11: A summary of the participants' with Swedish background experiences in HE and reasons for contacting ASK

	Department/Unit at the	Previous experience from	Previous experience from	Reasons for con	ntacting ASK
	University of Gothenburg	HE in Sweden	HE outside Sweden	language	structure
Sv:1	Sociology and Work Science	yes	no	X	
Sv:2	Sociology and Work Science	yes	no	X	
Sv:3	Social Work	yes	yes		X
Sv:4	Education and Special Education	yes	no		X
Sv:5a	Political Economy and Statistics	yes	no	X	X
Sv:6a	Political Economy and Statistics	yes	no	X	X
Sv:6b	Political Economy and Statistics	yes	no	X	X
Sv:7	Psychology	yes	no		X
Sv:8	Political Science	yes	no		X
Sv:9	Subject Teacher Education	yes	no	X	

In sum, all eleven participants with Swedish background that answered the follow-up questions had previous experience from HE studies in Sweden, either at the University of Gothenburg or other universities or colleges. In addition, one of the participants had previous experience from studying in Great Britain. Five of the ten participants stated need for support regarding language as the reason for contacting ASK, and seven stated need for support regarding structure.

3.3 Texts

Between the in total 20 participants, there are 17 texts that are used in this study; the nine participants with Somali background have contributed with eight texts, and the eleven participants with Swedish background have contributed with nine texts. The texts written by the participants with Somali background have been coded SoText:1-8, and the texts written by the participants with Swedish background have been coded SvText:1-9.

Of the nine participants with Somali background, the seven participants that studied at SOL140 had several written assignments during the course. Of these, one is analysed here. This assignment was a four-page individual task to write an action plan to enhance the status of and improve the Somali mother

tongue teaching at the schools they worked. The instructions that was given by their teacher, i.e. me, was focused on content rather than form (Appendix III). Thus, the students were left without any guidance concerning structure, language and referencing. They had, however had some instructions concerning academic writing the previous spring term, during the course SOL120, by the course coordinator Morgan Nilsson, lecturer at the Department of Languages and Literatures at the University of Gothenburg (Appendix IV). Of the in total eight texts collected from the nine students with Somali background, seven were from this task, SoText:1-7 written by So:1-7. The eighth text from the participants with Somali background, SoText:8, was a degree project written by two students, So;8a and So:8b, from the Programme of Diagnostic Radiology Nursing at Sahlgrenska Academy at the University of Gothenburg.

The nine texts written by the participants with Swedish background can be divided into two categories, shorter assignments, and theses and degree projects. The first category is four individual short assignments, SvText:1-4, written by students Sv:1-4 from the Faculty of Education and the Faculty of Social Sciences at the University of Gothenburg. Of these, SvText:1-2 are written by students attending the first cycle and SvTexts:3-4 are written by students attending the second cycle. The second category is four Bachelor's theses, SvText:5-8, written by students Sv:5a, Sv:5b, Sv:6a, Sv:6b, Sv:7, and Sv:8 from the School of Business, Economics and Law, the Faculty of Social Sciences, and one degree project written by Sv:9 from the Faculty of Humanities at the University of Gothenburg. On basis of the answers of the follow-up questions and information given by the students during the booked language advising sessions, the conclusion is that for the four shorter individual assignments the participants received thorough instructions regarding the contents but not regarding the form. For the four Bachelor's theses and the degree project, the participants received more thorough instructions regarding the form, and, in some cases, also model texts.

Worth noticing is that all the texts from SOL140 were the final versions, while all the other texts were work in progress. The texts were analysed on three different levels: global levels, i.e. structure, paragraphing, topic sentences; local levels, i.e. language (style, sentence structure and punctuation, vocabulary and grammar); referencing, i.e. paraphrasing, citation (including quotations), and list of references. These points of analysis are more carefully explained in section 3.1.2. Concerning quotations, the focus is on how they are presented in the texts, i.e. if they are accompanied by an introductory text and a follow-up comment, and if the source is cited. The analysis is not concerned with if the quotation is correctly quoted. The categories concerning global levels and referencing are the same for the SvTexts and the SoTexts, but the categories for the local levels are not, since the SvTexts and the SoTexts demonstrated different types of language shortcomings. Furthermore, this study is only

concerned with the types of shortcomings, and to some extent, benefits, that appear in the texts. It is not concerned with the number of shortcomings within each type.

Next section starts with a summary of the problems in SvText:1-9, the nine texts written by the participants with Swedish background, and then continues with a more detailed summary of the problems in SoTexts:1-8, the eight texts written by the participants with Somali background.

3.3.1 Analysis of the texts written by the participants with Swedish background *Global levels in SvText:1-9*

All four shorter individual assignments, SvText:1-4, needed improvement on the global levels regarding structure and coherence. This involved improving the organising of the contents, according to the V-structure. It also involved improving the formulation of topic sentences. In addition, SvText:2 and SvText:4 needed improvement concerning paragraphing; the writers Sv:2 and Sv:4 showed an unawareness of paragraphing; occasionally hybrid paragraphs were used. Also the Bachelor's theses, SvText:5-8, and the degree project, SvText:9, would benefit from improving the organising of the contents, according to the V-structure, and formulation of topic sentences, except for perhaps SvText:9. In addition, there is occurrence of hybrid paragraphs in SvText:8. All of the theses and the degree project follow a pattern regarding what different sections to include. Table 12 below contains a summary of the shortcomings on the global levels detected in SvTexts:1-9:

Table 12: Challenges on the global levels in SvTexts 1-9

	Outl	ining	Headlining	Paragraphing		Coherence	
	Introduction	Conclusion	_		V-structure*	Topic sentences	Linking
SvText:1					X	X	X
SvText:2				X	X	X	X
SvText:3					X	X	X
SvText:4				X	X	X	X
SvText:5					X	X	
SvText:6					X	X	
SvText:7					X	X	
SvText:8				X	X	X	
SvText:9		·					

^{*}moving from general information to more specific information

From the information summarised in Table 12, it is clear that none of the SvTexts had shortcomings regarding outlining and headlining. In addition, it is clear that all texts, except SvText:9 had shortcomings concerning the V-structure and the topic sentences.

Local levels in SvText:1-9

All four shorter individual assignments, SvText:1-4, had difficulties on the local levels concerning syntax and dangling modifiers. However, SvText:3 and SvText:4, written by students attending the

second cycle, holds an overall better linguistic level than SvText:1 and SvText:2, written by students attending the first cycle. In addition, the texts written by students attending the first cycle are harder to understand due to incoherent sentence structure, and mistakes concerning vocabulary and idiomatic language. Especially SvText:2 is a case in point here. Even though the Bachelor's theses and the degree project show an overall better use of the academic register, there is some room for improvement on the same points as for the shorter individual assignments; incoherent sentence structure, and mistakes concerning vocabulary and idiomatic language. Table 13 below, shows a summary of the shortcomings on the local levels in SvText:1-9:

Table 13: Challenges on the local levels in SvText:1-9

	S	yntax	Punctuation	Dangling	Prepositions	Definiteness	Pronouns	Spacing in
	Comma splice	Incomplete sentences		modifiers			3 rd pers. plur. subj./obj.	compounds
SvText:1		X	X	X				
SvText:2		X		X				
SvText:3	X			X	X	X	X	
SvText:4					X			
SvText:5								
SvText:6								
SvText:7								
SvText:8		X						
SvText:9	X		X		X			

One important observation in Table 13 is that the big difference in number of categories these texts are marked for shortcomings in, is not between first cycle students (SvText:1-2 and SvText:5-9) and second cycle students (SvText:3-4), but between short assignments (SvText:1-4) and Bachelor's theses and the degree project (SvText:5-9). Another observation is that the majority, 66%, of the shortcomings concern sentence structure; of the 15 markings in Table 13, ten are sentence structure shortcomings (comma splice: two, incomplete sentences: three, punctuation: two, dangling modifiers: three). One third observation is that the two categories Pronouns 3rd pers. plur. subj./obj. (de/dem) and Spacing in compounds are only represented with one marking in Table 13. This is surprising since shortcomings regarding these two categories are otherwise considered to be well represented in students' texts.

Referencing in SvText:1-9

The referencing in the Sv:Texts are over all satisfactory. All four shorter assignments have lists of references according to APA. However, the reference list in SvText:4 have many shortcomings. All Bachelor's theses and the degree project have acceptable lists of references, according to either APA or Harvard. Concerning citation, all texts use APA or Harvard, however, SvText:2 wrongly has the brackets with the citation after the full stop of the sentence, when they should be before the full stop. Only two of the shorter texts, SvText:1 and SvText:4 have quotations, however, the quotation in SvText:4 has no follow-up comment. The citation and the use of quotations in all the Bachelor's theses and the degree

project are satisfactory. All the Bachelor's theses and the degree project use the APA reference system, except for SvText:5 that uses the Harvard system. None of these texts had any obvious difficulties concerning paraphrasing. Table 14 below summarises the shortcomings in SvText:1-8:

Table 14: Challenges concerning referencing in SvTexts:1-9

	List of re	eferences	Cita	ition	Paraphrasing	Quoting
	Lack of	Form	Lack of	Form		
SvText:1						
SvText:2				X		
SvText:3						
SvText:4		X				X
SvText:5						
SvText:6						
SvText:7						
SvText:8						
SvText:9						

As Table 14 shows, there are not many types of shortcomings represented in the SvTexts, and the shortcomings only concern the form of the lists of references, citation, and quotation.

A compilation of the shortcomings regarding the three analysed levels in the SvTexts is shown in table 15 below.

Table 15: Challenges on the global and local levels, and concerning referencing in the SvTexts

		Sv								
		Text:1	Text:2	Text:3	Text:4	Text:5	Text:6	Text:7	Text:8	Text:9
Global	Outlining									
levels	Headlining									
	Paragraphing		X		X				X	
	V-structure*	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	
	Topic sentences	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	
	Coherence	X	X	X	X					
Local	Syntax	X	X	X					X	X
levels	Punctuation	X								X
	Dangling modifiers	X	X	X						
	Prepositions			X	X					X
	Definiteness			X						
	Pronouns 3 rd pers. plur.			X						
	Spacing in compounds									
Referenc	List of references				X					
ing	Citation			X						
	Paraphrasing									
	Quoting				X					

^{*}moving from general information to more specific information

In sum, the Bachelor's theses and the degree project, and to some extent, the shorter individual texts written by students attending the second cycle, overall have a higher standard concerning the global and local levels, as well as the referencing, than the shorter individual texts written by students attending the first cycle. In addition, none of the texts demonstrated difficulties with outlining and headlining on the global levels.

3.3.2 Analysis of the texts written by the participants with Somali background *Global levels in SoText:1-8*

This section contains a description of the *global levels* in first, the short individual assignments from SOL140 (SoText:1-7) and then, the degree project (SoText:8).

SoText:1, which is written by So:1, has many shortcomings on the global levels of the text. The overall outline of the text does not give an "academic impression". The text lacks introduction and conclusion, and there is no clear V-structure. There is no consistency in the shape of the headlines, and some sections have headlines while others do not. In addition, the text has too many too short paragraphs, and the space between the paragraphs is too wide. There is no linking between the paragraphs. However, most paragraphs have topic sentences.

SoText:2, which is written by So:2, has an introduction and an additional three sections that are marked with headlines with a consistent form. Each section has a clear structure and the coherence of the text is good, which makes it easy to follow the line of reasoning. In addition, new paragraphs are consistently marked with a blank line. The shortcomings in this text are the lack of conclusion and topic sentences, and a well thought through over all V-structure.

SoText:3, which is written by So:3, has an introduction, and headlines and subheadings. In addition the use of linking words is satisfactory and there is a well thought through V-structure. Moreover, new paragraphs are consistently marked with a blank line, and some paragraphs have topic sentences. The shortcomings are that the text lacks a conclusion, that the form of the headlines and subtitles is not consistent, and that the paragraphing needs an overview regarding the contents.

SoText:4, which is written by So:4, lacks an introduction, but there is a summarising conclusion. The text has many headlines of which some are subheadings. There is, however, no typographical distinction, for example size, which signals this. Since there are many short sections that are not linked together, and large parts of the text are written as bullet point lists, the text lacks coherence. There are, however, some topic sentences to guide the reader.

SoText:5, which is written by So:5, is framed by an introduction and a conclusion. However, the introduction is only six lines, and the conclusion runs over almost one page, which makes the text unbalanced. There are an additional two sections in the text, which are not marked with headlines or subheadings, but there are linguistic signals to help the reader understand the structure. New paragraphs

are consistently marked with blank lines and many of the paragraphs are introduced by a topic sentence that is elaborated in the paragraph. However, there is no well thought through V-structure within the different sections, and there are few linking words and phrases linking different paragraphs, but the linking within the paragraphs works.

SoText:6, which is written by So:6, is framed by an introduction and a conclusion, however, the conclusion is a summary written as a bullet point list. There is a headline and two subheadings, but the form and size of the subheadings are inconsistent. In addition, one of the sections lacks a subheading. New paragraphs are consistently marked with blank lines, and there is a clear linking between the paragraphs. Most paragraphs are introduced by a topic sentence, and there are indications of a V-structure in the whole text as well as within the different sections.

In SoText:7, which is written by So:7, the benefits on the global levels are the overall clear structure. There is an introduction and a conclusion, there are six sections with subheadings, the sections have a clear V-structure, and most of the paragraphs are introduced by a topic sentence. However, the introduction is not written in a separate paragraph, which might confuse the reader, and the marking of the paragraphs is inconsistent; So:7 uses both spacing and indentation to mark new paragraphs. In addition, there are also hybrid paragraphs, and the paragraphs are too short, which makes the reading more difficult than necessary. Finally, the subheadings of the six sections is inconsistent concerning size and form.

SoText:8, which is written by So:8a and So:8b, is divided into a number of sections, each with their headline, which creates a good structure, and new paragraphs are consistently marked by spacing. In addition, many of the paragraphs are introduced by topic sentences and have a good V-structure. However, other paragraphs lack this, and some sections would benefit from being restructured.

In Table 16 below is a summary of the shortcomings on the global levels in SoText:1-8:

Table 16: Challenges on the global levels in SoText:1-8

	Outl	ining	Headlining	Paragraphing		Coherence	
	Introduction	Conclusion			V-structure*	Topic sentences	Linking
SoText:1	X	X	X	X	X		X
SoText:2		X			X	X	
SoText:3		X	X	X			
SoText:4	X		X	X	X	X	X
SoText:5					X		X
SoText:6			X				
SoText:7			X	X			
SoText:8					X	X	

^{*}moving from general information to more specific information

In sum, all SoTexts have shortcomings on the global levels, mostly concerning structure and paragraphing. A main difference between the shorter individual assignments from SOL140 and the degree project is that the short individual assignments have more shortcomings concerning the overall structure (i.e. lack of introduction and conclusion, and inconsistent paragraphing). However, SoText:8 has two markings in the table, one for lack of V-structure, and one for lack of topic sentences. In this case, it is worth remembering that the analysed version of the text is not the final, complete version.

Local levels in SoText:1-8

This section contains a description of the local levels in first, the short individual assignments from SOL140 (SoText:1-7) and then, the degree project (SoText:8).

In SoText:1, which is written by So:1, the language follows the expectations of the academic register, and has almost no shortcomings concerning vocabulary, grammar or spelling. However, 51% of SoText:1 is similar to other texts, according to Urkund¹, which means that a large part of the language in this text is not So:1's own language, and is therefore not represented in the summary in Table 16 below.

SoText:2, which is written by So:2, shows a few shortcomings concerning the vocabulary of the academic register, but it is mostly the Swedish grammar and the spelling of compound words and certain vowels that is problematic. The text contains grammar mistakes regarding: word order (the subject-verb word order); the noun phrase (i.e. gender and the use of the definite form plural); verbs (i.e. the auxiliary ska (will) is occasionally left out in the present future tense, and there is confusion about the use of the infinitive form and the present tense); pronouns (i.e. the use of sin (3rd pers. sing. and plur. reflexive possessive) and deras (3rd per. plur. possessive). The text also contains spelling errors, i.e. spacing in compound words, and confusion regarding the use of the symbols o and a, and a and a.

SoText:3, which is written by So:3, also shows a few shortcomings concerning the vocabulary of the academic register, but it is mostly the Swedish grammar and the spelling of compound words and certain vowels that are problematic in this text. SoText:3 contains grammar mistakes regarding: the noun phrase (i.e. the use of the definite form of both singular and plural, and the noun-pronoun agreement); and prepositions (i.e. the wrong preposition is used, a preposition is missing, or a preposition is used when none is required). The text also contains spelling errors, i.e. spacing in compound words, and confusion regarding the use of the symbols o and \ddot{o} .

_

¹ "Urkund is a fully-automatic machine learning text-recognition system made for detecting, preventing and handling plagiarism /.../" (https://www.urkund.com/the-urkund-system/)

SoText:4, which is written by So:4, has shortcomings concerning the Swedish grammar and the spelling of compound words and certain vowels. This text contains grammar mistakes regarding: word order (the subject-verb word order in subordinate clause); the noun phrase (i.e. definiteness and its adjective-noun agreement); verbs (i.e. confusion about the use of the infinitive form and the present tense); prepositions (i.e. the wrong preposition is used, a preposition is missing, or a preposition is used when none is required); pronouns (i.e. the use of *sin* (3rd pers. sing. and plur. reflexive possessive) and *deras* (3rd per. plur. possessive). The text also contains spelling errors, i.e. spacing in compound words (e.g. *föräldra ansvar* (parent responsibility) and *skol rector* (school principle)), and confusion regarding the use of the symbols *a* and *e*.

SoText:5, which is written by So:5, has a few shortcomings concerning the vocabulary of the academic register, but it is mostly the Swedish grammar and the spelling of compound words and certain vowels that is problematic in this text. This text contains grammar mistakes regarding: word order (i.e. the position of the sentence adverb in subordinate clauses); the noun phrase (i.e. the use of the definite and indefinite form in constructions with the genitive and possessive pronouns); verbs (i.e. the auxiliary *ska* (will) is occasionally left out in the present future tense, and there is confusion about the use of the infinitive form and the present tense); and prepositions (i.e. the wrong preposition is used, or a preposition is missing). The text also contains spelling errors, i.e. spacing in compound words (e.g. *skol miljö* (school environment)), and confusion regarding the use of the symbols *o* and *ö*.

SoText:6, which is written by So:6, has shortcomings regarding the Swedish grammar and the spelling of compound words and certain vowels. This text contains grammar mistakes regarding: the noun phrase (i.e. gender, the use of the definite and indefinite form, and the use of definiteness in general); verbs (i.e. the auxiliary *ska* (will) is occasionally left out in the present future tense); prepositions (i.e. the wrong preposition is used, a preposition is missing, or a preposition is used when none is required); and distinguishing between adjectives and adverbs. The text also contains spelling errors, i.e. spacing in compound words (e.g. *ämnes lärare* (subject teacher(s)) and *kunskaps utveckling* (knowledge development)), and confusion regarding the use of the symbols *o* and *ö*.

SoText:7, which is written by So:7, has a generally good language that suits the academic register well. There are however, some shortcomings regarding grammar and spacing in compound words. This text contains grammar mistakes regarding: syntax (i.e. comma splice, and the occasional lack of the subjunction *att* (that)); verbs (i.e. confusion about the use of the infinitive form and the present tense); and prepositions (i.e. the wrong preposition is used, or a preposition is missing). In addition, there are occasional cases of grammar mistakes concerning distinguishing between adjectives and adverbs; *både*

(both), a conjunction, and $b\mathring{a}da$ (both), a pronoun; and de (personal pronoun, subjective form, 3^{rd} pers. plur) and dem (personal pronoun, objective form, 3^{rd} pers. plur).

In SoText:8, which is written by So:8a and So:8b, there is a generally good language that suits the academic register well. There are however, also in this text, some shortcomings concerning grammar and spacing in compound words. This text contains grammar mistakes regarding: word order (i.e. subject-verb word order in main clauses); the noun phrase (i.e. gender and adjective-noun agreement); the use of *även* (also), a sentence adverb, as a conjunction. The text also contains spelling errors, i.e. spacing between words in a compound word (e.g. *röntgen modalitet* (scan modality) and *voxel strålen* (the voxel beam). Worth noticing is that there are no mistakes concerning prepositions and the spelling of the vowel sounds in this text.

In Table 17 below is a summary of the shortcomings on the local levels in SoText:2-8:

Table 17: Challenges on the local levels in SoText:2-8

	Sy	ntax	Agreement	Definiteness	Ver	bs	Prepositions	Spacing in	Spelling
	Word	Comma	in NP		Infinitive/	Auxiliary in		compounds	of
	order	splice			Present tense	future tense			vowels
SoText:2	X		X		X	X	X	X	X
SoText:3			X				X	X	X
SoText:4	X		X	X	X		X	X	X
SoText:5	X		X		X	X	X	X	X
SoText:6			X	X		X	X	X	X
SoText:7		X			X		X	X	
SoText:8	X		X					X	

In sum, the majority of the texts have difficulties with six of the seven main categories listed in the table above; syntax, agreement in the noun phrase, verbs, prepositions, and spacing in compounds and the spelling of the vowel sounds. The exception is definiteness

Referencing in SoText:1-8

This section contains a description of the referencing in first, the short individual assignments from SOL140 (SoText:1-7) and then, the degree project (SoText:8).

In SoText:1, which is written by So:1, there is a list of references, which, however, does not follow a particular system, e.g. APA or Harvard. There are citations in So:1, but they are a combination of APA and Harvard. There is one quotation in the text but it is neither introduced nor followed up by a comment. 51% of this text is similar to other texts, according to Urkund, so it is assumed that So:1 has difficulties with paraphrasing, but whether this depends on language issues or lack of knowledge that paraphrasing is required in academic writing is unclear.

In SoText:2, which is written by So:2, there is only one source cited in the text in connection with the one quotation. The rest of the text lacks citation. The one source citied in the text is on the list of references, but the information given there is inadequate. In the list, there is also a reference to "powerpoint", with no further information. However, the quotation is handled correctly; it has a reference, and is introduced and commented on in the text.

In SoText:3, which is written by So:3, too few sources are cited. The citations that exist are used in connection with quotations and correctly according to APA. There are two quotations in the text, which are accordingly introduced and followed up by a comment. However, one of the quotations runs over two paragraphs and perhaps should have been paraphrased instead. There is no list of references.

In SoText:4, which is written by So:4, there is only one source cited in the text in connection with the one quotation. The rest of the text lacks citation. The quotation is briefly introduced, but lacks a follow-up comment. There is no list of references in this text.

In SoText:5, which is written by So:5, there are three citations, however, their form do not apply to APA or Harvard. One of these citations concern a quote, which is accordingly introduced and commented on. There is no list of references. In addition, 20% of this text is similar to other texts, according to Urkund, which indicates that So:5 has some challenges concerning paraphrasing.

In SoText:6, which is written by So:6, there are citations but the information is incomplete. There is an attempt of writing a list of references; there are two sources listed, "Skolverket" and "Lektions document i gul", without any further information. SoText:6 contains no quotations.

In SoText:7, which is written by So:7, there is a list of references written according to Harvard, and the citation of sources in the text is satisfactory concerning number, but there is inconsistency in how much information is given about the sources. SoText:7 has no quotations.

In SoText:8, which is written by So:8a and So:8b, there are mostly benefits concerning the referencing. The citation of the sources is adequate, and there is a list of references according to APA, however not complete and not in alphabetical order. There are no quotations in this text.

Table 18 below shows a summary of the shortcomings regarding referencing in SoText:1-8:

Table 18: Challenges concerning referencing in SoText:1-8

	List of re	eferences	Cita	ition	Paraphrasing	Quoting
	Lack of	Form	Lack of	Form		
SoText:1		X		X	X	X
SoText:2		X	X			
SoText:3	X		X			
SoText:4	X		X			X
SoText:5	X			X	X	
SoText:6		X		X		
SoText:7				X		
SoText:8		X				

Table 18 shows that the degree project, SoText8, has almost no shortcomings, except for the incomplete list of references. However, when So:8a and So:8b contacted ASK for support they were in the middle of the working process so the text was not completed. In contrast, the individual assignments of SOL140 were completed and they all showed some shortcomings concerning referencing. Firstly, three of the seven SOL140-texts lacked lists of references. In the four SOL140-texts that had lists of references, only one, SoText:7, had an acceptable list of references. Secondly, one of the seven SOL140-texts lacked citation of sources, and of the six SOL140-texts that cited sources, five texts had long sections that lacked citations. Thirdly, of the five SOL140-texts that used quotations, two texts did not handle them accordingly. Lastly, in two of the eight SoTexts, SoText:1 and SoText:5, large parts were similar to other texts (51% and 20% respectively), which indicates problems with paraphrasing. In sum, all of the eight SoTexts have shortcomings regarding referencing.

A compilation of the shortcomings regarding the three analysed levels in the SoTexts is shown in table 19 below.

Table 19: Challenges on the local and global levels, and concerning referencing in the SoTexts

		SoText:1**	SoText:2	SoText:3	SoText:4	SoText:5	SoText:6	SoText:7	SoText:8
Global	Outlining	X	x	X	X				
levels	Headlining	X		X	X		X	X	
	Paragraphing	х		X	X			X	
	V-structure*	X	X		X	X			X
	Topic sentences		X		X				X
	Coherence	X			X	x			
Local levels	Syntax		x	X	X			X	X
	Agreement in NP		X	X	X	X	X		X
	Definiteness				X		x		
	Verbs		X	X	x	X	X	X	
	Prepositions		X	X	x	X	X	X	
	Spacing in compounds		X	X	X	X	X	X	X
	Spelling of vowels		X	X	X	X	X		
Referencing	List of references	X	x	x	x	x	x		(x)
_	Citation	X	x	x	x	x	x	X	
	Paraphrasing	X				X			
	Quoting	X			X				

*moving from general information to more specific information

In sum, Table 19 shows that even though SoText:1 is not represented in the analysis of the local levels, it is this level that has the most markings, 34, compared to 24 markings on the global levels and 18 markings concerning referencing. In addition, the table shows that the local levels are problematic also for those who have few markings regarding the global levels, and referencing: texts that only have one

^{**51%} of this text is similar to other texts, which means that a large part of the language in this text is not So:1's own language.

marking (SoText:6) or two markings (SoText:5, SoText:7 and SoText:8) on the global levels, have numerous markings on the local levels. The same observation can be made concerning the referencing: texts that only have one marking (SoText:7 and SoText:8) or two markings (SoText:2, SoText:3 and SoText:6) on referencing, have numerous markings on the local levels.

3.4 Summary

The participants in this study are students I met in my work at the University of Gothenburg at a course for Somali mother tongue teachers, SOL140, during spring term 2016, and at ASK during autumn term 2019 and spring term 2020. Nine participants with Somali background contributed with eight texts, and six of these participants answered the follow-up questions. Eleven participants with Swedish background contributed with nine texts, and ten of these participants answered the follow-up questions. The follow-up questions concerned what previous experience the participants had of HE studies in Sweden or other countries, and for the participants with Somali background the amount of time they had spent in Sweden at the writing of the text. Only one of the participants with Somali background was born in Sweden. The others had been in Sweden for between five and 16 years. Three of the six participants with Somali background had previous experience of HE studies in Sweden, and two had previous experience of HE studies in Somalia and Kenya. All ten participants with Swedish background had previous experience of HE studies in Sweden, and one had previous experience of HE studies in Great Britain.

The texts were analysed on three different levels, global levels, local levels and referencing. Both regarding the texts written by the participants with Swedish background and the texts written by the participants with Somali background, the Bachelor's theses and the degree projects have an over all higher standard than the shorter individual assignments have. All texts had shortcomings regarding all three levels. However, none of the texts written by the participants with Swedish background had shortcomings on the global levels regarding outlining and headlining.

4. Result and Analysis

In this chapter the answers to the research issues are described and analysed in five sections. Section 4.1 presents the challenges students with Somali background encounter in their Swedish academic writing at the University of Gothenburg. Section 4.2 compares the challenges of students with Somali background with the challenges of students with Swedish background regarding their Swedish academic writing at the University of Gothenburg. Section 4.3 describes the impact time in Sweden has on the students' with Somali background achievements in academic writing in Swedish. Section 4.4 describes how students with Somali background benefit from previous experience in Higher Education studies in Sweden and other countries, in their academic writing in Swedish. Section 4.5 presents the type of writing support that would benefit students with a Somali background the most.

4.1 Language challenges in texts written by students with Somali background

To answer the first research issue about what language challenges students with Somali background encounter in their Swedish academic writing at the University of Gothenburg, an analysis of the shortcomings on the local levels in the texts were made. Eight categories of difficulties was found in the seven texts written by the participants with a Somali background: on the local levels; syntax, agreement in the noun phrase, verbs, prepositions, and spacing in compounds and spelling of vowels. The majority of the SoTexts demonstrated difficulties with seven of these eight categories as shown in table 17. The fact that most shortcomings on the local levels in the SoTexts concern these particular seven categories, syntax, agreement in the noun phrase, definiteness, verbs, prepositions, spacing in compounds, and spelling of the Swedish vowel sounds, is no coincidence; on these particular points, perhaps with the exception of definiteness, Somali written language and Swedish written language differ, as described in section 2.5. Regarding word order the main differences between Somali and Swedish is perhaps the basic word order, SOV for Somali and SVO for Swedish, and that the noun modifiers are placed after the noun in Somali and before the noun in Swedish. However, in this case it is perhaps the relatively fixed word order, or the differently fixed word order in Swedish compared to Somali, in combination with the reversed subject verb word order in independent clauses in Swedish, if the sentence starts with another part of sentence than the subject, that is accountable for the shortcomings in word order the SoTexts demonstrate. Also, the shortcomings regarding the agreement in the noun phrase can be explained by the differences between Somali and Swedish; in Somali, there is no agreement regarding gender, number and definiteness in the noun phrase (Saeed, 1993).

In addition, the shortcomings concerning prepositions and vowels, can be explained by the differences between Somali and Swedish. Somali does not have prepositions in the same fashion Swedish has. In Somali the four real prepositions, which express general location and abstract meanings are placed before the verb. To express a more specific position a noun phrase is used (Saeed, 1993). Regarding difficulties with the spelling of the vowels sounds, the explanation probably is that the pronunciation of the vowel are differently spread as shown in the vowel charts in Figure 4 (Engstrand, 1999) and Figure 5 (Saeed, 1993). This naturally makes it difficult for the Somali participants to distinguish between the vowel sounds in Swedish and to choose the correct symbol to represent the sound in orthography. The shortcomings regarding the lack of the auxiliary ska (will) in the future tense in Swedish can perhaps be explained by the formation of the future tense; in Somali where the auxiliary doona (is going to) is placed after the infinitive form of the verb, and in Swedish the auxiliary is placed before the verb, as described in section 2.5. However, the shortcomings concerning the confusion about the present tense and the infinitive form of the verb might not have a grammatical explanation since both Swedish and Somali distinguish between the present tense and the infinitive form. Instead, there might be a phonological explanation, a difference in the pronunciation of /r/. In Somali, the pronunciation of /r/ is different from the pronunciation in Swedish in the sense that the /r/ in Somali is pronounced with more friction, and hence is more fricative, as described in Table 5 (Saeed, 1993), than the pronunciation of /r/ in Swedish. In addition, the pronunciation of /r/ in Swedish is often week or silent when /r/ is in word final position, which it is in most verbs in the present tense. This might be the reason for the lack of /r/ in the verbs in the present tense, which results in a resemblance with the infinitive form, in the texts written by the Somali participants. If this is the case, the shortcomings regarding the absence of final – r in the present tense in Swedish words might not be due to confusion regarding the use of the present tense and the infinitive form.

One shortcoming that cannot be explained by differences between Somali and Swedish is spacing in compounds; word formation through compounds is common in Somali, so this must have another explanation, which is not explored in this study.

In sum, the shortcomings in the SoTexts concerning word order, agreement in the noun phrase, the use of the auxiliary 'ska' in the future tense, the confusion between the infinitive and the present tense, the use of prepositions, and the spelling of the vowels, can be explained by differences between Somali and Swedish. The shortcomings concerning spacing in compounds cannot.

4.2 A comparison between language challenges in Swedish academic texts written by students with Somali and Swedish background

To answer the second research issue about the similarities and differences in the challenges of students with Somali background and the challenges of students with Swedish background in their Swedish

academic writing at the University of Gothenburg a comparison between the shortcomings in the participants' texts on the global levels and local levels, and concerning referencing were made.

On the global levels, the texts written by the participants with Somali background and the texts written by the participants with Swedish background share problems concerning paragraphing, formulating topic sentences and V-structure, as shown in Table 16 and Table 12, respectively. In both the texts written by the participants with Swedish background, the shorter individual texts show shortcomings to a larger extent. One difference is that, in addition to these problems, all seven short individual assignments written by the participants with Somali background have problems with the introduction and the conclusion, which none of the short individual SvTexts have. Of these SoTexts, one lack introduction (SoText:4), two lack conclusion (SoText:2 and SoText:3), and one lack both (SoText:1). The remaining three texts include introduction and conclusion, but show some other shortcomings: asymmetry concerning the length of the introduction and the conclusion (SoText:5), the conclusion is not a discussion, but a bullet point list (SoText:6), and the introduction was not marked by a separate paragraph (SoText:7).

On the local levels, both the texts written by the participants with Somali background and the texts written by the participants with Swedish background, have problems regarding two of the categories, syntax and prepositions presented in Table 17 and Table 13 respectively. However, the problems with syntax differ; the participants with Somali background have problems with the subject-verb word order while the participants with Swedish background have problems with incomplete sentences. The occasional case of comma splice occurred in texts written by both the participants with Somali background and the participants with Swedish background. Apart from this, the problems in the SvTexts and the SoTexts differ in the way that the majority of the shortcomings in the SvTexts are concerned with coherence (comma splice, incomplete sentences, punctuation, and dangling modifiers), while the majority of the shortcomings in the SoTexts are concerned with grammar (word order, agreement in NP, definiteness, distinguishing between the use of the infinitive or the present tense, and the use of the auxiliary ska (will) in the present future tense). Worth noticing, is also the fact that 30% of the texts written by the participants with Swedish background have shortcomings regarding prepositions. This holds for both shorter individual assignments (SvText:3 and SvText:4) and for degree projects (SvText:9). There is, however a difference between the SoTexts and the SvTexts regarding the use of prepositions; while the participants with Somali background use the wrong preposition, miss using a preposition when it is required, or a use preposition when none is required, the participants with Swedish background only use the wrong preposition. It is interesting that none of the participants with Somali background places the preposition wrongly in front of the verb phrase, since this is what is done in Somali, as described in section 2.5. It is also interesting that the participants with Swedish background have shortcomings regarding prepositions since this is not generally considered a problem for first language users, but rather for second language users. A possible explanation for the shortcomings regarding prepositions in the SvTexts might be that the use of prepositions is different in the academic register compared to other registers, or that the vocabulary in the academic register is unaccustomed to the authors of these texts. Nevertheless, investigating this any further lies beyond the aim of this thesis.

Regarding the referencing, the main difference between the texts written by the participants with Somali background and the participants with Swedish background is that the SvTexts (Table 14) have relatively minor shortcomings compared to the SoTexts (Table 18), especially the SvTexts texts written by participants studying in the second cycle. It is clear that the participants with Swedish background have a better grasp of citation, paraphrasing and how to outline a list of references, than the participants with Somali background have. The SoTexts have problems with lack of lists of references (SoText:3, Sotext:4 and SoText:5), or incomplete lists of references (SoText:2, SoText:6 and SoText:8). All SoTexts, except the degree project (SoText:8), have problems concerning citation. A plausible explanation for the shortcomings in the reference list of SoText:8, is that when the authors of the text, So:8a and So:8b, contacted ASK for support they were in the middle of the working process. In addition, in two of the SoTexts, SoText:1 and SoText:5, large parts are similar to other texts (51% and 20% respectively), which points to problems concerning paraphrasing. This is not the case for any of the SvTexts.

In sum, a similarity between the SvTexts and the SoTexts is that the Bachelor's theses and the degree projects have much fewer shortcomings than the short individual assignments. Another similarity is that all texts have issues on the global levels concerning paragraphing, topic sentences and V-structure. However, one difference on the global levels, is that the SoTexts have shortcomings regarding introduction and conclusion, which the SvTexts do not have. One difference between the SvTexts and the SoTexts on the local levels is that the texts written by the participants with Somali background mostly have shortcomings regarding grammar and the texts written by the participants with Swedish background mostly have shortcomings regarding coherence. Another difference is that the participants with Swedish background seem to have a better grasp of referencing than the participants with Somali background, except for So:8a and So:8b, who wrote a degree project.

4.3 The impact time in Sweden has on students' with Somali background achievements in academic writing in Swedish

The answer to the third research issue about the impact time in Sweden has on students' with Somali background achievements in academic writing in Swedish concerning the global levels, the local levels,

and regarding referencing, was obtained from the answers to the follow-up questions about the participants' birthplaces and length of time in Sweden by the time of writing the texts. The following information was obtained from the five participants attending SOL140: So:2 had lived in Sweden for five years; So:3 had lived in Sweden for eight years; So:4 had lived in Sweden for six years; So:6 had lived in Sweden for seven years; So:7, had lived in Sweden for16 years. So:8, the participant writing the degree project, was born in Sweden.

To see if the participants' time in Sweden has had any impact on their achievements on the global levels of their texts, a compilation of their shortcomings has been made in Table 20 below:

Table 20: Challenges on the global levels in SoText:2, SoText:3, SoText:4, SoText:6, SoText:7 and SoText:8

	Outl	ining	Headlining	Paragraphing		Coherence	
	Introduction	Conclusion			V-structure*	Topic sentences	Linking
SoText:2		X			X	X	
SoText:3		X	X	X			
SoText:4	Х		X	X	X	X	X
SoText:6			X				
SoText:7			X	X			
SoText:8					X	X	

^{*}moving from general information to more specific information

The information in the table reveals that SoText:4, written by So:4, has most shortcomings on the global levels; SoText:4 has six markings compared to the three markings each for SoText:2 and SoText:3, two markings each for SoText:7 and SoText:8, and the one marking for SoText:6. This can partially be explained by the length of their time in Sweden; So:4 had only been in Sweden for six years by the time of the writing of the text, while So:7 had been in Sweden for 16 year and So:8a was born here. It is certainly of relevance here that So:8a was born in Sweden, and thus have been educated in Primary and Secondary School in Sweden and there prepared for studies in HE in Sweden. It may also be of relevance that So:7 had lived for as long as 16 years at the time of his/her studies. However, So:2 had spent even less time in Sweden, five years compared to So:4's six years. This, together with the fact that SoText:6 only got one marking, indicates that the participants' time spent in Sweden might not be a factor that can explain the quality of their texts on the global levels; So:6 had spent, seven years, a much shorter time in Sweden than both So:7 and So:8a that got twice as many markings.

Regarding the local levels, SoText:7 written by So:7, and SoText:8, written by So:8a and So:8b, have a generally good language that suits the academic register well, while the language in SoText:2, SoText;3, SoText:4 and SoText:6 written by So:2, So:3, So:4 and So:6 respectively, is farther away from the academic register. Table 21 below summarises the types of shortcomings that occurred in SoText:2, SoText:3, SoText:4, SoText:6, SoText:7 and SoText:8 on the local levels:

Table 21: Callenges on the local levels in SoText:2, SoText:4, SoText:6, SoText:7and SoText:8

	Sy	ntax	Agreement	Definiteness	Ver	bs	Prepositions	Spacing in	Spelling
	Word	Comma	in NP		Infinitive/	Auxiliary in		compounds	of
	order	splice			Present tense	future tense			vowels
SoText:2	X		X		X	X	X	X	X
SoText:3			X				X	X	X
SoText:4	X		X	X	X		X	X	X
SoText:6			X	X		X	X	X	X
SoText:7		X			X		X	X	
SoText:8	X		X					X	

One thing that can be understood from the table is that there is a correspondence between number of years in Sweden and number of markings in Table 21. As is shown in the table, SoText:2, SoText:4 and SoText:6 written by So:2, So:4 and So:6 who at the time of their studies at SOL140 had been in Sweden the shortest period, have more markings, seven, seven and six respectively, than SoText:7 and SoText:8, written by So:7 and So:8a who had been in Sweden at least ten years longer, and only have 4 and 3 markings respectively. Worth noticing is that SoText:3, written by So:3, who had been in Sweden only one year longer than So:6 at the time of writing the text, only has four markings on the local levels, compared to SoText:6's six markings. Table 21 also shows that SoText:8, written by So:8a, who were born in Sweden, has no shortcomings concerning prepositions. All this, indicates that the participants' time spent in Sweden might be a factor that can explain the quality of their texts on the local levels, with the exception of So:3 and SoText:3.

Regarding the referencing, all SoTexts written by the six participants that answered the follow-up questions have shortcomings, which are summarised in Table 22 below:

Table 22: Challenges concerning referencing in SoText:2, SoText:3, SoText:4, SoText:6, SoText:7 and SoText:8

	List of references		Cita	ition	Paraphrasing	Quoting
	Lack of	Form	Lack of	Form		
SoText:2		X	X			
SoText:3	X		X			
SoText:4	X		X			
SoText:6		X		X		
SoText:7				X		
SoText:8		X				

The table shows that the degree project, SoText:8, only have shortcomings concerning the form of the list of references, however, as mentioned before, this could be due to the fact that SoText:8 is not a completed text, but a draft. In addition, the table shows that SoText:7 only have shortcomings regarding the form of the citation. The other texts, SoText:2, SoText:3, SoText:4 and SoText:6, all four have shortcomings concerning the list of references and the citation: SoText:2 has shortcomings concerning the form of the list of references and lacks citation all together; SoText:3 and SoText:4 both lack a list of references and citation; SoText:6 has shortcomings concerning the form of both the list of references

and the citation. So, it would seem that time spent in Sweden could have some impact regarding these participants' knowledge of referencing. Table 22 also shows that none of these texts have shortcomings regarding paraphrasing and quoting.

In attempting to shed some further light on the impact time might have on the Somali participants' academic writing, Krashen's SLA-Theory, described in section 2.4, is used. Even if Krashen's five hypotheses on second language acquisition are elaborated to be applied to spoken language, they might have something to say about the acquisition of written language. Krashen's second hypothesis, the natural order hypothesis, might be of interest here. The natural order hypothesis suggests that there is a natural order in which a second language student of English acquires certain grammatical morphemes. The question here would be if there is a natural order in which a second language writer acquires certain grammatical categories in Swedish. Table 23 below shows the differences concerning what categories the participants face challenges in, in relation to the number of years they have lived in Sweden:

Table 23: Challenges on the local levels in SoText:2, SoText:3, SoText:4, SoText:6, SoText:7 and SoText:8, and number of years the participants have lived in Sweden

	Syntax		Agreement	Definiteness	Verbs		Prepositions	Spacing in	Spelling
	Word	Comma	in NP		Infinitive/	Auxiliary in		compounds	of
	order	splice			Present tense	future tense			vowels
SoText:2	X		X		X	X	X	X	X
(5 years)									
SoText:3			X				X	X	X
(8 years)									
SoText:4	X		X	X	X		X	X	X
(6 years)									
SoText:6			X	X		X	X	X	X
(7 years)									
SoText:7		X			X		X	X	
(16 years)									
SoText:8	X		X					X	
(Born in									
Sweden)									

The table shows that there is a correspondence between number of years in Sweden and how well the participants master the spelling of the vowel sounds and the use of prepositions. So:7, who has spent 16 years in Sweden and So:8a, who was born here are the only ones who are not confused about the spelling of the vowel sounds, which would indicate that being able to distinguish between the vowel sounds in Swedish is something that comes late in the natural order of acquiring or learning Swedish, at least for second language learners with Somali as their first language. Regarding prepositions, it seems that you have to have been born in Sweden to master the use of prepositions; in this study it is only So:8a who has no shortcomings concerning prepositions. The information in Table 23 also points to definiteness as a grammatical category that second language learners with Somali as their first language master late in their learning process, with the exception of So:2. In addition, all participants have difficulties with spacing in compounds and all participants except So:7 have difficulties with agreement in the noun

phrase. Concerning the other categories in Table 23, no unambiguous conclusions can be drawn. Thus, it would seem that the natural order for acquiring five of the nine categories in the table is: definiteness \rightarrow spelling of vowels \rightarrow prepositions \rightarrow agreement in NP \rightarrow spacing in compounds.

Regarding the impact time in Sweden has on the shortcomings in the texts written by the participants with Swedish background, no further analysis is made. In this study, it is assumed that it has been beneficiary for them on the local levels in their academic writing, to have been born and raised in Sweden and thus, have Swedish as their first language, as described in section 2.3 (e.g.Abrahamsson & Bergman, 2005, and Canagarajah & Jerskey, 2009). It is also assumed that having undergone Primary and Secondary Education in Sweden before entering Swedish HE has been beneficiary for them on the global and local levels and regarding referencing.

In sum, this result indicates that the time spent in Sweden is of no or little importance to the quality of the global levels of the SoTexts. However, it seems that it has some impact on the quality of the local levels and the referencing. Furthermore, it seems that the natural order hypothesis in Krashen's SLA-Theory, at least in some regards, can be applied to the shortcomings on the local levels of the texts written by the participants with Somali background.

4.4 How students with Somali background benefit from previous experience in Higher Education

The answer to the fourth research issue about how students with Somali background benefit from their previous experience in HE was partly obtained from the answers to the follow-up questions from the participants with Somali background about their previous experiences from HE. The following information was obtained: So:2 had no previous experience from HE in Sweden before attending SOL140. However, s/he had experience from HE in Somalia, two years of teacher's education, and thus had some previous experience of academic writing. So:3 had previous experience from HE in Sweden before attending SOL140 but did not specify this any further. So:4 had no previous experience from HE in Sweden before attending SOL140, but had a Bachelor's degree from Mogadishu University and a Master's degree from Nairobi University. The language of instruction in HE in Kenya and Somali is English. So:7 had previous experience from HE in Sweden from attending a freestanding course at Uppsala University. So:6 had no previous experience of HE studies in Sweden or any other country before attending SOL140 and So:8a had no previous experience of HE studies in Sweden or any other country before attending the programme for radiographers. However, So:8a had gained some experience of academic writing in Sweden before s/he wrote the degree project from the earlier terms of the programme. This means that So:2, and So:4 have previous experiences of academic writing in English from other countries than Sweden, i.e. Somalia and Kenya. In addition, it means that So:2, So:4 and So:6 have no experience of academic writing in either Somali or Swedish, and that So:3, So:7, and to some extent So:8a, are the only participants that have previous experience from academic writing in Swedish. In addition, So:4 is the only participant that have previous experience from academic writing in the second cycle, and So:8a is the only participant that has attended Swedish Primary and Secondary Education.

The participants were also asked to reflect on whether their previous studies in HE education had been helpful to them in their studies in HE in Sweden. So:3 answered that his/her previous studies in HE in Sweden had been helpful for his/her academic writing, and that the more s/he studies in HE the more his/her writing improves. So:4 answered that his/her previous studies at the University of Mogadishu and the University of Nairobi, probably helped her finish Adult Secondary Education and a few university courses quickly. However, they did not help her reach a Bachelor's degree. So:7 answered that his/her previous studies at Uppsala university have helped him/her in him/her HE studies regarding how to write academically and how to search for information.

From the data in Table 19, it is clear that the text with the least types of shortcomings is SoText:8. This indicates that So:8a, one of the authors of SoText:8, benefitted from his/her previous experience of studying in Sweden in both Primary and Secondary School, as well as in HE, shown in Table 10. Table 19 also shows that SoText:7 only has two markings on the global levels and one marking concerning referencing. This indicates that So:7 benefitted from his/her previous studies at Uppsala University. However, the information in tables 10 and 19 show that So:3 did not benefit so much from his/her previous studies in HE in Sweden since his/her text have shortcomings on all three levels. Furthermore, the tables show that the text with the most types of shortcomings is SoText:4 written by So:4, who has the most previous experience of HE studies of all participants with Somali background. Tables 10 and 19 also show that SoText:4 has more types of shortcomings than SoText:6 whose author has no previous experience of academic writing. In addition, SoText:2 has many markings on the global levels and concerning referencing, three and two markings respectively, despite his/her previous HE studies in Somalia. This indicates that neither So:2 nor So:4 benefitted from their previous studies in Somalia and Kenya regarding the global levels and referencing in academic writing. The result shows that So:2 and So:4 did not benefit from his/her previous experience of studies in HE outside Sweden. For So:2 this is not consistent with his/her own reflections on the matter; So:2 thought that s/he had benefitted much from his/her previous experiences. For So:4 this is consistent with his/her own reflections on the matter. In fact, it could even be argued that So:4's previous experience of studies in HE outside Sweden disfavoured him/her; the authors of SoText:6 and SoText:7, which both showed a much better result than SoText:4, had no previous experience from studies outside Sweden as shown in Table 10. However, the participants with previous experience from HE in Sweden, except for So:3, seem to have benefitted from this. In addition, So:8a's previous experience from studies in Primary and Secondary Education in Sweden, seems to have helped.

Regarding the ten participants with Swedish background that answered the follow-up questions, everyone had previous experience of studies in HE in Sweden and one participant, Sv:3, also had experience from HE studies in Great Britain, as shown in Table 11. This is, of course, a plausible explanation for the few shortcomings concerning outlining and headlining on the global levels, and referencing in the SvTexts compared to the SoTexts.

In sum, the students with Swedish background seem to have benefitted more from their previous experiences of HE studies, than the students with Somali background have, except perhaps regarding V-structure, topic sentences and coherence. An explanation for this might be that the language of instruction in HE in Somali is English, which means that there is no established academic register in Somali. This situation was also commented on by So:4 in the follow-up questions. This is a disadvantage for the students with a Somali background on at least two points of relevance here. First, there is a correspondence between the levels of proficiency in a bilingual's two languages suggested in the interdependence hypothesis; a high level in a speaker's first language promotes a high level in the speaker's second language (Ganuza & Hedman, 2017). This means that if there is no academic register in Somali, students with Somali background are not supported by their first languages support each other in the acquisition of knowledge, which is also described in the interdependence hypothesis (Cummins, 1979). This means that if there is no academic register in Somali, students with Somali background are not supported by their first language in HE.

4.5 The type of writing support that benefits students with Somali background

So far it is clear that students, which are included in the policy of broadening recruitment and broadening participation, are in need of support when entering the HE. It is also clear that students with both a non-academic and a foreign background have a double need; they have to struggle not only with the academic discourse, but also with a foreign language. To answer the fifth research issue about what type of writing support that benefits students with Somali background the most, the answers from the follow-up questions regarding the participants' view on this matter is are compared with the research findings presented in section 2.3 regarding second language acquisition and academic writing support. All participants were asked four questions in relation to this (Appendix I and appendix II).

Firstly, they were asked what characterises academic writing, and the five participants with Somali background that answered this questions said: a clear structure (So:6 and So:8a); objectivity and citing sources (So:8a); analysing and arguing (So:4); and a concentrated academic language (So:3 and So:6). In addition, So:2 and So:4 answered that reading is important for academic writing, and So:2 also stressed the importance of a will to read and write. So:7 did not answer this question. The ten participants with Swedish background that answered this question said: a clear structure (Sv:1, Sv:3, Sv:4 and Sv:8); to be able to follow the structure of a model text (Sv:7); correct and concentrated language within the academic register (Sv:2, Sv:3, Sv:5a and Sv:9); objectivity (Sv:6a and Sv:6b); In addition, Sv:1 mentioned that the academic text must be founded in relevant research. In sum, the participants with Somali background and the participants with Swedish background largely agreed on what characterises an academic text; a clear structure, a correct and concentrated academic language, and objectivity.

Secondly, they were asked what they find most important in academic writing. The six participants with Somali background that answered this question said: to have a good structure regarding headlining and paragraphing (So:8a); to include previous research from the field and to present the sources thoroughly (So:8a); to know what type of text is expected and thus, what type of writing (So:7); to adjust your written language to the academic register, i.e. to write a formal concentrated language (So:3, So:4 and So:6); and to read (So:2). The nine participants with Swedish background that answered this question said: transparency and clarity in the thought process and the description of the method (Sv:7); a clear structure and coherence (Sv:1, Sv:2, Sv:3 and Sv:9); objectivity (Sv:6a, Sv:6b and Sv:8); intelligible, unstilted language (Sv:5a). Sv:4 did not answer this question. In sum, the participants with Somali background and the participants with Swedish background agree on that a clear structure and a language that is adjusted to the academic register are important characteristics of academic writing.

Thirdly, they were asked what they consider most challenging in the academic writing. The answers from all six participants with Somali background included comments on language: the language, since Swedish is not my mother tongue (So:4); writing in general, since it takes a lot of time (So:2); writing a concentrated formal language and at the same time fill the stipulated number of pages (So:6); paraphrasing (So:3); finding the adequate words and concepts (So:7 and So:8a). The answers to this question also concerned referencing: finding relevant sources (So:6); citing sources (So:7); writing objectively (So:8a). In addition, So:7 said that most challenging for him/her is knowing how to write in different academic genres. The ten participants with Swedish background answered: writing with coherence and structure (Sv:1, Sv:2); finding and/or not diverging from the main theme (Sv:1, Sv:5 and Sv:7); relating the result to previous research and theories (Sv:8); keeping to the outlining of the academic text and using correct headlining (Sv:4); writing objectively (Sv:6a) and impersonally (Sv:3);

writing in a varied and interesting way (Sv:6b and Sv:9); keeping to the academic register (Sv:2). In sum, there is a difference regarding the most challenging parts of academic writing between the participants with Somali background and the participants with Swedish background. The answers from the participants with Somali background is more focused on the local levels of the text, i.e. the language in general, while the answers from the participants with Swedish background is more focused on the global levels, i.e. structure and outlining. However, the participants with Swedish background are also concerned with language, but on a less fundamental level than the participants with Somali background; they express that writing objectively, impersonally and varied is challenging.

Fourthly, they were asked if they had received any instructions or other type of support concerning academic language and academic writing, and referencing in their studies in HE in Sweden. Of the five participants with Somali background that answered this question, two (So:2 and so:3) had received support from university teachers, one (So:4) had not received any instructions or support, one (So:8a) had received support from ASK (the Unit for Academic Languages), and two (So:6 and So:7) answered that they had received writing support in the studies they conducted after SOL140. In addition, So:7 said that s/he in his/her previous HE studies in Sweden for each assignment had digital meetings with a supervisor who told the students what benefitted their texts had and what to improve. Moreover, they were advised to read a book on academic writing. Looking at the few markings for SoText:7 on the global levels, in Table 20, and regarding referencing, in Table 22, this might have helped So:7 to perform better. Of the ten participants with Swedish background that answered this question, four had had no writing support (Sv:3, Sv:4, Sv:8 and Sv:9); two had received instructions regarding referencing (Sv:1 and Sv:6b); three were offered talks, seminars and workshops regarding academic writing (Sv:2, Sv:5a and Sv:6a); only one stated that s/he had received supervision from a teacher (Sv:7). In sum, neither the participants with Somali background nor the participants with Swedish background had received much support regarding the texts that are the focus of this study.

Lastly, the participants were asked what kind of writing support they thought would benefit students most. The participants with Somali background all agreed that some kind of support directed towards second language students is necessary. Everyone suggested that the university should offer better-organised writing support through for example: introductory courses in Swedish academic writing for students with a foreign background (So:4); staff in the university libraries specialised on helping students with their academic writing (So:6); more instructions and practice in academic writing during courses (So:6); more supervision of the writing process and more teaching in academic writing (So:8a). In addition, So:3 and So:5 mentioned time as an important factor for second language students. So:3 said that second language students would benefit from more time with a supervisor, and So:5, the

participant who via telephone agreed to participate in the study, contributed during that telephone conversation with the thought that second language students might benefit from having extra time when solving their written tasks. Furthermore, So:4 made a remark that one of his/her goals was to get a BA in Sweden, but since s/he was not offered any support or supervision regarding his/her academic writing, s/he was not able to complete the degree. Also So:7 made a summarising remark: students who do not have Swedish as a mother tongue, at least those who have not had their Secondary Education in Sweden, need support regarding their academic writing since they are accustomed to a different academic writing culture and academic discourse, for example something which is considered plagiarism in Sweden might not be considered plagiarism in other countries. Also the ten participants with Swedish background made suggestions on how to improve the writing support at the University of Gothenburg: the teachers need to improve their skills in giving constructive feedback (Sv:1, Sv:2, Sv:8 and Sv:9); earlier and better practice regarding academic writing (Sv:6a and Sv:6b); the teachers should provide model texts (Sv:8); all courses should have an introductory, voluntary part concerning academic writing (Sv:2 and Sv:4). Furthermore Sv:3 said that nothing has to be improved, and Sv:5a and Sv:9 said that being able to contact ASK is helpful. In sum, most of both the Somali and the Swedish participants think that the support in academic writing for students at the University of Gothenburg can or must be improved.

One observation regarding the participants in this study, is that they on the one hand know what characterises and academic text and what is most important in academic writing; in their answers they together touched on the most essential ideas in academic writing on the global levels (a clear structure), on the local levels (a correct, concentrated, precise and objective language), and regarding referencing (citation and paraphrasing), but on the other hand they have challenges concerning this in their own academic writing. The conclusion must be that it is with academic writing, as with numerous other things, hard to put into practice what you know in theory. Therefore, it is important that the support in academic writing, particularly for the students with Somali background, not only is theoretical, but also very concrete and explicit. For example, it is not enough to say that the academic text must have a clear structure; it also has to be explained what is considered a clear structure in the Swedish academic context. Similarly, it is not enough to say that plagiarism is not accepted. It also has to be explained what is considered plagiarism in the Swedish academic context, since the view on what is plagiarism varies between countries, as was pointed out by So:7. There are different ways in which this can be organised: introductory courses in academic writing, as suggested by So:4 ,Sv:2 and Sv:4; integrated writing supervision in all the university courses in Sweden, as suggested by Hathaway (2015); individual response and supervision from a supervisor or a teacher, as suggested by Dysthe, Hertzberg and Hoel (2011), and So:8a.

Another observation regarding the participants of this study is, what three of the five participants with Somali background, So:4, So:6 and So:7, considered most important in academic writing, they also considered most difficult. For So:4 and So:6 this concerned language issues, and for So:7, this concerned writing in specific genres. Similarly, what three of the ten participants with Swedish background, Sv:1, Sv:2 and Sv:6a, considered most important in academic writing, they also considered most difficult. For Sv:1 and Sv:2 this concerned structure and coherence and for Sv:6a it concerned objectivity. This could point to a low self-confidence and a negative identity of themselves regarding academic writing. If this is the case, self-reflection might be the type of support that would help these students since self-reflection helps the students build confidence and form a positive identity as academic writers (Fernsten & Reda, 2011).

However, these four models for supporting academic writing; introductory courses in academic writing, integrated writing supervision in the university courses, individual response and supervision from a teacher, and self-reflection, are all models that are beneficiary for students regardless of their linguistic background, i.e. regardless whether they have Swedish as their first or second language. In addition, these types of support do not include linguistic support on the local levels regarding grammar, and as can be seen from Table 21 this is what is most challenging for the participants with Somali background in this study.

Three of the six participants with Somali background who answered the follow-up questions, also brought up reading and vocabulary as issues. So:2 considered reading an important and challenging part of academic writing, and So:8a considered finding and using the correct words and concepts one of the most challenging parts of academic writing. These are important reflections since research shows that knowledge formation and language are closely tied together, which point to reading and understanding as vital for academic writing (Svensson et al., 2009). In addition, research shows that it is beneficiary for students if the meaning and use of specific concepts in specific subjects are explicitly explained. Furthermore, So:5 pointed out, in the telephone conversation regarding his/her participation in the study, that time is an important factor for second language students' performances in academic writing; it takes much longer time for a second language student to find the appropriate words and concepts and to construct correct sentences. Thus, longer time could be a support, second language students could benefit from.

Three of the types of support dealt with above, introductory courses in academic writing, integrated writing supervision in the university courses, and individual response and supervision from a teacher, can be discussed in relation to four of the five hypotheses in Krashen's SLA-Theory (1982), described

in section 2.4. Krashen's first hypothesis, the acquisition-learning hypothesis, applies to support in academic written language in general. The acquisition-learning hypothesis deals with the polarity between acquiring a language and learning a language, i.e. the unconscious and the conscious processes regarding developing a language. To be able to acquire a language, the acquirer must be sufficiently exposed to the language. However, the academic register is a register you are only exposed to in HE, which indicates that it is best developed through learning, i.e. through explicit teaching. Krashen's third hypothesis, the monitor hypothesis is also connected to learning: what you have learned about a language, functions as a monitor that supervises the written output. In the academic writing context, this could refer to vocabulary, spelling and grammar. If a student's internal monitor does not function adequately, the student would need to be supported by an external monitor, i.e. a supervisor or teacher, through for example introductory courses in academic writing, integrated writing supervision in the university courses, and individual response and supervision from a teacher. Krashen's fourth hypothesis, the input hypothesis, which claims that second language users acquire meaning before they acquire structure, and that structure follows understanding, also sustains the idea of integrating language supervision in the university courses. In the context of this study, the input hypothesis suggests that the development of the students' writing skills. i.e. the acquirement of structure, happens in close connection with the development of their understanding of subject matter, i.e. the acquirement of meaning. This view is also supported by other scholars, e.g. Svensson et al. (2009) and Ganuza and Hedman (2018), which further underlines the importance of support on the local levels for second language students.

Krashen's fifth hypothesis, the affective filter hypothesis, is also of relevance here. However, it is not linked to any of the above mentioned particular types of language support, but rather to a general positive attitude towards bilingualism and second language students (Otterup, 2018) and self-reflection (Fernsten & Reda, 2011). Otterup argues that bilingual students writing in their second language benefit from positive attitudes towards their bilingualism, and Fernsten and Reda argues that self-reflection helps students form a positive identity as academic writers. This is sustained by the affective filter hypothesis, which claims that motivation, self-confidence and anxiety are the three affective factors that are important for second language acquisition; the acquirer benefits from high motivation, high self-confidence and low anxiety. Positive attitudes from teachers and supervisors regarding the language situation, and help to form a positive identity as second language academic writers in Swedish, will help bilingual students to achieve high motivation, high self-confidence and low anxiety, which will give these students a better chance of performing well as academic writers.

In sum, the type of writing support that benefits students with a Somali background is the same type of support that benefits all students. In addition, the support connected with explicit teaching of academic

writing, i.e. introductory courses in academic writing, integrated writing supervision in the university courses, and individual response and supervision from a teacher, as well as the importance of positive attitudes and forming a positive academic writer identity, is sustained by Krashen's hypotheses on acquisition-learning, monitoring, input, and affective filter. However, it seems that the participants, with Somali background, in addition to these types of support, that largely concern the global levels of the text, also would need support on the local levels, specifically regarding vocabulary and grammar. In addition, perhaps longer time, would be a support for second language students to be able to perform well in their HE studies.

4.6 Summary

The result indicates that the language challenges the participants with Somali background in this study face in their academic writing can be all explained by the differences between Somali and Swedish, except for spacing in compounds. In comparison with the participants with Swedish background in this study, the participants with Somali background face more challenges concerning the writing of introductions and conclusions, and referencing. However, it seems that the largest difference is the many shortcomings the participants with Somali background have regarding grammar. Worth noticing is that both the Bachelor's theses and the degree projects written by the participants with Somali and Swedish background have much fewer shortcomings than the short individual assignments written by both groups.

The result also indicates that the time spent in Sweden has no impact on the quality of the global levels, however, it has some impact on the quality of the local levels and the referencing in the SoTexts. In addition, the result indicates that Krashen's SLA-Theory, described in section 2.4, at least regarding the natural order hypothesis, to some extent can be applied to the challenges the participants with Somali background face on the local levels of their texts. Furthermore, the result shows that while the participants with Swedish background benefitted from their previous experience in HE in Sweden, the participants with Somali background did not. An explanation for this is offered by the interdependent hypothesis, which claims that a high level in a speaker's first language promotes a high level in the speaker's second language (Ganuza & Hedman, 2017), which students with Somali background cannot benefit from regarding the Swedish academic register since there is no established academic register in Somali. This points to, that in addition to the writing support on global and local levels and regarding referencing that benefit all students, second language students with Somali background would also benefit from specific grammatical support and longer time to write the assignments.

5. Discussion and Conclusion

The result of this study shows that the challenges in academic writing, concerning the global levels, the local levels and referencing, the participants with Somali background face in HE in Sweden, to some extent are similar to the challenges the participants with Swedish background face. In addition, the result points to that the short individual assignments for both the Swedish and Somali students have more shortcomings on the global levels and regarding referencing than the Bachelor's theses and the degree projects. However, the challenges differ in that they generally are on a more basic level for participants with Somali background than for the participants with Swedish background, especially concerning the challenges on the local levels. This can, according to this study, be explained by a number of different factors.

Firstly, the challenges on the local levels the students with Somali background face in their academic writing, obviously are connected with the fact that Swedish is not these students' first language. The shortcomings in these texts regarding syntax (word order), agreement in the noun phrase, definiteness, verbs (the confusion in the use of the infinitive or the present tense, and the use of an auxiliary in the present future tense), prepositions, spacing in compounds, and the spelling of vowels, can, as is shown in the study, be explained by the differences between Somali and Swedish, described in section 2.5, and, to some extent, by the natural order hypothesis in Krashen's SLA-Theory, described in section 2.4. In addition, the amount of time spent in Sweden was of some importance to the achievements on the local levels, but perhaps not to the extent that could have been expected. This, might be explained by one of the hypotheses in Krashen's SLA-Theory, the affective filter hypothesis, which proposes that the reason second language users normally do not reach the same levels of language skills first language users do, is that second language users have an affective filter. So, if the participants with Somali background in this study have a high affective filter, i.e. a low level of motivation, a low level of self-confidence and a high level of anxiety, it would prevent them from developing their skills in the Swedish language further, and thus, prevent them from becoming more proficient in Swedish.

Secondly, the challenges on the global levels, i.e. outlining regarding introduction and conclusion, headlining, paragraphing, the V-structure, topic sentences, and coherence, the students with Somali background in this study face in their academic writing can, similarly, be connected with the fact that Swedish is not these students' first language, especially the shortcomings regarding coherence. However, in this case the challenges can also be explained by the previous experiences these students had of academic writing in Sweden and other countries, and thus how familiar they were with the academic discourse at the time they wrote the texts that have been used in this study. According to this study, the participants that had experience from previous studies in HE, and Primary and Secondary

Education in Sweden, unsurprisingly benefitted from this. However, the participants that had experience from previous studies in HE outside Sweden, from Somalia and Kenya, did not benefit from this, and in addition it could be argued that one of the participant's previous studies in Somalia and Kenya, actually disfavoured him/her. This could have two explanations. One explanation could be that the academic discourse is very different in Somalia and Kenya on the one hand, and Sweden on the other. Consequently, the knowledge and skills of academic writing the participant obtained at the universities of Mogadishu and Nairobi, not only was of no or little use, but could actually have prevented him/her from performing well in his/her Swedish academic writing. Normally, previous knowledge on a matter support the forming of new knowledge on that and related matters. This is true also for language formation, which Cummins' interdependence hypothesis explains (1979). However, it does not seem to hold for knowledge in the academic discourse. The result of this study suggests that to abandon matters you have learnt to be important regarding the academic discourse replacing them with new knowledge of the academic discourse, might be harder than to acquire new knowledge without having any previous insights about the academic discourse.

Lastly, the challenges regarding referencing, i.e. list of references, citation, paraphrasing and quoting, the students with Somali background in this study face in their academic writing can also be discussed in relation to the participants' experience from previous studies in HE outside Sweden; neither in this case, did they seem to benefit from their previous studies in Mogadishu and Nairobi. Also here, the explanations could be differences in academic traditions regarding referencing between Sweden, and Somalia and Kenya, and the difficulty in replacing old knowledge about referencing with new knowledge about referencing.

In addition, the fact that Somali is not a medium of instruction in HE in Somalia, and consequently, the fact that there is no established academic register in Somali, contributes to the challenges students with Somali background face in HE in Sweden. This means that the advantage bilinguals have, presented in the interdependence hypothesis, in that the two languages they use support each other so there is a correspondence in the levels of proficiency in the two languages, does not apply here. Thus, students with Somali background do not have any support from their first language in acquiring the academic register of Swedish or any other language, which indicates that these students are in need of specific language support in their academic writing, in addition to the other types of language support, i.e. self-reflection, individual response and supervision from a supervisor or a teacher, and integrated writing supervision in the university courses, that benefit students in general.

Arguments for the necessity of specific language support for students with Somali background can not only be retrieved from the fact that Somali lacks an academic register, but also from theories on the connection between language skills and knowledge formation. Krashen (1982) explained in one of the hypotheses in his SLA-Theory, the input hypothesis, that second language speakers acquire meaning first, and then structure. Even though structure in Krashen's theory refers to the structure of a language, i.e. the grammar, the essence of the input hypothesis could be transcribed to the context of this study, in which case it would mean that second language students would have to acquire meaning, i.e. knowledge of subject matter, before they can acquire structure, i.e. the structure of the academic language, and in addition the structure of the academic text. This view, is sustained by Blåsjö's findings (2009) that in order to write integrated and independently about a subject, the writer must have made the subject matter their own. Svensson et al. (2009), who argue that knowledge formation and language are closely tied together, and consequently, that many students benefit from explicit explanations of subject specific concepts, also sustain this. Hence, the appropriation of subject knowledge is done through language, which further underlines the importance of good academic language support for second language students.

In addition, all second language students benefit from support that views their bilingualism an asset rather than a problem. According to Otterup (2018), these positive attitudes help the bilingual students build confidence, which is also the aim of another type of support, self-reflection. Fernsten and Reda (2011) argue that self-reflection, through building confidence, helps the students form a positive identity of themselves as academic writers and motivate them to develop their academic writing skills further. The importance of supporting the second language students building confidence in academic writing and forming positive identities of themselves as academic writers is sustained by the findings in this study. Three of the participants with Somali background, So:4, So:6 and So:7, found the same parts of academic writing both most difficult and most important. This is unfortunate since it effects their perceptions of their abilities to perform well in academic writing; if they believe that the parts of academic writing they have most difficulties in writing correctly, are also the parts of most importance, it probably effects their view of themselves as academic writers, and consequently their motivation, selfconfidence and anxiety concerning academic writing. In other words, if students find the same parts of academic writing both most difficult and most important the risk is that they obtain an effective affective filter, which, according to Krashen (1982), could be a hindrance in their language development, and thus in their development as academic writers. In addition, for two of these three participants, So:4 and So:6, this concerned language; they found writing an academic language both most difficult and most important in their academic writing, which further underlines the importance of specific language support to meet the needs of this student group.

From all this follows that mastering the academic language and the academic discourse is of great importance for individual students' performances and achievements in HE. But mastering the academic language is not only this, it also the key tool for individual students' assimilation of the academic culture. This is supported by Scheu who points out that "[1] anguage is a product of culture, but simultaneously, it gives shape and expression to culture. It is the main tool for individual assimilation of culture". (2000 p. 132). Even though, the word language in this quote does not refer to a register within a language, such as the academic register, and the word culture does not refer to a culture within a culture, i.e. a subculture, such as the academic culture, Scheu's description of the relation between language and culture applies to the academic world. According to Scheu, there is a strong connection between language and culture and entering a new culture often involves entering a new language. In addition, Scheu points out that the connection between language and identity is equally strong. Both the strong connection between language and culture, and language and identity are certainly true for the academic world where maintaining the academic language and the academic discourse is important for maintaining the academic culture and the academic identity. This can, by extension, lead to the function of the academic language as a gatekeeper, i.e. the individual students' skills in the academic language and academic writing decides whether you are to be recognised a member of the academic community or not, which further underlines the importance of specific language support for students with a non-Swedish background.

It is important that the HEIs in Sweden are aware of the imminent risk of the academic language functioning as a gatekeeper, especially in relation to the policy of broadening recruitment and broadening participation, and especially regarding the students with Somali background. In addition to the above discussed challenges concerning the academic language students with Somali background meet, there is the relatively low level of education in the Somali community in Sweden to take into consideration. According to statistics from SCB (2019) only 12% of the people in the Somali community in Sweden who were born in Somalia have studied in Higher education, compared to 44% for people born in Sweden. This means that it is very likely that children with Somali background in Sweden have parents with no experience from HE, and therefore they most probably have not been introduced to the academic discourse at home. These circumstances are sustained by this study; So:8a stated that neither of her parents have experience from HE in Sweden, or any other country.

In addition, statistics from SCB (2019) also show that women in the Somali community in Sweden who were born in Somalia, are underrepresented in HE, compared to women born in Sweden; only 8% of the Somali women had studied in HE compared to 50% of the women born in Sweden. In addition, these statistics show that women in the Somali community in Sweden who were born in Somalia have a lower

level of education than men in the Somali community in Sweden who were born in Somalia; 16% of the men in the Somali community in Sweden who were born in Somalia had experience from HE. These circumstances are also sustained by this study; only two of the 17 participants in SOL140 were women. This shows that the Somali community in Sweden is an obvious target for the policy in HE of broadening recruitment and broadening participation, not only regarding the people who immigrated to Sweden from Somalia but also regarding their children who were born and raised here. Statistics from SCB (2016) show that there is a strong connection between the level of parent's education and the level of their children's education; 80% of the children whose parents have a Higher Education will also study at the University, while only 25% of the children whose parents have no higher education than elementary school will study at the university.

In conclusion, this study has shown that one of the most obvious targets for the policy in HE of broadening recruitment and broadening participation, the Somali community, also is in special need of support regarding academic writing, especially language support. The HEI's in Sweden cannot escape the fact that second language students in general, and students with Somali background in particular, not only need support concerning the global levels and referencing in their academic writing but also concerning the local levels, and more specifically, concerning grammar. Since the HEIs actively have recruited these students, the HEIs also have a responsibility to actively support these students in a way that benefits them the most.

6. References

- Abrahamsson, T. & Bergman, P. (2005). Hur ett andraspråk växer fram. I: Abrahamsson, Tua & Pirkko Bergman (re.), *Tankarna springer före att bedöma ett andraspråk i utveckling*. Stockholm: HLS Förlag, 20-27.
- Bergman, G. (2013). Kortfattad svenska språkhistoria. Lund: Studentlitteratur.
- Bilboa, E. & Echu, G. (2008). "Cameroon: Official Bilingualism in a Multilingual State" Simpson, A. (Ed.). *Language and National Identity in Africa*. New York: Oxford University Press, 199–213.
- Blau, S., Hall, J., Sparks, S. (2002). Guilt-free tutoring: Rethinking how we tutor non-native-English-speaking students. *Writing Center Journal*, 23, 23-44.
- Blåsjö, M. (2009). Appropriering av fackkunskap förutsättning för ett "godkänt" akademiskt skrivande? In Vatn, Folkvord & Smidt (reds.) Skriving i kunnskapssamfunnet. Trondheim: Tapir Akademisk Forlag, 143–160.
- Canagarajah, S & Jerskey, M. (2009). Meeting the Needs of Multilingual Writers. In: R. Beard, D. Myhill, M. Nystrand & J. Riley (reds.), *The SAGE Handbook of Writing Development*. London: SAGE Publications Ltd, 472-481. DOI: 10.4135/9780857021069.n33.
- Cummins, J. (1979). Linguistic Interdependence and Educational Development of Bilingual Children. *Review of Educational Research*. Vol. 49, no. 2, 222-251.
- Cummins, J. (2017). Flerspråkiga elever. Effektiv undervisning i en utmanande tid. Stockholm: Natur & Kultur.
- Dysthe, O., Hertzberg, F., & Hoel, T.L. (2011). *Skriva för att lära: skrivande i högre utbildning*. Lund: Studentlitteratur.
- El Saidi, C. (2015). Svårigheter i svenska för somalisktalande. Kursuppgift i SOL150. Gothenburg: Department of Languages and Literatures, University of Gothenburg.

- Engstrand, O. (1999). "Swedish". Handbook of the International Phonetic Association: A Guide to the usage of the International Phonetic Alphabet. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 140–142.
- Enheten för akademiskt språk. (2018). Verksamhetsplan 2018. Retrieved 2018-10-15 from https://ask.gu.se/om/verksamhet
- "Europa". (2014). I *Nationalencyklopedin*. Retrieved 2020-05-27 from https://www.ne.se/uppslagsverk/encyklopedi/lång/europa#språk
- Fernsten, L. A. & Reda, M. (2011). Helping students meet the challenges of academic writing. *Teaching In Higher Education*. 16(2), 171-182. DOI: 10.1080/13562517.2010.507306.
- Fishman, J., Fishman, G. A., Gertner, M. H., Lowy, E. G., & Milan, W. G. (1985). The rise and fall of the ethnic revival: perspectives on language and ethnicity. Berlin, New York: Mouton.
- Galbraith, D. (2009). Cognitive models of writing. *German as a foreign language* 2-3, 7-22. Accessible: http://www.gfl-journal.de/Issue_2_2009.php
- Ganuza, N. & Hedman, C. (2017). The Impact of Mother Tongue Instruction on the Development of Biliteracy: Evidence from Somali–Swedish Bilinguals. Oxford University Press. Accessible: https://academic.oup.com/applij/article/40/1/108/3860485
- Ganuza, N. & Hedman, C. (2018). Modersmålsundervisning, läsförståelse och betyg 1–modersmålsundervisningens roll för elevers skolresultat. Nordand Universitesförlaget. Year 13, No. 1, 4-22. DOI: 10.18261/issn. 2535-3381-2018-01-01
- Göteborgs universitet. (2020a). *Kursplan. Behörighetsgivande kurs i svenska för nyanlända, 60 credits*. Department of Languages and Literatures, University of Gothenburg. Accessible: https://utbildning.gu.se/kurser/kurs_information?courseid=SW1702
- Göteborgs universitet. (2020b). *Kursplan. Förberedande kurs i svenska för nyanlända*, 20 weeks.

 Department of Languages and Literatures, University of Gothenburg. Accessible: https://utbildning.gu.se/kurser/kurs_information?courseid=SW1700

- Göteborgs universitet. (2020c). *Kursplan. Somaliskan i den svenska skolan, 7.5 credits*. Department of Languages and Literatures, University of Gothenburg. Accessible: https://utbildning.gu.se/kurser/kurs_information?courseid=SOL140
- Göteborgs universitet. (2020d). *Kursplan för Somaliskan i världen, 7,5 credits*. Göteborgs universitet, Institutionen för svenska språket. Accessible:

 https://utbildning.gu.se/kurser/kurs information?courseid=SOL120
- Göteborgs universitet. (2016). *Policy för breddad rekrytering och breddat deltagande*. Accessible: https://medarbetarportalen.gu.se/digitalAssets/1593/1593004_policy-f--r-breddad-rekrytering-och-breddat-deltagande-160920.pdf
- Hathaway, J. (2015). Developing that voice: locating academic writing tuition in the mainstream of teaching in higher education. Teaching in Higher Education. Vol. 20, No. 5, 506–517. Accessible: http://dx.doi.org/10.1080/13562517.2015.1026891
- Hammarberg, B. (2004). Teoretiska ramar för andraspråksforskning. In Hyltenstam, K. & Lindberg, I. (red.) Svenska som andraspråk i forskning, undervisning och samhälle, 25–78. Lund: Studentlitteratur.
- Heine, B., Nurse, D. (Eds). (2000). African Languages. An Introduction. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Hort, S. (2020). *Skrivprocesser på högskolan. Text, plats och materialitet i uppsatsskrivandet.* Örebro universitet.
- Håkansson, G. (2013). Att lära sig svenska i Malmö, Jyväskylä eller Melbourne: Om andraspråk och främmandespråk. In M. Olofsson (red.), Symposium 2012 Lärarrollen i svenska som andraspråk, 152–164. Stockholm: Stockholms universitets förlag.
- Jackson, J. (2014). Introducing Language and Intercultural Communication. New York: Routledge.
- Kirk, J. W. C. (1905). *A grammar of the Somali Language*. London: Cambridge University Press Warehouse. Accessed: file:///C:/Users/xelsch/Downloads/gupea_2077_30596_1.pdf

- Krashen, D., S. (1982) *Principles and Practice in Second Language Acquisition*. Pergamon Press Inc. Accessible: http://www.sdkrashen.com/content/books/principles_and_practice.pdf
- Lennartsson-Hokkanen, I. (2016). Organisation, attityder, lärandepotential Ett skrivpedagogiskt samarbete mellan en akademisk utbildning och en språkverkstad. Akademisk avhandling för filosofie doktorsexamen. Institutionen för svenska och flerspråkighet. Stockholms universitet.
- Lindberg, I. (2009). I det nya mångspråkiga Sverige. *Utbildning & demokrati*. Tema: Flerspråkighet. Vol. 18, nr. 2, 9-37.
- Ljung, M., Ohlander, S. (1982). Allmän grammatik. Malmö: Liber Förlag.
- Lundén, T. (1993). Språkens landskap i Europa. Lund: Studentlitteratur.
- Long, M. H. (1993). Assessment Strategies for Second Language Acquisition Theories. *Applied Linguistics*. Vol. 14, No. 3. Oxford University Press.
- Maino. (1957). Breve storia della lingua somala. Somalia d'oggi. Giugno II/2. Mogadiscio. 17-19.
- Malinowski, B. (1953). The problem of meaning in primitive languages. In C. K. Ogden & I. A. Richards (Eds.), The meaning of meaning (pp. 296-336) New York.
- Orwin, M. (2006). Somalia: Language Situation. *Encyclopedia of Language & Linguistics* (Second edition). Accessible: https://doi.org/10.1016/B0-08-044854-2/01663-1.
- Otterup, T. (2018). Flerspråkighet som resurs förekomst, attityder och förhållningssätt. Accessible: https://www.skolverket.se/download/18.189c87ae1623366ff3718a5/1524039100811/Flersprakighet-som-resurs-tore-otterup-20180418.pdf
- Saeed, J. I. (1999). Somali. *London Oriental and African Language Library 10*. Amsterdam/Philadelphia: John Benjamins Publishing Company.
- Saeed, J. I. (1993). *Somali Reference Grammar*. Second Revised Edition. Kensington: Dunwoody Press.

- SCB Befolkningens utbildning 2018, (2019). Sveriges Officiella Statistik Statistiska Meddelanden, UF 37 SM 1902. Published: 2019-06-18. Accessible:

 https://www.scb.se/contentassets/c4f928a71e934437b1320762371c35a1/uf0506_2018a01_s

 muf37sm1902.pdf
- SCB Hög utbildning går i arv. (2016). Published: 2016-03-07. Accessible: https://www.scb.se/hitta-statistik/artiklar/2016/Hog-utbildning-gar-i-arv/
- SCB Universitet och högskolor (2018). Svensk och utländsk bakgrund för studenter och doktorander 2016/17. Sveriges Officiella Statistik Statistiska Meddelanden, UF 19 SM 1801. Published 2018-05-22. Accessible:

 https://www.scb.se/contentassets/e1ec360edd5b4879a2462192060755aa/uf0211 2016117 s

 m_uf19sm1801.pdf
- SCB Universitet och högskolor (2014). "Svensk och utländsk bakgrund för studenter och doktorander 2013/14". Sveriges Officiella Statistik Statistiska Meddelanden, UF 19 SM 1401. Published 2014-05-22. Accessible:

 http://share.scb.se/OV9997/data/UF0211 2012L13 SM UF19SM1401.pdf
- Scheu, D. U. (2000). Cultural constraints in bilingual's codeswitching. *International Journals of Intercultural relations*, 131-150. Pergamon.
- Serzisko, F. (2006).). Somali. *Encyclopedia of Language & Linguistics* (Second edition). Accessible: https://doi.org/10.1016/B0-08-044854-2/01663-1.
- SFS 1992:1434. *Högskolelag*. 1 kap. 5 §. Stockholm: Utbildningsdepartementet. Accessible: https://www.riksdagen.se/sv/dokument-lagar/dokument/svensk-forfattningssamling/hogskolelag-19921434_sfs-1992-1434
- Skolverket (2008). "Med annat modersmål elever i grundskolan och skolans verksamhet".
- Svensson, L., Anderberg, E., Alvegård, C. & Johansson, T. (2009). The use of language in understanding subject matter. *Instructional Science*. 37(3), 205-225.

Topan, F. (2008). "Tanzania: The Development of Swahili as a National and Official Language" Simpson, A. (Ed.). *Language and National Identity in Africa*. New York: Oxford University Press, 252–266.

7. Appendices

Appendix I

Follow-up questions for students with Somali background

- 1. Är du född i Sverige? Om inte, hur länge har du bott här?
- 2. Har du någon tidigare erfarenhet av studier vid universitet eller högskola i
- a) Sverige?
- b) något annat land?
- I så fall, vad studerade du och fick du några instruktioner i akademiskt skrivande?
- 3. Anser du att dina tidigare studier har hjälpt dig i ditt senare akademiska skrivande?
- 4. Vad anser du kännetecknar det akademiska skrivandet?
- 5. Vad anser du är viktigast i det akademiska skrivandet?
- 6. Vad anser du är mest utmanande/svårast när det gäller att skriva akademiskt?
- 7. Har du fått några instruktioner eller annan hjälp beträffande akademiskt språk och skrivande samt källhantering i dina studier på universitet eller högskola i Sverige?
- 8. Hur anser du att universitet och högskolor i Sverige på bästa sätt kan stötta studenter som inte har svenska som modersmål i deras akademiska skrivande?

Appendix II

Follow-up questions for students with Swedish background

- 1. Har du någon tidigare erfarenhet av studier vid universitet eller högskola i
- a) Sverige?
- b) något annat land?
- I så fall, vad studerade du och fick du några instruktioner i akademiskt skrivande?
- 2. Anser du att dina tidigare studier har hjälpt dig i ditt senare akademiska skrivande?
- 3. Vad anser du kännetecknar det akademiska skrivandet?
- 4. Vad anser du är viktigast i det akademiska skrivandet?
- 5. Vad anser du är mest utmanande/svårast när det gäller att skriva akademiskt?
- 6. Har du fått några instruktioner eller annan hjälp beträffande akademiskt språk och skrivande samt källhantering i dina nuvarande studier på Göteborgs universitet?
- 7. Hur anser du att Göteborgs universitet på bästa sätt kan stötta studenter i deras akademiska skrivande?

Appendix III

Instructions for an individual assignment in the course SOL140

Individuell slutuppgift

inlämning: 7 juni omfång: 4 sidor

Handlingsplan för att ämnet modersmål och studiehandledning ska bli en framgångsfaktor för elever med annat modersmål än svenska.

Skriv en handlingsplan där du steg för steg förklarar vad som krävs för att modersmålslärarna och studiehandledarna ska kunna bidra till att elever med annat modersmål än svenska blir framgångsrika i skolan; vad krävs för att eleverna ska utveckla ett skolspråk, kunna skriva texter i olika genrer samt kunna läsa, förstå och inhämta kunskap från olika lärobokstexter?

Handlingsplanen har två syften:

- att få rektorn på din skola att förstå vikten av modersmålsundervisning och studiehandledning för att elever med annat modersmål än svenska ska bli framgångsrika i skolan
- att stärka modersmålslärarens och studiehandledarens roll på skolan.

Det är viktigt att du hämtar stöd och argument för de olika stegen i din handlingsplan från Skolverkets styrdokument beträffande modersmål och studiehandledning samt från de teorier vi gått igenom beträffande R2L, Genrepedagogiken och Cirkelmodellen för att bli så övertygande som möjligt.

Appendix IV

Instructions for a corpus investigation in the course SOL120 (1,5 credits)

Här följer några punkter som bör finnas med i rapporten över den undersökning som du har genomfört.

Man kan skriva rapporter och uppsatser på många olika sätt och om du är van vid andra rubriker så finns det ingenting som hindrar att du gör på ett annat sätt som du kanske är mera van vid.

Titel

Ge en kort och tydlig titel till din rapport så att man lätt förstår vad den handlar om.

Inledning

Beskriv på ca 5–10 rader vad rapporten handlar om. Vad är det som du har undersökt? Varför tyckte du att det skulle vara intressant?

Frågeställning

Här utvecklar du mera i detalj det problem eller den fråga som du har undersökt.

Det är oftast ganska bra att försöka formulera sitt problem som en direkt fråga och markera den tydligt i sin text så att den syns tydligt för läsaren.

Du kan eventuellt också berätta lite mera om varför du anser att detta är intressant och varför det behöver undersökas.

Metod

Hur har du arbetat? Berätta hur du lade upp ditt arbete, t.ex. hur du beslutade vilka ord som skulle ingå. Vilka källor har du använt? Korpus, ordböcker, grammatikböcker, skolböcker, annat? Hur gjorde du sökningarna i korpusarna? Möjligen har du också genomfört en enkätundersökning? Berätta i så fall om den.

Hur har du sedan bearbetade den information som du hittat?

Resultat och diskussion

Vad kom du fram till?

Beskriv resultaten av din undersökning och diskutera hur du menar att man bör tolka dessa resultat. Försöka att dra övergripande, generaliserande slutsatser, inte bara redovisa de enskilda resultaten från källorna om varje enskilt exempelord. Försök att se lite mera allmänna mönster i materialet.

Avslutning

Sammanfatta kort de viktigaste/tydligaste resultaten av din undersökning och de allmänna slutsatser som du menar att man kan dra.

Referenser

Gör en lista över alla böcker, artiklar och webbplatser som du använt för din undersökning och som du har nämnt i texten i din rapport.

Listan bör se ut ungefär så här (bok/artikel/webbplats):

Cali-Guul-Warsame, Khaalid. 2008. *Qaamuuska Af Soomaaliga: Koobaha Af Soomaaliga.* Nairobi: Lino Typesetters.

Cali "Idaajaa", Axmed F. 2015. Qoristii Af-soomaaliga iyo ururinta suugaantiisa: kalintii Shire Jaamac Axmed. I Ismaaciil, C.M. & Mansuur, C.C. & Sharci, S.A. (red.), *Afmaal: Proceedings of the Conference on the 40th Anniversary of Somali Orthography*, Djibouti: The Intergovernmental Academy of Somali Language, s. 183–188.

Korp. 2016-12-05. Hämtat från https://spraakbanken.gu.se/korp/?mode=somali

Det finns många olika system för referenslistor. Det viktigaste är att man är konsekvent och följer ett enda system.

För den muntliga presentationen bör du koncentrera dig på resultaten. Du har inte så mycket tid, bara cirka 5 minuter, så du bör bara använda den första minuten till att presentera problemet och hur du genomförde undersökningen.

Använd 80% av tiden för att redovisa resultaten från undersökningen och de generella slutsatser som du vill dra.

Du bör förbereda en enkel powerpointpresentation eller ett worddokument eller pdf (med stora bokstäver) som stöd för din muntliga presentation