Pick Me, Pick Me: The Theory and Construction Behind the Conference Proposal

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Pick Me, Pick Me:
The Theory and Construction behind the Conference Proposal

By
Heidi D. Ramp

An Honors Thesis Submitted in Partial Fulfillment
of the Requirements for Graduation from the
Western Oregon University Honors Program

Dr. Margaret Artman,
Thesis Advisor

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Secondly, I would like to thank my parents. My mom and dad both listened to endless phone calls, reassuring me that I would still be loved, regardless of how this one project turned out. Without them, this paper would still be scattered thoughts bouncing around. Also, thank you to my sisters. If I didn’t have you two always overachieving one step ahead of me, I never would have joined the Honors Program.

Also, thank you to my Honors Program family. We have survived a lot, including this thesis process, and I never would have made it without the help of my friends.
Introduction

Conferences are an ideal way to collaborate within a field and to spark innovation. Meeting with other professionals face to face can have a larger impact than reading an article in a journal; there can be conversations about the topic, questions can be answered directly, and ideas can be created together. Groups of people working together, making discoveries, and inventing techniques to advance their field are spreading innovation and creativity. However, to share an idea at a conference, one must have a presentation proposal approved. The conference proposal is a key part of any professional’s writing toolkit, as the conference proposal is an opportunity most professionals, professors, and graduate students encounter many times in their career.

Proposals are the first impression the conference committee will get. It is essentially the conference equivalent to the job application: the strongest, most professional applicants will get the job over the sloppy, scattered applications. The proposal must have a certain level of professionalism, in both format and content. The proposal must also fit into the genre of the conference; in other words, the content must be something the conference audience would understand and be willing to learn about.

Writing the conference proposal can be a daunting task. As the second step in the conference application process, the proposal has to anticipate what the committee is looking for, to read between the lines of the “Call for Papers,” the paragraph listing what the conference is about and the guidelines for proposal format. For example, the call for papers may include a page length or a word count, as well as instructions for submitting proposals; in this modern world, most submissions are either sent in via email attachment
or by uploading a file on a website. These submission formats make it very easy to make
sure the proposals fit within the word count or page limit, creating one more possible way
to get a proposal tossed out of the running. The rules are not concrete across the board;
some fields prefer specialized formatting or a specific word count, while other fields may
be more relaxed about the format as long as the content is strong. The challenge is to
work the proposal towards an angle that the selection committee for the conference will
be drawn to accept. It is an attempt at selling an idea, an original concept that has either
never been approached before, or is building more depth.

This project breaks the conference proposal down to its elements, analyzing what
is appealing. To break the proposal concept into easily managed sections, a method of
analysis has been developed by combining two different fields of study: composition and
linguistics. This project combines composition theories with linguistic analysis, creating
a method that is complex enough to analyze almost any proposal, but easy enough to be
taught to students of almost any skill level.

This combined method analyzes the parts of a successful proposal, looking at
what works so well in each one. Each proposal will be analyzed three times to provide
clarity. These proposals can be very wordy, and at first glance, very confusing. This
project aims to clear some of the confusion and look at the parts to understand the whole.
Literature Review

In order to understand the methods used in this study, the following literature review discusses current theories, terminology, and conversations being held in the linguistic and composition fields. There are several arguments presented regarding process versus product, anticipating an audience, genre, discourse analysis, and linguistic tools. Conference proposals are compositions, a written product that needs to be discussed in the same manner as composition pieces such as a research paper or an academic article.

The process versus product argument is an argument that influences all writing products. The argument is whether emphasis should be placed on the writing process or the final product when teaching composition in classrooms. Audience is also a key teaching aspect; the proposal is written to a specific audience, so learning how to anticipate who will read the proposal is a skill that needs developing in every writer. As for genre, discourse analysis, and the linguistic tools, these are elements of writing that can be applied to conference proposals as well as to any other product.

In “How to Make a Mulligan Stew: Process and Product Again,” Robert M. Gorrell compares a composition to a mulligan stew: a vague idea of a final product made up of a variety of components. While the product is rather important, the processes to get there must be taken into consideration as well. A final product is not the end goal of one single, specific writing process, but rather a compilation of several different processes all at once. A stew requires the chopping up and cooking of various ingredients before combining them all into one big pot, similar to how a written product is a mixture of prewriting, revising, and editing.
One of the main arguments in this article is that the writing process is not a set procedure. The writing process movement points out that writing does “not progress through three neatly defined sequential stages from prewriting to writing or revision” (Gorrell 99). This makes perfect sense, as every writer has their own process. Sometimes sparked by an observation, or even just by a random thought, the writer does not immediately sit down and prewrite. Sometimes writers jump to writing, then go back and brainstorm or collect their thoughts in an outline. However, “the writing process is obviously linear” (Gorrell 101) as the writer must write a sentence in a linear fashion – leaving a sentence unfinished is leaving a reader confused. The thought process has to go in a forward motion somehow, without losing the reader along the way.

Writers may not have a particular finished product in mind, but they know they have to present their facts in an order that makes sense to the reader. For example, the writer cannot have a conclusion before they have provided their evidence in a report. The process for organization is again unique to each author in some ways, but there are logistics according to their product’s genre. There are teachable aspects to the writing process here: the general to the specific, how to organize appropriately, and how to combine synthesis and analysis (Gorrell 100-101). The different writing processes are teachable as separate entities; once the processes are understood, the combination of them can be left to the student.

This argument is very convincing for focusing on the process versus the product. It provides a strong analogy in the mulligan stew; anybody can make a mulligan stew out of any foodstuff as long as they understand the process. The main point is that to learn to write, the writer has to learn the different processes and study the final product, and then
go out and practice writing their own way. As for a proposal, the writer often looks to proposals within their field for guidance and then models their own work from the predecessors. The processes of a proposal are not often taught in classrooms; the writer must try to understand the process by looking at a final product.

In his well-known article “Inventing the University,” David Bartholomae views the process versus product argument differently than in Gorrell’s writing. While this is not the primary topic of the article, Bartholomae argues that “it is the product, and not the plan for writing, that locates a writer on the page, that locates him in a text and a style and the codes or conventions that make both of them readable” (597). Bartholomae accepts that there is a process to the writing, but arguably the product is more important than the process. The product is what the writer provides – the reader does not see the process, just what the process produces. This is something every writer must keep in mind while producing their work, a little nagging reminder that the reader will only understand the final message, not the several steps the writer took to get to that point. For proposals, writers must remember that the committee only sees that one final product, not the research paper or the process the writer had to go through.

Bartholomae’s main points, however, are not focused on the subject of process versus product but rather the question of audience. It is important to remember that Bartholomae is discussing academic, “university” writing rather than personal writing. Academic writing is intended to be shared with an audience; personal writing does not necessarily have to fit to an audience because there often isn't an audience beyond the writer. According to Bartholomae, every writer has to create their audience and situate themselves within a particular discourse community. Every writer has to go through the
process of determining who will read their final product. Once the audience is fictionalized in the writer’s mind, they have to fit their product into the discourse community – they have to adjust their diction and formatting into a recognizable setting for the community they hope to reach. This information is crucial in writing conference proposals – every conference will be looking for something different in the proposals. The writer must maintain a balance of writing their proposal to convey their point as well as writing the proposal to appeal to the acceptance committee.

The idea of audience may be difficult for writers to grasp; they are asked to assume authority in their field, something young writers may struggle with. Following a model of their assumed field can help create a sense of authority, or at least give the writer an idea of what the audience may be looking for. Bartholomae uses the example of an English professor writing for *Seventeen* magazine (Bartholomae 595-598). The professor is asked to write an article for *Seventeen* about what he does. In order to do so, the professor assumes that teenage girls are the audience and he has to situate his writing to fit the girls’ understanding, establishing his authority on his topic, but keeping it accessible.

The writer of a conference proposal must anticipate the conference committee; they must fit their proposal to match what they believe the committee is looking for. They also must assume an “insider role” in the discourse community; they have to prove their understanding of the terminology, or jargon used within the community. They have to assume an authoritative role with their writing, trying to situate their idea within the committee’s supposed desired context. In other words, they must situate their ideas within the genre of the conference.
Genre is a term that is used not only for written works, but also for other formats such as movies or music. These are all considered “communicative events,” or a way in which to communicate an idea or an expression of feeling. These communicative events fall into a specific genre based on the traits they contain. For example, comedy movies all contain some sort of misunderstanding, one or several hilarious attempts to resolve the misunderstanding, and has a positive, uplifting resolution.

In *Genre Analysis: English in Academic and Research Settings*, Swales discusses how genre is defined in several different fields such as folklore studies, literary studies, linguistics, and rhetoric. These definitions are all similar, but each is particular to that one field. Swales creates his own working definition of genre:

A genre comprises a class of communicative events, the members of which share some set of communicative purposes. These purposes are shared by the expert members of the parent discourse community, and thereby constitute the rationale for the genre. This rationale shapes the schematic structure of the discourse and influences and constrains choice of content and style (58).

This definition, while complex, is all-encompassing, even including schemata. A schema is the previous knowledge structure that every person has that new information has to be worked into. The conference proposal is a communicative event that fits within the genre of the conference. In order to do so, the writer has to have at least a basic understanding of the discourse community surrounding the conference, as well as the language of the genre.

Swales not only defines genre, but also creates a working definition of the term “discourse community.” For Swales, a discourse community has six defining characteristics: a broadly agreed set of common public goals, mechanisms of intercommunication among members, uses participatory mechanisms primarily to
provide information and feedback, possesses and utilizes one or more genres in the communicative furtherance of its aims, acquired some specific lexis, and a threshold level of members with a suitable degree of relevant content and discoursal expertise (24-27). In other words, a discourse community is a group of people having discussions about a similar idea that keep within their own set confines. For example, the conference proposal is written for the discourse community that the conference intends to include. A conference about teaching writing would include presentations prepared for an audience that either teaches writing or is interested in the methods of teaching writing.

One way to learn about the writings of a discourse community is to break that community down to its component parts using discourse analysis. Discourse analysis is not one exact research method for answering a problem; instead, the analysis considers the conditions surrounding the problem and determines the “root” of the problem, allowing insight on how to approach the solution. Discourse analysis is the umbrella term that several different methods fall under; these methods analyze a communicative event. Discourse analysis tends to be linguistically based, and therefore provides many contrasts to the rhetoric and composition sources so far discussed.

James Paul Gee’s *How to do Discourse Analysis: a Toolkit* contains twenty seven “tools.” These tools range from language and context to theoretical. Gee breaks down each tool and explains how and why they are used. The use of each tool is very carefully explained so that the most basic discourse analyst can use the tools just as easily as the expert, advanced analyst. The approaches require a basic level of higher linguistic training, but not so much that a student of my level would get confused and bogged down in the terminology.
This toolkit is a good resource for any linguistic research project, as it provides examples of real world applications for each tool. It goes beyond theory and becomes a practical tool that a research can utilize. These tools can be used when creating a conference proposal to make sure that the proposal is communicating the main idea of the presentation correctly.

For instance, Gee presents the basic deixis tool, figuring out “how deictics are being used to tie what is said to context and to make assumptions about what listeners already know or can figure out” (10) at the beginning of the book. The tools increase in difficulty up to the “big D discourse tool,” which essentially asks the question, how is the person using language to establish an identity in a discourse (181)? Gee’s toolkit is contemporary, first published in 2011, with all the current approaches to discourse analysis. These tools help provide a systematic approach to a text. Following the tools in order is not necessary, but the linguist can pick and choose the appropriate tools to fit the text and the thesis the linguist is attempting to prove. The tools cover a broad range of linguistic specialties, so choosing the correct tools may be challenging.
Working Definitions

For this project, I have provided the following definitions to be used during my analysis:

A **discourse community** is a collective grouping of discussions that all follow the same general rules and definitions. The members of this community work forward together, sharing ideas and feedback within the community’s restraints. This is who attends the conference, who selects the proposals, and who the writer must appeal to. To fit within a discourse community, the proposal should use the terminology of that particular community.

A **genre** is a set of shared characteristics that apply to written works; for example, all fairytales must contain the magic number three, a fairy godmother, an evil stepmother or witch, etc. In this project, the genre is conference proposals, the aspects they share and how they work together.

**Deictic words** are words that reveal the narrator’s relation to the story. Pronouns are the deictic words that were chosen to be analyzed in this project. Choosing to use the first person personal pronouns, such as “I” and “my” bring the author closer to the narration, placing them in the same context. Third person pronouns, such as “they” and “it” bring the author away from the narration, as if the author is simply observing the narration from a separate context. According to Gee, deictic words are "pointing words". The meaning can only be determined by the context surrounding the word (Gee 8). These words can also help define the tone of the piece.
Methods

This study focused on three conferences: the 2012 Oregon Rhetoric and Composition Conference, the Writing Across Borders II conference, and the American Association of Applied Linguistics conference. These conferences were chosen because they represent three different discourse communities within the larger community of English studies. These were all accessed via the conference websites, and the names were removed to protect the authors’ professional identities. Once these conferences were selected, the proposals were chosen based on length and topic.

The variables chosen for analysis in this study were the deictic occurrences, or the pronoun usage in the proposals; the use of current, discipline-specific terminology, or “jargon”; and the moves the author made. These variables are useful tools, allowing this study to provide countable evidence for support.

The deictic occurrences create a tone as well as the distance between the author and the topic. This may be due to removal of emotion; by using third person, the author has not put themselves into the study – it relies on the strength of the study rather than relying on the author’s role. This also affects the tone of the proposal; the paper becomes an academic artifact rather than a personal plea. It is a formal, professional tone that incites confidence and respect for the piece as an artifact. The first person personal pronoun is used when the author wants to draw the reader in by putting the author and the reader on the same level. The first person pronoun appears more personal than third person pronoun; the reader feels included in the conversation, as a participant, rather than on the outside looking in. For a smaller conference, such as the ORCC, this approach
may be ideal to approach a committee made up of colleagues. For larger conferences, such as the WABII or the AAAL, the more professional air of the third person puts the proposal on a more academic and scientific level.

The discipline-specific jargon is a little more difficult to identify, and they can vary from conference to conference. However, the usage of jargon lets the committee know that the proposed project is relevant to current discussions in the field. Whether it is a conference for applied linguistics or a composition conference, knowing the current terminology makes the proposal sound as though it is coming from someone who really knows what they are talking about. These keywords would alert the committee to several important notes: first, the applicant actually read the call for papers, second, the applicant is providing information that is relevant to the conference, and thirdly that the applicant has kept up with the terminology of the field and is addressing a current issue. These “buzz words” are used in a specific context to create relevance to the discourse community that the proposal is addressing; the word “intersection” only becomes relevant to the ORCC discourse community when it is used to describe writing rather than when it is used to describe the local road system, since the theme of the conference was “Writing at Intersections.”

Moving from the specific parts to the more general sentence, the third analysis looks at how the proposals flow and what moves each author makes. The moves are described by Swales in *English in Today’s Research World: A Writing Guide*. Swales discussed the moves made by a successful proposal as approaching the writing in six steps. First, the proposal introduces some background to the issue they plan to discuss. Next, they discuss the aim of the project – are they going to fix a problem, reevaluate an
old theory, or add to a current conversation? The third move is to discuss the importance behind their work; they want to prove that what they are doing is actually worth something, not just a waste of time. After they explain the why, they explain the how: the methods used in this study and how they were chosen. The fifth step is a teaser move; it gives a brief overview of the results or the conclusions drawn, but very brief – they save the full-blown results for the actual conference. The final step is optional for some conferences, but is always a good idea to include just in case. The final section of the proposal is the proposed influence this particular paper/project may have on future issues and studies.

For this project, I analyzed each proposal in three different ways. The first analysis method is a numbers game, looking solely at how many deictic words were used. I looked for any pronouns and phrases that used pronouns versus phrases that did not. I counted how many third person pronouns were used per total word count, and then counted the amount of first person pronouns.

For my second analysis, I examined the word choice of each proposal for keywords, or “buzz words”, that were relevant to the conference theme as well as current with the field in general. For example, the Oregon Rhetoric and Composition Conference (ORCC)’s theme for 2012 was “Writing at Intersections,” so I looked for jargon such as “intersections,” “bridging the gap,” or “crossing.”

For the third analysis, I went through each proposal sentence by sentence to see if any or all of the moves Swales described were present, essentially breaking the proposal down into parts. Each part answered the what, the why, the how, the background, or the consequences of the proposed discussion.
DATA

I have included a copy of all the proposals, with all three methods of analysis indicated, in Appendix A., beginning on page 26.

For the stylistic analysis, I went through each proposal and found each deictic occurrence. This analysis focuses on how the author addresses the audience through pronoun use. It looks at whether the author chose an academic article approach and used third person terms to maintain a distance from the work, or if they chose to approach the audience as equals, using the first person to create a discussion rather than just relaying information. This analysis also included looking at the verbs following the pronouns in order to confirm third versus first person; modals are highlighted in the data in order to confirm a deictic occurrence relevant to addressing the audience. I created the following sample charts, comparing the use of deictics in three proposals from each conference to the total number of words, in order to present the data in a clear, concise manner:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>WABII</th>
<th>Number of 3rd person deictic occurrences (pronouns)</th>
<th>Number of 1st person deictic occurrences</th>
<th>Total number of words</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>#8</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>389</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>#11</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1,052</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>#28</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>503</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>110</td>
<td>54</td>
<td>11,317</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>AAAL</th>
<th>Number of 3rd person deictic occurrences</th>
<th>Number of 1st person deictic occurrences</th>
<th>Total number of words</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>#5</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>65</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>#8</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>71</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>#17</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>61</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>1,437</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
As for the deictic occurrences, the results of this study reveal that on average, third person pronouns are used at higher frequency. For the Oregon Rhetoric and Composition Conference, for example, out of 11,326 words, there were 110 third person occurrences, but only 41 first person occurrences. Because the ORCC is the smallest of the three conferences, and every proposal accepted was analyzed, this data is the strongest support for using third person deictic occurrences. A final total revealed that out of 24,080 words, 258 were third person while only 99 were first person in the entire collection of data.

The following is one of the proposals I used as a sample in the ORCC chart above, with bold font and italic font added for emphasis on the deictic occurrence:

**Updating our Status as Writing Teachers: Using Students' Online-Writing Skills in the Composition Classroom**

What kinds of writing are *our freshmen* composition students doing outside the classroom? And, perhaps more importantly, how do *we use* the skills they’re using to teach writing? From updating their statuses on social network sites like Facebook to keeping blogs rather than journals, today’s students are more tech savvy than ever before and are members of a generation whose literacy narrative is more and more interwoven with technology. As writing teachers, it is *our responsibility* to be aware of this technology and to find ways to utilize it in our classrooms.

*This presentation will offer* an overview of popular online writing mediums and how students are using them outside the classroom. Specifically, *it will focus* in on how writing teachers can both integrate this technology in the classroom as well as appeal to the skill-sets associated with

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>ORCC</th>
<th>Number of 3rd person deictic occurrences</th>
<th>Number of 1st person deictic occurrences</th>
<th>Total number of words</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>#1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>180</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>#9</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>219</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>#13</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>221</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>110</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>11,326</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
using them. *I will offer* specific tools to use in the classroom as well as cite foundational texts and studies on the current conversation surrounding this field.

The evidence gathered in the second method is a bit more difficult to organize so neatly. I compiled a list of jargon found for each of the conferences and listed below are sample proposals with the jargon underlined for emphasis:

**WABII: Meta-analysis of Writing Interventions for Elementary School Children**

This meta-analysis examined the impact of different instructional approaches (e.g., strategy instruction, word processing, process writing, and so forth) on the quality of writing produced by students in the elementary grades. A comprehensive search of the literature was conducted to identify published and unpublished studies where (a) participants were elementary school students; (b) a pre- and post-test quasi-experimental or experimental design with a control group was used; (c) writing quality was measured reliably; (d) the independent variable was a writing intervention; and (e) data were available for computing an effect size. If a treatment was studied in 4 or more studies, we report an average weighted effect size and confidence interval using a random effects model. We further examined if effect sizes were moderated by genre tested, type of study (experiment versus quasi-experimental study), locale (urban, suburban, and rural), and quality of study. This is the first meta-analysis focusing specifically on elementary grade students.

**AAAL: The Effect of Languaging on Korean Students’ L2 Learning Motivation: A Classroom-based Mixed methods Approach**

This study extends the notion of languaging to L2 motivation. Based on Dörnyei’s L2 Motivational Self-System, I analyze the effect of languaging on students' motivational changes. Written languaging was proven to significantly increase students’ motivation. The findings imply that languaging activity can be implemented for enhancing and maintaining students' motivation.

**ORCC: “We Shouldn’t Have to Read About That”: Television’s Queer Characters and their Implications for Composition Pedagogy**

Increasingly, television series aimed at 14-18-year-olds feature queer characters. While the quantity of these images signifies a certain kind of progress in its own right, these images have implications and consequences not only for the ways in which the LGBT community is understood more broadly, but also for the writing classroom. Queer characters – whose presence could richly complicate any series – are often presented as desexualized, sanitized, and “cute,” signifying
a “smoothing out” of potential complexity. While many beginning writers try to mask or ignore complexity, this repetitious and systemic “smoothing out” represents a tacit approval of this tendency. These repeated, overly simplistic queer images have lasting consequences for the ways in which students encounter, think, and write about difficult ideas – particularly for arguments with which they don’t agree. In this multimedia presentation, we’ll explore the gay characters of popular television series among high school and college students and discuss the implications of such images for students’ work as writers. As the intersections between television and writing can be wonderfully invigorating in the writing classroom, we’ll also discuss uses of these existing images to inspire, push, and refine critical thinking, as well as how to incorporate these concepts into assignments and in-class exercises.

The second analysis revealed a pattern as well. This is evident in all three conferences, according to my analysis. Current jargon is a key component to the proposal; they keep the argument relevant and contemporary in the field. This was difficult since I am not an expert in all three fields, so some terminology may be outdated or I may have missed some terms that are more “buzzy” to an expert in that particular field. The words I found stood out to me based not only on the field, but also the theme of the conferences. The theme of each conference was mentioned either in the Call for Papers or on the “About” page on the conference’s website. For example, The AAAL conference was about combining fields and filling in the gaps, so I looked for “mixed methods” as one of my terms.

For the final analysis, I have created the checklist below and included a sample from each conference.

<table>
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<tr>
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</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>WABII #4</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>No</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>AAAL #23</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>No</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ORCC #26</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>No</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Investigation into classroom phenomena is often the starting point for understanding literacy issues. However, there is a certain point when this type of inquiry is insufficient in terms of helping to fully conceptualize the complex issues surrounding what happens in the classroom. At this point, researchers must attempt to contextualize the phenomena within the wider pedagogical and social milieus in which they exist (Clark, 2007). Although writing research in Latin America is a relatively new venture (Carlino, 2007), it follows the wider trend towards contextualization in writing research (Juzwik et al, 2006). This trend which started in Mexico with a focus on cognitive writing processes (e.g., Pamplón, 2005), surveys on teachers and students perceptions in specific contexts (e.g., Roux, 2006; Hidalgo, 2006) was complemented by studies on social and institutional practices (e.g., Perales, 2005; Englander, 2009; Mugford & Sughrua, 2007).

In line with this overall trend to see writing practices as part of a larger ecology (Clark, 2007), this project involves a three phase investigation of literacy practices and processes associated with pre-service English language teachers situated in the modern languages department of a public research university in México. (The three study phases examine departmental literacy issues from the following perspectives: 1) Institutional expectations (via curriculum plans – from historical and current perspectives) and academic staff /curriculum designers (interviews), 2) how interpretation of departmental and institutional factors are carried out, i.e., the correspondence between classroom literacy expectations and students’ processes (literacy development), (interviews with academic staff and students) and 3) the wider social context that goes beyond the institutional context, i.e., literacy requirements / expectations (interviews with potential employers).)

Results of the study so far have indicated a number of issues: 1) that official literacy requirements are open to a wide variety of interpretations, 2) writing expectations vary depending on the discipline area and the individual teacher / student. 3) Students may not be fully prepared to deal with professional type discourses which are generally carried out in Spanish. )

Implications of the findings will be presented in the conference paper.

AAAL: 23) Language management in Elementary Schools classrooms in Brazil-Paraguay border: an ethnographic-based study on teachers' language choices
The presentation describes an on-going ethnographic-based research on how teachers have managed in-contact languages (Guarani, Portuguese and Spanish) in two Elementary Schools located in the border Brazil-Paraguay. Systematized classroom observation and teachers’ diary-interviews were carried out in order to analyze the teachers’ language choices in classroom planning and management.

ORCC: 26) Historical Intersections: A Writing Center Case Study

As a new writing center director takes the wheel, she or he often inherits a writing center; the director and center often share little history. The director’s and center’s histories intersect in ways that require both to adapt and to use as an advantage that all is in a constant state of change. The inherited center has arisen within an institutional context with specific administrative and political circumstances. It bears an institutional reputation. It carries its own policies and traditions that can be altered but that are, nonetheless, established. It has an established location. It has a staff. The writing center director, too, has a history, a specific path that has prepared her or him for the teaching, research, and service required to successfully direct a writing center. The successful writing center director quickly adapts, finding ways to steer along the open road of endless possibilities ahead while navigating the ruts of institutional history and practice.

This presentation offers a case study of the triumphs and challenges of steering through such intersections, amid tenuous staff turnover, burgeoning needs for writing curriculum support for students and faculty stemming from general education reform, concerns over retention in difficult budget years, etc.

The presentation, supported with research in writing center administration, describes the ways the writing center director continues to work to grow a writing center with greater institutional relevance and enhanced campus partnerships. It claims that a healthy writing center must pave its own way.

For my third analysis, I examined the “moves” Swales described; this analysis was a little more time consuming but considerably less difficult. The moves are the organization of the information so that it flows smoothly. Organizing the information in chronological order makes understanding the main points of the proposal easier. Each proposal made the transition between moves effectively, but not all proposals contained every move. For example, the proposals for the AAAL conference had a much smaller word count, so there simply was not enough room for all five moves. Some of the longer
proposals, such as WABII #11, made the same move multiple times. In this case, each of
the five moves was repeated for each of the four speakers of this presentation. The five
moves that I looked for were the background, the aim of the proposal, the importance of
the proposal, the methods used, and the results or the future significance. The main two
moves I noticed more than the rest are the aim of the proposal and either the conclusion
or the methods. These moves are the meat of the proposal; they explain the what and the
why. This is what the committee is mainly looking for, what the proposal is bringing to
the conference. The other moves are meant to situate the proposal within the conference
context. These moves are generally looked for in longer proposal, similar to looking for
jargon. They give the author authority on their topic, proving that the author is aware of
the current conversations and adding to them.
CONCLUSIONS

From the above data, I can conclude that while conference proposals may vary greatly in topic, successful ones all have a few aspects in common. A conference committee reads a large amount of proposals, and being able to stand out from the pack is a good idea. However, if a proposal uses the third person pronoun, completes at least two of the five moves, and contains current terminology, the content may be taken more seriously and stands a greater chance of being accepted.

These format choices provide the author with authority on their topic. The lack of the first person pronoun creates a distance between the author and the reader by setting the author apart from the work. This also situates the proposal in the genre of the academic article, as it creates a more academic or scientific tone. The use of jargon proves that the author understands the field and provides currently relevant work. This is important, because outdated, irrelevant work is not what the committee wants to present at the conference. Instead, the committee wants the presentations to build and add to current academic conversations. The use of Swales’ moves provides the committee with the value of the work. The aim of the proposal, or what it is about, situates the proposal in the academic conversation, allowing the committee to determine the worth of the proposal. The methods used help the committee ascertain the validity of the work; if the methods are unclear or appear to be inconclusive, the results may be untrustworthy. The results move establishes the importance of the study to the field. If the study seems to not have any real importance, then the committee would see no reason to present it at a conference.
Conference proposals are a tool that every academic professional has to use. Other than Swales’s workbook, however, there hasn’t been much of a conversation regarding this product of writing. This is a genre that is not discussed; there is just an unspoken understanding that anybody writing a proposal should know how it is done. This means that there is no single acceptable format, so proposals can vary greatly, making it difficult to let the ideas being presented stand out on their own. Writers currently have to work as one of Bartholomae’s “students”; they must read previous proposals and imitate the work that they see to try to anticipate their audience. With a generalized format, the committee can select the proposals that present the newest and most forward thinking ideas, allowing these fresh ideas to push the boundaries and entice growth. This analysis is only a small part of a much large conversation to be had.

Any proposal writer has their own writing process that works for them. Some may outline, some may freewrite, or some may just dive in and submit a first draft. Based on the results of this study, I propose a format approach for new writers. Begin with organizing information according to the moves. Start with the background, head into the aim of the project, describe the methods used, and provide some information on what the results of this proposal may mean. Second, reevaluate the deictic occurrences within the proposal. Would the third person make this proposal a stronger work? Third, reread the Call for Papers and check the proposal to see if it actually answers the Call. Look for terms that fit within the field of the conference, the theme of the conference, and any terms that might be outdated.

The conference proposal has long been seen as one step in a long writing and presenting process. However, with this study, a format can now be developed that can
easily be taught. This teachable method will bring the proposal out of the “silently understood” section of the writing toolkit, and be made a piece of work that can stand entirely on its own. As each part of the proposal is evaluated, the choices made by the author can be better understood by a reader. The meaning of the proposal, as well as a clear format to write in, comes into focus when starting with the small parts and building up to see the proposal as a whole.
BIBLIOGRAPHY


APPENDIX A

Key:

third person deictic occurrence, first person deictic occurrence, jargon, ((move)), A*, Z*, M* are names removed to protect the author

4th International Conference on Writing Research: Writing Research Across Borders II

1) The National Study of Writing Instruction

((At the present time, writing instruction is receiving new attention in both research and policy. Calls for more attention to writing (National Commission on Writing, 2003) are coupled with calls for the implementation of research-based instructional practices. Yet there has been no systematic examination of how writing is actually taught since Applebee’s (1981) national study. Thus there is a real danger of prescribing remedies for the wrong problems, or for problems that do not exist.)) ((To address this knowledge gap, the National Study of Writing Instruction (NSWI) is asking: 1. How and why is “good practice” as indicated by research on learning to write (e.g., Graham & Perin, 2007) assimilated (or rejected) by teachers in schools that have made a commitment to the teaching of writing, and how does such instruction relate to that provided in more typical schools? 2. How do content area teachers in both types of schools address the special disciplinary demands of writing in their subject areas? And 3. How does the larger context for instruction, including the standards and assessments in individual subject areas, alter the writing experiences that students have?))

((The presentations will draw on two sets of data: 1) Case studies of writing programs in middle and high schools chosen because of local reputations for excellence in the teaching of writing, and 2) a national survey of a representative sample of middle and high school teachers of English, social studies, science, and mathematics. The case studies examined writing instruction in 20 middle and high schools situated in 5 states that differ in the standards and assessments they use to frame what they believe students should know and be able to do with respect to writing (NY, CA, TX, WI, and KY). In each state, NSWI solicited nominations of schools with local reputations for excellence in writing instruction from state leaders in the teaching of English (state education agencies, state affiliates of the National Council of Teachers of English, and National Writing Project site directors). Nominations were checked against available data on student performance on literacy-related tests, as well as other information available about each school on the internet.

Each school was visited by a team of field researchers who were also experienced teachers. The three-day school visits included interviews with the principal and department chairs in English, math, science, and social studies, and with teachers at grades 6, 8, 10, and 12 in each of those subjects. Classroom observations were also scheduled for these subject areas, using both time x activity time-sampled records and field notes focusing on the kinds of instruction and writing-related activities that
occurred. In addition to observations and interviews, all teachers in all grades were asked to complete an online survey about the kinds of writing required in their subject area. At each school, a second set of visits was used to recruit focal students who were asked to share all of their work (worksheets, notes, and exercises as well as extended writing) in the four target subject areas for one full semester. At the end of the semester these students were interviewed to explore their perceptions of similarities and differences within and across subject areas in the kinds of writing that were done, and the kinds of instruction that was offered.

In addition to individual case reports prepared by the visiting teams, cross site databases were constructed using NVivo for the qualitative data (field notes, interview responses, and school summary reports), and SPSS for quantitative data (including time x activity records, writing completed by the students, and surveys).

Surveys used in the case study schools were modified for use in the national survey, which will allow analyses of differences between “typical” and exemplary programs in the 5 target states, as well as a portrait of practice in middle and high schools nationally.

(The presentations will highlight disciplinary differences in the goals and approaches to writing instruction, the influence of state policies regarding curriculum and assessment on instruction, and the (surprisingly limited) role of technology in writing and writing instruction.)

2) New Directions in Writing Assessment: Validity, Confidence and Corpus Linguistics

(This session will discuss three dimensions of a research project, each of which suggests a new direction for further research in the assessment of writing. The first offers a rationale for using both quantitative and qualitative methods of text analysis, the second explains what we can learn from move analysis, and the third explores the implications of categories typically used to describe student writers.)) ((Taken together, these three dimensions demonstrate the need to employ new methods, use new technologies, and develop new terms in order to improve writing assessment.))

3) Disciplinary Writing in English: Research from Five Mexican Universities

(The purpose of this panel is to explore the role of English as a foreign language in disciplinary, university contexts in Mexico.)) ((Mexico is a particularly interesting country for investigation of English: It is still considered a developing nation (World Bank, 2010); its immediate geographic neighbor is the United States; and it is under scrutiny by international bodies such as OECD to participate in the knowledge economy. International bodies determine national standing by measures that include university and scientific productivity (OECD, 2010). A nation’s ability to actively participate in such knowledge production is measurably affected by its level of English competence (Man, et al., 2004).))

(Thus as sites of higher learning, universities are an important context for research into the increasing role of English in Mexico. The literacy practices of students...
and professors are central. **In this panel**, learning, teaching, and using English for knowledge creation and dissemination are considered in three research projects. **In the first paper**, teaching English is the discipline to be mastered; **in the second paper**, pedagogies for using English for gaining disciplinary knowledge are explored and contested; and, in the third paper, English is used for disseminating disciplinary knowledge.

((Within these investigations, each researcher explores answers from their situated contexts to questions such as: (1) What is the relationship between the foreign language and disciplinary practice? (2) What is the relationship between the first language and the second language in disciplinary participation? And (3) What are the individual or institutional characteristics that support or impede full access to English in the discipline?)

((Following the presentation of the research, a response will be presented that explores the commonalities and differences apparent in the role of English at the university level in this peripheral context. The empirical work presented will give the audience an understanding of the complex relationships among the foreign language, disciplinary development and wider institutional and international demands.))

4) University Sector Writing Development: Contextualizing Classroom Practices within Institutional and the Wider Social Environments

((Investigation into classroom phenomena is often the starting point for understanding literacy issues. However, there is a certain point when this type of inquiry is insufficient in terms of helping to fully conceptualize the complex issues surrounding what happens in the classroom. At this point, researchers must attempt to contextualize the phenomena within the wider pedagogical and social milieus in which they exist (Clark, 2007). Although writing research in Latin America is a relatively new venture (Carlino, 2007), it follows the wider trend towards contextualization in writing research (Juzwik et al, 2006). This trend which started in Mexico with a focus on cognitive writing processes (e.g. Pamplón, 2005), surveys on teachers and students perceptions in specific contexts (e.g., Roux, 2006; Hidalgo, 2006) was complemented by studies on social and institutional practices (e.g., Perales, 2005; Englander, 2009; Mugford & Sughrua, 2007).))

In line with this overall trend to see writing practices as part of a larger ecology (Clark, 2007), ((this project involves a three phase investigation of literacy practices and processes associated with pre-service English language teachers situated in the modern languages department of a public research university in México.)) ((The three study phases examine departmental literacy issues from the following perspectives: 1) Institutional expectations (via curriculum plans – from historical and current perspectives) and academic staff /curriculum designers (interviews), 2) how interpretation of departmental and institutional factors are carried out, i.e., the correspondence between classroom literacy expectations and students’ processes (literacy development), (interviews with academic staff and students) and 3) the wider social context that goes beyond the institutional context, i.e., literacy requirements / expectations (interviews with potential employers.))
Results of the study so far have indicated a number of issues: 1) that official literacy requirements are open to a wide variety of interpretations, 2) writing expectations vary depending on the discipline area and the individual teacher/student. 3) Students may not be fully prepared to deal with professional type discourses which are generally carried out in Spanish.

Implications of the findings will be presented in the conference paper.

5) Challenges in an International Writing Research Project Situated in Two Mexican Universities

Globalization has increased the ease with which our students move across national boundaries as they seek undergraduate or graduate study or professional careers. But while our students cross national boundaries quickly, their ability to move beyond basic communicative English may not come so easily. Students moving into business or professional careers face a world where the “transnationalization of business” urgently requires that students acquire advanced fluency in disciplinary writing (StarkeMeyerring, 2005, p.474). In addition, the level of English that is necessary for successful graduate study is difficult for many non-native speaking students to achieve. Moreover, when young faculty seek to publish in English language journals, a lack of advanced disciplinary English slows their admission into their intellectual communities of practice (Englander, 2009, p.35)

English as Foreign Language (EFL) pedagogy offers students a sound base in communicative English language skills, and English for Specific Purposes (ESP) offers some career-specific orientation. Yet these approaches tend to focus closely on the linguistic and grammatical features of English. Moreover EFL programs in international settings are frequently oriented toward testing which leaves less time for the development of advanced disciplinary English skills, specifically writing and oral presentation.

Recently, international faculty have become interested in exploring writing-across-the-curriculum (WAC) pedagogy. In the international WAC/WID (writing-in-thedisciplines) mapping project, Thaiss (2008) documents 250 respondents from 47 countries other than the U.S. and Canada who have initiated WAC projects. Other scholars have explored the bridge between WAC and EFL (see Poe, 2007, 2008; McCleod, 2001, 2002, 2008; Matsuda, 1998, 2001). In this vein, beginning in 2008 research teams from MIT, U. de Quintana Roo, Cozumel, Mexico and Instituto Tecnológico de Estudios Superiores Monterrey (TEC), Monterrey, Mexico proposed to combine WAC methods with an EFL approach to determine how the two pedagogies would work in tandem and how WAC pedagogy might adapt to meet the needs of L2 students.

This presentation describes the challenges met by researchers who implemented the combined pedagogies in a molecular genetics class at Instituto Tecnológico de Estudios Superiores Monterrey (TEC) in Monterrey, Mexico. Despite shared objectives, enthusiasm for a common goal, and cooperation from administration, the research teams were challenged by differences in cultural, institutional, and disciplinary perspectives.

This research contributes to the evolving understanding of how we might best use WAC in EFL settings as we encourage L2 students to become proficient in advanced disciplinary English.
6) Writing Research Articles in English as a Second Language: Quantitative and Qualitative Data from Mexican Scientists

(Recent research has focused on the difficulties faced by scientists who are required to publish their scientific research in English as an additional language (Ammon, 2001, 2006; Flowerdew, 2007; Salager-Meyer, 2008). To date, there has been no empirical data regarding the degree of difficulty that English poses for scientists in the “periphery” nor the trajectory that such scientists follow in becoming writers of scientific articles in English.) (Therefore, a two-year research project was undertaken that addresses the following questions: 1) To what degree is writing a scientific article in English as a second language more difficult than writing a scientific article in a first language? 2) Are these difficulties shared by researchers with different levels of scientific expertise and seniority? 3) How do scientists outside the “center” learn to write scientific articles in English?)

(A mixed-method investigation was conducted at two scientific institutions in Mexico: a teaching university and a research institution. Using a quantitative methodology, a questionnaire was distributed to 343 scientists in natural science disciplines, and 41% of the scientists responded.) (The results specify that language is a statistically significant factor that contributes to the difficulty, dissatisfaction and anxiety in writing research articles in English. The language burden of writing in English is reported as 24% more difficult that L1 science writing, involves an 11% drop in satisfaction and a 21% increase in anxiety during writing. The statistical results motivated a further qualitative investigation with 16 scientists to understand the trajectory of becoming writers of science in English. Results of the semi-structured interviews revealed a clear and consistent pattern. Reading and writing disciplinary texts in Spanish and English increased markedly from undergraduate education to graduate school to postgraduate and professional work. The group of scientists who report the least English language burden – the senior scientists at the research institution – began their English experience while still children. Junior research institute faculty and all teaching institution scientists reported greater degrees of language burden. These findings indicate that without early exposure to English, scientists face greater difficulties in participating in the international knowledge creation that is the basis of scientific development. Further, language support and interventions for professional scientists who lack early English proficiency is clearly warranted.)

7) Progressive Promises of Literacies from the Great Migration to the Computer Age

(Spanning three historical eras, this panel points to patterns in the promises made for personal and group literacies, including its potential for progressive democracy, social uplift, and individual empowerment. From the Great Migration Era to the Progressive Era to the age of computers, technologies of literacy and their promoters have promised to ameliorate social injustice for oppressed groups, yet as Harvey Graff and Adam Banks’ work demonstrates, realities too often fall short of the myths surrounding what literacy can do in America. Despite the disparities between the promises and realities of literacy as a tool for personal and group uplift, these speakers
ask: Can the “literacy myth” be used for progressive and productive ends? That is, are there places where the overblown promises of literacy help to materialize them? To answer this question, we analyze public support of literacy from 19th- and 20th-century African-American writers, and then move to how the literacy myth constructed within these writings is drawn upon in the promotion of new literacies, specifically the literacy of computer programming. (Based on our comparative work, we argue that the progressive potentiality of literacy appears to be activated through writing more than reading, and that it is this emphasis on writing over reading that gets taken up in more recent iterations of the “literacy myth.”)

8) Promise of Literacy during the Great Migration Era

(Harvey Graff notes, “The black experience reinforces the value placed in literacy, the way in which a group who desired literacy was able to develop means for acquiring it, and the limits to many that the attainment of literacy represented.” Although acquiring literacy did not lead to economic success for African Americans, the ability to write letters allowed African Americans to transform their lives. (My project examines the legacy of letter writing as a medium of social protest and advocacy. To ground my discussion, I examine the role African-American newspapers played in giving voice to the hopes, fears, and exasperations of newly literate former slaves who wrote to black newspapers to express their hardships and longings for a better life. In particular, I examine letters written by African Americans to the Chicago Defender between the years 1916-1918, which were compiled in The Journal of Negro History, Volume 4, 1919, by Emmett J. Scott. Scott uses the letters to document the lives of American Negroes from a historical perspective. Few scholars, however, have examined the rhetorical sophistication employed by American Negroes in the crafting of the politically astute letters for transforming and protesting their oppressed condition in the South by co-opting the very literacy they were denied in slavery and systematically deprived of in freedom.

This project examines letters written by early twentieth-century African Americans for the purpose of analyzing the rhetorical modes they used in addressing their audience and explores the rhetorical strategies in the letters to illustrate how literacy served to empower a “powerless” people.)

(The letters collected during this two year time period are of particular importance because the years 1916-1918 represent the height of the black migration movement. As southern Negroes began their northward journey, they wrote letters to the Chicago Defender to request aid in migrating.) (In analyzing the letters, the following questions drive my research: What do the letters say about the importance and value of literacy to the American Negro? What commonalities link each letter? How did writing the letters (or literacy) allow African Americans to assert some control or agency over their lives? What rhetorical strategies do the authors use in order to elicit a favorable response to their letters?) (By answering these questions, I illustrate how literacy functioned as an agent for social, political, and educational change for the American Negro.)

9) The Promise of Literacy in the Progressive Era
Archival sources such as government documents, the black periodical press, and scholarly writing focused on how literacy learning in the black community can help us understand the nature of a longstanding literacy ideology particular to African Americans. Much of this historical evidence suggests that the black community was well aware of the contradictions of the literacy myth before Harvey Graff published his text of the same name. Despite the dominant culture’s viewpoint that literacy would promote democracy and bring about economic and social uplift, groups that had been historically denied the opportunity to acquire a literacy education understood all too well literacy’s limited potential to open doors. However, since the antebellum period, African Americans have sustained a “literacy myth” that associates literacy with freedom and racial uplift. This rich and forward-thinking ideology that takes literacy’s contradictions and limited access into account made way for a visionary practice of writing and literacy education that could galvanize the black community and bring about social change and racial uplift. This challenge to the mainstream and oppressive literacy ideology proves that “literacy myths” are potentially useful and even necessary.

The African-American quest for literacy and freedom during the Progressive Era, 1890-1920, presents a fascinating history of literacy’s role in action. As the U.S. transformed from a mercantile to industrial society, economic competition between social groups became more of a factor in achieving the American Dream. Collective acts of writing became necessary responses to racial oppression and the struggle to obtain employment, education, and the vote. Cultural differences informed by the impact of a history of oppression, unequal access to education, and literacy sponsorship of the A.M.E. church shaped a revolutionary moral bases of literacy within the black community in ways that are typically misunderstood; this history has impacted African American literacy practices and the way in which literacy has been a rhetorical object in black scholarly and popular writing.

My attention to the literacy myth is complicated by Deborah Brandt and Katie Clinton’s “Limits of the Local,” which examines the interplay between dominant cultures and local communities vying for control over how literacy is accessed and made useful. My examination of cultural practices and protest writing by black educators and intellectuals provides a framework for understanding both the contradictory nature of literacy and the transformative potential of literacy myths in the black community.

10) The Promise of Literacy in the Computer Age

The promises surrounding literacy are persistent, and they can be repurposed for new, digital literacies—specifically, computer programming as a kind of literacy. Since the 1970s, people have explicitly drawn on the perceived history and promises of mass textual literacy in order to promote programming literacy, or what I call "proceduracy." Myths are always constructed from something true, as Harvey Graff notes when reflecting on The Literacy Myth 30 years later. The intellectual history of arguments promoting computer programming as a mass literacy implicitly draw upon the literacy myth that—as my co-presenters argue—was at least partially fulfilled by African Americans in the 19th and 20th century.

(As part of a larger project putting computer programming into a historical continuum with textual literacy, this presentation focuses on four specific initiatives to
promote computer programming to a mass audience: projects led by Seymour Papert (Logo), Guido van Rossum (Python), Andrea diSessa (Boxer), and Mitchel Resnick (Scratch). Using a history of literacy based on scholarship by Harvey Graff, Jack Goody and David Vincent, and Edward Stevens, I look at persistent themes in the promises surrounding literacy, specifically, between 19th century literacy campaigns and 20th and 21st century proceduracy campaigns. Included in my investigation of how these promoters of proceduracy draw on the literacy myth are: the project leaders' own writings; an interview with one of the language designers; writings about these languages from the communities that support them and educators who critique their objectives; and finally, explorations of the programming languages themselves.}

(The slowly-growing movement sometimes called “computer programming for everybody” promises a new way of thinking for individuals and a more smoothly functioning, more participatory democracy—just as 19th century literacy campaigns promised. They also emphasize the power of writing—equated to programming—over reading, which is equated to software use. Differences between 19th century mass literacy and 20th century mass proceduracy campaigns include the increased emphasis on the technology of transcription in proceduracy campaigns, as well as the absence of a religious and moral basis for this new literacy. By connecting the archival research of 19th century literacy campaigns with contemporary oral and written history of proceduracy campaigns, this presentation shows one way the literacy myth can be “transformed and redirected,” as Graff charges in his recent reflection on The Literacy Myth.)

11) Teaching English Writing in China: What Native-English Speaking Instructors Encountered in Teaching Writing to College Students in China

((This panel, with four speakers, will first give a general introduction on English writing instruction from elementary to college in China, and then follow with research on native-English speaking instructors’ experience of teaching writing in different Chinese universities and discussion of personal teaching experiences in China from two different perspectives. Obstacles, mismatches, issues and triumphs involving teaching English writing in a cross-cultural context will be discussed with data collected by researcher who has conducted research in writing classes, and instructors who teach or have taught writing to the Chinese students.))

((The first speaker will give a general introduction on English writing instruction from elementary to college in China. Based on the statistics reported by the Chinese Ministry of Education (CMOE) (2002), currently there are over 200 million students who are learning English from elementary to college in China. To meet the needs of economic interdependence global wide, the Chinese government plans to invest its effort and budget in English language education, especially in English writing because it was reported that the Chinese students are ranked among the lowest in their English writing ability internationally (Cambridge International English Testing Center, 2008). CMOE urges researchers and educators in China to collaborate with experts outside the country and find ways to make rapid improvement in English writing instruction at all levels. HE will present her preliminary research findings in collaboration with Chinese scholars in the English education field on the curriculum and strategies in
English writing instruction currently adopted in China from elementary to college. The data was collected through surveys of schools in six major cities in China, and interviews of a dozen educators and classroom observations from elementary to college in one metropolitan city in Southeast China. In addition, **HE will share how** she conducts her research in collaboration with the scholars/educators beyond the US borders and their longitudinal research plan (3-5 years) on English writing instruction in several far-east Asian countries.)

**((The second speaker will present her study on native-English speaking (NES) instructors’ teaching of English writing to Chinese freshmen and sophomore students in China. With the large demand of English teachers in China and lack of English writing teachers, more NES instructors have been hired to teach English writing at Chinese colleges in the past decade. Much research has reported tensions and unsatisfactory results in classrooms taught by NES instructors (Matalene 1985, Mckay 1992, Tang & Absalom 1998, Li & Fan 2007). **SHE has conducted her study** in a university of southern China, aiming at finding out the causes of the communication barriers between NES instructors and their Chinese students in English writing classrooms and the adjustment and adaptations the teachers and students need in teaching and learning in this crosscultural context. The research data are collected through one semester-long classroom observations in six writing classes, interviews of 4 NES instructors and dozens of students (focal students), close involvement with over 100 Chinese English learners on regular bases. **Also SHE surveyed** and phone-interviewed NES writing instructors in other seven universities across China. **The data will be analyzed** through the grounded theory with constructivism framework. **The research findings present** the existence of multilevel mismatches between the instructors and students: mismatches on the concept of English writing, on teachers and learners’ role, on teaching and learning approach, on learning objectives, in addition to language and cultural barriers. **This case study** on mismatches between the NES instructors and their students and the process of their mutual adjustment in a cross-cultural context will make a significant contribution to the field of EFL writing, bridge the gap between instructors and students who come from different cultural and language backgrounds and bring a mutual understanding among people with different backgrounds who intend to work together to reach successful outcomes.))

**((The third speaker will present his personal first-year teaching experience in a Chinese college writing class as a Chinese-American instructor. Raised and educated in the United States and after receiving his graduate degree, **HE went** to China to teach writing to college students in the hometown where his parents came from. As a good writer and fluent English speaker and being a Chinese-American, **HE thought** it would be a piece of cake to teach English writing to Chinese college students. But during the course of his first year teaching, **he encountered** endless obstacles. **He was shocked** by the passiveness of the students, the requirement of the text-bound approach in teaching, and the expectation of teaching writing for correctness. In addition, being a Chinese-American in China, **he was constantly struggled with his identity** (being a Chinese, but doesn’t know the language and culture), **his cultural image** (sense of belonging at the certain level, but don’t belong at many levels), and **his language issue** (can speak basic Chinese but doesn’t sound like an educated person). All these factors affected his teaching experience in China and his relationship with his Chinese students and
colleagues. In this presentation, X* will share his struggle and adjustment in his teaching writing to Chinese college students and the process of repositioning himself as a Chinese-American in China.)

(The last speaker will describe her two-semesters’ work at Ningbo Institute of Technology of Zhejiang University (NIT), teaching university students English Academic Writing in a dual degree program in Southern China. During that time, SHE used the research of Beers (2002) and Gallagher (2006) and Fu (2003, 2009) to support her students’ English academic writing development. Throughout the course of her teaching, she collected writing samples, conducted formal and informal interviews and surveys of student attitudes. In addition, she also did some focused case studies of individual writers to demonstrate the students’ classroom work. She collaborated in her research with Chinese teachers in the School of Foreign Languages at NIT. In analyzing the students work and the curriculum of the School and specifically its English courses which focus primarily on oral English, she has investigated a disconnect between what the central Chinese government has mandated (raise Chinese students’ written English skills) and what is actually happening in the university classroom. In addition, SHE will share her personal experience of teaching writing to Chinese college students as a veteran English composition instructor and researcher from both teaching and research perspectives.)

12) The Frustrations of Reform in the Teaching of Writing: Historical Case Studies of New Theories, Faculty Development, and Empirical Research

(The conflicted relationships between theory, empirical research, and classroom practices have long vexed the teaching of writing (Haswell, “NCTE/CCCC War”).) (In this panel, we present three historical case studies of those conflicts, ones that speak strongly to present conflicts and potentially offer directions for future reforms.)

(Speaker 1 describes the movement in the late 19th and early 20th century to move from “mass instruction” to “individual methods,” whether in schooling as a whole or in teaching writing in particular.) (A key advocate of this method, Preston W. Search proposed in 1892 an approach in which a student “works as an individual, progresses as an individual, is promoted as an individual, and is graduated as an individual.” This attention was meant to counter the lecture and memorization/recitation methods that had dominated schooling. Actual practice in writing, as opposed to memorizing rules and tropes (Kitzhaber), was recognized as a “natural” application of these ideas. Nevertheless, theorizing learning as an individual activity ran into conflict with emerging “social” theories of instruction, just as they do now, though more fundamental conflict came from the expense and time needed to truly take into consideration each individual’s need and tailor instruction accordingly. Overall, this movement to radically re-theorize how students best learn was tempered by the power of the status quo to resist change and offers an example of what might be required for any reform to take hold.)

(Speaker 2 presents another key moment in the reform of writing instruction, the late 1970s and early 1980s, partially triggered when Newsweek declared in 1975 that “Johnny Can’t Write” and the National Endowment for the Humanities decided to
respond to that “crisis” by making substantial amounts of money available for faculty development. These NEH seminars are perhaps best known for bringing together compositionists for intense study (Daly Goggin), but a less-well-known legacy is for disciplinary faculty who were deeply involved in learning to teach with writing at their home institutions. Through the NEH grants hundreds of faculty across the disciplines were introduced to new theories and practices of teaching writing, took part in crossdisciplinary and interdisciplinary collaborations informed by humanistic studies, and, as a result, thought deeply about the place of the humanities in higher education alongside colleagues they might have never otherwise met on their own campuses. Nevertheless, at many institutions, the silo-ization and curricularization of education meant once the funding was over, programs were abandoned, and faculty who had been thinking and teaching together returned to their home departments and any changes in teaching, however significant (and faculty do note significant changes), were confined to the single faculty person’s classrooms rather than affecting teaching and learning at the departmental or institutional level. The effects of this reform effort, then, might be powerful for an individual participant, but the long-lasting legacy of innovation at the institutional or professional (or even disciplinary) level is far more mixed.

(Speaker 3 examines a series of important though little-known studies of student writing carried on over a thirty-year period, 1895-1925, the very time when composition was undergoing dramatic growth and eventually becoming confined to borderline status within English. These studies, conducted at Harvard, Berkeley, Washington, and other colleges, all examined the writing of entering first-year students in order to determine how to teach them more effectively. Colleges at that time were faced with a dramatic rise in enrollment, particularly of what they regarded as underprepared students. They quite naturally looked for ways of determining how best to meet the problem of poor writers in first year English, then and now the largest single course in the college curriculum.)

13) Meta-analysis of Writing Interventions for Elementary School Children

(There is a comprehensive search of the literature was conducted to identify published and unpublished studies where (a) participants were elementary school students; (b) a pre- and post-test quasi-experimental or experimental design with a control group was used; (c) writing quality was measured reliably; (d) the independent variable was a writing intervention; and (e) data were available for computing an effect size.)

(If a treatment was studied in 4 or more studies, we report an average weighted effect size and confidence interval using a random effects model. We further examined if effect sizes were moderated by genre tested, type of study (experiment versus quasi-experimental study), locale (urban, suburban, and rural), and quality of study.)

(This is the first meta-analysis focusing specifically on elementary grade students.)
14) A Social Justice Imperative in International/Transnational Cultural Interactions

(As the field of professional and technical communication expands internationally and is complicated by the forces of postmodern globalization and transnational challenges, it is increasingly confronted not only with complex issues of cultural and linguistic difference but also issues of power and ideological transformation relating to the production, deployment of, and access to technical and communication products and systems in which professional and technical communicators have vital roles. An inescapable concern that rises is how to ethically localize information and technology products for cross-cultural consumption. And, although localization is being vigorously explored in other fields, the field of professional and technical communication has paid it little attention, despite the importance of documentation and other modes of information transfer in localization practices.

Research in the field is (still) rife on how practices in localization place too much emphasis on business priorities to the neglect of important cultural concerns of target audiences, raising concerns about social justice and cultural sensitivity with respect to those with whom technical communicators do business. This neglect of important user concerns raises important issues: (i) designers of information and technology products may be better able to control the aesthetics of printed online and technical documents but may not be able to understand and conduct businesses with overseas markets and (ii) these practices may skirt the issue of culture and, inevitably, do a lot of injustice to those cultures for whom this communication is meant. Currently, one particular area that has not received the kind of critical attention it deserves is the impact—more specifically, the ethical and moral consequences—of the distribution of documentation/information and technology products on target cultures. This concern with its attendant issues of identity transformation, social justice, language loss, and cultural death are crucial issues begging for fuller exploration and investigation.)

(In response, using a decolonial theoretical framework, this presentation reports the findings and implications of a case study research that investigates issues of cultural identity transformation in the production, distribution, and use of documentation that accompanies sexuophamaceuticals that are imported (both legally and illegally) into Ghana from China, to ascertain the effectiveness (or otherwise) of the documentation used in helping users use the products.)

(As part of my presentation, I will provide a theoretical framework of how decolonial theory and methodologies should inform research projects that study technological expertise and information/technology transfers, including undergraduate and graduate rhetoric and technical communication curricular and pedagogical practices that support a broadened scope of cultural literacy.) (Second, I will propose a heuristic of how both the fields of rhetoric studies and professional and technical communication could guard against a de-contextual ethnographic inscription of transnational communities.) (Finally, with its social justice imperative, the presentation will offer a model for destabilizing and transgressing the hegemonic domains of thought and knowledge-power structures that ignore, silence, exploit, or negate the technological literacies and experiential knowledges of colonized cultures and communities.
15) Critical Ethnography---the Client and Outside Consultant: A Case Study from South Africa

(In many parts of the world, foreign writing consultants are asked to assist colleges and universities to develop academic literacy courses that will be appropriate for the students and the contexts in which they are studying. However, for a number of reasons (cultural, linguistic, contextual), this can become a challenging task for the both the outside consultant and, in time, for the university client(s).) (In this presentation, the client will describe his South African university context and his expectations for the project conducted during the outside consultant’s Senior Fulbright at his campus. Then, the consultant, using the lens of critical ethnography, will respond (about herself) to the questions that Madison (2003, p. 4) argues researchers should pose as they conduct their work: How do we reflect upon and evaluate our own purposes, intentions, and frames (as we approach our work)? How do we predict the consequences or evaluate our own potential to do harm? How do we create and sustain a dialogue of collaboration between ourselves and those in the context with whom we are working? How—in what location or through what intervention—will our work make the greatest contribution to equity, freedom, and justice?) (The client will conclude with his evaluation of the work completed in light of the university context and needs.)

16) Opening up the ‘Opaque Box’ of Climate-Change Argumentation: Overcoming Discursive Barriers to Comprehension and Dialogue

(The discursive complexity of argumentation on the reality, impacts, and remediation of human-caused global climate change poses a major obstacle for deliberative dialogue. Combining multiple discourses and meanings—such as those of science, economics, technology, social justice, and governance—climate-change argumentation can be difficult to understand and evaluate for policy-makers, activists, disciplinary specialists, and citizens alike, with the result that potentially constructive discussion often ends in polarized debate (Hulme, 2009; Smart, in press). This is a particularly significant problem in the case of multi-lateral negotiations among national governments where, in addition to the complexities generally inherent in most instances of climate-change argumentation, the official positions (or macro-arguments: Toulmin, 1959) on climate change advanced by individual governments are shaped by a host of unseen historical, socio-cultural, and ideological influences.)

(This paper describes the work of an international and interdisciplinary team of researchers from Canada and Hong Kong who are attempting to open up the ‘opaque box’ of argumentation that characterizes the debate on climate change, with the aim of rendering instances of this argumentation more comprehensible and open to evaluation for policy-makers, citizens, and other stakeholders in the debate. On one level of inquiry, the researchers are investigating, in a broad-spectrum way, the discursive complexity of instances of climate-change argumentation produced by a wide variety of social actors. On a second, more specific level of inquiry, the researchers are investigating the official positions on climate-change advanced in multi-lateral international negotiations by the governments of Canada and the United States in North America and the governments of Hong Kong, China, and India in Asia, while at the same time...
exploring the distinctive set of historical, socio-cultural, and ideological factors shaping
the position of each government.))

(With regard to methodology, the researchers are using a neo-Foucauldian
discourse-analytic approach (Waitt, 2005; Sharp & Richardson, 2001) to investigate the
ways in which instances of climate-change argumentation produced by various social
actors draw on and combine a range of discourses—scientific, political, bureaucratic,
economic, legal, moral, aesthetic, to name several. In studying the official positions on
climate change advanced in multi-lateral international negotiations by the five
governments mentioned above, the researchers are employing an analytic framework
that draws on four theoretical sources: Hajer’s (1995) ‘argumentative discourse analysis’
notion of ‘habitus’, viewed on the level of the collective rather than the individual agent,
and an adaptation of Goffman’s (1959) metaphor of ‘front-stage’ versus ‘back-stage’
discursive behavior.)) (This framework is being used to analyze a large and diverse
collection of qualitative data—texts of various types as well as interviews and
ethnographic observations—gathered from organizations such as government agencies,
environmental NGOs, intergovernmental organizations, political parties, policy think
tanks, scientific bodies, business associations, and laboratories in universities and
government research institutes.))

17) Explaining Knowledge Change through Writing

((Problem solving models of writing (e.g. Bereiter and Scardamalia, 1987)
attribute the development of understanding through writing to deliberate planning
designed to satisfy rhetorical goals. By contrast, Galbraith (2009) claims that the
development of understanding depends on the spontaneous formulation of thought during
text production.)) ((The first experiment of my PhD project was designed to test these
contrasting predictions by asking writers varying in the extent to which their writing was
assumed to be directed towards rhetorical goals to write either planned or non-planned
texts.))

((42 high self-monitors (whose writing is assumed to be directed towards
rhetorical goals) and 42 low self-monitors (whose writing is assumed not to be directed
towards rhetorical goals) were asked to write an article for the university newspaper.
Half the participants were asked to make an outline before writing (planned text
production) while the other half were asked to write down a single sentence summing up
their overall opinion (non-planned text production). We used the latter as a control
planning condition which we defined as synthetic planning. To assess the development of
understanding, participants were asked to list ideas and to rate their understanding of the
topic both before and after writing. To assess the extent to which content was modified
during text production, keystroke logs were collected during writing (Leijten & Van
Waes, 2006).))

((The problem solving models predict that high self-monitors writing outline
planned texts should experience greater developments of understanding and should show
more evidence of text modification during writing. By contrast, Galbraith’s dual process
model predicts that low self-monitors writing synthetically planned texts should
experience greater developments of understanding and should show more evidence of
text modification during writing.

(This experiment showed three important results. First, writers reported
significantly more development of understanding after synthetic than after outline
planned writing. Secondly, a measure of the extent to which writers modified their text
during text production showed that low self-monitors writing synthetically planned text
showed much higher levels of text modification during writing than the high self-
monitors writing outline planned texts. Third, developments of understanding within the
synthetic planning condition were significantly related to the extent of text modification
during writing.)

(These results are broadly compatible with Galbraith’s dual process model
insofar as the development of understanding was strongly related to the extent to which
writers modified their texts during writing, and this was highest for low self-monitors
writing synthetically planned texts. However, a key question here is the process by
which text modification occurs during writing. Is it a consequence of the spontaneous
formulation of thought in language, or of a more deliberate planning and rhetorical
evaluation of sentences as they are produced? In order to examine this, a more detailed
analysis of the key-stroke logging data is currently in progress, the results of which will
also be discussed in the paper.)

18) Pedagogical Memory and the Genre Awareness Project

(In “Pedagogical Memory: Writing, Mapping, Translating,” Susan C. Jarratt et
al report on a study aimed at discovering what students remembered of their early college
writing instruction and the extent to which they were able to transfer what they had
learned to subsequent writing tasks. One insight obtained from their study is that most of
the students lacked what they refer to as “pedagogical memory” – that is, students were
unable “to identify genres beyond the most basic (‘research paper’) or to distinguish
modes of development, such as summary and development” (48). Based on this study,
the authors recommend helping students “translate discourses about writing as they move
from one academic site to another” (46), acquiring the awareness and terminology that
will maximize the possibility of transfer.)

(In the context of the focus of the Jarratt et al study, my presentation will report on the “Genre Awareness Project,” a project that aims
to help students acquire familiarity with relevant genre based terminology that can foster
literacy transfer and trigger pedagogical memory. The project was based on the idea
that genre awareness, a term used by Amy Devitt and others, can enable students to make
connections between academic argument, as it is presented in a first year writing class,
and the writing genres they encounter in other disciplines, helping students apply terms
such as exigence, audience, rhetorical situation and rhetorical appeals to other writing
genres.)

(Conducted over two semesters, the project utilized several assignments,
each building upon the other to foster transferability through genre awareness. The first
was an academic essay on a subject of general interest; its goal was to enable students
develop a metacognitive understanding of how writer, audience, text, and rhetorical
situation interact in constructing a genre. The second required students to select a genre
associated with another discipline, analyze the features that characterize that genre, and
write a text in that genre. The results of this study were obtained through pre and post semester surveys, reflective essays, and student interviews.}

((The concepts of pedagogical memory and genre awareness are associated with the concept of transfer, an issue that continues to generate significant scholarly debate. The difficulty of determining what skills transfer from one writing context to another has been noted by Devitt 2007, Freedman 1993, Perkins 1988, Petraglia 1997, and Russell 2002, among others, a perspective most recently reiterated by Downs and Wardle (2009) and Wardle (2009). Others, however, such as Bartholomae 1995, Beaufort 2007, Bizzell 2002, LeCourt 2006, and Thaiss and Zawacki 2006, suggest that “genre awareness” can be useful in fostering transfer. Beaufort argues that talking about genres can facilitate students’ meta-cognitive reflection” (188), a view that corresponds to Devitt’s definition of genre awareness as “a critical consciousness” of genre (192).))

(this presentation will discuss the extent to which the genre awareness project has been successful in providing students with terminology that will enable them to access pedagogical memory, understand genre distinctions among disciplines, and distinguish transferable components of writing from those that are context specific.)

19) Critical Thinking and the Basic Writer: Problems, Paradoxes, and Prescriptions

((This presentation will begin with an analysis of research and recent theory to demonstrate how critical thinking is less a determinable process or set of procedures than a constellation of attitudes, habits of mind, role relations, and participation motives. Drawing on recent longitudinal studies and my own classroom-based research, it will further demonstrate why college instruction in critical thinking in composition classes—particularly for basic writers—needs to be focused not on a set of discrete skills for thinking, but on helping students to take on the roles and identities of persons who are critical thinkers. It will then present and unpack the paradoxical fact that basic writers among all college students are often the ones who in their courses must of necessity exercise the highest levels of critical thinking. It will conclude with an analysis of two samples of student writing to show how exercises requiring students to think about their own thinking foster critical thinking and a disposition to think critically in reading and writing.))

((Research Questions: (1) What kinds of thinking are our students doing that seem to represent an insufficiency in thought? (2) What kinds of thinking are we trying to foster in them that are different from the kinds they are already doing? (3) What sorts of learning must our students experience to become persons who exhibit the forms of thinking that are rewarded by the academic community?))

20) Comparing the semantic prosodies and preferences of lexical bundles in history writing in English and Spanish

((The study of recurrent word combinations such as lexical bundles has become the focus of many corpus-based studies in the last decade. Biber, Johansson, Leech,
Conrad, & Finegan (1999) defined lexical bundles as sequences of three or more words that occur frequently in a register.)

(This presentation reports the findings of a study which analyzed the use of lexical bundles in two one million-word corpora of published history writing. One corpus was made up of history articles written in English and published in American journals, and the other was made up of history articles written in Spanish from Argentinean publications. The most frequent 4-word lexical bundles were identified in each corpus and classified structurally and functionally. Then, the use of these bundles was compared across languages.)

(The results of this comparison showed that the bundles identified in each language had many features in common. One group of bundles could be considered the result of a direct translation (literal translation or close synonym translation). A second group of bundles showed structural characteristics that are closely related to bundles frequently found in academic writing in both languages. Finally, a functional classification showed that some bundles from both languages shared functions connected to academic prose and to the essence of the discipline, as well as to the topics discussed in the publications from where the texts had been extracted.)

(Currently, our comparison focuses on semantic prosodies and semantic preferences of lexical bundles across languages (Xiao & McEnery, 2006). Those bundles identified as literal translation or quasi literal translation bundles are being analyzed for semantic prosodies. Several bundles showed similarities in the positive or negative prosodies expressed in the surrounding discourse. A second procedure has been designed to continue with a semantic analysis of these contexts. For this purpose, a taxonomy that reflects the domains frequently referred to in these contexts is currently being designed out of the examples identified in both languages. Similarities and differences will be analyzed and illustrated with samples from the English and Spanish corpora in the fall of 2010.)

(The proposed presentation will introduce various pedagogical applications of the findings of the present project, implications for translation studies, and suggested paths for future research.)

21) An analysis of critical attitude in L1 and L2 English research article introductions: a quantitative and qualitative analysis

(English has no doubt become the language of publication in the academia. Most high impact journals are nowadays published in English, and getting one’s research accepted in any of them is a great concern for scholars worldwide, included Spanish ones. Intercultural text-based research has shown remarkable differences in the rhetorical structure and style of several academic genres written and read in different linguistic/cultural contexts of publications, including the Spanish local context and the English international context (e.g. Martín Martín, 2003, 2005; Salager Meyer et al., 2003; Martín Martín & Burgess, 2004; Moreno, 2004; Lorés, 2006, 2009a, 2009b; Mur Dueñas 2007, 2010; Moreno & Suárez, 2008, 2009; Suárez & Moreno, 2008; Sheldon 2009).
Less research has focused on the analysis of L2 English academic texts written by scholars and the actual discursive difficulties non-native scholars have when drafting their research articles for publication in international high impact journals. 

Drawing on corpus-based analysis and ethnographic methods (Lillis 2008) I intend to carry out an analysis of the frequency and type of critical acts referring to other authors’ research and to the authors’ own research in the research article introductions in the field of Finance published in three highly prestigious journals. I will then compare the results with the frequency and type of critical acts included in the manuscripts written by a group of Spanish scholars and which have many times required major revision or have been rejected for publication in those same journals. It is my aim to explore to what extent a deviant use of critical attitude from what seems to be the norm in those journals may hinder these Spanish scholars’ publication of their research in an international context.

Also, the feedback they received from editors and reviewers will be looked into, which will help unveil the importance given to critically analysing previous research and highlighting the contribution of the research for the field at the very beginning of the paper. The findings will be of great relevance to gain an insight into the rhetorical preferences in the best known sites of publication in the field of Finance as well as to uncover some important rhetorical difficulties that non-native (Spanish) scholars undergo when attempting to disseminate their research internationally in this field.

22) Academic book reviews in English and Spanish: is “giving reasons for critical comments” a universal politeness strategy?

(A crucial purpose of academic journal book reviews is to evaluate the scholarly work of a professional peer (Lindholm-Romantschuk, 1998). In the public context of academic book reviewing, critical comments on the academic book under review (henceforth “critical comments”) can be considered potential face-threatening acts (Hyland, 2000). Given the interpersonal conflict that they may cause, it may be wise for reviewers to mitigate their force. 

In the present paper we focus on a politeness strategy that commonly serves reviewers to redress the force of the face-threatening acts potentially caused, i.e. giving reasons for evaluative comments (Gea Valor and del Saz Rubio, 2000-2001). We aim to provide insight into the extent to which scholars from different but comparable writing communities justify their critical comments with supporting reasons. 

Our empirical comparison is based on two comparable corpora of academic journal book reviews of literature, 20 written in British and American English, and 20 in Castilian Spanish (Moreno and Suárez, 2008). 

The results show that, while reviewers in the two corpora offer a substantial amount of unjustified critical comments, these are proportionally more frequent in the Spanish corpus. Also, while the English-speaking reviewers are more inclined to justify negative critical comments than positive ones, the opposite tendency holds for the Castilian Spanish reviewers. An e-mail interview is piloted to see whether responses from reviewers to an open-ended question on these issues could reveal any explanatory information. 

Implications for intercultural rhetoric (Connor, 2004), politeness theory (O’Driscoll’s, 1996) and English for Academic Purposes (Swales and Feak, 2004) are drawn.)
23) The Chairman writes about the crisis: Conveying negative messages in the Chairman’s Statement of US and Spanish Annual Reports

( Teaching English for specific purposes often entails the difficulty of finding real and interesting materials to use in the classroom. Annual Reports (ARs) combine several characteristics that make them a suitable genre for this aim: they are relevant in a variety of disciplines (accountancy, law, business organisation, human resources…), are easily available, and have heterogeneous contents. Among the several sections of ARs, the Chairman’s Statement, a personal communication signed by the Chairman of the company which is often placed at the beginning of the report, plays an important role as the first contact between the writer and the reader. In this document, usually the highest authority in a company summarizes its development during the previous twelve months for the shareholders and other stakeholders. Several studies have been carried out regarding ARs (Myers 1996, 1999; Thomas 1997), and even Chairman’s Statements (Gillaerts 1996; Skulstad 1996, 2005; Garzone 2005; Nickerson and de Groot 2005). The global economic crisis has recently affected most — if not all — important companies. The Stock Exchange market has continued working and most companies have remained in the lists. However, the ups and downs of the Stock Exchange have caused dramatic fluctuations in the value of their shares. In addition, low demand of products has also affected turnover and, consequently, benefits. 

Our questions at this point are: How are companies coping with negative situations? How are they re-creating their own image to avoid being negatively affected?

With both questions in mind, our aim is to analyse the rhetoric devices used by the writers of the Chairman’s Statement to give the best image of the company when dealing with the negative messages the current economic crisis may convey. With this objective, a corpus of 50 Chairman’s Statements (25 from U.S. and 25 from Spanish companies ARs from the last two years) have been compiled and analysed. To start with, moves previously identified in this genre will be applied to establish the structure of these Statements. Then, how the identity of the company is created will be looked at by identifying several devices such as personal pronouns, salutations, promotional language or personal comments. Finally, and as our main aim, we will show how Chairman’s Statements have dealt with the bad news of the crisis and how they have mitigated them or made them sound positive in US and Spanish ARs.

Our hypothesis is that despite the bad economic situation the global economy (or even the company’s) is going through, the Chairman’s Statement will have a positive tone trying to disregard any negative message. Finally, some pedagogical implications are drawn from this research and its results.

24) A Cross-Linguistic Analysis of Patient Narratives

The Indiana Center for Intercultural Communication (ICIC) is currently completing a study funded by the Eli Lilly & Co. Foundation to improve the understanding of self-managing a chronic disease through discourse analysis of diabetes patients’ own words. The purpose of this research was to focus on the patient, and the patients’ own words, as we explore the effects of literacy, patient life attitudes, health beliefs, and demographic factors upon adherence to medical regimens.)

ICIC
completed 43 English language interviews and 22 Spanish language interviews, yielding a wealth of both quantitative data on demographics, medication adherence, diabetes knowledge, and literacy practices; and qualitative data from recorded patient narratives of their diagnosis, treatment, and experiences with self-management. Analyses were directed into three main areas: 1. the relationships among information sources, knowledge creation, and action as determined by literacy practices and patients’ own accounts; 2. the identification of linguistic realizations of patients’ health beliefs and world views, their confidence to act, their attitudes and emotions, and the relation of these variables to adherence and health outcomes; and 3. the examination of linguistic and cultural differences between American-born and immigrant Spanish-speaking patients in health literacy practices and related adherence.)

((In this presentation, I will discuss the differences found between Spanish and English interview transcripts in terms of patients’ access to written health information, health beliefs, and patients’ confidence to act to improve their health. ((Implications of this text analysis research for the composition and production of more effective patient communication materials will be discussed.)))

25) Using Transnational Partnerships to Promote a Global Research Agenda and Identity: An Analysis of Policy and Working Conditions at an U.S. and Bangladeshi University

(© Canagarajah (1996) and others (Gosden, 1992; Gibbs, 1995; Flowerdew, 1999; Wood, 2001; Scully and Jenkins, 2006) have pointed to the material and discursive barriers preventing scholars from the developing world from greater participation in global communities of research.) (© This paper analyzes policies in place at both U.S. and Bangladeshi universities that impact the building of collaborative research partnerships in the context of the unique history of Bangladesh and the recent rise of English medium private universities there.)

(© Roughly the size of Wisconsin, Bangladesh is a Muslim majority country of 155 million people and a per capita income of 621USD. Despite tremendous challenges, Bangladesh has made major investments in education and in recent years has seen an explosion of the private university sector in response to an immense need for increased capacity as more students meet the requirements for university admission. Since 2000, nearly 50 private universities have been founded, almost all in the capital city of Dhaka. In response to global market pressures, nearly all of these universities are English medium.

Operating in a context where there is very weak accreditation oversight and high levels of corruption, many of these new universities cultivate international partnerships as a way to establish legitimacy. More recently, the more ambitious and well established of these private universities have begun to push faculty to engage in research and to publish in English. This shift in policy seeks to transform teaching faculties into research faculties, offering support for local conferences and journals and encouraging individual faculty to conceptualize themselves as researchers as well as teachers despite limited resources, heavy teaching loads, and few doctorates. This new policy focus has had limited results, creating vibrant local communities of scholars engaged in writing research, but ones that remain largely isolated and not well integrated into a global body
of work. Ironically, through a very different history and set of institutional conditions, many American researchers of writing have also remained isolated and not well integrated into a global body of work.

Growing out of an established partnership between an U.S. and Bangladeshi university that seeks to address this parochialism and contribute through sustained engagement to the formation of global research agenda and identity, this study looks to identify policies that can better create conditions promoting authentic collaboration while acknowledging significant institutional asymmetries.

In doing so this study develops two sources of data: first a review of policy documents covering such issues as promotion, teaching loads, software licensing, and library borrowing privileges, and second, fieldwork in Bangladesh involving interviews and direct observation.

26) Developing Transcultural Identity in U.S. Student Writers

(This paper builds on research by such diverse scholars as Paul Matsuda (2001), Nedra Reynolds (2004) and Eileen Schell (2006), and reports on the second phase of a transcultural and transnational research project involving student writers at the University of Michigan-Dearborn and the Université Blaise Pascal - Clermont-Ferrand, France.)

In the first phase of this project, the reflections of U.S. second-language writing students, who had completed Skype-mediated peer reviews of writing done by their French peers, suggested that the concept of rhetorical location – which Schell defines as “the notion that a rhetor speaks or writes from a particular location in time and space to a particular audience” – is especially helpful for U.S. second-language and multilingual writers.

Pedagogical strategies mobilizing this concept help to increase L2 students’ confidence by increasing their awareness that forging an effective relationship with a particular audience – for any writer – often also involves articulating a relationship to the culture and language of the particular nation-state in which they find themselves, albeit a relationship that is never a given but rather complex and changing over time and through space.

(The focus of this paper is the second phase of the same project, which builds on the work of scholars such as Matsuda as well as Min-Zhan Lu and Bruce Horner (2009) and Lisa Eck (2008). In this phase, L1, L2 and Generation 1.5 students in an advanced expository writing class at the University of Michigan-Dearborn collaborated in a series of interview exchanges (mediated by Skype) with Masters level students in France.)

(These exchanges raise important questions for U.S. higher education broadly, e.g., about curricular and pedagogical approaches aimed at addressing (for students and policy makers) the practical relevance of a broad-based liberal arts education. As significantly, however, these exchanges raise important questions for writing research aimed at helping students increase their awareness of their own rhetorical locations within both local and global contexts, as well as raising important questions for writing
research aimed at helping students see themselves as engaged participants within a
globalized, public sphere.)

27) Raising Awareness of L1/L2 Writer Identity through Intercultural
Exchange

(One particular difficulty encountered by L2 writers is the need to construct a
writerly identity and subsequent voice in another language that may be quite different
from the one in which they were raised and educated, and of which they may not even be
aware. Raising their awareness of their own cultural assumptions as writers and learners
is therefore as important in shaping writer competence as is helping them to see the
'surface' linguistic and rhetorical differences between their L1 and their L2. Drawing on
a rich research tradition established by scholars who have long examined the interplay
between writing competence and cultural identity, including but not limited to Helen Fox

this study will present results from an ongoing international writing research project
involving collaboration between undergraduate and graduate writers from two
universities: Blaise Pascal University in Clermont-Ferrand (France) and the University of
Michigan-Dearborn.) (A previous phase of the study (Willard-Traub, 2010, Dressen-
Hammouda, 2010) examined the effects of the intercultural peer review on the
developing writing strategies of second year students at the two universities, looking in
particular at how the peer review exchange allowed each group to gain a better
understanding of the need to construct their voices for an international audience.

In the current phase, we are studying the effects of the intercultural interview between
advanced undergraduate students (U. Mich) and graduate students in intercultural
technical communication (UBP), as it pertains to their growing awareness of cultural
voice, identity, and the constraints of writing for international audiences.

Because voice and writer identity are both socially and culturally situated, the intercultural
interview brings students to reflect on their multiple identities (social, cultural and
personal) and how these identities come to be portrayed in their own and others’
writing.)

28) Metaphors of Writing and Intersections with Jamaican Male Identity

(The speakers propose to consider how metaphors that a group of Jamaican
male university students use to describe writing suggest their desire to gain mastery in
their academic and personal pursuits.) (The speakers will draw on data from a
semester-long qualitative enquiry that was designed to provide a channel – in the form of
conversations and written reflections – through which a selected group of male university
students could share their perspectives on writing prior to, during, and after their
completion of a first-year writing course. This study was designed as one means to
address the resultant concerns about Jamaican male students’ underperformance in
writing in university courses and in national and regional examinations. The presenters
acknowledge that although one cannot generalize from qualitative studies, the findings
could provide useful insight for other writing course designers/instructors with similar concerns.)

(In the data analysis, each male student’s metaphor of writing helped the researchers to get a deeper understanding of his realities and how he sees writing as a part of his realities. Lakoff and Johnson’s (1980) work on metaphors proved useful. Lakoff and Johnson assert that metaphors can reflect attitudes about what they describe and include motives for behavior. Identification of such attitudes through metaphor analysis can involve analyzing the tenor (the subject) or the vehicle (the frame or lens), with the frequency or intensity of tenors and vehicles providing clues about the individual’s worldview.)

(In the study, “writing” is the tenor and the vehicle is the image each male student uses to describe writing. The images the participants use suggest their desire to obtain mastery in English and writing. Images such as double-edged sword, obstacle, mirror, and swimming through rough waters reflect a complex layering of the male students’ desire to control their private, intellectual, and public worlds. The participants think writing is extremely important in the control for which they strive in their different worlds, but as they seek empowerment they struggle. For Jamaican males, struggle and control are particularly interesting. Chevannes (1999) reported that Jamaican males pass on knowledge to each other using their own language, values and meanings. Another researcher suggests that, in their talk-driven events, males also create their own rules. They are in total control (A. Grant, personal communication, April 10, 2005). Hence, they experience difficulties when they are required to adhere to the conventions of formal language that is required in classrooms. In this structured context, males struggle to come to terms with the fact that their power and control are subordinate to the teacher’s.)

(The research findings confirm Evans’s (1999; 2001) suggestion that Jamaican males may wrestle with written literacy development because of the conventional and traditional ways in which it is facilitated. However, the findings also indicate a need to critically analyze male students’ desire to conquer and control writing in order to excel in it. Therefore, the speakers propose that an understanding of male students’ metaphors of writing could inform educators’ efforts to diversify writing courses.)

American Association of Applied Linguistics 2012 Conference

1) Native-speaker perception as the sum of its parts: Specific linguistic and affective variables in Spanish native-speaker evaluations of learner phonology

(This study investigated Spanish-NS perception of accent in learner speech in conjunction with both linguistic processes occurring within speech samples and attitudinal variables specific to each NS listener.) (Both areas showed statistically
significant relationships with accentedness ratings, and a hierarchy of saliency arose from the analyses of segmental consonantal commentary.

2) Predictors of Age-Related Differences in Native Speaker Listening

\(\text{(This paper explores if and how native speakers' 1) linguistic knowledge, 2) processing speed, and 3) general cognitive ability account for individual differences in listening comprehension. Moreover, it examines whether the relative contributions of these three factors differ as a function of age.)\)

3) Strategic processing in academic lectures by ESL international postgraduate students at an Australian university

\(\text{(This presentation reports on a mixed-methods study examining strategic processing during academic lectures by international ESL students at an Australian university. The present study sheds light on strategic processes during academic lectures and provides implications for teaching and further research.) \text{(Pedagogical implications and further research will be discussed.)}}\)

4) Gesture Use in “Balanced Bilinguals” – A New Piece of the Puzzle?

\(\text{(This study takes a qualitative look at how bilinguals’ gesture patterns can be used to enhance our understanding of what constitutes a ‘balanced’ bilingual by analyzing their gestures in the context of motion events in typologically distinct languages. Differences between bilinguals are discussed in light of traditional measures of bilingualism.)}\)

5) Relationship between Gesture Type and Segmental Duration in the Speech of Teachers of Japanese

\(\text{(Co-speech gesture was explored in videorecordings of three native-speakers of Japanese teaching L1 English adults. Using Anvil, minimal pair stimuli contrasting vowel or consonant length were coded for gesture type: head nods, hand gestures, combined, none.) \text{(Head nods were significantly associated with long vowels and hand gestures with short vowels.)}}\)

6) Crops, Corpora, and Collocations of Closed-Class Keywords – Applied Linguistics and Interdisciplinary Agricultural Research

\(\text{(Collaborating researchers on an interdisciplinary research project were shown word clouds of the collocational environments of three closed-class keywords derived from a corpus of research articles in seven contributory disciplines.) \text{(Results revealed differences between researchers' intuitive knowledge and the empirically-derived maps of disciplinary epistemologies.)}}\)

7) Linguistic Characteristics of Nurse-Patient Interactions: A Corpus-Based Comparison of Native and Non-native English Speaking Nurses
(This corpus-based study examines linguistic characteristics of interactions between nurses and patients, focusing on quantitative differences in the language use of native and nonnative English speaking nurses.) (Preliminary results suggest nonnative English speaking nurses use fewer discourse markers, hedges, and other features associated with creating patient rapport.))

8) The Function of Stance Markers in the Workplace: Comparison of Two Workplace Corpora in New Zealand and the United States
((We report on the use of stance markers in workplace discourse using the ANAWC United States workplace corpus and the LWP corpus collected in New Zealand.) (Our results focus on differences and similarities in the frequency and function of stance markers between NZ and US English and within workplace discourse.))

9) Tracking the development of lexical diversity in Intensive English Program Students in the US
((This paper reports on a study of lexical diversity from a 4 million + word corpus in an intensive English program.) (Results suggest that diversity, measured by ‘D’, increases reliably, but that more attention needs to be paid to academic vocabulary at the higher frequency bands of the BNC.))

10) The Discursive Construction of Chinese Applicants to an Applied Linguistics Program in the United States
((An urgent issue for US universities is how to evaluate a surging number of applications from Chinese students facing unfamiliar rhetorical expectations, particularly in the personal statement.)
(The paper analyzes 85 MATESOL applications, exploring constructions of candidates for an imagined US context and suggests how these texts came into being.))

11) Holistic and Dynamic Motivational Mind-Time Frames
((Over 300 Japanese undergraduates took three formative surveys for a holistic analysis of their English-related selfconcepts of past, present, and future selves. These emerging, nonlinear motivations were assumed as part of a dynamic system, with the classroom as an evolving, open network of socio-psychological influences that can be positively stimulated.))

12) The Effect of Languaging on Korean Students' L2 Learning Motivation: A Classroom-based Mixed methods Approach
((This study extends the notion of languaging to L2 motivation. Based on Dörnyei's L2 Motivational Self-System, I analyze the effect of languaging on students'
motivational changes. Written languaging was proven to significantly increase students' motivation.\textbf{(The findings imply that languaging activity can be implemented for enhancing and maintaining students' motivation.)}

13) Reanchoring the “Cognitive” vs. “Social” Divide: The Functional Stratification of Language and the Textuality of Acquisition

\textbf{(This paper is an attempt at providing another conceptual clarification on the “cognitive” vs. “social” divide in SLA.)} \textbf{(Such functional strata as (1) “referential” and “reflexive” capacities of language, and (2) “presupposing” and “entailing” indexicalities in communication are introduced in order to identify the foci of each theoretical imagination.)}

14) Foreign Language Learning, Motivation, and Anxiety in African-American College Students

\textbf{(This study examined the differences in motivation and anxiety levels among African-Americans attending Predominantly White Universities (PWI) counter to those attending Historically Black Colleges/Universities (HBCU).)} \textbf{(Results are based on students completing a modified version of the Academic Motivation Scale (AMS) (Vallerand, 1992) and the Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale (FLCAS).)}

15) Hybrid Competence: An Analysis of Peer Language Use With Multilingual Learners

\textbf{(Analysis of multilingual Singaporean students’ use of language during peer learning tasks found that students demonstrated pragmatic and hybrid competence in their linguistic decisions, involving a matrix of different varieties, uses, and societal/individual practices.)} \textbf{(We argue that their overall competence should be seen as a ‘hybridized variety’.)}

16) An Exploration of EFL Learners' Symbolic Competence

\textbf{(Rather than categorizing interlocutors in intercultural interactions simply as the binary notion, Self and Others, this study employs the concept of English as a lingua franca and a symbolic perspective of intercultural competence to discuss how EFL learners’ subjective aspects and emotional effects affect their intercultural performance.)}

17) Developing Critical Cultural Awareness through Very Early Foreign Language Learning

\textbf{(Is development of critical cultural awareness possible among the youngest of foreign language learners?)} \textbf{(Micro-ethnographic analysis of preschool foreign language learning interactions elucidates how even young learners can analyze and reflect on language, culture, and the relationship between the two, and) (in so doing advances Byram’s theory of intercultural competence.)}
18) Toward an Understanding of Linguistic Diversity in Preservice Teachers
   (Interactions representing many cultures creates an increased necessity for
   teachers to obtain intercultural communicative competence.) (This study investigated
   beliefs and knowledge about language that influence a teacher’s instruction; specifically
   how they use language in the classroom.) (Findings revealed how preservice teachers
   view language use in the classroom.)

19) What Do You Mean by Language Objectives? - Working with content
area classroom teachers for linguistically responsive instruction
   (This paper examines K-12 teacher development that targets linguistic
   sensitivity of K-12 teachers across the curriculum. It addresses
   the question of how a functional linguistic approach directs the design and implementation of teacher
   development activities to help teachers instruct academic language at the vocabulary,
   sentence, and discourse levels.)

20) A Systemic Functional Linguistic Analysis of Teacher Language Use in
an Urban Middle School
   (This presentation uses Martin’s Appraisal Theory (Martin and White, 2005) to
trace the language use of teachers of science in an urban public middle school classroom
predominated by ESL students.) (It displays a dialogically contractive engagement and
negative appraisal, both graduated by force, of these students.)

21) Signage in a German Bilingual Program: A Combined Linguistic
Landscape and Nexus Analysis
   (In a combined linguistic landscape and nexus analysis, this paper examines
the signage in a German Bilingual Program to reveal the unique discourse around the nature
of signs in schools and the potential for bottom-up signs to be used as additional language
input in service of the Bilingual Program’s goals.)

22) The True Complexity of Language Learner Silence in Japan: A Mixed-
methods Investigation
   (Through a mixture of classroom observations, semi-structured interviews and
stimulated recalls, this investigation examines the intriguing phenomenon of silence in
Japan’s university second language classrooms.) (Findings are interpreted from a
complexity perspective and suggest that learners' silences emerge through multiple,
competing routes which are supported by the sociocultural context.)

23) Language management in Elementary Schools classrooms in Brazil-
Paraguay border: an ethnographic-based study on teachers' language choices
   (The presentation describes an on-going ethnographic-based research on how
teachers have managed in-contact languages (Guarani, Portuguese and Spanish) in two
Elementary Schools located in the border Brazil-Paraguay.) ((Systematized classroom observation and teachers’ diary-interviews were carried out in order to analyze the teachers’ language choices in classroom planning and management.))

2012 Oregon Rhetoric and Composition Conference

1) Updating our Status as Writing Teachers: Using Students' Online-Writing Skills in the Composition Classroom

((What kinds of writing are our freshmen composition students doing outside the classroom? And, perhaps more importantly, how do we use the skills they’re using to teach writing? From updating their statuses on social network sites like Facebook to keeping blogs rather than journals, today’s students are more tech savvy than ever before and are members of a generation whose literacy narrative is more and more interwoven with technology. As writing teachers, it is our responsibility to be aware of this technology and to find ways to utilize it in our classrooms.))

((This presentation will offer an overview of popular online writing mediums and how students are using them outside the classroom. Specifically, it will focus in on how writing teachers can both integrate this technology in the classroom as well as appeal to the skill-sets associated with using them. I will offer specific tools to use in the classroom as well as cite foundational texts and studies on the current conversation surrounding this field.))

2) Teaching Writing in the Twenty-First Century

((One of the most important and most challenging intersections facing teachers of writing today is the notion of twenty-first century literacies. What exactly is meant by terms like “twenty-first century literacies,” “multimodal literacies,” and “new media texts”? This question has emerged as an important and timely intersection in the teaching of composition. Many teachers of writing have been trained to teach traditional print literacies; however, over the past two decades, teachers and scholars have begun to wonder about the ways that the Internet and new technologies affect modes of composition, and also how new literacies that have sprung up out of these technological advances can be implemented into the writing classroom.))

((This presentation is designed to introduce teachers of writing to some of the most significant opportunities, insights, and challenges that scholars and teachers have identified regarding writing in the twenty-first century, as well as some how gaining a better understanding of such a topic can benefit the everyday teacher of writing.))

((Those who attend this presentation will leave with a clearer understanding of how to navigate the intersection of traditional print literacies and twenty-first century literacies. Throughout the course of the presentation,)) ((I will offer an overview of twenty-first century literacies, introduce attendees to some specific resources like the MacArthur Foundations site for Digital Media and Learning, and propose straightforward assignment ideas for implementing twenty-first century literacies into every writing classroom.))
3) Fresh Eyes on Freshman Composition: Energizing the classroom through techniques that let students ‘be writers’

((In 1990, Robert J. Connors described freshman composition instructors as a “…permanent underclass … oppressed, badly paid, ill-used, and secretly despised.” Depressing words that are possibly more true today than ever before. More and more colleges and universities are hiring part time, temporary instructors where once there were permanent positions, even tenure-track positions. Those of us who feel called to teach composition find ourselves hitting the glass ceiling with force.

Add the fact that freshman composition has always been a particularly difficult course to teach, one that most students are required to take in order to achieve any degree. Working conditions combine with student reluctance to create an environment that anyone would find discouraging, with no relief currently in sight. Connors called for major changes in the way the course is administered, yet it is certain that nothing will change before next term starts. We have gone into survival mode.))

((This paper examines how to motivate ourselves by considering the long standing question of what freshman composition is for. The simple answer—“to teach them to write correctly”—is not enough. What students need has been demonstrated in recent research: a sense of exchange between themselves and their teachers, who represent the college environment.) ((The freshman composition classroom must become a workshop where students experience what it means to be read, heard, and responded to… not a gateway course but a bridge, creating connections that energize teachers and guide students toward what it means to be a college level writer.))

4) Collective knowledge in the composition classroom

((The term begins so easily. Our students are excited about peer reviewing; they are interested to hear what their peers have to say and how they can refine their own writing. As the term progresses, the excitement wanes. Sure, they are doing the work, but are they applying it to their own essays? When the final peer review arrives, the students are clearly mailing it in – filling in the blanks but not thinking outside of the box. As composition teachers, we try to fight this apathy with a range of different strategies. But how can we move our students beyond the siren’s call of the peer review instructions? How can we compel them to critically consider their peer’s arguments?))

((This paper suggests we approach the final peer review with an emphasis on the collective knowledge of the classroom, offering an activity to get our students engaged and responsive to their peer’s work.) ((Ultimately, the reflexive activity will encourage our students to view their peer’s work from a fresh angle, and motivate them to apply what they have learned to their own written work.))

5) Writing Matters: Discovering the Intersections Between Creative Writing and Composition Pedagogies, Or: Ways In Which It’s All the Same

((Wendy Bishop, creative writer and composition scholar, writes, “I can no more imagine being a writing teacher who does not write than I can imagine being one who does not read…I teach writing precisely because I love these two intimately connected activities.” As a creative writer who teaches composition, I identify with Bishop, and am
fascinated by the ways in which the pedagogies of creative writing and composition intersect. In this presentation, I explore the commonalities of these two seemingly disparate writing practices and their pedagogies in order to illuminate the ways in which these pedagogies can inform and enhance one another, rather than continue to exist on separate planes within our minds and classrooms. Bishop advocates for others “to become part of a company of writer-scholar-teachers who aim to make their practices more pleasurable,” and this presentation does the same, by exploring why it’s important for us to stop separating our writer-selves from our teacher-selves. Rather than arguing a particular claim, this presentation utilizes personal reflection and scholarly work to explore pedagogical intersections and generate practical ways to integrate these intersections in both the creative writing and composition classrooms.

6) The Intersection Between Creative and Academic Writing in the Composition Classroom

( (Teaching freshman composition frustrates many. In ten weeks, the instructor must prepare students of widely varying competencies to survive in a challenging academic environment. At the same time, it offers spectacular satisfaction, as instructors witness student epiphanies and occasionally receive eloquent essays.

But the teaching of writing need not be a roller coaster ride. The instructor can diminish frustration while increasing satisfaction simply by using creative writing techniques to engage and encourage students.)

( (For the purpose of this presentation, we will define creative writing expansively: it is not only poetry and fiction but also any informal writing with few academic constraints. Such creative writing achieves several goals in the composition classroom. First, it brings concepts and methods to life. For example, students can set and meet writing goals on low-stakes creative activities before moving on to high-stakes assignments. Second, it enriches academic writing by encouraging style, revision, and close attention to detail. Third, it challenges talented writers by unleashing their creativity while engaging weaker writers with assignments on which they can see success.)

( (For this presentation, I will offer a pragmatic justification for using creative writing in the composition classroom. I will also show how to design creative activities and how to integrate them into existing assignment structures. Finally, I will share a number of successful creative activities.)

7) Writing Naiveté: Forgetting the Past in Spite of the Present

( (Ideology plays an influential role in the classroom. Though heavily prevalent at every level of education, the oppressive, unyielding thumb of public school administration is much more noticeable in secondary education when a student is just beginning to define himself and his relationship to his environment. In this paper, I explore my experiences with an Oregon school district that left me an exile from the standard curriculum and enrolled in an alternative education program called CHOICES. Though intended for at-risk youth, the pedagogical approach of the program fostered an advanced awareness of community and context absent from my previous experiences in
the classroom. In particular, the approach to writing served to develop my voice and sense of self, which allowed me to resist the ideologies classrooms imposed and still jump through the necessary hoops in order to succeed. The lessons I learned in this program have remained with me for years, helping me function more effectively as a student as well as reflect on my current experiences in teaching freshman composition as a graduate student in writing and rhetoric at Oregon State University. (This paper will provide teachers of any level a platform for thoughtfully examining the social and academic pressures created in any given classroom environment, and, in the end, an encouragement to break down the barriers that aim to separate a student from his voice.)

8) Re-approaching Students' Discourses of Faith in a Composition Class

(My paper is about the productive conflict that can arise at the intersections of differing discourses in a composition class. Specifically, my essay discusses the intersection of students' discourses of faith and the expectation of "secular," conventionally academic discourse that many college writing instructors bring to their teaching.

My essay encourages composition instructors to welcome the disruptions that occur when students of faith bring religious discourses into the classroom and use these rhetorics in their essays. (This topic was discussed by Michael-John DePalma in his December 2011 CCC article "Re-envisioning Religious Discourses as Rhetorical Resources in Composition Teaching: A Pragmatic Response to the Challenge of Belief." As DePalma points out, many of our students are evangelical Christians; many students bring the language of their belief into their essays. This was the case with a personal essay written by a student in my fall term 2011 WR 121 class. Uncomfortable with some of the faith-based language in this student's essay, such as "we who are in Christ," I advised the student to remove such language from his essay.

Although the student changed his essay according to my advice in other ways, he chose to keep the faith-based passages, quietly resisting my suggestion and sharpening my awareness that "religion matters to many students" (Hansen 33).

My essay will build on DePalma's essay, and on other scholarship on religion and the teaching of composition, by exploring the ways instructors can create environments where religious and non-religious discourses interact productively.)

9) “We Shouldn’t Have to Read About That”: Television’s Queer Characters and their Implications for Composition Pedagogy

(Increasingly, television series aimed at 14-18-year-olds feature queer characters. While the quantity of these images signifies a certain kind of progress in its own right, these images have implications and consequences not only for the ways in which the LGBT community is understood more broadly, but also for the writing classroom. Queer characters – whose presence could richly complicate any series – are often presented as desexualized, sanitized, and “cute,” signifying a “smoothing out” of potential complexity. While many beginning writers try to mask or ignore complexity, this repetitious and systemic “smoothing out” represents a tacit approval of this tendency. These repeated, overly simplistic queer images have lasting consequences for the ways in which students encounter, think, and write about difficult ideas – particularly for arguments with which
they don’t agree.) (In this multimedia presentation, we’ll explore the gay characters of popular television series among high school and college students and discuss the implications of such images for students’ work as writers.) (As the intersections between television and writing can be wonderfully invigorating in the writing classroom, we’ll also discuss uses of these existing images to inspire, push, and refine critical thinking, as well as how to incorporate these concepts into assignments and in-class exercises.)

10) From Readers to Writers: Analytic Models for Invention in the Composition Classroom

(When we, as writing teachers and composition instructors, assign our students reading, what exactly do we expect them to learn from the particular texts included on our syllabi? Although we might assign an essay or short story for its content or general theme, we typically assign texts that model certain modes of writing. We expect students to observe the writing itself, to interrogate the rhetorical and stylistic moves the author employs. Ultimately, we expect students to convert these observations into strategies which they can employ in their own writing. This conversion, however, does not happen as naturally as we might hope. Encouraging students to see the ways in which they engage analytically with other texts as productive for and applicable to their own writing often requires more of a transition than we expect, and it is with this transition, the shift from reader to writer, that this paper is concerned.) (Considering models of instruction that encourage students to engage analytically with linguistic and structural components of texts, this paper will explore the ways in which such models can act generatively as sources for invention, directly shaping student writing in ways that more effectively bridge the gap between the student as reader and the student as writer.)

11) Forging a Link: Freshman Writing & Criminal Justice

(Linked courses—where writing serves as one of the ‘links’—have a long history in university settings; at the institution where I teach, however, that has not been the case. Although not a typical pairing, two years ago I saw an opportunity to create such a link between an Introduction to Criminal Justice course and Freshman writing, and it has been successfully piloted it over two quarters.) (My presentation will provide an account of how that link came into being (including a discussion of how to recognize a good match between courses), describe the writing assignments that promote cross-disciplinary writing and learning, and analyze classroom pedagogy styles that enhance the content of both courses as well as provide increased comprehension and performance. Consistent with the research on linked courses, our WR-CJ link resulted in additional advantages for students as well, such as higher attendance rates in both courses and a true cohort effect that, as one student put it, “kept me going when I wanted to quit” through the long, uphill battle of the research paper.) (Despite the technical challenges of enrollment, such links are well-worth pursuing for their mutually enhancing effects, not only on students’ psyches but also on their writing.)
12) “A Lifetime of Story Telling:” Developing Professional Identities through Reading and Writing Literacy Narratives Across the Curriculum

(Literacy narratives traditionally have been used as reading and writing assignments in composition classrooms, often as a way to acquaint students with writing at the university level. The value of literacy narratives, however, extends beyond the composition classroom.) (This paper proposes expanding the locations where literacy narratives are used to Writing in the Disciplines (WID) courses.) (In these courses, literacy narratives can act as a bridge between a student’s current identity as a student and their developing identity as a professional in their field. By reading literacy narratives written by professionals and by their peers, students can begin to actively identify and discuss how writing plays an important role in professional identity and communication with others, both within and across disciplines.) (This paper discusses excerpts from example literacy narratives written by professionals like Doris Kearns Goodwin, a respected historian and author, and Julia Whitty, a scientist and documentary filmmaker, both of whom speak directly to the challenges of learning and using the tools of one’s profession in ways that build relationships with others and further the work of the discipline.) (Using the language and theories of New Literacy Studies, this paper proposes a pedagogical framework for teaching literacy narratives across the disciplines and for encouraging students to practice these literacies as they develop as professionals within their fields.)

13) The corner of Buzz and Burke: the rhetoric of science writing

(Over the past century, humanity has moved from charting visible stars to exploring beyond them, from fearing diseases to solving their protein structures, and from scavenging for food to designing it. The knowledge and technology arising from scientific research can no longer remain isolated within its discipline. How science is presented, or failed to be presented, outside of itself has real world consequences in the acceptance or denial of ideas and the implementation or banishment of policy. Writing, although traditionally tasked to the humanities, now has a vital intersection with science.

Along with an increasing amount of scientific information being generated, comes questions of how to present scientific research to the public in a way that is ethical, but also carries the gravity of an issue. Notions from evolution to climate change, though deemed “good science,” have encountered mixed reactions from the public. On one hand, cancer research seems to get unanimous support and on the other space exploration is viewed as expensive and wasteful.) (Setting out with the notion that there is a correlation between appropriate rhetoric and the public’s acceptance of a scientific idea, this paper will further analyze what rhetorical moves make for affective science writing and) (offer improvements for the continuation of this interdisciplinary discourse.)

14) Writing at the Intersection of War and Peace: What Every Writing Instructor Should Know About Veterans with War Injuries

(If President Obama’s stated goal for troop withdrawal is realized, nearly 100,000 American troops will return from the war in Iraq and Afghanistan by the end of 2014. Traumatic brain injuries and post-traumatic stress disorder are considered the...
"signature wounds" of the Iraqi and Afghan wars, and the rate of suicide is higher than it has ever been for returning veterans. Because of the present unemployment crisis and the availability of GI Bill tuition funding, many veterans are entering college and university study to begin a transition to a civilian career. (As a retired military veteran and survivor of military PTSD, M* P* will discuss the implications of psycho-social and cognitive behaviors associated with these "invisible wounds" among war veterans in the writing classroom.) (This presentation will include a description of symptoms and warning signs, the cognitive implications for students learning to write in a university setting, and strategies for reaching injured veterans in meaningful and secure ways.)

15) The Intersection of Student and Source Materials: Better Paraphrasing through Linguistics

(Paraphrasing and incorporating direct quotations are the means through which writers in many genres who work in a wide variety of professional fields incorporate ‘outside information’ into their prose. Though integrating apt quotations into a text is a nuanced skill that students should study and practice, most novice writers at the secondary and post-secondary levels (English Language Learners and native speakers included) find paraphrasing to be the more challenging technique. Furthermore, of these two methods, paraphrasing is used far more frequently in published academic writing. The writing instructor’s task of teaching students to skillfully paraphrase is hardly made easier by the majority of writing handbooks that offer little more than vague injunctions to “put the source text into your own words.” Aside from the theoretical quandary raised by the phrase “your own words,” such advice provides little explanatory guidance to students who are expected to compare example paraphrases to original texts, intuit the kinds of changes performed, and somehow replicate the procedures in their own compositions.) (In this practitioner-based presentation, basic grammatical structure and semantic descriptions will be applied to successful paraphrases in an accessible way in order to understand their transformations of structure and meaning.) (This linguistic understanding will then be applied to the classroom in order to create a list of techniques that instructors can use to teach students how to paraphrase appropriately and confidently.)

16) Owning It: Information Literacy, Autonomy, and the First-Year Writing Classroom

(At many institutions, a central aim of First-Year Composition course work is to help students develop the competence, dexterity, and autonomy required to successfully navigate the demands of 21st century research. In Composition classrooms, however, the goal of developing capable student researchers is often reduced to teaching a set of prescribed skills that emphasize adherence to approved style guides, specific research databases, and clearly delineated mechanics of citation. While such approaches provide students with the tools required to use and document sources in introductory academic projects,) (this paper argues they also undermine efforts to foster students’ versatility and autonomy as writers working in information-rich environments.) (Drawing from current research on student information literacy practices and professional guidelines on
information literacy instruction, **this presentation will** propose a framework for First-Year Composition envisioning information behavior as a series of rhetorical choices, and will recommend classroom activities designed to foster greater student ownership of information practices throughout the writing process.)

17) **Writing at Intersections: Chinese International Students and the Necessity of Enculturation into Academic Argument**

(International student recruitment is growing exponentially and is regarded as a vast source of revenue for colleges and universities across the United States facing budget deficits. At Oregon State University, the INTO/OSU program, which has tripled in size during each of the three years it has existed, recruits several hundred Chinese students each year who are eager to enter OSU's highly-regarded engineering and business graduate programs and undergraduate degree programs. To gain entry, students must complete a three-term "pathway", or bridge program, designed to prepare them with enough English fluency to succeed in their coursework. All of the Chinese students arrive having studied English as a foreign language since childhood. However, it is not until they begin their first academic writing course (Writing 121) that they realize more than basic fluency is necessary to succeed. Apart from conversational fluency, they need "academic enculturation". Indeed, because the focus of instruction is the practice of academic argument, instructors quickly realize that they must first clarify the context in which academic argument is asked of their students, which necessitates a crash course in the democratic process and the means by which scholarship is motivated, created and perpetuated in western culture.)

(This intersection of academic cultures in the INTO/OSU writing classroom, and the methods used to bridge cultures, **will be the focus of the speakers' presentations.**)  

18) **What’s Weird Unites Us (Workshop)**

(How can surreal detail aid writers at all levels in shaping story and essay? How might the bizarre or grotesque be an invitation for grappling with complexity or difficulty? A Puritan legacy informs American culture; this tradition teaches us to cover our eyes from sex and horror, even as sensual and violent images mount in our media. In contrast to these Puritan notions, in many contemporary essays or stories the details become raw, graphic, forcing readers to re-see what we may avert our eyes from initially. Such surreal details then may provide a more compassionate way to explore fear than our real-life attempts at fight or flight.)

(Bring your imagination, strange life-experiences and writing utensil. In the Oregon Writing Project model we will write, share, then exchange teaching tools.)

(Freewriting, bizarre topics, and other non-traditional tools in composition classes bridge resistance. Cultivate the peculiar within your classroom. Model writings and students products will be shared. Examine how unique perception and experience unify writers and students.)

19) **“School’s Not for Anybody”: Migration as a Sponsor of Literacy in the U.S.-Mexico Context**
The teaching of writing has become increasingly involved in educational intersections at the transnational level. For instance, recent policy debates from Arizona’s recent HB 2281 to the still pending Dream Act reflect the complexity of current U.S. concerns about education and immigration. In the U.S.-Mexico context, migration is often considered to be a detrimental influence on young people’s pursuit of education. When migration is considered to be a positive influence, focus rests on the ways that increased financial resources can create more access to formal education in the migrants’ home community. Indeed, physical access to schools tends to be the focus of many initiatives to improve educational experiences in developing nations, or among groups of minority students within the U.S. Beyond these considerations of economics and access, however, the potentially positive social impacts of migration are rarely considered.

Drawing on a year of field data in rural, migrant-sending Mexico and a receiving community in the U.S., this presentation argues that migration actually facilitates, rather than jeopardizes, educational gains in both Mexico and the U.S. In particular, social capital garnered through the migration experience and transferred in the form of social remittances, as opposed to purely financial remittances, can have a particularly strong impact on literacy.

Further, the ideological impact that these social remittances can have on migrating populations may in some cases have a more powerful effect than does physical access to schools. In addition to offering an outline of these research findings, this presentation will suggest relevant implications and practical solutions for teachers of writing in U.S. high schools and colleges.

20) The Politics of Playing Together Nicely: An Exploration of the (Dis)connection Between Pedagogy, Literacy, and Assessment

Working from Brian Huot’s claim that “meaningful assessment design requires that the assessment be site-based, locally controlled, context sensitive, and rhetorically based,” and, additionally, placement and assessment practices “should be consistent with current research and theories on language learning and literacy,” our presentation will attempt to contextualize and examine the ways placement and assessment practices within composition programs intersect with current literacy theories, and common pedagogical practices (Huot, et al. 10).

Ideally, placement and pedagogical theory would mutually inform each other, and the criteria for placement exams would match the criteria used to assess freshman composition papers within any one university. However, oftentimes this is not case; economic and material concerns—increasing enrollment, for example—impede clear dialogue between assessment, literacy, and pedagogy. Our paper explores the disconnect between popular placement methods and pedagogical theory and practice. We argue that various economical, institutional, material, and discursive factors constrain the relationship between pedagogy and placement. To negotiate these constraints, we suggest that placement administrators and composition scholars pursue pedagogical theories that account for, rather than ignore, the social and material realities of a particular university within that institution’s local context.
21) Do I Really Have to Go to the Library for this Paper?: Student Research in the Digital Era (Workshop)

(This presentation is drawn from my recent experiences teaching composition and cinema studies courses at the University of Oregon. I argue that all first-year college composition courses should include at least one essay assignment that requires students to incorporate library research into their argument. Further, I propose that at least one class period during the term should be held in the library and conducted by or in conjunction with a research librarian. While this may not sound like a revolutionary idea, here at the state’s flagship research institution it is entirely possible for students to complete two require first-year writing courses without once stepping foot inside our library.) (In this presentation I will explain how I introduce students to scholarly research practices in my first-year composition courses, coordinate classroom instruction with library staff and the writing center, and assess student writing.) (In the digital age, students need direct instruction in library research in order to avoid the pitfalls in their writing and thinking that inevitably result having all of their sources handed to them by instructors or from conducting research exclusively through Google and Wikipedia.)

22) “Connecting Global Issues to the Canon of Literature for Authentic Writing and Learning”

(The universal ideas in our canon or literature provide our students access to historical and societal; however, students in the 21st century see these problems far removed from their current experiences and reality.) (Bridging the gap between the historical/ societal conditions and the current local /global conditions allows our students to appreciate the relevance of their texts.) (In order to accomplish this, I use the texts of Huckleberry Finn, The Great Gatsby and Of Mice and Men and ask the students to engage in authentic writing task, using the texts as a springboard for research into current societal problems. Informative and persuasive writing allows the students to take the themes from the text and make application, through research, to global and local events such as human trafficking and poverty in Oregon. When writing a response to a newspaper editorial, my students attack the thesis of the article, brainstorm their ideas and create a persuasive argument they submit on-line.) (By allowing students to see the relevancy of the themes in their lives, they have developed an appreciation for our curriculum and the powerful ideas embedded within it.)

23) Assessing Assessment: Testing to Teach What We Want to Teach (Workshop)

(Given the increasing pressure for quantitative assessment and accountability in higher education, those of us developing writing programs need to articulate what it is we do in our courses. Since all assessment teaches (and often unintentionally teaches things we don’t want to teach), we need to develop ethical assessment tools that support our curricula and that also allow us to share with stakeholders (deans, parents, legislators) numbers we can stand behind.)
At the University of Alberta, we’ve been using a 50-question Writing Strategies Inventory (WSI) for program assessment of our new first-year course, Writing Studies 101 (based on a writing-about-writing approach): we want to know what the course is doing well and not so well. I first developed the WSI in Oregon in the 1990’s, but extensively revised it to better support our course objectives (including the conceptual model of writing expertise developed by Anne Beaufort); a rich database has been created to help us collect, query, and analyze the resulting data (2007-2012). 100% of WRS 101 students complete the WSI online during the first week of classes (as part of the instruction in the course) and once again at end of term, receiving (as an aid to reflective practice in composing their portfolio cover letters) three individual graphs representing any changes throughout the term in their writing behaviours or their attitudes toward and understandings of the writing process.

Students are also asked to select and write about several of their paired responses that particularly intrigue them.) (The WSI thus helps students and instructors focus on building together a richer and more useful conception of writing expertise that will transfer to each student’s subsequent courses and writing tasks. The WSI can also widen our understanding of valid and reliable ways to assess writing programs and offers a critique of/ alternative to many current forms of writing program assessment.)

24) How to Use Bulletin Boards with Online or Online-Hybrid Classes to Build Learning Communities (Workshop)

(One criticism of online learning is that students can feel alienated because they need face-to-face time to connect with the teachers and/or subject matter.)

(I would argue this need not be so. Today’s college-aged students have grown up gleefully debating and fostering friendships on social media sites with people whom they may never meet.

The challenge for educators is to use the online format to our advantage when designing our lessons. Fundamental to this approach are effective discussion questions on bulletin boards.

Most Learning Management Systems—including Moodle, BlackBoard and WebCT—are equipped with bulletin board systems. The trick for instructors is constructing and posting questions which foster actual discussion, ideally encouraging students to work together to solve problems by building on each other’s answers.)

(This workshop will model this kind of online discussion, and attendees will leave with tools to help them design community-building forums for their classes.)

25) Writing Bridges Over the Seas: Connecting Rhetoric and Practice in an International Writing Center

(In the international writing center, the ESL-student of L2 writing and the L1 tutor who reads it form lasting connections grounded in Contrastive Rhetoric (CR): considerations of writing as linguistic, cross-cultural, educational (Connor, Kaplan). As many have shown, CR has its limits, even if it’s also a worthwhile ideal. Matsuda identifies static assumptions underlying CR--mainly that it overlooks how dynamic and multi-faceted are the lasting connections between writer and reader. Further elaborating
these assumptions, Kuboda and Lehnner (2004) call for a reconsideration of CR’s aims, outlining a “Critical Contrastive Rhetoric.” Yet both overlook an a priori assumption that is, arguably, also rather static: Sapir-Whorf assumes one’s first language always grounds one’s perception. Yet, just how stable is this notion in hands-on, L2 writing?)

((From the perspective of f-2-f international writing center work, my paper will revisit and explore this theoretically “bumpy road.” I ask, what is useful for international writing centers in this paradoxical, instructional triad of groundings and assumptions? Specifically, in what ways does Sapir-Whorf seem static? In what ways might it work as an advantage? Primarily, I explore how student writers learn contrastively to use as their L1 advantageously, rather than as the “interference” assumed by CR (Kubota and Lehnner).)) ((My paper applies these questions to two case studies of Chinese students revising L2 college essays and writing journals focused to what they are learning about ESL.)) ((In all, I will consider some possible “bridges” that international writing centers can “build,” moving forward for writers.))

26) Historical Intersections: A Writing Center Case Study

((As a new writing center director takes the wheel, she or he often inherits a writing center; the director and center often share little history. The director’s and center’s histories intersect in ways that require both to adapt and to use as an advantage that all is in a constant state of change. The inherited center has arisen within an institutional context with specific administrative and political circumstances. It bears an institutional reputation. It carries its own policies and traditions that can be altered but that are, nonetheless, established. It has an established location. It has a staff. The writing center director, too, has a history, a specific path that has prepared her or him for the teaching, research, and service required to successfully direct a writing center. The successful writing center director quickly adapts, finding ways to steer along the open road of endless possibilities ahead while navigating the ruts of institutional history and practice.))

((This presentation offers a case study of the triumphs and challenges of steering through such intersections, amid tenuous staff turnover, burgeoning needs for writing curriculum support for students and faculty stemming from general education reform, concerns over retention in difficult budget years, etc. The presentation, supported with research in writing center administration, describes the ways the writing center director continues to work to grow a writing center with greater institutional relevance and enhanced campus partnerships.)) ((It claims that a healthy writing center must pave its own way.))

27) No Discourse Community is an Island: Discursive Intersections in FYC, Writing Centers, and Service Learning (Panel)

((Genre scholar Charles Bazerman explains that a discourse community "identifies a grouping of people who share common language norms, characteristics, patterns, or practices as a consequence of their ongoing communications." While Bazerman’s definition emphasizes the discourse community as an isolated unit, the intersections of discourse communities define them as much as their isolation.)) ((This
panel will explore the many ways that discourse communities intersect and how an ongoing examination of those intersections can better inform writing pedagogies.) ((A* will present her findings of her ongoing studies of teaching students about discourse communities in an effort to make students’ skills gained in FYC more transferable.)) ((By teaching students how to identify discourse communities and learn the rules of the genres that operate within those discourse communities, A* has discovered that students are better able to write across the disciplines.) ((Z* will discuss his recent work examining writing centers as sites of discursive and disciplinary intersections and (sometimes violent) collisions.) ((Z* will examine the precarious position writing center personnel find themselves in as individuals faced with expectations of expertise at the same time that they routinely work with students from disciplines very alien to their own.) (Though the dissonance in discourse community backgrounds can often lead to tensions between the writer and writing tutor, Z* will discuss the potential for writer empowerment and cultivation of discourse community metaknowledge.) ((A* will discuss the role of intersecting and conflicting discourse communities in FYC service-learning experiences.) ((A* will explore the rhetoric of Seattle University students in their blog posts and argumentative essays about tutoring in economically disadvantaged schools. He will analyze how many presumptions SU students make about their students' abilities and cultures derive from unintentionally universalizing the uses of language, behavior, and ideology of their own discourse communities.) ((A* will demonstrate how the use of linguist James Paul Gee's ideas of discourse can help students see their own values as contingent on their discourse communities.) ((A roundtable discussion will follow the presentations.))

28) “Desperately Seeking Conversation: Collaboration, Community, and the Common Core” (Panel)

((COWT (congenial Oregon community college and university writing teachers) seek meaningful conversation with high school colleagues. Let’s explore the impact of the Common Core K-20. We are alignment- and assessment-curious. Willing to experiment.) ((The goals of this workshop are to exchange insider knowledge, share resources, form alliances, and develop LTR among colleagues.)) *(Sponsored by OWEAC, the Oregon Writing and English Advisory Committee: Since 1974 supporting Oregon teachers of writing from high school through university)*

29) Write-of-Way or Write-of-Passage? Empowering Writers at the Secondary/Postsecondary Intersection (Panel)

((One of the strengths of American higher education is access. Anyone with the money (or loans) and initiative can embark on a college education. Access, however, poses problems associated with preparation, as secondary teachers labor to ensure student readiness and college teachers attempt to meet incoming students’ needs. In Oregon, the stakes for all concerned escalate with the 40-40-20 goal calling for more students to achieve greater educational success in less time. This goal perpetuates the focus in American education on the end result, in this case the degree, rather than the learning...
occurring en route. This focus results, for example, in haphazard dual-enrollment programs that fail students when they award credits without the teacher dialogue and classroom learning necessary to ensure students can meet course objectives. In response to this push for speed, secondary and postsecondary writing teachers need to build alliances to pave a “write-of-way” that ensures high-school graduates have acquired skills necessary for college-level writing and that college-level skills are accurately transcripted. In creating an effective “write-of-way,” these alliances must explore first-year college writing as a “write-of-passage,” a true cognitive leap from high-school to college-level work but also an emotional shift in identity from learner to self-directed scholar.)

((This panel will explore the “write-of-passage” occurring in first-year writing classrooms at Eastern Oregon University, particularly the supports necessary to ensure success for underprepared students, as a means of reconsidering the “write-of-way” between high school and college writing classrooms.))
