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**FROM POSTGRADUATE STUDENT TO PUBLISHED WRITER:
DISCOURSE VARIATION AND DEVELOPMENT IN TESOL**

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The University of Aston in Birmingham

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discourse variation and development in TESOL

Susan Mary Wharton
PhD 1999

Summary

This thesis is part of a project whose overall aim is to assist participants on an MSc TESOL course who wish to begin to publish articles in the field to do so. The project, which is undertaken within a naturalistic paradigm, has two intimately related and mutually constitutive strands: one descriptive, one interventionist. The descriptive strand consists of an analytical model of the TESOL article genre, and it is instantiated in this thesis. The interventionist strand consists of a series of pedagogic interactions and materials intended to assist project participants formulate a text suitable for publication within the target genre, and it is reported on in this thesis.

I begin the thesis by looking in detail at the research approach which characterises the project. I then attempt to explain the situational context of the work and to position it within the context of other research in the areas of discourse community membership, academic genres, genre learning and academic enculturation.

Having thus contextualised the work, I next attempt a detailed exploration of the problems of postgraduate students in TESOL when first attempting to write in the TESOL article genre: this exploration is undertaken from both a linguistic and a pedagogic perspective. Then in subsequent chapters, both a linguistic and a pedagogic response to these problems are proposed: the first consisting of an analytical model of the target genre, the second consisting of a series of pedagogic interactions and materials. The relationships between the two lines of response are also examined in some detail.

Then in the final part of the thesis, I report feedback from the interventionist strand and attempt to conduct an evaluation of the whole project to date. Criteria for evaluation are proposed and examined in some detail in the context of the research approach of the project. The concluding chapter is a brief discussion of future directions for this work.

KEY WORDS: genre analysis; TESOL; EAP; writing; academic enculturation

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Chapter one

Approaching research

- 1.1 Introduction
- 1.2 A working definition of *paradigm*
- 1.3 A paradigm 'fit' for the current research
 - 1.3.1 A view of reality
 - 1.3.2 Research goals
 - 1.3.3 Style of research
 - 1.3.4 Research outcomes
 - 1.3.5 The possibility of transfer
 - 1.3.6 Evidence and evaluation
- 1.4 Concluding comments on chapter one

1.1 Introduction

In this first chapter I will attempt to explicate the research approach which characterises my project. I will discuss the concept of research paradigm, and then go on to discuss my project from a number of perspectives and to argue that all of these cohere to situate the project within a certain research paradigm. I will discuss implications of this situation for research outcomes and research significance, as well as for evidence and evaluation.

1.2 A working definition of *paradigm*

Guba & Lincoln (1982, 1994) argue that paradigms are the most basic belief systems and world views on which research is based. They characterise paradigms as "axiomatic systems characterised essentially by their differing sets of assumptions about the phenomena into which they are designed to enquire" (Guba & Lincoln 1982 p233). Axioms in turn are defined as "the set of undemonstrated (and undemonstrable) propositions accepted by convention ... or established by practice as the basic building blocks of some conceptual or theoretical structure or system" (1982 p236).

Axioms, therefore, are basic truths: in order to conduct research within a given paradigm it is necessary to take its axioms as given. In the case of paradigms which have a long tradition in their communities, and which are seen as effective even outside those communities, this mind-set may lead to a rather

unquestioning approach: a research paradigm may be seen by those operating within it as the natural, or the only, way to proceed.

It is perhaps the case that there are disciplines in which dominant research paradigms are so firmly entrenched at particular points in time that it is difficult to conceive of an individual researcher deciding to work outside them. In contemporary education and language study however, research is not restricted to one paradigm. This pluralism, which can be seen as a source of difficulty (Beretta (ed) 1993) or as a great strength (Van Lier 1994, Block 1996) of the field, means that the individual researcher has the responsibility of making a choice. Lincoln & Guba (1985) discuss this issue of choice under the heading of value resonance: the need for resonance between the researcher's personal values, the values of the context, and the values of theoretical and methodological values which guide the research. Edge (1993) points out that researchers naturally look for research approaches and theories which both account for their data and are congruent with the belief systems which they value.

Guba and Lincoln (1982), Lincoln & Guba (1985), Lazaraton (1993) and Carr (1995) all argue that it is not possible to distinguish between different axiomatic systems underpinning research, different approaches to research, or indeed different methods and techniques of research on the basis of inherent value. Rather, their value is a function of their interaction with all other factors which impact on a research situation. As Guba & Lincoln (1982) put the matter: "These utilities [of axiom systems] are not determined by the nature of the axiom system itself but by the nature of the interaction between these axioms and the characteristics of the area in which they are purported to be applied" (p237).

Guba & Lincoln (1994) argue that paradigm choices are not 'merely' philosophical: they have implications for the practical conduct of research, for policy choices and for the interpretation of findings. All the interlocking decisions which a researcher can make about approaches, paradigms, methods and techniques should, then, be made in the light of fitness for purpose. If such decisions are to be made consciously — and the clear implication of the arguments cited above is that as far as possible they should be — then the onus is on the researcher to marshall as much awareness as possible of all factors influencing the research situation, including their own values and beliefs.

In the following section I will explain why I believe the mode of enquiry I have adopted to be suitable for my research goals in the light of the nature of the phenomena I seek to investigate.

1.3 A paradigm 'fit' for the current research

In this section I will attempt to be explicit about the world view which I bring to the current research, about my purposes in carrying the research out, and also about my conceptualisations of the data I need to account for. Through this discussion I will develop an argument to the effect that my research fits within a paradigm which has been called "naturalistic" ¹ (Guba & Lincoln 1982, Lincoln & Guba 1985). It is not particularly my intention to follow the paradigm debate up to the present day: rather I use whichever sources and formulations seem most appropriate to characterise my own project.

Lincoln & Guba (1985) and Guba & Lincoln (1994) develop a lengthy argument for the superiority of the naturalistic paradigm for social science and human research. In Lincoln & Guba 1985 they argue that this paradigm is also gaining currency in other disciplines, since its emphasis on the complex, holistic, indeterminate and systematic nature of our world seems to provide the best fit with the understandings that are currently emerging. In both 1985 and 1994 they spend considerable time discussing the *unsuitability* of the contrasting positivist paradigm for social science and human research. I will not seek to develop my own arguments against positivism in this chapter; rather, I will seek to explain and defend the paradigm choice that I have myself made.

I will begin by looking at the world view which characterises my research project.

1.3.1 A view of reality

This research is about a genre within a community and about the development of people seeking access to that genre; it is therefore concerned with mental and social constructions of human beings, perceived from different individual and group perspectives. The reality to which such constructions and perspectives contribute cannot be meaningfully understood as being concrete or unitary. Indeed, an acknowledgement that realities are multiple is a necessary precondition to establishing effective communication between the perspectives.

¹ By 1994 Guba & Lincoln use the term "constructivist" rather than "naturalistic". I have chosen to keep to the earlier formulation as it seems to be the more widely used at the time I am writing.

Once the existence of different realities has been acknowledged, agreement from differing perspectives can, in fact, be seen as an indication of the validity of research (Heron 1996).

Reason & Rowan (1981b), Guba & Lincoln (1982) and Lincoln & Guba (1985) all argue that it is axiomatic in the naturalistic paradigm that realities are multiple. In 1985 Lincoln & Guba use the term "constructed reality" (p83) to emphasise that the realities with which human beings work are constructed in the minds of individuals and/or socially, and so cannot relate isomorphically to any 'objective' reality. By 1994 Guba & Lincoln's ontological position is explained in even more relativistic terms, although here they also specify the possibility of resolving ontological questions differently for human and for purely physical phenomena.

Reason (1988) Guba & Lincoln (1982, 1994) and Lincoln & Guba (1985) further argue that these multiple realities can only be studied holistically, since fragmentation would alter the nature of the whole. This is of course in contrast with the positivist paradigm, under which phenomena tend to be regarded as isolable and independently verifiable. Lincoln & Guba (1985) devote time to showing how actual human research studies have attempted to grapple with the existence of different holistic realities in given research situations.

Geertz (1983) addresses some implications of the notion of multiple, holistic realities when he proposes that in the social sciences "cultural phenomena should be treated as significant systems posing expositive questions" (p3). This is a standpoint which supports emic investigation of human communities. Geertz emphasises the importance of frameworks, and the "dependence of what is seen on where it is seen from and what it is seen with" (p4). He states that one consequence of this relativistic world view is a move away from the attempt to explain social phenomena in terms of major structures like cause and effect, and towards the placing of such phenomena inside local frames of awareness.

Heron (1996) also argues in favour of a multiple and systemic approach to reality, though he points out explicitly that relativism would not be helpful if taken to extremes. He advocates the notion of participative reality, in which reality is seen as "subjective-objective, an intermarriage between the creative construing of the human mind and what is cosmically given" (p162).

Janicki (1989) considers the relationship between world view, conceptualisation of phenomena, and the language used to phrase research questions. He argues

against what he calls "essentialist sociolinguistics" (p93). He argues that the assumptions of Aristotelian essentialism are frequently present in sociolinguistic research and he criticises this approach on a number of grounds. Essentialist thinking, he says, leads to the phrasing of unanswerable research questions such as "what is a (language) variety?" (p96). Such questions imply a belief in a single, discoverable reality. Janicki articulates a world view congruent with the notion of multiple realities when he advocates another phrasing of such questions: eg, "how shall we most conveniently define "language variety" for the purposes of our present research?" (my example). Thus the descriptive, text analysis strand of the present research, for example, does not seek to arrive at a single true description of the genre which is studied: rather, it aims to suggest a model which is functional to the extent that the use of it is developmental, of both texts and writers, vis a vis the social goal of genre access which is addressed in the interventionist strand. The resulting description may be 'fuzzy' but Janicki argues that fuzziness in sociolinguistic descriptions is a consequence of the nature of human experience and reality, and therefore that it should not be seen as an unusual, an undesirable or a temporary state of affairs.

Guba & Lincoln (1982) and Lincoln & Guba (1985) point out that a recognition of the existence of multiple realities leads to a reappraisal of the traditional concept of causality. Instead of trying to isolate causes and effects within one reality, naturalistic researchers can recognise that a multiplicity of factors are constantly shaping each other. In 1985 Lincoln & Guba argue that however flawed the concept of deterministic causality, researchers still need a notion of relationships between phenomena and events which will allow them to formulate explanations of occurrences and attempt to contribute to the shape of future occurrences. The notion of mutual shaping, which is associated with a systemic view of reality, allows for attempts at explanation and influence without tying researchers into determinism. It is congruent with the notion of multiple realities.

Altrichter et al (1993) also discuss the benefits of a systemic view of reality, arguing that it leads to the formulation of workable research questions and encourages researchers to take more aspects of a situation into account. To the extent that particularly sensitive spots in the system can be identified, it also leads usefully to suggestions for action. This is of course particularly important for interventionist research: as Lincoln & Guba (1985) point out, in an indeterminate world a researcher can never be sure that their intervention will produce a given outcome. They can introduce a new factor into the mix, and

watch it interact with all the other factors, and hope! My research project, in seeking to analyse texts within a genre and communicate this analysis for pedagogic ends, does not aim to show that certain awarenesses always lead to certain ways of writing and/or to the acceptance of submitted articles; rather, it attempts to elucidate some of the multiple factors that lead certain written products to meet and help to shape a particular community's criteria for 'success'.

1.3.2 Research goals

As was indicated in the thesis summary and will be discussed in more detail particularly in chapters 10 and 12, my project has both descriptive and interventionist research goals. These goals include: the production of an illuminating and pedagogically relevant model of the TESOL article genre; the facilitation of action, among research participants, in terms of text analysis and the writing of texts for publication; the explicit description of my own reflective practice; and the making of a contribution to thinking on theory-practice relationships. In this subsection I will begin to conceptualise these research goals more fully.

This project is grounded in the work of a particular academic discourse community; it attempts to arrive at effective emic descriptions of some of the products of that community and to facilitate development among some of the members of that community. It is an attempt to facilitate situational understanding (Elliott 1993a); for myself as initiating researcher, for other research participants, and for readers of the report(s) which emerge. As Elliott argues, understanding of social questions — in this case, what a target genre is like or how to reformulate a text for a new purpose — cannot be developed in dissociation from decision making and acting in the situation. This has implications for how descriptive models may most appropriately be developed and how research participants may most appropriately be invited to interact with them. It suggests that the relationship between descriptive and interventionist strands will be complex, an issue which is specifically addressed in chapter 10 of this thesis.

The descriptive goals of the research may be seen as a modest attempt to contribute, through genre analysis, to an ethnography of thought of an academic community. Geertz (1983) points out that different scholarly discourses are in fact different ways of being in the world: "These roles we think to occupy turn out to be minds we find ourselves to have" (p155). A

similar position is that of Gee (1990) who defines discourses as "saying (writing)-doing-being-valuing-believing combinations (p142). These definitions emphasise the importance of an -emic perspective when investigating products of a community, and emphasise that access or increased access to such a community is unlikely to be a simple matter.

The interventionist goals of the research are precisely concerned with such access, in that they seek to facilitate writing in the target genre. These, then, are value laden and participatory (see section 1.3.3 below). They are also practical in nature. In my project I see a strong link between the research goal of contributing to theory and the research goal of working to solve a concrete, practical problem. Beretta (1993) suggests that a dichotomy exists which pushes researchers to define their goals in terms of one broad aim or the other, but others (eg Clarke 1994, Van Lier 1994) have argued that such a dichotomy is dysfunctional for the TESOL/ Applied Linguistics Profession. Clarke suggests that the dysfunctionality results from practitioners being cast "as implementers of dicta rather than as agents in the process of theory construction" (p10). As will be discussed throughout the thesis, one of the goals of this project is to keep practice and implementation very tightly linked to theory construction.

The fact that the project has interventionist goals at all arguably situates it closer to the critical theory paradigm than to the naturalistic (constructivist) paradigm in Guba & Lincoln's (1994) framework. For Guba & Lincoln the critical theory paradigm casts the initiating researcher in the role of instigator and facilitator of emancipatory transformations. In the past the researcher may often have been the one to decide what these transformations should be, though contemporary work emphasises that those whom the research purports to be *for* should be the ones to make such decisions. The interventionist strand of my research project is conceived as facilitating emancipatory transformation; I made the first decision about the need for such a transformation (see chapter 4) but this decision is constantly validated (or not) by the uptake of, and by feedback on, the facilitation offered (see chapters 11 and 12).

Guba & Lincoln (1994) argue that the naturalistic (constructivist) and critical theory paradigms are in fact commensurable with each other. Guba & Lincoln would also be the first to acknowledge that their framework for differentiating paradigms is not intended to be a context-free generalisation, and that all of an individual's practice may not fit exactly under the description of one paradigm.

To conclude this subsection on research goals, then, let us explicitly acknowledge that the discussions of a multiple, relative and causally indeterminate reality in section 1.3.1 above should not be understood as being in contradiction with the optimistic stance on individual change and self development which is implied by the interventionist goals of the research. Carr (1995) explicitly argues that the challenge of postmodernism does not require that we give up a "modern" commitment to emancipatory values: but rather, that we have to pursue these "on the basis of the contingent experience-based knowledge of ordinary educational practitioners rather than by resorting to objective knowledge drawn from some external authoritative source" (p127). In this thesis, chapter 10 particularly discusses the relationships between an interventionist strand with emancipatory goals and a descriptive strand which attempts to acknowledge multiple, relative, socially constructed and indeterminate reality.

1.3.3 Style of research

In view of the research goals articulated in the previous subsection, the whole of this project may be conceptualised as action research. Carr (1995) points out that current definitions of action research are very fluid, that the term means different things to different people. Carr (1995) and Elliott (1993b) both agree that this uncertainty has advantages: it militates against the appropriation of the term by any academically powerful group who could then become the arbiters of whether research carried out by others is 'really' action research.

The claim of this project to be understood as action research may be strengthened with reference to Elliott's (1991 p69) well known characterisation: "the study of a social situation with a view to improving the quality of action within it". Altrichter et al take this definition as a starting point for their own characterisation, and go on to describe action research as arising from practical questions and being compatible with the educational values of the setting in which it is undertaken. Chapter 4 of this thesis (which seeks to show a practical need for the project) and chapter 2 (which describes the setting in which it has been developed) attempt to show that this research project fits both criteria. Altrichter et al also characterise action research as research into the practice of the researcher, and I will now go on to discuss my project from this perspective.

The project contains certain elements of what Elliott (1993b) calls second-order action research, ie reflective enquiry into one's own practice as a facilitator of reflective enquiry by others. Elliott argues that university staff who attempt to

foster reflective enquiry with teachers and do not themselves reflectively research their own practice regarding what they do with these teachers are less effective at fostering such reflective enquiry. They are also at risk of perpetrating a hegemonic divide between university teachers and teachers who take university courses, by implying that university teachers do not need to research and reflect on their practice. Torbert (1981) argues that a lack of reflective enquiry by 'traditional' educational researchers has contributed to the production of research which is not valid or useful for practitioners: "an acting system that does not engage in experimental self study can neither produce nor collect valid data because of the unexamined incongruities within its experience. Such a system will both deliberately and unintentionally distort data and will resist processing feedback which identifies incongruities" (p150).

Reflecting on my practice as a teacher and researcher, then, should increase the likelihood of my producing good research and should enable me to support the reflective research of other participants more honestly. The present thesis is, from this perspective, primarily an *account* of some of my practice in teacher education, and space for commentary on such meta-research is limited; but particularly chapters 9 and 10 testify, I hope, to an attempt to reflect on what I have done here.

The interventionist strand of the research, with its particular approach to genre teaching, may be considered as close to Heron's (1996) "supported action enquiry" (p24) in which "person A supports, facilitates and supervises the development of self determination of person B, usually within some specified social role; and in which the development of self determination is for person B an intentional action enquiry" (p24). This claim, which is developed more fully in chapters 9 and 10, characterises my research as a very attenuated form of what Heron (1996) terms "participative" research, ie research *with* people rather than *on* or *about* them.

In the interventionist strand of the project the relationship between researcher and 'researched' is not an enquirer-object or an enquirer-subject relationship, but rather a relationship of conscious collaboration. Lincoln & Guba (1985) discuss at length why the interaction of initiating researcher and other research participants is an opportunity to be exploited, rather than a threat to validity. In this project I and other research participants have attempted to work towards a common goal known to us all and valid for us all. Reason & Rowan (1981a) and Heron (1982) state that such a relationship can be considered one of the defining characteristics of "new paradigm" research. Although this project was

not the type of full co-operative enquiry envisaged by Reason & Rowan and Heron, I will argue in chapter 10 that a degree of "authentic collaboration" (Heron 1982, 1996) was nevertheless achieved.

Research where goals are shared between participants is clearly value-laden. Guba & Lincoln (1982, 1994) and Lincoln & Guba (1985) argue that since enquiry can never be value-free, the most reasonable response is to seek to acknowledge and understand the values which may be shaping any particular enquiry. I attempt to show throughout this thesis that my project is shaped by such values as a commitment to pedagogically and practically useful analysis, a commitment to informed choice in professional development (my own and that of others) and a commitment to reflect on and develop my research practice. Participants in the interventionist strand of the research are invited to consider these values and respond to them. As Sims (1981) points out, resonance between the values of the initiating researcher and those of other research participants is essential; otherwise, other research participants will be unable to do the 'work' needed or to provide appropriate feedback to the initiating researcher. Heron (1982) argues that resonance of values between initiating researcher and other research participants is essential for research to have ethical validity.

A further perspective on the style of research undertaken in this project is provided by a discussion of the status and role of theory within the investigation. (This perspective is discussed in more detail in chapter 10). In a project based on a systemic view of reality, with both theoretical and practical goals and which attempts to take a participative approach, it is essential to ground theory firmly in data and also to allow practice to inform theory as well as vice versa. These are classic postures in the naturalistic paradigm: Reason & Rowan (1981a) discuss the importance of Glaser & Strauss' (1967) grounded theory for qualitative research, and Guba & Lincoln (1982) emphasise the naturalistic paradigm preference for theory that emerges from the data as opposed to a priori theory, and a willingness to allow the research design to emerge as the investigation progresses. Clarke (1994) similarly argues that understanding of complex social phenomena is unlikely to be achieved if we attempt to fit observed behaviour into a preconceived theoretical mould fashioned only from conceptual or experimental frameworks. Carr (1995) calls upon those involved in projects which they conceptualise as action research to see the relationships between research and action as a dialectic: he draws upon the ideas of Winter (1987, 1989) to advocate a style of action research which "preserves the dialectical unity of theory and practice by understanding them as

mutually constitutive elements in a dynamic, developing and integrated whole" (p103).

1.3.4 Research outcomes

By now it will be clear that the current research aims not so much towards claims of 'truth', where the virtues of particular models are "presented as stable and generalisable traits in the item under discussion rather than the result of particular instances of their implementation" (Clarke 1994 p10) and which could therefore lead to the imposition of 'miracle cures' on receiving contexts (Edge 1986), but rather towards claims of findings and outcomes where the determining role of values, motivations and context is recognised alongside the potential for transferability.

This is an obvious consequence of a commitment to the existence of multiple realities. Under the naturalistic paradigm it is not possible — or more importantly, appropriate — to attempt to make context-free statements of enduring truth value (Guba & Lincoln 1982). As Heron (1982) points out, accurate findings for naturalistic research are not facts which can be found: they are "models that illuminate experience that are relevant to and in part shaped by our agreed projects" (p3).

Rowan & Reason (1981) argue that truth in an investigation is inevitably linked to what those involved in the project want or need to find. This is not an indication of bad research, but it does need to be acknowledged: "we no longer see truth as something impersonal, which hangs luminously in the void, but as something attached very firmly to a person, and a time, and a place, and a system" (p136). Reason & Rowan (1981b) argue that for truth in naturalistic enquiry to make sense we need to get away from the subject/object split, which obliges us to see reality as either entirely 'out there' and discoverable or as entirely in our mind(s) and therefore completely relativistic.

This latter position is analogous to that of Heron (1996). Heron uses the notion of participative reality as a perspective on the types of truth statements which are most appropriate. He discusses "truth as the congruent articulation of reality" (p163); this attractive formulation emphasises that researchers both reveal and shape reality. In Reason & Rowan's (1981b) terms, valid knowledge is a matter of the relationship between the knower and what there is to be known. By acknowledging both sides of the equation, we may avoid the respective traps of what Heron terms a scientific paradigm and a post-modern

anti-paradigm; the first of which denies our role in shaping reality, and the second of which denies any reality to which we might give shape.

1.3.5 The possibility of transfer

The naturalistic axiom regarding the nature of truth statements does not of course imply that transfer of findings is never possible. The naturalistic researcher must develop adequate idiographic statements about the situation under study, and provide sufficient "thick description" (Geertz 1973) for other researchers to make judgements about transferability to other contexts. There is no contradiction between the internal goal of -emic research and the broader goal of producing communicable findings. Heron (1982) acknowledges the importance of enough thick description to permit transfer, and he also points out that other researchers within this paradigm are not likely to wish to replicate a given piece of research exactly. A piece of research may serve as a starting point in a new context, but its design will and should be modified to fit the needs of the new situation.

Beliefs about the nature of transferability and the nature of potential receiving contexts condition the entire research process: they affect the kind of investigation likely to be done, the way it is described, and the goals it can have. Even if we know nothing specific about potential receiving contexts, an a priori respect for their autonomy and internal validity will in itself lead to a certain view of the nature of the process of transferability and hence of the illocutionary force of the research. As this changes from "I suggest..." to "I offer..." then the burden of 'proof' can come to be shared between originating and receiving contexts (Edge & Richards 1998).

Such would seem to be the spirit of Geertz's (1983) suggestion that transfer or applicability of findings can occur via a process of "translation" from one local frame to another. The very term "translation" emphasises the importance of the receiving context, since it is this that determines the meaning system into which the "translation" will occur. Translation in this sense is not merely a question of interpreting one way of thinking in the light of another system, rather it is a matter of illuminating the logic behind a particular way of thinking such that it can be understood in a new context.

1.3.6 Evidence and Evaluation

Any investigation, particularly one which is intended as a significant contribution to its field, should have a position on how its outcomes and findings will be evaluated, and it is perhaps at the moment of evaluation that socially dominant research paradigms make themselves felt most keenly. As Edge & Richards (1998) point out, research reports can stand or fall on whether their approach to evidence and evaluation is considered adequate: there may therefore be a temptation to move towards the dominant research paradigm at the moment of evaluation, even if this is not the paradigm that has informed most of the work.

Long (1993) in a prestigious, special issue article, argues in favour of the scientific method of assessment in applied linguistics on the grounds that it has proved itself more successful than any alternative approach for explanation and prediction in the case of natural, independently verifiable phenomena. It may be that some aspects of education and language study fall into such a category, but those examined in the present research do not — therefore, a different approach is needed. The notion that the positivist paradigm may be unsuitable for the assessment of research in the human sciences is of course hardly new: Guba & Lincoln (1982) and Lincoln & Guba (1985) discuss the matter at length, while in 1983 Geertz observed that the scientific paradigm was being rejected in more and more branches of humanistic research because it had not been able to achieve its own objectives in terms of evidence and evaluation: it was failing to produce predictability and replicability. Yet the balance of power in the paradigm debate is still uneven, resulting in an onus on those who seek to have their work evaluated from qualitative perspectives to justify their principles and procedures (Edge & Richards 1998).

Long (1993 pp228-229) attacks the naturalistic approach to evidence and evaluation particularly on the grounds that it leads to relativism. He claims that it is irresponsible for a field of study which is at least partly concerned with practical action and which deals with issues of significance to real-world problems, to content itself with relativistic answers. He says that such answers are in effect an admission that researchers know little about the field in question.

However, others see relativism as a virtue. Clarke (1994) argues that particularisability — idiographic detail in large quantities, which would naturally tend to lead to relativistic conclusions — is in fact necessary to make

research findings meaningful. Van Lier (1994) emphasises that different types of evidence may be appropriate for different aspects of a wide field. Block (1996) argues that evaluation should relate to the contexts in which theories were developed and the purposes they were designed to serve.

Elliott (1993a) and Heron (1996) both argue that relativism is not synonymous with a rejection of any sort of criteria for evaluation. Recognition of the facts that theory and its findings are personally and socially constructed and that there is no incontestable benchmark for assessing their truth and validity does not have to mean that questions about the validity of theories are pointless. It is still possible to support one idea rather than others on the basis that it may provide a more unified and comprehensive account of whatever evidence is there. To the extent that the research is shared, it may be possible to attain intersubjective agreement on this issue. Carr (1995) emphasises the importance of usefulness as a benchmark for educational research, and argues that a theory which is manifestly useful in a specified context and for specified purposes, is particularly worthy of support.

Debates about appropriate evidence and appropriate criteria for evaluation continue, then. The consequence of this for individual projects is that researchers, again, have the responsibility of making a conscious choice regarding their approach to evidence and evaluation and of being explicit about that choice.

The criteria for evaluation of this research project (see chapters 11 and 12) are conditioned by its situation within the naturalistic paradigm. The various aspects of the project are evaluated in terms of their congruence with the world view and goals of the research, and with each other. Then more specifically, the success of the linguistic descriptions are evaluated in terms of their internal coherence, the extent to which they are supported by text, and their psychological reality for research participants. The interventionist strand is evaluated according to the extent to which research participants feel that they were helped to progress towards their goals.

1.4 Concluding comments on chapter one

In this chapter I have attempted to situate my research project in the context of some basic positions in an ongoing debate on appropriate research in education and in language studies. To have made this attempt is, of course, a requirement for rigorous research in the paradigm with which the project is aligned. This

chapter, then, is in one sense a meta-comment on the research, and in another sense an integral part of that research. It itself forms part of the detail which is intended to make the research credible and, where appropriate, transferable.

Chapter two

The interpersonal context

- 2.1 Introduction
- 2.2 The MSc/Diploma in TESOL/TESP
- 2.3 The programme participants
- 2.4 The programme assignments
- 2.5 Concluding comments on chapter two

2.1 Introduction

In chapter 1 a certain emphasis was placed on the locally situated character of my research project and the implications of this for research design and evaluation. In this brief chapter, then, I want to describe some aspects of my local context which influenced me to take up this project.

2.2 The MSc/Diploma in TESOL/TESP

In the Language Studies Unit (LSU) of Aston University, where I am employed, our main pedagogic activity is the MSc/Diploma in TESOL/TESP by distance learning. The aim of the programme is "... to give anyone faced with the responsibility for decision making in English Language Teaching (ELT) the ability to take stock of, and act upon, all relevant aspects of a specific language teaching environment..." (LSU 1997a p2).

The programme literature looks in more detail at how that aim might be achieved. It seeks to engage potential participants' interest via two related but distinct discourses: the discourse of professional relevance and action, and the discourse of intellectual growth and challenge. This analysis, inspired by Stierer's (1998) critique of the literature of the Open University Masters in Education, can be illustrated by two excerpts from our own programme literature.

The first, short text, comes from the MSc publicity brochure:

" The benefits the MSc could bring to you
Powerful professional development, publications maybe, promotions quite possibly, and certainly new horizons". (LSU 1997b p3).

The second, longer text, is from the MSc Study Companion:

"The aim of the course is to provide an up-to-date framework, based in linguistic awareness, for developing and extending your professional expertise. At the end of it you should have a firm grasp of the key issues in the field and be thoroughly acquainted with the literature. This will enable you to make informed decisions on any aspect of TESOL and to support these with reasoned argument at any level. The course is essentially practical, but the emphasis throughout is on the link between theory and practice. We in the Language Studies Unit are proud of our strong links with both academic and business worlds, and this course reflects our determination to resolve practical problems without sacrificing academic integrity". (LSU 1998 p4)

The above extracts show, then, that the programme which is the main activity of our unit is attempting to manage a multiplicity of goals within the two discourses of intellectual growth and professional relevance. One aspect of the programme which synthesises many of its aspirations and brings the two discourses firmly together is the programme's emphasis on development via research.

This emphasis exists in two main senses. Firstly, all course participants are required to investigate aspects of their professional situation via their course assignments, and to link their investigations to other work in the field. Then secondly, LSU staff members regularly research our practice in the programme and disseminate this research (Edge 1995; Mann 1996; Richards 1991, 1995).

The above context is particularly conducive to a project such as mine. The project is coherent with the central work of my department: the publication of articles relates both to the discourse of professional relevance and to the discourse of intellectual growth. The project is an opportunity to conduct research into the values and practices of my own disciplinary community. It is coherent with the wider value of "making teachers' knowledge public" (Altrichter et al 1993 chapter 8), a value to which the LSU subscribes. The project also provides a service to programme participants and graduates, which is coherent with their goals. It is to this aspect that I shall turn next.

2.3 The programme participants

Programme participants are teachers with at least three years experience, and often many more. Several of them hold positions of responsibility within their institutions. Many of them are self funded or have expended considerable energy in order to obtain institutional funding (LSU 1997a).

Discussions with actual and potential participants suggest that the twin discourses of professional relevance and intellectual growth have psychological reality for, and capture the imaginations of, many people. Participants talk about professional change that they may achieve via the course, be it promotion or a change in classroom practice. They talk about a desire to learn about our discipline both for the pleasure of doing so and in order to develop academically. And they talk about the hope that the learning and the practice will inform each other. They talk about their capacity to change their environment and themselves through their interaction with the programme.

In terms both of professional relevance and of intellectual growth, participants may experience the programme both as an end in itself and a means to different ends. My project addresses an end — article publication — which the programme itself does not explicitly address; it is therefore the latter aspect of participant experience vis a vis the course that I relate to in this project. I am seeking to tap into participants' aspirations to continue to pursue intellectual growth via the mastery of a new genre, and to continue to pursue professional growth as members of the article-writing élite of our community.

2.4 The programme assignments

As I explained above, the MSc programme itself does not explicitly address the activity of article writing. And yet, it does have a contribution to make to that goal: it helps participants to reach or consolidate a level of participation in our professional and academic discourses where article writing is a realistic possibility. One of the main vehicles through which the programme achieves this is the course assignment, and I would like to make three points regarding assignments that I think are particularly significant.

Firstly, all our programme assignments are research based. "This assessment method [the assignment] requires participants to write a coherent account in their own professional context. ... Assignment briefs give guidance as to the types of research that are appropriate and to appropriate perspectives through which it may be contextualised and evaluated". (LSU 1997a p6). The programme assignments, then, are an opportunity for participants to begin to learn both the research process and the issues involved in representing this as a written product.

The second point is that attention is explicitly drawn, in our study companion, to the relationships between assignments and articles:

"The most basic problem concerns the nature of the academic assignment as a distinct *genre*. Although much work has been done on the nature of academic papers, far less is available on assignments — the waters, in fact, are distinctly muddy. Since you have no examples on which to base your approach, this makes things somewhat awkward. Assignments are not academic papers, but the two have a number of features in common. They both present a particular case, they both reflect a knowledge and understanding of the issues in the area in which they focus, and they both reach conclusions which are based on evidence and argument. This is a *very* crude summary, but let us consider these points. [Goes on to devote a paragraph each to the three parallels mentioned]. (LSU 1998 pp 53-54).

Discussion like this means that participants are encouraged, right from the beginning of the course, to see their own written products in the context of the articles that they read, and to allow these to inform their writing where they can.

The third point concerns advice given to participants on the structure of their written products. In the LSU we do not prescribe any one correct organisation. We do, however, highlight the problem-solution pattern (Hoey 1983) as a useful possibility. The following assignment-specific description of the problem-solution pattern is taken from the study companion:

Situation	Brief description of the teaching context, participants, area of ELT
Problem/Purpose	In this situation, what exactly am I focusing on?
Response	How do/will I respond to this (problem)? What <i>procedures</i> based on what <i>principles</i> ?
Evaluation	When I tried this response out, what did I learn about it? If I haven't tried it out yet, what do I expect to learn when I do? How do I intend to evaluate the response?

(LSU 1998 pp54-55)

Some of our participants choose to use the problem-solution pattern in their writing, though others do not. Tutors sometimes refer to it when giving feedback on assignments. It has therefore become part of the meta-language available to our programme community for discussing academic writing. In the context of this project, it is a shared basis for analysing the macro-elements of TESOL texts.

The relationship between assignments and articles will be discussed in detail in chapters 4 and 5, where I will argue that a complex situation pertains. For the moment, I have attempted to show that our MSc programme assignments have certain similarities to published articles in terms of content, process and written product.

2.5 Concluding comments on chapter two

In this brief chapter I have sketched the setting in which my research project takes place. I have situated the research in the context of the work of my unit and have argued that the nature of the MSc programme supports the possibility of a project to assist participants and graduates to begin to write articles.

Chapter three

The ideational context

- 3.1 Introduction
- 3.2 Key characteristics of academic and professional discourse communities
 - 3.2.1 Discourse community membership as social identity
 - 3.2.2 Discourse communities as sites of conflict
 - 3.2.3 Perspectives on belonging
- 3.3 Key characteristics of academic genres
 - 3.3.1 Discourse communities and genres
 - 3.3.2 Consequences, causes and claims
- 3.4 Genre learning
 - 3.4.1 Difficulties in genre acquisition
 - 3.4.2 Models of enculturation
- 3.5 NS and NNS research: a meta-comment
- 3.6 Concluding comments on chapter three

3.1 Introduction

In this chapter I will look at the situation of the aspiring TESOL article writer through the prism of existing research into disciplinary writing and academic communities. I will conceptualise this situation in terms of writing in a new genre¹ and increasing one's participation in a discourse community. I choose the neutral connector "and" very deliberately at this stage; possible relationships between the two goals will be explored as this chapter develops, and also in chapter 5.

The discussion in this current chapter will also introduce the conceptual background to the descriptive model which I put forward in chapters 7 and 8 and the pedagogic interventions that I describe in chapter 9 with reference to appendix A, the self-access materials.

¹ A fuller discussion of the TESOL article as a genre will be offered in chapter 5.

3.2 Key characteristics of academic and professional discourse communities

3.2.1 Discourse community membership as social identity

It seems appropriate to begin this discussion of increased participation by considering what is by definition involved in belonging to a discourse community. The well known characterisation of a discourse community by Swales (1990) offers a starting point. Swales identifies six characteristics which he considers necessary and sufficient to define a group of people as a discourse community. The characteristics are: a broadly agreed set of common public goals; mechanisms of intercommunication among members; use of participatory mechanisms primarily to provide information and feedback; use and possession of one or more genres in the communicative furtherance of aims; possession of specific lexis; a threshold level of members with a suitable degree of relevant content and discorsal expertise. (Swales 1990 pp 25-27).

Swales' characterisation concentrates on the community, rather than the individual member. Considering his criteria from a member's point of view, it seems that their cumulative effect is to suggest a very deep notion of belonging. If an individual owns a set of goals, owns a place in a hierarchy, understands and uses specific lexis and genres and takes on particular mechanisms of communication, they become part of what Gee (1990) calls "ways of being in the world: saying (writing) -doing -being -valuing -believing combinations" (p142).

It is clear, then, that the idea of discourse community membership implies belonging in a *profound* sense, and it is also clear that actual memberships may vary in their nature and extent. The term *discourse community*, like the term *speech community* which inspired it, connotes overlapping communities, inclusive or partially inclusive relationships between communities, and multiple community memberships on the part of individuals (Swales 1993). For this reason I conceptualise the situation of aspiring TESOL article writers not in terms of belonging or not belonging to a given discourse community, but in terms of *increased participation*. In chapter 5 I will discuss in more detail the community memberships which aspiring TESOL article writers already have, and those which they seek to take on via article publication.

3.2.2 Discourse communities as sites of conflict

The term *discourse community* is often used, as I have used it above, in discussions of belonging and sharing. As such, it carries connotations of

conformity and convention. Yet it is also important to acknowledge the variety and conflict which actual discourse communities inevitably harbour.

Different discourses exist within any discourse community. For example in chapter 2 I discussed the co-existence of the discourse of professional relevance and the discourse of intellectual growth in at least two teacher education communities. For some members of some communities, the different discourses which exist there may be experienced as oppositional. Gee (1990) points out that often discourses may define themselves, and make sense to their users, in opposition to other discourses.

The existence of different discourses within a community is one cause and one effect of the variety, tension and conflict which are to be found there. Studies of and documents from particular communities (eg Bazerman 1988, Beretta (ed) 1993, Block 1996, Clarke 1994, Long 1993, Myers 1990, Van Lier 1994, Wallis (ed) 1979) indicate that tension and conflict may exist at all epistemological levels, from the technical to the paradigmatic. Rafter (1989, 1990) argues that the study of the language(s) of a discourse community and the ways in which these are used by different members and subgroups may throw light on the dynamics of the community, and onto the power struggles of its constant effort to redefine itself.

Both Gee (1990) and Rafter (1989, 1990) take something of a snapshot perspective, emphasising dynamic conflict over a particular period of time. Historical studies, such as Wallis' (1979) collection, show that conflicts do not necessarily remain dynamic and that certain epistemological beliefs, from the technical to the paradigmatic, may find themselves marginalised and eventually rejected by a community. Wallis' collection is concerned with the hard sciences and one of its major themes is that even in disciplines associated with the search for 'objective' truth, the rejection or acceptance of given ideas owes much to sociological factors.

For the individual seeking increased participation in a community, the awareness of that community as a site of conflict is essential because of what it implies about *positioning*. In order to participate at the level of creating some of the most prestigious products of the community — by writing articles — an individual needs to be aware of current conflicts in the community, to know where they themselves stand on these issues, and to be able to express their position in a way that the community finds acceptable. Particularly in chapter 9 I will discuss these ideas in more detail.

3.2.3 Perspectives on belonging

Swales (1990) argues that belonging to a discourse community is *intentional*, based on a decision to join and a decision to use the community's mechanisms of intercommunication to keep taking part. "... a discourse community recruits its members by persuasion, training or relevant qualification" (p24). Swales therefore places a certain emphasis on the power of the individual to claim their place in the community.

Other scholars have questioned whether an individual may in fact have such power. Gee (1990) argues that influential discourse communities such as academic and professional communities construct and institutionalise a range of roles for their 'members', not all of which are advantageous. He uses the term "colonised" individuals to refer to individuals who (are allowed to) possess the discourse of their community at a functional or procedural level only: "a person internalised by the discourse as a subordinate, whose very subordination is used as validation for the prestige and power of the discourse" (p155). Many scholars (eg Bazerman 1988, Myers 1990, Swales 1990) acknowledge a 'gatekeeping' dimension in the structures of academic discourse communities: but Gee's position is stronger, suggesting that the very identity of the discourse community is dependent on the existence of people who wish to belong but are not fully allowed to. Masny (1996) has used Gee's conceptual framework to explain some of the conflicts experienced by student teachers training in a minority language context.

In a project such as mine, which implies a certain faith in the ability of an individual to increase their participation and status in their community by their own efforts, the question must be asked to what extent Swales' intentional belonging can mitigate Gee's colonised roles.

Swales himself, of course, acknowledges that discourse communities normally include experts, novices, and gatekeepers, and he discusses the socialising nature of the discourse community. To what extent can the interested novice proceed smoothly towards expert status via the acquisition of increasing "relevant content and discursal expertise"? (Swales 1990 p27).

Mitchell (1994) and Kaufer and Geisler (1989) argue for the existence of significant qualitative differences, in attitudes and behaviours, between experts and novices in the educational communities they study. Their work does not suggest an automatic progression: the socialising practices of these

communities (ie taught courses) are presented as aimed at turning the novices into successful novices (ie good students) rather than into experts (ie lecturers).

In terms of increased participation, then, the significance of the discussion in this subsection is twofold. Firstly, the discussion suggests that an individual wishing to change their place in a discourse community needs first to examine the role they currently occupy and assess the multiplicity of factors which place them in this role. And secondly, that such an individual needs to ready themselves not only to increase their expertise, but also to take on a qualitative shift in role. These arguments lead to a more sophisticated understanding of the term *increased participation*: it refers not only to an increase in extent, but also to a qualitative change. These notions as they refer specifically to the aspiring TESOL article writer will be discussed in more detail in chapters 4 and 5.

3.3 Key characteristics of academic genres

3.3.1 Discourse communities and genres

It is now time to focus in on a particular characteristic of discourse communities, their possession and utilisation of genres in the communicative furtherance of their aims (Swales 1990 p26). Berkenkotter & Huckin (1993) claim that "genre conventions signal a discourse community's norms, epistemology, ideology and social ontology" (p497) and go on to argue that learning genre conventions and learning community epistemology and belief systems go hand in hand. The epistemology and sociology of a community shapes and is shaped by the formal products and symbols of the community, such as specific genres and lexis. In the case of academic communities it has been argued (eg Creme & Lea 1998, Turner 1996) that difficulties with formal products and surface features are the result of confusion about epistemology and sociology. Turner (1996) goes on to argue that teaching genre skills at a micro level via awareness raising tasks can be an effective way of making the value system behind these genre skills explicit.

The relevance of these claims for the notion of increased participation is clear. The claims rely, however, on a certain understanding of the term *genre*, and in this subsection I will explore aspects of that understanding.

Firstly, Berkenkotter & Huckin's (1993) claims rest on a concept of genre which gives primacy to communicative purpose as a defining characteristic. A well known formulation in this spirit is that of Swales (1990): "a genre comprises a

class of communicative events, the members of which share some set of communicative purposes" (p58). Swales himself cites in support of his formulation the work of Miller (1984) who also emphasises communicative purpose, arguing that "a rhetorically sound definition of genre must be centred not on the substance or form of the discourse, but the action it is used to accomplish" (p151) These ideas have since been taken up and extended by a number of scholars, for example Devitt (1993) who argues that it is communicative purpose, rather than any set of formal features, which allow us to continue to identify a genre through time.

Secondly, Berkenkotter & Huckin's claims rest on a situated concept of genre. Berkenkotter & Huckin describe genre ability as "situated cognition" and claim that "knowledge of genres is derived from and embedded in our participation in the communicative activities of our daily and professional lives" (p482). So learning about genre goes hand in hand with learning about one's community of practice in other ways.

Thirdly, the relationship between genres and community thought and practice needs to be seen as reflexive. Berkenkotter & Huckin (1993) argue that when discourse community members use their genres, they both make social structures and are made by them: "the use of rhetorical genres is *constitutive* of social practice ... and *generative* as situated, artful practice" (p495). Miller (1984) describes genres as both "a method of achieving our ends" and as structures informing us "what ends we may have". (p165). The interplay between genre, discourse community and discourse community members will be further considered in the next subsection.

3.3.2 Consequences, causes and claims

The points made in the previous subsection concerning the importance of a situated, purpose-driven and reflexive conceptualisation of genre are also supported by research into the interactions between particular genres and communities. One of the best known and fullest examples of such research is that of Bazerman (1988) who studies the published texts of a number of hard science discourse communities.

Bazerman argues that the genres of these communities are both consequences and causes of the way knowledge has developed in the disciplines concerned. For example, he traces the history of development of the scientific article (this cross-disciplinary term is appropriate to the period he studies) and suggests

that emerging standards for the conduct of experiments led to the emergence of standards for reporting them, and that in a simultaneous process the standards for reporting pushed experiments to be conceived and conducted in certain ways. Then using the example of the journal of the American Psychological Association throughout the twentieth century, he also shows how periods of strong epistemological consensus in a discipline are marked by generic stability. He suggests that writers during such periods are especially likely to choose established generic forms as this is one way of claiming that the research they are reporting has been conducted in the 'correct' way.

The previous sentence brings the individual writer to the forefront of the discussion, and indeed a focus on the goals and needs of the individual writer can further elucidate the relationship between genre, discourse community and discourse community members. Bazerman's (1988) discussion of the historical development of the scientific article shows how the increasing sophistication of this genre brought with it, and emerged from, new opportunities for status differentiation within the community. He argues that publication tended to bring more status to authors as the gatekeeping hurdles to publication increased, and vice versa. Publication in itself, then, became a symbol of elite community membership and a goal in itself for community members.

Myers (1990), also focusing on individual community members, suggests that academic articles should be seen as knowledge claims by their authors, put forward for acceptance by the discourse community of which they are a part. This suggestion receives support in the work of many other researchers into academic writing all of whom place certain emphases on the idea of the new claim.

Pennycook (1996) disputes the notions of authorial novelty, creativity and ownership of ideas which are central to the modern western concept of academic writing. In his article he critiques these notions in two ways. Firstly, using the tools of post-modern theory, he emphasises the determining power of discourses over authors. Secondly, he builds a critique by reference to the actual practices of academic writing, which he argues are intertextual and collaborative. But he also shows, very powerfully, how these disputed notions continue to influence the way that academic community members view academic writing; how the notions fuel our expectations of, and attitudes towards, texts and their authors.

Other scholars use notions of novelty creation to describe the nature and purpose of academic writing. Kaufer & Geisler (1989) see the underlying imperative shaping a successful piece of academic writing as that of "designing to be new" (p287). They emphasise that newness is not a property of an idea itself but of the relationship between idea and community. This conceptualisation allows them to explain certain key features of academic writing. For example, the use of references can be explained as a method of situating the author's novelty claim in the context of the shared knowledge of the discourse community and thereby making more reliable contact with the constructed audience (Kaufer & Geisler 1991).

Mitchell (1994) argues that academic writing is above all dialogic in nature, carrying within itself a sense of others spoken to or other possible positions. She argues that the writer must engage not only with a constructed audience but also with perceptions of intra-field and paradigmatic standards for knowledge claims and notions of validity. The writer's own position, or novelty claim, needs to arise from this multiple engagement and manipulation of positions.

If this argument is considered from the perspective of genre and discourse community discussed in the previous section, it is possible to see that different genres will privilege different approaches to the various imperatives discussed by Mitchell and Kaufer & Geisler, and will have their own twists on the notions of authorial novelty and ownership discussed by Pennycook.

Bazerman (1988) shows that the mechanisms available for expressing a relationship with the community and for staking one's own claim vary in terms of the generic conventions the writer is working in, and this in turn varies in terms of the epistemological state of the discipline at a particular moment in time. Both Bazerman (1988) and Myers (1990) show that the mechanisms also vary in terms of the ambition of the claim, which can range from adding details to an established epistemological framework to advocating change at paradigm level. Like Gilbert & Mulkey (1984) Bazerman and Myers both conclude that the study of texts produced by a community is an excellent window onto the sociology and epistemology of that community. A text "does reveal something about its discipline, not so much in the specific writing choices as in the context in which each of those moves make sense: not in the moves, but in the hints about the gameboard revealed by the moves". (Bazerman 1988 p47).

In this subsection, I have looked in a little more detail at the myriad of ways in which genre consensus, discourse community consensus, and the thought of individual community members all interact and shape each other.

It is possible to argue, then, that genres are the major mechanisms through which an individual may communicate with their community. The task of the writer is to use the elite genres of the discourse community to construct a dual identity: as someone who understands and values the work of the community, and as someone who is adding to and/or changing the knowledge of the community.

From the perspective of increased community participation, these arguments suggest a certain primacy for genre. Learning a genre, learning about it and learning to produce it, is a route to increased community participation. In the next section I will look more closely at what learning a new genre actually involves.

3.4 Genre learning

3.4.1 Difficulties in genre acquisition

In the previous section genre learning was acknowledged as one aspect of the goal of this project. Many researchers who have studied the process of acquisition of new genres — especially academic and professional genres — suggest that this process can be fraught with difficulties. Writing a disciplinary genre involves persuasion by reference to a set of socially valued norms: learning to write a new genre means learning new frameworks for this. Golder & Coirier (1994) argue that this discursal task is difficult, and is mastered comparatively late, even in our primary discourses; as we will see in this subsection, research also finds it to be challenging in a secondary discourse.

Scholars in the field of genre acquisition highlight difficulties in two main areas. The first area is that of communication about genre: how, and to what extent, is it possible for those already versed in the genre to communicate information about its nature and demands to those whose picture is as yet unclear? Then the second area is that of the holistic impact of genre learning on individuals. Arguing that successful genre learning is not purely technical, scholars in this area study the strong emotions that can be engaged by a process of genre learning and the effects these may have on the learning process.

Let us look at the second of these areas first. As was discussed above, genres are associated with particular epistemologies and sociologies. The significance of this for learning, of course, is that people attempting to engage with these for the first time already have epistemologies and sociologies, developed through a lifetime of experience and learning. For example Geertz (1983 chapter 4) discusses a "system of common sense", used by most of us in our everyday lives, where the basis of meaning is taken for granted and inconsistencies are not particularly the subject of analysis. He contrasts this with the epistemologies of the academic disciplines, which operate on systematic suspicion and analysis. He argues that both the thought processes and the possible conclusions of the two types of epistemology are radically different.

Many scholars working in this area argue that in these circumstances a second epistemological/ sociological system will be experienced by the novice as conflicting with the original one and therefore threatening to that person's sense of self. As Gee (1990) points out, a *primary discourse* — the term is akin to Geertz's "system of common sense" — is a key defining feature of the self and there is a strong urge to resist any challenge to it. Looking at the differential success of early years education for various social groups, Gee argues that it is those whose primary discourses are least different from various academic discourses who are likely to do best at school.

Mitchell (1994) studies the genre learning processes of undergraduate students, and she also argues that learning a disciplinary discourse and genres can be challenging to the learner's sense of self. Her interview data suggests that it takes a long time for students to feel a sense of ownership of the academic language they feel themselves required to use; and that until they get such a sense, they find the experience of working with academic genres alienating. Similar points are made by Creme & Lea 1998, Kaufer & Geisler 1991, McCormick 1990, Wertsch & Smolka 1993, and Womack 1993.

Most of the writers cited immediately above are discussing the situation of undergraduate students, and represent such students as completely new to university disciplinary discourses. The situation addressed in my own project is different, since participants have already engaged with the epistemology and sociology of the TESOL article genre as readers and users. The question to address here, then, is whether the shift to engagement as a *writer* is likely to present any of the same problems as engagement for the first time is alleged to do.

Research into the difficulties experienced by those writing other elite disciplinary genres for the first time suggests that there may indeed be analogies. Cadman (1997) looks at postgraduate students writing a thesis. These students are also people participating at an elite level in a community of practice and who have been used to reading and using various disciplinary genres for several years. Cadman's data suggests that the new 'level of participation' demanded by writing a thesis does indeed bring up similar emotional difficulties and challenges to the self as does trying to get into a discourse for the first time. Cadman sees the issue as one of identity, and portrays the students she worked with as struggling to forge an identity in the new genre while at the same time struggling to hold on to their existing identity.

Let us now look at the area of communication about genre: the extent to which the sociology and epistemology underlying a genre may be made transparent to those beginning to work with it.

In the formal education context, there is a move towards greater explicitness in the shape of eg criteria for good performance, in the hope that this will assist with engagement and understanding (see eg Brown, Race & Smith 1995). Yet some research suggests that this movement has not made as much difference as its proponents might have hoped. There seems to be a 'catch 22' situation where formulations such as criteria for good performance are of necessity based in the epistemology of the discourse and genre concerned. They may be very informative for those who are already comfortable with the epistemology, but less so for those who are just beginning to learn it. For example Mitchell (1994) looks at band descriptors for degree classes, and argues that they convey little information to people who do not *already* understand what is required and who are not familiar with numerous examples of texts which could correspond with each category.

For the TESOL article genre, attempts at transparency exist in the shape of guides for contributors in various journals, or short articles often by journal editors giving more detailed advice on how to contribute (eg McCabe 1995, Benson 1994). Does the problematic situation described above pertain here in any sense? Or does the familiarity of intending article writers with the genre as readers give them the insight they need? Again, research on other elite disciplinary genres suggests that the problem could still exist. Cadman's (1997) research into thesis writing discussed above cites her participants as being puzzled by criteria statements for disciplinary writing; although they can

recognise the desired characteristics in texts that they read, this does not help them to see how *they* are to do it. Then anecdotal evidence — discussions with experienced and novice article writers — suggests that a similar situation may exist for article writing. Experienced writers cite a combination of reading texts in their target journal, examining guides for contributors *and their previous experience of article writing* as helping them to see what is required in a new situation. Novice writers report undertaking the first two procedures but remaining unsure about what is actually needed.

In this subsection, then, I have looked at some of the alleged difficulties for newcomers to disciplinary discourses and genres, and have argued that certain of these difficulties may still pertain when a more experienced discourse community member wishes to increase their level of participation by becoming a writer of an *élite* genre.

As this thesis develops I will argue that what is needed to support the process of increasing one's participation through learning to write a new genre is a whole structure of enculturation. In the next subsection I will start to look at this issue by examining some of the models of disciplinary enculturation which are prevalent in higher education settings today.

3.4.2 Models of enculturation

In the previous subsection I referred to a current tendency for evaluators in formal education settings to try and make the criteria for good work in those settings more transparent. This seems to arise from a wider feeling that newcomers to academic discourses need help at a metacognitive and metadiscoursal level in coming to grips with them. This is in contrast with a 'traditional' view, that discoursal and genre awareness and skills would be learned unconsciously, under conditions of exposure. This notion of acquisition by osmosis, without the need for metacognitive and metadiscoursal awareness, is increasingly seen as discriminatory (Gee 1990, Allison 1996).

Three well known models of enculturation are the induction course, the adjunct course and the apprenticeship or mentoring model. They differ significantly in terms of the demands they make on resources. The first two allow for students to work in large groups, and the first one of these is short term. The apprenticeship/ mentoring model is clearly the most expensive, involving a one to one relationship for a sustained period of time. No doubt for this reason it tends to be reserved, in formal education settings, for the highest levels of

postgraduate education. In this subsection I will look briefly at the philosophies and assumptions behind each of the models in order to begin to set the frame for the approach which I have taken in this project.

An induction course is a brief event which takes place before the 'main' learning experience. Its educational value is based on the belief that disciplinary discourses and behaviour may be elucidated during this time frame in such a way as to benefit the learning experience which is to come. Mitchell (1994) observed induction courses in different institutions and subjects: she describes specific events designed to give students the chance to 'practise' behaviours appropriate for their new community, and the teachers' attempts to introduce metacognitive and metadiscoursal discussions of these events.

Adjunct courses differ from induction courses in that the support to the 'main' learning experience takes place alongside it and is linked to it in terms of subject matter, often on a week to week basis. The purpose of the adjunct course is to work with the main course to assist students to learn the disciplinary discourse. Such courses have usually been described in ESL settings (eg Hess & Ghawi 1997) and seem to be especially popular in Australian university settings. The model is described in Snow & Brinton 1988. The philosophy of the adjunct course is similar to that of the induction course in that both look explicitly at skills needed for the main course — they differ in that the adjunct course sees more value in doing this in tandem with the 'main' learning experience.

The apprenticeship model differs from both the above in its timing and resourcing, as discussed above, but also in the fact that there is no separate metacognitive and metadiscoursal emphasis. The same relationship aims to foster development in these areas and also in the areas of cognitive and discoursal development themselves. The apprenticeship model is similar to the two above in that primacy is given in academic development to the acquisition of appropriate discourse. Rudolph (1994) characterises apprenticeship relationships in higher education as relationships whose main goal is for the novice to "acquire from their advisors/ professors the discourse which will index their membership in the established research community" (p206). She suggests that this can happen via interactions in which both participants agree that the expert has the task of re-interpreting the novice's talk in the light of the target discourse.

Belcher (1994) also interprets the apprenticeship model as one where the student is aspiring to join a particular discourse community and the supervisor, as an experienced member of the community, is the guide for this process. She studies the relationships between three PhD students and supervisors, and argues that certain factors are of particular importance for the enculturation to be experienced as successful. She particularly cites the student's trust in the supervisor's awareness of the standards of the community of practice, and the supervisor's commitment to and confidence in the student's development as an independent researcher.

The use of the term *apprenticeship* here differs, clearly, from the use of that term in craft models (see eg Wallace 1991) where the apprentice may be seen as the recipient of an essentially static body of knowledge and skills. In the higher education context the term refers rather to a collaborative relationship in which the apprentice is expected to do their own creative work, and in which the mentor has the task of guiding the development of such work towards a product acceptable to the relevant community.

In this subsection I hope to have shown how various models of enculturation place emphasis on exposure to the standards of the community of practice and the metacognitive and metadiscoursal elucidation of these. I have discussed arguments to the effect that enculturation is most likely to be successful where all participants in the process share the same understanding of its goals.

My own framework for enculturation differs from all those discussed here, since it is based on a set of self-access materials intended for use at a distance. It is allied to the models discussed in that it too is based on metacognitive and metadiscoursal elucidation of the practice of the target community and relies on engagement with a particular goal. It will be discussed in detail in chapter 9.

3.5 NS and NNS research: a meta-comment

In this chapter I have cited work which concerns itself with both native speaker (NS) and non native speaker (NNS) writing. I have not distinguished between NS focused and NNS focused work in this chapter, nor do I distinguish between the groups in my own work as reported in this thesis. In this section I will briefly comment on the reasons for, and background to, these decisions.

The first issue to address is whether NS and NNS who are already participating at an advanced level in their chosen communities have qualitatively different

issues to face when learning to write a new genre. As one might expect, there is some variety of opinion on this subject.

Bloor & Bloor (1991) suggest that NNS may have had less general exposure to their chosen discourse community and that this may lead to difficulties in the acquisition of certain genre conventions. They give the example of plagiarism, attributing NNS difficulties in this area to an incomplete internalisation of the discourse community's preferred mechanisms for marking boundaries between one's own voice and the voices of others. Yet Womack (1993) argues that plagiarism is a problem for NS too and is inherent in academic genres, which place 'contradictory' demands on writers both to conform to expectations and to be original. For Womack, plagiarism happens when a student writer under stress "*literally* adopts the voice of another as her own" (p47).

Richards & Skelton (1991) looking at NS and NNS assignments written on a postgraduate TESOL course in the UK, find that NS perform better than NNS on a particular criterion, that of critical originality. However White (1998) discussing a similar course at a different UK university, denies the existence of a qualitative difference between NS and NNS writing. Dudley Evans (1991) looking at the writing of a NS PhD student, argues that she experienced the same kind of difficulties in learning to write the new genre as do NNS students.

There is at least some consensus, then, that NS and NNS already participating at an élite level in their community do not face qualitatively different issues when learning to write a new genre; so from that perspective at least, it is not necessary to differentiate between them. I will now go on to argue that differentiation, as well as being unnecessary, may in fact bring certain difficulties of its own.

In a number of higher education contexts in wealthy English-speaking countries NNS are offered language support to help them to cope with the demands of disciplinary study and in particular of disciplinary writing. As Charles (1996) points out, such language support is intended as a stepping stone to the 'target situation', ie a 'mainstream' learning situation. Yet recent research suggests that in some cases the match between the language support and the target situation may not be close enough to justify the characterisation of the support as a stepping stone.

Atkinson & Ramanathan (1995) compare a remedial and a mainstream writing programme at a US university. The remedial programme is targeted exclusively

at NNS and is intended to prepare students who 'fail' a placement test for the mainstream programme. Yet Atkinson & Ramanathan show that the two programmes are radically different, even to the extent that the remedial programme advocates an essay format which the mainstream programme heavily proscribes. Leki & Carson (1997) examine the relationship between writing on an EAP course and writing in a number of disciplinary courses in a particular university, and again find a number of qualitative differences.

There is some evidence, then, that additional difficulties are created where NNS novice writers are viewed differently from their NS colleagues. It seems to me that such differentiation constructs what might be termed a 'double novice' position for NNS, identifying them as learning how to be learner writers in their chosen disciplinary discourse.

It is doubtless the case that in some contexts, the advantages of differentiating between NS and NNS outweigh the disadvantages. I suggest that in the context of my own project, where both NS and NNS participants are already participating at a high level in the practice and the discourse of their community, differentiation would be unhelpful.

3.6 Concluding comments on chapter three

In this chapter I have used research into academic genres and academic discourse communities to elucidate the situation of the aspiring TESOL article writer in my setting. In the next two chapters I will look in detail at the specific goal of TESOL article publication and at the specific difficulties that MSc participants/ graduates may face in working towards that goal.

Chapter four

The pedagogic need

- 4.1 Introduction
- 4.2 The desire to publish
- 4.3 Assignments and articles
- 4.4 A case study
- 4.5 Advice on publication
- 4.6 Concluding comments on chapter four

4.1 Introduction

In this chapter I will look at my goal of assisting MSc participants and graduates to begin to publish articles from the perspective of pedagogic need. I will attempt to show that many participants and graduates wish to publish articles based on their course assignments, and examine some of the obstacles they may face in doing so.

4.2 The desire to publish

In March 1994 I prepared a questionnaire for MSc participants, asking whether they were interested in publishing articles in our field. The questionnaire was piloted with six in-house participants and then sent, with a covering letter based on the experience of piloting, to everyone who had started the MSc programme in 1992, 1993 and 1994; a total of 218 participants.

The questionnaire (which is reproduced in appendix B) is open-ended. It asks participants about their publishing aspirations and/or experience, about the extent to which the MSc course has helped them to feel ready to begin publishing, and then finally asks whether they would like to work towards an article in the context of this research project. The covering letter gave further details of the research project. (See also appendix B).

52 replies were received. Of these, seven expressed no interest in publishing an article; the other 45 expressed some degree of interest. As one might expect, the precise degree of interest varied: replies ranged from rather vague hopes to publish something one day, to concrete plans to develop particular course assignments into articles for submission to particular journals. A majority of respondents lay between these two extremes: they had a global idea of the kind

of article they would write (almost always based on an assignment) and the kind of journal they would target, but did not feel ready to start writing immediately.

The results of this questionnaire, then, show that almost 25% of those participants surveyed report themselves as aspiring to publish an article in our field. These results encouraged me to go on with the project, and have been confirmed to some extent as the project has developed and participants have been offered more concrete help towards the goal of publication.

Having established that article publication is in fact a goal for some MSc participants, let us now look at the difficulties they might face in attempting to achieve it.

4.3 Assignments and articles

As my questionnaire data shows, many MSc participants seeking to publish an article hope to base their text on one of their course assignments. I argued in chapter 2 that course assignments are in some senses a good preparation for article writing. This does not necessarily mean, however, that a text conceived as a course assignment is likely to be positively evaluated if submitted as an article.

Scholars who study the writing produced by students on academic courses have identified certain features which, they assert, make it unlikely that writing produced for such a context would transfer successfully to a different context. Many of the features they identify are true of writing produced on our MSc course.

For McCormick (1990) the most significant feature of writing in the academic course context is that it is done for the purposes of assessment. As Womack (1993) points out, writing usually takes place at the end of a course of study: it is the last formal opportunity for students to show their teachers what they have learned, and their success in this determines the grade they are awarded. For students, then, the overriding imperative is to *demonstrate* learning; and this, it has been argued, (eg Luey 1990, McCarthy 1995) pushes their written products into a shape which may not be appropriate for a published context.

In the following section, I will examine these contentions further with reference to a particular text.

4.4 A case study

In this section I will develop the argument that successful assignments do not necessarily make successful articles by studying a text originally written as an academic course assignment, submitted unchanged to a journal, and rejected. The submission and the reviewer's comments were passed to me, in confidence and for the purposes of this research only, by the reviewer.

The original identity of the text as a course assignment is beyond doubt: it was submitted to the journal in its original cover and only the author's name was removed from the copy sent to the reviewer. The assignment was not written for the Aston MSc, but it has many features in common with our course assignments: it is approximately the same length, and it too is research based and locally contextualised. I do not know what grade the assignment received, and the ethics of the situation preclude any enquiry. However I assume, given that the writer chose to submit it for publication unchanged, that the grade was high.

The reviewer's opening comment supports the assertions made in section 4.3 about the importance of audience and purpose in shaping a text:

"This is clearly an academic assignment which has not been rewritten with [Journal] in mind. As such, it makes no attempt to address the journal's audience, and any alignment of purpose is coincidental".

The reviewer's closing comment acknowledges the value of the research undertaken, while at the same time rejecting the text as an article:

"...this seems to have been a valuable exercise, but as an article on action research it has little to offer... There may well be very interesting things in this project, but an interesting paper on it will need to be clearly focused in terms of the process of research and the relevant issues raised, and presented so that evidence from the research is available to the reader"

I will now go on to look at particular sections of the submission, and examine the reviewer's comments on these, in order to examine in more detail where the problems arose.

The submission begins as follows:

"XXX school is a large private co-educational school in XXX. At present it comprises XXX primary and XXX secondary students. Students are mainly first language XXX speakers of XXX nationality."

Then the content of the following three paragraphs can be summarised as follows: The school curriculum is English medium, leading to UK examinations. The secondary department has expressed the concern that pupils graduating to it lack the English language skills to perform well in humanities subjects. As a result of this the primary department has decided to place more emphasis on language work. The final paragraph identifies the aim of the text as being to discuss the benefits of emphasising oral language skills and discuss the process of introducing the new approach.

The reviewer's comment is "Orientation is to the school. No attempt to set in wider context.". This comment suggests that the reviewer and the writer have different audiences in mind. McCarthy (1995) comments that the problem is a common one in submissions to journals by postgraduate students.

The submission also contains a lengthy literature review. This begins:

"The action research method

Bassey (1990) distinguishes three research paradigms: the positivist, the interpretative and action-research. He defined a research paradigm as:
[quotation]

Positivist and interpretative methodologies are both familiar research forms which seek to present quantitative or qualitative data which, it is claimed, can be generalised to other similar situations.

Action research is a very different method...".

Sixteen paragraphs follow, which : define action research; give the history of the term; present a model for the description of the elements of action research; claim benefits for action research; list some principles of action research. Most of the paragraphs include quotations and/or references.

The reviewer's comments on this section are:

"Section 3 illustrates many of the flaws in the assignment [sic]. It is far too general and makes no attempt to relate the general issues raised to the author's own action research. In fact, it is hard to see what purpose this section serves for a readership who might be expected to be familiar with the relevant background".

This comment again relates to the points made in section 4.3 about writing for assessment to an audience of teachers shaping the written product in such a way as to render it less effective in a different context. The very long literature review is clearly included as a demonstration of reading and learning.

A concluding section, entitled "Evaluating the method", begins as follows:

"Action research proved to be a wholly appropriate method for use in XXX school. It generated positive support and interest amongst colleagues contrary to Elliot's (1991) experience that [quotation]. It would have proved impossible to carry out the research alone, and involvement of other teachers lends more credibility to results".

Three paragraphs follow, each making particular claims regarding appropriacy.

The reviewer's comment refers less to the section in itself than to its relationship with the rest of the text:

"In section 6.1 we have the claim that this action research did generate positive support and interest among colleagues. How interesting it would have been to have seen this explored in the article".

This comment also ties in with points raised above about the purpose of the text being to demonstrate learning. In that context, the writer finds a claim of development to be sufficient; in the published context, the reviewer demands evidence.

In this section, then, I hope to have shown that a successful assignment does not necessarily make a successful article. I have suggested that the difficulties may be as much or more to do with the way the text is written as with the material on which it is based. The analytical model which I developed as part of this project would permit a deeper analysis of the nature of the difficulties; but I do not include an analysis of this particular text with this thesis because of the issues of confidentiality mentioned at the beginning of this section. However my analysis, together with the text itself, is available to examiners of this thesis should they wish to see it.

4.5 Advice on publication

There is a general acknowledgement, among those involved in research and publishing, that it is difficult to write and publish one's first articles. Evidence for this assertion comes in the shape of formal and institutional advice on the subject, such as books and workshops on how to publish. In this section I will

examine one such workshop and one such book, in order to assess the contribution offered by advice of this type and to differentiate the approach taken in my own project.

On 15 July 1997 I attended a workshop run by the Oxford Centre for Staff and Learning Development entitled "Getting yourself published". The workshop, targeted at university teachers and researchers with little experience of publication, was well attended with all participants being institutionally funded. This in itself demonstrates a consensus among aspiring article writers, their employers, and the course provider, that focused and formal assistance towards the goal of publication is legitimate.

The workshop looked at reasons for writing and writing processes; awareness of audience and outlets, and how to target one's submissions; journal editors' and book editors' likely criteria for acceptance of submissions; and the stages of a longer (eg book length) writing project. So the workshop itself was very wide ranging; its range was further widened by the fact that participants in it were drawn from very many different academic fields.

Many books on the subject of "Getting Published" have several characteristics in common with this workshop. A recent, highly regarded book is Day A 1996: *How to get research published in journals* Aldershot: Gower. This book covers many of the same areas as did the workshop. It also is aimed at a heterogeneous audience. It gives valuable advice to intending writers about how to research their target genres and about the importance of positioning their contribution in their community. Yet it cannot, of course, comment in detail on *particular* target genres, or on techniques for managing issues of positioning within them.

Both the workshop and the book discussed here are typical of their kind in that they are aimed at a very heterogeneous audience: heterogeneous in terms of disciplinary background, publishing aspirations and publishing experience. As such, the advice they can offer is at a certain level of generality — it is the responsibility of the reader to interpret this advice in the specific light of their own academic discipline and publishing goals.

The materials on writing for publication which I offer to aspiring TESOL article writers in the context of this project differ from the workshop and book discussed in this section because their audience is much more homogeneous on the three dimensions discussed. This unity of background and of purpose

allows me to develop a descriptive model which looks at the significance of textual features *within* a particular community; it allows me to base my materials around extracts of precisely the kind of texts my readers want to write, and to build up my arguments with relevant textual data as evidence. I am able to define a target genre much more narrowly, and am able to address its acquisition from the perspective of increased participation in a particular discourse community.

4.6 Concluding comments on chapter four

In this chapter I have examined the problem of the aspiring TESOL article writer from several perspectives. First, I attempted to confirm that the goal of publication from course assignments is a real one for Aston MSc participants. Then I looked at some of the reasons why their mastery of one genre — the course assignment — will not necessarily guarantee success in the published article genre. It was argued that a consensus exists that article publication is a specific skill with which novices, even those whose academic record qualifies them to teach and research at university, need help. Finally it was argued that formal and institutional help available in the form of workshops, books, conference presentations etc is necessarily of a very general kind.

On the basis of these points and the points made in previous chapters, I suggest that there is a need and a place for small scale, particularised, discipline- and genre-specific help with publication. In the next chapter I will examine this argument further, from the particular perspective of a deeper comparison between article and assignment genres.

Chapter five

Assignments and articles as genres: a deeper perspective on the difficulties of transition

- 5.1 Introduction
- 5.2 Deciding what constitutes a genre
- 5.3 Characteristics of each of the genres
 - 5.3.1 The article genre
 - 5.3.2 The assignment genre
- 5.4 Further perspectives on similarity and difference
 - 5.4.1 Text and composition
 - 5.4.2 How the genres construct their authors
 - 5.4.3 Reading practices
- 5.5 Back to increased participation
- 5.6 The processes of genre mastery and increasing participation
 - 5.6.1 The process of article writing
 - 5.6.2 The process of increasing participation
 - 5.6.3 Concluding comments on this section
- 5.7 Concluding comments on chapter five

5.1 Introduction

In chapter 3, I conceptualised the situation of the aspiring TESOL article writer as a situation of genre learning and increasing discourse community participation. I began to explore the importance of genres as sources of insight into the epistemology and sociology of the discourse communities with which they are associated, and as the means by which individual community members may communicate with, and position themselves in, the community as a whole. On the basis of this I began to suggest that learning to use elite genres is a route to and a means of increased discourse community participation.

I have also acknowledged that there may be difficulties associated with learning a new genre. I began to argue that mastery of a prestigious genre as a producer demands a qualitative shift in role, even for those who are already participating at an elite level in their community.

In chapter 4 I looked briefly at the relationship between articles and course assignments. I suggested that a text written to be an assignment would not

necessarily make a successful article, and I began to examine reasons for this. In this chapter, I will look in much more detail at the differences between articles and assignments and at the reasons why transitions from one to the other may not be smooth.

In previous chapters, I have made passing reference to the 'TESOL article genre' and to the 'assignment genre'. I am conscious of the fact that I have not yet justified the use of the term *genre* in this context; the justification will be undertaken in this chapter. Before embarking upon it, however, I should delineate the terms *TESOL article* and *assignment* a little more clearly. By TESOL article, I refer to the practically relevant report of research and/or research-in-practice that may be found in *ELT Journal* and similar journals. By assignment I refer to the report of research and/or research-in-practice written for assessment as part of a masters or similar level course.

In this chapter, I will discuss in detail the notion that assignments and articles can be conceptualised as two genres, and will put forward a position as to the salient characteristics of each genre and the relationships between them which will explain some of the difficulties of transition. As the thesis develops it will be seen that the position put forward here on the relationship between the assignment and article genres underpins the descriptive model of the article genre attempted in chapters 7 and 8, and the pedagogic instrument reproduced in Appendix A and described in chapter 9.

5.2 Deciding what constitutes a genre

There is no real consensus, among the variety of researchers who might consider themselves genre analysts, as to what are the appropriate criteria for deciding what constitutes a genre. Ventola (1989) notes this lack of agreement, and "criteria for identifying genres" was one of the main discussion questions at a BAAL Genre Analysis seminar which I attended in Sheffield in July 1995.

At the risk of oversimplification, I would suggest that two major currents can be detected at the moment: one which emphasises linguistic criteria, and one which emphasises social criteria. This suggestion is similar to Fredrickson's (1996) assertion that definitions of genre may be broadly divided into those which focus on form and those which concentrate on function. The suggestion also relates to Hyon's (1996) study of current genre scholarship. Hyon distinguishes three main currents which she labels ESP analyses, New Rhetoric studies and Australian genre theories. In her full study of the roots, contexts,

goals and instructional frameworks of these three tendencies, she acknowledges that all work with both social and linguistic perspectives. Yet she also sees a difference of emphasis, with ESP and New Rhetoric approaches concentrating more on social criteria for identifying genres, and Australian Hallidayan approaches concentrating more on linguistic criteria. As Freedman & Medway (1994) put the matter: "there is far greater emphasis by the Sydney School scholars on explicating textual features ... while North American work has focused on unpacking complex relations between text and context" (p9). I myself perceived an analogous difference of emphasis among the papers presented at the 1995 BAAL seminar.

The linguistic approach, then, emphasises the form and structure of the genre as a defining criterion. Some scholarship within this approach seeks to be generative: models are sought which would enable an analyst to *predict* the form of generic realisations. As Benwell (1995) argues, models aiming to be predictive tend to be staged, closed, and linear.

The social approach, which was privileged in the discussion of genre in chapter 3, places less emphasis on form as a defining criterion and more on the interplay of communicative purpose and situation. *Situation* in this sense, of course, refers not so much to external, material situations, but to contexts of writing constructed by writers and readers (Anson 1988, Devitt 1993). Devitt (p578) quotes Miller 1984 (p156): "Situations are social constructs that are the result, not of 'perception', but of 'definition'". The recurrence of situations, which gives rise to genres, is "an intersubjective phenomenon, a social occurrence".

Hunston (1995) suggests that a social definition of genres can be the precursor to analysing them linguistically. She draws the analogy with the study of dialects, saying that it is almost impossible to separate two dialects on linguistic grounds alone. But, once they have been separated socially, their similarities and differences can meaningfully be studied linguistically.

The social approach to genre emphasises the communicative purpose of the writer as a key defining feature of genre. (Swales 1990, Dudley Evans 1995). Working within this approach Dudley Evans (1995) argues that Swales' (1990 pp 45-54) list of five criteria for defining a genre are sufficient for us to identify

particular genres for research purposes¹. The goal of genre analysis, he contends, is not so much the classification of language into genres as the description and analysis of *particular* genres. Arguments about whether genres 'really' exist or are 'really' different from each other should not be allowed to prevent analysts from using working definitions to identify genres they wish to study.

Dudley Evans places particular emphasis on Swales' last criterion for defining genres, that of a discourse community's names for them. Many genre analysis studies adopt this criterion to arrive at a category for study: for example Benwell 1995 (University tutorial); Bouton 1995 (Letter of reference); Brett 1994 (Sociology article); Hyland 1991 (Argumentative essay); Mauranen 1993 (Economics article); Perez Gonzalez 1995 (Emergency telephone call); Turner 1996 (Fine arts tutorial); Thomas 1994 (Scientific article). Mauranen (1993) explicitly argues that discourse community names can be a good start to analysis because they can throw light on the social purpose of the genre. Freedman (1994) argues that an essential aspect of understanding a genre is knowing how it is perceived and used in its own community.

There is support for this approach from the wider discipline of sociolinguistics. For example Wierzbicka (1985) argues that what she calls "folk" labels for genres describe those genres -emically, from an insider's perspective. For Wierzbicka this is an important criterion: since genres are culture-specific, understanding can be lost if we attempt to define a genre in terms of vocabulary from a different culture. For many years sociolinguists writing in English (see eg Gumperz & Hymes (eds) 1972) have introduced unfamiliar terms into their analyses and explained at length what the genres seem to consist of, in order to avoid the pitfalls of 'translating' insider genre names into Anglo-Saxon culture. Provided the researchers and readers of the research understand them, terms from inside the community which owns the genres are the most accurate ones to use.

A pragmatic, social approach to genre definition arguably avoids the trap of "essentialism" as defined by Janicki (1989). As discussed in chapter 1, Janicki cautions against the assumption of a single, discoverable reality. Such an assumption, he argues, can lead researchers into unanswerable questions about

¹ A genre is a class of communicative events; The principal criterial feature that turns a collection of communicative events into a genre is some shared set of communicative purposes; Exemplars or instances of genres vary in their prototypicality; The rationale behind a genre establishes constraints on allowable contributions in terms of their content, positioning and form; A discourse community's nomenclature for genres is an important source of insight.

the *true* nature, or essence, of eg language varieties or genres. He suggests that researchers should attempt definitions which are useful and valid for particular research endeavours. Anson (1988) agrees that domains such as genres and discourse communities may be profitably delineated for the purposes of research, and like Janicki cautions against assuming that the lines drawn represent real demarcations in the world outside. This cautionary note seems less threatening to a social approach to defining genres, with its emphasis on psychological reality, than to a linguistic approach with its emphasis on *proving* genre distinctions in a bottom-up fashion.

In my research, TESOL articles and assignments are defined as genres on the basis of the social approach discussed above. I consider it most unlikely that they could be 'shown' to be separate genres using purely linguistic evidence. For example, a quick glance will show that there is considerable variation in the structure of individual realisations within the genres. There is also considerable structural overlap between the genre archetypes: any broad structural features which can confidently be identified as recurring, seem to apply to both (such as the existence of SPRE elements).

The fact that both assignments and articles are written monologue also justifies the decision to use the social approach for genre categorisation. In written monologue, there is no opportunity for participants in the communicative event to negotiate to change the character of that event, and so perhaps its genre, half way through.

5.3 Characteristics of each of the genres

In chapter 4 I looked briefly at the similarities and differences of these two genres. Here, I take up the theme again in considerably more detail. The purpose in this section is to move beyond an acknowledgement that differences exist, to a much fuller conceptualisation of their nature and the reasons for them.

Anson (1988) provides a useful distinction between *professional*, *curricular* and *developmental* writing in any given academic discipline. As his terms suggest, the distinctions posited rest on differences between acts of writing in terms of social purpose and context of creation/reception. His framework is useful to look at some of the differences in the assignment and article genres, in the context of the discourse community of TESOL professionals. The genres take place within the same discipline, and both represent elite participation in the

wider disciplinary community. There is considerable overlap of interests in terms of, for example, subjects discussed. The differences are in terms of social purpose. I will now use Anson's framework to explain what I mean by this.

5.3.1 The article genre

The TESOL article genre is a professional genre. Authors write these articles as part of their job or professional role and attempt to position themselves within a discourse community of peers.

The audience for this type of article is relatively heterogeneous, and this calls for sophisticated audience awareness on the part of writers. Myers (1989) investigating politeness in scientific articles, uses the constructs of the esoteric and exoteric audience. The term *exoteric audience* refers to the whole community of scientists who might read the article. The term *esoteric audience* refers to the much smaller group of readers who are specialists in the same field as the author of the article. Myers argues that writers' perceptions/constructions of each of these two audiences account for different features of scientific articles, with the esoteric audience exerting more influence.

This type of audience awareness is also significant in TESOL articles, although it is not clear that the esoteric audience would exert quite such a dominant influence. TESOL journals such as *ELT Journal* have the editorial policy of being accessible and relevant to teachers and researchers in widely differing circumstances and regardless of speciality. Although those who write within them need to take account of a specialist audience, they also need to address the discourse community as a whole. For example, the author of an article on sexism in ELT materials will need to address researchers with a special interest in feminist linguistics, but will also want the article to be accessible to all teachers and researchers. The model to be presented in chapters 7 and 8 uses the concepts of exoteric and esoteric audience to explain writers' presentation of ideas as either familiar or new.

5.3.2 The assignment genre

The assignment genre is both curricular and developmental. It is curricular because it is an assessment-oriented genre and because it is an integral part of a specific educational situation. It is developmental because one of its purposes is to create opportunities, for its authors, to learn more about the discipline they are writing in. Research on assignments in other contexts seems to confirm

these ideas: for example Casanave & Hubbard (1992) interviewed teachers of first year PhD students in the USA about the purposes of the writing assignments they set for their students. Responses indicated that the purpose was to encourage students to analyse, to synthesise, to communicate ideas clearly, or to develop students' thinking. (pp 40-41). Students, then, were asked via assignments to practice enabling skills in order to further their own development.

I suggested in chapter 4 that curricular and developmental genres privilege and foment their own ways of writing. For example, the expectations of assessment may discourage all but the strongest students from attempting to handle contradictions (McCormick 1990), and the chronological place of writing assignments — typically at the end of courses — can lead to a style in which writing is seen as closure (Womack 1993).

A curricular/developmental genre may sometimes appear to mimic a professional genre: for example, aspirants to or participants on an MSc TESOL course may be asked to write 'a book review'. But the similarities between the developmental and the professional versions of a book review are superficial. The curricular/ developmental nature of the assignment genre outweighs the formal similarity with any professional genre.

5.4 Further perspectives on similarity and difference

Paré and Smart (1994) propose the study of genre from four overlapping and complementary perspectives: regularities in textual features, regularities in social roles, regularities in composing processes, and regularities in reading practices. In this section I will use the perspectives they advocate to discuss the assignment and article genres.

5.4.1 Text and composition

In terms of textual features, the two genres are broadly similar. For example, the macro-structure of texts in both are understandable in terms of Hoey's (1983) SPRE pattern. Texts in both genres contain citations, quotations and examples. Texts in both genres are typically organised in terms of main and sub-headings and the titles of these may even be similar across texts in both genres. And yet, as I will explore in the following chapters, the rhetorical purpose of the textual features is *not* necessarily the same across the two genres.

A similar situation pertains with regard to composing processes. It is in fact difficult to make generalisations about the typical composing processes for assignments and articles. Paré and Smart were able to make comments on this dimension because they studied genres internal to a particular institution, which were always composed under particular conditions. But even without such detailed information, it is possible to make one or two comments.

A glance at the end product of the two genres will inform us that at least some composing processes must have been the same: for example, writers in both need to survey relevant literature. And yet, their purposes in doing this may be very different. Discussion up to this point might suggest — as a simplification — that an article writer surveys the literature to help them to make their new claim, whereas an assignment writer surveys it to ensure that their argument is acceptable. Similarities in composing processes, then, may not be a very relevant criterion for analysis if the reasons for the processes are different.

5.4.2 How the genres construct their authors

One of the most significant differences between the two genres relates to Paré and Smart's second dimension, regularities in social roles. Paré and Smart suggest that genres can 'impose' social roles on their authors. In the discussion of genre in Chapter 3, I suggested that the relationship between genre and discourse community can generally be seen as a symbiotic one, with each influencing and shaping the other. Each have significant power and when they push against each other a creative dialectic results.

Individual writers have less power over genre. I would not wish to argue that it is never possible for an individual to subvert or ignore genre conventions with success, and perhaps to change the genre as a result. But I would suggest that this is unusual, and that on some dimensions at least, genres have more power to construct individual authors than vice-versa.

I would like to suggest that the construction of the author is a key difference between the two genres under discussion. Assignments construct the author as a novice; articles construct the author as an expert. This author-construction comes about as a result of writing in the genre, and has nothing to do with the 'objective' status, or level of knowledge/ability, of the person writing.

The notion that the assignment genre constructs the student writer as a non-authority is addressed by eg Paltridge 1997, Stierer 1998, White 1998. Clark

(1992) reporting on a study skills course at Lancaster university with a Critical Language Awareness orientation, recounts the experience of a student who was penalised by his subject teacher for writing an essay using the pronoun "I" and making several references to his own view. The subject teacher told him not to do this because he was not (yet) an established authority. This attitude confirmed the view of the student (and that of other students on the study skills course) that within their disciplines they were treated very much as junior members of the discourse community; even though in contexts outside the university, they were experienced professionals and were treated as such.

Ivanic & Simpson (1992), in a discussion of the university student as writer, point out the lack of relative power of the author in the assignment genre. In most other genres, they contend, writers have more power than readers; not so in the assignment genre, where writers are given assignment briefs by tutors and then assessed by these same tutors. By the time they come to write an assignment, students have usually constructed a picture of the tutor's own views and preferences which, because of the institutional power relationship, can be particularly constraining. The combination of writing on demand and for assessment means that the assignment writer is positioned as someone who writes to display knowledge, rather than to contribute to it.

By considering the social role of the assignment, then, it is possible to see how and why it constructs its author as a novice. Then moving on to consider the social role of the article for a moment, it seems reasonable to assert that it too constructs its author, as an expert. An article has an informing, even a "teaching", function (Edge 1986). By its very existence, then, it assumes that it has something unique and valuable to say, and assumes the responsibility of communicating this to a heterogeneous audience. It may be read in very different circumstances from those in which it was written, and yet still be considered a source of solutions to problems.

Apart from its teaching function an article also serves to further the career of its author. It brings prestige by its mere existence, and even more so if it wins particular appreciation (Myers 1990). This is because it has successfully gone through a gatekeeping process. It changes the author's status, giving membership of the very small minority of the discourse community which writes the texts that everyone else reads.

5.4.3 Reading practices

This last sub-section relates to Paré and Smart's fourth dimension for genre analysis, regularities in reading practices. It points up another key difference between the assignment and article genres.

Articles are often read as a source of information and knowledge. Readers may see themselves as peers of the writer or as less knowledgeable/ experienced. But in either case one main reason for reading an article is to learn from it. Another main reason for reading an article is in order to write something oneself; whether another article or an assignment. In this case a purpose for reading is to help the reader-about-to-write to develop a position, which may be complementary or contrasting to the articles which they will go on to cite as sources. In both of these cases, the reader reads to help themselves, for their own development.

Assignments are usually read by teachers in order that they can evaluate the assignment writer and make suggestions to assist them. The reader is thus positioned as being more knowledgeable/ experienced than the writer. If there is disagreement between the two, this can lead to the writer being evaluated negatively. It is of course true that the reader of an assignment can learn from it, but this is not the usual motivation for reading. It is also true that assignments may be read by intending writers as if they were articles, and become citations in other texts — but again this is not typical. The usual purpose for reading an assignment is for the reader to assist in the *writer's* development.

5.5 Back to increased participation

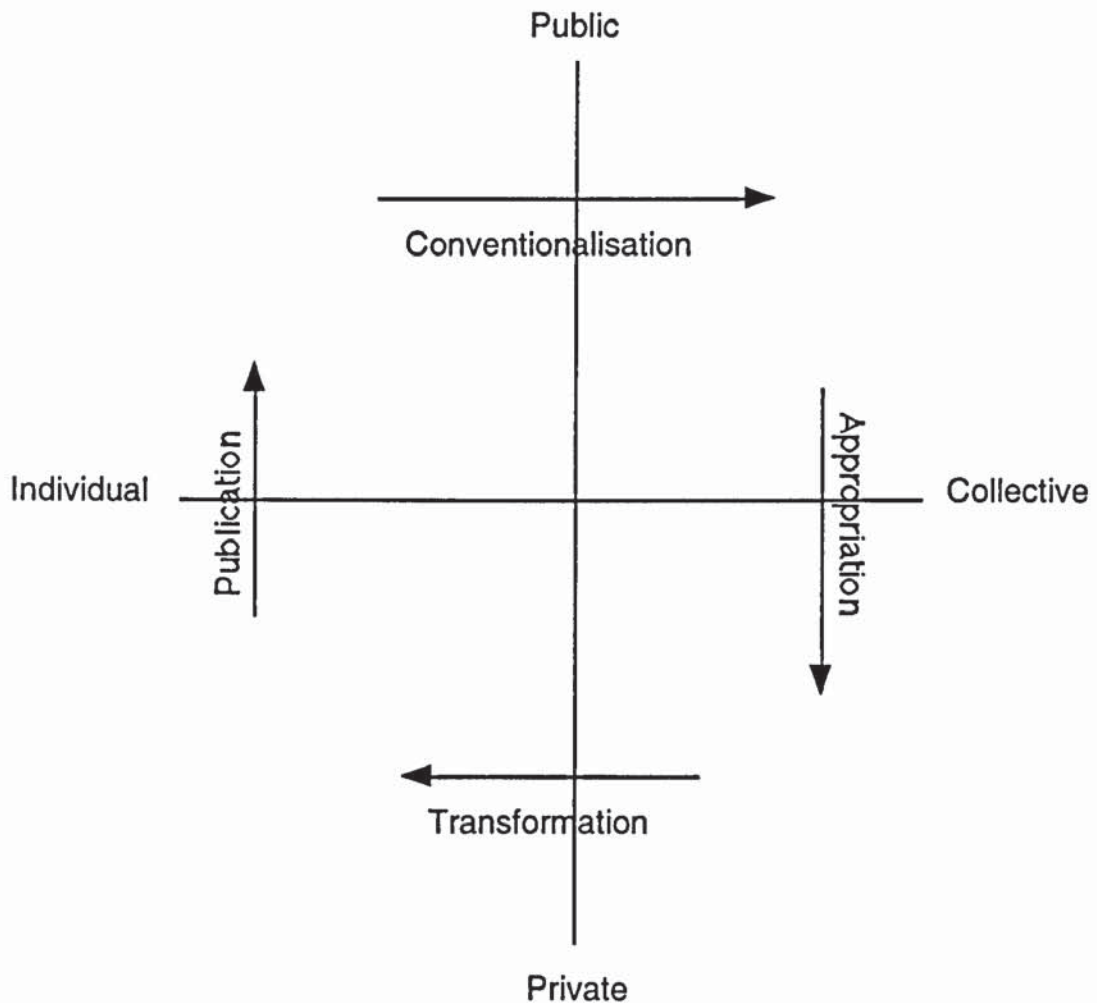
The conceptualisation of the article and assignment genres in this chapter represents a deeper understanding of the nature and potential difficulties of the move "from postgraduate student to published writer". The creative processes, content, structure and various linguistic features associated with the two genres may be broadly similar; the social purpose and social consequences are different. The assignment genre constructs its author as a novice, the article genre constructs its author as an expert.

For a successful assignment writer to become a successful article writer, they must take on a qualitative shift in role which brings with it increased participation in the community in terms of repertoire, dissemination, status and

collegial responsibility. Genre learning and mastery is thus a route to and a means of increased participation.

5.6 The processes of genre mastery and increasing participation

In this section, I will discuss the assertion that genre mastery is a route to and means of increased participation from the perspective of developmental processes. The discussion will be formulated with reference to the following diagram:



Based on Harré R 1983: *Personal Being* Oxford Blackwell

Fig 1: A representation of developmental processes

The diagram is a summary of a representation of psychological space and of a cycle of human development put forward by Harré (1983 ch10). Harré himself uses four diagrams; the diagram above is my own attempt, based partly on Mitchell's (1994) diagram of Harré's model, to represent all of them together.

Harré suggests that psychological space can be represented by two intersecting dimensions, which give four quadrants; he then looks at the transitions available from one quadrant to another. The transitions are seen as sequential, with "appropriation" being the first move.

Harré's model may be used to illustrate both the process of increasing participation in an academic community and the process of writing in one of its prestige genres. Its applicability to both is then a perspective on how the first process can be achieved via the second. So let us now use Harré's ideas to describe the two processes and elucidate a key link between them.

5.6.1 The process of article writing

Appropriation involves familiarising oneself with, and drawing upon, other work in the area in which one intends to write. Appropriation is an ongoing part of the writer's life as a discourse community member; and the term may also refer to specific academic work in the preparation of a particular text.

Transformation involves the development of a personal perspective on, and personal insights into, the public knowledge that has been appropriated. Via the processes of transformation, the writer arrives at their new contribution. The same processes allow the article writer to select the public knowledge to be represented in their article and to position themselves and their own contribution in relation to it. Possession of authority to transform public knowledge is an aspect of the "expert" persona which the article genre constructs for its author. (It might be argued that the very long literature review seen in the assignment submitted as an article (chapter 4 section 4.4) is an example of insufficient transformation for the text to be successful in the target genre.)

Publication happens when the transformations of the writer are brought into the public arena to be assessed by public criteria. A final product is achieved, which has independent existence in the world and so is one kind of end to the creative process: "the research act is not really finished until our studies are completed and accessible to others" (Wolcott 1990 p86). In the article genre, publication is only achievable by passing through a gatekeeping process and so the process grants status both to the author and to their ideas.

In the article genre, conventionalisation is necessarily linked to publication. Conventionalisation happens when the textual realisation of the writer's transformation processes becomes part of the public knowledge of the discourse community. It gains official status as a source on which others can draw in their own processes of appropriation.

5.6.2 The process of increasing participation

It is also possible to interpret Harré's cycle as illustrative of the learning processes that are associated with increasing participation in an academic discourse community. As discussed in chapter 3, there is a general consensus that genre mastery and high level community participation go hand in hand; but in this thesis I wish to make a stronger claim, that in the context in which I write genre mastery can *lead to* increased participation. As I use Harré's model in this subsection to describe the process of increasing participation, it will be seen that there are a number of parallels with the process of writing described above.

For the complete newcomer, appropriation represents the first encounters with the epistemology of the community. It involves learning about the work of others in order to know what experienced members of the community 'are talking about'. Familiarity with community knowledge is the first step to identity as a community member. Then for the more experienced community member, appropriation is the constant process of increasing one's familiarity with the canon, gaining a sense of the development of the community's knowledge base through time.

Transformation involves starting to develop a critical perspective on some of the public knowledge and alongside this, developing one's own ideas. The research of Mitchell (1994) suggests that some complete newcomers (ie undergraduate students) find the move from appropriation to transformation very difficult — they express the feeling that a certain quantity of public knowledge must be assimilated before any transformation, even in thought, is legitimate. Whereas for experienced community members, there is a constant movement between appropriation and transformation which brings with it increased participation: as learning about the work of others feeds the creative processes of the individual, and the individual's advances inspire them to keep using the public fund of knowledge.

Publication involves expressing one's transformation processes in one of the genres of the community. The genre used will depend on the position of the individual in the community; for example, it could be an assignment or an article. Production in any community genre brings increased participation in the community. The increase, in the qualitative as well as quantitative sense that I am using the term, is particularly significant when an individual starts producing in a particular genre for the first time.

Conventionalisation, from the perspective of increased participation, refers to the attitude of the individual member towards the public knowledge of the community once they have taken their transformation processes as far as the creation of a product in one of the community's genres. An individual who has done this brings an increased self to the next encounter with the disciplinary consensus. They are thus in a better position to go round the cycle again; to learn and grow, and to further increase their participation in their community.

5.6.3 Concluding comments on this section

Harré's cycle as represented in my diagram appears both unidirectional and sequential, and this is of course an oversimplification. I have suggested above that different stages of the cycle can interact while still producing an overall clockwise movement. It is also necessary to consider that the perception of sequentiality can lead to 'backwash effects' so that for example the process of transformation will be influenced by the expectation of publication.

As I hope to have shown in this section, the cycle can be used to interpret the process of article writing and the process of increased participation. The parallels between the processes, then, further support the contention that the first can be a route to and a means of the second.

5.7 Concluding comments on chapter five

In this chapter I have looked at the nature of the difference between assignments, as representative of where project participants are now, and articles, as representative of where they want to be. I have more fully conceptualised the process of genre mastery as a route to and means of increased participation.

These conceptualisations are the basis for the descriptive and pedagogic 'action' of this project. They underpin a descriptive model of the article genre

(chapters 7 and 8) and a pedagogic realisation of that model in the form of materials (chapter 9 and appendix A).

Chapter six

Rationale for the analytical approach

- 6.1 Introduction
- 6.2 The need to go beyond structure
- 6.3 Using goals to explain discourse
- 6.4 The concept of illocutionary force in a genre analytical model
- 6.5 A brief preview of the types of illocutionary force present in the model
- 6.6 Illocution and perlocution in a genre analytical model
- 6.7 Concluding comments on chapter six

6.1 Introduction

In this chapter I will discuss the approach to analysis which supports the model to be presented in chapters 7 and 8. The purpose of this chapter is twofold. Firstly, it seeks to justify and explain the approach to analysis with reference to existing work in the field of genre analysis and the broader field of discourse analysis. Secondly, it begins to put forward a position on one aspect of current debates, ie on how the notion of *intention* may most usefully be addressed in an analytical model. This position on intention fundamentally underpins the model which will be discussed in chapters 7 and 8.

I will begin, then, by explaining and justifying some of the characteristics of the model.

6.2 The need to go beyond structure

A significant amount of work in the field of genre analysis concentrates on identifying the structural moves that make up particular genres or part-genres. (eg Bittencourt dos Santos 1996 on research paper abstracts; Holmes 1997 on the discussion sections of Social Science research papers; Kaplan et al 1994 on conference abstracts; Nwogu 1997 on medical research papers) This approach is successful in many ways: analytically it helps us to perceive typicalities and patterns in texts of certain types, and pedagogically it can be a source of well-researched guidelines for student writers. ESP writing textbooks have been produced on the basis of structural genre analysis (eg Weissberg & Buker 1990).

However, there is an increasing feeling that structural move analysis is limited. Dudley Evans (1995) in a paper subtitled "Is there life beyond moves?" argues

that the limitation lies in the fact that, especially for long and sophisticated texts, moves do not usually occur in a set order, and the range of moves is itself difficult to predict. As an alternative to structural move analysis, he considers textual studies which are more sociological in orientation, such as Bazerman 1988 or Myers 1990. He argues that genre analysts need to look at texts from a rhetorical, as well as a structural, perspective, combining the rigour of text linguistics with the imagination of rhetorical and sociological studies.

Reynolds (1995) also points out that much genre analysis to date has been carried out using structural units of analysis. Like Dudley Evans, he sees such an approach as limiting: he argues that structural units function well at the detailed level (eg Sinclair and Coulthard's (1975) *act* and *move*), but less well at the macro level. There, structural units are much harder to characterise and define (eg Sinclair & Coulthard's *transaction*). Reynolds advocates modes of analysis which relate to the functions of language, of texts and of parts of texts.

Kay (1995) argues that a focus on structure makes it difficult for genre analysts to see the role played in various genres by ideology. She argues that a more critical approach to genre analysis is needed, to understand how certain genres come to be privileged and how they may play a role in social discrimination. She identifies with the critical linguistic perspective of Freedman and Medway (1994) and with the Australian Hallidayan school of genre analysis, whose work she cites as having a well-explicated ideological stance. Swales (1993) observes that genre workers in Australia and elsewhere see genre learning as a tool of emancipation and empowerment. I will argue in chapters 7 and 9 that the kind of genre model employed is one of the factors which affects the extent to which genre learning can facilitate empowerment.

The model which I will present in chapters 7 and 8 attempts to go beyond structural moves by including within itself the notion of genre purpose and writer purpose. It departs from a consensus regarding typical macro-structures of texts within the target genre; its own role is to elucidate the functions of various elements of the macro-structure and the more subtle pragmatic implications of different ways of realising these elements. It takes a synchronic perspective on the influences shaping a particular text, and explains these with reference to the interplay between writer goals, genre goals, and the constructed audience.

The notion of goal and its place in text analysis will be discussed in the next section.

6.3 Using goals to explain discourse

A number of discourse analysts have argued that it is essential to include the concept of writer purpose in models of discourse analysis. Hopkins and Dudley Evans (1988) argue that genre analysis models should be sensitive to writers' communicative intentions as well as to the standards and values of the relevant discourse community. Van Eemeren (1986), introducing a model for the description of argumentative discussion, states "In order to comment constructively on a sample of discourse one has to know the purpose of the verbal utterances comprising this discourse and to what extent the verbal behaviour is adequate in view of this purpose. Verbal acting is a form of goal-directed behaviour and has to be treated accordingly" (p1).

Many move-type genre analytical studies make use of the concept of purpose or intention when assigning names to moves. Dudley Evans (1995) argues that the development of Swales' CARS model, from four moves to three: establishing a territory, establishing a niche and occupying the niche; shows a heightened awareness of the social purposes of the academic writer. The three moves are expressed in goal or purpose terminology. Thomas (1994) similarly interprets Swales' move model as using writer purpose to categorise sections of text. McKinley (1983 quoted in Dudley Evans 1986) defines the move as "a semantic unit related to the writer's purpose" (Dudley Evans p131).

Genre analysis studies carried out under the Hallidayan framework are also sensitive to the importance of writer purpose and social role. Davies (1993) describes the genre of the school textbook. She analyses its language from interpersonal, ideational and textual perspectives: she concludes with the argument that it is choices within the interpersonal function, which of course includes writer purpose, which are likely to determine choices within the other two functions.

And yet despite the frequency with which the construct of writer purpose arises in models of discourse analysis, its use is far from unproblematic. Communicative action is assumed to have a strategic and goal-oriented dimension, and yet the actual links between goals and discourse are not simple or transparent (Tracy 1991). As Tracy points out, any communicative situation is bound to involve complex and multiple goals, and a model cannot account for all the possibilities.

Tracy's comments imply a criticism of models which posit a relatively small set of goals as affecting communication. My own model could be seen as restrictive in this sense, but as is explained in this chapter and chapters 7 and 8 I do not claim that the goals and intentions which I discuss are the *only* purposes affecting realisations within the genre under study. Rather, I hope to show that they are purposes whose effect is particularly strong, systematic and observable. I also hope to show that they are purposes which it is pedagogically *useful* to perspectivise.

As will be seen in chapter 7, my model is based on the argument that a genre has goals of its own. This is a notion which differs, clearly, from the attribution of goals to people in the discourse analysis models mentioned above. So I will now take some time to discuss, in conceptual terms, the idea of a genre having goals of its own. Then this general idea will be further developed in sections 7.3 and 7.4 of chapter 7.

Let us return for a moment to the suggestion that it is difficult to use (individual human) goals to explain discourse, because the links between the two phenomena are not clear to see. Bavelas (1991) argues that this is because the two concepts belong to different levels of reality. *Discourse* — Bavelas uses the term as synonymous with 'instances of language use' — is observable behaviour, whereas *goal* is a hypothetical construct. The connection between them — the idea that goals influence instances of language use — is intuitively extremely plausible but it is not observable.

Shepherd & Rothenbuhler (1991) suggest that it is challenging to link (human) goals and discourse in the same theory because the two concepts belong to different paradigms of explanation. *Goal* refers to individualistic, intention-type explanations of action. *Discourse* — they use the term far more synonymously with *genre* — is a term more associated with collectivistic, social structure type explanations, not linked to individual goals.

These, then, are some of the challenges which face theories which explain discourse, in either sense, in terms of individual human goals. In the rest of this section I will argue that it is in attempting to resolve these apparent contradictions that it becomes possible to find an intermediate position from which it can be argued that genres, as well as individuals, can have goals.

Bavelas (1991) is referring to observable language behaviour. Genre, of course, is not observable behaviour: it is a hypothetical construct, an abstraction above

any actual text (Swales 1993). So there would seem to be no a priori objection to explaining it in terms of another hypothetical construct, that of goal; especially if there is then apparent support, in a large enough number of actual texts, for the existence of the posited goals. The use of goals to explain genre is not the same thing as the use of goals to directly explain observed language.

Shepherd & Rothenbuhler, who point out the difficulties of linking goals and discourse in the same theory, go on to argue that the difficulty arises principally through the coalescence of individual-intentional and social explanations of language onto a single dimension, of which they would necessarily be opposing poles. Other scholars treat social structuring and individual intention as qualitatively different factors, both of which influence realisations within genres and genres themselves. Giddens (1979 quoted in Swales 1993) argues that there is necessary interplay between the two dimensions: "Human agency constitutes social structure, while social structure is the medium of human agency" (Swales p692). Miller (1994) similarly refers to Giddens (1984) as she searches for an explanation of the relationship between the actions of individuals, and the structuring influence of social phenomena such as genres. Both Swales and Miller seem to propose that genre be seen as "a mid-level structural nexus between mind and society" (Miller p71). Shepherd & Rothenbuhler themselves arrive at a very similar position by the end of their article.

On the basis of the work of those scholars referred to above, it is possible to see the usefulness of regarding social structuring and human agency as implicated in each other and of regarding realisations within genres as influenced by both dimensions. But to build a model of an actual genre which takes account of both determining factors, one still needs a systematic way of relating them. The task, as Shepherd & Rothenbuhler observe, is to reconcile the relatively predictable nature of discourse/genre with the relative unpredictability of human goals. They argue that this could be brought about if we recognised that goals in fact *can* be predictable: we can think of goals as also residing in a situation. Situations may have "natural goal configurations" (p194). The idea that a given identification of situation can lead to a particular genre is well established. But as Devitt (1993) argues, the opposite is also true: "by... beginning to write within a genre, the writer has selected *the situation entailed in that genre*" (Devitt 1993 p578, my italics). If we accept these ideas, then it becomes clearer how discourse/ genre can be explained in terms of goals.

As a prerequisite to understanding the model in chapters 7 and 8 then, I wish to argue that the TESOL article genre has natural goal configurations: it has goals which are "trans-individually patterned" (Shepherd & Rothenbuhler 1991 p194). Individuals writing within the genre may also have personal goals and intentions, but it is not these themselves which explain the genre: "the goals of individuals cannot explain trans-individual patterns unless they themselves are trans-individually patterned" (1991 p194). In other words, when an individual chooses to use a genre, they find themselves obliged to work out their own goals via the inherent goals of the genre. They cannot ignore these goals, because their readers will be consciously or subconsciously aware of them and will interpret any given textual realisation in the light of them. Experienced writers are conscious of genre goals and write accordingly.

In sections 7.3 and 7.4 of chapter 7 I will discuss the natural goal configuration of the TESOL article genre and its interaction with individual writer goals. To do this I will begin to make use of the concept and terminology of illocutionary force, which is a main tool of my model. In the following section of chapter 6 I will discuss the value of this well-established concept for linguistic description.

6.4 The concept of illocutionary force in a genre analytical model

The concept of illocutionary force (Austin 1975) is clearly central for an analysis that seeks to take account of purposes and goals, and of the functions of utterances and sections of text. When Austin first developed the concept in the 1950s he was arguing against the idea that the function of an utterance was derivable from its linguistic form. He also showed that the propositional content of utterances had only a partial role to play in explaining their meaning: other aspects of meaning were better explainable in terms of the speaker's purpose in making the utterance.

The concept of illocutionary force, then, refers to speakers' intentions towards, and positions in relation to, other participants in speech events or genres, and it has been argued that the concept may help explain the genres themselves. Freedman (1994) supports the idea that genre analytical models can be developed from the speech act framework. Brennenstuhl (1988) argues that models which elucidate the patterns with which speech acts combine can help us to understand the structure of long stretches of discourse. Connor (1987) argues that an illocutionary perspective on the analysis of written genres allows us to go beyond a focus on structure, on those elements that make up a text, and towards an explanation of why such elements are there. It allows us to

understand writing as an attempt to realise intentions. Bazerman (1994) argues that a speech act focus gives a new dimension on generic rhetoric and is a successful tool for describing genres in terms of their social purpose. The concept of illocutionary force, then, can help to illuminate the relationship of language and the social world as realised in a genre.

Various scholars have attempted to arrive at a classification of illocutionary functions which could be used as a basis for analysis. Austin (1975) and Searle (1969) can be interpreted as attempting to arrive at taxonomies of all possible illocutionary functions. Leech (1983) claims that standard speech-act theory has concerned itself to a great extent with the classification of illocutionary acts or functions. He sees this attempt as misguided, criticising both Austin and Searle for falling foul of what he calls "the illocutionary verb fallacy", which is the assumption that there is a clear one to one correspondence between the names of illocutionary verbs, and actual illocutionary acts. He argues that it is not possible to get to an analysis of illocutionary force via an analysis of illocutionary verbs: "Illocutionary force, because of its indeterminacy and scalar variability, is more subtle than can easily be accommodated by our everyday vocabulary of speech act verbs" (p175). Very similar points are made by Ninio (1986).

Leech's and Ninio's criticisms are pertinent to any model which attempts analysis of purpose and intention using illocutionary verb terms. They remind us of the gap which would necessarily exist between the illocutionary label placed on any utterance, and the 'real' illocutionary force of that utterance. And yet, the use of illocutionary terminology to analyse discourse can still be justified. A description of illocutionary force using everyday illocutionary terms is intuitively comprehensible, unlike the system of deriving it from logical formulae that Leech himself proposes. Illocutionary phrases have psychological reality: as I will argue in section 8.5.4 of chapter 8, on the subject of metatext, writers can use illocutionary phrases to orient readers to the purposes of their texts. Leech himself agrees that illocutionary verbs are a legitimate part of the metalanguage for talking about illocutionary force, and I would argue that such metalanguage can safely be used in models as long as it is recognised that the terms are chosen because of their usefulness, not their 'truth'. This lack of isomorphism between acts and verbs also explains why it will at times be necessary to resort to phrases, not individual verbs, in an attempt to describe a particular illocutionary force.

Various studies of particular speech events, speech situations or genres have used frameworks for analysis based on the concept of illocutionary force. Labov & Fanshel (1977) develop a speech act model to describe and explain the language of a psychotherapy session. D'Andrade & Wish (1985) present an illocutionary framework to code the utterances of natural conversation, in particular the way speakers relate to each other. Dore (1977) proposes a coding system for children's illocutionary acts. Connor (1987) uses an illocutionary force model to explain rhetorical patterns in argumentative essays written by adolescents. Myers (1992 b) argues that Biology research articles may be seen as speech acts, with sentences marking the main knowledge claim functioning as explicit performatives. Turner & Hiraga (1994) study the Fine Art tutorial and suggest that only by understanding the overall communicative purpose of the genre can we analyse the illocutionary force of utterances within it. Bazerman (1994) analyses the genres of the patent application and patent grant in terms of their overall illocutionary forces, and goes on to show how different sections of the texts support the overall illocutionary forces.

The models mentioned above differ greatly in terms of the illocutionary forces which they identify and the relationships which they posit between those forces. They also differ from any of the more global taxonomies of illocutionary force. This is not surprising given that the models were developed to explain very different speech events or genres. Realisations in a particular genre may in theory contain any of a huge number of illocutionary forces — but from the analyst's perspective, some of these will be more relevant, and therefore more salient, than others. Illocutionary models for particular genres list not *all* the illocutionary forces typically found within such genres, but the most relevant ones. More will be said on how the analyst decides what constitutes relevance below.

The model in chapters 7 and 8 identifies certain illocutions which are present in the TESOL article genre and relevant for our understanding of it. Its scope is therefore limited. As was explained in section 6.3 above, it is not intended to show all the purposes affecting realisations within the genre, but rather those purposes whose effect is particularly strong, systematic and observable.

The model does not primarily concern itself with the illocutionary forces of individual utterances. Rather, it attempts to capture the broad illocutionary forces of whole texts and sections of texts. This would seem to be close to what Ninio (1986) terms "illocutionary point": speaker's overall purpose, which "cuts across irrelevant distinctions which exist between illocutionary forces" (p145).

In spoken, dialogic texts, understanding illocutionary force enables us to understand individual utterances. But I will argue in chapters 7 and 8 that illocutionary point is explanatory for our understanding of long, written texts: it affects our understanding of why a piece has the structure it does, where the main message can be found, what the roles of 'supporting' sections are.

Bazerman (1994) discusses in some detail the issues that arise when long, complex written documents are considered as speech acts. He recognises that speech act theory was originally developed with reference to short utterances and that, on this level of analysis, a whole written text contains an enormous number of speech acts. However, he goes on to argue that "if the text is distinctly identifiable as a single genre, it can gain a unified force, for it is now labelled as of a single kind, instantiating a recognisable social action" (p89). And, further, that "the various smaller speech acts within the larger document contribute to the macro speech act of the text, and each of the sections must carry its weight" (p89). The model to be presented in chapters 7 and 8 relates very closely to this position.

6.5 A brief preview of the types of illocutionary force present in the model

The illocutionary forces which the model of chapters 7 and 8 identifies as being present in the genre under study are those which express the relationships of: the writer to other discourse community members; a text to other texts in its discourse community(ies); a text and its genre; and the functions of sections of a text in relation to other sections. These illocutionary forces would seem to fit broadly under Austin's (1975) fifth category of illocutionary function, "expositives". Illocutions in this category, according to Austin, are present when we expound views or conduct arguments — they have reference to the communicative situation. "They make plain how our utterances fit into the course of an argument or conversation, how we are using the words or, in general, are expository. Examples are 'I reply' 'I argue' 'I concede' 'I illustrate' 'I assume' 'I postulate'". (p152). This category of expositives seems to have particular reality for analysts. D'Andrade & Wish (1985), who compare a number of analytical frameworks based on illocutionary force, observe that a category like this appears in nearly all of them. This is despite the major differences in the types of data the models were designed to fit.

Illocutionary forces in the model of chapters 7 and 8 are expressed in terms of their relationship to the overarching illocutionary goal of the genre under study. This is what constitutes their relevance. This approach is in some ways

similar to that of Leech (1983) who classes *all* illocutionary functions into four broad types "according to how they relate to the social goal of establishing and maintaining comity" (p104).

6.6 Illocution and perlocution in a genre-analytical model

The use of illocutionary force in a model means that the question of perlocution must also be addressed. It might at first sight be assumed that the use of illocutionary force to describe what a writer or text is doing commits the analyst to the notion that the relationship between *readers* and texts can be understood in terms of perlocutionary effects. For example, that a section of text which aims to *justify* a particular idea will have the effect of *convincing* the reader.

In fact it is possible to use the concept of illocutionary force in a model of analysis while still recognising that the perlocutionary effects of a particular text will be unpredictable and indeterminate. Gu (1993) takes issue with the 'traditional' understanding of perlocution, in which a hearer's mental responses are held to be directly caused by a speaker's utterances. Gu concludes that perlocutionary effects are in fact acts in their own right, produced by hearers in response to speakers. On this analysis, there is absolutely no guarantee that a given utterance will have a specific perlocutionary effect.

Edge (1989) writing specifically about TESOL articles, points out that whatever the illocutionary intentions of a text or of parts of it, a reader may make interpretations which are not those that the writer intended. This reader interpretation, termed "ablocutionary value", is valid in its own right even if it constitutes a 'misunderstanding' of the writer's intention. It has its own existence and importance.

The concept of ablocutionary value brings us back full circle in this consideration of writer intention in texts. If the phenomenon exists, then writers (who are after all readers too) will be consciously or subconsciously aware of it as a possibility. It would be impossible by definition for a writer to actually account for all the ablocutionary values that a text might have for all its possible readers. But, writers may still take steps to ensure that readers *do*, as far as possible, select interpretations of their texts which are consistent with their own intentions. The model in chapters 7 and 8 accounts for this, identifying certain textual features which indicate explicit efforts on the part of the writer to ensure that the text is interpreted as they would wish.

6.7 Concluding comments on chapter six

In this chapter I have begun to discuss the analytical approach of the model to be introduced in chapters 7 and 8. I have attempted to situate this approach in the context of current debate about genre analytical models and existing work in discourse and genre analysis. I have begun to argue in favour of the concept of genre goals and to argue that these are a main factor influencing realisations in the genre. Lastly I have discussed the concept of illocutionary force as the main tool of the model, and have argued that this tool has been used with success in other genre analysis work.

In the next chapter I will begin to present the model itself.

Chapter seven

The analytical model: foundations and overview

- 7.1 Introduction
- 7.2 The development of the model
- 7.3 The goal of the genre
- 7.4 Genre goals and writer goals
- 7.5 Identifying elements of text in the TESOL article genre
- 7.6 Endophoric illocutions of sections of texts
- 7.7 Exophoric illocutions of sections of texts
- 7.8 Multiple illocutions
- 7.9 Summary

7.1 Introduction

In this chapter and the next I will primarily address the descriptive goal of this project: to produce a dynamic, purpose-oriented, community-sensitive and pedagogically useful description of the TESOL article genre. Following Swales (1990) the model attempts to explicate the genre from the starting point of its primary communicative purpose. It is concerned with the ways in which elements of texts within the genre work together to ensure that any particular textual realisation is coherent with the goal of the genre and the purposes of the writer. It looks at the relationships of elements of text to each other and also at the different roles of these elements in reader-writer interaction. Both of these issues are considered from the perspective of text purpose, or illocutionary point; I will discuss the functions of elements of text within a whole text and within interaction.

This model is specific to a particular genre. The particular illocutions perspectivised are those which are salient in that genre. They relate to its overall illocutionary purpose and to ways of approaching that purpose which are privileged within the discourse community. The model does not attempt to list *all* the goals and purposes which might affect realisations in a genre, but only those whose effect is particularly strong, systematic, observable and which it is pedagogically useful to perspectivise.

7.2 The development of the model

In this section I will very briefly discuss the processes via which the model was developed. Many of the points here are taken up more fully in chapter 10 on the relationships between the interventionist and the descriptive strands of the research.

My model was produced through a series of iterations. I began by seeing whether move-type models developed for other academic texts would be suitable for *ELT Journal* articles, but tended to find that they were not. In some cases there was no structural match: in other cases the structure could be made to fit, but the resulting analysis seemed somewhat trivial. As I tried unsuccessfully to analyse my texts in terms of these models, I found myself having recourse to the terminology of speech act theory to try and explain the misfits between models and texts, and to articulate my own understanding of what writers were in fact doing. I attempted to use an illocutionary perspective in my feedback on draft articles to early participants in the project (see chapter 10) and found that it was useful both for me and for them.

I therefore decided to analyse a certain number of *ELT Journal* articles from an illocutionary perspective, but without any model. This seemed to give much more insight into the texts concerned and so I decided to pursue this line, but to try and systematise the analysis into a model.

The next major decision was to try and combine the idea of macro-illocutions with Hoey's (1983) problem-solution pattern. This seemed a good possibility firstly since I felt that at least the macro-structure of the articles was explicable in problem-solution terms, and secondly because it had already been pointed out (Edge 1989) that this structural pattern had a particular pragmatic purpose in TESOL articles.

From these starting points, I constructed a series of draft models based on illocutionary analysis of *ELT Journal* texts, tried the draft models out on other *ELT Journal* texts, and revised them accordingly.

During autumn 1996 the first 'publicised' version of the model (Wharton 1996) was used to analyse all the articles published in *ELT Journal* in 1994 and was found applicable to all but three of them¹. The model was fine-tuned in

¹ Two of these had an interview format and the third was an item in the "Language conundrums" series. They are not, then, 'typical' *ELTJ* articles.

response to the experience of analysis, via processes analogous to what Altrichter et al (1993) call inductive and deductive data coding. The model was then used to analyse further *ELT Journal* articles (from 1995) and written up for project participants in the form of self-access materials (Wharton 1997). These 1994 and 1995 articles form the corpus for the project. The version of the model presented in this thesis, then, is informed by the interacting experiences of using it for analysis and presenting it to project participants.

Let us now start to discuss the model itself.

7.3 The goal of the genre

In chapter 6 I discussed the suggestion that a genre may have goals of its own. This metaphorical statement is powerful because it reconciles two key characteristics of discourse: that it is socially structured, and that it is determined by individual intention. Socio-communicative events such as genres may be seen as having "natural goal configurations" which are "trans-individually patterned" (Shepherd & Rothenbuhler 1991 p194).

A specific statement of the goal of the TESOL article genre may be informed by the discussions of academic and article writing in chapter 3 and the arguments in chapter 5 to the effect that the genre constructs its author as an expert. The genre implies a dual imperative for the way the author positions themselves in the community. As an expert, they need to say something new and impressive. As a community member, they need to portray their ideas as being in a relationship with other ideas and values which belong to the community.

For this reason I have decided to label the overarching goal of the genre *to make a contribution via the creation of relative newness*. Let us examine this formulation.

The phrase "make a contribution" refers both to the relationship between the text and the genre and to the relationship between the genre and the community. Both of these relationships are reflexive: there is a reciprocity both between what *is* written and what *can be* written, and also between what is *written* and what is *done*. These points, already introduced in chapter 3, will be further taken up in the remainder of this chapter and in chapter 8.

The term "relative newness" sheds light on the kind of text that is most likely to be perceived and accepted as a contribution. The term "newness" means not only original or different, but also valid and valuable, useful and having status.

The term "relative" emphasises that newness in a vacuum is not valuable or useful and does not have status. The newness which a community values is that which connects to things it already knows.

The goal of the genre, then, is both cognitive and social, both semantic and pragmatic. The genre aims to increase the total fund of knowledge available to the community, to develop a voice, and to develop a state of the art. It is also the means by which writers position themselves within the community: it is a granter of status and prestige, and provides a way of differentiating between the majority of community members who read the genre, and the élite minority who read and also write it.

I attempted to show in chapter 3 that a number of researchers have noted the importance of the function of creating relative newness for the successful production of academic writing. Bazerman (1988) argues that élite academic writing is characterised by the writer's desire to arrive at a new formulation that will be accepted in their discipline. Myers (1990) argues that the purpose of academic articles is to present knowledge claims which are convincing enough to change the schemata of readers. Ivanic & Simpson (1992) argue that much academic writing is designed to increase the writer's status and prestige, and that the content of the message in text is secondary. Mitchell (1994) sees argument in academic writing as the generation of dialogue between a number of different positions in order to arrive at an original position of one's own. Kaufer & Geisler (1989) call the academic writing process a process of "designing to be new" (p300), recognising that the creation of newness is a primary goal of an academic writer. Swales (1993) argues that a criterion referring to the pursuit of novelty should have been included in his (1990) conceptualisation of discourse communities, particularly academic ones. Tracy (1991) in a study of intellectual *discussion* among academics, attempts to identify some of the goals influencing participant's contributions. One goal set which emerges is an "intellectual display/ community membership" set. Participants wished to show themselves as intellectually able, which often meant 'bettering' others in debate or showing that they had perceived angles and possibilities which others had not. And yet they also wished to show themselves as good community members, interested in others' work and supportive of their goals.

The work of the researchers cited above, then, may be interpreted as supporting the argument that the goal of the TESOL article genre is to make a contribution via the creation of relative newness.

7.4 Genre goals and writer goals

In chapter 6 I examined some of the issues which surround the use of the construct of goals to explain discourse. I argued that when an individual uses a genre which has goals of its own, they are committed to pursuing whatever goals they may individually have via the goals of the genre. I will now look in a little more detail at what this means in the context of the TESOL article.

I would argue that it is not possible to publish such an article, or to submit one for publication, without the ideas in it being received by the discourse community as an attempt to make a contribution via the creation of relative newness. The genre constructs its author as an expert, and individual writers will find themselves judged on the basis that they are claiming this status. In the best case, the article genre is the ideal vehicle for a writer to contribute their ideas to the community, in that it can facilitate a situation where "expressing one's individuality and affirming one's membership of the *élite* become effectively identical" (Womack 1993 p47). An assignment, on the other hand, may never have been intended as an attempt to make a contribution via the creation of relative newness. As I have attempted to show, this genre rather tends to construct its author as a novice. This, of course, is one of the main reasons why assignments cannot always become articles without extensive revisions.

7.5 Identifying elements of texts in the TESOL article genre

If the overall goal of the genre is to make a contribution by creating relative newness, whole texts within it may be understood as trying to achieve this goal. To develop a more detailed position on how this is done, it is appropriate to break texts down into elements. This enables an examination of the apparent purpose of the various elements. As I will show below, in the case of the TESOL article genre it may be argued that each element has a different purpose and that they interact in order to contribute to the goal of the genre. Certain elements have the purpose of putting forward the new contribution, while other elements have the purpose of preparing the ground for this, of anchoring the new ideas in what is already known to the reader. In these senses, each text is a microcosm of the genre.

In order to break down the texts in my corpus I used the SPRE pattern (Hoey 1983). This pattern enabled me to characterise the macro-structure of my texts

and therefore go on to study the ways in which each element of the macro-structure contributes to the overall goal of the genre.

It is appropriate to comment a little further, at this stage, on the use of the SPRE pattern to describe the *macro-structure* of *ELT Journal* texts. This level of analysis is very broad, allowing long sections of text — even several pages — to be categorised in terms of one or other element of the pattern. Clearly, a more sophisticated and delicate analysis would also be possible: perhaps indicating, for example, that a 'big' R section contained many SPRE patterns of its own. Yet I will attempt to show in this chapter and chapter 8 that my broad approach to structural analysis is particularly useful since it is at this macro level that the *purpose* of sections of texts is revealed most clearly. This point seems to me to be analogous to Bazerman's (1994) comments on speech act theory in genre analysis, discussed in chapter 6 section 6.4.

Previous research, much of it also from a macro-structural perspective, suggests that the SPRE pattern is indeed useful for understanding the structure of argumentative texts in general and academic articles in particular. Connor (1987) finds that it is almost universal in argumentative essays written by students in four different cultures. Thomas (1994) claims that it is the underlying structure for articles in experimental science. Dudley Evans (1986) shows that Swales' "moves" in article introductions are paralleled by shifts through the SPRE pattern.

Edge (1985, 1986) shows in detail that TESOL methodology articles are structured according to the SPRE pattern. He further shows (1986) that ESOL teachers who may have difficulty reading and extracting the main argument — the *contribution*, which in this case is a *suggestion* — from such texts can benefit from learning to analyse them in terms of the SPRE pattern.

Anecdotal evidence suggests that tutors on TESOL masters courses in Britain regularly introduce students to the SPRE pattern as a tool for grasping the structure of TESOL articles and as a model to follow in their own writing. (Personal communications, BAAL genre analysis seminar Sheffield 1995). Similarly, those encouraging new writers to submit articles to a TESOL journal may suggest the use of the pattern (eg McCabe 1995).

Edge (1985, 1986) shows that not all methodology articles have the SPRE pattern in its canonical sequence and weighting, and this is also true for the articles in my corpus. And yet, all the texts which I have examined can be

shown without any difficulty at all to have the key elements of the pattern, and to be structured in terms of combinations of these elements.

It was therefore decided to use the four elements of the SPRE pattern as within-text units of analysis in the model. Following Hoey (1983) the P element in the model refers not only to something identified as a difficulty, but also something identified as a goal. To the four elements identified by Hoey I have added a fifth, Basis for R. This fifth element was added because analysis of the data indicated that it was necessary: a number of articles in the corpus contain separate sections in which reasons for the actions described under Response are explained. Other articles do not have a separate section yet devote considerable space within R itself to giving reasons for actions. As will be explained in the next section, I feel that the illocutions of those parts of text which describe actions and those parts of texts which explain the reasons for them are inherently different. I therefore decided to separate R and Basis for R in this model.

The term *Basis for R* still has its inspiration in Hoey (1983) who identifies a relation called *Basis for E*. This is where a clause(s) explains the evaluation which is present in E itself, and it is especially likely to be found where the reasons for the evaluation are not self-evident.

7.6 Endophoric illocutions of sections of texts

This section is concerned with the purposes or illocutions that the elements of text which may be labelled S,P,R, BR and E can have *within* a given text. That is, the illocutions discussed are derived from a consideration of the function of each element in relation to the other elements.

The role of the R section is central: it is to deliver the new contribution. Then the other elements work together to 'foreground' this new contribution, in the following ways:

- The role of the S element is to contextualise the R;
- The role of the P element is to identify the problem or goal to which R responds;
- The role of the BR element is to justify the contribution in R;
- The role of the E element is to evaluate the contribution.

So within the text, all elements work to 'help' the main contribution that is realised in R.

The illocutions listed above are considered to be *inherent* to the respective sections of texts. This means, for example, that a text whose S section did *not* contextualise the text's P and R would appear incoherent to the reader. Yet I will show in chapter 8 that the illocutions can be realised by writers in many different ways.

My non-standard use of the term *endophoric* to describe these illocutions can if necessary be considered metaphorical. I chose it because it carries the idea that the meaning of a given part of a text can be to some extent determined by the relationship of that part of a text to another part. When used as here, it allows a goal-oriented perspective on textual coherence, allowing the coherence of particular texts to be understood in relation to the goal of their genre.

Use of the term *endophoric* also makes available the term *exophoric*, to describe the purposes of elements of text in relation not to each other, but to that which is outside the text. I will discuss this perspective in the next section.

7.7 Exophoric illocutions of sections of texts

In this section I will look at the ways in which a text, as part of its genre, *relates to the community*. Here again I will present the elements of the text as having roles, and will argue that these roles 'map on' to the overall goal of the genre.

The role of R remains central and remains the same: to deliver the main contribution. It is this contribution that must be 'new' in the community if the text is to fulfil the goal of the genre. The E element, via its evaluation of the main contribution in the text, has the role in the community of *claiming significance* for that contribution. R and E, then, connect most clearly to the "newness" aspect of the goal of the genre.

Within the text, S and P work as a 'launching pad' for R and BR seeks to justify R. So within the community, these three elements have the role of anchoring the newness of the contribution in what is already known. S, P and BR, then, connect most clearly to the "relative" aspect of the goal of the genre.

The S, P and BR elements contribute to the building of common ground in different ways. S seeks to build common ground by portraying a context for

action, analysis etc that the reader recognises and/or can accept as true. P seeks to obtain the reader's agreement that a particular aspect of that situation is worthy of a deeper focus. These two, then, build common ground 'prior' to the contribution that comes in R. BR, however, seeks to build common ground 'alongside' the new contribution that comes in R, by trying to show that the contribution has a rationale that the reader can recognise as valid and sensible, and with whose values they can identify.

In these sections I have inevitably discussed the elements of text in a certain order, but I do not wish to suggest that the existence of the illocutions is dependent on the elements' occurring in such an order. As was stated above, articles in the corpus do in fact exhibit variation in the sequencing of sections.

This characterisation of the exophoric illocutions of elements of text in the TESOL article genre has support in previous research. Edge (1989) argues that the function of S and P sections is to make common ground with the reader in preparation for the suggestion which comes in R. Kaufer & Geisler (1989) similarly see the creation of common ground as an essential prerequisite to the academic author's main task of making a novelty claim. They suggest that authors must persuade readers that the consensus does actually exist at the point where they wish to break it. Skelton (1997), discussing academic medical writing, makes a distinction between contextual and evidential truth which is in many ways analogous to my distinction between common ground and newness in TESOL articles. Thetela (1997) argues that evaluation of research in articles has a mainly interactive function. Swales (1990) in the three-stage version of his model of article introductions, labels each of the moves in exophoric illocutionary terms. Connor (1987) quotes Aston (1977) and Tirkonnen-Conduit (1984) as having shown that illocutions are typically assertive in P sections of texts, and directive in R sections.

The inclusion of exophoric illocutionary force in a model for text analysis is desirable because it allows the analyst to go beyond structure and look also at function and social purpose within the discourse community. The desirability of this was discussed in chapter 6 section 6.2.

7.8 Multiple illocutions

In the sections above I argued that elements of text in the TESOL article genre have endophoric and exophoric illocutions. As parts of a text, they also share in the overall illocution of that text. And because the text is part of a genre, they

share in the overarching illocution of the genre. A given utterance or section of text, then, will have multiple illocutionary aspects. This situation may be interpreted as problematical from the point of view of analysis; it may equally be interpreted as inherent to the nature of communication, a fact that requires acknowledgement but does not undermine the usefulness of an illocutionary model.

For example Leech (1983) argues that utterances are by nature liable to illocutionary indeterminacy: in any communicative situation, it is not possible to be completely sure what was meant. He criticises speech act theorists such as Searle (1969) for attempting to define illocutionary acts by rigid rules, which permit the analyst to assign them unquestionably to a given category. In a similar vein Jaworski (1994) in a study of apologies, argues that speech acts should be seen as fuzzy categories. He claims that utterances function 'more' or 'less' as given illocutions, and variation is possible in the extent to which they are perceived as having that illocution.

Other analysts have proposed a solution to the 'problem' of illocutionary indeterminacy from the perspective of analytical relevance. For example Labov & Fanshel (1977) study the language of the psychotherapeutic interview using a speech act framework, and argue that particular utterances can be seen as having many different illocutionary forces. In order to code the utterances consistently, they develop a system of levels, so that each different illocution of a given utterance belongs to a different level. The lowest level is the most direct and the most observable linguistically. The highest level is the most abstract. For example, an utterance by a patient enquiring when her mother plans to come home is coded on the most direct level as a request for information, and on the most abstract level as a criticism of her mother — with several levels in between. For Labov & Fanshel, the choice of level in categorisation is a matter of analytical relevance.

In my model, the proposal that genre-specific endophoric and exophoric illocutions exist for elements of texts can guide the analysis of specific illocutions of sections of a particular text. Whatever is 'done' in eg an S section may be analysed against the criterion of whether and how it contextualises and builds common ground, and thus contributes to a textual realisation coherent with the goal of this genre.

7.9 Summary

In this section I will summarise the shape of the model so far.

The overall goal of the genre is to make a contribution via the creation of relative newness. So for texts within it:

S contextualises the main contribution in the text and builds common ground in the community

P identifies the problem or goal in the text and builds common ground in the community

BR justifies the main contribution in the text and builds common ground in the community

R delivers the main contribution in the text and creates newness in the community

E evaluates the main contribution in the text and makes a claim for its significance in the community.

In the next chapter I will demonstrate and explore, via textual examples, numerous approaches taken by authors of articles in my corpus to the endophoric and exophoric illocutions of their chosen genre.

Chapter eight

The model in detail: managing and realising illocutions in sections of texts

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8.1 Introduction

In this chapter, I will look at the different ways in which articles in the corpus manage the elements of text and the implications of these options for the creation of relative newness in the article. The choices I examine will provide a richer perspective on the endophoric and exophoric illocutions proposed. For example, I will attempt to show that certain elements whose primary exophoric role is to build common ground also have the option of contributing some of the newness to the article, and that the extent to which this is done depends on how the *endophoric* illocution is managed. I will attempt to show that choices available in certain other elements have implications for paradigm alignment and thereby discourse community positioning.

Before looking at elements of text in detail, it is appropriate to comment on the approach adopted in this chapter to textual examples.

The main aim of this chapter is to explain an analytical model. In order to allow the argument to develop, it would seem appropriate to use relatively brief examples. However, it would not be satisfactory to quote individual utterances isolated from their contexts, for two reasons. The first reason is that often the textual examples of the constructs posited are spread over wide sections of text. This makes it necessary to quote at some length, and at times to supplement the quotation with descriptions of surrounding text. The second reason is that, even where a short utterance does function as an example, I am not claiming that features of the utterance would function as an example in *any* context. On the contrary, context can be an important marker of the construct concerned.

When giving examples in the rest of this chapter, then, I will quote the minimum of text I deem necessary to make the point; but I will compensate where necessary by giving the reader information about the context. Since an awareness of the general nature of the articles quoted from is important for an appreciation of the examples, all examples are taken from a reduced number of articles. These articles are listed in appendix E. References within quoted extracts are *not* listed.

I will now go on to discuss each element of text in turn.

8.2 Managing contextualisation in S

8.2.1 Basic situation types

The S element of texts in the TESOL article genre frequently belongs to one of two distinct types. These have been characterised (Edge 1989) as "setting" and "state of the art" (p410). The distinction, which proved very relevant for the articles in my corpus, can be illustrated by the following examples:

- i The learners were Swedish-speaking Finnish children aged between thirteen and sixteen who had been studying English since the age of ten or eleven. (source: Ronnqvist & Sell 1994: 125)
- ii Alongside the increase in published courses and resource books, we have begun to see the formulation of theoretical frameworks for teaching English to young learners, drawing on mother tongue primary education and mainstream ELT methodologies (Brumfit, Moon and Tongue 1991; Kennedy and Jarvis, 1991). (source: Cameron 1994: 28)

The first extract is "setting" in the obvious sense of that word. The writers describe some salient characteristics of the learners who feature in the article, so that the article's contribution will be fully appreciated by readers. The second is "state of the art", in this case describing contemporary thinking in our profession. The writer uses the TESOL literature to contextualise her contribution.

8.2.2 Managing the contextualisation

Having established some basic situation types, in this subsection I will look at how the illocutions of the S element may be managed. I will propose that the endophoric illocution contextualise may be realised along a continuum, whose poles are

describe <-----> interpret

I will further propose that the point chosen along the continuum has implications for the exophoric illocution of the element, build common ground.

Contextualisations towards the describe end tend to paint a familiar and non-controversial picture, using ideas which are familiar to the exoteric as well as the esoteric audience. They rely more on concrete propositions than on theoretical constructs. Contextualisations towards the interpret end, on the

other hand, show more originality in the way the situation is perceived and put across. They can include ideas that would be familiar only to the esoteric audience, and tend to rely more on theoretical constructs.

Interpret S sections tend to be longer: whereas describe Ss can rely on reader knowledge and make their points in very brief statements, interpret Ss need more space to go into detail in order to be convincing. Describe Ss tend to make their points using short and simple assertions, whereas interpret Ss are much more likely to use hedged statements. This is perhaps because the writers of describe Ss can be sure of their facts, whereas the writers of interpret Ss want to keep readers on board by acknowledging that their originality is disputable. Interpret Ss are more likely to support their points with references than are describe Ss. Again this seems natural: a describe S can rely on reader experience to validate it, whereas an interpret S may create the need for backup from the literature. An interpret S is also more likely to contain references because it is more likely to use theory: the writer therefore needs to acknowledge the source of that theory.

Extracts i and ii above, used to exemplify the setting/ state of the art distinction, both fall towards the describe end of the continuum. Extract i is short and gives facts which are not in principle disputable. Extract ii likewise makes a factual statement about developments in our profession, which is supported by concrete examples. Both make their points using simple assertions.

The following extract, in contrast, falls nearer to the interpret end:

iii Because of the country's complicated history of European colonisation, the people of Morocco tend to be very aware of the issue of imperialism. The French and Spanish languages were forced upon them by colonial powers this century, adding to the linguistic complexity of a situation in which two standards of Arabic — Classical and Moroccan dialectical Arabic — have been imposed on the three major Berber language varieties also spoken in Morocco. One effect of such linguistic imposition has been to undermine and devalue native languages, especially when the imposed language fulfils the four functions outlined by Kachru (1983): the instrumental function...; the regulative function...; the interpersonal function...; and finally the imaginative/innovative function.(source: Hyde 1994: 295)

This extract makes use of sociolinguistic theory as a lens through which to see a situation, building up an argument which not everyone would agree with. It uses hedged statements and supports arguments with references.

The describe->interpret continuum works mainly on two distinctions, between familiar and unfamiliar ideas, and between concrete propositions and theoretical constructs. Let us look in more detail at each of these in turn.

The first distinction, between familiar and unfamiliar ideas, is ideational and has to do with writer knowledge/ awareness and writer perception of reader knowledge/ awareness. Writer perception in this area will obviously find itself reflected in the given/new structure of the whole text. Coulthard (1994) points out that the construct of given and new can be interpreted in an ideational as well as a textual sense.

When a writer is talking about a situation that a reader recognises, and using terminology that the reader expects and finds appropriate, then common ground is being built. If the talk is of a situation that the reader has not encountered before, or if a situation is portrayed using tools which are unexpected or unknown, then the first impact is one of newness. This newness must *become* common ground as the arguments proceed. It seems reasonable to assume that difficulties will arise for the reader if the writer treats something as ideationally given when, for the particular reader, it is new; or indeed, where too many 'new' ideas are turned into common ground at once (even if their newness is acknowledged by the writer).

The second distinction, between concrete propositions and theoretical constructs, may require more discussion. A distinction of this kind is seen as important by D'Andrade & Wish (1985) who, in their speech act framework, divide the speech act of *Assertions* into *Reports* and *Judgements*. "In a *Report* the speaker does not appear to go beyond the direct perception of objects and events. That is, a *Report* is not disputable except to claim that the person is lying, or for some reason did not perceive things accurately". Whereas "a *Judgement* is a disputable claim about what is true, where some inference, judgement or assessment has been made" (both quotations p246).

So for example the utterance "The learners were Swedish-speaking Finnish children aged between thirteen and sixteen who had been studying English since the age of ten or eleven." (Ronnqvist & Sell 1994 p125) is more like D'Andrade & Wish's *Report*, and is a concrete proposition. The utterance "One effect of such linguistic imposition has been to undermine and devalue native languages, especially when the imposed language fulfils the four functions outlined by Kachru (1983): the instrumental function...; the regulative function...; the interpersonal function...; and finally the imaginative/innovative

function."(Hyde 1994 p295) is more like their *Judgement*, and uses theoretical constructs.

The same distinction is discussed in considerable detail by van Dijk (1995). He sees a difference between factual and evaluative opinions or beliefs. Disputes about factual statements can be resolved by reference to empirical truth criteria. Disputes about evaluative statements can not: such statements "must always imply an evaluation of 'quality' relative to a social system of norms and values" (p5). Evaluative statements are usually scalar and are easily contestable. Therefore, "discourse participants may be socially obliged to spell out their relevant criteria" (p7) for making them in a particular case. Certain evaluative statements: for example, about beauty — are socially allowed to be made on purely personal criteria. Others — those found in the texts of an academic discourse community would seem an obvious example — demand community-accepted criteria: "...people routinely derive and support their specific opinions relative to the principles of social attitudes and ideologies of their group, or to the underlying norms and values of societies and culture generally" (p12).

The use of discipline-specific theoretical constructs tends to lead a writer to make use of both technical terms and references. Some commentators (eg Ivanic & Simpson 1992, Nida 1992) criticise writers for the exaggerated use of technical terms and for using references as name-dropping rather than as a service to the reader. Justified as this criticism may be on some occasions, we can also consider — in line with Van Dijk's position as outlined above — that both technical terms and references quite naturally tend to be present when theoretical constructs are used. Theoretical statements are disputable: a reference can give support. And they refer to *discipline-specific* constructs which are, obviously, those for which technical terms have evolved. The technical terms thus function partly as markers of group identity.

The discussion of the distinctions between familiar and unfamiliar ideas, and concrete propositions and theoretical constructs, will have made clearer what is meant by the describe<->interpret continuum. In the light of the discussion, I will now consider how descriptive and interpretative approaches to contextualisation in S can each, in a different way, achieve the exophoric illocution of building common ground.

Concrete descriptions build common ground because they evoke the reader's experience. The concrete, observational detail with which the writer's situation is described helps the reader to find parallels with their own concrete

experience. Theoretical interpretation, referring to discipline state-of-the-art, builds common ground by a cognitive address. It relies on a specialised discourse which is the property and a defining feature of the discourse community.

From this it seems clear that when theoretical constructs are used, it is more important that they should be familiar than when concrete constructs are used. It is obvious that only a general descriptive statement (eg "conversation is important to most learners") could actually be believed to be familiar. A local one (eg "conversation is important to learners in Veracruz university") always has to be believed to be unfamiliar in the literal sense. And yet common ground can be built very successfully out of that kind of 'unfamiliar' concrete and particular statement. This is because, as we saw above, the statement is not really disputable, and it is specific enough to evoke parallels in the reader's own experience.

Theoretical interpretations, on the other hand, are disputable and they do not contain much particular detail. They can therefore only work to build common ground if the reader as it were 'supplies' the detail: makes the statement relevant to their own context. And if the theoretical ideas are too unfamiliar, the reader will be unable to do so. Nida (1992) points out that if a text contains a large number of unfamiliar technical terms then a great deal of processing effort is needed to even attempt to comprehend it. This could be alienating for the reader, and work against the goal of building common ground. A degree of familiarity is therefore essential for theoretical realisations to succeed in fulfilling the exophoric illocution of the S element.

The S element, then, may achieve its exophoric illocution of building common ground via contextualisations at many points along the describe<->interpret continuum. However, this is not to say that it makes no difference, from the perspective of building common ground, where the writer chooses to position themselves. In the rest of this subsection I will argue that realisations nearer the interpret end, in addition to building common ground, also contribute to the newness of the article. Let us discuss why this is so.

Van Dijk's (1995) linking of evaluative statements (which are in some ways analogous to my theoretical constructs) to social systems of norms and values gives a useful perspective on the reasons why realisations using theoretical constructs, nearer to the interpret end of the illocutionary force continuum for S, push more towards newness than do those towards the describe end.

Remembering that "newness" in this model also means 'status', it can be argued that theory has status because of where it comes from. Theoretical interpretations of situations are valued because the theory they are using is *that of the discipline* — only community members have access to it. The manipulation of it in order to communicate one's situation to others is concomitant with the "expert" status assigned to the writer by the genre. On the other hand concrete descriptions of situations could, in theory, be made by anyone, discourse community member or not, who observed a particular situation. The statements used are factual and empirical.

It must of course be recognised that the above paragraph is an oversimplification. The selection of data to include in a concrete description is theoretically motivated too. (One example of an incoherent text is that where descriptive data is selected which does not appear to have any relevance to the argument which unfolds). Despite this shortcoming I would argue that the continuum is a useful analytical tool.

Positions to the extreme left or the extreme right of the describe<->interpret continuum are likely to be dysfunctional. On the extreme left writers would find themselves with nothing new to say. This is not acceptable in the TESOL article genre, as it is incompatible with the constructed position of the author as "expert" and the genre goal create relative newness. The exophoric illocution of the section (build common ground) will be realised, but the 'question' to which R is the 'answer' will be unacceptably limited.

On the extreme right, there would be so much newness in this section that the exophoric illocution of build common ground would fail to be realised. Readers would therefore find themselves handicapped, perhaps unable to perceive the real newness in R and its significance as explained in E. The newness will cease to be relative, and hence it will cease to be valuable and instead will be just, literally, 'new'.

Therefore, successful realisations of the illocution contextualise in S must find a point of tension on the illocutionary force continuum describe<->interpret.

Having discussed the describe<->interpret continuum now in full detail, I will use it to comment on further textual extracts from the corpus. The following extract seems to me to fall towards the describe end:

iv The declining economic situation in Sierra Leone has had a devastating effect on the education system. Since the value of teachers'

wages has fallen to less than US\$10 a month, graduates no longer go into teaching. Schools are being forced to recruit more and more fifth-form leavers, none of whom are trained." (Source: Carey and Dabor 1995:37)

I note first of all that the text employs concrete propositions. Occurrences in Sierra Leone are put forward as facts, and they are in principle checkable. Points are made one after another in simple affirmative sentences. The assertions are not hedged and the writers make no attempt to justify them: this suggests that they do not expect the assertions to be disputed. The ideas put forward will not be familiar to the exoteric audience in any literal sense: many readers will know very little about Sierra Leone. And yet, common ground is built as the reader seeks, and probably finds, parallels in their own experience or knowledge.

A very good example of an S section towards the interpret end of the continuum can be found in the draft version of an article submitted to the *LSU Bulletin* in 1995:

v Code switching, or "the alternate use of two or more languages in the same utterance or conversation" (Grosjean 1982: 145) must be a salient phenomenon in most second language classrooms. This is even more likely where the learners all share a common L1, which is also an L1 or L2 for the teacher. Much of the literature on code switching has focused on bilingual communities, where it is claimed "both message form and message content play a role in implicature" (Gumperz 1982: 95). Thus, the members of these cultures can convey semantically significant information through their choice of code. But if bilingual ability is seen as a Kline (Kachru 1985) with perhaps our learners near the lower end of it, and the classroom is something of a culture (Breen 1985) then there is reason to suggest code choice has potential to generate implicatures here too. This possibility has received relatively little attention as yet. (source: Hancock 1995 (draft):1)

The section interprets the situation in an L2 classroom with the aid of many discipline-specific theoretical constructs: code switching, bilinguality, conversational implicature. The statements made using these constructs are disputable in principle and, unlike the concrete statements which appeared in extract iv above, probably not comprehensible to someone outside the profession. Some of the ideas are also likely to be unfamiliar to the exoteric audience. Analyst's judgement suggests that not all teachers, even those studying an MSc, study code switching and bilinguality. And there is a major textual signal that the writer himself believes the ideas to be unfamiliar: the utterance "this possibility has received relatively little attention as yet". The

inclusion of a reference to give authority to each new concept is another marker. A third is the glossing of key terms, eg in the first sentence.

This extract is further discussed in chapter 10.

8.2.3 Concluding comments on S

In this section I have argued that the endophoric illocution of S, contextualise, may be realised along an illocutionary continuum describe↔interpret and that this continuum reflects different approaches to the building of common ground and hence to the making of a contribution in the TESOL article genre. I have examined the concepts behind the continuum in some detail, and have looked at some characteristics of realisations towards the describe and interpret ends of the continuum. I have discussed reasons why an interpret tendency may contribute to the newness of the article as well as build common ground.

8.3 Managing identification of a problem or goal in P

In this section I will examine the illocutions of the P element. As with S, I will argue that the endophoric illocution may be realised along a continuum and that position on this continuum has implications for the exophoric illocution.

However, there are two aspects of P which need to be looked at before undertaking that argument. The first aspect is the existence of different 'types' of P in the TESOL article genre. The second aspect is the scope of P — which, as I will attempt to show, has implications for discourse community positioning and paradigm alignment.

8.3.1 Types of P

Hoey's (1983) distinction between Problem as difficulty and Problem as goal is relevant to the P element in the TESOL article genre. Articles in my corpus exhibited both types of P, whether in isolation or combination. Combination, of both types of P in the same article, was perhaps a particularly frequent approach. The following extracts, which come from the same paragraph in the same article, are illustrative:

i However, I believe that much of the criticism of role playing as a CLT activity has resulted from a failure to discern its hybridity. It is a hybrid because it springs from two distinct impulses in the contemporary language acquisition perspective, each of which has different aims and

expectations. One impulse...[goes on to explain the two alleged impulses]. (source: Al-Arishi 1994: 338)

ii From this perspective of reality, instead of seeking to diagnose and remedy students' resistance to the role-playing activity, as Surplus (1983) suggests, (in essence, trying to find out what is wrong with students who resist role-playing as a valuable CLT activity), I believe it is more relevant to explore what is wrong with the activity that has caused student resistance. (source: Al-Arishi 1994: 339)

In the first extract, the writer describes a difficulty in a situation. In the second extract he expresses a purpose, an intention. There is a clear parallelism between the two statements: if a difficulty is that much criticism of role play has failed to understand the nature of the activity, then a goal is to explore that nature.

8.3.2 The scope of P

In this subsection, prior to discussing an illocutionary continuum for the P element in the TESOL article genre, I will argue that P in this genre may also be related to a continuum of *scope*, whose poles are

local <-----> general

The tendencies of this continuum may be illustrated by the following extracts:

iii In the schools we visited, teachers had low job satisfaction and did not feel appreciated by their senior colleagues. They also worked for very low pay (some for the equivalent of US\$4 a month), had classes of between fifty and ninety students, and very few textbooks or other resources. (source: Carey & Dabor 1995:38)

iv Professional neglect of the backwash effect (what it is, how it operates, and its consequences) is one of the main reasons why new methods often fail to take root in language classes. Many teachers, trapped in an examination preparation cycle, feel that communicative and humanistic methodologies are luxuries they cannot afford (source: Prodromou 1995:14)

The writers of the first extract make it clear in their S section (an extract from which appeared above) that they are discussing Sierra Leone. As they come to identify in more detail the textual P to which they will respond, the focus narrows to the particular schools they visited. The writers use past tenses, which also function to narrow the focus, by tying it to a particular period of time and a particular research project.

The second extract comes from an article about testing and teaching whose main focus is a framework for understanding the negative effect that test backwash can have on teaching. The general scope of the P is clearly indicated by such features as the lack of definite articles, and by words such as *often*, *many*, which indicate a wide scope even as they hedge the assertions. There is also a marked absence of any phrases which would limit the comment to a particular context. Near the beginning of the article (also p14) the writer does state: "I have been involved in examinations at several levels: as a teacher, trainer, examiner, and writer of tests and examination materials. The backwash effect described here is based on my observations of examination classes in the private and public sectors, over a period of twenty years, in a society (Greece) where examinations play a significant role". However, this is the one and only time that a particular context is mentioned. Given this, it seems reasonable to interpret the above quotation as establishing the writer's credentials rather than linking the problem specifically to the Greek situation. This P, then, is signalled as being valid and relevant in any educational context where EFL exams are a significant variable. As such its scope is near the general end of the continuum.

The choice of a more local or a more general statement of P is of considerable importance for the writer, since it is one of the determinants of the claim that can be made of R by E. R has solved P, but how important was P in the first place? Scope is one perspective on 'importance': in a superficial sense, Problems which affect more people are more worth solving. Scope can also be seen, however, as a paradigm-alignment issue.

I would suggest that a general P links in to a paradigm where the goal of ELT research is to find solutions and insights which are valuable in many contexts, and to deal with issues which affect large numbers of people. And that a local P links in to a paradigm where accounts of context-specific research are valuable precisely *because* they are context-specific, and include the particular detail which grounds the account and enables the *reader* to reflect upon possibilities of transfer.

So an article which responds to a very local and particular problem, ie which has a small scope, may nevertheless be seen as making a pitch for large significance and importance. It would achieve this by situating itself within an approach which values local research and finds particularised claims to be, potentially, the most powerful of all.

8.3.3 Managing the identification

So far I have looked at P from two perspectives: that of representation as difficulty or as goal, and that of scope. In this subsection I will examine how the illocutions of the element may be managed and the implications of choices here for the article as a whole.

I will argue that the endophoric illocution of identify (problem or goal) may be realised along a continuum whose poles are

recognise<-----> invent.

I will further argue that the point chosen along the continuum, together with the scope of P as discussed above, has implications for the exophoric illocution of the element, build common ground.

Recognise means working with a well known and generally acknowledged issue, and explaining it in uncontroversial terminology. Invent (the term is not intended to be pejorative in any way), means proposing a difficulty or goal which is not generally seen as such by the discourse community. It may also mean using unusual (and therefore challenging) explanatory tools to assert the existence and validity of the problem or goal.

Recognise Ps might take up a relatively small proportion of text. Points may be made using quite simple assertions, which tend not to be developed. References may not be needed. Invent Ps may need to be expressed using the theory of the discipline. They may take up a larger proportion of text, and assertions within them are more likely to be developed and explained. They are more likely to use technical terms and to include references. There are likely to be phrases which imply distance from others. Kaufer & Geisler (1991) point out that sources quoted for contrast often function as alleged representations of a current consensus: so phrases implying distance are part of a writer's claim for originality.

The parallel with the describe <-> interpret continuum posited for the S element is clear. And again for P, realisations towards the recognise end will tend to involve the writer in the use of concrete propositions, and familiar ideas — whereas those towards the invent end will require more theoretical constructs, and ideas that may be unfamiliar. These two distinctions, between familiar and unfamiliar ideas and concrete propositions and theoretical constructs, were

discussed in detail in section 8.2.2 on S and the discussion will not be repeated here. Rather, let us now use the recognise<-> invent continuum to look at the P extracts which have been quoted so far.

Extracts i and ii, from Al-Arishi, are I think quite invent. In the first extract originality is signalled by the phrase "I believe" and the phrase "failure to discern" implies distance from others — both of these techniques mark the P as unfamiliar. The main point, about hybridity, is developed at length. The second extract continues to mark originality ("I believe") and distance from others (the reference to Surplus).

Extract iii, from Carey & Dabor, is more recognise. It certainly contains new, unfamiliar information (the details of an individual context) but it refers to the type of difficulty teachers are likely to be familiar with, often at first hand and certainly via conversations with colleagues. The form of the text seems to support this analysis: there is a series of brief assertions which do not need to be explained further.

The fourth extract, from Prodromou, is difficult to categorise on the extract alone. There is an attempt, via the labelling of this unfortunate situation as frequent, to get the reader to validate the idea as familiar; an attempt to link into the reader's experience and unite with the reader against the common enemy of the exam preparation cycle. Yet on the other hand, the early phrase "professional neglect of the backwash effect" implies distance, and therefore seems to flag up an *unfamiliar* idea. This article will be discussed again in section 8.6.5, on R. In that discussion, the apparently ambiguous status of this P extract will be elucidated.

The extracts I have looked at here have been categorised as recognise or invent more on the familiarity of ideas dimension than on the concrete proposition/theoretical construct dimension. To gain a fuller picture of the recognise<-> invent continuum, and bring in the concrete proposition/theoretical construct dimension, let us look at two more extracts. I consider the first extract to be a recognise P, and the second to be a strongly invent P. I will quote them both, and then discuss them together.

v [This is the opening of the article] One of the biggest challenges to current language teaching methodology is to find effective ways of preparing students for spontaneous communication. As one answer to this challenge, a new type of language lesson, the conversation class, has appeared, whose main teaching objective is to improve the student's conversational skills.

In spite of the growing popularity of such conversation classes, they are often not systematic enough, having been put together from a random variety of communicative activities. The teachers running these courses can hardly be blamed for this, because while communicative language teaching methodology has offered detailed guidelines for how to create genuine communicative situations in the language classroom, it has failed to specify what kind of language input we should focus on.

[Goes on to a metatextual statement of how the article will address the above difficulties]. (source: Dornyei & Thurrell 1994:40).

vi [The article begins with two pages of text all of which I categorise as S, in which the history of the use of rating scales is summarised.]

Problems with current scales

A need for rating scales in modern language assessment does not automatically lead to effective and efficient scales. In general commonly employed rating scales present major problems of reliability and validity (Bachman & Savignon 1986, Fulcher 1987, Matthews 1990). This is especially true for scales used in second language courses. Examples of these reliability and validity problems are given below.

Reliability

1. Standards for grading shift as students improve during a course. The teacher unconsciously raises standards as the level of student ability increases. Often a teacher in a higher grade will give the same average rating to her class as a teacher at a lower grade who uses the same rating scale.

2. Raters of the same students will not agree on the meaning of scale descriptors. Therefore they give different scores to the same student performance. This can be reflected by one teacher giving generally higher average scores than another, or by one teacher assigning a wider range of scores than another.

[Difficulties continue to be summarised in three more numbered paragraphs, each approximately 5 lines in length].

Validity

1. Scale descriptors often do not conform to a teacher's own objectives. Typically, descriptors list a number of features a performance must incorporate in order to receive a given score. Teachers might not, however, have all of those features as objectives in their courses.

2. Scale points are frequently described by a list of features that may not actually co-occur in the performances being rated. One scale, for example, lists together in one category the ability to use past and present tenses correctly and an inability to form questions. It is questionable whether even a slight majority of ESL learners ever exhibit such a pattern.

[Difficulties continue to be summarised in two more numbered paragraphs, each approximately five lines in length].

(source: Upshur & Turner 1995:5-6).

The first sentence of extract v, and the second sentence of extract vi, are each 'topic sentences' in the everyday sense of that term — they tell us what the P is going to be about. Analyst's judgement indicates a clear distinction in terms of familiarity of ideas — for most readers, I think, the assertion in extract v will feel more familiar than that in extract vi. Extract vi also uses an explicit statement of distance: the juxtaposition of the terms "commonly employed" and "major problems" distances the authors, who are claiming the existence of a problem, from the majority of the community who continue to use the scales in question.

The extracts differ in length. Extract v may reasonably be considered to be the entire P section of its article and is two paragraphs long. Extract vi if written in full would be ten paragraphs long. This suggests that the writers of extract vi are aware that they are proposing a difficulty where, for the exoteric audience, none was supposed to exist: they know that space will be needed if this difficulty is to become common ground in any sense.

Extract vi makes significant use of disciplinary theory and technical terms to explain the alleged difficulty. The terms "reliability", "validity", "scale descriptors" are the most obvious examples.

References are used in extract vi but not in v. This suggests that the writers of vi feel the need to support their case if they are to build common ground, whereas the writers of v believe that teachers will identify with the difficulties they portray on the basis of their experience.

The assertions in extract v are quite brief and bald; they do not tend to be elaborated upon. Each sentence seems to be to be making a separate point about the difficulty in question. In extract vi on the other hand, abstract assertions made via disciplinary theory are picked up and exemplified in quite some detail.

The discussion of these two extracts, then, seems to me to elucidate the main aspects of the recognise<->invent continuum.

Both recognise and invent Ps can work to build common ground, in the same ways as can describe and interpret Ss. And, just as for S, the choice of position along the continuum also has significance in terms of contributing to newness in the article. An invent P is more 'new' in the everyday sense of that word. It may also use theory, which is new in the more technical sense that we saw in the previous subsection. An extremely recognise P would have no problems fulfilling its illocution of building common ground, but it would not contribute much to the newness of the article. An extremely invent P could help make the contribution in R seem very new, but there would be a risk that it may not build all the common ground required.

8.3.4 Concluding comments on P

In this section I have argued that the endophoric illocution of P, identify, may be realised along an illocutionary continuum recognise<->invent and that this continuum reflects different approaches to the building of common ground and hence to the making of a contribution in the TESOL article genre. The continuum has been explained by analogy with the describe<->interpret continuum for S, and has been exemplified by textual extracts. I have discussed reasons why an invent tendency may contribute to the newness of the article as well as build common ground. I have also discussed the importance of the scope of P for paradigm alignment and discourse community positioning.

8.4 Managing justification in Basis for R

Like S and P, BR has the exophoric illocution build common ground; readers will not be able to identify with the contribution in R unless they can also identify with the reasons for it. The endophoric illocution of BR is to justify the main contribution found in R. In this section I will first look at a continuum along which the illocutions of the element can be realised, and then go on to look at options for integrating the element into the text or even omitting it.

8.4.1 Managing the justification

Realisations of Basis for R may be seen as occurring on an illocutionary force continuum of

show <-----> argue.

Realisations towards the show end of the continuum seek to justify R by reference to experiential knowledge which reader and writer are seen to share.

Writers and readers are positioned as sharing certain schemata, so that readers will recognise the 'truth' of the writer's assertions and will also understand these assertions as arguments in favour of what is proposed in the R section.

Realisations towards the argue end do not position readers and writers as sharing the same knowledge base. They seek to justify R with reference to the writer's knowledge of the work of others, as recorded in the literature of the discipline. Here the reader cannot validate the truth of the assertions so easily, and needs to trust that the writer has done the bibliographical research and interpreted the sources correctly.

Let us now look at an example of each tendency.

A BR section nearer the argue end of the continuum appears in Carey and Dabor (1995). Having explained the background against which they were working in Sierra Leone and identified a particular problem, the writers begin to prepare readers for the response they will offer. Since this might be considered relatively unusual (working with *heads of department* to improve the performance of *teachers*), they include a relatively long (1 page of a total 6 1/2) justification of this idea, before they discuss it in detail in the R section. The first paragraph of BR is as follows:

i The importance of leadership

Using Armstrong's (1988) principle that people are an organisation's prime resource, and that their effective management is the key to the organisation's success, we turned our attention to heads of English departments. Studies by a number of people, including Peters and Waterman (1982), and Goldsmith and Clutterbuck (1984), found that the success of an organisation depends in great part on the ability of leaders to motivate their team, provide a sense of vision, clarify organisational objectives, and ensure that their subordinates are able to motivate those who work with them. Beare et al (1989) quote several studies of "excellent" schools (defined by such features as good results in public examinations, high attendance, and good behaviour) in which particular traits of the schools' functioning were common. These features included a strong administrative leadership, teachers planning and working together, and a climate of high expectations shared by both students and staff. Beare et al (1989) say that excellent schools are the product of good management, and that management depends on a clear understanding of valid management theory. (source: Carey & Dabor 1995:38).

So it is clear that just one clause of the above paragraph ("we turned our attention to heads of departments") refers to R, and the rest is all justification. The positioning near the argue end of the posited continuum is indicated by the

explicit assertions that the research of others is a valid basis on which to proceed: "*Using Armstrong's* (1988) principle. . . we turned our attention". There is also the fact that studies quoted are alleged to be only a few of the many which would justify similar procedures: "Studies by a number of people, including Peters and Waterman (1982) and Goldsmith and Clutterbuck (1984)..." "Beare et al (1989) quote several studies..."

In this section, then, the writers see their task as using the literature to provide a line on why the procedure they are about to describe is a good one. They cannot assume that the reader will be familiar with such literature, but hope that they will trust the writers' interpretation of it.

A BR towards the show end of the continuum appears in Lazar (1994), in an article entitled "Using literature at lower levels". Having explained some of the difficulties of using literary texts with low level students and having examined the needs of such students, Lazar proposes, in R, guided tasks and activities to be used with literary texts. She discusses her approach through worksheets and lesson plans. Having presented the first worksheet, she proceeds to justify it:

ii Comments on student worksheet 1

It is worth making a number of points with regard to the kinds of activities used in this worksheet. Firstly, asking students to make associations around key words is a way of cueing students in to the themes and underlying meanings in a literary text. Since students' language skills in English are very limited they cannot be expected to produce a fully-fledged "interpretation" of the text. But asking them to associate around some of the key words in the text is one way of making students aware of the thematic contrasts in the text. It is also a way of personalising the lesson and encouraging students to relate what they read to their own experience. Activities involving associations around a word or group of words can also generate rich cultural insights for students, since some of the associations a group of learners has for particular words may be culturally determined. The learners could be asked to compare their associations with those which seem to be present in the text or with those of the teacher. (source: Lazar 1994:18).

The extract is explicitly marked ("It is worth... this worksheet") as being intended to justify the worksheet activities which are put forward as a concretisation of the writer's R. Positioning near the show end of the continuum is indicated firstly by the lack of reference to the work of others. It is secondly indicated by the setting of the justification in the classroom. The likely benefits of each activity are put forward for the reader to validate on the basis of their

own experience of similar types of activities. Readers are positioned as sharing the teaching culture where awareness of thematic contrast, connection to personal experience, rich cultural insights, etc, are seen as desirable for language learning.

8.4.2 Implications of choices

I have argued, then, that the illocutions of the BR element may be realised along a continuum. This continuum differs from those proposed earlier for S and P in that choice along it does not seem to be related to the article's claim for newness. Rather, choice along the show<->argue continuum is related to discourse community positioning and genre awareness. In positioning themselves on this continuum the writer chooses whether to attempt to build common ground more by an evocation of experience, or by a cognitive address. The writer's choice(s) reveal an interplay between their perception of their own knowledge, of the reader's knowledge, and of the content matter of the article.

8.4.3 Separate or integrated?

The two articles from which I have quoted in this section on BR both contain quite large chunks of texts which can be analysed as having the illocution justify. It seems reasonable, in such cases, to talk of a separate BR section. But not all articles are like this. In some cases, it seems rather that BR statements are integrated into R itself. It would certainly be possible to consider the two elements as one: Edge (1989), explaining how the SPRE pattern fits TESOL methodology texts, includes under R "principles underlying and justifying the above procedures" (p410). On my own model, I have decided to separate the two elements because of the existence of two separate and equally salient *illocutions* of delivering the main contribution and justifying it.

The following extract, taken from an article entitled "Guidelines for the production of in-house self access materials", illustrates how R and BR may be textually integrated:

iii Length and timespan

Our material is generally short: two or three pages. This is to allow our trainees some discretion about the time they spend in the self-access centre. Even if they only spend fifteen minutes, they can nevertheless do something. Also, we believe shorter material is better assimilated, as it makes fewer demands on the student's concentration span. (source: Lum & Brown 1994:154)

The extract is one of four paragraphs in the article each of which describe one feature of the authors' self-access materials. All the paragraphs follow the same pattern, combining R (what they do) with BR (why they do it).

In my corpus the choice between separate or integrated BR seems to depend on whether the writer is talking about their main contribution *as a whole* at this point, or whether they are breaking it down into steps or component parts. Extracts i and ii seem to me to be examples of the former, and extract iii of the latter.

I also found articles in my corpus which do not appear to contain a BR. I found no rigid rules about which articles are more likely to contain a BR, but I did notice a tendency: that BRs are especially likely in articles that talk (at least in part) about some sort of action or procedure, and less likely in articles devoted to discussing a state of affairs or a problem, or to evaluating someone else's work. These different 'types' of articles will be discussed in more detail in section 8.6.3, on R.

8.4.4 Concluding comments on BR

In this section I have argued that BR may be separate from R, integrated to it, or even that no explicit BR may be in evidence. I have argued that the illocutions of BR, justify and build common ground may be realised along an illocutionary continuum whose poles are show<->argue and that choices along this continuum are part of the discourse community positioning of the article.

8.5 Managing evaluation and claim in E

In this section I will examine the illocutions of the E element. I will again argue that these may be realised along a continuum, and will suggest that choice of position along this continuum is part of the broader discourse community positioning of the article.

Before engaging with those arguments, however, there are two aspects of E which need to be considered. The first issue is one of differentiation between two basic types of evaluation which may appear in a text. The second issue is one of scope.

8.5.1 Identifying E

I argued in chapter 7 that the endophoric illocution of E is evaluate and its exophoric illocution is claim. In this subsection I will argue that in fact it is only the final, or main, evaluation in a text that has the illocution of claim. Other evaluations, which may be termed 'ongoing' evaluations, have a different role.

The following ongoing evaluations (italicised) are quoted in quite a broad textual context, in order to demonstrate their function:

i . . . In the same way, *comments on the essays via computer came only from the students, which meant that they did not go very far in processing their writing together before submitting the final versions of their essays to the tutor for grading.* To some extent these are problems which can be solved technically, by making the CC system more readily accessible to the students — providing each of them with a PC and modem, for example, so that they could do CC while having a cup of coffee in the morning in the dormitory. (source: Leppanen & Kalaja 1995:35).

ii Learner/teacher dialogue

Dialogue between learners and the class teacher on our programme is now seen as central to the fostering of autonomy. At first the learner/teacher dialogue consisted principally of formal interviews. However, most teachers had difficulty keeping to the scheduled twenty minutes per person, and many found that learners appeared disappointed with the outcome of the interviews, since they had been hoping for instant solutions to their language problems. It became clear that the purpose of the interviews was not always well established in learners' minds. Gradually, however, learners started to relate concepts presented in the Learning a Language study theme to their own language learning, and requested more frequent, less formal opportunities to talk about their learning with the teacher. Our programme has been adapted accordingly, and class teachers now aim to speak to each learner for fifteen minutes every week (sometimes within the context of a writing workshop). (source: Cotterall 1995:222)

These ongoing evaluations, which are to some extent negative, do not have the exophoric illocution of claim. They often function in the text as multilayered Ps (Hoey 1983) and lead to a development of R. They are not the *main* evaluation of the contribution: in the TESOL article genre, which constructs its author as an expert, it would be most unexpected for the main evaluation to be negative. In this genre, then, negative evaluation remains endophoric and does not participate in the exophoric illocution of claim. It does form part of the illocutionary point of the article overall.

8.5.2 The scope of E

In section 8.3 above on P I argued that the P element in this genre may be related to a continuum of scope. In this section I will argue that the same is true of E, and that the significance of the continuum is similar.

The scope of E, then, may be interpreted on a continuum whose poles are

local<-----> general.

An example near the local end of the continuum comes in Carey and Dabor's article on teacher development in Sierra Leone via work with heads of department:

iii Feedback at the end of the seminar was positive. The participants said that drawing up a job description had made them see their duties in a new light. They found the role play especially instructive, and said they realised how much could be gained if they encouraged their colleagues to share both their ideas and their difficulties. They commented on the similarity of the situation portrayed in the video with their own situations at school: young teachers being sent to teach students without help or guidance, in an atmosphere where to ask for advice was to admit failure. (source: Carey & Dabor 1995:42)

An example near the general end comes from Upshur & Turner's article on rating scales for language tests:

iv In this paper we have demonstrated that high agreement among raters can be achieved [using our proposed type of scale], even under conditions not favourable to high interrater reliability. We have shown that the full range of score categories in scales of this type are effectively utilized and have suggested other benefits that may accrue to EBB scales constructed according to the procedures outlined here. (source: Upshur & Turner 1995:11)

The evaluative content of the first extract is context-specific, whereas that of the second extract is not marked for context. So there is a parallel, in E, with the local <-> general continuum which was discussed for P.

Both of the E extracts quoted are from articles which also featured in subsection 8.3.2 concerning the scope of P. Their P sections were also categorised as local and general respectively. The match between the scope of P and E statements is a factor in the coherence of the articles.

A tendency is observable, in my corpus, for E sections which are positioned as local to become slightly general at the end. A clear example of this comes from Seedhouse (1995) — the evaluation of an attempt to use needs analysis in a particular general English classroom. The relevant extract from the E section is:

v Although it is not possible to generalise from this example, the following conclusions may be reached:

1. In the case of this particular class, the questionnaires suggested that the learners (although young) had a very clear idea of their own needs and wants. Even in the rather nebulous area of psychosocial needs it proved possible to specify and define them.
2. The needs analysis was carried out in order to solve a particular problem and proved successful in identifying the source of the problem.
3. The needs analysis data suggested a direction for materials design to tackle the problem.
4. Course design and materials design can be based directly on needs analysis in the General English classroom. (source: Seedhouse 1995: 64)

The writer explicitly states that he does not feel it is possible to generalise — ie, provide a general scope E — on the basis of his article. And indeed three of the conclusions are explicitly marked for local — by the use of definite articles to link to the class in question, and by the frequent use of the term "particular". And yet the fourth conclusion *is* general in scope — as is indicated by the lack of articles and the modal can. The writer seems to have felt an urge to make at least part of the E general in scope.

The issue of local <-> general scope is of course important for the illocution of claim. Local scope Es make their claims for a specific context, more general scope Es are moving towards claims of truth and validity outside the confines of the particular. As was discussed in subsection 8.3.2 on P, this is a paradigm issue. A general scope E may imply that claims which transcend individual situations are more useful. A local scope E may imply that local claims inspire more confidence and that it is for the reader, not the writer, to contemplate transferability.

8.5.3 Managing the evaluation

Realisations of E may be seen as occurring on a continuum whose poles are

invite<----->supply.

Those towards the supply end make the evaluative statements fairly baldly, thus explicitly providing the basis for a claim. Extracts iii, iv and v, quoted in

the previous subsection, are all of this type. Let us contrast them with the following two extracts, which are both nearer to the invite end of the continuum:

vi In this article, I have tried to demonstrate the value of teacher mentorship schemes for in-service teacher development in situations where there are few opportunities for professional growth. (source: Moon 1994:354)

vii In this section of the paper, I have tried to show that in the major components of role-playing — the language used, the roles assumed, and the functioning audience — there is an artificiality in the communicative process, transcending the previous discussion of whether the role-playing situation is too realistic or too pretentious.(source: Al-Arishi 1994:344)

By using phrases such as "I have tried", the writers of extracts vi and vii invite the reader to judge that the writer has succeeded. The extracts are, of course, metatextual; at the same time as inviting evaluation, they restate the intent of the article. Both functions are fulfilled simultaneously.

Invite evaluations do not explicitly provide the basis for a claim. Rather, they pause metaphorically to obtain the reader's agreement that a basis for a claim exists. The assumption, congruent with this genre's construction of its author as an expert, is that agreement will indeed be forthcoming and so the claim can proceed.

8.5.4 Implications of choices

Choice along the invite<-> supply continuum may be interpreted as a matter of discourse community positioning, since — especially when seen in the context of the *scope* of E — it has implications for what is communicated about a writer's attitude to the relationship between data and claims. So, the writers of extract iii feel confident to explicitly claim that their management training was successful, on the basis of feedback from participants. The writer of extract v feels confident to claim, on the basis of his own classroom research, that his needs analysis techniques were successful in his class and are feasible for other general English classes. The writer of extract vi has shown (in R) how her teacher-mentorship scheme worked in one context, and she prefers to invite reader agreement for her claim that it could work in similar contexts. The writer of extract vii has put forward an analysis, and he prefers to invite reader agreement for his general claim about the validity of role play. The writers of extract iv have shown (in R) how their scales worked in a trial test

administration, and on the basis of this they feel confident to claim that the scale type is useful. These are all examples of discourse community positioning.

8.5.5 The omission of E

In my corpus not all articles have a clearly isolable main E. I did not find rigid rules about which article types were most likely to have one, but I did find tendencies. A separate E section seems most likely in articles that talk about an action or procedure, and less likely in articles devoted to discussing a state of affairs or a problem, or to evaluating someone else's work. Although a statement such as the foregoing is not a watertight guide, it may still be a useful consideration for a writer making a choice about their text.

The possibility of omitting an explicit main E seems to me to provide support for the notion of realisation of E along the invite<->supply continuum. Texts in this genre without clearly isolable E sections can be understood as the most extreme form of invite evaluations — the writer does not even feel it necessary to state the invitation. The writer knows that the reader knows that the making of a claim is part of the *raison d'être* of the text.

8.5.6 Concluding comments on E

In this section, I have specified that it is 'final' rather than 'ongoing' evaluations which have the illocution of claim. I have argued that the illocutions of evaluate and claim may be realised along a continuum whose poles are invite<->supply and that choices along this continuum, particularly when seen in the light of the scope of E, are part of discourse community positioning.

8.6 Managing suggestion in R

I have left the R element until last because it is the central one. As I have attempted to show throughout this chapter, all of the other elements of the text work to 'help' the main contribution which is seen in R.

There is a great deal to say about R. I will, in time, discuss an illocutionary continuum for it analogous to those seen for the other elements. First, however, it is necessary to look the notion of different types of R. This is an important idea which leads to the possibility of categorising some significant sub-possibilities of the TESOL article genre and links back to the illocutionary continua which have been discussed for some of the other elements of text.

I will, therefore, spend quite some time on types of R and the implications of this before going on to look at an illocutionary continuum for R, and examining choices along it in the context of discourse community positioning.

8.6.1 Types of R

Perhaps in any discourse analysed using the problem-solution pattern, the most obvious interpretation of R is as actions, or procedures: an active 'solution' to a 'problem' in the everyday sense of those words.

When analysing *ELT Journal* articles, I did indeed find a number of R sections which fitted this idea. These were methodology articles: those whose contribution is the suggestion of a concrete teaching idea. This was the type of article studied by Edge (1986, 1989) and which gave rise to his original characterisation of such articles in terms of the SPRE pattern.

In my corpus, I found a number of articles which did not have R sections that could be understood as descriptions of actions or procedures. In order to describe these articles in terms of the SPRE pattern, I looked for what appeared to be their main contribution and interpreted this as R. This process allowed me to discern a pattern in the 'types' of R that appeared in the corpus.

The types of R I found may be described as follows:

Action-type Rs which detail a course of action or a procedure. Their force or illocutionary point is to advocate similar courses of action in appropriate circumstances.

Rationale-type Rs which explain and detail the reasons for a course of action or approach. The course of action/ approach is usually the author's own, and the force or illocutionary point is also to advocate similar courses of action in appropriate circumstances.

Analysis-type Rs which interpret, explore and try to explain a state of affairs: often a state of affairs which is considered problematic. They aim to increase our understanding, without necessarily advocating action. Their force or illocutionary point is to try to persuade readers of the validity of their perspective.

Evaluation-type Rs in which the author evaluates work outside themselves. The evaluation 'target' is usually the specific work of another person(s), but may also be a well-known approach or technique, such as role-play activities. Their force or illocutionary point is also to try to convince readers of the validity of their perspective.

I will now provide some examples of these different types of R. There is, of course, a particular difficulty with quoting from R sections: they are very long! I will attempt to solve this difficulty by contextualising the extracts by quoting, usually from the abstract, the author's own words about the purpose of the article. I will explore the link between this type of metatext and the R section of an article in more detail in section 8.6.4 of this chapter.

The following is an example of an action type R:

i (From an article which "describes some practical guidelines [for the production of in-house self-access materials] in a large scale self access project in Malaysia.")

As a general strategy to ensure quality in the project we gradually developed a modified system of *total quality control*. What was essential was to get quality control as far back into the early stages of the process as possible. Too often we had seen material go through conception, composition, and final draft, only to discover serious defects at the very end of the process — many of them having crept in at the early stages. So the answer was to have quality control at different stages of the production process, starting from the very beginning. We found that, in general, materials production followed this route:

1. choice of source material
2. decision about what to use material for
3. manipulation of material to suit intent
4. writing and re-writing
5. final presentation
6. proof-reading

We realised that quality control had to be implemented at each of these stages, initially by the writer and his or her peers, and later by a central quality control group. In our residential materials production workshops we now have a system of:

1. Peer-group quality control in which peers from the same writing group vet material at stages 1 to 5.
2. Inter-group quality control to monitor stages 1 to 5 already controlled by the peer group.
3. Final quality control by a limited and experienced group, followed by proof-reading: a very important but sometimes underestimated task.

The material might be returned to the writer at any of these stages but hopefully and in practice, that tends to happen at the peer-group quality control stage. In this way, as a general rule, only good material reaches

the final quality control stage. Time is saved; face is saved. (source: Lum and Brown 1995:154-155).

The extract describes a set of procedures which achieve the writers' stated goals of ensuring good quality materials. They are described in sufficient detail to allow readers to recreate something similar if they wished. There is an implication that similar procedures could indeed help others in appropriate circumstances to achieve a similar goal.

Here is an example of a rationale type R:

ii (From an article about literature in language education which "focus[es] on just one issue of cardinal importance: why did we use teenage books?")

Motivating themes

We make no bones about our commitment to a language pedagogy which recognises that people learn things best when they want to learn them. Teenage books, not only in their language but also in their genres, themes and plots, satisfy the interests of the average teenager. In Finland, as in many other countries, language classes are unstreamed mixed ability classes, and the pleasures and interests of the average teenager are what the teacher has to start from. Some learners have more sophisticated reading habits and, as we suggested earlier, there are teenage books of some complexity and literary merit to which a teacher can refer them. But many other pupils read hardly anything at all. If introduced to 'heavy' books, they may lose interest in reading altogether.

The use of 'light' teenage books has been discussed by Moss (1989) in connection with English lessons for native-English speakers but her argument applies for foreign learners as well. She says that with learners up to the age of sixteen, teachers should not so much strive to cover a large body of texts as to explore the human themes which 'ring a bell' — for instance bullying, prejudice, loneliness, and friendship. While the pupils are gradually becoming accustomed to the other culture, the teacher of foreign languages should be establishing contact with his or her personal feelings. Just as in L1 teaching, as described by Moss (ibid), the centre of attention should be less on a teenage book for its own sake than on the young reader of the book, a view which closely corresponds to recent literary-theoretical insights into the pragmatics of reception. Each reader is seen as creating a partly personal meaning from texts, and as evaluating them in ways that are partly personal as well: the qualities of a text are not absolute and once-and-for-all. This is one reason why it is important, in encouraging the habit of reading, to accept what pupils themselves read (if they read), to let them motivate their own choice of books, and to show respect for their choice. (source: Ronnqvist & Sell 1994: 128-129)

In isolation, this extract looks as if it could be a long BR section: giving the reasons for the action (using teenage books) that the writers have described or will describe in detail. But in fact the article never does talk about the action in detail: its main point, its contribution, is precisely a discussion of reasons for the decision. I therefore categorise the article as having a rationale-type R, whose force is to ask readers to consider taking a similar decision if they are in appropriate circumstances.

Here is an example of an analysis type R:

iii (From an article which "describes one particular INSET course and the reactions of the participating teachers one year later" and "suggests that very few of the ideas presented on the course were taken up in the way anticipated by the tutors, mainly due to the mediating effects of the participants' own beliefs about teaching and learning".)

Labelling

Some teachers had clearly just applied a term they had picked up on the course to an activity they were already doing. For example, one teacher described her standard procedure of teaching reading as follows: '[I] let them read silently, and after finishing [the] reading materials I ask them what does the writer in the first paragraph tell us. It's just what you call skimming... getting the main point of each paragraph'. The two terms picked up on the course ('skimming' and 'getting the main idea') are used synonymously to describe a text-summarising activity common in Indonesian classrooms.

Another example of 'labelling' will be familiar to many teacher trainers. This teacher claimed to be 'using the communicative approach... to increase the courage of the students to speak, for example, I ask them to read the text, 'stand up please', or 'just sit in your seat', and so on'. It appears that she considered her long-standing practice of having students read texts aloud to be 'communicative', an interpretation of the term quite different from that put forward on the INSET course. (source: Lamb 1995:75)

Looking at these paragraphs in isolation, one might assume that they form the P section of their article. When reading the whole article, however, this interpretation does not seem appropriate: the *bulk* of the article, its main contribution, is a set of arguments of which the above extract is one example. I therefore categorise the article as having an analysis type R, which explores the issues of input and intake on INSET courses using examples from a particular study. Its aim is to increase readers' understanding of the kinds of difficulties that can occur and the reasons for them.

Finally, here is an example of an evaluation type R:

iv (From an article which "examines current teaching models for intonation on questions, as exemplified in a range of published ELT materials, and discusses one area of intonation on questions which is frequently neglected for teaching purposes: a falling tone on yes/no questions.")

The grammatical approach

This, perhaps the dominant approach, is based on a model which seeks to make a correlation between the grammatical type of question and the intonation pattern chosen. For example *Headway Intermediate Pronunciation*, unit 2.7, provides an exercise on 'Rising and falling intonation on questions'. Learners are asked to listen to two types of questions, *wh-* and yes/no, and to decide on the tone used for each. They are then asked to formulate a rule about this. The answer key states:

Questions with the answer *yes* or *no* go **up** at the end.

Questions starting with a *wh-* word (eg *what, where, which, who, how*, etc. go **down** at the end (p89)

Similar explanations occur in *Pronunciation in Action* (186-7), *Workout intermediate* (p23), and *Sounds English* (p18).

The major problem with this simple grammar/intonation model is that it does not work in a number of cases. To indicate this, we can examine two examples of authentic interactions in which *wh-* and yes/no questions were used. The first example comes from a televised chat show interview, during which sixteen questions were asked by the interviewer: seven *wh-* and nine yes/no. As table 1 shows, of the seven *wh-* questions used, six carried a falling tone, which corresponds well with the grammatical rule given above. However, for the yes/no questions we find that of nine examples, four carried a falling tone, which contradicts the teaching rule. (source: Thompson 1995: 236)

The extract is clearly evaluative. It does not look like the E section of an article, because the object of evaluation is not the writer's own work. It *could* be a negatively evaluated R, discussed in detail and then discarded to make room for the writer's own proposal. An alternative proposal is indeed forthcoming in the article, but it takes up rather less space than the evaluation of the work of others. I feel that the evaluation of others' work in this article is not 'merely' to make space for the writer's own contribution, but is *itself* part of the main contribution of the article. I categorise this article as having *both* an evaluation type R *and* an action type R, with the evaluation type being the most important. The notion that an article may have more than one R will be discussed in detail in the next subsection.

The categories of R are fuzzy, there are places where they blend in to each other. I cannot be sure that another analyst would categorise all the R sections I have looked at in exactly the same way that I have. It is therefore important to

remember that this is a writer-oriented descriptive model: one of its pedagogic purposes is to assist a writer to gain a sense of the contribution they want to make and to ensure that all sections of their text work together towards that goal. If a writer can identify their own text with one or more of these categories, they will have a powerful way of keeping their text on task.

8.6.2 More than one R

I suggested in the last subsection that Thompson 1995 is an article with two Rs. In my corpus, this is not unusual: I found a number of articles which combined two different types of R section, though none which combined more than two. Sometimes each of the types had equal weight (measured in terms of how long they were), but more often one type seemed to be a 'main' R and the other type a 'secondary' R. By far the most frequent combination was of analysis type with action type.

At this point, let me provide some figures to try and quantify the above statements. In *ELT Journal* in 1994, I found that 28 articles out of 31 were analysable using my model. Of those 28, I categorised 10 articles as having combined analysis and action type Rs; 5 as having analysis type Rs; 4 as having action types; 4 as having evaluation types; 3 as having rationale/analysis combinations; and 2 as having rationale types. This categorisation was by no means cut and dried, but it was possible. In the next subsection, I will illustrate those figures with some examples from different article types, containing both single and dual Rs.

In section 8.6.1, in my description of rationale, analysis and to some extent evaluation type Rs, I suggested that there is a resonance between these different types of R and other elements of the SPRE pattern — so that an extract from an analysis type R seen out of context may have the appearance of a P section, etc. This notion of resonance gives an interesting angle on how a text may come to have two Rs.

In section 8.3.3 I looked at what I there categorised as the P section of Upshur & Turner 1995, on difficulties with rating scales. I attempted to show that the basic P statement "In general, commonly employed rating scales present major problems of reliability and validity..." (Upshur & Turner 1995:5) was taken up and discussed in detail over two pages. When I discussed that extract in section 8.3.3, I categorised it as a strongly invent P: now I would like to take that statement even further and say that it is *such* a strongly invent P, so much part

of the *contribution* of the article, that it is better to categorise it as an analysis type R. So that if a writer devotes a great deal of space and time to (for example) P, this element ceases to 'just' make common ground and identify an issue, and becomes part of the main contribution of the article. In the Upshur & Turner case, the functions of identifying and building common ground come to be carried by the basic P statement ("In general, commonly employed..."(p5) and the elaboration of that statement takes on different functions, as part of the main contribution of the article. The elaboration of P 'becomes' part of R.

8.6.3 Types of article

Because R is the central element of the texts under discussion, the proposal that different types of R exist leads naturally on to discussion about different types of article. An article with an analysis type R is easily referred to as an analysis-type article. The discussion of different types of R therefore enables a discussion of sub-possibilities within the TESOL article genre. Here are some examples from the corpus, most of which have already been quoted from in this chapter.

Some action-focused articles are:

Carey and Dabor 1995: Management education; an approach to improved English language teaching. This article describes an in-service course which aimed to improve English teaching in Sierra Leone by working not directly with teachers, but with heads of departments.

Seedhouse 1995: Needs analysis and the general English classroom. This article shows a way of conducting needs analysis in the EGP classroom that yields specific, and therefore useful, data.

Cotterall 1995: Developing a course strategy for learner autonomy. This article describes and discusses mechanisms for promoting learner autonomy in the context of an EAP course at Victoria University, Wellington.

Some examples of rationale-focused articles are:

Ronnqvist & Sell 1994: Teenage books for teenagers: reflections on literature in language education. This article discusses why it is appropriate and desirable to use books written for native speaker teenagers with teenage language learners. All of the article is devoted to this argument, so I categorise it as rationale focused.

Murdoch 1994: Language development provision in teacher training curricula. 3 of the 6.5 pages of this article are devoted to a discussion of reasons why such language development provision is necessary. There is a brief section (one paragraph) making suggestions as to how this might be done, but this does not seem to me to be enough to be labelled an action type R. I therefore categorise the article as rationale type.

Some analysis-focused articles are:

Hyde 1994: The place of culture in ELT in Morocco. This article portrays a situation in Morocco in which English is perceived as a cultural threat, and describes prevalent responses to the threat. Because these are seen as inadequate, the situation is problematised. The final part of the article (6 paragraphs of a total 32) proposes an alternative response. Therefore I suggest that there is a primary analysis focus and a secondary action focus.

Prodromou 1995: The backwash effect: from testing to teaching. This article asserts that the backwash effect of language tests is typically very negative and then devotes 9 of its 12 pages to explaining and examining the reasons for this. The final 3 pages are suggestions for teaching procedures which might minimise the difficulty. This article therefore has a primary analysis focus and a secondary action focus.

Lamb 1995: The consequences of inset. Starting from the well-known problem that ideas presented on inset courses are typically not taken up, this article used data from a particular investigation to offer explanations of why this should be so. Out of 35 paragraphs, only the final one concerns itself with suggestions as to how to improve things. I therefore categorise the article as analysis focused.

Some evaluation-focused articles are:

Thompson 1995: Teaching intonation on questions. This article surveys and evaluates the teaching of question intonation in a number of ELT coursebooks. This evaluation, which broadly takes up 5 of the total 7.5 pages, is predominantly negative. The final 2.5 pages propose an alternative model. This article, then, has a primary evaluation focus and a secondary action focus.

Al-Arishi 1995: Role-play, real-play and surreal-play in the ESOL classroom. This article characterises and evaluates two approaches to role-play in the

classroom. Both of these are negatively evaluated, and this is developed into an argument against role play itself. Alternatives are not offered, so this article is categorised as evaluation focused.

Lansley 1994: Collaborative development: an alternative to phatic discourse and the art of Co-operative development. This article negatively evaluates Edge's (1992) co-operative development, arguing that it is dangerously relativistic. Developed alternatives are not offered (despite the promise of the title!), so I categorise the article as evaluation focused.

The notion of types of R, then, makes it possible to sub-categorise articles in the TESOL article genre in terms of their focus and illocutionary point.

It could of course be argued that it is not appropriate to suggest what looks like a closed set of focuses for realisations of a genre. I would suggest that the justification for positing a finite set like this can itself be found in Hoey (1983). Hoey claims that certain patterns of discourse organisation are very frequent because they are culturally privileged, and vice versa. These patterns do not account for every single well-formed text, but because they are culturally privileged deviations from them can be seen as marked. There are also many possibilities for text focus and illocutionary point in the TESOL article genre, and yet certain possibilities appear to recur regularly. These recurring possibilities are thus worthy of attention.

Categories similar to the above have been used before to differentiate between types of articles. McCabe (1995) in a newsletter article aiming to encourage more people to write TESOL articles, suggests that new writers might consider three possibilities: describe a successful teaching procedure, explain how a particular teaching difficulty was solved, or evaluate a textbook. The first of these would clearly lead to an action-focused article, the second to an action focus with possibly a secondary analysis focus, and the third to an evaluation focus.

Benson 1994, again in an article giving advice to new writers, suggests that there exists a limited number of established ways of writing up research, and that editors might favour articles which fit into recognisable types. He suggests, for example, "how to" articles (which would be action focused) or state-of-the-art articles (which could be analysis or evaluation focused).

In his feedback on my self-access materials (see chapter 11) Bob Jones points out that *ELT Journal's* "Notes for contributors" seem to privilege precisely that analysis-action type structure which I found most frequently in the corpus:

Articles focusing on aspects of language ... are also welcome, so long as they do not require specialist knowledge of linguistics, and so long as they are not purely descriptive or analytical. Readers are interested in how these points may be or have been realised in actual classes and in the learning or teaching procedures involved. (ELTJ 49/1: 99 as quoted and italicised by Bob Jones in his feedback to me).

It is arguable, then, that the TESOL article genre privileges not only the creation of relative newness as an overarching goal, but also certain particular ways of going about that goal. Therefore a majority of realisations in the genre have one or two of the above focuses as their overall illocutionary point.

To the extent that the above statement is true, it suggests that an examination of sub-possibilities of a genre is an important source of insight into the current disciplinary paradigm. By telling us for example what kind of situation a discipline sees as difficulties or goals worth writing about, such an analysis would inform about the ideology of the discipline (Kay 1995). Peck MacDonald (1987) in an article entitled "Problem definition in academic writing" argues that disciplines may be characterised on the basis of which real-world issues they tend to problematise and how much consensus exists within the discipline as to which these issues are.

The way of thinking represented by Kay and Peck MacDonald may be extended to include all the four focuses proposed for TESOL articles. A survey of action focused articles could tell us what issues tend to give rise to most ideas in terms of procedures. A survey of evaluation focused articles might indicate areas where there is dispute about valid approaches. A survey of analysis focused articles might show which areas are seen to require more exploration before ways forward can be suggested. A survey of rationale focused articles might indicate decisions which are perceived as contentious and therefore in need of lengthy explanation.

If the categorisation of sub-possibilities is accurate new writers are likely to observe the fact, consciously or otherwise, and write accordingly themselves. Reviewers are likely to respond favourably to articles which fit one of the focuses clearly. The culturally privileged status of these focuses is thus self-perpetuating and in some ways exclusive: a case of genre telling us "what ends we may have" (Miller 1984 p165)

8.6.4 Metatext as a pointer to R and a signal of focus

TESOL articles contain metatextual statements. This comment is obvious, but it is necessary to be more explicit about what I mean by metatext. Complex definitions and taxonomies are possible (eg Moreno 1997); in this model I am simply using the term *metatext* to refer to explicit statements made about the whole text or part of it. For example "This article describes an in-service teaching initiative in Sierra Leone, West Africa" (Carey & Dabor 1995:37) or "I shall deal with each of these problems in turn and suggest how they might be addressed" (Holliday 1994:5). Such statements have traditionally been seen as indications of content and signposts to article structure, but Beavais (1989) argues that they may also be seen as indicators of illocutionary force. He suggests that the role of metatext is to reveal the writer's communicative intention, and defines metatext as "illocutionary force indicators that identify expositive illocutionary acts" (p15). Vande Koppel (1985) touches on a similar point when he classifies metatext according to functional criteria, and includes the category of "illocution markers" (as quoted in Mauranen 1993 p9). Myers (1992 b), writing about Biology articles, argues that metatextual sentences with a basic pattern similar to those I quote above should be seen as marking the article's main knowledge claim. It can be argued, then, that metatextual statements may show how particular sections fit into the whole discourse or indicate the illocutionary point of a whole text.

Illocutionary force indicators clearly have a particularly important role to play in written discourse. In face to face or other real-time communication, speakers have immediate feedback as to how the illocutionary force of their utterances has been perceived by hearers. In written articles, they do not. The illocutionary meta-statement may then be interpreted as an attempt by the writer to make sure that the reader does understand the illocutions that the writer wishes to communicate. One function of metatext in TESOL articles is to make the overall focus, and thus the illocutionary point, of the article clear. The metatext may indicate whether the force of the article is more to advocate an action, or to try and convince about a perspective. It may also indicate how this is achieved, ie whether the article tends to be an action, rationale, analysis or evaluation type.

These ideas are based on Austin's (1975) notion of "uptake". He points out (p117) that a given illocutionary act may not be construed as eg a warning unless the intended audience *hears what is said and interprets it as a warning*. Illocutionary acts, then, require uptake. In this model the illocutionary meta-statement is treated as an explicit attempt, by the writer, to secure uptake.

Mauranen (1993) in a comparative study of the use of metatext by Anglo-American and Finnish writers, finds that Anglo-American writers tend to use more metatext than Finnish writers. Duszak (1994) in a comparative study of introductions to articles by Anglo-American and Polish writers, also finds that the Anglo-Americans use more metatext. She sees the Anglo-Americans as declaring their rhetorical goals early on in the text. Kaplan et al (1994) and Bittencourt dos Santos (1996) writing on conference and research paper abstracts respectively, both highlight the importance of metatextual statements of the point or purpose of the conference presentation or research paper. Duszak, Mauranen and Kaplan et al all link their findings to Hinds' (1987) notion of writer-responsible or reader-responsible cultures. The TESOL article genre, with its strong links to Anglo-American academic culture and yet with its worldwide and highly heterogeneous audience, can surely be classed as writer-responsible; it is not surprising that texts within it explicitly signal their focuses and illocutionary points by using metatext.

Let us now actually look, then, at some metatextual signals of the focus of a text. I will examine metatext in the abstract and in the main body of the article. Readers may recall that in section 8.6.1 on types of R I contextualised the extracts from R by using metatext. The four statements are quoted again below: the first, third and fourth are from the abstract, the second from the body of the article.

i This article describes some practical guidelines [for the production of in-house self-access materials] in a large scale self access project in Malaysia." (Lum & Brown 1995)

ii Here we focus on just one issue of cardinal importance: 'why did we use teenage books?' (Ronnqvist & Sell 1994)

iii This article describes one particular INSET course and the reactions of the participating teachers one year later" and "suggests that very few of the ideas presented on the course were taken up in the way anticipated by the tutors, mainly due to the mediating effects of the participants' own beliefs about teaching and learning. (Lamb 1995)

iv This paper examines current teaching models for intonation on questions, as exemplified in a range of published ELT materials, and discusses one area of intonation on questions which is frequently neglected for teaching purposes: a falling tone on yes/no questions. (Thompson 1995)

The abstracts from which extracts i, iii and iv are taken are typical of abstracts in the corpus in that they contain just one or two sentences of metatext. I found

other abstracts which were all metatext, and still others which contained no metatext at all — but the majority, like these, contained one or two metatextual statements.

These 'selective' metatextual statements appear to be very reliable pointers to R and indicators of illocutionary point. The fact that the statements are made in terms of the *purpose* of the article, or in terms of what it *does*, is a further support to the contention that these long texts may be in one sense interpreted as unified speech acts. For writers, awareness of the expectation that an isolated metatextual statement will point towards R is of course useful. Most of us have experienced the frustration of picking up a clue like this only to find it is not borne out as we read the actual text.

An example of such 'misleading' metatext seems to me to appear in the abstract of Lansley 1994: "Collaborative development: and alternative to phatic discourse and the art of co-operative development." The abstract is of an 'all metatext' type, four of its five sentences being metatextual. The last sentence reads "I will conclude by offering my alternative of collaborative development through empathic debate", thus leading the reader to expect an action type R in addition to the evaluation type R which was signalled in the previous sentences. But on my reading at least, no alternative set of techniques is put forward: the article is entirely evaluative.

In conclusion, I would argue that illocutionary signals such as the ones discussed in this subsection are undoubtedly useful in long written monologues. A writer cannot guarantee that a reader will identify the focus and illocutionary point of a text without help, and metatext is one good way of signalling it. For writers, it is useful to develop a clear idea of the focus of their text, and then to ensure that both the title and any metatext in the abstract, or indeed elsewhere, are pointing readers towards that focus.

8.6.5 Managing the contribution

In this subsection I will look at an illocutionary continuum for the R element and attempt to show how choices along it relate to issues of discourse community positioning. As I will explore here, the continuum posited is relevant for all four types of R.

Realisations of R can be seen as occurring on a continuum whose poles are

demonstrate<----->speculate

Realisations nearer to the demonstrate end of the continuum tend to be strongly linked to a context, be based on a specific writer experience, to take a relatively narrow focus and look at it in detail. Realisations nearer to the speculate end tend to be more abstract, to be deduced from general principles and/or from the writer's state-of-the-art knowledge, and not to be linked to a particular context. In terms of formal features, more speculate Rs are more likely to include modals, hedging expressions, and indefinite nominal groups. Demonstrate Rs are more likely to refer directly to data, and to have a 'staged' structure. They quite often use the past tense.

I will now provide some examples of extracts from R sections nearer to each end of the continuum. For economy, I will refer back to the R extracts quoted in the previous subsection, and contrast them with different approaches.

Here is the action type R extract which appeared in the last subsection:

i (From an article which "describes some practical guidelines [for the production of in-house self-access materials] in a large scale self access project in Malaysia.")

As a general strategy to ensure quality in the project we gradually developed a modified system of *total quality control*. What was essential was to get quality control as far back into the early stages of the process as possible. Too often we had seen material go through conception, composition, and final draft, only to discover serious defects at the very end of the process — many of them having crept in at the early stages. So the answer was to have quality control at different stages of the production process, starting from the very beginning. We found that, in general, materials production followed this route:

1. choice of source material
2. decision about what to use material for
3. manipulation of material to suit intent
4. writing and re-writing
5. final presentation
6. proof-reading

We realised that quality control had to be implemented at each of these stages, initially by the writer and his or her peers, and later by a central quality control group. In our residential materials production workshops we now have a system of:

1. Peer-group quality control in which peers from the same writing group vet material at stages 1 to 5.
2. Inter-group quality control to monitor stages 1 to 5 already controlled by the peer group.
3. Final quality control by a limited and experienced group, followed by proof-reading: a very important but sometimes underestimated task.

The material might be returned to the writer at any of these stages but hopefully and in practice, that tends to happen at the peer-group quality control stage. In this way, as a general rule, only good material reaches the final quality control stage. Time is saved; face is saved. (source: Lum and Brown 1995:154-155).

This extract may be categorised as a more demonstrate R. It is strongly tied to a particular context and to a lived experience of the writers, and is very detailed at the level of procedure. Its force of suggestion for similar action in appropriate circumstances is via the writers' detailing of their own experience.

The following extract is also an action type R, but I feel it is situated nearer to the speculate end of the continuum:

ii (From an article which "discusses the use and value of text reconstruction [software] programmes").

Three ways of exploiting texts after a reconstruction

A reconstructed text can be a valuable language learning resource, since learners are intimately acquainted with both its form and purpose. There are three possible ways of using this resource, any or all of which may be used following TR [Text Reconstruction]. The first option is for learners to use the texts, and the language which the TR task has generated to complete further meaningful tasks. This provides an opportunity to use that linguistic knowledge already activated in part by TR in a creative and communicative way, and thus contribute to its automatization and to interlanguage development. The obvious use of the knowledge of the textual patterns is for learners to produce their own similar texts on related topics. The content or information from the TR text could also be exploited, eg in writing a reply to a letter, or preparing a summary from an abstract, or giving an oral telling of a written story, or a spoken report of a process.

As explicit knowledge is seen as having an important role in language learning (Ellis 1990; Rutherford 1987), the second option for exploitation involves the use of short texts for language awareness-raising activities. These may involve learners in analysis and examination of the texts, and in making their own generalisations about the language. The items selected for analysis will vary according to the texts and the needs of learners. As the texts used in TR are short, any analysis may extend to off-screen texts, to enable rules to be formed and checked from wider evidence. Tasks which involve analysis of form are part of contemporary practice, eg students are instructed to find all examples of the present perfect in the text and then classify the different uses; or to find all the prepositions which express place, position, or direction. Column 4 of Tables 1 and 2 gives examples of both productive follow-on tasks and consciousness-raising activities.

[Goes on to discuss a third option]. (Source: Brett 1994:333)

This extract talks about general possibilities for action, and is not tied to any context. Via the references it contains, it marks its suggestion for action as deriving from SLA principles. It discusses a wide range of action, but is not particularly detailed. It uses concrete examples, perhaps as an attempt to pin the wide range of action down. These, however, remain hypothetical.

Let us now look again at the analysis-type R extract that was quoted in subsection 8.6.1 above, and compare it with another one. I will quote them both and then discuss them together.

iii (From an article which "describes one particular INSET course and the reactions of the participating teachers one year later" and "suggests that very few of the ideas presented on the course were taken up in the way anticipated by the tutors, mainly due to the mediating effects of the participants' own beliefs about teaching and learning".)

Labelling

Some teachers had clearly just applied a term they had picked up on the course to an activity they were already doing. For example, one teacher described her standard procedure of teaching reading as follows: '[I] let them read silently, and after finishing [the] reading materials I ask them what does the writer in the first paragraph tell us. It's just what you call skimming... getting the main point of each paragraph'. The two terms picked up on the course ('skimming' and 'getting the main idea') are used synonymously to describe a text-summarising activity common in Indonesian classrooms.

Another example of 'labelling' will be familiar to many teacher trainers. This teacher claimed to be 'using the communicative approach... to increase the courage of the students to speak, for example, I ask them to read the text, 'stand up please', or 'just sit in your seat', and so on'. It appears that she considered her long-standing practice of having students read texts aloud to be 'communicative', an interpretation of the term quite different from that put forward on the INSET course. (Source: Lamb 1995: 75)

iv (From an article which "assesses the concept of 'backwash' in language teaching, looks at the consequences of testing on teaching in a broad educational context, and suggests that 'negative backwash' makes good language teaching more difficult").

Characteristics of Testing and Teaching

In table 1, I summarise what I feel are the most important characteristics of the teaching and testing processes.

The qualities listed there under "Teaching" are based on my own observation of teachers, native-speakers and non-native speakers, in the context of a number of teacher training courses and on a survey I have been conducting with students into what makes a good language teacher.

I have also drawn on the work into effective teaching reported in Holt (1964), Peck (1988), Richards (1990), and Harmer (1991).

The features listed under "Testing" are those we normally associate with the backwash effect, with the addition of what I have referred to as covert symptoms of backwash.

Table 1

Testing	Teaching
exercises (multiple choice etc)	tasks
failure	success
weakness	strength
errorphobia	learning from error
marks	achievement
fear	confidence
anxiety	pleasure
teacher control	learner independence
textbook input	learner input
judgement	support (from teacher and peer group)
mistrust	rapproch
individualism, competition	the group, co-operation
impersonality	personalisation
insensitivity	sensitivity to learners
isolated sentences	text
fragments of text	whole texts
form	content
culture-bound	culture-sensitive
text + questions	lead-in, follow-up
solemnity	humour
boredom	interest
extrinsic motivation	intrinsic motivation
product	process

(source: Prodromou 1995: 18-19)

I feel that extract iii is an example of a more demonstrate R, extract iv of a more speculate R. Extract iii is tied to a particular context, to a specific study carried out by the writer. The points in extract iv are not context-specific, they are put forward as having a more 'general' truth.

In extract iv the analysis is marked as *derived from* the author's understanding of the principles of effective teaching (references to four sources and to personal research). In extract iii, the analysis *is a part of* personal research; there is a closer link to experience.

Extract iv works on disciplinary constructs. Many of the features listed in the table relate to TESOL-specific theory, and the placing of the terms in opposition

does so even more strongly. The fact that features are placed in opposition is a very wide generalisation, clearly deduced from principle rather than grounded in any particular experience. Particular experiences do not portray such symmetry. In extract iii, the analysis is linked to very particular data, some of which is made available to the reader via examples.

The Prodromou article from which extract iv is taken was also quoted in section 8.3.3 on P. I noted there that the P extract quoted was difficult to pin down as more recognise or more invent. On the basis of the R extract quoted here, it is perhaps possible to see what happens in the article: just as with Upshur & Turner 1995, the P idea is elaborated into an analysis type R. Therefore the recognise aspects of the basic P section do the work of building common ground, while the invent aspects prepare us for the development of the argument into a 'new' R.

Let us now look at evaluation type Rs. In section 8.6.1 above the following extract was quoted:

v (From an article which "examines current teaching models for intonation on questions, as exemplified in a range of published ELT materials, and discusses one area of intonation on questions which is frequently neglected for teaching purposes: a falling tone on yes/no questions.")

The grammatical approach

This, perhaps the dominant approach, is based on a model which seeks to make a correlation between the grammatical type of question and the intonation pattern chosen. For example *Headway Intermediate Pronunciation*, unit 2.7, provides an exercise on 'Rising and falling intonation on questions'. Learners are asked to listen to two types of questions, *wh-* and yes/no, and to decide on the tone used for each. They are then asked to formulate a rule about this. The answer key states:

Questions with the answer *yes* or *no* go up at the end.

Questions starting with a *wh-* word (eg *what, where, which, who, how, etc.* go down at the end (p89)

Similar explanations occur in *Pronunciation in Action* (186-7), *Workout intermediate* (p23), and *Sounds English* (p18).

The major problem with this simple grammar/intonation model is that it does not work in a number of cases. To indicate this, we can examine two examples of authentic interactions in which *wh-* and yes/no questions were used. The first example comes from a televised chat show interview, during which sixteen questions were asked by the interviewer: seven *wh-* and nine yes/no. As table 1 shows, of the seven *wh-* questions used, six carried a falling tone, which corresponds well with the grammatical rule given above. However, for the yes/no

questions we find that of nine examples, four carried a falling tone, which contradicts the teaching rule. (source: Thompson 1995: 236)

This extract seems to me to fall nearer to the demonstrate end of the continuum for R. It uses very detailed examples, both of the evaluation target (it virtually quotes from a coursebook) and also of the data used to show why the coursebook approach is inadequate. The evaluation is based on personal research, rather than for example on a more 'authoritative' consensus about intonation rules on questions. The reader has direct access to at least some of the data.

In contrast, an example of a more speculate approach to an evaluation type R may be found in Lansley 1994. This article "offers a critical review of some of the political, philosophical and linguistic pitfalls that could result from Edge's ideas on Co-operative Development in teacher development and in-service training" (p50). The R of the text is an argument, deduced from principles, about what could go wrong. By contrast a demonstrate R for the same article might have been the illustration of an actual experience that *did* go wrong.

Lastly, let us explore the continuum as related to rationale type Rs. The extract which we saw in section 8.6.1 above was:

vi (From an article about literature in language education which "focus[es] on just one issue of cardinal importance: why did we use teenage books?")

Motivating themes

We make no bones about our commitment to a language pedagogy which recognises that people learn things best when they want to learn them. Teenage books, not only in their language but also in their genres, themes and plots, satisfy the interests of the average teenager. In Finland, as in many other countries, language classes are unstreamed mixed ability classes, and the pleasures and interests of the average teenager are what the teacher has to start from. Some learners have more sophisticated reading habits and, as we suggested earlier, there are teenage books of some complexity and literary merit to which a teacher can refer them. But many other pupils read hardly anything at all. If introduced to 'heavy' books, they may lose interest in reading altogether.

The use of 'light' teenage books has been discussed by Moss (1989) in connection with English lessons for native-English speakers but her argument applies for foreign learners as well. She says that with learners up to the age of sixteen, teachers should not so much strive to cover a large body of texts as to explore the human themes which 'ring a bell' — for instance bullying, prejudice, loneliness, and friendship. While the pupils are gradually becoming accustomed to the other culture, the

teacher of foreign languages should be establishing contact with his or her personal feelings. Just as in L1 teaching, as described by Moss (ibid), the centre of attention should be less on a teenage book for its own sake than on the young reader of the book, a view which closely corresponds to recent literary - theoretical insights into the pragmatics of reception. Each reader is seen as creating a partly personal meaning from texts, and as evaluating them in ways that are partly personal as well: the qualities of a text are not absolute and once-and-for-all. This is one reason why it is important, in encouraging the habit of reading, to accept what pupils themselves read (if they read), to let them motivate their own choice of books, and to show respect for their choice. (source: Ronnqvist & Sell 1994: 128-129)

I feel that this extract is slightly nearer to the speculate end of the continuum, though it also has some demonstrate features. The writers link their response to their own context and experience, though at a very general level: they talk about "language classes" in Finland and about the "average teenager". They make reference to a source in the literature (Moss) as providing some of the principles behind their approach, and refer in general terms to "recent literary-theoretical insights".

In contrast, the rationale type R of Murdoch 1994 may be seen as falling nearer to the demonstrate end of the continuum. This R is an argument in favour of giving emphasis to language work in teacher training curricula which is based on data from a particular survey of language teacher trainees. The survey is considered in considerable detail. A speculate R for the same article might have been the argument developed from principles of language teacher education and referenced to sources in the literature.

8.6.6 Implications of choices

It is possible to see the ends of the demonstrate<->speculate continuum as representing two different approaches to knowledge-building in the discipline. Both approaches to R are intended to create a contribution which will relate to many people and be valuable in many contexts. But they do this in different ways. A very demonstrate R is a contribution which relies on its context-specificity and its detail to allow the reader to judge its value to them. A very speculate R is one which relies on the generality of underlying principles to ensure its value to the reader. This may be a culture-shift issue in our profession: one could argue that a speculate R still relates to the theory-application discourse that has been part of our profession for a long time, and that a demonstrate R links to ideas on the nature of research which have emerged more recently, and partly in response to the theory/application

discourse. This change is discussed by eg Clarke 1994, Edge 1986, Nunan 1991. This point is of course analogous to those made about the scope of P and E. So again, choices along the continuum for R are a matter of discourse community positioning.

8.6.7 Concluding comments on R

In this long section, I first explored the notions of different types of R and therefore of article. I attempted to show how metatextual statements may work as pointers to the focus and illocutionary point of an article. I then went on to look at an illocutionary continuum for the realisations of R, whose poles were labelled demonstrate<->speculate. I argued that choices along this continuum are part of discourse community positioning and paradigm alignment.

8.7 Newness

The notions of newness and familiarity have permeated all of this chapter, central as they are to the goal of the TESOL article genre under discussion. In this final section I would like to bring these notions to the centre of the stage. I will examine some of the common techniques writers use both to claim newness for their contribution, and to actually treat it as new. I will also consider ways in which these illocutionary intentions might fail.

8.7.1 Claiming newness in S and P

I argued above that although the illocutions of the S and P elements are to build common ground in the community, they can also play a significant role in presenting the contribution in R as new. In this subsection I will focus again on how this can be achieved.

8.7.1.1 Filling a gap

By asserting in the P section that little work has been done on a particular area, writers claim newness and value for their own R which does address the issue. This technique is fairly frequent in my corpus; here are two examples.

i Despite the popularity, longevity, proliferation, and apparent benefits of TR [Text Reconstruction] programs, there has been little recent discussion as to the best means of exploitation with learners. (source: Brett 1994:329)

ii There are very few accessible accounts of diary-keeping by teachers going about their ordinary business in what Schön calls the "swampy lowlands" despite the popularity of the teacher-as-researcher movement and increasing familiarity with classroom research techniques. (source: McDonagh 1994:58)

An article which fills a gap can be seen as valuable simply by virtue of its existence: it adds to the total fund of knowledge. The technique also carries a risk, however: readers who are aware of examples may be amused or irritated by the assertion that almost none exist. If the writer miscalculates here, then readers will be alienated and common ground will not be built, so that the exophoric illocution of the P element will be in danger of failing.

8.7.1.2 Putting things right

A second technique for using S and P to claim newness for R involves the writer in a claim that usual approaches to the issue under discussion are inadequate. Here is an example:

iii In attempting to evaluate the effectiveness of any educational innovation there is a tendency to opt for a *summative* type of evaluation. Generally, this involves selecting groups of students or teachers and administering appropriate tests at the beginning and end of the programme in order to investigate whether any changes found could be attributed to the innovation itself.

Partlett (1976, 1981), Cronbach (1976) and others have discussed the problems of conventional *summative* approaches to evaluation, where a treatment group is compared to a control group while holding a number of variables constant. [Goes on to discuss some of these problems]. (source: Williams & Burden 1994:22).

In this invent P, the writer is imputing a misguided approach to the profession as a whole. If the reader accepts these claims, then the writer's R will indeed seem extremely new and valuable. There is, of course, a danger of miscalculation: if the reader's own practice and that of their colleagues does not bear out the writer's generalised criticism, the reader may be offended at the accusation and irritated by the writer's apparent ignorance. In this case, the reader will be alienated and the exophoric illocution of the P element compromised. And of course, if the exophoric illocution of P is compromised that of R is also far less likely to succeed.

8.7.2 Writing R as new

The above section concentrated on claiming newness for R. I now want to concentrate on R sections themselves, and comment some features of language which indicate that the writer is treating the content of R as new.

8.7.2.1 Personalisation and hedging

Myers (1992) points out that in Biology articles, sentences where the writer refers to themselves using personal pronouns often mark the main knowledge claim of the article — a claim which the writer does not attribute to anyone else. Hyland (1996) and Crompton (1997) both argue that hedging may perform a similar function in academic writing, helping writers to "make a clear distinction between propositions already shared by the discourse community, which have the status of facts, and propositions to be evaluated by the discourse community, which only have the status of claims" (Crompton 1997 p274)

The following brief extracts from an R section illustrate the use of both of these techniques:

iv (From an article which "[presents] findings on cognitive development, and [links these] to language development and thus to the learning of a second language...)

My hypothesis* is that, because of fashion, commercial pressure and socio-economic development, the way we think of these types of clothing has changed in recent years in the following ways:
[Goes on to discuss the changes]. (source: Cameron 1994:35)

v (from the same article)

It seems to me that there are ways of writing and simplifying stories used with second language learners that are sympathetic to culturally determined basic level patterns and thus that retain features that assist learners...(source: Cameron 1994:36)

Personal pronouns and hedges, then, are two approaches which writers may use in R to mark their contribution as new and original. This point also relates, of course, to the description in sections 8.2.2 and 8.3.3 respectively of interpret Ss and invent Ps: there it was noted that both of these, which could contribute to the newness of the article, were more likely to use hedged statements.

8.7.2.2 Length

A further, if perhaps obvious, indication that an idea is being presented as new is the length of explanation it receives. The point can be illustrated by the treatment of the term "Covert Backwash" in the following extract:

vi (from the Prodromou article which "assesses the concept of "backwash" in language teaching, looks at the consequences of testing on teaching in a broad educational context, and suggests that "negative backwash" makes good language teaching more difficult".)

Covert backwash

The explicit consequences of the backwash effect are easily identifiable. The implicit consequences are more elusive, and more disturbing. Even if examination boards reduced the number of boring multiple-choice exercises, the examination class would still be in conflict with the teacher's desire to teach communicatively and humanistically. This is because covert testing will always be with us. It is a deep-seated, often unconscious process, which reflects unexamined assumptions about a wide range of pedagogic principles: how people learn, the relationship between learner and teacher, the nature of teacher authority, the importance of correction, the balance between form and content, the role of classroom management, and so on.

Basically, covert testing amounts to teaching a textbook as if it were a *testbook*. Usually the teacher is not fully aware of this process; in his or her mind there is a clear dividing line between a lesson which involves teaching and one which involves testing. I am using the latter term in a specific sense which includes both overt and covert backwash effects. Some examples of covert testing will show what I mean. I have observed many lessons where the teacher asks a question, receives a correct answer from a particular student, and then moves on to ask the next student the next question. The objective of this routine is to find out what the students know. This, and the lack of involvement of the rest of the class in the sequence, makes the activity more of an informal *assessment* than a *teaching* procedure. The absence of any lead-in or follow-up to the work done on a text is entirely typical of testing procedures.

[a third paragraph on the same theme follows]

(source: Prodromou 1995:15)

The writer's decision to devote so much space to a discussion of "covert backwash" is an indication of his belief that the idea is unfamiliar to the audience; the long, detailed explanation is an indication that this discussion is intended to contribute to the newness of the article. There are other indications of this too: the given/new sequence of the first two sentences of the extract, and the neologism at the beginning of the second paragraph.

8.7.2.3 Opposition

I sought to show in section 8.7.1.2 above how claims about the newness of Rs might be made using an "oppositional" technique. In this extract that same sense of opposition is integrated into R itself:

vi (from an article which "considers why such situations [of ELT becoming a vehicle for cultural imperialism] arise, and looks at possible ways of responding to them...with their inherent shortcomings...[and then] argue[es] for an alternative approach". This extract is part of the "alternative approach".)

Focusing on the learner not the language

There is a strong case for focusing on the learner as an integrated, whole person in the Moroccan school system. A bottom-up view of the realistic present and future needs of students would, I believe, lead one to the conclusion that in the modern world, in which countries are becoming more and more interconnected through economic forces and the media, students need to develop strategies in the classroom for dealing with the confusing and often overwhelming cultural pressures exerted by powerful Western nations. This is very different from the top-down ESP needs analysis approach [previously evaluated in the article], which would suggest that students only need to learn language specific to certain areas of academic study, or for certain professions. Without being equipped to deal with the cultural and ideological pressures from the outside world, most students will have wasted much of their time in the EFL classroom on a linguistic code they will never use. (source: Hyde 1994:303).

So in the above extract the writer not only presents part of his idea, but takes space to compare it favourably to another possibility which he has already evaluated negatively. Since space dedicated to criticising other ideas inevitably means less space available for presenting one's own, whether and how much to use this technique is an important tactical decision for writers.

8.7.3 Newness as an 'objective' concept

Throughout this section I have concentrated on the ways in which the writer may *present* ideas as new, and have given only secondary consideration to whether they are 'really' new. This is entirely appropriate, because newness is a relative concept; probably any ELT idea could be new to some people at some points in time.

A writer, however, cannot account for *all* the possible perspectives of *all* the possible readers of the text. Instead one of the tasks for an article writer, and indeed for a journal editor or reviewer, is to try and make a judgement about

how new particular ideas are likely to be for a majority of the journal readership at a given moment. This judgement is an important basis for decisions about how to present the ideas.

If a writer presents as new ideas which the reader finds familiar, then the reader may react unfavourably. A very clear example of this can be seen in an *ELT Journal* article of 1994, entitled "Second Language Acquisition Research: A response to Rod Ellis". This is a response to an interview with Ellis published in *ELT Journal* January 1993. In their 1994 article, the writers "welcome Ellis's contribution from research to classroom practice, but suggest that some of the assumptions he makes about current classroom practice are not accurate, and that a number of his ideas for "alternative" approaches to teaching grammar are already embedded in that practice." (p157)

The problem would seem to be clear: Ellis in his interview presented certain ideas as new, and — at least for some readers — they were not. Hopkins & Nettle's article is then an evaluation type, the evaluation 'target' being Ellis's view of ELT practice as reported in the interview. Let us follow this notion through by looking at Ellis's expression of an idea, and then Hopkins and Nettles' response:

vii What I think we need is an approach to grammar that is compatible with how one views SLA: and it is that, really, that I've been trying to think about in the last few years. One of the distinctions that I try to make is between the teaching of grammar through *practice* and the teaching of grammar through *consciousness raising*.

I should add that this particular distinction is not necessarily one that everyone using the term "grammar consciousness raising" would make, and that like so many other terms in language pedagogy, the term "grammar consciousness raising" is rather vague and is used with very different meanings. To me, the essential difference really rests on the role of learner production in grammar activities. What I mean is that we can envisage grammar activities that will require a learner to produce sentences exemplifying the grammatical feature that is the target of the activity. And that's what I mean by *practice*. Or we can envisage activities that will seem to get a learner to understand a particular grammatical feature, how it works, what it consists of, and so on, but not require that learner to actually produce sentences manifesting that particular structure. And that's what I mean by *consciousness raising*.

[Goes on to argue that CR is the more effective approach].

(source: Ellis 1993: 5-6)

This gave rise to the following from Hopkins & Nettle:

viii [After a summary of Ellis' argument, including quotations from the above extract]

Teachers *do* engage in the teaching of grammar through consciousness raising: especially in the case of "problematic" grammar, teachers will opt to present the language for *receptive* use, rather than *productive* use, at least initially. A good example of this might be a teacher highlighting the form and use of the structure "have something done" to help with the comprehension of a reading passage without making any productive demands on the learners. However, what is happening much more frequently in the contemporary EFL classroom is the *linking* of consciousness-raising and practice, often within the same lesson. The two are not mutually exclusive, and there are good reasons for this.... [continues to argue that both consciousness raising and practice are valuable]. (source: Hopkins & Nettle 1994:158).

What is apparent from these extracts is that for an R section to successfully do its job of creating newness is not simply a matter of appropriate presentation, skillful claims, and appropriate support from the other sections of the article. As well as doing all those things the writer must also make a judgement about the current state of thought and practice in the profession and make it accurately. Their perception about what is 'objectively' familiar and new to a certain community at a certain moment in time must broadly fit with that of their audience.

8.8 A retrospective overview of the model

This section is intended to be a complement to the introduction that was provided in chapter 7 section 7.1. Now that the model has been examined in detail, it is appropriate to reiterate some main points about it and to continue the task of situating it within the discipline of genre analysis and in the light of the descriptive purpose of the project: to produce a dynamic, purpose-oriented, community-sensitive, and pedagogically useful description of the TESOL article genre.

As one attempt at summary, I provide below a representation of the model in diagrammatic form. I have shown drafts of this diagram to various readers of this text and users of my pedagogic materials, with mixed results. Some have felt that it instantly elucidates the ideas, others that it adds nothing to the text, others that it is confusing. It is my own hope that it does indeed 'add nothing' to the text, but that it summarises the main ideas of that text in a visual format and

therefore may be of use to those who enjoy using visual representations as part of cognitive processing.

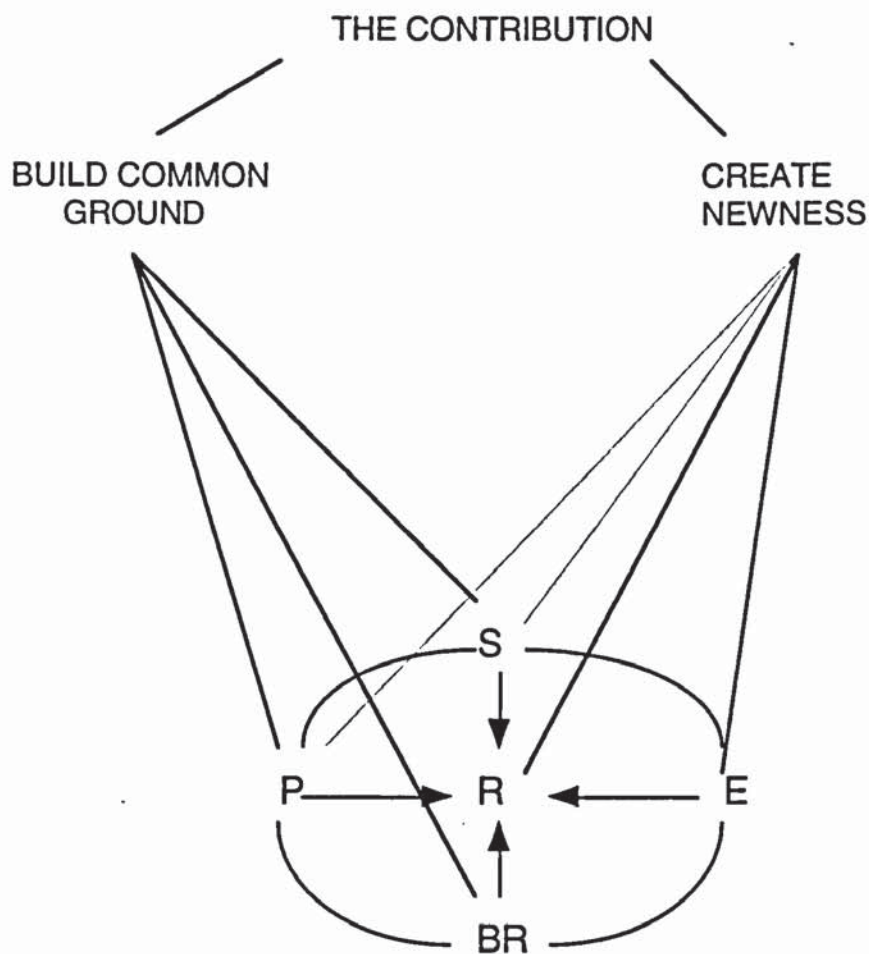


Figure 2: Diagrammatic representation of descriptive model

My model is a model of discourse purpose, which builds on a well-known model of discourse organisation. It makes use of a set of units of discourse organisation (Hoey's SPRE units) as a starting point for analysis, and its own concern is with the function of the text as seen via these elements.

It is a genre-specific model. The analytical tools which it proposes are derived from the study of data within a particular genre. However, it does not attempt to describe *all* the data present in realisations of that genre. I am not claiming that every illocution possible in a TESOL article is represented in the model. It deals with those illocutions that are relevant to the identified overall goal of the genre, and looks at these from a perspective which might assist people using it to reflect on and make choices about their writing.

It is not a model of the structure and staging of the genre. This point needs to be made explicit simply because such a large percentage of work in genre analysis

is to do with structure and staging. A number of genre analysts over a considerable period of time have argued that this direction of effort is appropriate: Sinclair & Coulthard (1975) Ventola (1989) and Davies (1995) all assert that the proper goal of genre analysis is the arrival at a description of the structural units of genres and their permitted combinations.

Because the model is not a model of structure, it itself cannot be seen as hierarchical or constitutive. Despite the pyramid-type shape of the diagram, there is no suggestion that elements named near the bottom are units which 'make up' elements named near the top. Indeed it will be noted that none of the elements which is actually named on the model is a directly observable linguistic exponent — even the SPRE elements are abstractions. And the upper levels of the model are very clearly pragmatic/ mental constructs rather than observable entities. The important thing on this model is the interplay between those named elements at each level and the lines which connect them. What the model attempts to grasp is the *nature* of that connection.

The model does not allow the data to be categorised in finite terms. It will not, for example, be possible to say "This R is 75% speculate". It will be possible to say that an R tends to the speculate end of the continuum, and to say what features of the text make it do so.

The model asserts that the named endophoric and exophoric illocutions are always what they are. This is because they are claimed to be *inherent to the genre*. The model therefore is of a schema, or of an ideal/virtual text. Individual texts may not fit the schema: for example, it would be possible for the inherent illocutions not to be successfully realised in a particular text. But we would still understand such a text (whether or not we found it successful) because of our awareness of the schema. The model, then, is of a schema which one operates to make sense of individual texts, and so it could be useful for writers to analyse their own texts in the light of it.

An example will make this point clearer. If a text contains an S section which in fact fails to contextualise the R, or fails to make common ground, then it will not fit the schema of the reader's expectations. The reader may therefore find it difficult to process, and experience it as 'badly written'. It is useful for writers using this genre to consider whether and how the choices they make at text level fulfil the *expected* illocutions of sections of texts within the genre.

There is of course a huge — perhaps infinite — number of ways available to writers for realising the illocutions discussed. For this reason, the model has to be retrospective at the level of detail. One can use it to elucidate an existing text, not to say what the next text will or should be like. As Skelton (1997) comments with respect to his study of the functions of different types of truth statement in academic medical writing: "One cannot ... say what must be, only what may be. Rules for structure, or for style in some loose sense, are in the end impossible because the surface form of the text must to some extent be shaped by the content it carries" (p136). A retrospective model is also suitable because the texts under study are written products, and therefore not composed linearly in real time. A staged, linear description is less appropriate for such a text.

Notwithstanding the above remarks about predictivity it is interesting to note Ventola's (1989) comment that even a retrospective descriptive model can become generative in an applied context. Individual analysts using it may come to personal conclusions about which realisations are most successful, and they may make use of the model as a tool to make other realisations of that same type. This point will be discussed again in detail in chapter 10.

My final comments on this model concern the role of the analyst. This is not a model with which analysis can be carried out on purely linguistic criteria. There will always be an element of judgement in categorising the illocution of a section of text — and not all of the evidence which informs that judgement is linguistic and observable. This position is in contrast to the position which was put forward by Sinclair & Coulthard (1975) and which is still very influential today, that elements of analysis must be linguistically definable.

However, my position also has support. Freedman (1994) argues that it is not possible to build an explanatory model of a genre using purely linguistic criteria. She argues (p48) that individual texts are not describable solely in terms of the 'rules' of one genre, and also that the features or 'rules' of a given genre are very unlikely to be all instantiated in one particular text. Genre conventions are an abstraction and will not find perfect linguistic realisation in any actual text. Labov & Fanshel (1977) argue that in order to use their hierarchical speech act model, the analyst must take account of all the contextual information they have: about past conversations, paralinguistic clues, etc. Not all of the levels of speech acts are completely linguistically evidenced. Swales (1993) argues that there are times when a text-only analysis is appropriate and necessary, and times when we should be looking at other sources of evidence, such as interviews with informants, as well. This model

makes use of the discourse community knowledge of the person using it as a key resource.

Mann & Thompson (1988) in their rhetorical structure theory of text organisation which makes significant use of the notion of perlocutionary effect, emphasise that the categorisation of sections of text as particular elements cannot rely only on linguistic signals — they claim to have found none which are reliable. They claim that the analyst must provide plausibility judgements: "plausible reasons for why the writer might have included each part of the entire text". Mann & Thompson point out that the analyst "*shares the cultural conventions* of the writer and expected reader, but has no direct access either to the writer or to other readers" (p246 my italics). This sharing of cultural conventions is obviously key if the analyst is to make plausibility judgements, and this is my last point about my own model. It was developed by a person researching her own discourse community, and other users of it are similarly members of that community. Such people are in an ideal position to combine community knowledge with skills of linguistic analysis as they work to develop a text for publication.

Chapter nine

The self-access materials

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 - 9.2.2 The place of the materials within the pedagogic strand of the research project
 - 9.2.3 Descriptive overview of the materials
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- 9.7 Concluding comments on chapter nine

9.1 Introduction

In this chapter I will discuss the set of self-access materials (Wharton 1997), provided as appendix A to this thesis, whose broad aim is to assist users to turn one of their course assignments into an article to submit for publication. This aim is coherent with the overall purpose of the current research project, to assist MSc participants and graduates who wish to begin to publish in our field to do so.

9.2 Descriptive perspectives

9.2.1 Aims of the materials

The materials aim to demonstrate some of the macro-linguistic choices available to TESOL article writers, and the pragmatic implications of those choices. Users are invited to use the materials to analyse their existing assignments/ draft articles, in order to gain a deeper understanding of the choices they themselves are making and revise the writing if they so wish. The materials are thus intended to play a role in a process of enculturation whereby writers increase their awareness of, and ability in, the genre-specific conventions of their target discourse community.

9.2.2 The place of the materials within the interventionist strand of the research project

These self-access materials are the central, but not the only, component of the interventionist strand of the research project. The interventionist strand includes a number of other interactions between myself and MSc participants/ graduates who shared their writing with me or asked me to assist them in writing for publication, before the self-access materials were developed. My contribution to these earlier interactions relied on intuition and experience rather than on any explicit model of writing, and this intuitive analysis and discussion played an important role in the creation of my model (see chapters 7 and 8) and the self-access materials based on it. For a more detailed discussion of the relationships between the descriptive and the interventionist strands of this research project, see chapter 10.

9.2.3 Descriptive overview of the materials

As stated above, a copy of the materials pack sent out to interested MSc participants/ graduates in 1997-98 is provided as appendix A to this thesis. The materials constitute a pedagogic instrument and must be read as a text in their own right in order to be appraised and evaluated. But for the sake of completeness and coherence in this chapter, I will also summarise their main characteristics here. Then the majority of the chapter will constitute a detailed rationale for the materials.

The materials pack is 70 pages long and is divided into eight sections including introduction and conclusion. The overall format is one of tasks and feedback, arising from discussion of extracts from published articles.

The introduction to the materials briefly presents their methodology and indicates their theoretical basis. Section 1 asks users to consider similarities and differences between the assignment and the article genres, and emphasises the novice/ expert distinction in terms of author construction. Section 2 seeks to obtain users' agreement that the SPRE pattern (Hoey 1983) is a useful basis for describing the macro-structure of TESOL texts. Then section 3 introduces the model on which the rest of the materials will be based: it presents an overall goal for the TESOL article genre, and examines the pragmatic purpose of each of the SPRE elements, as realised in texts within this genre, in terms of the contribution made to the overall goal.

Section 4 takes users through their texts in some detail. The instrument for doing this is the model introduced in section 3 of the materials, which is now elaborated in order to be of pedagogic use. Each of sections 4.1 - 4.5 concentrates on one element of the SPRE pattern (readers will remember from chapters 7 and 8 that for my model, a fifth element — BR — has been added). The sections use extracts from published articles to argue that the element under examination has certain purpose(s), and that certain ways of achieving these are prevalent. They ask users, in the light of this, to evaluate the likely effectiveness of the relevant section of their own text.

Section 5 looks explicitly at the concept of "newness" and how it can be claimed and presented. This concept is central to the goal of the genre which is put forward, and permeates many of the discussions in section 4 of the materials; here, it becomes the focus of attention .

Section 6 forms the conclusion. It very briefly re-states the discourse analysis arguments which underlie the materials, and offers a final task in which users again look at their text as a coherent whole. It re-iterates requests for feedback on users' experience of the materials, and ends with good wishes for publication and thanks for participation.

To complete this broad picture of the materials, it is also appropriate to consider certain aspects of their form. As mentioned above, the materials make extensive use of extracts from published articles. The use of textual examples is one type of 'ethnographic' approach to discovering the values of a genre, as advocated by Prior (1995). Prior points out that it is necessary to have fairly direct evidence of the kinds of products valued in a community: he gives several examples of research in disciplinary settings which has "revealed wide gaps between *stated* goals, values and practices and *in-use* goals, values and practices" (p50 original italics). Texts which have achieved publication may be assumed to be good evidence of in-use goals, values and practices.

Most of the extracts are short, with little contextualisation. In all cases I chose the shortest extract which would make my point, and used the minimum of contextualisation. Many of the examples are repeated, to make more than one point.

These decisions were taken for a number of practical and pedagogic reasons. The main ones are length and processing load. The length aspect is, I feel, obvious. I was concerned about the bulk of the materials, and the possible off-putting effect of this on anyone receiving them through the post. With this in mind Richards (1994) warns against the temptation to write too much in distance learning materials, suggesting that writers aim for the minimum length that will enable users to attain the objectives set.

Considerations of processing load emerged from my experience of piloting the materials in a face to face situation (see subsection 9.2.4 of this chapter). As a result of piloting I learned that those coming to the materials for the first time would need to spend significant time and energy reading the extracts and processing them for meaning — a sometimes time-consuming task especially given the relative lack of context. I wanted users of the materials to be free to process the arguments of the materials themselves, rather than get bogged down with the illustrative extracts. The technique of duplicating examples is one way of easing the processing load represented by the extracts.

The extracts also serve to ensure that all the points I make are backed up by data. This is recommended practice in general for distance learning materials (see eg Rowntree 1994) and is of particular pedagogic importance in materials concerned with text analysis. It is also significant from the point of view of the 'other' main role of these materials, that of test instrument for the analytical model on which they are based. This role of the materials is discussed fully in chapter 12.

9.2.4 Development of the materials

The self-access materials pack was developed during the period November 1996 - October 1997, though work was not constant during that time. Its development followed that of the first complete version (Wharton 1996) of the discourse analysis model discussed in chapters 7 and 8 and informed the current version of that model as presented in this thesis.

Early drafts of the materials concentrated on the aspects of the descriptive model to be communicated and on lists of texts from which the best examples could be drawn. Then once a skeleton of content had been arrived at, the focus shifted to methodology and I began to draft tasks in connection with each point.

Re-reading of these early drafts next led me to consider the question of background, and I thought about aspects of the theoretical context of the model — for example, discussions of the differences between assignments and articles — which could profitably be included. This process enabled me to draft sections 1 and 2 of the materials and revise their main body.

In the summer of 1997 I had the opportunity to trial sections of the materials in a face to face situation with Aston University's Languages and European Studies department PhD summer school. In a three hour session I briefly introduced the background to the materials (sections 1 and 2) and then asked the group to work on a selection of tasks involving the analysis of extracts from published texts. Information from this session (which I taped) was very useful. As a particular result of it I was able to take more secure decisions regarding the contextualisation of examples, the length and number of tasks, and the wording of task rubrics.

During late summer and early autumn 1997 I worked towards a 'final' version of the materials. The emphasis at this stage was pedagogic: I concentrated on

achieving a coherent cycle of tasks, and used this perspective to bring the materials down to a manageable length (some previous drafts had been over 100 pages). The importance of producing materials of a manageable length is mentioned in many texts on the design of distance learning materials (eg Race 1989, Richards 1994, Rowntree 1994).

In August 1997 I wrote to participants and graduates (see appendix C) informing or reminding them of the existence of the research project and inviting those wishing to write for publication to request a set of materials. The first materials went out in October 1997, together with a covering letter giving advice on time scales for working through them and requesting feedback. By October 1998, 34 materials packs had been sent out by post.

9.3 The materials as an expression of a philosophy of teaching

9.3.1 The materials as representative of a view of reality

Chapter 1 of this thesis includes a discussion of the view of reality which underlies this research project, and this theme is taken up again in chapter 6 in relation to the discourse analysis model. I want to begin this subsection of chapter 9 by mentioning one or two aspects of the materials themselves which tie in to such a view of reality.

Firstly, the materials put forward a systemic view of reality as discussed in chapter 1. The wording of tasks related to users' own texts asks them to consider what they have written *in the light of their goals for that part of the text*. In this way, the materials imply that there are not direct and reliable links between given writer options and given effects in the text and/or on the reader: rather, that choices made at certain points become part of the context which affects the significance of choices made at other points: all choices interact in a system. This point is made very explicit in the words of the final task:

"Look at your text as a whole. See it as an attempt to make a contribution via the creation of relative newness. *Picture your R at the centre of the text*, and ask yourself:

- Is this how I want to represent my main contribution?
- *Are all other sections of my text working harmoniously to help the main contribution?*
- Am I representing myself both as an expert and as a community member?"

(Wharton 1997 p66 (319) ¹italics added).

¹ Page references given for the self-access materials are to the free-standing document. Page references to Appendix A are provided in brackets.

Secondly, the materials acknowledge that the analytical categories proposed are 'ideal' in the sense discussed in chapters 1 and 7-8 and that the ultimate test of their validity will be the extent to which they are found helpful. This acknowledgement is both implicit and explicit.

The implicit message is in the wording of the tasks: users are asked to consider the *tendency of* a section of their own text in relation to an illocutionary *continuum*, and are then asked whether they think their section is 'doing its job'. For example:

"Look at your own text. Do you feel that your P is closer to the recognise or to the invent end of the continuum? Are you happy that it identifies the issue and is building common ground?" (Wharton 1997 p31 (285)).

The message is also made explicit at key points in the commentary on tasks. For example:

"Of course, the categories I am proposing [for types of R] are fuzzy, there are places where they blend into each other. From a reader's perspective, it might be difficult to categorise a given text with complete certainty. But from a *writer's* perspective, I think the categories are very useful. Having a sense of the kind of contribution you want to make is a powerful way of keeping your text on task." (Wharton 1997 p49(303)).

9.3.2 The starting point

The materials start from where their users are, in two important senses. Firstly, in the very literal sense of asking them to work with their own texts. And secondly, in the sense of responding to a goal of the users. The user's text is pre-existing. The goal may not be — perhaps the invitation to see the materials prompted the wish to work on an article for publication. But by taking up the invitation, the user 'owns' the goal. These factors give the materials what might be termed 'task authenticity' .

The importance of task authenticity for successful learning of a new or partially new discourse has been emphasised by various commentators. For example Miller (1994), developing her earlier (1984) concept of genre as social action, argues that it is the engagement with the social dimension of a genre that enables learners/ writers to use it for their own practical ends. Such engagement will lead to a much more successful internalisation than would a decontextualised process where learners simply studied ways to make their texts fit certain formal requirements.

Likewise Devitt (1993) argues in favour of teaching models which integrate product and process. She too asserts that one can only learn a genre properly if one really does have the goals, context etc, typically associated with it. Kaufer & Geisler (1989) make the same point but with specific reference to academic writing, arguing that the writing practices of a discourse community "simply cannot be learned or critiqued apart from the goal of saying something new from within." (p306). Casanave & Hubbard (1992) implicitly make the same point when they comment on the inappropriacy, in academic writing instruction, of asking students to write their assignments in the style of published genres. Given the differences in purpose between the assignments and the professional texts, they argue, such advice is of limited value. All of these arguments relate to points made in chapter 3 about genre learning and difficulties of genre acquisition.

The self-access nature of the materials emphasises user choice about when to work with them — both in the micro sense of planning their own schedules, and also in the macro sense of choosing when or indeed whether to start using them. Doing the work at the time when one has the goal is a significant part of the task authenticity discussed in this section. Work done with these materials is not a rehearsal for article writing, but is part of the process of article writing; it is carried out at the moment when the user chooses to work towards that goal.

The extent and nature of user choice discussed here can be seen as putting the user explicitly in charge of their own development as represented by work with the materials. This is particularly important in the light of the discussion in chapter 3 about the socialisation and enculturation processes which are part of the learning of a new discourse, and the stresses which these can bring.

9.3.3 A process of apprenticeship?

The materials may be seen as supporting a process of apprenticeship. As was discussed in chapter 3, the term apprenticeship in the context of higher education may be used to connote an *individual* process of development-in-practice, vis a vis the practice of more 'expert' members of the community. Usually, of course, the term also refers to a face to face relationship between two people and so the interactions of users with the self-access materials are not an apprenticeship in that sense. Nevertheless I feel that the metaphor of

apprenticeship can contribute to the current discussion of the philosophy underlying the self-access materials.

The extracts of published texts in the self-access materials can be seen as examples of expert practice, in the light of which the user is invited to examine their own work. Users are asked to examine some features of expert work that might make it successful, although they are not pushed towards unconscious imitation of this practice. They are, however, encouraged to think about the impression that would be given by choices at the extreme edges of what is considered 'normal' — whether, given the content and context of the writing in question, an unusual approach is likely to be seen as "a sign of having moved beyond the given, [or] of having stayed behind" (Mitchell 1994 p64).

The task based nature of the materials itself relates to the idea of apprenticeship. It is considered that ongoing tasks, at regular intervals in the materials and particularly relating to the user's own text, are the means by which the constructs which underlies the model may become personally meaningful to the users and therefore that the ideas in these materials may stay with them and be useful for later writing too.

The importance of tasks to promote deep learning from distance learning materials is acknowledged by all those writing on the subject (see eg Race 1989, Richards 1994, Rowntree 1994). Richards (1994) also points out that tasks within text also "help learners check their own progress in a natural and unthreatening way" (p99).

9.3.4 The power of theory

Any writer of pedagogic materials needs to take a decision about whether, how much and how they want to share the theory behind the materials with the users of the materials, in the materials. In this project I have opted to share quite fully; readers will notice that the discourse of the presentation of my analytical model in this thesis (chapters 7 and 8) and the discourse of its presentation in the self-access materials is not radically different. The materials are intended to make a statement, then, about their author's belief in the power of theory.

By explicitly sharing my model I hope to achieve a number of things. The central, pedagogic aim is to offer a principled basis for any decisions users take

about revisions to their text. These principles could be taken out of the context of materials use and could inform future writing or revising.

By explicitly sharing the model I also express my willingness for users to interact critically with it. This relates to a second aim, of facilitating a process whereby that which users 'take away' is a *critical interpretation* of the model as created in and for their own circumstances. The synthesis of these two aims links to discussion in chapter 3 about the empowering potential of theoretical tools, especially when they themselves are also opened to criticism and evaluation. (Gee 1990, Mitchell 1994).

I also explicitly share my views on the social construction of the author in the assignment and article genre. This is the only aspect of the 'background' to the model which is included in the materials. In the spirit of meta-awareness (Gee 1989,1990) it seems to me to be particularly important to describe explicitly, near the beginning of the materials, my understanding of the social structures that give rise to and are created by these genres. Users are then able to think about the extent to which they identify with the social view which underlies the materials — the extent to which they accept the place which the posited structure alleges for *them*.

Then a final aim in being theoretically explicit is to bring a benefit to myself: to expose the theory to the critique of other professionals, and thereby obtain feedback on its perceived value. This idea is discussed in more detail in chapters 11 and 12.

9.3.5 Building wider skills

Like most educational materials, these have the potential to teach more than their stated focus, in this case of producing an article for publication. It would be contrary to the spirit of the foregoing sentence to try and produce a list of such additional aspects; for any materials, the whole point is that the potential list is endless and that it varies according to context. But it does seem worth briefly pointing out two additional areas where these materials are especially likely to prove beneficial.

The materials encourage good composing processes — processes of multiple drafts, revisions, etc. There is a consensus among those working in writing research that such processes lead to an improved final product and a heightened awareness of the extent to which writing is fulfilling its writer's

objectives. (see eg Benson & Heidish 1995, Dyer 1996, Grabe & Kaplan 1996 Silva et al 1994, Ting 1996). In this sense the materials build on skills that users have already acquired as assignment writers and give a positive message about their relevance for the new genre. As mentioned in chapter 5, the composing processes for the assignment and article genre are in many senses similar.

Secondly, the materials encourage text analysis skills. The vast majority of the task involve text analysis, with a certain amount of imagination and creativity required. This is true when analysing the structure of a text; as was discussed in chapters 7 and 8, the SPRE pattern in its canonical form rarely fits these long texts exactly. It is also true when using the illocutionary continua to analyse sections of a text: for reasons of space the materials can contain only one or two examples of different possibilities, and users need to extrapolate these to their own texts. Again as was mentioned in chapters 7 and 8, the model represents a schema, an ideal or virtual text. The relationship with actual texts must necessarily be inexact.

9.4 The materials as genre teaching

The term *genre* has already been used in this discussion of the self-access materials, and I think they may fairly be considered to be an attempt at genre teaching. Genre teaching is a controversial issue: its usefulness, as well as its ethics and socio-political implications, have been the subject of debates which need to be understood in the context of wider discussion on issues of academic enculturation and the acquisition of socially privileged discourses. In this section I will attempt to engage with various strands of the genre teaching debate as they relate to the materials under discussion in this chapter.

The case against explicitly teaching genre has been influentially put by Freedman (1993a, 1993b). Her arguments relate particularly to the teaching of written academic genres, and rest on the assumption that such teaching will typically take place in a writing class. It is likely to involve the specification of the formal and structural features of the target genres, in tandem with discussions of the contexts which give rise to them.

Freedman questions both the usefulness and the feasibility of teaching genres in this way. Many genre analysts, she asserts, have argued persuasively that genres are responses to contexts and that any regularity in textual features of genres springs from the common rhetorical purpose of the instances. Given that

this is the case, it is not useful to give priority to textual considerations or to teach genres out of context.

By drawing a series of parallels between genre learning and second language acquisition, Freedman develops two hypotheses about the teaching of genre. The milder, or restricted hypothesis, asserts that explicit genre teaching is in no case necessary. This argument is supported by a report of a group of students who, Freedman contends, succeeded in acquiring an academic genre without receiving explicit instruction in it. The restricted hypothesis does acknowledge, however, that explicit teaching may possibly enhance the learning of specific features of a genre under certain circumstances. By analogy with research into instructed second language acquisition (see eg Ellis 1990) these circumstances are: that the student must be developmentally ready to acquire the feature, and that the student must be engaged in an activity which authentically requires the use of the feature.

The strong hypothesis, as its name might suggest, does not allow even a minor role for explicit teaching of genres. Like the restricted hypothesis, it states that explicit genre teaching is unnecessary. But it goes on to assert that *effective* explicit teaching of genres is in fact impossible, because: not all of the 'rules' underlying genres are known; those which are known are too complicated to explain to non-linguists; and even if a learner were to understand them, they would be unable to convert this 'declarative knowledge' to 'procedural knowledge'.

Freedman even considers the possibility that explicit genre teaching could be harmful. She sees two main dangers. Firstly, if those attempting to explicate the rules of a genre are not themselves members of the discourse community which produces it, they may easily fail to understand the genre and explain it badly. And secondly, descriptive models of genres give at best partial insight. There is therefore a risk that encouraging students to use such models will restrict their writing inappropriately.

The ethical and socio-political aspects of genre teaching have been addressed by Rosen (1988). Writing in the context of the Australian school system, where genre teaching has been used as an approach to general literacy, Rosen forcefully argues that explicit genre teaching is harmful to students. He claims that it constitutes a mechanism by which socially and economically privileged groups seek to maintain their dominance over less privileged groups. In taking this stand Rosen is specifically positioning himself against the strand of

Australian academic thought which gave rise to the genre programme (eg Christie 1987) and whose adherents support genre teaching precisely because they see it as a tool for empowerment for academically less privileged students.

Rosen argues that genre teaching consists of encouraging students to imitate the forms of communication of the established *élite*. Imitation, he contends, is not empowering for less privileged groups — at best it can lead to individual mobility, where particular individuals master the forms of communication of the *élite* and thus are allowed to join it. But as a social *group*, the less privileged remain exactly that. Genre teaching, then, reinforces a situation where social groups have unequal power: one group is forced to conform to the norms and the culture of another, and the dominant culture never finds itself deconstructed.

Pennycook (1997) has some level of agreement with Rosen. Taking an EAP perspective, he argues that it is quite possible for individual teachers in particular contexts to work in an ideologically engaged manner and challenge any unjust power relationships that the target academic discourse may embody. However he also argues that there is a strong tendency for this engagement not to occur, because of the pervasiveness of a "discourse of pragmatism" (p254) available to describe the teaching of academic writing, which "runs the danger of reinforcing norms, beliefs and ideologies that maintain inequitable social and cultural relations" (p256).

Let us now go on to look at the ideas of analysts who are in favour of the explicit teaching of genres. Interestingly enough, a number of these have some level of agreement with Rosen (1988) and Pennycook (1997) that genres may represent the forms of communication of various *élites* and that those who do not control such genres may find themselves the subject of discrimination. But they argue that for this very reason, it is essential for genres to be explicitly taught and thereby opened up, made accessible and available for more people.

For example Belcher & Braine (1995) in their introduction to an edited collection on teaching and learning academic writing, accept that many students, particularly ESL students, may experience the institutional academic culture as conflicting with their existing culture. They may therefore have difficulty integrating into the institutional academic culture, and in using its genres. Belcher & Braine argue that there is an indisputable need for such students to learn the academic culture if they are to progress. They assert that many such students very much want to take on this learning, and that they positively

welcome guidance in academic discourse and genres. In this context, it would be irresponsible of tutors to withhold such guidance.

Allison (1996) and Allwright et al (1996) both emphasise the importance of teaching approaches which engage critically with the target discourse, examining its ideological implications in the teaching context concerned while at the same time allowing students access to it. Williams and Colomb (1993) similarly argue that the explicit teaching of genre is an empowering process when undertaken from a critical perspective. They assert that genre teaching can help students to see what generic forms actually mean within the target community, and thus give them some measure of choice about how they themselves might participate in it. In direct opposition to Freedman (1993), they argue that explicit genre teaching is both possible and useful. They cite evidence for this from their own experience of teaching academic writing. They particularly assert that there is merit in having students practise certain features of academic genres even before they are fully integrated into the target community, before they are in the situation where they will need to use these features authentically. The reason for this lies in a more general belief, alluded to above, that the study of genres can contribute to understanding of the community that produces them. So Williams and Colomb see the study of forms of genres as a useful part of the study of students' target communities.

Other writers have entered the debate about the teachability of genre by investigating and writing about the circumstances in which they think teaching is most likely to be successful. This may involve a discussion of different types of genre model: for example Kaufer & Geisler (1991) assert that some models are very much less restrictive than others when used in an applied context.

Fahnestock (1993) also asks what kind of genre model could make explicit teaching possible and useful. She suggests that a complex structural model, attempting to account for all the different possible realisations within a genre, would be impossible to teach with. But she goes on to argue that models of genre which operate at the level of social purpose give valuable guidance to students: they give rise to a discussion of choices, both at the level of structure and at the level of exponents. Fahnestock sees genre learning as learning about options, rather than learning a fixed algorithm.

The arguments summarised above seem to me to suggest a number of reasons why genre teaching as instantiated in these particular materials is ethically

appropriate and likely to be effective. I will look first at the users of the materials, and then at the materials themselves.

The users of the materials do not fit easily into Rosen's "underprivileged group", or even Belcher & Braine's "students" whose target culture may conflict with an existing culture. As MSc participants/ graduates they are already part of the élite of the TESOL community. It is they, rather than eg their teachers, who have consciously decided that publishing is a goal for them. They made an original choice to ask for the materials, and a second choice to use them! In such a case, metaphors of extension are far more relevant than metaphors of conflict.

The materials themselves embody many of the features which both critics and adherents of genre teaching suggest would be significant in terms of effectiveness. As writer of the materials, I may be considered a community insider to the extent that I use TESOL texts in my work every day, have experience of publication (in some cases after rejection and modification) and have experience of editing. Users of the materials are also community insiders, in the senses mentioned above (and discussed in much more detail in chapters 3 and 5). The materials are used in an authentic context, in the service of real and immediate goals of the users.

The materials do not attempt to teach 'all the rules' of the target genre. They examine certain features of it from the perspective of purpose; they do indeed concentrate on "the action [the discourse] is used to accomplish" when examining "the substance or form of the discourse". (Miller 1984 p151). They look at more than the structure of the genre: a consensus on structure is treated as given from the end of section 2. The materials emphasise *choice* at the textual level, and link the concept of choice to writer purpose. The examples in the materials demonstrate options which can help to realise certain goals.

The materials also emphasise choice on the part of the user: they do not constitute a course of instruction in rhetorical strategies. It has been suggested (see eg Knudson 1994, Mitchell 1994) that explicit instruction in rhetorical strategies does not of itself change the writing of those instructed; just as having one's work edited does not necessarily help a person to become a better author-editor for themselves (Wolcott 1990). In these materials users are not asked to imitate forms, but rather to consider the extent to which the forms they are already using support their own communicative goals. Any decision to modify the text will then be for a consciously articulated reason which relates to the user's purposes.

Genre teaching in this research, then, is seen as the exploration and demystification of academic discourse: both a writer's own discourse, and the discourse of others in the community. The materials are a manifestation of a belief in the power of explicit cognitive awareness to help people participate in the communication mechanisms of whatever target communities they have, without necessarily having to lose their previously existing perspectives or accept existing genre forms unquestioningly.

9.5 How the materials position their users

I have discussed at intervals throughout this thesis the argument that the assignment and article genres construct their authors in certain ways. Given that context, it seems important to devote a few paragraphs to a consideration of how the self-access materials themselves also position their author and their users.

It seems obvious to say that a set of *teaching* materials construct their author as an expert. The present materials contain a research-in-progress dimension that adds another layer to this idea, but does not change the essential point. Does that mean, then, that they construct their users as novices? That would be ironic, in the light of their pedagogic aim. I will argue in this section that the reality is more complex.

The materials assume a great deal of knowledge and ability on the part of their users. Firstly and most importantly, the materials capitalise on the fact that users already have a text or selection of texts available from which to work. As discussed in chapters 2-5 the nature of these texts: their research base, their structural similarity with articles, their academic level, their demands for familiarity with the literature, etc means that those who have successfully produced them have already become community insiders in many ways. The existence of these texts also relates to the argument in chapter 3 to the effect that genre is *situated* cognition (Berkenkotter & Huckin 1993). The existence of the assignments, as a product of a process, is part of the *situation* which supports and legitimises the user's foray into article writing.

Secondly, the materials rely on the fact that the users have experience of discourse analysis. Were it otherwise, the quick recap of the SPRE pattern in section 2 and the overview of the analytical model in section 3 could not hope to meet with pedagogic success. Then as the materials continue, all the tasks

demand and encourage discourse analysis skills (see subsection 9.3.5 of this chapter). In summary, the materials rely on the existence of both conceptual background and process skills.

The materials rely on the users' knowledge of our field. As discussed in chapters 7 and 8, the model on which they are based does not work with purely linguistic criteria: in deciding (for example) whether a given P section is more recognise or more invent, the analyst must consider not only its form but also its content as related to current consensuses within our profession. The materials position the users as being able to do this.

The materials position users as being in charge of their own use of them. For example, feedback on tasks comes immediately after the tasks in the text. This is for the convenience of the users and it treats them as adults. If they want to stop and do the task before reading the feedback, they will.

The materials assume that users can make contextually appropriate decisions about the levels of claims they wish to make in their articles and how they wish to situate themselves vis a vis the community as a whole. Examples of this assumption are the sections on S and P entitled respectively "Possible pitfalls?" and "Some pitfalls?" (Wharton 1997 sections 4.1.3 and 4.2.4). In these sections, certain techniques for putting forward ideas as "new" are presented as questionable practice. In this sense, these are two of the most prescriptive sections in the materials. And yet as the final task in 4.2.4 shows, the possibility that the technique *could* be used appropriately in a user's text is not discounted:

"Look at your own text. Is your P couched in a criticism of the profession? Do you feel this is appropriate? If so, do you think you have done enough to avoid inadvertently alienating readers?

Are you still satisfied that you are building common ground?" (Wharton 1997 p33(287)).

In all the senses discussed above, then, the materials position the users as experts. This is highly coherent with their pedagogic aim, to help users to take on the expert's role in a different sense, as article writers.

And yet the materials would have no reason to exist if their author did not believe they had something to teach. They assume that a gap exists between what users can already do and what they aspire to do, and that this is essentially linked to the difference in author construction between the assignment and article genre. The move from writing in a genre which

constructs its author as a novice to writing in a genre which constructs its author as an expert is seen as a complex process which involves a shift of self image. This shift will lead to (and may simultaneously be brought about by) a new relationship, in text, between the persona of the author and the situations, actions, people and ideas that the author writes about. It will also lead to a new relationship with cited sources and with the constructed readership. The materials attempt to support the process of shift by critically involving the users with examples from published writing, mediating these examples with a purpose-oriented model and then asking users to examine their own texts in the light of this.

The materials, then, simultaneously position their users as discourse community insiders and as aspiring discourse community entrants. They give full recognition to what has already been achieved, while also recognising the gulf between this and the 'next stage'.

9.6 What the materials teach: a closer look at content

The foregoing section acknowledges a gulf between where users are and where they want to be, and states that the materials aim to help users bridge this gap by supporting a process of shift. In this section I will look in a little more detail at the content of the materials, and attempt to identify the contribution made to the above process by various aspects of them. The overall target is to write a text suitable for publication and the content of the materials will be considered from three perspectives: creating an internally coherent text, relating to community valued consensuses and paradigms, and positioning oneself within the community.

9.6.1 Creating an internally coherent text

This could be considered a baseline which is a necessary but not a sufficient condition for getting one's text through the gate keeping process. Research in this area (eg Noble 1989, Day 1996) and anecdotal evidence concur that prestigious publications in many communities receive many more submissions than they can publish and that editors/ reviewers spend relatively little time on an initial screening out process. An incoherent text is an obvious candidate for screening out.

Research in other disciplines into criteria for the acceptance/ rejection of submitted articles also supports the notion that textual coherence is a key

factor. Gosden (1992) surveyed editors of hard science journals about the language criteria which might be important particularly when NNS submissions were considered for publication. The results showed a concentration on the discourse level, on development of argument and positioning of claim. Sionis (1995), studying rejected articles written by NNS science writers, also identified problems primarily at the discourse level. He does not specifically use an illocutionary model, but he shows by interviewing authors about their texts that although their rhetorical purposes may be appropriate, they cannot always fulfil these in the text.

Interestingly, some editors in Gosden's study commented that NS submissions also often had problems at the discourse level. And Casanave & Hubbard (1992) quote faculty members at US universities as seeing the discourse problems of NS and NNS student writers as very comparable.

It is recognised (Hoey 1983, Edge 1986) that certain text patterns such as SPRE are culturally valued; easily recognised, related to, and understood. Two basic factors would seem to be of importance in creating a text that looks internally coherent at first glance: a relationship to a consensually valued text pattern, and accurate signalling of whatever pattern is used.

My experience of marking MSc assignments suggests that while some assignments do this well, others do not. Since these materials were not made available exclusively to those who got good grades in their assignments, it was seen as important to address this baseline behaviour.

Issues surrounding the creation of a coherent text are addressed though: the building on the SPRE pattern, the emphasis on the text as a whole, and the endophoric illocutionary perspective.

9.6.1.1 Building on the SPRE pattern

In these materials SPRE is taken as a valid consensus, in the sense that it is assumed that many assignments written by users, and many articles that they want to write, will be describable in terms of the pattern in the flexible way that it is used in the model of chapters 7 and 8: allowing for non-canonical ordering, omission of certain elements, different types of R and more than one R. This assumption is I think justified on the basis both of previous research (eg Edge 1985, 1986) and of my text analysis which helped to create the model at the

same time as testing out its usefulness — in which I found that all but 3 of the articles published in *ELT Journal* in 1994 could indeed be described in this way.

A decision had to be taken about how much prominence to give to the building of a coherent text through SPRE, given the varying levels of users' familiarity with the idea. The SPRE pattern presentation in section 2 is intended as a quick confirmation of common ground to those who already use these ideas, and as a teaching/ building process for those who do not:

"Perhaps you consciously used the [SPRE] pattern to structure your assignments, and perhaps you are aware of it in some of the articles that you read. So if you're already convinced that SPRE is a frequent pattern in TEFL texts, then perhaps you'll want to skim over section 2.2 and go straight to 2.3. But if the idea is less salient for you or if you'd like to explore it in a little more detail, then please look more closely at the next section." (Wharton 1997 p5(261)).

9.6.1.2 The endophoric illocutionary perspective

This is what in the materials is termed the "internal workings" of the text: a discussion of the ways in which the elements of the SPRE pattern work together to foreground the new contribution that is realised in R. The relationships are expressed as follows:

- The role of the S element is to contextualise the R;
- The role of the P element is to identify the problem or goal to which R responds;
- The role of the BR element is to justify the contribution in R;
- The role of the E element is to evaluate the contribution."

(Wharton 1997 p13(269))

I feel that this conceptualisation of the endophoric *role* of each element is particularly valuable in avoiding some of the characteristics of less good assignment writing. Discussions with colleagues as well as my own impressions suggest that such negative characteristics include: a lot of "setting" information that turns out to be only tangentially related to the problem identified and the response advocated (S); no explicit statement of problem or goal (P); a 'literature review' whose relevance for action, analysis etc undertaken remains unclear (BR, S); positive evaluative comments with no data to back them up (E). Some of these characteristics have also been found in a text submitted for publication (see chapter 4). I feel that by presenting each element as having a *job* to do within the text, I help users of the materials avoid such

problems. Each of sections 4.1 - 4.4 include tasks to help users assess the endophoric illocutionary effectiveness of sections of their texts.

9.6.1.3 Emphasis on the whole text

Because these materials concentrate on one element of the SPRE pattern at a time, they are asking users to look at sections of their text in isolation. This I feel is appropriate and necessary for the detail of the work required. However it does carry a danger, which is that the whole text perspective will be lost.

I have attempted to compensate for this by the inclusion at regular intervals of tasks which ask users to look at their whole text and consider the balance thereof. Examples are tasks in section 2, which deal with the structure of whole texts; the final tasks in each of sections 4.1, 4.2, and 4.3, which ask users to consider the effect of emphasis on a particular element for the focus of the whole article; the final task in the materials (already quoted above) in which users are asked whether all sections of their text are "working harmoniously to help the main contribution" (Wharton 1997 p66(319))

9.6.2 Relating to community valued consensuses and paradigms

9.6.2.1 What is worth talking about

The materials suggest that four 'types' of R are particularly common in TESOL texts (Wharton 1997 p48(302)). As was discussed in chapter 8, an assertion of this kind is an assertion about the current consensus in our community about what is valued — in terms of content and process. For example, the category of evaluation-type R tells us that the process of evaluating someone else's work is valued enough to be the basis for an article. Then the fact that many of these articles are evaluations of published coursebooks is an indication of a consensus on content interest. As also discussed in chapter 8, categories similar to those I use have been used to give advice on publishing. These points link with Miller's (1984) idea, discussed in chapter 3, of genre telling us "what ends we may have" (p165).

9.6.2.2 Paradigm alignment

Gilbert & Mulkay (1984) argue that a writer seeking to express their work via an established genre needs to adopt an appropriate "repertoire". For the

discipline of Biochemistry which they study, Gilbert & Mulkey identify an "empiricist repertoire", related to the rationalistic paradigm of hard science.

TESOL writers also need to express themselves in an appropriate repertoire for an established genre, but as was discussed in chapter 1, in our case the paradigm question is arguably more complex — we have choices.

The illocutionary continua presented for R and BR, as well as the scope continua presented for P and E (Wharton 1997 pp51(305), 34(288), 26(280) and 39(293) respectively) largely deal with issues of paradigm alignment. They present *different ways of* achieving the illocutions of those elements. In contrast with the illocutionary continua for the S and P elements, the different ways do not relate directly to the newness claimed for ideas. Rather, the extreme ends of the continua are presented as examples of paradigm choice, as is apparent from this discussion of R:

"It is possible to see the ends of the demonstrate <-> speculate continuum as representing two different approaches to knowledge building in the discipline. Both approaches to R are intended to create a contribution which will relate to many people and be valuable in many contexts. But they do this in different ways. A very demonstrate R is one which relies on its context-specificity and its detail to allow the reader to judge its value to them. A very speculate R is one which relies on the generality of underlying principles to ensure its value to the reader". (Wharton 1997 p53(307)).

And then the associated task asks users to decide where they themselves want to be:

"Now look at your own text. Do you consider your R section(s) to be more demonstrate or more speculate? Is the balance that you have chosen between demonstrate and speculate approaches to R the one that best serves your purposes?"(Wharton 1997 p54(307)).

This is seen as an important part of the materials; awareness of paradigm choice in our field, and a conscious exercising of it, are surely hallmarks of the 'expert' insider.

9.6.2.3 Appropriate use of theory

A third important aspect of relating to valued consensuses and paradigms is the appropriate use of theory and experience. This issue is perhaps most clearly emphasised in the materials in the S section, where the describe <-> interpret continuum ranges from statements of fact from which one can depart with

absolute security, to complex interpretations of situations which, far from being a starting point for claims, are actually claims in themselves. The complexities of the distinctions which I attempt to make using this continuum are discussed in detail in chapter 8. In the materials, emphasis is laid on community standards for the acceptance of highly interpretative statements and the constraints they bring in terms of form (eg, a preference for references to back them up, and a preference for hedging). These formal features are presented as arising out of community standards, rather than themselves constituting community standards. This I feel is an example of looking at the social purpose behind the form.

9.6.3 Positioning oneself within the community

I have looked at the creation of a coherent text and at the importance of relating to community valued consensuses and paradigms. The final perspective from which I want to consider the content of the self-access materials is that of the art of positioning oneself within the community.

9.6.3.1 Presentation of the goal of the genre

In chapters 6, 7 and 8 of the thesis I discussed the notion of a goal for the TESOL article genre: to make a contribution via the creation of relative newness. In the materials, it is asserted that the genre does have this goal and a certain amount of space (pp 11-13 (267-269)) is devoted to explaining it. Emphasis is laid on its implication for author positioning: "This [goal] means that the author needs to relate to relevant discourse communities in a particular way. As an expert, they need to say something new and impressive. As a community member, they need to portray their ideas as being in a relationship with other ideas and values which belong to the community" (Wharton 1997 p12(268)). I will now discuss aspects of the self-access materials which are intended to assist the user to manage just that combination.

9.6.3.2 The exophoric illocutionary perspective

Alongside the discussion of the SPRE elements in the context of the *internal* workings of the text (see above) there is also a discussion of the pragmatic purpose of these elements vis a vis the goal of the genre:

"The role of R remains central and remains the same: to deliver the main contribution. The E element, via its evaluation of the contribution in the text, has the role in the community of *claiming significance* for the

contribution. R and E, then, connect most clearly to the "newness" aspect of the goal of the genre.

Within the text, S and P work as a "launching pad" for R, and BR seeks to justify R. So in the community, these elements have the role of anchoring the newness of the contribution in what is already known. S, P and BR, then, connect most clearly to the "relative" aspect of the goal of the genre". (Wharton 1997 p14 (269-270)).

This conceptualisation of the exophoric roles of the various elements is a useful way of explaining how each element of the text makes a contribution to the position the writer is claiming for themselves. There are many tasks in sections 4.1 - 5 to help users assess the likely effectiveness of sections of their text in terms of possible reader reaction to the position that is claimed. In this way, it is hoped, users may be able to avoid some potential problems of contextually inappropriate positioning and claims, discussed in sections 4.1.3, 4.2.4, (on 'pitfalls' in S and P) and 5.3, (on allowing for the relative nature of newness) of the materials.

9.6.3.3 Emphasis on the indeterminacy of perlocutionary effect

It was discussed in chapter 6 that the adoption of illocutionary terminology for a text analytical model does not imply a belief that the relationship between text and readers can be understood in terms of perlocutionary effect. It was clearly important to make this point in the materials too. I attempt to do so via the "pitfalls" sections (4.1.3, 4.2.4). In these sections, users are asked to consider the possibility that a textual formulation in an S or P section may *inadvertently* alienate readers, and therefore fail to fulfill its exophoric illocution of building common ground. The point is thus established that the existence of inherent illocutionary forces for elements of the SPRE pattern does not mean that relevant sections of a particular text are guaranteed a given perlocutionary effect.

9.6.3.4 The community as source of authority

The foregoing sections lay emphasis on positioning oneself within the community in the sense of differentiating oneself: saying something new. But the materials also consider the question of identifying oneself with the community, and drawing on it as a source of authority. I attempted to show in chapter 3 of this thesis how the drawing on community knowledge as a source of authority for a claim can increase its power.

This issue comes out particularly clearly in the section on BR. Users are asked to consider two kinds of appeal to community knowledge as authority: appeals to the written record, and appeals to the received wisdom of the profession. It has already been argued that choices along this continuum can be considered a paradigm alignment issue.

9.6.3.5 Community standards for data and claims

As the section in the materials on E makes clear, the corpus of articles which I analysed contains examples of differing approaches to the relationship between data and claims. Certain aspects of this issue, such as the possibility of using a local <-> general continuum — relate to the paradigm choice in the profession which has already been discussed. The materials encourage users to interpret certain aspects of the form of E sections, such as position along the invite <-> supply continuum, as communications about the writer's position on the relationship between data and claims. This, again, is a precursor to a task asking the user to make a principled decision about their own text.

9.6.4 Concluding comments on content

In the above subsections I took a decision to discuss the content of the materials thematically, rather than to go through each section of the materials in sequence. The disadvantage of this is that certain points of detail may have been lost. The advantages, I hope, are firstly to avoid repetition of a sequence that has already been followed twice, in chapters 7 and 8 and in the materials themselves. And then more importantly, to enable me to work at a level of abstraction which facilitates discussion of content as an interacting system.

9.7 Concluding comments on chapter nine

The purpose of this chapter has been to explain and justify the nature of the self-access materials which are a major part of the interventionist strand of this research project. I hope to have elucidated the principles on which they are based and to have situated these principles within wider debates about what is appropriate in an undertaking of this kind.

I have deliberately omitted from this chapter any discussion arising from data on how the materials were actually used. This, the post-hoc *evaluation* of the materials, will be covered in chapters 11 and 12.

Chapter ten

Relationships between the descriptive and interventionist strands of the research

- 10.1 Introduction
- 10.2 Summary of the interventionist strand of the research
- 10.3 A look at some relationships
 - 10.3.1 Reformulation and re-creation
 - 10.3.2 Miscellaneous interactions and the descriptive model
 - 10.3.3 The *Bulletin* and the descriptive model
 - 10.3.4 The materials and the descriptive model
- 10.4 Implications of the relationships between descriptive and interventionist strands
- 10.5 A comment on terminology

10.1 Introduction

In this chapter I will discuss some relationships between the descriptive and interventionist strands of this research project. The descriptive strand, a model of the TESOL article genre, has been fully elucidated in chapters 7-8 of this thesis. The interventionist strand is primarily constituted by a self-access materials pack (Wharton 1997) reproduced in appendix A and discussed in chapter 9. The interventionist strand also has other aspects which have not yet been addressed in detail in the thesis; I look at them here. In this chapter, then, I will begin by summarising the whole of the interventionist strand and I will then discuss its relationship to the descriptive strand.

This chapter serves as a report on certain processes of this project and as an argument as to their implications; it is also a documentation of my reflection, throughout the project, about my role as a facilitator of reflective action in others. Elliott (1993b) argues, and common sense immediately agrees, that the ability of an individual to support reflective practice in others is dependent on the extent to which they themselves operate as a reflective practitioner.

10.2 Summary of the interventionist strand of the research

The overall purpose of this project is to assist MSc participants and graduates who wish to start to publish to do so. As stated in the previous section, the pedagogic aspect of this purpose is primarily realised through a set of self-

access materials. However, those materials are not the only part of the interventionist strand.

I use the term *interventionist strand* to refer to any interaction between myself and MSc participants/graduates who shared their writing with me or asked me to assist them in writing for publication. Before the self-access materials were available and before the first publicised version of the model (Wharton 1996) was complete, I had a number of exchanges with participants in two categories. The first category consists of exchanges with participants who knew of my interest in writing for publication because of my 1994 questionnaire (Appendix B) and who asked me to advise them on texts they were preparing for publication in refereed journals. The second category consists of my work with participants in my role as editor of the *LSU Bulletin*, our in-house journal.

In both categories, the advice or suggestions which I was able to give at the early stages of this project were intuitive. Ideas arose from conversations with my supervisor and other colleagues, from texts such as Benson 1994 or Luey 1990, and from my own reflections and experience. As will be discussed in more detail below, these early interactions played a key role in the development of the descriptive model and the self-access materials.

10.3 A look at some relationships

Because the major component of the interventionist strand was the self-access materials, and because these are presented in this thesis as based on the descriptive model put forward in chapters 7-8, it may appear at first glance that the relationship between the descriptive and interventionist strands is *uniquely* one of application of the former during the latter. Yet this is far from the truth.

It is of course the case that the pedagogic materials were derived from a version of the descriptive model: chronologically and globally, description of the target genre must come before the sharing of that description for pedagogic ends. In the text of this thesis, the model is described before the materials and this makes it easy for readers to see how the materials are based on the model. Chapter 9 of this thesis, which discusses the rationale behind the materials, also discusses ways in which they are derived from the descriptive model.

It therefore seems reasonable to assert that this direction of influence, from descriptive to interventionist strand, has already received attention in this

thesis. Not only has it been explicitly discussed but it is also implicitly expressed through the macro-structure and the ordering of the text. In this chapter I will discuss this direction of influence only briefly in order to bring out some complexities within it which would not otherwise be apparent. Then I will devote the majority of the chapter to a more fully developed discussion of influence in the second, less obvious direction: the influence of the interventionist strand on the descriptive strand.

Let us look first, then, at some perhaps hidden factors mediating the influence of the descriptive strand on the interventionist strand.

10.3.1 Reformulation and re-creation

The interventionist strand of this research was primarily realised through a pedagogic tool, ie the self-access materials. The existence of this pedagogic tool as an independent object, with its own purpose and its own intended audience, had a considerable effect on the ways in which and the extent to which the content of the descriptive model could be expressed within it. This mediation may be considered from two perspectives: that of the text as an object, and that of reader-writer interaction.

Let us look first at the text as an object. For the materials to be able to achieve their goal of helping users re-write a text for publication, they needed to be attractive enough for those who had requested them to then go on to use them. Two essential aspects of attractiveness, for a busy, goal-focused, non-captive audience, are manageable length and brisk pace. These two needs considerably mediated the influence of the model on the materials.

In order to keep the materials to what I hoped would be a manageable length, certain aspects of the model had to be almost completely omitted. Probably the main example is the discussion in chapter 8 subsection 8.6.4 on metatext as a pointer to R and as an illocutionary signal. In the self-access materials these ideas have only the briefest mention (in section 4.5.3 which mainly deals with abstracts). I had to resist the temptation to talk about everything I 'knew': decisions on what to omit had to be taken from the perspective of the coherence of the *materials* as a text in their own right.

In order to keep a brisk pace, I had to reduce the length of the discussion surrounding the constructs put forward in the model and the materials. So for example the detailed discussion of the bases of the describe<->interpret and

recognise->invent continua (chapter 8 sections 8.1.2 and 8.2.2) is dealt with far more briefly in the materials. I argued in chapter 9 section 9.3.4 that the self-access materials share their theory with the users, and discussions of rationale are certainly an important part of the materials. Nevertheless these discussions are briefer and less detailed than the discussions of the same constructs in the presentation of the model, which gives the materials a much more 'how-to' feel. This difference is I think appropriate to the differing audiences and purposes of the two texts.

Issues of writer voice and of writer-reader positioning are also, clearly, a part of attractiveness in the sense that I am using the term here; and this leads to a discussion of reader-writer interaction in the materials.

As discussed in chapter 9 of this thesis, it was important for the materials to construct their users as far as possible as experts rather than novices, as part of the preparation for taking on the expert's role as an article writer. It was important to respect the knowledge, experience and independence of the users, and this had important implications for the way in which the descriptive model could be presented. I needed to avoid using the model uniquely as a basis for a series of instructions on how to write, or as a vehicle to express my own judgements about what approaches are best in what circumstances. I attempted to engage users' analytical skills in a guided 'discovery' of the constructs posited in the model, and to emphasise choice regarding their use. This approach had major implications for both space in the text and for user time — it thus links in with the comments made on length and pace above.

The guided discovery approach of the materials also, of course, plays a role in the meta-theoretical positioning of this project. To have presented the materials as a set of instructions derived from the 'theory' of the model would arguably have been to separate theory and practice in an unhelpful way. As Carr (1995 p35) points out, the problematic 'gap' between theory and practice in action-focused disciplines may be closed to the extent that practitioners — in this case, users of the materials — themselves formulate decisions about their action (their writing) in the light of their theoretical understanding. By emphasising discovery and choice in the materials, I hope to have expressed a commitment to praxis and to have moved towards the facilitation thereof.

The argument of this subsection, then, has been that the self-access materials were more of a reformulation than a restatement of the descriptive model as it was (Wharton 1996) at the time the materials were written. The model

informed the materials, but it would be too crude to describe the materials as an application of the model. The demands of the materials as a text in their own right precluded a simple reproduction of the model within them.

In the following subsections, I will go beyond these ideas and look at how various aspects of the interventionist strand: miscellaneous interactions, the *LSU Bulletin*, and the self-access materials, actually influenced and changed various versions of the descriptive model, right up to the 'final' version which is expressed in chapters 7 and 8 of this thesis.

10.3.2 Miscellaneous interactions and the descriptive model

The term *miscellaneous interactions* refers to a heterogeneous group of exchanges which took place near the beginning of this research project between myself and MSc participants/ graduates on the subject of writing for publication. As I explained in chapter 4, I publicised my interest in article writing early in 1994 and a certain number of MSc participants contacted me to ask for advice on articles they were preparing and/or to share successive drafts of articles with me.

These exchanges provided data which contributed to the development of the descriptive model. For example, talking to writers about their *intentions* in their texts supported my emerging idea of an illocutionary model. In chapter 7 section 7.2 I mention my recourse to the terminology of speech act theory when trying different genre analytical models with *ELT Journal* articles: these early exchanges with writers are in some ways part of the same process, in that they contributed to my view that purpose-oriented description was the most appropriate for these circumstances.

In certain cases, my intuitive work with a participant's text contributed very directly to the development of one of the constructs of the model. For example in June 1995 I was in contact with Jean Wilson about a draft article of hers, entitled "Teaching conversation through coursebooks" which discussed the kinds of input and methodology which might best help language learners improve their conversational skills and then compared two coursebooks' approaches to teaching conversation. The following extracts, from a letter which I sent to her commenting on her article, show the developing notion of different types of R and evaluation-type Rs and articles.

"Would you agree that this text might fairly be classified as an analysis focused or evaluation focused article? Is your single main purpose to

evaluate, for your readers, two approaches to conversation in coursebooks? Is your own analysis of these books your single main offering to the readership?"

"The title. When I first read it I thought 'does she mean 'how to' or 'problems with'? And now that I've read the whole piece I think you don't mean either — is it more like 'a comparison of two books' approaches to teaching conversation'?"

"The last sentence of paragraph 1 [of a particular section] ("How can we assess how effective a coursebook might be in teaching conversational skills?") is absolutely essential. It's the signal of your major offering and the main focus of your article. In real-world terms I've suggested that this offering is an evaluation — in internal, textual terms, the sections coming up of course function as R. The analysis is your textual response to the textual problem of comparing two coursebooks".

Then another extract from the letter, this time commenting on the concluding section of the draft article, shows development of ideas about the exophoric illocution of E:

"I'm not sure how I should classify this section in illocutionary force terms. It is obviously evaluating — but so were sections 5-11, and yet this one is different from them. Is your purpose in this section to bring out the *implications* of your analysis for teaching? So is it a claim of significance for the analysis? Or do you see yourself as summing up the analysis? Please let me know!"

As well as influencing the descriptive model, these early pedagogic exchanges also influenced the format of the main pedagogic tool of this project, ie the self-access materials. I was acutely conscious, throughout the early exchanges, that I was being very directive and giving writers advice. I tried to link this advice to my perception of their intentions or — much better — to their expressed intentions, but I was still very aware that mine was too dominant a voice in the exchange because *I* was analysing *their* text. From my feeling of dissatisfaction emerged the intention to design the self-access materials around tasks and around a discovery methodology, so that it became the users who analysed their own texts.

10.3.3 The *Bulletin* and the descriptive model

As has been briefly mentioned earlier in this chapter, the *LSU Bulletin* is the in-house journal of the Language Studies Unit. It publishes both articles and shorter pieces from MSc participants and graduates, and is circulated to participants and recent graduates of all major LSU courses. As editor of the *Bulletin*, I try to encourage contributions and to see myself in a facilitating

rather than a gatekeeping role, as the following statement of editorial policy, taken from the *Bulletin's* "Notes for Contributors", will illustrate:

"The *Bulletin* aims to encourage, rather than restrict, contributions: so a system of referees acting as gatekeepers would not be appropriate. Wherever possible the editor and LSU colleagues will work with potential contributors to try and produce an item suitable for inclusion in the *Bulletin*.

A lot of work is needed to turn an original idea, or even a finished assignment, into a published paper. Contributors should be prepared to give their piece time, care and attention at all stages of the process".

In my role as editor of the *Bulletin*, I have been able to make use of my emerging and developing descriptive model; and likewise, my exchanges with contributors have provided me with data which informed that model. Just as in the miscellaneous interactions, there were occasions when my work with a participant's text fed fairly directly into the development of one of the constructs of the model. In 1995 I was in contact with Mark Hancock regarding a classroom research assignment submitted as an article for the *Bulletin* and entitled "Categories of classroom code switching: language classroom as bilingual community".

The introduction to the draft article was as follows:

Code switching, or "the alternate use of two or more languages in the same utterance or conversation" (Grosjean 1982: 145) must be a salient phenomenon in most second language classrooms. This is even more likely where the learners all share a common L1, which is also an L1 or L2 for the teacher. Much of the literature on code switching has focused on bilingual communities, where it is claimed "both message form and message content play a role in implicature" (Gumperz 1982: 95). Thus, the members of these cultures can convey semantically significant information through their choice of code. But if bilingual ability is seen as a cline (Kachru 1985) with perhaps our learners near the lower end of it, and the classroom is something of a culture (Breen 1985) then there is reason to suggest code choice has potential to generate implicatures here too. This possibility has received relatively little attention as yet. (Hancock 1995 draft p1)

Studying the introduction to this draft article helped me to start to shape my ideas on the describe<->interpret continuum for S. This can be illustrated by the following extracts from my letter to the writer:

"In pragmatic terms I think that the overall purpose of this section is to develop common ground with your readers. You are taking a situation which we all know (Ls codeswitch in class) and asking us to accept that there is an analogy between this and the codeswitching that goes on in "bilingual communities". It's an essential move to make: if we don't

believe you, then a lot of the justification for your framework is lost."

"In [the introduction] you have attempted to *reinterpret* the familiar situation of classroom code switching in terms of the constructs used to explain codeswitching in bilingual communities. This is a lot to ask of the reader in [such a short space] and I think one or more explicit signals of pragmatic intention could be helpful. Could you for example start [the section "Much of the literature..."] with a statement like "To understand the significance of this phenomenon we might look at..." and could you make the parallelism between bilingual communities and classrooms clearer [as the introduction develops?]"

In response to the above feedback, the writer divided his opening paragraph into two and added a sentence, as follows (revisions in italics):

Code switching, or "the alternate use of two or more languages in the same utterance or conversation" (Grosjean 1982: 145) must be a salient phenomenon in most second language classrooms. This is even more likely where the learners all share a common L1, which is also an L1 or L2 for the teacher. *The implication of this is that there may be important insights into the classroom to be gained from work already done on code-switching in other contexts.*

Much of the literature on code switching has focused on bilingual communities, where it is claimed "both message form and message content play a role in implicature" (Gumperz 1982: 95) . Thus, the members of these cultures can convey semantically significant information through their choice of code. But if bilingual ability is seen as a cline (Kachru 1985) with perhaps our learners near the lower end of it, and the classroom is something of a culture (Breen 1985) then there is reason to suggest code choice has potential to generate implicatures here too. This possibility has received relatively little attention as yet. (Hancock 1995 p14)

The success of talking about texts in terms of the intentions of their writers gave further support to the idea of an illocutionary model, and gave me some confidence that the illocutionary constructs I was developing did in fact have psychological reality for other writers.

Before leaving this subsection, it seems appropriate to expand a little on the role of the *Bulletin* as part of the interventionist strand of this research project. As was discussed above, the *Bulletin* is an in-house journal, edited by myself but not refereed, and with the policy of assisting all aspiring contributors to achieve a publishable contribution. There are clear differences between the social action of writing for the *Bulletin* and that of writing for a journal such as *ELT Journal*. Given then the emphasis in chapter 9 on authenticity of task for genre learning, to what extent is it justifiable to include the *Bulletin* as part of the interventionist strand of this project? I would argue that it is valid to see publication in the *Bulletin* as an intermediate step to publication in a refereed

journal. Let us look at the justification for this assertion.

The role of the *Bulletin* can be profitably understood using Lave & Wenger's (1991) concept of Legitimate Peripheral Participation. Lave & Wenger develop the concept mainly with reference to apprentice-type relationships where novices participate in the practice of experts to a limited degree and with limited responsibility for outcomes. Article writing for the *Bulletin* is not directly like this: people write alone and so the practice is theirs. Yet in the sense that these writers are beginning an activity which confers elite status in our profession, then they are joining in a practice which is commonly carried out by experts. It is also the case that their products may be shaped in collaboration with the editor, who for the purposes of that interaction adopts an expert's role.

Let us look more closely at the concept of participation to a limited degree. Here the parallel with the *Bulletin* is clear: as an in-house journal it is on the periphery of the expert practice of article writing, so writing in it can be seen as participation to a limited degree. For Lave & Wenger, this type of participation should be understood as a preparation for full participation later on.

Lave & Wenger's comments on the role of the expert within the legitimate peripheral participation relationship are also interesting. They argue that the expert assists the novice as much by the conferring of legitimacy on the novice's work as by the transmission of knowledge and concepts. In the case of the *Bulletin* we can see that legitimacy is conferred perhaps partly by the person of the editor, who says when an article has become publishable. But it is conferred much more by the existence of the *Bulletin* itself: the article appears in print and is circulated among the writer's peer group, and its form as a published article gives it many of the connotations of an article discussed in chapter 5 sections 5.3 and 5.4. Within the circulation group, the writer becomes constructed as an expert. This, then, is appropriate preparation for publication in a refereed journal where writers are constructed as experts in the context of the profession as a whole.

A brief investigation among the 15 contributors to the *Bulletin* in 1994-1996 indicates that many of them did indeed go on to contribute articles to prestigious journals. John Eldridge and Mark Hancock have published in *ELT Journal* and *TESOL Quarterly* respectively; others have published in *IATEFL Issues*, *International Journal of Corpus Linguistics*, *The Teacher Trainer*, in local journals and in edited collections.

A list of references may be found in appendix F.

For some of these writers, the refereed journal article was very similar in content to the *Bulletin* article — in such cases, the *Bulletin* seems to have worked as a very effective practice run.

10.3.4 The materials and the descriptive model

The self-access materials are the single major part of the interventionist strand. They were not written until a 'complete' version of the descriptive model (Wharton 1996) was available on which to base them. And yet, the writing of the materials also had a considerable influence on the 'final' version of the descriptive model as put forward in chapters 7 and 8 of this thesis. It would perhaps be fair to say that the materials in some senses represent an intermediate version of the model, somewhere between the one put forward in Wharton 1996 and the one put forward in this thesis.

The fact that I was writing the materials for a wide and non-captive audience led, I feel, to more clarity of expression, and better organisation and structuring as I attempted to make my points in an accessible manner. I was then able to carry these improvements back into the presentation of the model in this thesis. An example of this is the use of different subsections for different aspects of each element of text. In the Wharton 1996 version, many of these aspects were presented together. This point is, of course, about more than form — conceptual clarity improved hand in hand with organisational clarity.

Audience awareness in the materials also influenced me to make a major terminological change in the descriptive model. In the Wharton 1996 version I attempted to give an additional use to Hoey's SPRE terminology, and use that terminology to describe the various types of article I had identified. So for example, an analysis type article might have been referred to as a P-focused article.

However, as I worked on the materials and piloted them it became clear that this terminological approach was extremely unwieldy. "P focused article" may sound reasonably appealing, but "article with a BR focused R followed by an R focused R" is frankly confusing. On a conceptual level also, I came to feel that this particular use of SPRE terminology was not appropriate. I found it difficult to make any meaningful and reliable distinction between "S focused" and "P

focused" articles. I came to feel that the term "E focus" was misleading, since evaluation type articles evaluate work *other than* that of the writer, whereas E in the SPRE pattern usually refers to evaluation of the writer's own R.

For all of these reasons, I decided to move to using the terms action-type, rationale-type, analysis-type and evaluation-type to describe kinds of article and kinds of R.

Other constructs of the model were also considerably refined by the writing of the self-access materials. For example the notion that the illocutionary continua for BR and for E relate to discourse community positioning and paradigm alignment only really became clear to me as I worked with a wider variety of examples to draft the materials. In Wharton 1996, I was still attempting to relate them to the common ground/ newness distinction which is so relevant for the continua for S and P, and had not seen that the discourse community positioning idea is in fact more useful.

The self-access materials contain certain elements which were not included in the Wharton 1996 version of the model. Two important such elements were the whole section on newness (section 5 of materials) and the various subsections on pitfalls or difficulties (sections 4.1.3, 4.2.4, 5.3 of materials). I included these elements to satisfy the demands of a pedagogic text: it seemed to me appropriate to focus very explicitly on how to flag up one's contribution as new and original and how to avoid alienating readers as one does so. But again, as I worked with my textual examples to draft these sections my understanding of the target genre continued to develop, and the concepts which underpinned these sections of the materials were incorporated into the latest version of the model.

In this subsection, then, I have tried to show how the self-access materials were based on one version of the descriptive model and contributed to the development of a subsequent version. But also, of course, the materials must serve as a 'test' for the model — it is in user's reactions to the materials that I find some of the data via which I can evaluate the success of the model in use. This evaluation, and others, will be undertaken in chapter 12.

10.4 Implications of the relationships between descriptive and interventionist strands

The interventionist strand gives the project as a whole the potential of achieving validity at Heron's (1996) *transformative* level, at which the development of skills for social action can be facilitated and social action itself can be changed. Heron argues that propositional findings — such as could be represented by a descriptive strand alone — may be valid in their own terms, but if a project stops with them they must "await *consummation* in a future transformative inquiry that is elaborated from them" (p172 original italics).

Then, because I decided right from the beginning of this project that it would have both a descriptive and an interventionist strand, the descriptive strand itself was always pedagogically motivated. Carr (1995) argues that this type of awareness has an influence on the nature of theory produced by descriptive work and is also what gives such theory a right to be termed educational.

The existence of an interventionist strand also has an important influence on the meta-theoretical positioning of the project. Readers may recall from chapter one that research paradigms were largely discussed *in the light of the goals of the research*; clearly, this discussion may have been different if the research had not been designed to facilitate changes in social action as well as to make discoveries about a genre.

These arguments about the importance of the interventionist strand, together with the discussion in this chapter of its influence on the descriptive strand, lead to an interesting reflection on the nature of description. The idea is today commonplace that description can never relate only to an object of description, but must always be mediated by the perceptions of the describer. Perhaps it is possible to go further than that and say that it must also be mediated by the describer's constructed audience: this audience also determines the type of description that is possible. Like any communication, a description has to start from common ground, and it is the constructed audience which determines what that common ground can be.

For my descriptive model, the constructed audience is made up of readers and examiners of this thesis but also of the users of the self-access materials. The characteristics of the group of users, the fact that they and I share community and analytical knowledge, and the pedagogic nature of my motivation, all

played a role in leading to the purpose-oriented descriptive model which was developed.

I attempted to show in section 7.2 of chapter 7 that the descriptive model was developed through a cyclic process of drafting, experimental textual analysis, and re-drafting. But the interventionist strand also plays a key part in subjecting it to what Heron (1982, 1988, 1996) calls a research cycle of reflection and experience. Heron argues that any conceptual model is improved by such cycling to the extent that a dynamic interplay between reflective and experiential phases is maintained. A balance between experience and reflection is needed if one is to combine a focus on the model and a consistent interpretative line on the data with an openness to the possibility of modifying the model in the light of experience. In this project the experiential phases consist not only of the model being used and reflected upon by me as I developed it and wrote the materials, but also of the model being used by other people in the service of pre-existing goals of theirs. This latter use 'tests' the claim that the model represents the kind of knowledge that "[practitioners] can apply to their own behaviour in the midst of ongoing events, in order to help them inquire more effectively [into their work]" (Torbert 1981 p143).

The awareness-raising, theory-sharing style of the materials means that they can remain close to the descriptive model on which they are based. It is legitimate, then, to see sharing the materials and asking for feedback as facilitating an exchange of views relevant to the descriptive model itself. Participants make their own decision about the implications of the descriptive model for their own rhetorical strategies and their feedback will contribute to its ongoing reformulation. As was discussed in chapter 1, in this sense the current research moves a little way towards what Heron (1996) has termed participative or co-operative research. Reason (1988) argues that the minimum criteria for a research project to be considered co-operative are that "the nature of the involvement of all participants should be openly negotiated, that all should contribute to the creative thinking that is part of the research, and that relationships should aim to be authentically collaborative" (p9). Reason explicitly states that these criteria are valid even where the group only work together for part of the research project. In my interventionist strand, I have attempted to meet these criteria.

To the extent that this attempt has been successful, "authentic collaboration" in the sense of Heron (1982, 1996) may have been achieved. The relative status of research participants is always an issue in an enquiry where an original

researcher co-opts others. As Reason (1988) points out, the question of who the research is 'really' for looms large — especially in interventionist work which purports to provide a service, but which also involves those taking up the service in a considerable amount of labour. Heron (1996) argues that true authentic collaboration is a feature only of a fully participative enquiry; nevertheless, by attempting to develop an interventionist strand which in itself involves both action and reflection, in which no-one is restricted to implementation only, I hope to have increased the likelihood of the enquiry being internalised by many participants and consequently to have achieved more valid research. The final evaluation of this research will be informed by the results of the working of a number of participants towards a similar goal, and this is an important part of the basis for any claims made.

In global terms the relationships between the descriptive and interventionist strands seem to bring the project within what Altrichter et al (1993) term the reflective rationality approach to innovation. Within this approach it is assumed that practical problems require context-specific solutions and that these must be developed with the participation of practitioners. In this project, no general answer is proposed to the practical problem of how to reformulate a text for publication: the materials propose options, and rely on the judgement of users in response to contextual criteria. Practitioners — users in this case — participate in the development of 'solutions' at two levels. Firstly, via their exercise of choice and judgement in finding the solution to how to reformulate *their* particular text. And then, because of the influences of the interventionist on the descriptive strand, they can also participate in the formulation of the parent theory itself.

10.5 A comment on terminology

In much of this chapter and also chapter 1, the terms *theory* and *practice* have been used to discuss the descriptive and interventionist strands of this research respectively. Yet a certain amount of the discussion has been couched in the literature of eg Teacher Education, where the terms have meanings that are at first sight quite different: at the risk of oversimplifying, *practice* refers to what teachers do in classrooms and *theory* refers to formalised conceptualisations of what they are supposed to do there. I will therefore take a few lines, at the end of this chapter, to discuss my use of the terms *theory* and *practice* with reference to the descriptive and interventionist strands of the current research.

Carr (1995 p32) argues that the term *theory* may have many meanings and

connotations, ranging from the products of theoretical enquiries which are perhaps now formalised as laws, to much looser reference to the framework of thought that structures and guides enquiry and/or action. The descriptive strand is theory in the sense that it attempts — with all the provisos already made — to arrive at a description of a *genre*, ie of an abstraction above any instance of text, which is nevertheless valid for the analysis of actual texts.

The interventionist strand is practice in the sense that it involves action directed to achieving an end, both on my part and on the part of other research participants. The action is guided both by awareness of theory, and by the exigencies of each unique practical situation — each potential article.

Carr (1995 p32) argues that theory in education acquires legitimacy "by demonstrating a capacity to explore a particular range of problems in a systematic and rigorous manner". That is one reason why the role of the materials as a test for the model — see chapter 12 — is important, and why I need to make as explicit a statement as possible about all the relationships between the descriptive and the interventionist strands.

Chapter eleven

Feedback from the self-access materials

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- 11.6 A meta-comment on the 'second round' of feedback
- 11.7 Concluding comments on chapter eleven

11.1 Introduction

In this chapter I will begin to evaluate the success of the project at its present stage. I will report and begin to comment on feedback from research participants who have, to varying degrees, made use of the self-access materials. This data and initial commentary will form the basis for an interim evaluation of the whole project, to be undertaken in chapter 12.

All research participants who are quoted here were sent a first draft of my report on their feedback and invited to comment on it and to re-iterate their permission for it to be included in the thesis. (See letters, appendix G) Comments elicited by this process are indicated by the phrase "in the second round". For comments on the importance of this feedback checking procedure, see chapter 12.

As of October 1998, 34 MSc participants/ graduates had requested a copy of the self-access materials by post and a further group of 10 had seen them in a workshop setting with me.

Of those who requested the materials by post, by October 1998 two had spontaneously responded with feedback and a further sixteen had responded to a 'reminder' request for feedback sent out in June 1998 (see appendix H). Out of these sixteen, five commented that they had not yet read the materials. Feedback from the remaining eleven came in the form of both written comments and of telephone or face to face interviews.

The presentation of the materials in a workshop setting took place in Xalapa, Mexico in December 1997. The workshop was taped, and my comments on it (see section 11.3) are based on notes I took at the time and on the tape recording.

11.2 Comments from those who have read, but not yet used, the materials

A number of respondents who report themselves as having read, but not yet worked with, the materials made comments to me about their impressions. In this first, brief section I summarise some of their comments thematically, and illustrate the themes with quotations from respondents.

Some themes, then, were:

- Concern about the length of the materials and the time needed to work with them

" In fact I did start working a little with it from my dissertation, but ... going through fifty pages and using each technique and exercises seemed like it would take forever and I just didn't have time". (Linda Bawcom)

This comment suggests that despite my efforts to keep the materials to a manageable length (see chapter 10 subsection 10.3.1), this research participant was put off using them because of length and time considerations. In her second round feedback however, Linda emphasises that length/time was only a problem at the precise moment she received the materials, because she was half way through her dissertation at that time. She comments "if I were to use your material for publishing (which I probably will be doing this year) the length would not be a limitation".

- Confirmation that the descriptive model relates to assignments as well as articles

"Damn! I wish I had had this six months ago before I started writing my dissertation!" (Linda Bawcom)

This comment, which was strongly echoed by participants in the Xalapa workshop, suggests that for some users at least my attempt to use assignments as a starting point had worked well.

- Increasing awareness of the difference between assignments and articles

"One point that did come over quite strongly in my reading of your materials was the extent to which my assignment is precisely that — an assignment rather than an article. I suppose that in writing it I was very keen to impress upon the tutor that I knew what I was talking about (hence a lengthy section on defining code-switch versus borrowing) and that my description of the teaching situation takes up several paragraphs (show the tutor what I'm doing in my classroom) whereas in Eldridge [1997] it takes up one sentence" (Bob Jones)

Bob reports himself as considering writing an article based on his classroom research assignment, on L1 use in class. His comments above indicate that he has quite a specific sense of some of the reformulations which would be needed if he were to submit it for publication. In his second round feedback Bob takes up this point again in more detail, analysing the S section of his assignment and arguing that its form is determined by his picture of the requirements of the Msc

course. It is interesting to note that the issues which Bob identifies — particularly the issues of lengths of certain sections — closely mirror the problems which I discuss in chapter 4 section 4.4, on an unmodified assignment which failed to be accepted for publication.

- Awareness of newness as an objective concept:

"My initial impression, personally, is a drastic change in my own outlook to publication. When I first requested the materials I felt, as you say, unable to speak 'expertly'. But, after getting a few more assignments under my belt, working with the professionals at Aston, meeting editors, etc, I feel my research now contains enough 'new' that I can approach it as somewhat of an expert." (Kent Hill)

This comment relates to the arguments made in chapter 2 of this thesis about the role of the MSc course and its assignments in helping people to reach a position where article publication is a realistic possibility for them. In his second round feedback, Kent indeed emphasises that an aspiring writer needs to do research into what 'really is' new in a particular area. I interpret Kent's original comments as indicating that he has achieved certain prerequisites in terms of having something new to say, and will now, it is hoped, go on to find an 'expert' voice in which to write articles for publication. In his second round feedback, Kent indicated unease about the term "expert voice", and says he prefers to think that he has now found his own "pedagogical stance".

- Awareness of newness as a textual concept:

"For the last fifteen years, in various disciplines, I have been 'supposed' to publish, but I never had the confidence that I had anything interesting to say. When I did get round to submitting a journal article I was told the material was out of date.

While I suppose I knew that newness and interestingness were in part artefacts of discourse, your research gives me new confidence to approach writing as a 'member of a discourse community'". (Don Hassett).

Don's comment picks up on what seems to be a frequent worry of those contemplating publication, ie that they do not have anything new to say. And this despite the fact that Don's grades on the MSc course have been particularly good. His comment suggests that he now has a more detailed conceptualisation of newness as something that may be textually created as well as having objective existence, and that he feels more confident as a result. In his second round feedback Don confirms this interpretation.

- Comments on the scope of the materials

"[the materials] provide a very valuable aid for those of us writing articles with a strong pedagogical focus of the type that would appear in ELTJ but are likely to be less helpful for articles such as the one I propose to write in the future which has a high linguistic focus. It is based on my MSc dissertation and will be purely descriptive... I do not see a clear application of SPRE to this type of article and would like to propose a future project for any interested party in writing a generic description of the type of article featured in *Applied Linguistics* or a similar journal..." (Bob Jones)

It seems, then, that Bob associates SPRE very closely with *pedagogic* problems and solutions and is less convinced that the framework can elucidate eg analysis focused articles. In his second round feedback Bob discusses this idea in very much more detail. He confirms that his original interpretation of R was exclusively action-type. He suggests that the early presentations of SPRE in my self-access materials, eg Hoey's (1983) "sentry duty" story and the two MET articles, very much build up a picture of R as action. He presents himself as having taken time to understand the concept of different types of R, but as being convinced by it now.

Bob also discusses the demonstrate<->speculate continuum for R in his second round feedback. He suggests that most of his own work lies towards the demonstrate end of the continuum, and argues that this would be true for most Aston participants because the MSc course actively encourages people to write that way.

Then Bob also feels that there is a status issue around the demonstrate<->speculate continuum: "I also feel that for the novice writer demonstrate Rs are perhaps a more realistic option and that speculative Rs may be dangerous for those who have not yet made a name for themselves — fine for Widdowson but maybe not for me, just yet".

The issues which Bob raises will be discussed again in chapter 13. Later in the current chapter I will report other feedback to the effect that the materials are biased towards pedagogic rather than descriptive articles.

This section has been brief, centring as it does on comments of respondents who have not yet used the materials to write anything. I have selected individual pieces of feedback to report, which seem to me to relate closely to the criteria for evaluation of this research which will be developed in chapter 12. My quotation of individual participants also serves to emphasise that I am

not claiming that the views quoted are, or indeed are not, generally held: their value is as documentation of the thoughts of an individual.

11.3 The materials in a workshop setting

In December 1997 a group of teachers from the Universidad Veracruzana, Xalapa, Mexico, started to use the materials in a workshop setting. These teachers¹ are all MSc graduates whom I know well, having been their tutor throughout their course. The LSU continues to work with this group on a consultancy basis, helping the Universidad Veracruzana set up its own masters degree in Teaching English. My visit to the group in December 1997 formed part of the consultancy agreement, and because the group were aware of the work I was doing on article writing they asked me to make this one aspect of our work together.

The way the materials were used in this workshop setting is clearly different from the way they would be used by writers working alone. I made an initial presentation whose content corresponded roughly to the presentation of the analytical model in sections 1 - 3 of the materials. I then gave workshop participants copies of the self-access materials, and invited them to read through them and begin to work on a text of theirs during the week. At appropriate intervals during the week we held group discussion sessions to look at how everyone was getting on and share any ideas which had arisen. The points I make in this section are drawn from notes and tape recordings of these group discussion sessions.

11.3.1 Discussion of structure

Quite a lot of time, especially near the beginning of the week, was devoted to discussion of article structure. There was a group consensus to the effect that it has been quite easy to identify the SPRE elements in individual texts, but there was much discussion about the precise way these elements might be organised.

For example, three participants (Oscar Narvaez, Maricarmen Hernández, Carmen Sánchez) were concerned to have found SPRE microcosms in their introduction, while a fourth (Pat Reidy) said that her structure was cyclical all through, repeating various of the elements and adding new information at each

¹ The names of the workshop participants were: Paula Busseniers; Barbara González; Maricarmen Hernández; Cecilio López; Tito Mata; Oscar Narvaez; Graciela Olivera; Pat Reidy; Carmen Sánchez; Sergio Valdivia.

point. Graciela Olivera enquired about the acceptability of having P before S, as her text did.

For me the most salient aspect of the discussion was the obvious unease these writers felt on discovering that their text patterning differed from a canonical SPRE format. The writers had all been able to analyse the structure of their texts, but at this point of the discussion at least they were not finding it to be an empowering experience — they were too worried that they 'should' have found something else. In her second round feedback, Mary Carmen Hernández strongly confirms this feeling: "I first thought that it would be better to try to rewrite it all following that [SPRE] pattern, which I did not find easy either, instead of trying to find the elements elsewhere, apart from in the introduction". My own contribution to this aspect of discussions at the time of the workshop was to reassure people that patterns other than the canonical were indeed both acceptable and frequent in the literature. I also needed to emphasise that the elements of text referred to were *macro* - elements, and that at sentence or paragraph level, there could be tens or hundreds of SPRE and other text patterns in an article.

On a deeper level I need to give some thought, of course, to the reasons for the workshop participants' unease. It may be that in my initial presentation (not tape recorded) I failed to give sufficient emphasis to the possibility of non-canonical and complex structure. But it may also be that for these particular writers, any difference between the virtual pattern put forward by the materials and the actual pattern of their own text would inevitably be perceived as deficit rather than difference. This issue is picked up in more detail later in this section.

11.3.2 Discovery of need for change at element level

After a certain amount of time the group was able to move on from issues of structure to look at how particular elements of text were working. This phase of work and discussion generated a number of concrete ideas and analytical observations. For example in discussion of S, individual participants reported that the model had helped them see specific weaknesses in their own texts, such as lack of setting information where it would have been useful, insufficiently backed up SoA type S, and insufficiently elaborated interpret S.

For me this discussion session was satisfying as I felt it suggested that the participants were able to use the materials as I had hoped they would be used:

to take decisions on the reformulation of their own text, in the light of deeper understanding of what they wanted that (part of) text to do for them.

Participants' own reactions to discoveries about how different sections of their text were working varied. While some seemed to feel positive that they knew where they had to improve, others seemed rather unhappy to have found what they perceived as inadequacies.

11.3.3 Local <-> general and research validity

The local<->general continua for P and E generated particularly interesting discussion. One participant in particular (Barbara González) initiated discussions about the relationships between general scope Ps and Es and the value of research. She herself felt that general applicability was a sign of higher value research, and wished to look at ways of making links, in text, from local to general issues. She discussed modification of her own text to present a local P (teachers interrupting students in class) as an instance of a more general P, and by analogy suggested, in E, that her locally contextualised R may also have application in other settings.

I felt that Barbara's points were an indication that she was interacting with the materials at a level far above the technical, and demonstrated an awareness of the research paradigm dimension which I had attempted to include in them. Her comment also demonstrates that she is thinking creatively and adaptively about 'solutions' for her own article: the particular local <-> general pattern that she proposes is not one that I have mentioned in the materials.

11.3.4 Quantitative questions

Pat Reidy, a participant who has in the past characterised her own writing and learning style as unconventional, asked me two or three quantitative questions about my research corpus which I was not able to answer. She wanted to know how many articles had cyclical structures, and how many had setting as opposed to SoA type Ss and descriptive as opposed to interpretative Ss. As readers will remember from chapter 8, I have simply not 'counted' the articles in the corpus in this way: it seems to me that enough of them do not fall clearly into *single* categories as to render this a misconceived endeavour. As Lazaraton (1995) and Carr (1995) both point out, the use of descriptive statistics such as frequency counts in qualitative research presupposes that instances may be unequivocally assigned to analytical categories, and this is not the case in my

research. However, Pat's question made me very aware of some of the consequences of this fact for users who may prefer cut and dried information, or who may like to be reassured in *quantitative* terms about what is 'normal'. These are potential learning needs which the materials, and indeed the model, do not currently address.

11.3.5 A lack of straight advice

A certain number of workshop participants said that they had been surprised, on reading the materials, about their awareness-raising nature. They said they had been hoping — naively, as they now put it — for more of a formula or recipe for article writing. Barbara and Pat both commented that the contribution of the materials was to help them understand more what the article genre is like, but that the materials did not go much further than that. They as writers still had to make all the decisions for their own text, and this was experienced as very difficult. At one point Pat asked me to give a judgement about whether a setting type, describe tendency S was a safe bet for a new writer, or simply a boring option.

In her second round feedback, Barbara González picks up this point again. She says:

"I think most people would appreciate more authoritative guidance as this often signifies for most a kind of security. This may be due to possibly the cultural context in which we live and/or the fact that even though during the Masters we tried to support each other, the majority of the time (especially during the first year) we often felt that it was the blind leading the blind!"

and also:

"I think people in general, not just us, always look for a quick recipe of how to do things as apart from the security aspect it gives the impression of being a time saver and here we are always fighting against the clock".

11.3.6 Suggestions for improvement

The notion of improvement to the materials was of course ongoing throughout the workshop, but two suggestions in particular were picked up and elaborated on. I will address the issue of possible modifications to the materials more fully in chapter 13. I include the comments made by the workshop group here, as they of course reveal something about peoples' feelings about the materials as they currently are.

The first suggestion was for an additional task. The group felt that when working with their own texts, discovery of deviation from what I had mentioned led them to feel their own text was inadequate. Their first suggestion was therefore that users should be invited to go through a complete and detailed analysis of an *ELT Journal* article before working with their own texts. They would then find deviations from the canon in this text: and because they would be working with a text that had achieved publication, any deviations from what my materials had led them to expect would still be seen in the context that the text had been successful. This would then give them more confidence if their own text was also found to 'deviate'.

The second suggestion arose in response to a discussion of my own experiences of submitting an article, receiving a rejection, and reformulating it for successful publication elsewhere. The suggestion was that I should include more strategic advice on getting published, such as how to target a journal, the kind of feedback one might expect from reviewers, etc. I expressed concern about the length of the materials, and emphasised that general advice was available elsewhere — the response from the group was that they had been unaware of it.

In a few days of workshops in which we were also addressing many other issues, it was to be expected that participants would not get very far in their use of the materials. My hope was that having begun to analyse their texts, they would be able to carry on to prepare an article for submission in the months that followed. As of October 1998, however, I am not aware that anyone is at this stage. Various group members have told me informally that the workload involved in getting the Universidad Veracruzana masters degree off the ground (it is due to open in November 1998) has made it impossible to spend any time on writing for publication. However, at least some group members continue to assert that this is an interest for them.

11.3.7 Some conclusions to this section

As the feedback reported in this section shows and the second round feedback received confirms, use of the self-access materials gave rise to uncomfortable feelings for some members of this group. Worries about differing from 'the norm' or finding 'inadequacies' in their work, and a desire for more authoritative guidance must all be taken seriously, especially in the light of subsequent decisions not to continue with writing for publication for the moment.

Many members of the group have told me in the past that they are not confident about writing or research. This feeling may in some cases partly arise from their experience on the MSc course, since many group members felt a great deal of uncertainty about the kind of work and writing expected in the assignments and about the UK grading system. In my letter to them eliciting second round feedback I asked informally about this, and both Barbara and Mary Carmen confirmed that they did indeed feel a lack of confidence and that their experience with course assignments was part of the reason for this. It is perhaps the case that certain aspects of the self-access materials which I evaluate positively in chapters 9 and 10: their demands on analytical skills, their awareness raising style, their emphasis on choice, their construction of their users as experts; do in fact go too far in the direction of 'user autonomy' to be entirely beneficial for less confident writers. As this project develops into the future, I need to give careful thought to how to provide such research participants with additional support while at the same time encouraging them to recognise themselves as competent writers.

11.3.8 A meta-comment on the reporting of data in this section

I have not, in the section above, included transcriptions of the spoken words of workshop participants. I am aware that this has certain unfortunate consequences: an opportunity to bring the individual voices of these participants more explicitly into the research has been lost, and my own role in interpreting their comments for the purposes of this evaluation of the materials has been exaggerated. Nevertheless the decision seems to me reasonable in the light of the function of this section in this chapter. I ask readers to bear in mind that I am summarising arguments that may have been developed over several conversational turns, in some cases over more than one day: and to appreciate that to give a detailed, transcribed report with appropriate explanation of transcription decisions would push this particular section over the limits, both spatial and conceptual, of its place in this chapter.

11.4 Feedback from the materials in use

In this section I will discuss a small number of case studies. All the writers I will mention have used the self-access materials to analyse and/or write a text. As will become clear, there is considerable variation in the texts they have worked with and the approaches they have adopted.

11.4.1 Wayne Trotman: *Developing students' oral skills through exploratory teaching*

Wayne, an MSc graduate who has published in the *LSU Bulletin* and in *IATEFL Issues*, used the materials to analyse not an assignment, but an article based on classroom research which he had already submitted to *OUP Turkiye*. In his letter to me he states:

"I have tried to locate and analyse for type the specific illocutions you identified in your corpus, and have indicated those I found and would perhaps alter or add to if I had to rewrite the article".

He made two main suggestions about possible change to his text, both of them to do with positioning vis a vis the readership. The first comment concerned the introduction, which in my opinion (Wayne does not label it) functions as P:

"I have included a Swalesian CARS in my introduction and a hint at newness in the response, with the comment: "They do not generally see themselves as...". I think the same remark might in fact alienate or even threaten some teachers who do see themselves as reflective practitioners".

The text to which this comment relates is:

This [difficult state of affairs] is generally because language teachers feel tightly bound by their traditional classroom role as pedagogues — "providers of information on formal rules". They do not generally see themselves as "reflective practitioners" who might benefit from observing other teachers and, in turn, being observed.

This first comment, then, indicates a heightened awareness of the potential pragmatic dangers of rhetorical techniques whose purpose is to distance the writer from others in the community.

Then Wayne's second comment concerns his E section:

"I'd certainly need to rewrite the final section which I've noticed reads more as an abstract than a genuine evaluation and which is clearly an eg of a "writer-supplied"² that on reflection could be more "reader-invited" after such a response section".

The "final section" to which this comment relates is:

² In the self access materials I used the terms "writer-supply" and "reader-invite" for the continuum for E. In chapter 8 of this thesis I have decided to use simply *invite* and *supply*.

Evaluation

The aim of the article above is to outline how attendance at teacher development sessions may be squeezed into even the fullest of teaching timetables. Our own sessions, for example, enabled us to articulate and begin to overcome a local issue by way of exploratory teaching. Audio recordings and subsequent transcript analysis led us to locate possible reasons for limitations on our learners' oral fluency. Improving oral ability cannot, however, occur in only a week or two. A part of each week needs to be devoted to suitable pairwork tasks which reduce TTT, and increase STT in the L2 and which, at the same time, require learners to negotiate their way through real conversations.

I feel that this second comment indicates a heightened awareness of both the endophoric and exophoric illocutions of E. Wayne realises that his current text confuses intention and suggestion with evaluation. The comment that a reader-invite E might be better after his particular R reflects a heightened awareness of the importance of accurately presenting one's position on the relationship between data and claims. In his second round feedback, Wayne confirms these ideas.

This article in its original form was rejected by *OUP Turkiye*. As of October 1998, Wayne is considering reformulation and re-submission.

11.4..2 Ana Halbach: *Using trainees' diaries for assessment: type of entry and technical terminology*

Ana Halbach, a recent MSc graduate, also sent me comments on her use of the materials to analyse a draft article — in this case, one she was considering submitting to *The Teacher Trainer*.

Ana's comments are quite directly on the materials themselves, and only at one point does she specifically mention a change she made to her text. One of the concluding comments in her letter reads:

"Generally speaking, I have found the materials quite usable and, even though classifying the different parts of a text is not my strong point, not too difficult to understand. For me the most important aspect of your analysis is related to the claim of "newness". In fact, I have changed my introduction to make the claim more forceful. We'll see what happens..."

Ana told me verbally that the particular part of the introduction to which this comment refers is:

However, so far few studies have attempted to use diaries to assess trainees' performance in a teacher-training course (one exception is Jarvis 1992) and when they have done so, the assessment procedure has relied heavily on the individual teacher trainer's perception. It is in this situation that the need for a model arose which could give teacher trainers principled guidance for assessing trainees' performance on the basis of their diaries, and which thus avoided an over-reliance on an intuitive valuation of trainees' production. The aim of this article is to present a system that I developed and used in order to assess trainees' performance in a teacher training course through their diaries.

There is no previous text available with which to compare this version. Nevertheless, the current version can in itself be seen as revealing. In my opinion it is an example of a sensitive differentiation of the writer from others, portraying herself as "filling a gap" rather than "putting things right" (Wharton 1997 section 5.1), while at the same time being very firm that a gap does exist and claiming ownership of the solution which will be presented.

Other comments of Ana's indicate that her interaction with the materials confirmed to her that she was writing as she wished to write. For example, she comments:

"[My article] definitely does not follow the [SPRE] structure strictly speaking, although all the elements are present, **but**: I don't think I'll have to make any major changes".

And also:

"I'm quite sure that my P is closer to the recognise end of the continuum, but I do use quite a lot of references to back up what I say and to establish a common ground. I guess there wouldn't be a problem with that?"

In my view, the above comments indicate that Ana is using the materials reflectively, taking contextually appropriate decisions about where and whether to modify her text. They also indicate her own understanding of the constructs of the model. The first comment indicates that quite a lot of analysis has gone on: in order to conclude that no big changes are needed, I think she must have looked at the *functioning* of all the elements as well as at their sequence. The second comment seems to me to imply that she has created a certain picture of the recognise<-> invent continuum and the 'techniques' most commonly associated with realisations nearer each end of it. Her final question mark seems to indicate a personal theory that recognise Ps *need* not employ the 'backup' associated with invent Ps, but that no difficulty is created if they choose to do so.

Ana's reactions on discovering that aspects of her text differed from what the self-access materials seem to present as 'the norm' form an interesting contrast with the reactions of the workshop group to a similar discovery, as discussed in section 11.3 above.

Ana goes on to make comments which use her own text to question some of the positions put forward in the materials. Commenting on section 3.4 of the materials, in which users are invited to analyse two short articles provided in the light of the endophoric and exophoric illocutions proposed for elements of the SPRE pattern, she says:

"All the evaluations mentioned are positive, no negative aspects are mentioned -> does this mean that no negative aspects (ie objections) should be included? They are an important part of assignments aren't they?"

And later, discussing her own E section, she says:

"In my E section I can't find the structure you suggest should exist: there is negative evaluation very much in line with what has been suggested for writing assignments: that the negative evaluation should mention problems so as to avoid giving the marker reasons to criticise the paper. Would this be negative in an article in which you have to claim your expertise? On the other hand there appears negative evaluation in the samples — perhaps the form you give this evaluation has to be different?"

The text to which this comment refers is:

Objections

Although this two part system, together with the more quantitative aspects mentioned in passing, allowed me to reach a satisfactory assessment of the trainees' work in the course as reflected in their diaries, there are at least two points where this method caused problems, and which I would like to point out briefly.

The first of these difficulties is related to the classification of certain concepts as belonging to the technical vocabulary of the teaching profession. [Elaborates in one paragraph].

The second aspect where I know the system is not watertight is related to the objectivity of the assessment. [Elaborates in one paragraph].

I originally interpreted this comment as casting doubt on my suggestion that main E should normally be positive in order to successfully fulfil its illocution of claim. However in her second round feedback Ana specifies that this was

not her intention: rather, she is genuinely puzzled about the acceptability and role of negative evaluation. Before receiving Ana's second round feedback, I concluded: "This [casting of doubt] indicates engagement with the ideas of the model at the same time as a confidence in her own text as data with which to challenge it. This confidence, as contrasted with the insecurity of the workshop group, has already been discussed. It begins to appear that confidence could be an important factor in getting the most out of the self-access materials." In the light of the second round feedback, it seems appropriate to think in terms of willingness to question, rather than confidence to challenge.

Ana's article was accepted for publication in *The Teacher Trainer*.

11.4.3 Maurice Ward: *Traversing the four orders of removal: what L2-L2 dictionaries can offer learners and Teacher interventions in peer group review processes*

In his feedback on the materials, Maurice offered to discuss his impressions by telephone and so I contacted him on 7 August 1998. He talked about one paper (*Traversing the four orders...*) which he had written from scratch while "bearing the materials in mind", and one paper (*Teacher interventions...*) which he now intends to write, based on his methodology assignment. He also made some comments about the materials themselves. In his second round feedback, he confirms that my interpretations of his comments are acceptable.

11.4.3.1 *Traversing the four orders of removal: what L2-L2 dictionaries can offer learners*

Maurice informed me by telephone that he had written this paper from scratch, after having familiarised himself with my self-access materials. He then sent me a copy of the final version of the paper and two earlier drafts. The comments in this section, then, are based both on the texts and on the telephone interview.

Maurice said that after reading the materials he deliberately decided to give his text an SPRE structure, and that he found this quite easy to do. This suggests that he felt able to 'sign up' to the idea of a useful cultural archetype and understood it at a level where he was able to use it in action.

Maurice also commented that after reading the materials he deliberately made his main S and P short, combining them in the first two paragraphs. This was a deliberate move in the light of their exophoric illocution of build common

ground. Maurice felt that the points he was making were relatively uncontroversial, certainly nearer to the describe and recognise ends of the relevant continua, and so that the necessary building of common ground could be done quickly.

There is a difference, however, between the first and final drafts in this section of the text. In the final draft three sentences have been added to the second paragraph, which seem to function to exemplify the problem that is being discussed. So paragraph two draft one reads:

Language is principally a socialised system of spoken symbols which we use for negotiating ideas and sharing experiences and in so far as individuals share experiences they share a common understanding of the usage of these symbols. (Halliday 1994: xxxi) Meanings of these signs, however, are mediated by discourse communities not by individuals (McKenzie 1997 cited in Roe 1998). Eco's (1984) rhizomic model of language usefully portrays the infinite variability of meaning and its sharing and exposes the impossible task that the limited set of symbols that is language faces in trying to convey a myriad of nuances and endless transitoriness of meaning..

In the final draft, the following text is added to that paragraph:

"As Sinclair (1994) notes, words do not constitute independent selections: choice of one word conditions another — it is impossible to say where realisation of meaning begins and ends, meanings are shared across symbols and their grammar is a grammar of meaning not of words..."a single word leaves a user trying to decide which meaning it has". Sinclair (1994). Is *bear* a noun or a verb? If it is a verb does it have a sense of carrying something physically or the more mental sense of tolerance? Or is it more likely one of a thousand shades in between?

Maurice's comments in the interview indicate that he has developed a view of the functions of S and P that he has used to make judgements and decisions about his writing. The textual extracts above suggest that this understanding is evolving rather than static; in the final draft he has decided that his quite abstract conceptualisation of Problem would be better supported by a specific example.

From a pragmatic perspective, Maurice commented that the main influence of the materials on his writing of this paper was that they increased his notion of audience awareness. He told me that his intention had always been to include an analysis of dictionaries from a Marxist orientation, but he decided to modify this considerably because he felt that it may be not only unfamiliar but unpopular. He then specified that he did not modify the ideas, just the way

they are expressed. This assertion, although it begs questions on one level, can be taken as an indication of an increased understanding that newness can only be achieved if it connects to what is already accepted, and that this puts a responsibility on the writer to judge the discourse community's state of mind and modify their text accordingly.

This awareness and this decision are reflected in developments of the text between first and final draft. The first part of the analysis type R section³ (not quoted for reasons of space) is approximately 25% longer in the final version. This can be interpreted as an indication of Maurice's increasing awareness that more input would be needed for the audience to be able to accept his Marxist analysis of the role of dictionaries in society.

11.4.3.2 *Teacher interventions in peer group review process*

The above is the title of Maurice's methodology assignment, for which he received an A grade. He informally submitted an unchanged version of it to the editor of the JALT journal *The language teacher*, and received feedback to the effect that the content was interesting and publishable, but that the text would require re-working to function as a published article. More detailed comments were not provided, and Maurice says that he was initially uncertain what form the re-working should take.

Maurice told me by telephone that having read the self-access materials he now has a general idea of how he should modify his text. He said that he would re-write the piece with more authority and confidence: particularly, that he would eliminate large numbers of references supporting ideas which, he now feels, do not need such support: the point may be carried by invocation of shared experience. He feels that excessive references are not only unnecessary but possibly inconsistent with the "expert" persona of the article writer. This of course forms an interesting contrast with Ana Halbach's comment above, and suggests a certain difference between the "ablocutionary value" (Edge 1989) that this particular section of the materials may have for these two writers.

Perhaps a good example of text which would be changed in the light of this awareness is the P section.⁴ This section, which identifies Process Writing as an issue, deals with both P as goal and P as difficulty. This is done under the respective subheadings "The need to take a process approach" and "The clash

³This is my label: Maurice himself does not label the section

⁴My label

with the expectations of academic readers". The complete section is approximately 700 words long, and it is supported by fourteen different references; rather more than one might expect to see in the equivalent section of a published article.

Because Maurice's comments on reformulation are at a general level (contrast with Wayne Trotman, above) the interpretation which can be given to his comments must remain unsure. His assertion that he would write with more authority and confidence suggests that he has grasped the key difference between the assignment and article genres, but until he attempts to use his new understandings for action neither he nor any observer can be sure what they in fact are. Nevertheless one should not underestimate the importance of having moved from a position of being unsure how to proceed at all, to having a global idea — even if that global idea still awaits realisation in action.

11.4.3.3 Comments on the materials

Maurice also made some comments on the materials themselves. He expressed particular support for the use of continua to put forward different approaches to the management of illocutions of textual elements. He agreed with the suggestion that this was not a matter of either/or. This comment suggests that Maurice is comfortable with the materials' emphasis on fuzzy categorisation and on choice. His reaction contrasts, of course, with that of the workshop group as seen in section 11.3.

Maurice commented critically on my summary (Wharton 1997 p30) of the differences between recognise and invent tendency Ps, disagreeing with my suggestion that the extract (Upshur & Turner 1995:5-6) which I categorise as more invent contains more technical terms and unfamiliar content than the extract (Dornyei & Thurrell 1994:40) which I categorise as more recognise.

From the latter comment it is clear that Maurice has engaged deeply with some of the samples provided in the materials, and has formed a personal analysis of them which does not necessarily coincide with mine.

11.4.4 Sonia Russell

Sonia agreed to be interviewed about her impressions of the self-access materials, and we met to discuss them on 11 August 1998. Our interview was tape recorded and I quote from it here. In her second round feedback, Sonia

confirms that my interpretation of our exchanges is acceptable to her. Readers will observe that what follows is in no sense a detailed transcription, and that features such as hesitation, pauses, overlap, intonation etc are not included. The interview was open ended and the organisation of this section does not necessarily reflect the sequence of discussion.

11.4.4.1 Text pattern and text content

Sonia explained that she had first attempted to use the materials with her dissertation — but as she worked through them she came to the conclusion that this would be impossible, because "however hard I tried to smash my dissertation into an SPRE frame, I couldn't ... I couldn't do it". Sonia went on to explain that her dissertation (which received an A grade) had been based on a conversation analysis project, in which she had investigated dysfluencies in spoken data and attempted to arrive at a typology of dysfluencies. She said that she had started to consider pedagogic implications at the end of the project, and she asserts "though not having written it with pedagogy in mind, there was no way that it could fit with SPRE".

This comment concerned me, and so I probed a little deeper:

SW OK. I'm interested that you say that because ... I mean, I don't know your dissertation but from what you've said I wonder to what extent that's because in your mind the R bit has to be pedagogic response. Could you not see that your R could be an analytical response?

SR Not in the light of your notes

SW OK...

SR Because your notes were centred mostly around or seemed to be entirely centred around preparing something for being published in an English language teaching type publication

SW Yeah that's true

SR It seems as though your notes seem to be all about teaching publications and certainly all the examples in it

SW were about that

SR were teacherly as well so in a way I suppose that made me think that I was barking up the wrong tree in the first place thinking of publishing there

SW OK so that's a point about place of publication

SR Yes

Sonia's comments, then, clearly indicate that for her the materials expressed the SPRE framework exclusively in terms of a pedagogic action focused R. This is not my own view of them — although all the examples are indeed taken from *ELT Journal*, I hoped to have looked at different types of possible response and to have made it clear that they all seemed to be available in the genre. So later in the interview, I specifically asked Sonia if she remembered the part of the materials which was about different types of R, and she did not immediately recall it. Sonia's points, combined with her hazy recollection of this particular section of the materials, suggest that for her, the arguments about different types of R had not been adequately communicated.

In her second round feedback, Sonia commented that she had re-read her dissertation and she now realised that particularly some points in the last chapter are more amenable to interpretation in the light of the SPRE framework than she at first thought.

11.4.4.2 Methodology assignment

Sonia then went on to discuss her use of the materials to analyse her methodology assignment, which had been about teacher presence or absence during groupwork. She had found this text to 'fit' the SPRE pattern much more easily and had used the materials to examine it with a view to reformulation for publication — though she had not yet actually carried out the reformulation.

She had considered particularly the structure of her text. She said that she was happy with her S and P sections, but less so with the others:

SR I noticed that BR, R and E are absolutely not clearly defined, they're... most of them, of those three, is at the end again, and otherwise it's scattered throughout, you have to go looking for it... it wasn't neat

SW Right... and what was, or is, your... feeling about that discovery?

SR Umm, I think I can change it... if what you say is right, and I'm sure it is, that is that this is how articles need to look to be published and if I wanted to get it published, which I would like to, then I can see that it does need some adjustment because I guess that when people read something they like to feel clearly that they're being led through a series of stages....

Sonia, then, has come to see the structure of her text as inappropriate for a possible goal of publication. This echoes some of the responses of the workshop group, but the associated emotional reaction is quite different. Through her

reading of the materials Sonia has developed a schema in the light of which her own text seems 'deficient' but she feels confident to sort the problem out. She later specifically says "I'm quite happy, now, to fiddle around with my methodology assignment".

At another point in the interview Sonia raises questions about the scope of her E section:

SR ... and in the evaluation I have to admit that there were huge variables... like the fact that it really only applied possibly to students at that level, from that country, doing a business course cos they're business students as well

SW your findings apply to this particular group

SR that's right, so it's actually very narrow

SW yes

SR and I wondered then whether it could be not very serious, not taken as very serious because of the narrowness

SW Mmm and what do you think about that now?

SR I'm still wondering about it actually ... I don't think it matters too much because reading some of the examples there other people have produced very narrow samples

SW yes yes they have

SR So I was less concerned after that, so I think I'll probably go ahead with it...

It seems, then, that Sonia was very aware of the paradigm alignment aspects of E and had thought about these with regard to her own text. I also note that her reference to reassurance from the materials is vis a vis the examples given, rather than vis a vis the discussions of scopes of E.

11.4.4.3 Wider meanings

SR Um your section 5.3.2 I've written down here... is your bit about new and not new and I found that very useful, actually, for writing

SW Can you remind me what bit that is?

SR It's the bit where you say that some writers will gallop on into information which actually may well be new for the people who are reading and they toss it in assuming that everybody knows what they're talking about

- SW Yes... "Presented as familiar, received as new"... that's right, got there
- SR And that made me think about my PhD because it reminds me that my own field of interpreting there's a hell of a lot that will be new to — not even thinking about publishing at the moment, but thinking about the thesis in the end, and the fact that I'm doing it here,
- SW yes
- SR not among interpreting people
- SW yes
- SR is that I'm going to have to be very careful to um follow your guidelines there
- SW OK
- SR and remember that what seems old hat to me is actually
- SW might well be new to somebody else yeah probably no doubt will be new to
- SR yes, yeah... it made me think so much that the talk I'm giving tomorrow, I decided that a huge part of the talk would actually be leading people through what interpreting is and what it isn't...

Here, then, Sonia has taken a particular idea from the self-access materials and used it to reflect on a quite different aspect of her academic writing and speaking. In both her PhD thesis and in a talk regarding it, she needs to make the right judgements about audience knowledge of her specialist field.

11.4.5 Sue Garton

Sue told me in her feedback letter that she had used the materials to write an article, and that she was willing to talk about this by telephone. I therefore spoke to her on 4 September 1998. This report is on the basis of notes which I made during our telephone conversation. In her second round feedback, Sue confirms that my interpretations are acceptable to her.

11.4.5.1 Comments on the materials

Sue told me that for her the most memorable aspects of the materials had been the parts that dealt with newness and the need to manage this without alienating the readership. She commented that these ideas were useful for texts whether or not they have an SPRE format.

Sue also said that she found the materials clearest in relation to practical, 'classroom ideas' type texts. I raised the issue of different types of R, and Sue said that she felt comfortable with this idea — she had, for example, seen her own draft article (subsection 11.4.5.2) as having an analysis-type R. Her comments about SPRE based models being less clear for texts of this type related not to R, but to P. She said that in her own article, and she felt also in other analysis type articles, there was no "problem" as such — except the author's *desire* to research a particular area.

11.4.5.2 *Learner initiative in classroom interaction*

Sue wrote an article with this title based on her dissertation, and submitted it to TESOL Quarterly. She said that the materials particularly influenced her positioning in the introduction of the article — she used a Swalesian CARS and tried to indicate that she was working in an under-researched area without disparaging existing research. She specifically substituted "no attempt" with "little attempt" in the following paragraph:

In spite of growing recognition of the importance of learner initiative, there has been little attempt either to define what it means or to analyse the ways in which this initiative is expressed and the effects it may have on classroom interaction.

Sue also told me that she had thought carefully about the claims which she should make about the applicability of her research; she was conscious of the small size of her study and did not wish to be seen as making unwarranted generalisations. An extract from the "Conclusion" section of her article reads:

Although learner initiative in teacher-fronted interaction represents only a small part of a language lesson, this study, using an albeit very limited context, has attempted to show how it may contribute to second language learning.

A more complete picture of learner initiative would require investigations in different contexts... [goes on to mention possible research projects and relevant work that has already been done].

So the claim — of a link between learner initiative and language learning — is made using an *invite* technique. Paradigm alignment is undertaken via the emphasis on the influence of context on research findings and the need for contextual appropriacy if using other people's research.

As of October 1998, Sue is awaiting a decision on this submission.

11.4.5.3 *Encouraging students to take long turns in speaking*

This is the title of a paper that Sue is in the process of preparing for the 1998 TESOL Italy conference. The presentation is based on her MSc methodology assignment.

Sue commented that she had considered submitting an article on this topic to *ELT Journal*, but had decided against it because she felt that the topic did not have enough 'objective' newness (Wharton 1997 section 5.3, 'New to whom?') for the *ELT Journal* audience. She felt that they would already be familiar with both the problem and the solution, and so that the article would not be seen as a contribution to that particular discourse community. She felt, however, that the TESOL Italy conference audience would *not* necessarily be familiar with both problem and solution, and therefore that the material could work effectively as a contribution in that context.

Sue also made a very interesting comment on her planned strategy for the presentation of 'new' 'background' information to the conference audience. She said that she would need to establish some ideas, from the literature, as common ground for her presentation, but that she was sure that a large proportion of the audience would not in fact be familiar with these ideas. Her planned strategy was to introduce them using phrases such as "as we all know". She saw this as a collusion with the audience, enabling her to present the essential background in the necessary detail in a way that allowed the audience to 'save face'.

These comments, then, indicate that Sue has a strong awareness of the 'objective' aspect of newness, but also that presentation of ideas as familiar or new is not just a matter of getting this 'objective' judgement right — there may be other aspects of the situation that push for a presentation as familiar or as new.

11.4.6 Brian McNeill

Brian sent me some brief, but positive, feedback. He comments:

"... I have used the ideas you suggested when composing a new paper, I did so for my "On JALT 97" paper, which was accepted for publication".

Beyond this piece of good news, I do not have details of Brian's paper: in the light of his extremely heavy work schedule, an approaching wedding, and the

Japan-UK time difference, he opted not to discuss his use of the materials by telephone.

In his comments on the materials themselves, Brian notes:

"... I also like the different orientations of paper which you specify (I am a highly analytical type person").

Readers will recall that some other users had not picked up on this aspect of the materials — perhaps it does indeed appeal most strongly to those with an analytical learning style.

Brian also echoes comments recorded earlier in this chapter on the possible use of the materials for guiding assignment writing:

"I wish I had had such a clear description of academic papers way back in the beginning, I may have gotten better grades if I had been more clear on the format (instead of experimenting over the period of the course). This of course follows the theory that presentation is half the grade, content the other half".

In his second round feedback, Brian confirms that my comments regarding him are acceptable. As I will discuss in chapter 13, an adaptation of the materials to cover assignment writing would be an interesting development of this project.

11.4.7 Ana Halbach: *Diaries as a tool for evaluating a teacher training course.*

Ana wrote a draft of this article, which is based on her MSc dissertation, using the self-access materials. She sent this draft to me and asked me for comments.

It seemed to me that the article succeeded in transferring the 'meat' of the dissertation to a much shorter text, but that

"precisely *because* you've had to shorten your text so much, a certain amount of important sign posting has been lost and that some parts of the text have become rather 'jumbled' in terms of illocutionary purpose".

My suggestions for change, then, concentrated on providing each section of the text with a well defined illocutionary purpose and signalling this.

Ana also specifically asked for my views about the newness in the article, and I responded:

"You also mention that you are not sure whether the article as it stands claims enough newness. Reading it, I felt there were some relatively small changes possible which would increase the amount of newness claimed. So, I've also mentioned these".

Here, then, I suggested some actual re-wordings to flag up the claims of the article.

In this interaction I was acting in quite a directive mode, using my own ideas about what a good article can be like to advise Ana. The question of the extent to which such an interaction may legitimately be seen as a source of 'feedback' on the self-access materials or the analytical model is an interesting one, and I will discuss it briefly here.

Ana reformulated her article in response to my suggestions, and submitted it to *ELT Journal*. The fate of this submission can legitimately be considered a source of feedback on my analytical model, since it is the model which provided the framework for my advice. The fate of the submission cannot, however, be considered a source of feedback on the self-access materials, because Ana did not only construct her ideas about textual reformulation on the basis of the materials — she chose to ask me for advice as well. My advice cannot be considered a 'substitute' for the materials or as equivalent to them, because it short-circuits one of their key aspects, ie the user's role as analyst of their own text.

And yet, the above remark is an oversimplification. I did not myself re-write Ana's article: she still had to think critically about my suggestions, decide which ones to adopt, adapt or ignore, and then realise her own version of the suggestions in actual text. It seems fair to say, then, that the final submission was informed both by Ana's understanding and experience of the model as gained from the self-access materials, and my understanding and experience of the model as gained throughout this project.

Ana's reformulated article was accepted, with very minor requests for modifications, by *ELT Journal*.

11.5 Those who did not respond

Approximately eighteen self-access materials packs have, for the purposes of this project, 'disappeared into the blue' in that their recipients have not responded to my requests for feedback. I of course do not know what happened

to these packs but it seems a reasonable assumption that their recipients did not in fact work with them. Whether this was mainly for reasons to do with the materials themselves, or mainly for reasons to do with other circumstances in the lives of the recipients, I can have no idea. For whatever reason those recipients have chosen not to comment on the materials, and that in itself is part of the data for this project.

11.6 A meta-comment on the 'second round' of feedback

The first draft of this chapter was completed in early September 1998 and it was at that point that I was faced with the task of obtaining second round feedback from research participants on the appropriacy of my interpretation of their work and comments. This procedure is important to enhance the validity of qualitative research (see chapter 12) and the injunction to undertake the procedure is commonplace whenever such research is discussed.

However, as I came to undertake the procedure for this project I did not find it at all easy. It seemed to me that the act of reporting and interpreting feedback in the draft chapter had shifted me from a position of working *with* research participants collaboratively, in attempting to facilitate article writing, to a position of writing *about* work done from a perspective of superiority. I felt uncomfortable about this and somewhat apprehensive about whether my reports and interpretations would be experienced as patronising.

Reason & Rowan (1981a) seem to regard the change of perspective I experienced as inevitable — they argue that the action of research can take place *with* people, whereas writing it up is inevitably *about* them. Hawkins (1988) apparently experienced discomfort similar to mine, since he comments on the difference between himself involved in a co-operative enquiry, and himself writing it up. He uses the term "hierarchy of looking" (p60) to express the need, when reflecting, to step outside the enquiry and look from a more distant perspective at all the processes including at your own part in them. Hawkins attempted a response to this discomfort via the use of psychodrama.

I myself turned for guidance to actual research reports which had gathered and used data from research participants in a similar way to me. I found a lead article in the *Feminist Review* (Lewis, 1996) which contained lengthy quotations from research participants' interview responses followed by the initiating researcher's interpretation of these in the light of her research questions.

In Lewis 1996, interpretation and evaluation are signalled immediately following the long quotations by phrases such as "In this part of the account the speaker is making a claim for..." (p31) "This part is important because of the move which is made from..." (p32) "There are a number of interesting moves made in this sequence..." (p32). And yet, we are told nothing about how these interpretations were checked, and what role research participants had in shaping the final report. Nothing is said about the issues raised for Lewis as she made the shift from 'talking with' to 'writing about'.

My intention here is not to make facile criticism of a single article: Lewis may well have undertaken some checking and feedback procedures even though they are not discussed in the text. But it does seem to me, given that feminist scholarship has been at the forefront of debates on representation of voices (Edge & Richards 1998) and given that this lead article appears in a category entitled "Situated Voices", that some explicit attention to issues of checking interpretations might have been expected. Because Lewis does not tackle these issues explicitly, her report does not contribute to an understanding of the complex *process* of obtaining research participants' perspectives on our interpretations of what they say and do. As I will argue in chapter 12 subsection 12.2.1, attention to this process is an important aspect of the rigour of research in the naturalistic paradigm.

11.7 Concluding comments on chapter eleven

In this chapter I have looked at feedback from various users of the self-access materials which form the main part of the interventionist strand of this project. I have begun to interpret this feedback vis a vis the evaluation both of the model on which the materials are based and of the materials themselves as a pedagogic tool. In the next chapter I will discuss these evaluations in more detail.

In this chapter I have not provided my own commentary on the 'accuracy' of users of the materials' analyses of their texts or given my own opinion on the quality of users' texts. This is deliberate: the focus in this chapter is on the ablocutionary value (Edge 1989) of the materials, the understandings that users created from the materials and the decisions about text that they made on the basis of *their* understanding, rather than mine, of the constructs posited in the materials.

Chapter twelve

Interim evaluation of the research project

- 12.1 Introduction
- 12.2 Criteria and evaluation
 - 12.2.1 Representation
 - 12.2.2 Credibility
 - 12.2.3 Ethical justification
 - 12.2.4 Achievement of aims
 - 12.2.5 Transformation
 - 12.2.6 Acknowledgement of process
 - 12.2.7 Acknowledgement of motivations and values
 - 12.2.8 Dissemination
 - 12.2.9 Transferability
- 12.3 Concluding comments on chapter twelve

12.1 Introduction

In the previous chapter I reported some feedback from my self-access materials and began to interpret it in such a way that it can contribute to the evaluation of the current research project. In this chapter I will go further and attempt an interim evaluation of the project as a whole.

Edge & Richards (1998) emphasise the importance, in a doctoral thesis working within the naturalistic paradigm, of providing a clearly articulated and explicit statement of position on evidence and evaluation; a statement of warrant for claims which arise out of the research. They present three strategies for responding to this demand of the genre: to use and extend the tools and concepts of (post) positivism; to work with a set of criteria specifically put forward for use in naturalistic research (eg Guba & Lincoln 1982, Lincoln & Guba 1985); or to develop and defend a personal position.

In chapter 1 I explicitly positioned this project within a naturalistic frame and explained why I feel such a frame is appropriate. In this chapter I will draw on established thinking on the validity of qualitative research in order to articulate a position on evidence and evaluation. I shall bear in mind the particular nature and needs of my own project, which contains descriptive and interventionist strands which each need to be evaluated in their own terms as well as in the context of the whole project. To the extent that awareness of the

particularities of the project will preclude the wholesale adaptation of an established set of criteria for evaluation, what follows is an attempt to develop an explicit personal position.

Edge & Richards (1998) state a preference for this personal option, and the first explicit statement that I should make concerns the relationship between this project and Edge & Richards' contributions to the debate on the value and validity of qualitative research. In a context where Julian Edge is my research supervisor and he and Keith Richards are both my senior colleagues in the LSU, it would be disingenuous of me to treat their paper as just another option from the literature.

The risks, for the qualitative research movement, of novice researchers adopting the positions on evidence and evaluation articulated by their own particular supervisors and examiners are pointed out by Edge & Richards, when they discuss the danger of qualitative research becoming trapped inside a limited circle of researchers who supervise and examine each others' doctoral students. And yet, to the extent that generational links are explicitly acknowledged and documented, the recognition of their existence may be seen as an important aspect of the bringing out of all the motivations of the research (see section 12.2.7) and as part of the process for ensuring, and attempting to argue for, the congruence of the research with the values of the setting in which it is generated (see chapter 2). In this sense, to make such links explicit should positively assist a thesis writer as they seek to develop a position on evidence and evaluation that they can defend and explain in the context of a reasonably wide section of the academic community, and not just to individuals with whose stance they are well acquainted.

Edge & Richards, then, argue that a thesis which documents research undertaken within the naturalistic paradigm should present as its outcomes "a transparent record of data, and of a response to that data, which are disputable in principle and defensible in fact" (p349). With these imperatives in mind, I will go on to attempt an evaluation of my own project.

12.2 Criteria and evaluation

In this section I attempt to do four things. I seek to establish criteria for the evaluation of my project, to explain my reasons for choosing these criteria, to state what I consider to be evidence for evaluation on these criteria, and to evaluate the project to date in terms of the criteria.

The criteria are not independent: indeed, it may be most appropriate to see them as multiple perspectives on the overarching issue of research value. In the sections which follow I will attempt to make the links between the criteria clear. I will also attempt to make clear their resonance with the values of the enquiry, as discussed in chapter 1.

12.2.1 Representation

This criterion is to do with the extent to which voices apart from my own are represented in this research, and with the authenticity of such representation. The suggestion that naturalistic research should allow the voices of those who collaborate in the research, or of those whom the research is in some sense 'about', to come through, is now well established. (Altrichter et al 1993, Carr 1995, Edge & Richards 1998, Elliott 1993, Guba & Lincoln 1982, Heron 1996, Lincoln & Guba 1985). The issue is usually raised in the context of research with and/or about *people*; my interventionist strand fits this category well. My descriptive strand, which superficially is about *texts*, does not at first sight appear to fit it — but as I will go on to explain, the issue of representation of voices is important here too. I will discuss the interventionist aspects of my project first.

In the report of the interventionist strand, evidence for the extent to which, and the degree of authenticity with which, relevant voices are represented may be found wherever people apart from myself are referred to. Positive evaluation on this criterion will depend on the extent to which such people are represented in their own words and have had the opportunity to agree, or disagree, about what I myself have taken these words to mean¹.

I suggest that the following aspects of the interventionist strand of this project allow it to be positively evaluated on the criterion of representation:

- Its use of case studies. I have attempted throughout to work with people using the materials or engaging in other relevant interactions with me as individuals, and have tried to interpret data generated by such people in the light of the specific goals and purposes which they individually have set themselves. Throughout the research report I have attempted to maintain the integrity and separateness of individual standpoints when reporting data; I

¹ See appendix G for the letters I sent to participants inviting them to feed back on draft sections of chapter 11

have not amalgamated data from several distinct contributors in order to reach more general conclusions. This has necessarily meant that the data that I offer in eg chapters 10 and 11 is quite personal and idiosyncratic: a number of scholars from Myers (1990) to Edge & Richards (1998) have discussed the particular value of such data for research into a community.

- Its quotation of the actual words of research participants regarding the effectiveness of the strand. Wherever possible I have quoted research participants directly on their impressions and use of the self-access materials, and have asked them whether they feel that the quotations represent their actual positions appropriately.

- Its quotation of research participants' texts. This strategy, necessary of course to back up any assertions about what research participants do in their assignments and draft articles, provides an additional opportunity for their voices to come through. This is especially the case given that research participants have had an opportunity to comment on my quotation from their texts and my interpretation of the significance of the extracts chosen.

Then I also recognise that there are aspects of the interventionist strand which mean it should be more cautiously evaluated against the criterion of representation. These are:

- The relatively small amount of feedback available at the time this report was written. As mentioned in chapter 11 section 11.5 approximately 18 recipients of self-access materials packs have not provided me with feedback on them. Their voices, though certainly relevant, are thus currently absent from the research report.

- The fact that only *excerpts* from feedback reports or draft articles etc are included, and that they have been selected only by me. I have, obviously enough, selected excerpts which are of use to me as I continue to develop my argument regarding the interventionist strand. I have made a conscious effort not to ignore points which I find inconvenient from this perspective; it must nevertheless be acknowledged that in this as in many research reports, the need to forge an account from the data has pushed the data into the shape it has here. I have retained all of my correspondence with all research participants and it is available to examiners of this thesis should they wish to see it.

- The limitations of my strategy of inviting research participants to comment on my representation of themselves and their work. As Heron (1996) points out, asking someone to 'approve' the way they are represented creates a strong imperative for them to do just that, and does not necessarily imply that they would have represented *themselves* in the same way.

Let us now go on to look at the descriptive strand of the research project in relation to the criterion of representation. The issue is more complex here: the descriptive strand is research into a genre, so whose *are* the voices which should be heard? A genre, after all, is community property.

I have attempted, in the descriptive strand, to give space to the voices of *texts* within the genre, by using a large number of contextualised examples. This point is not as trivial as it may sound: although all reports of genre analytical studies with which I am familiar include extracts from texts studied, there is considerable variation in the proportion of total text allocated to such extracts and in the extent to which such extracts are foregrounded. By using fairly lengthy, and numerous contextualised examples, I hope to have given space and weight to the texts themselves as well as to my interpretations of them, and to have made the difference between data and interpretation clear (Altheide & Johnson 1994). I hope to have provided enough data so that the texts I quote may speak directly to readers of this report and to readers of the self-access materials, thus allowing such readers to form their own conclusions about the validity of my interpretations.

I am not able to claim, in the descriptive strand, to have represented the voices of these texts' authors; I did not contact the writers of any of the articles which I quote to ask them what they thought about my interpretations. I have no doubt that rich data would have been generated had I been able to access their views; but equally, I have no doubt that the focus of the research would have considerably shifted as a result. In ethical defence of my decision not to seek such comment, I contend that *ELT Journal* articles are in the public domain, and so are available for any interpretation of them which can reasonably be supported from the text itself.

Another important issue for the evaluation of the descriptive strand on the criterion of representation is that of selection of examples. In the report of the descriptive strand it is very much the case that I have chosen to quote textual excerpts which I feel best illustrate particular points that I am trying to make. This selection, necessary as it may be to allow an effective argument to develop,

does mean that certain 'dissenting voices' among the texts in the research corpus have tended not to find representation in the final report.

In this subsection so far, then, I have discussed the evaluation of both the interventionist and descriptive strands of the research on the criterion of representation. I have made both positive and negative evaluations, though I hope that readers will share my view that the overall thrust is positive.

To conclude the subsection, I will mention an aspect of the project *as a whole* which I suggest allows it to be positively evaluated against this criterion. This aspect is its use of research cycling (see chapter 10) via which the voices of various research participants have to a degree influenced, and will certainly continue to influence, the theory of the descriptive strand.

Let us now go on to look at the criterion of credibility.

12.2.2 Credibility

Carr (1995) and Heron (1996) emphasise the importance, for research carried out under any paradigm, of some kind of criterion for evaluation which is concerned with the *truth* of the findings. Guba & Lincoln (1982) and Lincoln & Guba (1985) assert that since the naturalistic paradigm acknowledges the existence of multiple realities and thus of many truths, the naturalistic criterion for evaluating the extent to which findings are true should be the extent to which they are a *credible* view of events and situations. I will use Guba & Lincoln's criterion of *credibility* to evaluate the current research.

It seems to me that the concept of credibility does in fact subsume two other of Guba & Lincoln's suggested criteria for the evaluation of naturalistic enquiry. These are dependability (the appropriate documentation of all emerging factors which can influence research conclusions) and confirmability (the documentation of data which allows others to form opinions on the appropriacy of the researcher's conclusions). If the requirements of dependability and confirmability have not been fulfilled, a naturalistic research report is unlikely to be credible either.

In this subsection, then, I will use the concept of credibility to evaluate the extent to which the documentation of research data and its links with research conclusions, and the documentation of any other factors influencing research design and research conclusions, have been deployed to create in this report a

true or credible account of events. I will begin with the descriptive strand and move through to the interventionist strand.

Credibility, for the descriptive strand, is the extent to which the analytical model, in the light of its purpose, presents a true or valid picture of the texts and the genre which it purports to elucidate. This is a matter to be decided by those to whom the model is presented, and thus is ultimately a question of intersubjective agreement. At the moment of writing this report, I can say comparatively little about how the model may be received beyond the LSU. However, there are two kinds of evidence which can lead to an *interim* evaluation of the descriptive strand on the criterion of credibility. Firstly, evidence that current texts presenting the model (chapters 7-8, the self-access materials) provide sufficient transparent access to source data for readers of this thesis and the self-access materials respectively to judge the model's credibility. And secondly, evidence that a degree of intersubjective agreement as to its credibility has already been found.

The first point, of transparent access to source data, has already been discussed under the criterion of representation. As I said in that subsection, I have quoted lengthy and numerous contextual examples to support all of the points I have made about texts in this genre during my presentation of the model. I have attempted in my presentations not only to illustrate the constructs of the model with particular examples, but to go on to use the constructs with *other* appropriate textual extracts which were originally presented to support a different point. So for example, chapter 8 section 8.3.3, concerned with the recognise<-> invent continuum for P, relies not only on extracts specifically chosen to illustrate this continuum but also uses the continuum to analyse *different* P extracts which were themselves put forward for other purposes: in this case, as illustrations of the difficulty/goal distinction and the local<-> general continuum of scope.

For these reasons, I suggest that the descriptive strand may be positively evaluated on the sub-criterion of transparent access to source data and consequent potential for debate regarding my interpretations of this data.

There are also, I acknowledge, some more cautionary points to be made on this sub-criterion. These relate to the arguments made in 12.2.1 above, and are to do with the fact that the textual extracts provided are, precisely, *extracts*, and that they have been selected by me to serve the development of an argument. The extracts are fully referenced, so that a reader could in principle check my

analysis in the context of the complete text: but this process is not facilitated in the research report itself. In these senses, access to source data is not transparent.

I now go on to the second strand of evidence for the credibility of the descriptive strand, which is evidence that a degree of intersubjective agreement about its credibility has already been found. As I mentioned above, at the moment of writing this report I have comparatively little evidence about how the model may be received: the judgement of readers/ examiners of this thesis is not yet available, nor is the judgement of the wider community since I have as yet done little to disseminate the research. (For a discussion of dissemination, see section 12.2.8, and chapter 13). I do, however, have access to the judgements of research participants, who have seen the model through the interventionist strand of the project.

One of the roles of the self-access materials, clearly, has been to act as a 'test' for the credibility of the descriptive model. Such a relationship is particularly feasible in a context where many of the people who came into the project as users of the materials had not had any previous contact with the model. Heron (1988, 1996) points out that when the same group of people have been involved in action and reflection phases of a research project from the very start, the effectiveness of the action phase as a 'test' for any models that have been constructed may be limited: the researchers' considerable investment in their models may lead to a subconscious collusion 'not to notice' problems in the action phases. By bringing people into the project as users of the materials who did not share my own investment in the model, I hope to have created the possibility of a rigorous test for the descriptive strand in the interventionist strand.

It is necessary to acknowledge that in some senses the notion that the self-access materials provide direct access to the descriptive model put forward in chapters 7-8 of this thesis is problematic. As has already been discussed (chapter 10) the two formulations are not identical. However, this point should not be exaggerated; they are not *very* different. In the sense that the chapters 7-8 version benefited from the experience of the self-access materials version, it is the chapters 7-8 version which is the 'better' of the two. A positive reaction to the slightly 'less well developed' version seems to me to support a positive evaluation of the later version.

I suggest, then, that feedback from the use of the self-access materials is a source of evidence regarding intersubjective agreement as to the value of the model. Users of the materials are discourse community insiders, who know about textual analysis and are familiar with several well established models thereof. To the extent that such people understand my own model and can use it, to the extent that they express a belief in its truth and/ or its usefulness, to the extent that they choose to invest their time in working with it towards the goal of publication, there is intersubjective agreement that the descriptive model is a 'true' or credible account of the target genre.

It is my contention — given the provisos discussed in subsection 12.2.1 above — that the overall thrust of the feedback reported in chapter 11 indicates a degree of intersubjective agreement that the model is indeed a credible account of the target genre, and thus supports a positive evaluation of the descriptive strand on the criterion of credibility.

The above assertion, of course, rests on an assumption. That assumption is that the report on the interventionist strand — chapter 11 — is itself a credible account. It is to the consideration of this matter that I now turn.

Credibility, for the report of the interventionist strand, is the extent to which the report constitutes a credible account of the uses which were given to the self-access materials, the opinions which have been expressed about them, and the actions (analysis and writing) which have been accomplished in the light of them. The only people who have direct and authentic knowledge of these issues are the users of the materials. Credibility here, then, is dependent on the extent to which the research report has allowed the users' voices to be heard. The criterion of credibility, for the interventionist strand, thus links very directly with the criterion of representation. By analogy with my claims of subsection 12.2.1, I would argue that the case study approach to feedback, the direct quotation of participants' comments on the materials, the direct quotation of participants' texts, and the checking of my interpretations with participants, make it more likely that chapter 11 is indeed a credible account of what happened in this the major part of the interventionist strand.

In this subsection, then, I have undertaken an evaluation of both the descriptive and interventionist strands of the research against the criterion of credibility, and have discussed the links between this criterion and the criteria of representation and of dissemination. I will now go on to consider the criterion of ethical justification.

12.2.3 Ethical justification

Altrichter et al (1993 p77) propose this criterion for the evaluation of action research, and gloss it as follows: "Are the research methods compatible with both educational aims and democratic human values?" The criterion is in my view essential for the evaluation of any research which purports to make a contribution to education, since it is not possible to formulate a statement of a desired educational contribution without aligning oneself — implicitly or explicitly — with a broader position on appropriate educational aims and desirable human values. In calling upon researchers to argue and demonstrate that their work is ethically justified, Altrichter et al demand that they also make their broader positions on educational aims and human values explicit.

Evidence for this criterion is again of two kinds. The first kind is evidence, in a given research report, that the researcher has considered the ethical basis of their actions and attempted to take responsibility both for these and for any broader positions entailed. The second kind is evidence that the researcher has attempted to follow ethically appropriate procedures with other research participants.

Throughout this report I have attempted to be explicit about the nature of my belief in this work as an emancipatory educational endeavour. The discussion is undertaken perhaps most explicitly in chapter 9 section 9.4, about genre teaching. This section, and other briefer discussions (eg chapter 11 section 11.6) are evidence that I have attempted to consider and take responsibility for the ethical aspects of this work.

I have attempted to act ethically in my relationships with other research participants. The way I have conceptualised this responsibility is to try and put the pedagogic aims of the project above all others, particularly above its data collection aims. So I have, for example, responded to requests from users of the self-access materials to advise them on draft texts (see chapter 11 subsection 11.4.7) — even though this means I can then not make claims about these texts as an outcome of the user's own interaction with the materials.

I have attempted to act ethically regarding the use of research data provided by all project participants. Throughout my communications with participants (see Appendices B, C, D, G, H) I have been clear that one of my motivations in offering assistance with writing for publication was to gather data for a PhD research project. I have sought explicit consent from all those whose data I use,

to include it. I have also invited participants to comment on, and if necessary correct, my interpretation of their data.

However, it must be acknowledged that I have not been able to communicate with all those people whose data I wished to include (some have apparently changed address and place of work) and, where no communication has been possible, I have decided to go ahead and include the data and/or the interpretation. I believe that my explicit statement of my purposes at the time the data were collected justifies these decisions.

As discussed in subsection 12.2.1 above, I have not instituted analogous ethical procedures with the other group who have provided research data for this project, ie the writers of the articles in my corpus. I suggest that this decision may be justified on two counts. The first, discussed above, is that these texts are in the public domain. The second relates to the nature of the descriptive model that has been put forward. It is a model of *options*: texts quoted are presented as exemplifying reasonable choices in given sets of circumstances. Only in a very few cases (eg sections 4.1.3, 4.2.4 and 5.3 of self-access materials) are approaches criticised, and when this happens the perspective from which the criticism arises is made explicit.

For all these reasons, I suggest, this research project may be evaluated positively against the criterion of ethical justification.

On this criterion we should, however, also consider the extent to which the research has had at least some outcomes in line with the researcher's purposes and hopes. This is because it is ends, as well as means and intentions, which determine ethical justification. I will look at this area next.

12.2.4 Achievement of aims

Throughout this report I have stated that the overall aim of the project is to assist MSc participants/ graduates who wish to publish articles to do so. Within this, the aim of the descriptive strand is to produce a relevant model of the TESOL article genre and the aim of the interventionist strand is to enable research participants to critically analyse existing texts of theirs and reformulate them for publication. In chapter 1 I acknowledged that in the indeterminate world of the naturalistic paradigm, there can be no simple cause and effect relationship between interventions and outcomes; nevertheless, given an

explicit statement of aims of the project, a criterion relating to the extent to which they have been achieved is an essential part of the evaluation.

I have already quoted Carr (1995) in chapter 10, as he argues that theory in education acquires legitimacy "by demonstrating a capacity to explore a particular range of problems in a systematic and rigorous manner". (p32). Altrichter et al (1993) make a similar point, proposing a criterion of "testing through practical action" (p77) for the evaluation of action research. Reason & Rowan (1981b) also discuss usefulness as a validity criterion. Then Carr (1995 p37) states that "theory only acquires an educational character in so far as it can be corrected, improved and assessed in the light of practical consequences. In this sense, it is practice that determines the value of any educational theory rather than theory that determines the value of any educational practice". His term *theory* may be interpreted in this context as the descriptive model and the way it is communicated in materials, his term *practice* may be interpreted as the actions that users have undertaken.

Heron (1996) also discusses practical success as a criterion for the evaluation of interventionist qualitative research. However, Heron is careful to argue that the practical success does not *confer* value on research, rather it reflects its value. Ideas are not true because they work, rather they work because they are true. Altheide & Johnson (1994) note a consensus view that usefulness is a criterion for the evaluation of qualitative research, but find it insufficient in itself. They argue that criteria which go beyond the researcher's own purpose and ideology are also needed.

Evidence of different kinds is available regarding achievement of aims. Evidence as to whether a good model has been produced is available in the reactions of other community members to it. Evidence as to whether people have been helped to analyse and reformulate is available via their own reflections on their use of self-access materials and the texts they provide. Evidence as to whether they have successfully published articles is available via a count of submissions, acceptances and rejections. As discussed above, there is no suggestion that such developmental outcomes, whether internal or external, were *caused* by interaction with the self-access materials and/ or that they would have been impossible without the materials. The claim is rather that the materials are one of the factors which have contributed to these outcomes.

The first perspective to consider on this criterion concerns the extent to which the materials have in fact been used. As mentioned in chapter 11, 10

participants saw the materials in a workshop setting. Then 34 packs sent out by post led to sixteen sets of feedback as at October 1998. Two people told me informally that they have not yet used the materials, and another 16 sets are completely unaccounted for. I do not know, but must assume, that these recipients have not used the materials. On the other hand, none of the recipients have given me feedback to the effect that they dislike the materials or have decided not to use them at all.

From this perspective of take-up, then, it seems fairest to say that I do not at present have enough data to positively evaluate the project on the criterion of achievement of aims.

The next perspective to consider is the extent to which analysis and reformulation have been facilitated, as evidenced by the feedback reported in chapter 11. Here I think it is reasonable to be more positive. The feedback indicates that some people at least have indeed engaged in reflective processes and have made decisions about the reformulation (or not) of their texts.

It is, however, important to make an observation about the kinds of texts they have worked with. Almost no-one has done precisely what I envisaged, worked through an assignment and reformulated it. It is of course positive that research participants have been able to use the materials for other texts of their choosing. However, the fact that so many of them have done this begs the question as to whether my original analysis of pedagogic needs and wants (chapter 4) was slightly off key. I may have been mistaken in concluding that most participants would prefer to work from an existing assignment.

Then the final perspective to be considered in this section is the extent to which publication has been achieved. As was seen in chapter 11, by October 1998 there were three acceptances² which does not seem high. But let us remember that this represents 100% of decisions on submissions!!

Overall, then, evaluation on the criterion of achievement of aims is very mixed at the time of writing. Evaluation of the descriptive strand on this criterion is so far available only via the interventionist strand. As discussed in the previous subsection, this evaluation seems positive. Wider dissemination of the model at a future date will provide further evidence of the extent to which it has achieved its aims.

² Ana Halbach, "Using trainees' diaries..." (11.4.2); Brian McNeill, "On Jalt 97" (11.4.6); Ana Halbach, "Diaries as a tool..." (11.4.7).

For the interventionist strand, it must be acknowledged that far fewer project participants than I might have hoped have got as far as submitting a text for publication, and several have not yet worked with the materials. On the more positive side, there is a suggestion of outcomes in terms of reflection, awareness, and knowledge which relates to one aspect of the pedagogic aim of the project and is valuable in its own terms. I will look at this area in more detail next.

12.2.5 Transformation

I use the term *transformation* in the sense of Heron (1996). In discussing possible enquiry outcomes and the validation of enquiry, Heron lays a certain emphasis on outcomes which are inseparable from the people involved in the research, and which he describes as "transformations of personal being" (p104). These transformations of personal being may be in terms of increased skills for action in the research domain, or — less tangibly, but no less importantly — may relate to increased understanding and knowledge of the self and of the research context. Reason (1988) makes a related point when he argues that research outcomes such as increased skills and abilities in action are arguably more important than outcomes such as books and articles.

For a project with an interventionist strand, then, transformation is an essential criterion of evaluation. The criterion is of course linked to achievement of aims, but the two criteria are not synonymous. A project may help to bring about transformations in personal being on other dimensions apart from those specifically envisaged by the initiating researcher, and these may have considerable value of their own.

Evidence for evaluation on this criterion is difficult to bring to life in a written report. As Heron (1996) points out, transformative outcomes are "presence" outcomes which "can only be conveyed, at their own level, through personal meeting, through being with the enquirers, in their presence" (p105). In a written report, the best evidence available is the report writer's summary of what research participants may have said about the research, including any transformative outcomes which it has had for them (chapter 11). The closer such a report can get to the ideal of full and authentic representation, the better evidence of transformative outcomes it can be.

Let us consider the extent to which transformative outcomes appear to be indicated in the feedback. I have addressed this issue implicitly in chapter 11 itself — in many cases my interpretation of feedback, which readers will recall has been discussed with research participants, picks up precisely on issues of possible transformation in terms of action skills and/or understanding. To the extent that research participants have found reasons to reformulate their text — or indeed *reasons* to leave it as it is — then an increase in action skills in the research domain is suggested.

I also note under this criterion that some participants report using the materials in ways other than those I had envisaged, and of finding them useful; and I note that some participants report that the materials have helped them to reflect and reach new understandings about other aspects of their academic writing. Feedback such as this, I suggest, indicates developments in terms of understanding of self and of the broader research situation.

From a more cautionary perspective, however, I note the lack of any evidence of transformative outcomes with those participants who have — it seems — elected not to use the materials.

The above comments concentrate on research participants other than myself. Yet the notion of transformative outcomes is equally applicable to me as originating researcher. I have the very strong sense that the project has helped me to improve my own academic writing — both to understand it better, and to write more effectively. I wrote and successfully published four articles during the period of this research: the single one of these submitted to *ELT Journal* was accepted without modifications.

I am aware that the above paragraph, about improvements in my own academic writing during this project, reads as an outcome with no antecedents: self-development as a writer is nowhere previously mentioned as one of the aims of the project. And yet, in retrospect I find that data exist which indicates that it was always a part of my motivation. I kept a research diary during the project, and an extract from 10 June 1994 reads:

"Have just finished acknowledging the 40 positive responses [to questionnaire, appendix B] — great! Good to have that done. But panic sets in. Not having published myself, I feel completely unqualified to advise these people. They will think I am a fraud!!"

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"Have just finished acknowledging the 40 positive responses [to questionnaire, appendix B] — great! Good to have that done. But panic sets in. Not having published myself, I feel completely unqualified to advise these people. They will think I am a fraud!!"

I would argue, then, that this criterion should relate not simply to the amount of 'transparent' process information which is included but rather to the use that is made of it. The project may be positively evaluated on this criterion to the extent that there is evidence of reflection on processes as well as on emerging content, and the extent to which the outcomes of such reflection form part of the contribution of the research report to its community.

In chapter 7 section 7.2 and chapter 9 subsection 9.2.4 but most particularly in chapter 10, I have attempted both to give information about my research processes and also to deploy that information into an argument, regarding the significance of the processes, which is "disputable in principle" (Edge & Richards 1998: 349). To the extent that I have been successful in this aim, the project may be positively evaluated on the criterion of acknowledgement of process.

12.2.7 Acknowledgement of motivations and values

Advocates of naturalistic enquiry from Reason & Rowan (1981a) to Heron (1996) discuss the need for researchers to be as clear as possible about the values and motivations that guide their work. Reason & Rowan include under this heading such issues as "political standpoint, current work relationships, general way of being in the world" (pxiii) as well as alignments with intellectual traditions. Heron argues that values and motivations affect every aspect of the research, from the formulation of research questions through to choices about methodology through to research findings themselves. In a rationalistic paradigm, where findings and 'reality' are considered to be external to the researcher, such a statement would be indicative of bad research; but in a naturalistic paradigm, the influence of the researcher's values is acknowledged as inevitable.

Given this, the extent to which a research report clearly communicates motivations and values is a criterion for evaluation. As Lincoln & Guba (1985) and Reason (1988) argue, the validity of research is improved to the extent that values and motivations influencing it are acknowledged. Altheide & Johnson (1994) make a related point when they argue that since qualitative research is undertaken under paradigms where knowledge is considered to be perspectival, specification of the researcher's perspective(s) is an important aspect of ethical research.

Evidence for evaluation on this criterion is found in the references made in the research report to purposes and the links drawn from these to research activity. In this project I have attempted to make clear statements not only of research aims, but also of those aspects of my setting and of myself which have led me to research these particular issues. To the extent that readers of this text find such statements to be coherent with the research activity undertaken, the analyses developed and the conclusions drawn, the project may be positively evaluated on this criterion.

12.2.8 Dissemination

The importance of the publicisation of research has already been discussed in chapter 5 section 5.6. Without such publicisation, any piece of research can make no contribution beyond the necessarily small circle of people who are personally acquainted with it. In this project, dissemination is particularly important for the evaluation of the descriptive strand of the research: the model could in principle receive evaluation for itself, without the deep engagement with it which is suggested by the interventionist strand. But clearly, such evaluation will only be forthcoming to the extent that the model is disseminated.

The implication of the importance of publicisation is, of course, that the adequacy of any reports of the research are an integral part of the adequacy of the research itself. Reports are an integral part of the research contribution. So to the extent that this thesis and any other project reports attain successful "publication" in any of the senses discussed in chapter 5 vis a vis Harré's (1983) model, the research project will have done well on this criterion.

Evaluation on this criterion for this particular project is, then, a matter for the future.

12.2.9 Transferability

Guba & Lincoln (1982), Heron (1982, 1996) Lincoln & Guba (1985) and Edge & Richards (1998) discuss the concept of transferability: how naturalistic research may gain significance in settings other than its own. Research will not be 'applicable' to other settings, but people in such other settings who are acquainted with any given research may decide that certain elements of it are transferable, and — doubtless in a modified form — of use in the new context.

Lincoln & Guba (1985) state clearly that transferability is a function of the similarity of initiating and receiving contexts. It seems to me that this claim is too strong: it denies the role of the receiving context in *finding* relevance. By 1994 Guba & Lincoln have moved away from mere similarity of settings towards the notion of the provision of vicarious experience. This formulation seems more attractive, since under a systemic view of reality *any* aspect of a research report, not only thick description of setting, has the potential to trigger some sort of vicarious experience in the reader.

The criterion of transferability as I wish to use the term does not refer directly to the extent that the research itself is transferable. To suggest that research was *inherently* transferable would be a contradiction in terms since such a formulation denies the role of the receiving context in constructing research as transferable. Rather, I use the term to refer to two things. Firstly, the extent to which the research is reported in such a way as to make transfer possible. And secondly, the extent to which the construction and reporting of the research makes clear the researcher's commitment to the notion that any use in other settings would be on the basis of transferability.

The first aspect of this criterion has effectively already been discussed. The information which makes research transferable is precisely that which has been discussed under criteria 1-8 above. The detailed documentation which supports representation and credibility, the attempt at honesty which underlies acknowledgement of values and processes and provides a critical perspective on achievement of aims, the explicit positioning which is a requirement of ethical justification, and the interaction with research participants essential to gain insights into transformation, are precisely what provide the rich description which can give research the potential to be transferable if it is successfully disseminated.

A project will do well on this aspect of transferability, then, if people have access to it and if its report includes all the detail of context, aims, motivations and processes which will enable others to judge its usefulness to them.

The second aspect is the expression of a commitment to transferability. This may be achieved, at first sight paradoxically, by an emphasis throughout the research report on the local nature of the research. So by borrowing some of the terminology of my model to describe the project itself, one might say that there is a setting as well as an SoA type S (chapter 2); that the P is expressed as local to a significant degree (chapter 4); the BR for the interventionist response

(chapter 9) emphasises that this is a response designed for certain people. I have attempted to emphasise the local scope of this evaluation too, and to avoid drawing conclusions about wide applicability.

In these ways I hope to have made it clear that my commitment to this research is an attempt to understand and work better within a particular situation. I stated in chapter 1 that I hoped it may have uses beyond that situation; such use would be on the basis of transferability.

12.3 Concluding comments on chapter twelve

In this chapter, I have attempted to put forward criteria for the evaluation of the project and to evaluate it on the basis of them. As Heron (1996) observes: "research findings are valid if they are sound or well grounded, and have been reached by a rational method — one that offers a reasonable way of grounding them. What is important is that researchers are clear about the grounds of validity they are claiming and critical about the extent to which they have reached them" (p159).

I have attempted to follow both of Heron's imperatives in this chapter.

Chapter thirteen

Taking the project forward

- 13.1 Introduction
- 13.2 A short guide
- 13.3 An MSc half-module
- 13.4 A half-module on campus
- 13.5 Guidance on assignment writing
- 13.6 Dissemination of the project

13.1 Introduction

Chapter 12 was entitled "*Interim* evaluation of the research project", and throughout that chapter I attempted to suggest that the writing of this PhD thesis represents a staging post, rather than an end, in this project. In this final chapter I will very briefly discuss some of the ways in which I hope to develop the project into the future. I will not go into detail about any of the suggestions: my intention is to sketch ideas which, at the moment of writing, have not been fully explored.

13.2 A short guide

Some of the feedback reported in chapter 11 (see sections 11.2, 11.3, 11.5) suggests that the length of the materials, and the time required to work with them, may have influenced some research participants to decide not to use them. I would therefore like to look at developing a short guide to TESOL article writing, which would still be based on the model described in chapters 7 and 8 and the materials described in chapter 9 and Appendix A, but which would go into less detail and whose pedagogic approach would move slightly away from a discovery methodology, and towards the giving of more overt advice.

On the basis of feedback reported in chapter 11, I feel that the resulting shorter text may be of interest to those who would like to work on writing for publication but who do not feel they have time to go through a detailed process of analysis and reformulation such as that implied by Appendix A. It is also possible that a text of this type, with a more directive pedagogic approach, would appeal to people who are less confident about their writing and who apparently had difficulties with the discovery methodology and the user

autonomy of Appendix A (chapter 11 section 11.3). A short guide, then, could both represent an improvement in the service offered to certain groups of MSc participants/ graduates, and also improve the dissemination of this project.

Then from my own point of view as initiating researcher, I am sure that I would learn a great deal from trying to reformulate my ideas in this way. As Richardson (1994) argues, writing itself is a research method. By writing about 'the same' material for different audiences and purposes, the researcher can continue to learn more about it. My experience so far, of writing chapters 7-8 on the one hand and Appendix A on the other, (see chapter 10 subsection 10.3.4) certainly bears this notion out.

13.3 An MSc half-module

Although the length and complexity of the materials may have influenced some research participants not to work with them, feedback from those who did read and think about them in more detail (chapter 11 section 11.4) does suggest that quite a rich learning experience has been facilitated. I myself remain committed to the 'full length' version, and to the idea that a situated, conscious improvement in writing may best be facilitated alongside the development of analytical knowledge and skills. I therefore need to find a way of presenting (a version of) my self-access materials to interested MSc participants such that length and time considerations will not be perceived as an obstacle. It seems to me that a good way to do this would be to offer "Writing for Publication" as a credit-bearing half-module on the MSc TESOL/TESP.¹

The suitability of this material for study on the MSc TESOL/TESP is, I feel, relatively uncontroversial. As discussed in chapter 9, it involves participants in close study of a discourse analytical model, demands engagement with the literature of our profession, and facilitates a wide range of analytical and creative skills. For MSc purposes, participants' work could be evaluated according to the evidence they would provide of having researched target journals and undertaken analysis and reformulation of text, in terms of their critical comments on the model itself, and in terms of an outcome achieved in an article submitted for publication.

Re-writing Appendix A as materials for the MSc TESOL/TESP would enable me to make certain specific modifications which I feel are suggested by the

¹ As at October 1998 100 credits are necessary for the award of an MSc; half-modules carry 5 credits. All half-modules are optional.

feedback reported in chapter 11. For example, I would include an initial task of analysing a full length published text, as suggested by the Xalapa workshop group (section 11.3). Again as suggested by this group, I would include at least some discussion of general good practice for article writing. I would also like to find a way of emphasising the notion of different types of R and types of article (chapter 8 subsections 8.6.1 - 8.6.3). I myself am committed to the value of this notion, but reaction to it from users of the materials has been very mixed. I need to make another attempt to communicate the idea, and to gather more feedback on it.

The last sentence of the previous paragraph relates to my desire to carry on improving the descriptive model. Because MSc participants would be particularly asked to comment critically on the model, as well as just to use it, I think I would get high quality feedback from presenting the material as part of the course. Already in this project, participants such as Ana Halbach and Maurice Ward (chapter 11 subsections 11.4.2, 11.4.3.3) have raised questions about some of the constructs I posit in the model, and I would like to receive more feedback of this nature in order to continue to improve the credibility of the linguistic descriptions.

In summary, then, I feel there would be several advantages of offering "Writing for Publication" as a half-module on the MSc TESOL/TEFL. Participants who would like to work in depth in this area would be able to do so within the context of their degree course. Such participants would be working directly with the main research interest of a member of the teaching team, and I myself would equally benefit from this close teaching/ research tie. I would learn from the re-writing of the text, and the model would be improved by the feedback which would emerge.

13.4 A half-module on campus

The MSc TESOL/TEFL is principally delivered by distance learning, but there is also an on campus programme at Aston. I would like to offer a half module in this modality too, as I believe the group teaching situation offers the potential to explore aspects of this work which have not been examined in the research project so far.

From the point of view of MSc participants, I feel that the possibility of peer-editing is particularly interesting. Draft texts would benefit from the perspective of another analyst. Then by examining each others' texts

participants would use their analytical knowledge and sharpen their analytical skills in a particularly task-authentic manner, adopting the expert's role in order to assess their classmate's writing in the light of the goal of the genre. This would be a learning process additional to the self-analysis and editing processes which are available when the material is worked on at a distance.

From the point of view of my own learning and the improvement of the descriptive model, I am particularly interested to explore differing interpretations of what the constructs I have posited actually mean. Some participants in the project so far have put forward interpretations of their texts which I am tempted to classify as incorrect: for example, when Maurice Ward (chapter 11 section 11.4.3.1) labels the first paragraph of *Traversing the four orders of removal* as a describe S and a recognise P, or when Ana Halbach (chapter 11 section 11.4.2) questions whether the final paragraph of *Using trainees' diaries for assessment* contains a significant positive E. I would like the opportunity to work through the text analysis process *with* participants, and look at how the group does or does not reach a consensus on the interpretation of my terms.

13.5 Guidance on assignment writing

Throughout the feedback reported in chapter 11 there is a recurring suggestion that my analytical model can inform about assignment writing as well as article writing. I would like to look at a corpus of assignments written for the MSc TESOL/TESP, and attempt to use the principles of my model of the TESOL article genre to develop a model of the assignment genre. This model would also, of course, have a pedagogic orientation — I hope it would lead to guidance on assignment writing to supplement that which we already provide. Perhaps one of its most valuable contributions could be to provide a deeper metalanguage and framework for staff and participants to talk about assignments.

This project would tie in well with another current LSU research activity. We are currently attempting to work towards the establishment of a set of data-based criteria for the evaluation of assignments, derived from written feedback which we have actually given. Such data-based criteria could inform the development of a model of the assignment genre; equally, the model could provide a unifying framework for the criteria.

13.6 Dissemination of the project

In chapter 12 subsection 12.2.8, I argued that successful dissemination is one of the criteria for the evaluation of this project. It is my intention to start work on this aspect outside the context of the LSU and the MSc TESOL/TEFL once the PhD phase of the project has come to a close, in the sense that I wish to write both pedagogically and analytically focused articles on various aspects of the project. I am particularly interested to attempt to disseminate the descriptive strand of the project since this may, in principle, be evaluated in its own terms even without engagement via the interventionist strand. As was discussed in chapter 12 subsection 12.2.8, such evaluation is dependent on appropriate dissemination.

To undertake the task of dissemination is, from a career perspective, only sensible given the time and energy that has already gone into the project. Then also, as discussed in chapter 12, such work is essential if the project is to have any real possibility of transfer to another context. And finally, I look forward to continuing to learn about the material as I write about it in different ways.

(87,938 words)

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Appendix A

The self-access materials

Writing for Publication: purpose and choice in TEFL articles

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Introduction

If you are reading these materials then you have decided that you want to publish an article. And as participant/ graduate of the Aston MSc in TE(SP), you have a very good basis from which to proceed: you have already been conducting research, and writing it up in the form of assignments. These materials, then, are intended to help you take one of your course assignments and develop it into an article suitable for publication.

In order to write these materials, I made a study of articles which appeared in ELTJ in 1994 and 1995 and developed a model to describe them. The model provides a framework for looking systematically at some macro-linguistic choices available to TEFL article writers, and at the pragmatic implications of those choices. You will be able to use it to analyse your existing text (ie your assignment), gain a deeper understanding of the choices you are currently making, and then revise your writing if you want to.

The materials are very much designed for use by linguistically aware TEFL professionals, and they rely on the fact that you already have experience of textual analysis. And because they attempt to take you through quite a detailed analysis of your text, with discussion of choices at each point, they are not short! Some sections of the materials invite you to "simply" read and think, while the majority are organised in terms of tasks and feedback. The materials are designed sequentially. As you use them you will no doubt find that some sections are quick and easy for your particular text, whereas others prompt deeper thought and engagement. But at the end of the day, you are the one who will decide how much work you want to do at each point.

As you know, I have developed these materials as part of my PhD project. Within the context of that project, it is very important for me to get your feedback on the extent to which, and the ways in which, you find the materials helpful. So I would like to ask you to keep in touch with me as you use the materials. I am happy to accept feedback in any form - written, on audiocassette, by email, even via a phone call if you give me time to make notes. And of course, I will be delighted to be informed when your article has been accepted for publication!

WRITING FOR PUBLICATION: PURPOSE AND CHOICE IN TEFL ARTICLES

1. The assignment genre and the article genre

As a user of these materials, you will not be writing in your target genre - the article - from scratch, but you will be developing your target from a text originally written in another genre - the assignment. So before we look at TEFL texts in detail I would like to take some time to think about the similarities and differences between these genres.

One obvious similarity is the type of subject matter: teaching procedures, materials analysis, language description to name but a few areas, can be found in both assignments and articles. There are also some similarities in the composing processes. For example, writers of both genres have to survey the relevant literature. Writers of both genres are likely to write more than one draft and get peer feedback where possible. There is also similarity between the genres in terms of textual organisation. For example, Hoey's (1983) SPRE pattern can often describe examples from both. When we come to textual analysis, you will see just how important this last point becomes.

All these similarities make your task, of converting an assignment to an article, easier. But there are also differences between the genres, which are potential sources of difficulty.

Genres "impose" certain social roles upon their authors, which are quite unrelated to the role that person has in the world outside. Such author-construction comes about as a result of writing in the genre, and is not connected to the "actual" level of knowledge/ ability of the person writing. The crux of the difference between the genres, it seems to me, is that the assignment genre constructs its author as a novice whereas the article genre constructs its author as an expert.

The assignment genre constructs its author as a novice because in this genre, the balance of power does not lie with the author. An assignment is addressed to teachers, who are known to be acting as evaluators and who are assumed to have more relevant knowledge than the student who wrote the assignment. The teachers read the assignment in order to evaluate the writer and make suggestions to assist them. If there is disagreement between the two, this can

lead to the writer being evaluated negatively. By the time they come to write an assignment, students have usually constructed a picture of the teachers' views and preferences which, because of the institutional power relationship, can be particularly constraining. The combination of writing on demand and for assessment means that the assignment writer is positioned as someone who writes to display knowledge, rather than to contribute to it.

It is of course true that the reader of an assignment can learn from it, but this is not the usual motivation for reading. It is also true that assignments may be read by intending writers as if they were articles, and become citations in other texts - but again this is not typical. The usual purpose for reading an assignment is for the reader to assist in the *writer's* development.

The article genre constructs its author as an expert because an article has an informing, even a "teaching" function. By its very existence it assumes that it has something unique and valuable to say, and assumes the responsibility of communicating this to a heterogeneous audience. It may be read in very different circumstances from those in which it was written, and yet still be considered a source of solutions to problems.

Articles, then, are usually read as a source of information and knowledge. Readers may see themselves as peers of the writer, or as less knowledgeable/experienced. But in either case one main reason for reading an article is to learn from it. Another main reason for reading an article is in order to write something oneself; whether another article or an assignment. In this case a purpose for reading is to help the reader-about-to-write to develop a position, which may be complementary or contrasting to the articles which s/he will go on to cite as sources. In both of these cases, the reader reads to help themselves, for their own development.

The notion that the article genre constructs its author as an expert has a very significant implication for writers. And that is, that it would not be possible to publish an article, or submit one for publication, without the piece being received by the discourse community as a claim for this status. Article authors are assumed to be intending to make a contribution of value to the community.

The fact of publication changes the status both of the ideas contained in an article and of the article's author. The knowledge and experience represented in published articles is "the state of the art", at least for those community members who have access to journals. And article authors are members of that very

small minority of the community which writes the texts that everyone else reads.

In this section, then, I have presented a comparison of the assignment genre and the article genre in terms which I think are useful when one is making the transition from one to the other. I hope that reading it will have helped you to develop a more explicit perspective on the nature of writing for publication.

In the following sections, we will start to prepare for textual analysis. In section two I will look at a well-known discourse analysis pattern which is a prerequisite for the model I am going to introduce. In section three, I will introduce the model. And then from section four onwards, I will invite you to use it in detail with your text.

2. A point of departure: the SPRE pattern in TEFL articles

2.1 An assertion

In order to talk about writer choice in TEFL texts we first need a baseline for describing the elements and structure of such texts. Before we can talk about the functions of different parts of the text, we need to know what those parts are.

These materials are based on the assumption that TEFL articles are usually describable in terms of Hoey's (1983) SPRE pattern. This assertion is supported both by previous research (eg Edge 1985) and by my own experience: in analysing all of the articles in *ELTJ* in 1994, I found that the structure of all except three of the articles could be explained using this pattern.

I'm sure the idea of SPRE in TEFL texts is not new to you: it appears in the MSc study companion and many tutors make use of it on induction courses. Perhaps you consciously used the pattern to structure your assignments, and perhaps you are aware of it in some of the articles that you read. So if you're already convinced that SPRE is a frequent pattern in TEFL texts, then perhaps you'll want to skim over section 2.2 and go straight to 2.3. But if the idea is less salient for you or if you'd like to explore it in a little more detail, then please look more closely at the next section.

2.2 Describing the structure of some texts

Let's recap on what the SPRE pattern is. I expect you remember that Hoey (1983 p35) exemplifies it with a short narrative originally devised by Winter:

I was on sentry duty	SITUATION
I saw the enemy approaching	PROBLEM
I opened fire	RESPONSE
I beat off the attack	EVALUATION.

Hoey argues that the organisation of very many different texts can be understood in terms of the above pattern, and I for one have not found it difficult to find examples of such texts from many different sources. Although of course, in longer texts, the distinction between the four elements is often not as clear as in the narrative above.

Let us now try to use the pattern to describe some TEFL articles. On pp 8 - 10 are two short articles, both taken from Modern English Teacher in 1995.

Task 1: Please read them and use the SPRE pattern to analyse their structure.

Now here is my own analysis. Here and throughout the materials, feedback on the task follows immediately in the text, distinguished by an indent; I've done this so that you don't have to keep turning pages. But I would like to suggest that you actually complete the tasks before reading my responses, because I think you'll get much more out of the materials that way.

Fairy tales for lively practice

"Once upon a time... speaking and writing skills" is Situation. "We wanted something... motivate our students" is Problem. Eventually we came up ... to the development of the project" is Response. " Once again... lived happily ever after" is Evaluation.

Presenting grammar visually

"Teaching grammar...during the learning programme" is Situation. "Students demand to know... taught it dozens of times" is Problem. "It was through grappling.... FCE to CPE" is Response. "I have also found the maps useful... is therefore quite broad" is Evaluation.

The analyses above are deliberately broad and simple. Even so they bring out some interesting points: for example, had you remembered that (as in text one) Problem can be a goal, as well as a difficulty? And what about the sentence ("The aim of this article... couple of years") which I have deliberately left out of my analysis of text two?

Your analysis may not be exactly the same as mine. Often the demarcations between sections are not precise. You may have conducted your analysis in a lot more detail than I did, and therefore found (for example) ongoing evaluations within the Response section of text one, or indeed a microcosm of the whole SPRE pattern in the first paragraph of text two.

2.3 The structure of your own text

The articles we have looked at are short - much shorter than your assignments

and than the article that you want to write. Longer TEFL texts are inevitably more complex and less likely to follow the SPRE pattern canonically. As I analysed ELTJ articles I did indeed come across some complications.

One of them is particularly important, so I'll mention it now. In many texts, I felt there was a distinct section whose role was to give *reasons* for R. So for current purposes I'd like to add a fifth element to the SPRE pattern, which we can call Basis for R or BR. We'll see more about this element later on.

Now, it's time for you to start to analyse your own existing text: the assignment that you want to use as a basis for your published article.

Task 2: Please use the SPRE pattern to analyse the structure of your text. Try to identify the boundaries of each section, and notice their order. If the pattern does not describe your text completely, say why this is.

When you have conducted the above analysis you may have the feeling that your text is well organised, or not so well organised. In the latter case, you might feel an urge to change its organisation! And perhaps you will end up doing that. But for now, I'd like to ask you to hold on: leave your text as it is until you have worked through more of these materials and have thought in more detail about what you are actually *doing* in each section of your text.

And now it's time to introduce the model which will help you to do that.

Fairy tales for lively practice

Anna Beatriz Medeiros and Maria da Luz da Silva Gomes Martinho, who teach at the Cultura Inglesa in Brazil, describe their work with fairy tales.

Once upon a time, two teachers working with intermediate and advanced level students were keen to find new activities to improve their students' listening, reading, speaking and writing skills. We wanted something which would really motivate our students. Eventually we came up with the idea of fairy tales.

First of all, the sorts of characters and elements which make up a fairy tale were discussed in class. Students suggested the eternal fight between good and evil, witches, fairy godmothers, handsome princes, unprotected little girls and, last but not least, the happy ending, which is common to practically all fairy tales. They pointed out the fact that these stories always carry a message intended to show that truth and love always win.

We agreed on the important role fairy tales play in everyone's childhood even though, surprisingly enough, some students did not remember the names of any fairy tales, while some others remembered only parts of the stories. There were even some who mixed up *Cinderella* with *Little Red Riding Hood*!

The students all welcomed the idea of carrying out some sort of project on fairy tales. We then suggested we could not only use the story itself, but develop it into a parody, which really interested them. Ideas and concepts involved in writing parodies, as well as elements which make them amusing, were discussed, with irony and a sense of humour ranking first on the list.

Next, we elicited from them how much they could remember of *Little Red Riding Hood* and the different versions of the tale. Then, in groups, students were given bits of the story on slips of paper, which they had to put in order. After this they checked the sequence against the video (*Sleeping Beauty and Other Stories*, Longman), which is exactly the same version of the story as that written out on the slips of paper.

The next step was to play them a parody of *Little Red Riding Hood* by Roald Dahl (on the tape of *Headway Advanced*, OUP). Finally, groups of students chose a different fairy tale each and, within a few weeks, prepared a parody. Some groups turned theirs into a sketch and video taped it. Others wrote a poem or a narrative, which added variety and fun to the development of the project.

Once again our students showed how imaginative they can be, making excellent use of the language they have learnt so far, in a meaningful way. This was undoubtedly a most rewarding experience, as the students were really able to develop the four skills communicatively and through a very entertaining activity. We believe the activity has brought back the pleasure of telling, listening to and especially understanding the ideas behind fairy tales.

It was a rewarding experience for the teachers, too – and they lived happily ever after.

■ Ana Beatriz Medeiros and Maria da Luz da Silva Gomes Martinho

Presenting grammar visually

Joanna Fayram is a freelance teacher in Higher Education in the north-east of England. Here she explains the grammar charts she has devised.

Teaching grammar is a problem which has preoccupied me over the last few years. Grammar is the area which seems to worry students the most, and I believe that if we are to be truly learner-centred, we must try to facilitate the internalisation of grammatical rules at some point(s) during the learning programme. The aim of this article is to share one method of teaching grammar which I have found to be particularly effective over the past couple of years.

Students demand to know the rules of grammar, but rules presented one week are frequently forgotten the next. I have often wondered how my students can be expected to learn grammatical rules when I find myself having to check my own knowledge of a particular point after having taught it dozens of times. It was through grappling with the problem of how to make rules memorable that I first had the idea of presenting grammar visually. I have found that most areas of grammar can be presented visually in the form of charts or maps, and would like to demonstrate this with a couple of examples.

Memorisation is aided by the use of different colours (*Not possible here, so we have used different lines to represent different colours. Ed.*) for different areas of the grammar point taught, and the map can be presented on the OHP. The students get a clear idea of how aspects of a grammatical area relate to each other; this facilitates explanation/understanding and, ultimately, memory – and even, perhaps, correct usage. This last point is very difficult to measure.

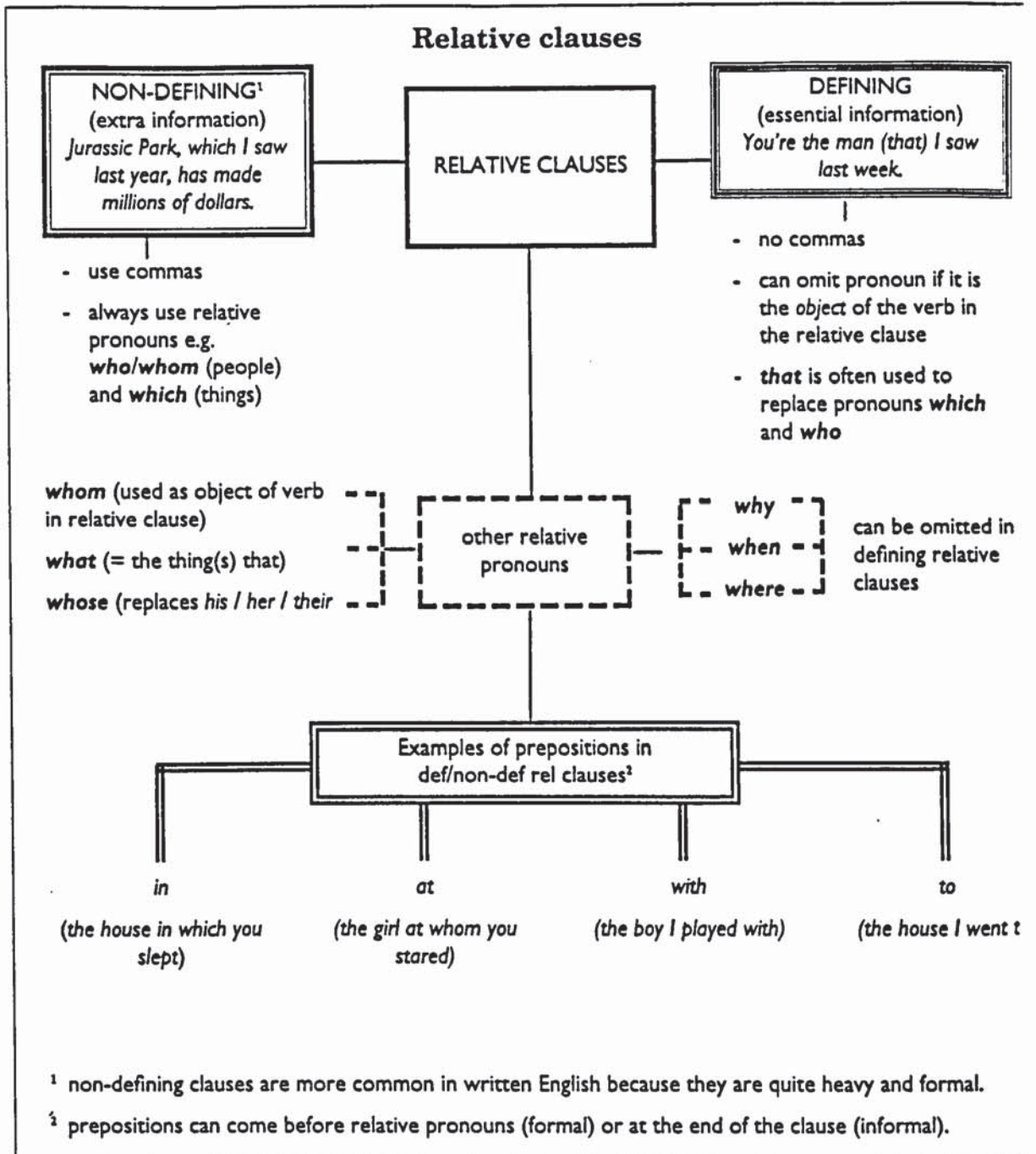
Here are some of the ways I have exploited maps:

- 1 The map can be built up section by section or by gradually moving outwards from the central concept over the course of a series of lessons.
- 2 The map can be elicited from the students as a grammar area is presented.
- 3 The map can be shown in its entirety at the end of a series of lessons to summarise the content of those lessons.
- 4 The map can be shown in its entirety at the beginning of the session(s) to give the students a clear idea of the aims and objectives of the session(s).
- 5 Each area of the map can be used in turn for practice. For example, with the map of relative clauses, the teacher may want to give the students communicative practice of defining clauses before moving on to non-defining, etc.
- 6 Written examples can either be incorporated into the chart or given more fully on a separate sheet.
- 7 The maps are an effective tool for revision purposes and in this respect can be useful to students preparing for the Cambridge exams.

The complexity of the map and the way it is used will be determined by the level of the students. These maps have been used from Cambridge FCE to CPE. I have also found the maps useful for teacher training, and believe that they could prove to be a valuable resource for most practising teachers, native and non-native.

Classroom Ideas

Students have a variety of learning styles, so maps are best used as one of several tools. The extent of their role has to be determined by the needs, level and preferred learning styles of the students. I have used them successfully with multilingual and monolingual groups, of different ages and levels, learning English for academic, business and general purposes. Their application is therefore quite broad.



3. A model of some pragmatics in the TEFL article genre

In this section I want to present, in broad outline, the model we will be using for textual analysis. And because the section is a presentation, it contains only one reader task. In the sections which follow it, I will invite you to begin working in detail on your own text.

In the introduction I said that this model would be concerned with macro-linguistic choices and the pragmatic implications of these. In order to build a systematic description of choices and their implications, we will think first about some of the social purposes of writing in this genre. It is within a context of specified social purposes that the notion of modelling pragmatic implication can make very concrete sense.

Articles have certain social purposes in the discourse community of which they are a part. Article writers, then, write having certain goals vis a vis the community. On this basis it is possible to talk about an overall goal for the TEFL article genre. A relationship exists between the overall goal of the genre and the pragmatic purposes of the various sections of particular texts. Whole texts seek to achieve the goal of the genre, and sections of the text work together to make this happen.

Let us look at this idea in more detail.

3.1 The goal of the genre

Nowadays genre-analytical models often include the concept of writer purpose in the labels they apply to structural elements. And if we take this trend one step further, we can argue that a genre itself has goals. This metaphorical statement is powerful because it reconciles two important ideas: the idea that discourse is socially structured, and the idea that discourse is determined by individual intention. Socio-communicative events - such as genres - may be seen as having "natural goal configurations" which are "trans-individually patterned" (Shepherd & Rothenbuler 1991 p194).

We can arrive at a specific statement of the goal of the TEFL article genre, by considering what we said in part one about texts in the genre. There we saw that article writers have the task of positioning themselves within the discourse community(ies) in which the journal plays a role, and that one of the defining characteristics of the article genre is that it constructs its author as an expert.

This means that the author needs to relate to relevant discourse communities in a particular way. As an expert, they need to say something new and impressive. As a community member, they need to portray their ideas as being in a relationship with other ideas and values which belong to the community.

For these reasons I think it is useful to label the overarching goal of the genre *To make a contribution via the creation of relative newness*. It's rather a long label, but I think it encapsulates some important concepts. Let's unpack it a little.

The phrase "make a contribution" refers both to the relationship between the text and the genre and to the relationship between the genre and the community. Both of these relationships are reflexive: there is a reciprocity both between what *is* written and what *can be* written, and also between what is *written* and what is *done*.

The term "relative newness" sheds light on the kind of text that is most likely to be perceived and accepted as a contribution. The term "newness" means not only original or different, but also valid and valuable, useful and having status. The term "relative" emphasises that newness in a vacuum is not valuable and does not have status. The newness which a community values is that which connects to things it already knows.

The goal of the genre, then, is both cognitive and social, both semantic and pragmatic. The genre aims to increase the total fund of knowledge available to the community. The accumulated wealth of contributions becomes the state of the art for the community: the ways of talking about the issues addressed become the voice of the community. The genre is also the means by which writers position themselves within the community: it is a granter of status and prestige, and provides a way of differentiating between the majority of community members who read the genre, and the elite minority who read and also write it.

A number of researchers have discussed the importance of newness for the production of successful academic writing. I don't think these materials are the place for a detailed discussion of sources: but in case you would like to read more on this idea, I include a list of some relevant texts at the end of the materials.

3.2 What the elements of text are doing

If the overall goal of the genre is to make a contribution by creating relative newness, then whole texts within it will be understood as trying to achieve this goal. Each text, in this sense, is a microcosm of the genre. And if we break a text down into elements, we can see that different elements contribute to the goal in different ways. For example certain elements have the purpose of putting forward the new contribution, whereas other elements have the purpose of preparing the ground for this, of anchoring the new ideas in what is already known to the reader.

In order to break down the texts in my corpus, I used the SPRE pattern which we saw in part two. This pattern enabled me to characterise the structure of my texts and therefore to go on and study the ways in which each element of the structure contributes to the overall goal of the genre. Here is the description I developed.

First, let us look at the *internal workings* of the text. The role of the R section is central: it is to deliver the new contribution. Then the other elements work together to "foreground" this contribution, in the following ways:

- The role of the S element is to contextualise the R;
- The role of the P element is to identify the problem or goal to which R responds;
- The role of the BR element is to justify the contribution in R;
- The role of the E element is to evaluate the contribution.

So within the text, all elements work to "help" the main contribution that is realised in R.

Let us now look at the ways in which a text, as part of its genre, *relates to the community*. Here again we can see the elements of the text as having roles, and we will also see that these roles "map on" to the overall goal of the genre.

The role of R remains central and remains the same: to deliver the main contribution. The E element, via its evaluation of the contribution in the text, has the role in the community of *claiming significance* for the contribution. R and E, then, connect most clearly to the "newness" aspect of the goal of the genre.

Within the text, S and P work as a "launching pad" for R, and BR seeks to justify

R. So in the community, these elements have the role of anchoring the newness of the contribution in what is already known. S, P and BR, then, connect most clearly to the "relative" aspect of the goal of the genre.

In my model, the roles described above are interpreted as the *illocutions* of elements of the SPRE pattern as realised in TEFL texts. The concept of illocutionary force is of course familiar to you, although you might be more used to using it at the level of individual utterances. An underlying argument for this model is that long stretches of text can also have illocutions within a genre. Again, I do not want to burden these materials with references which could support my point: but a list of relevant reading is provided at the end. As you come to use the model, I hope you will agree with me that an illocutionary perspective on elements of text is extremely useful.

3.4 Summary: An illocutionary model of the TEFL article genre

The goal of the genre is to make a contribution by creating relative newness. So for texts within it:

S contextualises the main contribution in the text and builds common ground within the community;

P identifies the problem or goal to be addressed in the text, and builds common ground within the community;

BR justifies the main contribution in the text, and builds common ground in the community;

R delivers the main contribution of the text, and creates newness in the community;

E evaluates the main contribution in the text, and makes a claim for its significance in the community.

The within-text illocutions listed above are considered to be inherent to the respective elements of texts. So for example a text whose attempt at an S element did not contextualise the text's R would appear incoherent to the reader; in the terms of the model, it would fail to *be* an S element. The within-community illocutions are necessary for a text to be received as a valuable contribution. And yet you will see, as I present the model in more detail and invite you to use it, that all the illocutions can be realised by writers in very different ways.

In the following sections I will use examples from my corpus of texts to

demonstrate some of the most frequent ways of managing the illocutions. I hope that these examples, and the tasks which accompany them, will help you to see how you are currently managing elements of your own text, and to decide what, if anything, you wish to change.

3.4 A task for part 3

It is difficult for me to guess how you might be feeling at this point in your reading. I hope that you have found the ideas I've presented to be plausible, even appealing - but I also suspect that you might see them as lacking grounding in any evidence. This, I think, is an inevitable consequence of my desire to present you with a broad overview before going into detail.

So, may I suggest that you begin to try the ideas out for yourself?

Task 3: Take either of the short articles which we saw in part two. Look again at your breakdown of it, and then study it in the light of the illocutions I propose above. Do you feel that the elements of the text indeed work together in the ways I suggest? Do you have any comments on the ways in which the writer manages the illocutions? Do you think the text is a successful realisation of the goal of the genre?

Here are my ideas on the above task

Text one

S contextualises successfully, setting up the activities to come as "improving.... skills". It builds common ground because this desire is a familiar one to teachers.

P successfully identifies a specific goal (motivation) and again builds common ground because this aim of "motivation" is familiar to us.

R is the longest and most detailed section, as befits the main contribution. It creates newness by relating the procedures followed by these teachers in clear detail - a reader could use the procedures if they wished to.

E - both the main E section and the little Es which come in the R - gives the expected positive evaluation of the procedures related and makes

claims on the basis of what the students learnt, and also of what both they and the teachers felt.

There is no separate BR section in this article.

Text 2

S contextualises successfully because it sets up teaching grammar as something which worries teachers and students and which could therefore benefit from new ideas. Common ground is achieved because the idea that grammar is difficult is a familiar one in our profession.

P identifies a more specific difficulty for the article to address. The writer builds common ground by referring to a familiar idea (students forgetting rules) and backing this up by a personal anecdote which readers can also identify with.

R is again clearly the main contribution. The map itself is new for readers, as are the detailed suggestions about how it could be used.

The clearest positive evaluation in E comes in the final paragraph of the article and has the authority of the writer's experience. The claim is quite complex: it includes wide statements about applicability and value, but there is also a recognition that their precise role should be determined by the context.

Again, there is no separate BR section for this article.

My own opinion is that both of these texts are successful realisations of the goal of the genre. Their newness lies in proposing practical solutions to well-known problems, which is very appropriate to a journal like MET where articles are short. In a longer text there are many more options for the management of illocutions and so for the creation of newness - as we will see in the following sections.

4. The model in detail: managing illocutions to create relative newness

In part four of these materials I am going to talk through each element of a text in turn. I will comment - with examples - on the different ways in which the articles in my corpus approach the elements of text and on the implications of these choices for the creation of relative newness in the article. I will invite you to look at what you are doing in your own text and to think about whether you are happy with it.

In these materials I am of course obliged to go through the elements of a text in a certain order. This does not imply that I think all texts necessarily follow this order, or that the illocutions of the elements depend on them following a certain order. As you use these materials to consider the purpose of each element of your text you will also, I believe, develop a clearer view of the extent to which they are appropriately sequenced and interleaved.

The examples I will use are extracts from ELTJ articles in 1994 and 1995. Some of the extracts are short: I have chosen them because I believe that even appearing out of context they illustrate the points I want to make. So as you go through the materials, please don't worry too much about the context of the extracts - look at them as text in themselves.

I had to decide *how many* examples to use in the materials, and I've chosen to use just one or two to illustrate each point. This is to prevent the materials from becoming too long. But I'm also aware that at some points, different readers might prefer to see more examples - and for that reason I'm also providing you with a "supplementary examples" package. You have the option of using this package in conjunction with the main text.

4.1 Managing the contextualisation in S

You will remember from part three that the S element has two illocutions: to contextualise the main contribution in the text, and to build common ground in the community. These comments can apply both to the main S section of the article, (if there is one), and to any smaller Ss that may come elsewhere.

In this section we will first identify two basic situation types. Then we will look at some options for managing the illocutions of this element, contextualise and build common ground. Next we will consider some pitfalls: are there circumstances in which an S element may in fact fail to build common ground?

And finally, we will look briefly at emphasis on S and the focus of the article.

4.1.1 Some basic situation types

Task 1: Please consider the following two extracts. Can you see them as representing two fairly distinct "situation types"? What are the differences between them?

i. The learners were Swedish-speaking Finnish children aged between thirteen and sixteen who had been studying English since the age of ten or eleven. (source: Ronnqvist & Sell 1994: 125)

ii. Alongside the increase in published courses and resource books, we have begun to see the formulation of theoretical frameworks for teaching English to young learners, drawing on mother tongue primary education and mainstream ELT methodologies (Brumfit, Moon and Tongue 1991: Kennedy and Jarvis, 1991). (source: Cameron 1994: 28)

The first extract is "setting" in the obvious sense of that word. The writers describe the physical setting of their work so that their contribution will be fully appreciated by readers.

The second is "state of the art", in this case describing contemporary thinking in our profession. The writer uses the TEFL literature to contextualise her contribution.

Task 2: Now look at your own text. Which of the above possibilities do you have? Just one, or more than one?

4.1.2 Not just common ground

Having established some basic situation types, we come to our discussion of how the illocutions of this element may be managed. Let's look at extract i again and compare it with another one, which is also a "setting" type.

Task 3: In what senses are the two extracts different?

i. The learners were Swedish-speaking Finnish children aged between thirteen and sixteen who had been studying English since the age of ten or eleven. (source: Ronnqvist & Sell 1994: 125)

iii. Because of the country's complicated history of European colonisation, the people of Morocco tend to be very aware of the issue of imperialism. The French and Spanish languages were forced upon them by colonial powers this century, adding to the linguistic complexity of a situation in which two standards of Arabic - Classical and Moroccan dialectical Arabic - have been imposed on the three major Berber language varieties also spoken in Morocco. One effect of such linguistic imposition has been to undermine and devalue native languages, especially when the imposed language fulfils the four functions outlined by Kachru (1983): the instrumental function...; the regulative function...; the interpersonal function...; and finally the imaginative/innovative function.(source: Hyde 1994: 295)

My own way of categorising the differences is to say that extract i is closer to simple description, whereas iii is closer to complex interpretation. Extract i gives us facts about a group of learners which are not in principle disputable. Extract iii on the other hand makes use of sociolinguistic theory as a prism through which to see a situation, building up an argument which not everyone would agree with. Extract i uses short, simple assertions, whereas extract iii uses hedged statements and supports arguments with references.

The concept of description as opposed to interpretation is useful for distinguishing different approaches to the management of the illocutions of contextualise and build common ground. We can argue that the S element fulfils its illocutions along a continuum, of which describe <-----> interpret are the poles. Let me now outline the characteristics of each tendency.

Realisations nearer the interpret end of the continuum tend to contain more "new" ideas than do those near the describe end. Those near the describe end tend to use concrete statements, whereas those near the interpret end may need a theoretical prism to make their point. Interpret S sections tend to be

longer: whereas describe Ss can rely on reader knowledge and make their points in very brief statements, interpret Ss need more space to go into detail in order to be convincing.

Describe Ss tend to make their points using short and simple assertions, whereas interpret Ss are much more likely to use hedged statements. Perhaps because the writers of describe Ss can be sure of their facts, whereas the writers of interpret Ss want to keep readers on board by acknowledging that their originality is disputable.

Interpret Ss are more likely to support their points with references than are describe Ss. Again this seems natural - a describe S can rely on reader experience to validate it, whereas an interpret S may create the need for backup from the literature. An interpret S is also more likely to contain references because it is more likely to use theory: the writer therefore needs to acknowledge the source of that theory.

A describe S has no problems fulfilling its illocution of building common ground, but it does not contribute much to the newness of the article. An interpret S can help make the contribution in R seem very new, but there is a risk that it may not build all the common ground required.

Task 4: Now look at your own text . Do you think your S section(s) is nearer to the describe or to the interpret end of the continuum?

- If you want to see other examples of describe and interpret S extracts, see Supplementary Example Pack.

4.1.3 Possible pitfalls?

In this section I want to think about some reasons why the S element of a text could have difficulty fulfilling its illocution of build common ground.

Task 5: Please consider the following two texts. Can you see either or both of them as illustrating a possible danger?

- iv. In attempting to evaluate the effectiveness of any educational innovation there is a tendency to opt for a *summative* type of evaluation. Generally, this involves selecting groups of students or teachers and

administering appropriate tests at the beginning and end of the programme in order to investigate whether any changes found could be attributed to the innovation itself.

Partlett (1976, 1981), Cronbach (1976) and others have discussed the problems of conventional *summative* approaches to evaluation, where a treatment group is compared to a control group while holding a number of variables constant. [Goes on to discuss some of these problems, in what becomes the "P" section of the article]. (source: Williams & Burden 1994: 22).

v. A good deal of TESOL practice is based on the view that the intimate discourse which surrounds the child, and within which the child acquires his or her first language(s), is solely a stimulus to a Language Acquisition Device whose only function is to develop rules for the analysis and generation of unique sentences. Observation of caretaker speech and child discourse has shown this to be inadequate. The "input" of caretaker speech is repetitive and highly ritualised: the "output" of the child is often imitative and half understood. (source: Cook 1994: 138).

I think that both of these extracts attempt a questionable move: firstly they impute a certain approach to the majority of the profession, and then they assert that this approach is misconceived.

Why do you think writers may want to make a move like this?

I can think of at least two obvious reasons. The first, simply, is that they believe their "criticism" to be true. And the second - perhaps more likely? - reason is that this is a way of "making space" for the contribution that they themselves will put forward in their article. It's a way of making their contribution seem more "new".

Now look at the *form* of the two texts. Do you notice differences between the way each text manages the move referred to above?

I notice that the first text hedges its assertions about the profession rather more than does the second. I also notice that the first text uses explicit references (albeit outdated) to back up its claim that the

"conventional" approach is misconceived. The second text seems to refer to primary research ("Observation of...") but does not provide references.

Do you think there is any danger that texts using moves like this could fail to fulfil their illocution of making common ground? If so, why?

I think that it is always delicate to impute an approach to a whole community - after all, how does the writer know? And even more delicate to do this if the approach is then evaluated as wrong. There is the possibility that readers could be alienated, in two ways. If the reader accepts the writer's criticism as sincere, and yet the reader's own practice and that of his/her colleagues gives the lie to the writer's criticism, the reader may be offended at the writer's accusation and/or annoyed at their apparent ignorance. If the reader interprets the criticism as a "straw figure" within the text, s/he may feel that a rather cheap technique is being used.

Task 6: Look at your own text. Are you using moves like this at any point? If so, for what purpose? Are you happy that you are successfully building common ground?

4.1.4 The length of S and the focus of the article

We saw in our whole-text examples, in section two, that S sections are usually short. Here, we have seen that interpret Ss need more space than do describe Ss. And if you give your S a *great* deal of attention and space, then this will affect the focus of your article. Your S will no longer be "merely" contextualising and building common ground, it will become an important part of your main contribution.

We will explore this idea further in part 4.5 of the materials, when we look at R. For now, just take note what proportion of your text is currently taken up by S.

4.2 Managing the identification of a problem or goal in P

Like the S element, the P element works to build common ground in the community. Within the text, its role is to identify the problem or goal to which R will respond. These comments apply to the main P section of the article (if there is one) and to smaller Ps that may come elsewhere.

In this section we will start by identifying two basic types of P. Then we will look at distinctions in the scope of P: is it local, or general? From these bases we can move on to examine options for managing the illocutions of identify and build common ground. After that we can again consider pitfalls; is there a danger that certain ways of expressing P could alienate readers? Then we will end our discussion of this element by looking, briefly, at emphasis on P and the focus of the article.

4.2.1 Problem not problem

Al-Arishi 1994 is an article about role play in the classroom.

Task 1 Please read the following two extracts from it: both are taken from the section which I have categorised as "P". Do you see a difference between these two statements of P? How would you describe it?

i. "However, I believe that much of the criticism of role playing as a CLT activity has resulted from a failure to discern its hybridity. It is a hybrid because it springs from two distinct impulses in the contemporary language acquisition perspective, each of which has different aims and expectations. One impulse...[goes on to explain the two alleged impulses]. (1994: 338)

ii. "From this perspective of reality, instead of seeking to diagnose and remedy students' resistance to the role-playing activity, as Surplus (1983) suggests, (in essence, trying to find out what is wrong with students who resist role-playing as a valuable CLT activity), I believe it is more relevant to explore what is wrong with the activity that has caused student resistance". (1994: 339)

In the first extract, the writer describes a difficulty in a situation. In the second extract he expresses a purpose, an intention. So I think the two

extracts exemplify a distinction with which you are already familiar: the distinction between P as a difficulty, and P as a goal. Note how both appear in the same text (in fact in the same paragraph) - this was fairly frequent in my corpus. I observe a parallelism between the two statements: if a difficulty is that much criticism of role play has failed to understand the nature of the activity, then a goal is to explore that nature.

Task 2: What sort of P statement(s) do you have in your own text: difficulty, or goal? If you have both, are you satisfied that they relate to each other?

4.2.2 The scope of P

Task 3: Look at the following extracts from P sections. How would you describe the difference in their scope?

iii. In general, commonly employed rating scales present major problems of reliability and validity (Bachman & Savignon 1986, Fulcher 1987, Matthews 1990) (source: Upshur & Turner 1995:5)

iv In the schools we visited, teachers had low job satisfaction and did not feel appreciated by their senior colleagues. They also worked for very low pay (some for the equivalent of US\$4 a month), had classes of between fifty and ninety students, and very few textbooks or other resources" (source: Carey & Dabor 1995:38)

I feel that the first extract is general or wide-ranging in scope, and the second is local in scope. In the second extract the writers use mainly past tenses and include a phrase to link the statement of Problem to a particular context ("In the schools we visited"). The first extract uses the present simple and uses a phrase ("In general") which indicates a wide scope even as it hedges the assertion.

Task 4: Look at your own text. Is your P section more local, or more general?

The choice of a more local or a more general statement of P is of considerable

importance for the writer, since it has "knock-on" effects in R and E. By identifying the issue with which R will concern itself, the statement of P also sets up the scope of the claim which E can make about R. R has solved P; but how important was P in the first place?

We might also consider the possibility that the choice of a local or a general P is linked to two different ways of thinking about writing in ELT, two different notions of importance. Perhaps a general P links to the notion that the goal of ELT research is to find solutions and insights which are valuable in many contexts, and to deal with issues which affect large numbers of people. And perhaps a local P links to the notion that accounts of context-specific research are valuable precisely *because* they are context-specific, and include the particular detail which grounds the account and enables the reader to reflect upon possibilities of transfer.

Task 5: Consider your own text again. Look at the scope of your P statement(s) in terms of implications for other elements of your text, and in terms of the philosophy with which you may be aligning yourself. Are you happy with the way you have expressed your Problem?

4.2.3 Not just common ground

We have established that the P of a text can be expressed as a difficulty or as a goal, as local or general in scope. Now it is time to look at how the illocutions of this element can be managed. Let's look again at extract iii again, and compare it with a new extract:

- iii. In general, commonly employed rating scales present major problems of reliability and validity (Bachman & Savignon 1986, Fulcher 1987, Matthews 1990) (source: Upshur & Turner 1995:5)

- v. One of the biggest challenges to current language teaching methodology is to find effective ways of preparing students for spontaneous communication. (source: Dornyei & Thurrell 1994:40).

Task 6: At the level of content, which of the above assertions feels more familiar to you? Can you list some reasons why it is challenging to prepare students for spontaneous communication? Can you list some reasons why commonly employed rating scales are unsatisfactory in terms of reliability

and validity?

My guess is that unless you are particularly interested in language testing, you found the second P statement more familiar and easier to elaborate than you did the first. This distinction, between a P which flags up a well-known issue, and a P which flags up a difficulty or goal which is (treated as) not usually seen as such, is one of the dimensions which enables us to categorise statements of P along a continuum which we can call Recognise<-----> Invent.

There is a clear parallel here with the Describe <-----> Interpret continuum for S. Realisations near the invent end contain more "new" ideas than do those near the recognise end and as we will see below, this has an effect on the form of the text. A very recognise P has no problems fulfilling its illocution of building common ground, but it does not contribute much to the newness of the article. A very invent P can help make the contribution in R seem very new, but there is a risk that it may not build all the common ground required.

Let us explore these ideas further by looking at the above two P statements in their wider context.

vi. [This is the opening of the article] One of the biggest challenges to current language teaching methodology is to find effective ways of preparing students for spontaneous communication. As one answer to this challenge, a new type of language lesson, the conversation class, has appeared, whose main teaching objective is to improve the student's conversational skills.

In spite of the growing popularity of such conversation classes, they are often not systematic enough, having been put together from a random variety of communicative activities. The teachers running these courses can hardly be blamed for this, because while communicative language teaching methodology has offered detailed guidelines for how to create genuine communicative situations in the language classroom, it has failed to specify what kind of language input we should focus on.

[Goes on to a metatextual statement of how the article will address the above difficulties]. (source: Dornyei & Thurrell 1994:40).

vii [The article begins with two pages of text all of which I categorise as S, in which the history of the use of rating scales is summarised.]

Problems with current scales

A need for rating scales in modern language assessment does not automatically lead to effective and efficient scales. In general commonly employed rating scales present major problems of reliability and validity (Bachman & Savignon 1986, Fulcher 1987, Matthews 1990). This is especially true for scales used in second language courses. Examples of these reliability and validity problems are given below.

Reliability

1. Standards for grading shift as students improve during a course. The teacher unconsciously raises standards as the level of student ability increases. Often a teacher in a higher grade will give the same average rating to her class as a teacher at a lower grade who uses the same rating scale.

2. Raters of the same students will not agree on the meaning of scale descriptors. Therefore they give different scores to the same student performance. This can be reflected by one teacher giving generally higher average scores than another, or by one teacher assigning a wider range of scores than another.

[Difficulties continue to be summarised in three more numbered paragraphs, each approximately 5 lines in length].

Validity

1. Scale descriptors often do not conform to a teacher's own objectives. Typically, descriptors list a number of features a performance must incorporate in order to receive a given score. Teachers might not, however, have all of those features as objectives in their courses.

2. Scale points are frequently described by a list of features that may not actually co-occur in the performances being rated. One scale, for example, lists together in one category the ability to use past and

present tenses correctly and an inability to form questions. It is questionable whether even a slight majority of ESL learners ever exhibit such a pattern.

[Difficulties continue to be summarised in two more numbered paragraphs, each approximately five lines in length].

(source: Upshur & Turner 1995:5-6).

Task 7: Can you find some differences between the two extracts that you find relevant to the recognise <-----> invent continuum?

I notice a large number, which I will summarise under various headings.

Familiarity of content: As discussed above, I think that for most readers, the content of vi would be more familiar than that of vii.

Use of disciplinary theory and technical terms: There are more examples of this in vii than in vi.

Use of "bald assertions": Extract vi contains a number of simple assertions which are not elaborated upon. This suggests to me that the writers do not anticipate difficulty in getting reader agreement. In extract vii on the other hand, assertions tend to be picked up and developed.

Use of references: These can be found in extract vii but not in vi. This indicates to me that the writers of vii feel the need to support their case if they are to build common ground, whereas the writers of vi believe that teachers will identify with the difficulties they portray on the basis of their experience.

Explicit statement of distance: in extract vii the juxtaposition of the terms "commonly employed" and "major problems" distances the authors, who are claiming the existence of a problem, from the majority of the community who continue to use the scales in question.

Space allocated: Extract vi may reasonably be considered to be the entire P section of its article and is two paragraphs long. Extract vii if written in

full would be ten paragraphs long. This suggests to me that the writers of extract vii are aware that they are proposing a difficulty where, for the majority of the audience, none was supposed to exist: and they are prepared to give their idea the necessary space to get it accepted.

To summarise the recognise <-----> invent continuum for P, then, we can say:

That a more recognise approach is one which: deals with a generally acknowledged difficulty/ goal, and/or one which readers would identify with from their experience. Recognise Ps might take up a relatively small proportion of text. Points may be made using quite simple assertions, which tend not to be developed. References may not be needed.

A more invent approach is one which deals with a difficulty/goal that readers may not be aware of, which may need a lot of explanation before it can become common ground, and may need to be expressed using the theory of the discipline. Invent Ps may take up a larger proportion of text, and assertions within them are more likely to be developed and explained. They are more likely to use technical terms and to include references. There may be phrases which imply distance from others.

Task 8: Look at your own text. Do you feel that your P is closer to the recognise or to the invent end of the continuum? Are you happy that it identifies the issue and is building common ground?

- If you would like to see more examples of recognise and invent P extracts, see Supplementary Examples.

4.2.4 Some pitfalls?

In this part of the materials I want to think about some reasons why the P section of a text could have difficulty fulfilling its illocution of building common ground. Many of the points here parallel what was said about the S section in part 4.1.3.

Task 9: Look at the following extracts. Do you find their scope local or general? Which, if any, do you find to be critical of current work in the profession?

viii. Language improvement in teacher training courses: some problems

It is probably true to say that in most parts of the world the main emphasis in English language teacher training, especially on in-service courses, is on methodology, and that the teacher's proficiency in the language itself is largely taken for granted. There are of course exceptions: in China, for example, Hundleby & Breet (1988) and Berry (1990) report on a situation where....(source: Cullen 1994:163)

ix while much of TESOL distances itself from the work of people such as Safire, it also often has little to say about pronouns as they reference a problematic "we" or "they". This is why I consider it important to understand that second language theory is often based on an attempt to distance itself from *prescriptivism*, for in doing so it has settled on an apparently unproblematic *descriptivism*. My point here is that in opposing an assumed enemy - prescriptivism - applied linguistics has opted for a rather safe form of descriptivism, which assumes that pronouns simply replace nouns or operate in some clear deictic fashion, as if there were some unproblematic, uncontested world out there that is referenced by language. (source: Pennycook 1994:174) .

x One element of teacher training which has been relatively neglected until recently is the actual methodology of training itself. (source: Murdoch 1994:253)

I find them all to be general and all to be critical. viii talks about an imbalance in syllabus content, ix about a lack of awareness of the social significance of language choices, and x about a neglect of professional procedure.

Remember what was said in section 4.1.3 about alienating readers. Is there a danger that readers could be alienated here? Why?

I think the danger exists, and for similar reasons. Firstly because readers may react negatively to the use of a "straw person" as a P statement, and secondly because readers may evaluate the content of what is said as "wrong". Because the Ps are general in scope, the reader may feel

particularly entitled to do this.

Now look at the form of the examples. Do you find formal features in any of the extracts that might lessen the danger of alienating readers?

I notice that both viii and x use hedges. viii explicitly acknowledges exceptions. ix tends not to hedge, but it should be pointed out that the entire article is devoted to a discussion of the contention which is summarised here. The extract also marks the contention as personal.

Task 10 Look at your own text. Is your P couched in a criticism of the profession? Do you feel this is appropriate? If so, do you think you have done enough to avoid inadvertently alienating readers?

Are you still satisfied that you are building common ground?

4.2.5 The length of P and the focus of the article

The comments made in 4.1.4 about the length of S and the effect of this on the focus of the article also apply to P. If your P is *very invent*, and so gets a lot of space, then it will no longer be "merely" an identification of difficulty/goal but will become part of the main contribution of the article. This is not necessarily a bad thing - as I will discuss later, I think it happens in the case of the Upshur & Turner article quoted above. We will discuss the idea further in part 4.5, about R. For now just observe what proportion of your text is taken up by discussion of P.

4.3 Managing the justification in BR

Like S and P, BR works to build common ground in the community. Within the text, its role is to justify the main contribution found in R. In this part of the materials, we will first look at a continuum along which the illocutions of the element can be realised. We will go on to look at options for integrating the element into the text, and also consider the possibility of omitting it.

4.3.1 Approaches to BR

To illustrate some different approaches to BR, we will look at two extracts. The first is from an article which looks at ways of using literary texts with low-level learners, giving examples in the form of worksheets. The second is from an article describing an in-service course which aimed to improve English teaching in Sierra Leone by working not directly with teachers, but with heads of department. Both extracts have the role of justifying and of building common ground, but they do this in different ways.

Task 1: How would you describe the different approaches of the two extracts?

i. Comments on student worksheet 1

It is worth making a number of points with regard to the kinds of activities used in this worksheet. Firstly, asking students to make associations around key words is a way of cueing students in to the themes and underlying meanings in a literary text. Since students' language skills in English are very limited they cannot be expected to produce a fully-fledged "interpretation" of the text. But asking them to associate around some of the key words in the text is one way of making students aware of the thematic contrasts in the text. It is also a way of personalising the lesson and encouraging students to relate what they read to their own experience. Activities involving associations around a word or group of words can also generate rich cultural insights for students, since some of the associations a group of learners has for particular words may be culturally determined. The learners could be asked to compare their associations with those which seem to be present in the text or with those of the teacher. (source: Lazar 1994:18).

ii. The importance of leadership

Using Armstrong's (1988) principle that people are an organisation's prime resource, and that their effective management is the key to the organisation's success, we turned our attention to heads of English departments. Studies by a number of people, including Peters and Waterman (1982), and Goldsmith and Clutterbuck (1984), found that the success of an organisation depends in a great part on the ability of leaders to motivate their team, provide a sense of vision, clarify organisational objectives, and ensure that their subordinates are able to motivate those who work with them. Beare et al (1989) quote several studies of "excellent" schools (defined by such features as good results in public examinations, high attendance, and good behaviour) in which particular traits of the schools functioning were common. These features included a strong administrative leadership, teachers planning and working together, and a climate of high expectations shared by both students and staff. Beare et al (1989) say that excellent schools are the product of good management, and that management depends on a clear understanding of valid management theory. (source: Carey & Dabor 1995:38).

I think we can say that extract i seeks to justify R by reference to experiential knowledge which reader and writer are seen to share. Writers and readers are positioned as sharing certain schemata, so that readers will recognise the "truth" of the assertions (eg, will recognise that low-level learners are unlikely to produce detailed interpretations of a literary text) and will also understand these assertions as arguments in favour of what is proposed in the R section.

Extract ii on the other hand does not position readers and writers as sharing the same knowledge base. It seeks to justify R with reference to the writer's knowledge of the work of others, as recorded in the literature of the discipline. Here the reader cannot validate the "truth" of the assertions so easily, and needs to trust that the writer has done the bibliographical research and interpreted the sources correctly.

I suggest, then, that the BR element fulfils its illocution of justifying R and of building common ground along a continuum which we could call show <---> argue. A more show BR works by reference to the assumption of shared reader-writer experience, and a more argue BR by reference to the work of

of the particular. Some people might feel that claims which transcend individual situations are more useful. Others might feel that local claims inspire more confidence and that in any case it is for the reader, not the writer, to contemplate transferability.

Both of the E extracts quoted above are from articles which also featured in section 4.2.2 concerning the scope of P. Their P sections were also categorised as local and general respectively. It seems to me that this match between the scope of P and E statements is one factor adding to the coherence of both articles.

Task 4: Look at your own text. Is your E more local or more general in scope? Is the scope you have chosen appropriate to the claims you wish to make? Are you confident that your data supports *all* of your claims?

4.4.3 Who evaluates?

Now it is time to consider approaches, in E, to the illocutions of evaluate and claim.

Task 5: Please look at the following two extracts, both of which I have categorised as E. As evaluations, how do they differ from extracts iii and iv above?

v In this article, I have tried to demonstrate the value of teacher mentorship schemes for in-service teacher development in situations where there are few opportunities for professional growth. (Source: Moon 1994:354)

vi In this section of the paper, I have tried to show that in the major components of role-playing - the language used, the roles assumed, and the functioning audience - there is an artificiality in the communicative process, transcending the previous discussion of whether the role-playing situation is too realistic or too pretentious. (Source: Al-Arishi 1994:344)

I think the difference is that whereas extracts iii and iv evaluate explicitly, v and vi *invite* positive evaluation from the reader. By using phrases

such as "I have tried", the writer invites the reader to judge that the writer has succeeded. At the same time as inviting evaluation, these metatextual extracts do of course restate the intent of the article. So the same stretch of text fulfils both functions.

I suggest that the E element fulfils its illocutions of evaluate and claim along a continuum which we can call invite<----->supply. Writer-supplied evaluations explicitly provide the basis for the claim, whereas reader-invited evaluations metaphorically pause to obtain the reader's agreement that a basis for a claim exists. The assumption, of course, is that agreement will indeed be forthcoming and so the claim can proceed.

The notion of reader-invited and writer-supplied evaluations allows us to think about what a writer communicates about their own attitude to the relationship between data and claims. The writers of extract iii feel confident to explicitly claim that their management training was successful, on the basis of feedback from participants. The writer of extract v has shown (in R) how her teacher-mentorship scheme worked in one context, and she prefers to invite reader agreement for her claim that it could work in similar contexts. The writers of extract iv have shown (in R) how their scales worked in a trial test administration, and on the basis of this they feel confident to claim that the scale type is useful. So, all of these writers are telling us something about their views on data and claims.

Task 6: Look at your own text. Are your evaluative statements writer-supplied, or reader-invited? Does your choice give the right picture of your views on data and claims?

- If you would like to see more examples of writer-supplied and reader-invited evaluation extracts, see Supplementary Examples.

4.4.4 Scope and the role of metatext

Task 7: Look again at extracts v and vi. Do you find them more local or more general in scope?

I think they are quite general, like extract iv. And also like extract iv, they make use of metatext. We can see a distinction between extract iii, where the evaluation is a "continuation of the story" and remains local,

and extracts iv-vi where the evaluation section directly addresses the reader. Direct address using metatext can be seen as a technique to move from a context-specific argument to a more general claim.

4.4.5 No discernible E section?

You may feel that your text does not have a separate E section. A number of articles in my corpus did not seem to have one. I did not find rigid rules about which article types were most likely to have one, but I did find tendencies. A separate E section is most likely in articles that talk about an action or procedure, and less likely in articles devoted to discussing a state of affairs or a problem, or to evaluating someone else's work.

This does not mean that articles without a discernible E section do not have the illocution of claim. It means that they do not have a separate section which has the role of claiming. There might be little E statements which make claims all the way through. Or, we could understand texts without separate E sections as the most extreme form of reader-invited evaluations - the writer does not even feel it necessary to state the invitation. The writer knows that the reader knows that the making of a claim is part of the *raison d'être* of the text.

Task 8: If you do not have a discernible E section, are you happy about this?

4.5 Managing the contribution in R

I have left the R element until last because it is the central one. As we saw in section three, all of the other elements of the text work to "help" the main contribution which is seen in R. And just as R is the longest part of a text, this section is the longest of these materials.

First of all, we will think about different types of R. Then we will look at the possibility of more than one R in a text. After that we will study an illocutionary continuum for R, like those we have seen for other elements of text. And finally, we will briefly consider the role of metatext in "pointing up" R.

4.5.1 The type of contribution

Let us start, then, by looking at some different styles of contribution that can be found in TEFL texts.

Task 1: Go back and look at the two MET texts we saw in part two of these materials. In a few words, how would you describe the content of their R sections?

I think that both the above R sections are descriptions of teaching procedures. They take different approaches to the description: text 1 narrates a project more or less chronologically, whereas text 2 presents a piece of material and gives a series of ideas for exploitation. But still, both texts seem to me to have action, or procedure type Rs.

Task 2: Look at your own text. Could your R be categorised as a description of a teaching procedure? Or is it something else?

As feedback on that task I will look at some R sections from my corpus, to show you some different "types" of R which I found there. If your own R is not a description of a teaching procedure, then perhaps it falls into one of the other categories which I will describe.

I cannot, of course, come anywhere near to quoting whole R sections. They are too long! And yet in the case of R it seems particularly difficult to illustrate my points by brief extracts alone. So I will compromise: I will contextualise the extracts by quoting, usually from the abstract, the author's own words about the purpose of the article.

Task 3: Here are four extracts from ELTJ articles, each from sections which I have categorised as R. Can you find an action type like we saw in the MET articles? And in a few words, how would you categorise the others?

i. (From an article which "describes one particular INSET course and the reactions of the participating teachers one year later" and "suggests that very few of the ideas presented on the course were taken up in the way anticipated by the tutors, mainly due to the mediating effects of the participants' own beliefs about teaching and learning".)

Labelling

Some teachers had clearly just applied a term they had picked up on the course to an activity they were already doing. For example, one teacher described her standard procedure of teaching reading as follows: '[I] let them read silently, and after finishing [the] reading materials I ask them what does the writer in the first paragraph tell us. It's just what you call skimming... getting the main point of each paragraph'. The two terms picked up on the course ('skimming' and 'getting the main idea') are used synonymously to describe a text-summarising activity common in Indonesian classrooms.

Another example of 'labelling' will be familiar to many teacher trainers. This teacher claimed to be 'using the communicative approach... to increase the courage of the students to speak, for example, I ask them to read the text, 'stand up please', or 'just sit in your seat', and so on'. It appears that she considered her long-standing practice of having students read texts aloud to be 'communicative', an interpretation of the term quite different from that put forward on the INSET course. (Lamb 1995:75)

ii. (From an article which "examines current teaching models for intonation on questions, as exemplified in a range of published ELT materials, and discusses one area of intonation on questions which is frequently neglected for teaching purposes: a falling tone on yes/no questions.")

The grammatical approach

This, perhaps the dominant approach, is based on a model which seeks to make a correlation between the grammatical type of question and the intonation pattern chosen. For example *Headway Intermediate Pronunciation*, unit 2.7, provides an exercise on 'Rising and falling intonation on questions'. Learners are asked to listen to two types of questions, *wh-* and *yes/no*, and to decide on the tone used for each. They are then asked to formulate a rule about this. The answer key states:

Questions with the answer *yes* or *no* go **up** at the end.

Questions starting with a *wh-* word (eg *what, where, which, who, how,* etc. go **down** at the end (p89).

Similar explanations occur in *Pronunciation in Action* (186-7), *Workout Intermediate* (p23), and *Sounds English* (p18).

The major problem with this simple grammar/intonation model is that it does not work in a number of cases. To indicate this, we can examine two examples of authentic interactions in which *wh-* and *yes/no* questions were used. The first example comes from a televised chat show interview, during which sixteen questions were asked by the interviewer: seven *wh-* and nine *yes/no*. As table 1 shows, of the seven *wh-* questions used, six carried a falling tone, which corresponds well with the grammatical rule given above. However, for the *yes/no* questions we find that of nine examples, four carried a falling tone, which contradicts the teaching rule. (Thompson 1995: 236)

iii. (From an article which "describes some practical guidelines [for the production of in-house self-access materials] in a large scale self access project in Malaysia.")

As a general strategy to ensure quality in the project we gradually developed a modified system of *total quality control*. What was essential was to get quality control as far back into the early stages of the process as possible. Too often we had seen material go through conception, composition, and final draft, only to discover serious defects at the very end of the process - many of them having crept in at the early stages. So the answer was to have quality control at different stages of the production process, starting from the very beginning. We found that, in general, materials production followed this route:

1. choice of source material

2. decision about what to use material for
3. manipulation of material to suit intent
4. writing and re-writing
5. final presentation
6. proof-reading

We realised that quality control had to be implemented at each of these stages, initially by the writer and his or her peers, and later by a central quality control group. In our residential materials production workshops we now have a system of:

1. Peer-group quality control in which peers from the same writing group vet material at stages 1 to 5.
2. Inter-group quality control to monitor stages 1 to 5 already controlled by the peer group.
3. Final quality control by a limited and experienced group, followed by proof-reading: a very important but sometimes underestimated task.

The material might be returned to the writer at any of these stages but hopefully and in practice, that tends to happen at the peer-group quality control stage. In this way, as a general rule, only good material reaches the final quality control stage. Time is saved; face is saved. (source: Lum and Brown 1995:154-155).

iv (From an article about literature in language education which "focus[es] on just one issue of cardinal importance: why did we use teenage books?")

Motivating themes

We make no bones about our commitment to a language pedagogy which recognises that people learn things best when they want to learn them. Teenage books, not only in their language but also in their genres, themes and plots, satisfy the interests of the average teenager. In Finland, as in many other countries, language classes are unstreamed mixed ability classes, and the pleasures and interests of the average teenager are what the teacher has to start from. Some learners have more sophisticated reading habits and, as we suggested earlier, there are teenage books of some complexity and literary merit to

which a teacher can refer them. But many other pupils read hardly anything at all. If introduce to 'heavy' books, they may lose interest in reading altogether.

The use of 'light' teenage books has been discussed by Moss (1989) in connection with English lessons for native-English speakers but her argument applies for foreign learners as well. She says that with learners up to the age of sixteen, teachers should not so much strive to cover a large body of texts as to explore the human themes which 'ring a bell' - for instance bullying, prejudice, loneliness, and friendship. While the pupils are gradually becoming accustomed to the other culture, the teacher of foreign languages should be establishing contact with his or her personal feelings. Just as in L1 teaching, as described by Moss (ibid.), the centre of attention should be less on a teenage book for its own sake than on the young reader of the book, a view which closely corresponds to recent literary - theoretical insights into the pragmatics of reception. Each reader is seen as creating a partly personal meaning from texts, and as evaluating them in ways that are partly personal as well: the qualities of a text are not absolute and once-and-for-all. This is one reason why it is important, in encouraging the habit of reading, to accept what pupils themselves read (if they read), to let them motivate their own choice of books, and to show respect for their choice. (source: Ronnqvist & Sell 1994: 128-129)

Here are my own comments on the extracts.

I think that extract iii is closest to the action-type R we saw in the MET articles. Like them, it describes a procedure. The writers propose a solution to a problem, in the everyday senses of those terms.

I categorise extract i as an analysis-type R. The writer explores the issue of input and intake on an INSET course, in this case using examples from his own impact study.

I categorise extract ii as an evaluation-type R. The writer briefly summarises, and then evaluates, how intonation on questions is dealt with in textbooks.

And finally, I categorise extract iv as a rationale-type R. The writers construct an argument in support of a particular course of action, in this

case the use of teenage books with teenage pupils.

In my opinion, 28 of the 31 articles published in ELTJ in 1994 have R sections which are categorisable in terms of the above four types. So let me try and summarise what I see as the characteristics of each type.

Action-type Rs are those which detail a course of action or a procedure. By so doing, they have the force of advocating similar courses of action in appropriate circumstances.

Rationale-type Rs are those which explain and detail the reasons for a course of action or approach. The course of action/ approach is usually the author's own, and the force also tends to be to advocate similar courses of action in appropriate circumstances.

Analysis-type Rs are those which interpret, explore and try to explain a state of affairs: often a state of affairs which is considered problematic. They aim to increase our understanding, without necessarily advocating action.

Evaluation-type Rs are those in which the writer evaluates work outside themselves. The evaluation "target" is usually the specific work of another person(s), but may also be a well-known approach or technique, such as role-play activities.

Task 4: Look at the R section of your own text. Do you feel that any of the four labels above describes it? If not, in what sense are the labels unsuitable?

It's very difficult for me to provide any comments on the above task, because I don't know what your text is like. But what I can do - to continue to demonstrate what I mean by the above categories - is to use the labels to comment on the types of R sections that I "typically" find in MSc assignments that I mark. So:

The R section of Methodology assignments usually deals with classroom procedure. So I'd call these action-type Rs.

Some CSD assignments propose a new syllabus in their R section. I'd call these Rs action-type too; the proposed syllabus can be understood as a course of action.

The R sections of other CSD assignments examine an existing syllabus. I'd call these evaluation-type.

Classroom research assignments often have R sections which explore and examine a piece of classroom interaction. I'd call these analysis-type Rs.

Some MAP assignments have R sections which examine published materials. I'd call these evaluation type Rs.

Other MAP assignments have R sections which put forward materials original to the author, and provide a detailed discussion of how to teach with these. I'd call these action-type Rs.

Still other MAP assignments have R sections which discuss the purposes of and reasons for a set of original materials. I'd call these rationale-type Rs.

Task 5: If you can, think back to all the assignments that you yourself wrote on the MSc. Do my comments above make sense for your texts? Are you getting a sense of the four categories now?

Of course, the categories I am proposing are fuzzy, there are places where they blend into each other. From a reader's perspective, it might be difficult to categorise a given text with complete certainty. But from a *writer's* perspective, I think the categories are very useful. Having a sense of the kind of contribution you want to make is a powerful way of keeping your text on task.

4.5.2 More than one R?

It might be that you have identified more than one category of R in your text. In which case, you are not alone! A number of the articles I looked at from ELTJ combined two different types of R section (I didn't find any which combined more than two). Sometimes each of the types had equal weight (measured in terms of how long they were), but more often one type seemed to be a "main" R and the other type a "secondary" R. By far the most frequent combination was of analysis type with action types. Personally I find this intuitively appealing: an exploration of a state of affairs, followed by a detailing of a course of action.

At this point, let me provide some actual figures to give a more concrete meaning to my hitherto rather vague quantifiers! In ELTJ in 1994, I found that 28 articles out of 31 were analysable using my model. Of those 28, I categorised 10 articles as having combined analysis and action type Rs; 5 as having analysis type Rs; 4 as having action types; 4 as having evaluation types; 3 as having rationale/analysis combinations; and 2 as having rationale types.

That's not to say the categorisation was cut and dried, but it was possible.

The idea of more than one R relates to what I was talking about earlier on in these materials, when I said that if you paid a *great* deal of attention to your S, P, or BR, it would no longer be "just" making common ground and would start to be part of the main contribution, or focus of the article. In this case, you are likely to end up with two Rs.

I think an example of this is the Upshur & Turner article about rating scales that I have quoted from a few times. Its P section (which I quoted in section 4.2.3, about current rating scales, is *so* long and *so* invent that it has to be seen as part of the main contribution of the article. In other words, this very invent P *becomes* an analysis-type R. So the article as a whole contains one analysis type R, this detailed discussion of difficulties with "usual" scales, followed by an action-type R in which the authors discuss how they developed, and used, their own alternative scales.

Task 6: Read the whole of your own text again. Does your categorisation of your own R or Rs change in the light of what you have read above? Are you still happy about the balance of your text?

4.5.3 A note on metatext

In this part of the materials, I have been contextualising extracts from R sections by quoting metatext from the article, almost always from the abstract. We can observe, then, that in saying what they will do in their article, the writers I have quoted from always point to the R section.

In my corpus as a whole I found a small number of abstracts with no metatext, a small number which were *all* metatext, and a majority with one or two sentences of metatext. In this group, the metatextual sentences almost always referred to the R or Rs of the article.

Metatext, then, is a useful way of guiding the reader towards R.

Task 7: Have you written an abstract yet? If not, draft one at this point.

4.5.4 Approaches to R

In this section we will look at an illocutionary continuum of approaches to R, as we have done for other elements of the SPRE pattern.

When we looked at BR, we were able to distinguish a continuum of approaches which we called show <----> argue. In this part of the materials I want to show that an analogous continuum is recognisable for the R section, and that this continuum is relevant for all four types of R which we identified above.

To make this point, I will ask you to go back to the R extracts which we saw in 4.5.1 and compare them with some others.

Task 8: Extract iii was categorised as an action-type R. Please compare it with this extract v, which I also categorise as action-type. What are the differences between them?

- v. (From an article which "discusses the use and value of text reconstruction [software] programmes").

Three ways of exploiting texts after a reconstruction

A reconstructed text can be a valuable language learning resource, since learners are intimately acquainted with both its form and purpose. There are three possible ways of using this resource, any or all of which may be used following TR [Text Reconstruction]. The first option is for learners to use the texts, and the language which the TR task has generated to complete further meaningful tasks. This provides an opportunity to use that linguistic knowledge already activated in part by TR in a creative and communicative way, and thus contribute to its automatization and to interlanguage development. The obvious use of the knowledge of the textual patterns is for learners to produce their own similar texts on related topics. The content or information from the TR text could also be exploited, eg in writing a reply to a letter, or preparing a summary from an abstract, or giving an oral telling of a

written story, or a spoken report of a process.

As explicit knowledge is seen as having an important role in language learning (Ellis 1990; Rutherford 1987), the second option for exploitation involves the use of short texts for language awareness-raising activities. These may involve learners in analysis and examination of the texts, and in making their own generalisations about the language. The items selected for analysis will vary according to the texts and the needs of learners. As the texts used in TR are short, any analysis may extend to off-screen texts, to enable rules to be formed and checked from wider evidence. Tasks which involve analysis of form are part of contemporary practice, eg students are instructed to find all examples of the present perfect in the text and then classify the different uses; or to find all the prepositions which express place, position, or direction. Column 4 of Tables 1 and 2 gives examples of both productive follow-on tasks and consciousness-raising activities.

[Goes on to discuss a third option]. (Source: Brett 1994:333)

Here are my own ideas about the differences between the two extracts.

Extract iii is strongly tied to a particular context and to a lived experience of the writers. Extract v on the other hand talks about possibilities (note all the modals) and is not explicitly attached to any context.

Extract v (via the refs to Ellis and Rutherford) marks the suggestion for action as deriving from SLA principles. Whereas in extract iii it is the writers' experience of the action which might persuade a reader to try it out.

Extract iii is more detailed, in terms of procedures, than is extract v. For this reason extract v can discuss a wider range of action in an equivalent amount of text. Perhaps to compensate for its relative lack of specificity, extract v uses the strategy of pointing readers to examples.

Let us now attempt to summarise the distinctions we have observed. I think it is possible to say that the R element, of whatever type, fulfills its illocution of contribute along a continuum which we can label demonstrate <-----> speculate. Realisations nearer to the demonstrate end of the continuum tend to

be strongly linked to a context, be based on a specific writer experience, to take a relatively narrow focus and look at it in detail. Realisations nearer to the speculate end tend to be more abstract, to be deduced from general principles and/or from the writer's state-of-the-art knowledge, and not to be linked to a particular context. In terms of formal features, more speculate Rs are more likely to include modals, hedging expressions, and indefinite nominal groups. Demonstrate Rs are more likely to refer directly to data, and to have a "staged" structure. They quite often use the past tense.

It is possible to see the ends of the demonstrate <-----> speculate continuum as representing two different approaches to knowledge-building in the discipline. Both approaches to R are intended to create a contribution which will relate to many people and be valuable in many contexts. But they do this in different ways. A very demonstrate R is a contribution which relies on its context-specificity and its detail to allow the reader to judge its value to them. A very speculate R is one which relies on the generality of underlying principles to ensure its value to the reader. This point is of course linked to those made about the scope of P and E. The demonstrate<-----> speculate continuum is relevant for all four types of R.

- If you would like to continue to explore the demonstrate <-----> speculate continuum with regard to analysis, rationale or evaluation-type Rs, then please look at the Supplementary Examples.

Task 9: Now look at your own text. Do you consider your R section(s) to be more demonstrate or more speculate?

Is the balance that you have chosen between demonstrate and speculate approaches to R the one which best serves your purposes?

5. Newness

The notions of newness and familiarity have permeated all the previous sections of these materials, central as they are to the goal of the genre we are working with. In this section I would like to make these notions the focus of our attention. Again using textual examples, we will take up the perspectives on newness and familiarity introduced in earlier sections, and develop these a little further.

First we will look at some different ways of claiming newness for your contribution. Then, we will look at some features of language often found inside R sections, and which indicate that the writer is treating the content as new. Finally we will consider some possible pitfalls when presenting ideas as new or as familiar.

5.1 Claiming newness for your contribution

We saw above that although the illocutions of the S and P elements are to build common ground in the community, they can also play a significant role in presenting the contribution in R as new. In this part of the materials we will focus again on some ways of attempting this.

5.1.1 Filling a gap?

Task 1: Please consider the following brief extracts from S or P sections. What do you guess about the content of the forthcoming R in each case? What technique is the writer using to present this R as new?

i. Despite the popularity, longevity, proliferation, and apparent benefits of TR [Text Reconstruction] programs, there has been little recent discussion as to the best means of exploitation with learners. (Source: Brett 1994:329)

ii. There are very few accessible accounts of diary-keeping by teachers going about their ordinary business in what Schön calls the "swampy lowlands" despite the popularity of the teacher-as-researcher movement and increasing familiarity with classroom research techniques. (Source: McDonagh 1994:58)

I hope you may have guessed that the R section for i will deal with means of exploiting text reconstruction programs with learners, and that for ii will include an account of diary keeping. In both cases the writers are using the well-known technique of indicating that a gap exists in the literature. The writer's own contribution fills the gap and so is new and valuable.

What are the advantages and the risks of this technique?

Well, it seems obvious that the technique should only be used if a very thorough literature search has failed to provide examples of work in the area under discussion. Readers who are aware of examples may be amused or irritated by the assertion that almost none exist. The risk is that readers will be alienated and common ground will not be built.

One advantage is that if the article fills a gap, it can be seen as valuable simply by virtue of its existence! It is adding to the total fund of knowledge. A second advantage of this technique is that it avoids the necessity of mounting an attack on another position. Newness is not claimed *in opposition to* the work of anyone else.

Task 2: Look at your own text. Are you using this technique? Are you happy with your use of it?

5.1.2 Putting things right?

We saw the following extract in section 4.1.3 of the materials.

Task 3: Please look at it again and consider: What can you guess about the content of the forthcoming R? What technique is the writer using to make this seem new?

iii. In attempting to evaluate the effectiveness of any educational innovation there is a tendency to opt for a *summative* type of evaluation. Generally, this involves selecting groups of students or teachers and administering appropriate tests at the beginning and end of the programme in order to investigate whether any changes found could be attributed to the innovation itself.

Partlett (1976, 1981), Cronbach (1976) and others have discussed the problems of conventional *summative* approaches to evaluation, where a treatment group is compared to a control group while holding a number of variables constant. [Goes on to discuss some of these problems, in what becomes the "P" section of the article]. (source: Williams & Burden 1994:22).

I expect you have guessed that the R will deal with an approach to evaluation which is not summative. This R is presented as new in contrast with the "widespread" approaches which the writers criticise. Its newness is oppositional.

What are the risks and advantages of the approach?

The risks, as we saw in section 4.1.3, are that the reader may not agree with the assertion that the negatively-evaluated approaches are widespread. The reader may be irritated by the assertion itself, and is also likely to dispute the newness and value of the R which comes from it.

The advantages are that if the claims *are* accepted by readers, the R could seem very new and valuable indeed. It could be seen as getting the profession out of a blind alley and on to a better path.

Task 4: Look at your own text. Are you using this technique? Are you happy with your use of it?

5.2 Writing R as new

The above section concentrated on claiming newness for R. I now want to concentrate on R sections themselves, and draw your attention to some features of language which, in my opinion, indicate that the writer is treating the content of R as new.

5.2.1 Personalisation

Task 5: Why do you think the writer is using personal pronouns in the following extracts?

iv From an article which "[presents] findings on cognitive development, and [links these] to language development and thus to the learning of a second language...

My hypothesis* is that, because of fashion, commercial pressure and socio-economic development, the way we think of these types of clothing has changed in recent years in the following ways:
[Goes on to discuss the changes]. (Source: Cameron 1994:35)

v (from the same article)

It seems to me that there are ways of writing and simplifying stories used with second language learners that are sympathetic to culturally determined basic level patterns and thus that retain features that assist learners...(Source: Cameron 1994:36)

I think that the writer is using personal pronouns and hedges to mark the ideas as new, original, and her own. This fits with an observation by Myers (1992) about the expression of original ideas in Science texts.

Task 6: Look at your own text. Do you use personal pronouns in the way discussed above? Would you like to?

5.2.2 Length

I do not mean length in any absolute sense. But it does seem to me that one indication that an idea is being presented as new is the length of explanation it receives.

Task 7: Please consider the treatment of the term "Covert Backwash" in the following extract:

vi from an article which "assesses the concept of "backwash" in language teaching, looks at the consequences of testing on teaching in a broad educational context, and suggests that "negative backwash" makes good language teaching more difficult".

Covert backwash

The explicit consequences of the backwash effect are easily identifiable. The implicit consequences are more elusive, and more disturbing. Even if examination boards reduced the number of boring multiple-choice exercises, the examination class would still be in conflict with the teacher's desire to teach communicatively and humanistically. This is because covert testing will always be with us. It is a deep-seated, often unconscious process, which reflects unexamined assumptions about a wide range of pedagogic principles: how people learn, the relationship between learner and teacher, the nature of teacher authority, the importance of correction, the balance between form and content, the role of classroom management, and so on.

Basically, covert testing amounts to teaching a textbook as if it were a *testbook*. Usually the teacher is not fully aware of this process; in his or her mind there is a clear dividing line between a lesson which involves teaching and one which involves testing. I am using the latter term in a specific sense which includes both overt and covert backwash effects. Some examples of covert testing will show what I mean. I have observed many lessons where the teacher asks a question, receives a correct answer from a particular student, and then moves on to ask the next student the next question. The objective of this routine is to find out what the students know. This, and the lack of involvement of the rest of the class in the sequence, makes the activity more of an informal *assessment* than a *teaching procedure*. The absence of any lead-in or follow-up to the work done on a text is entirely typical of testing procedures.

[a third paragraph on the same theme follows]

(Source: Prodromou 1995:15)

I do not think the author of this text would have devoted so much space to a discussion of "covert backwash" if he believed the notion to be familiar to the audience; the long, detailed explanation is an indication that this discussion is intended to contribute to the newness of the article. There are other indications of this too: the given/new sequence of the first two sentences of the extract, and the neologism at the beginning of the second paragraph.

Task 8: Look at your own text. Which notions and concepts are you explaining in most detail and at most length? Are they the ones you want to foreground as new? Is R indeed the longest section of your text?

5.2.3 Opposition

We saw in section 5.1.3 above how claims about the newness of R might be made using an "oppositional" technique. In this extract we see that same sense of opposition integrated into R itself:

vii from an article which "considers why such situations [of ELT becoming a vehicle for cultural imperialism] arise, and looks at possible ways of responding to them...with their inherent shortcomings...[and then] argue[es] for an alternative approach". This extract is part of the "alternative approach".

Focusing on the learner not the language

There is a strong case for focusing on the learner as an integrated, whole person in the Moroccan school system. A bottom-up view of the realistic present and future needs of students would, I believe, lead one to the conclusion that in the modern world, in which countries are becoming more and more interconnected through economic forces and the media, students need to develop strategies in the classroom for dealing with the confusing and often overwhelming cultural pressures exerted by powerful Western nations. This is very different from the top-down ESP needs analysis approach [previously evaluated in the article], which would suggest that students only need to learn language specific to certain areas of academic study, or for certain professions. Without being equipped to deal with the cultural and ideological pressures from the outside world, most students will have wasted much of their time in the EFL classroom on a linguistic code they will never use. (Source: Hyde 1994:303).

So in the above extract the writer not only presents part of his idea, but takes space to compare it favourably to another possibility which he has already evaluated negatively. Since space dedicated to criticising other ideas inevitably means less space available for presenting one's own, whether and how much to use this technique can be an important tactical decision.

Task 9: Are you using this "oppositional" approach within your own R? If so, do you feel that it is working for you? Is it a good use of space?

5.3 New for whom?

As we have discussed newness throughout these materials, we have concentrated on the ways in which the writer may *present* ideas as new, and have given only secondary consideration to whether they are "really" new. This is entirely appropriate, because newness is not an objective concept; probably any ELT idea could be new to some people at some points in time.

But a writer cannot account for *all* the possible perspectives of *all* the possible readers of the text. Instead one of the tasks for an article writer, and indeed for a journal editor or reviewer, is to try and make a judgement about how new particular ideas are likely to be for a majority of the journal readership. This judgement is an important basis for decisions about how to present the ideas.

5.3.1 Presented as new, received as familiar?

If a writer presents as new ideas which the reader finds familiar, then the reader may react unfavourably. A very clear example of this can be seen in an ELTJ article of 1994, entitled "Second Language Acquisition Research: A response to Rod Ellis". This is a response to an interview with Ellis published in ELTJ January 1993. In their 1994 article, the writers "welcome Ellis's contribution from research to classroom practice, but suggest that some of the assumptions he makes about current classroom practice are not accurate, and that a number of his ideas for "alternative" approaches to teaching grammar are already embedded in that practice." (Hopkins & Nettle 1994:157)

The problem would seem to be clear: Ellis in his interview presented certain ideas as new, and - at least for some readers - they were not. Hopkins & Nettle's article is then an evaluation type, the evaluation "target" being Ellis's view of ELT practice as reported in the interview.

Let us follow this notion through by looking at Ellis's expression of an idea, and then Hopkins and Nettles' response:

viii. What I think we need is an approach to grammar that is

compatible with how one views SLA: and it is that, really, that I've been trying to think about in the last few years. One of the distinctions that I try to make is between the teaching of grammar through *practice* and the teaching of grammar through *consciousness raising*.

I should add that this particular distinction is not necessarily one that everyone using the term "grammar consciousness raising" would make, and that like so many other terms in language pedagogy, the term "grammar consciousness raising" is rather vague and is used with very different meanings. To me, the essential difference really rests on the role of learner production in grammar activities. What I mean is that we can envisage grammar activities that will require a learner to produce sentences exemplifying the grammatical feature that is the target of the activity. And that's what I mean by *practice*. Or we can envisage activities that will seem to get a learner to understand a particular grammatical feature, how it works, what it consists of, and so on, but not require that learner to actually produce sentences manifesting that particular structure. And that's what I mean by *consciousness raising*.

[Goes on to argue that CR is the more effective approach].

(source: Ellis 1993: 5-6)

This gave rise to the following from Hopkins & Nettle:

ix [After a summary of Ellis' argument, including quotations from the above extract]

Teachers *do* engage in the teaching of grammar through consciousness raising: especially in the case of "problematic" grammar, teachers will opt to present the language for *receptive* use, rather than *productive* use, at least initially. A good example of this might be a teacher highlighting the form and use of the structure "have something done" to help with the comprehension of a reading passage without making any productive demands on the learners. However, what is happening much more frequently in the contemporary EFL classroom is the *linking* of consciousness-raising and practice, often within the same lesson. The two are not mutually exclusive, and there are good reasons for this.... [continues to argue that both consciousness raising and practice are valuable]. (source: Hopkins & Nettle 1994:158).

5.3.2 Presented as familiar, received as new?

It is also possible for a writer to deal quickly with certain ideas, presenting them as familiar, and for the reader to experience them as new and therefore requiring explanation.

I do not have an "exchange" such as the one I used above to illustrate this point, but I can quote you some text whose content I feel was presented as familiar by its author, and which for me at least was "new". Here is the extract:

x from an article which "speculate[s] on the relevance to TESOL of intimate discourse, a neglected, undervalued but important type of discourse, and suggest[s] ways in which it might alter our ideas of appropriate discourse and discourse activities in the classroom".

[After six paragraphs devoted to a characterisation of intimate discourse, including the points that it is repetitive, redundant, and often repeated]

Neglect of intimate discourse had led to neglect of the importance of repetition in first language discourse, which has in turn led to the outlawing of repetition and learning by heart in the second language classroom. I should like to argue that this neglect stems from four distorting factors in contemporary discourse analysis:

1. emphasis on creativity in language rather than memory
2. unrepresentative data
3. cultural bias against any apparently "useless" language
4. a narrow view of language (and discourse) functions

I shall attempt to deal with each of these in turn. (Source: Cook 1994:135)

For me, the quoted section has a great deal of newness. I am therefore not satisfied by its presentation in brief bald statements. There are large assumptions here about the relationship between linguistics and pedagogy which I think should be explicitly argued if they are to be convincing. By the second sentence of the paragraph "this neglect" is supposed to be common ground - but for me it is not.

Although this section comes as part of R it is also, of course, a mini-S. The writer is making a statement of the way things are, in order to go on to explain why. He wants to "get on to" explaining why, and that, I suppose, is why the statement of situation is brief. But as a reader, I find the statement of situation very controversial, and I would need a lot more explanation before I could accept it as a valid perspective.

So for me, the above extract is an example of ideas being presented as familiar when they needed to be presented as new.

Task 10: Look at your own text. Given the possibility of alienating readers in either of the ways we have discussed, is there anything you would prefer to change?

6 Conclusion

As we come to the end of these materials, it's time both to summarise what we have said about the various elements of text and also to look at the text as a whole again.

The basic argument of these materials can be stated very briefly, as follows: The TEFL article genre is goal-oriented. Texts within it are microcosms of the genre, and elements of texts work together to try and achieve the genre goal. Within the genre elements of texts have inherent and expected illocutions, and there is choice, for the writer, about how to manage those illocutions. These management decisions affect how the writer portrays themselves and their ideas to the discourse community.

The illocutions of elements of texts are as follows:

R makes the contribution. Four types of R are salient: action, rationale, analysis and evaluation. Writer choices for R can be represented by the continuum demonstrate <-----> speculate, in conjunction with either of the four types.

S contextualises and builds common ground. Writer choices for S can be represented by the continuum describe <----> interpret.

P identifies the issue and builds common ground. Writer choices for P can be represented by the continua local <----> general and recognise<-----> invent.

BR justifies the contribution and builds common ground. Writer choices for BR can be represented by the continuum show<-----> argue.

E evaluates the contribution and makes a claim for its significance. Writer choices for E can be represented by the continua local<----> general and invite<---> supply.

The analytical categories of this model are not watertight or assignable on solely linguistic criteria; when looking at an existing text, there is room for differences of interpretation among analysts. The model is intended for *writers*, to help them see what they are doing in their own text.

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Supplementary examples

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Introduction

The purpose of this Supplementary examples pack is to provide extra illustrations of the main ideas discussed in the *Writing for Publication* materials. Some of the extracts quoted here are new; others appear in the main materials, but in a different context. I prefer not to confront readers with lots of new material, when a point can just as easily be made with reference to something that has been seen before!

When you give me your feedback I would be interested to know firstly whether you actually used the Supplementary examples, and if you did, whether you found them sufficient.

1. Managing the contextualisation in S

In the main materials we compared two setting-type Ss and saw that one was more describe and one more interpret. In section 4.1.1 we also saw an SoA type S:

i Alongside the increase in published courses and resource books, we have begun to see the formulation of theoretical frameworks for teaching English to young learners, drawing on mother tongue primary education and mainstream ELT methodologies (Brumfit, Moon and Tongue 1991; Kennedy and Jarvis, 1991). (source: Cameron 1994: 28)

which I think is describe. It makes factual assertions about what can be found in the literature.

The following SoA type S is more interpret:

ii. Three related but somewhat distinct trends are discernible in the language teaching literature on diaries, at least as far as published accounts are concerned. These trends are:

1. The *pedagogic use* of diaries, where language learners are routinely asked by their class teacher to keep a diary and which give a great deal of interesting data for both students and teachers on learner reactions to classroom tasks, preferred activities, and language

development.

2. The keeping of a learner diary as a *research tool* to uncover language learning styles and strategies,. Several of these diaries have been kept by researchers about their own language-learning experiences. Bailey's (1983) well known study of competitiveness and anxiety whilst learning French is an example of this kind of work.

3. The use of diaries (logs or journals) as a *teacher training tool*. Typically these are initiated by trainers, who often give detailed guidelines. Diary-writing, whether or not it is formally evaluated, is thus a required part of the training course. Trainee diaries may deal with either teaching practice of the training course itself, or both, and in a sense they are very close to the idea of a *learner diary*.

Interesting data and discussions are to be found, for example, in Jarvis (1992), Murphy-O'Dwyer (1985), and Thornbury (1991). (source: McDonagh)

Compared with extract i it takes a much wider base of "the literature" and synthesises ideas there into three strands. Each of these are explained in some detail and examples are given.

2 Managing the identification of a problem or goal in P

In section 4.2.1 of the main materials we saw two extracts to illustrate the difference between difficulty and goal:

i. "However, I believe that much of the criticism of role playing as a CLT activity has resulted from a failure to discern its hybridity. It is a hybrid because it springs from two distinct impulses in the contemporary language acquisition perspective, each of which has different aims and expectations. One impulse...[goes on to explain the two alleged impulses]. (source: Al-Arishi 1994: 338)

ii. "From this perspective of reality, instead of seeking to diagnose and remedy students' resistance to the role-playing activity, as Surplus (1983) suggests, (in essence, trying to find out what is wrong with students who resist role-playing as a valuable CLT activity), I believe it is more relevant to explore what is wrong with the activity that has caused student resistance". (source: Al-Arishi 1994: 339)

Both of these are I think quite invent. In the first extract originality is signalled by the phrase "I believe" and the phrase "failure to discern" implies distance from others. The essential point, about hybridity, is developed at length. The second extract continues to mark originality (I believe) and distance from others (the reference to Surplus).

Then to illustrate a P with a local scope, we saw the following:

iii In the schools we visited, teachers had low job satisfaction and did not feel appreciated by their senior colleagues. They also worked for very low pay (some for the equivalent of US\$4 a month), had classes of between fifty and ninety students, and very few textbooks or other resources" (source: Carey & Dabor 1995:38)

This extract is in my opinion more recognise. It certainly contains new information (the details of an individual context) but it refers to the type of difficulty teachers are likely to be familiar with, often at first hand and certainly via conversations with colleagues. The form of the text seems to support my categorisation: we have a series of brief assertions which do not need to be explained further.

3. Managing the justification in BR

The following extract combines R and BR in the same paragraph. The BR aspects are show: readers can identify with the reasons for action on the basis of their experience:

i. The second component of our strategy for promoting autonomy is the unit of work on learning a language which, since 1987, has occupied the first week of study on the course. This unit presents some key concepts in language learning, and encourages learners to explore issues such as the amount and type of language input they are getting, and the use they make of it in arranging adequate practice opportunities. The unit also provides an introduction to a basic metalanguage for language learning. This makes it easier to discuss learners' difficulties with them. Some important distinctions made in this first week of study (for example, the distinction between fluency and accuracy work) are recurring concepts in dialogue throughout the

course. (source: Cotterall).

On the other hand the following BR is more argue:

ii We chose four topic areas as a result of reviewing research findings from linguistic fields such as discourse analysis, conversation analysis, communicative competence research, sociolinguistics, and pragmatics, and after considering them from a practical perspective. They are:

- conversational rules and structure
- conversational strategies
- functions and meaning in conversation
- social and cultural contexts" (source: Dornyei & Thurrell 1994: 41-42)

This BR is interesting because it has to "carry" 6 pages of following R in which the authors, as the promised near the beginning of the article, provide an overview of theory - they "translate" findings from applied linguistic research but almost without giving any references.

So this short, argue BR has to convince the reader that the authors do in fact have a valid basis for their claims.

4. Managing the evaluation and claim in E

This article about the nature of role play has quite an invite E:

i In this section of the paper, I have tried to show that in the major components of role-playing - the language used, the roles assumed, and the functioning audience -there is an artificiality in the communicative process, transcending the previous discussion of whether the role-playing situation is too realistic or too pretentious.(Source: Al-Arishi)

On the other hand the following E, from an article about the use of literature, is more supply:

ii Although in this article the texts I use are poems, many of the tasks and activities can be applied to prose as well. For example, cloze or multiple choice activities can be used with extracts from short stories or plays. By making use of this everyday repertoire of activities we will

no longer be constrained by using literature as an end in itself. Instead, literary texts can be used to extend the language knowledge and skills of students at lower levels. Literature then becomes a very useful resource for language learning (Maley 1989:10)" (source: Lazar 1994: 123).

5 Managing the contribution in R

In the main materials we illustrated the demonstrate <-----> speculate continuum by comparing two action-type Rs.

So here let us look again at the analysis-type R that we saw there, and compare it with another one:

- i. (From an article which "describes one particular INSET course and the reactions of the participating teachers one year later" and "suggests that very few of the ideas presented on the course were taken up in the way anticipated by the tutors, mainly due to the mediating effects of the participants' own beliefs about teaching and learning".)

Labelling

Some teachers had clearly just applied a term they had picked up on the course to an activity they were already doing. For example, one teacher described her standard procedure of teaching reading as follows: '[I] let them read silently, and after finishing [the] reading materials I ask them what does the writer in the first paragraph tell us. It's just what you call skimming... getting the main point of each paragraph'. The two terms picked up on the course ('skimming' and 'getting the main idea') are used synonymously to describe a text-summarising activity common in Indonesian classrooms.

Another example of 'labelling' will be familiar to many teacher trainers. This teacher claimed to be 'using the communicative approach... to increase the courage of the students to speak, for example, I ask them to read the text, 'stand up please', or 'just sit in your seat', and so on'. It appears that she considered her long-standing practice of having students read texts aloud to be 'communicative', an interpretation of the term quite different from that put forward on the INSET course. (Lamb)

- ii. (From an article which "assesses the concept of 'backwash' in language teaching, looks at the consequences of testing on teaching in a broad educational context, and suggests that 'negative backwash' makes good language teaching more difficult").

Characteristics of Testing and Teaching

In table 1, I summarise what I feel are the most important characteristics of the teaching and testing processes.

The qualities listed there under "Teaching" are based on my own observation of teachers, native-speakers and non-native speakers, in the context of a number of teacher training courses and on a survey I have been conducting with students into what makes a good language teacher. I have also drawn on the work into effective teaching reported in Holt (1964), Peck (1988), Richards (1990), and Harmer (1991).

The features listed under "Testing" are those we normally associate with the backwash effect, with the addition of what I have referred to as covert symptoms of backwash." (p18).

"Table 1

Testing	Teaching
exercises (multiple choice etc)	tasks
failure	success
weakness	strength
errorphobia	learning from error
marks	achievement
fear	confidence
anxiety	pleasure
teacher control	learner independence
textbook input	learner input
judgement	support (from teacher and peer group)
mistrust	rapport
individualism, competition	the group, co-operation
impersonality	personalisation
insensitivity	sensitivity to learners
isolated sentences	text

fragments of text
form
culture-bound
text + questions
solemnity
boredom
extrinsic motivation
product

whole texts
content
culture-sensitive
lead-in, follow-up
humour
interest
intrinsic motivation
process

(p19). (Source: Prodromou)

Extract i is tied to a particular context, to a specific study carried out by the writer. The points in extract ii are not context-specific, they are put forward as having a more "general" truth.

In extract ii the analysis is marked as *derived from* the author's understanding of the principles of effective teaching (references to four sources and to personal research). In extract i, the analysis *is a part of* personal research; there is a closer link to experience.

In extract ii the presentation of features in opposition (Table 1) is an indicator of relatively abstracted analysis, since specific contexts do not portray such symmetry. Whereas in extract i, the analysis is linked to very particular data, some of which is made available to the reader via examples.

I do not intend to illustrate the demonstrate <-----> speculate continuum with regard to extracts from rationale or evaluation type Rs because that would take too much space even in this supplementary document. But I can explain it by summarising some articles in the corpus:

The R of Lansley 1994 is evaluation-type: the article "offers a critical review of some of the political, philosophical and linguistic pitfalls that could result from Edge's ideas on Co-operative Development in teacher development and in-service training". The R of the text is an argument deduced from certain principles about what could go wrong, and I have categorised it as more speculate. Whereas a demonstrate R for the same article might have been the illustration of an actual experience that did go wrong.

Murdoch 1994 has a rationale-type R in its second part: this part "gives the results of a survey of Sri Lankan teacher trainees' views on language development provision in their institutional training curriculum". This R is an argument in favour of giving emphasis to language work in teacher training curricula: it is based on data from a particular survey and I have categorised it as more demonstrate. A speculate R for the same article might have been the argument developed from principles of language teacher education and referenced to sources in the literature.

Sources for extracts

- Al-Arishi AY 1994: Role-play, real-play and surreal-play in the ESOL classroom *ELTJ* 48/4: 337-346
- Cameron L 1994: Organising the world: children's concepts and categories, and implications for the teaching of English *ELTJ* 48/1: 28-39
- Carey J & Dabor M 1995: Management education: an approach to improved English language teaching *ELTJ* 49/1: 37-43
- Cotterall S 1995: Developing a course strategy for learner autonomy *ELTJ* 49/1: 219-227
- Dornyei Z & Thurrell S 1994: Teaching conversational skills intensively: course content and rationale *ELTJ* 48/1: 40-49
- Lamb M 1995: The consequences of INSET *ELTJ* 49/1: 72-80
- Lansley C 1994: 'Collaborative Development': an alternative to phatic discourse and the art of Co-operative Development *ELTJ* 48/1: 50-56
- Lazar G 1994: Using literature at lower levels *ELTJ* 48/2: 115-124
- McDonagh J 1994: A teacher looks at teachers' diaries *ELTJ* 48/1: 57-65
- Murdoch G 1994: Language development provision in teacher training curricula *ELTJ* 48/3: 253-265
- Prodromou L 1995: The backwash effect: from testing to teaching *ELTJ* 49/1: 13-25

Appendix B

Exploratory questionnaire and letter, March 1994

Dear MSc Participant / Recent MSc graduate

I am writing to everyone currently on the Aston MSc course, or recently graduated from it, with regard to some research that I am starting at the LSU and which I hope may be of interest. In a nutshell, the project will focus on the processes whereby people may make the transition from being post-graduate students in the area of TEFL/ Applied Linguistics, to becoming published writers in that field. I am particularly interested in the possibility of an author "converting" a text such as a typical MSc assignment into an article suitable for publication.

I anticipate that my research will have two main parts, which will to a certain extent be carried out at the same time. The first part will be a "static" discourse analysis designed to look at the characteristics of MSc assignments as compared with published articles. The second part - and this is where I am looking for collaborators - would involve me in working with individual MSc participants or graduates who would like, either now or during the next two years, to write an article based on an assignment or dissertation.

Some of you may remember our departmental publication, *The LSU Bulletin* - which sadly fell into temporary abeyance when the previous editor left Aston. As part of my research, I want to get the *Bulletin* started again; the plan being that any successful assignment-articles would be published first there and then, ideally, in a refereed journal.

So, that is the outline of what I hope to do. As a start, I would like to have your views on getting your work published - whether or not you have thought about this previously. To this end, I have prepared a questionnaire which is attached - I would very much appreciate it if you would answer the questions and send it back to me. The questionnaire is designed to be relevant to people in a wide variety of situations; so whether you are already a published writer or whether you have no interest in this activity, your response will still be of value. Please add additional information to the questionnaire if you wish.

It would be most useful if you could return the questionnaire before 31 May 1994.

Thank you for your help

Yours sincerely

Sue Wharton

7. Have you taken any steps towards the goal of getting published? Please give details as appropriate.

8. Have you already submitted work for publication? Please give details as appropriate.

9. Would you like to collaborate further on this research project? If so, please tell me when you might like to participate, and give me your name and details of where I can best contact you.

THANK YOU FOR YOUR TIME

Please return this questionnaire to Sue Wharton at the LSU.

Appendix C

Letter offering self-access materials, August 1997

August 1997

Dear MSc Participant/ Recent MSc graduate

Writing for publication

Hello. I'm taking advantage of this newsletter posting to write to everyone currently studying the MSc or recently graduated from it, and who may be interested in writing for publication.

As some of you are already aware, my PhD research is about beginning to write for publication in TESOL. I'm particularly interested in how one can develop a publishable article from the text of a master's course assignment. I first wrote to MSc participants/ graduates about this a couple of years ago, and was able to work with some people as they drafted and submitted articles which were based on assignments. This was a very useful process.

My research has now moved on. I'm at a stage where I have developed a set of "self-access materials" to help intending article writers. The introductory section is a discussion of the respective social roles of assignments and articles, and then the bulk of the materials offers a model for textual analysis. The purpose of the model is to help you analyse your existing text and re-formulate it for the new target genre.

So, I would like to invite anyone who is interested in writing for publication and who thinks these materials might be of use, to send in for them. Please let me have your name and postal address by whatever method is most convenient; then a package will be dispatched to you.

I look forward to hearing from you soon.

With best wishes

Sue Wharton

Address, phone and fax as on letterhead. Email s.m.wharton@aston.ac.uk

Appendix D

Covering letter for self access materials, October 1997

October 1997

Dear

Writing for publication

(I enclose a set of materials). [This first paragraph was personalised].

I'm sure that writing your article is just one of many things that you have to do at the moment, and I expect that you'd prefer to use these materials by stages. For that reason I've interleaved sheets of gold paper to divide them into seven parts.

I think each part could be worked through in half to one and a half hours. One strategy, then, would be to do one part a week for seven weeks. And of course, it would also be perfectly possible to move through the materials more quickly.

The timings I mention above don't include any actual re-writing of your text. You will probably get ideas about things you would like to change as you go through the materials; it might be best to keep a running note of these, leaving serious editing until you come to the end.

I hope you find the materials helpful, and I very much look forward to receiving your feedback - either when you've finished with them, or at any time during your use of them.

With best wishes

Sue Wharton

Address, phone and fax as on letterhead. Email s.m.wharton@aston.ac.uk

Appendix E

Sources for extracts and summaries used to illustrate the descriptive model

- Al-Arishi AY 1994: Role-play, real-play and surreal-play in the ESOL classroom *English Language Teaching Journal* 48/4: 337-346
- Brett P: Using text reconstruction software *English Language Teaching Journal* 48/4: 329-336
- Cameron L 1994: Organising the world: children's concepts and categories, and implications for the teaching of English *English Language Teaching Journal* 48/1: 28-39
- Carey J & Dabor M 1995: Management education: an approach to improved English language teaching *English Language Teaching Journal* 49/1: 37-43
- Cotterall S 1995: Developing a course strategy for learner autonomy *English Language Teaching Journal* 49/1: 219-227
- Dornyei Z & Thurrell S 1994: Teaching conversational skills intensively: course content and rationale *English Language Teaching Journal* 48/1: 40-49
- Ellis R 1993: Talking shop: an interview with Rod Ellis *English Language Teaching Journal* 47/1: 3-11
- Hancock M 1995: Categories of code switching: language classroom as bilingual community *LSU Bulletin* 8: 14-28
- Holliday A 1994: The house of TESEP and the communicative approach: the special needs of state English language education *English Language Teaching Journal* 48/1: 3-11
- Hopkins D & Nettle M 1994: Second language acquisition research: a response to Rod Ellis *English Language Teaching Journal* 48/2: 157-161
- Hyde M 1994: The teaching of English in Morocco: the place of culture *English Language Teaching Journal* 48/4: 295-305
- Lamb M 1995: The consequences of INSET *English Language Teaching Journal* 49/1: 72-80
- Lansley C 1994: Collaborative development': an alternative to phatic discourse and the art of co-operative development *English Language Teaching Journal* 48/1: 50-56
- Lazar G 1994: Using literature at lower levels *English Language Teaching Journal* 48/2: 115-124
- Leppanen S & Kalaja P 1995: Experimenting with computer conferencing in English for Academic Purposes *English Language Teaching Journal* 49/1: 26-36
- Lum Y L and Brown R 1994: Guidelines for the production of in-house self-access materials *English Language Teaching Journal* 48/2: 150-156

- McDonagh J 1994: A teacher looks at teachers' diaries *English Language Teaching Journal* 48/1: 57-65
- Moon J 1994: Teachers as mentors: a route to in-service development *English Language Teaching Journal* 48/4: 347-355
- Murdoch G 1994: Language development in teacher training curricula *English Language Teaching Journal* 48/4: 253-265
- Pennycook A 1994: The politics of pronouns *English Language Teaching Journal* 48/2: 173-178
- Prodromou L 1995: The backwash effect: from testing to teaching *English Language Teaching Journal* 49/1: 13-25
- Ronnqvist L & Sell R 1994: Teenage books for teenagers: reflections on literature in language education *English Language Teaching Journal* 48/2: 125-132
- Seedhouse P 1995: Needs analysis and the general English classroom *English Language Teaching Journal* 49/1: 59-65
- Thompson S 1995: Teaching intonation on questions *English Language Teaching Journal* 49/1: 235-243
- Upshur J & Turner C 1995: Constructing rating scales for second language tests *English Language Teaching Journal* 49/1: 3-12
- Williams M & Burden R 1994: The role of evaluation in ELT project design. *English Language Teaching Journal* 48/1: 22-27

Appendix F

Some articles subsequently published by LSU Bulletin contributors

Please note that the list which follows is not necessarily complete. I sent out a questionnaire to all those who contributed to the *Bulletin* between 1994 and 1996 but not everyone responded. The list is compiled both from questionnaire responses and from my own awareness of subsequent publications by *Bulletin* contributors. In the former case, references are given as provided by respondents.

July 1998

Dear

Writing for Publication

As part of my ongoing research into writing for publication, I am contacting all those people who have contributed to the *LSU Bulletin* in recent years to enquire about articles which they may have published since. I would be very grateful if you would take a few moments to answer my questions, and return this letter to me in the envelope provided.

1. Have you published any other articles since publishing your *LSU Bulletin* article? If so, please provide full reference (s).
2. Did your article(s) deal with the same area as did your *Bulletin* article? Please give details.
3. Have you had any articles *rejected* since you published your *Bulletin* article? Again, please give details.

Thank you very much

Sue Wharton

List of articles

Burke H 1997: "Using the in-service feedback session to promote teacher self development actively" *The Teacher Trainer* 11/1

Eldridge J 1996: "Code switching in a Turkish secondary school" *ELT Journal* 50/4: 303-311

Hancock M 1997: "Behind classroom code switching: layering and language choice in L2 learner interaction" *TESOL Quarterly* 31/2: 217-235

McCabe A 1997a: "Review of Bloor T & Bloor M *The functional analysis of English*" *Functions of Language* 4/1

McCabe A 1997b "Exploring the target situation of our ESP students" *IATEFL ESP SIG* 8

- McCabe A & Alonso Belmonte I 1998: "Looking for tools to assess ESL student compositions at the discourse level" *GRETA Revista para profesores de inglés* 6/2
- Quirke P 1995-96 "The importance of face in the classroom and teacher training" *TESOL Arabia Selected Papers 1995-96*
- Quirke P 1996: "Using unseen observations for an IST development programme" *The Teacher Trainer* 10/1
- Seedhouse P 1996: "Classroom interaction: possibilities and impossibilities" *English Language Teaching Journal* 50/1: 16-24
- Trotman W 1998: "Internet websites for ELT" *IATEFL Issues* 144
- Webber P 1997: "From argumentation to argument: interaction in the conference hall" *ASP* 15-18, 439-450
- Webber P 1998a: "Aspects of discourse in medical journals and the L2 writer" in Evangelista P (ed) *Thought processes and linguistic realisations in academic discourse in Europe* Rome: Bulzoni Editore
- Williams G C 1998: "Collocational networks: interlocking patterns of lexis in a corpus of plant biology research articles" *International Journal of Corpus Linguistics* 3/1: 1-21

Appendix G

Letters inviting feedback on draft sections of chapter 11, October 1998

The following letter was sent to those who had fed back at length:

2 October 1998

Dear

Writing for Publication

At the moment I am writing to everyone who has given me feedback on the self access materials. I'm in the process of writing up that part of my PhD thesis where I report all the feedback I have received, and try to draw some conclusions about what it means. And as you know, when making such use of data in a research project, it is very important to get back to those who gave the feedback and to offer them an opportunity to comment on the way their feedback has been interpreted.

So, I enclose with this letter a draft of that part of the thesis in which I report on, and attempt to interpret, your own feedback and your own work. I'd like to invite you to correct anything which you think is wrong, add anything which you think is missing, and generally make any comments that you want to. Your comments will then enable me to write a final version of my report on your feedback and this version - with your continuing permission - will go into my thesis.

I feel in some ways apprehensive as I send this letter out to those of you who fed back on actual work you did in the light of the materials, because I am aware that my comments and interpretations could quite easily be wrong in that they may not coincide with your own views of what you have said and done and why. I'm also aware that in making my interpretations I have needed to step a long way back from the data-gathering process. In that process, I talked to individuals just about *their* texts and their responses to the materials - but now I've got to try and work with all of that information from the perspective of the *whole* project. In other words, I need to make a shift from working *with* you, to writing *about* you. In the end, I hope to be seen as writing *for* us all.

That shift has felt quite uncomfortable to me, and it may feel uncomfortable for you too - especially if you are not quite in agreement with the way I have represented your work and your position. This, of course, is why the process of going over feedback again is so important - it increases the amount of inter-subjective agreement that we can have about the work that you and I have done.

So, I'd like to ask you - for the last time, honestly! - for your comments on what I have written. Even if you think the interpretations are fine, please do take a moment to tell me so. I enclose a self-addressed envelope for your reply.

Because I am trying to finish my thesis this year, I need to set a deadline for replies. Please contact me with anything you have to say before 7 November 1998. If you choose not to contact me, then the draft report which I enclose will

go into the thesis unchanged, though I will acknowledge that I was unable to get your comments on it.

But I very much hope that you will drop me a line!

With best wishes and sincere thanks

Sue Wharton

Then the following letter was sent to all those who provided briefer feedback:

2 October 1998

Dear

Writing for Publication

At the moment I am writing to everyone who has given me feedback on the self access materials. I'm in the process of writing up that part of my PhD thesis where I report all the feedback I have received, and try to draw some conclusions about what it means. And as you know, when making such use of data in a research project, it is very important to get back to those who gave the feedback and to offer them an opportunity to comment on the way their feedback has been interpreted.

So, I enclose with this letter a draft of that part of the thesis in which I report on, and attempt to interpret, your own feedback and your own work. I'd like to invite you to correct anything which you think is wrong, add anything which you think is missing, and generally make any comments that you want to. Your comments will then enable me to write a final version of my report on your feedback and this version - with your continuing permission - will go into my thesis. Even if you think the interpretations are fine, please do take a moment to tell me so. I enclose a self-addressed envelope for your reply.

Because I am trying to finish my thesis this year, I need to set a deadline for replies. Please contact me with anything you have to say before 7 November 1998. If you choose not to contact me, then the draft report which I enclose will go into the thesis unchanged, though I will acknowledge that I was unable to get your comments on it.

But I very much hope that you will drop me a line!

With best wishes and sincere thanks

Sue Wharton

And finally, the following fax was sent to the Mexican workshop group:

Dear Mary Carmen and every body

[A paragraph of general chat]

I'm actually writing to you now, though, about my PhD and the work our group did last Christmas with the "Writing for Publication" materials. I'm in the process of writing up that part of my PhD thesis where I report all the feedback I have received on the self access materials, and try to draw some conclusions about what it means. And as you know, when making such use of data in a research project, it is very important to get back to those who gave the feedback and to offer them an opportunity to comment on the way their feedback has been interpreted.

So, I'm sending this fax to the whole group to ask you if you would all be willing to look at my draft of that part of the thesis in which I report on, and attempt to interpret, our work together last Christmas. I'd like to invite you all to correct anything which you think is wrong, add anything which you think is missing, and generally make any comments that you want to. The people this most applies to are those who I've actually "quoted" in the report - but I'm also interested in the comments of all the others who were there, especially if you think I have misrepresented anything. The comments will then enable me to write a final version of my report on the workshop and this version - with the continuing permission of all participants - will go into my thesis.

I feel in some ways apprehensive about this, because I am aware that my comments and interpretations could quite easily be wrong in that they may not coincide with your own views of what you have said and done and why. I'm also aware that in making my interpretations I have needed to step a long way back from the data-gathering process. In that process, we talked about *your* texts and your responses to the materials - but now I've got to try and work with all of that information from the perspective of the *whole* project. In other words, I need to make a shift from working *with* you, to writing *about* you and everyone else around the world who's seen these materials. In the end, I hope to be seen as writing *for* us all.

That shift has felt quite uncomfortable to me, and it may feel uncomfortable for you too - especially if you are not quite in agreement with the way I have represented your work and your position. This, of course, is why the process of going over feedback again is so important - it increases the amount of inter-subjective agreement that we can have about the work that you and I have done.

So, would everyone who was at any part of the December 1997 workshop please read through this fax and the attached report, and send me any comments that you have. If you choose to reply as a group, please make it clear who has made which comments - and also attach a list of all those people who have seen the report but who don't have any corrections to make. Just so that I know whose feedback I have got!

As you know, I'm trying to finish my thesis this year. I'd therefore really appreciate it if I could have your comments as soon as possible - ideally within a couple of weeks. I guess my absolute last deadline for incorporating any more comments in to this chapter is 7 November 1998.

Thanks very much for this, I really appreciate it!

Sue Wharton

[Extract from chapter 11]

PS: Relating to that last comment above, there's just a couple of questions that I'd like to ask you - as a group and/or individually.

1. If my interpretation above is right, (about some of you feeling uncomfortable about finding that your texts differed from what I had presented as correct) then do you think that is part of a general "confidence" issue at all? I mean, do you think it is the case that people who already feel confident about their writing will not mind discovering that they differ from "the norm", whereas people who are less confident will be uncomfortable?

and also:

2. Do you think that MSc grades have anything to do with confidence about writing for publication? For instance, do those of you who got higher grades on the course feel more confident about this? Or doesn't it make any difference?

Appendix H

Letter seeking feedback on self-access materials, June 1998

June 1998

Writing for Publication

Dear

I am currently writing to everyone who asked for a copy of the materials *Writing for Publication: Purpose and Choice in TEFL Texts* and with whom I have not yet been in contact. The purpose of this brief questionnaire is to find out where you are with the materials and to get some feedback on your impressions so far.

At the moment I am writing up the part of my thesis in which I evaluate the success of the materials. I am aiming to finish the whole thesis by the end of 1998 - but that depends on getting feedback!! All comments, however brief, positive or negative, are valuable. So please do take a few moments to answer the questions and return the questionnaire to me in the envelope provided.

1. Which of the following statements best describes your situation vis a vis the materials? Please tick.

I haven't read them yet

I've read them, but don't think they will be useful for me

I've read them, I think they will be useful, but I have not yet started to work with them

I'm in the process of using them now

I've already used them to help me write an article

Other (please specify)

2. Are you willing to be contacted by telephone to discuss your impressions of the materials? Yes/No

If "yes", what is your phone number? And what is the best time to call you? (Please quote UK times).

3. Is there anything you can write down now about your impressions of the materials? Please use the reverse side of this sheet.

With best wishes and many thanks

Sue Wharton