Supporting International Writing Studies Research

Cultivating Capacity Through International Exchanges

Edited by
Tiane Donahue
and Cinthia Gannett

SUPPORTING INTERNATIONAL WRITING STUDIES RESEARCH: CULTIVATING CAPACITY THROUGH INTERNATIONAL EXCHANGES

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§ Contents

Editing in U.S.-Based International Publications: A Position Statement . . 3
Tiane Donahue and Cinthia Gannett

1 Cultivating Collective Research Capacity through International Exchanges about Higher Education Writing Research. 9
Tiane Donahue, Cinthia Gannett, and Joan Mullin

2 Affinity Work in the Teaching of Writing: The European Union Context 41
Ligia A. Mihut

3 Assessing Local Writing Cultures: Contrasting Student and Faculty Views on Writing in Three Discipline Groups 65
Otto Kruse

4 Writing, Interdisciplinarity, and Teamwork: What We Have Learned from Exploring Workplace Writing Experiences of Colombian Alumni 93
Elizabeth Narváez-Cardona, Ingrid Luengas, Marisol Gómez-Salinas, Luz Ángela García, Blanca González, and Hermínsul Jiménez

5 Writing through Viability: Perspectives on Professional Writing Expertise, Conditionality, and Agency 127
Sabine Dengscherz

6 Academic Writing Tradition and How to Model It 157
Djuddah Leijen, Helen Hint, and Anni Jürine

7 Developing Multilingual Repertoire at Intersecting Mobility Scales 191
Xiqiao Wang, Lifang Bai, and Yixuan Jiang

8 Helping Students in Higher Education to Improve Their Written Products: Effects of a Pedagogic Intervention Study Based on Metacognition and Sociocultural Perspective 215
Dyanne Escorcia

9 Engineering Majors as Generalist Writing Tutors in the UAE: Societal Expectations, Epistemological Dispositions, and Disciplinary Schisms. 251
Lynne Ronesi and Maria Eleftheriou

10 Boston to Beirut: Understanding an International Writing Center Collaboratory through Post-Qualitative Inquiry. 279
Belinda Walzer and Paula Abboud Habre

Contributors 299

SUPPORTING INTERNATIONAL WRITING STUDIES RESEARCH: CULTIVATING CAPACITY THROUGH INTERNATIONAL EXCHANGES

Editing in U.S.-Based International Publications: A Position Statement

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The authors in this collection come from multiple language traditions as well as multiple academic and discourse traditions around the world. As we worked through chapters, and reviewers' comments about this diversity, we began to discuss between us (Gannett and Donahue) and then with the editors of the WAC Clearinghouse International Exchanges on the Study of Writing series editors what we might do to consider the best "policy" to guide our editorial choices at the linguistic level.[1] This short text describes that approach and what it means for the chapters presented here. We hope that our decisions will serve future editors and the field as a whole.

Our questioning began with some simple exchanges. Confronted with reviewers' requests to "light edit" we began to wonder about not *how* we might edit, but *why* we edit and *what* we edit—on what principles we base our editing. We could state that editing is needed for clearer meaning-making. But most of the edits we could have made in the chapters weren't needed for meaning. And even the concept of "clear meaning" can be problematic. As a Slovakian colleague noted recently, "My experience is that they [edits] are made for meaning but in the sense of making it clear for a wider audience. My very recent experience is that as an author I assumed the expert reader would understand what I meant but the reviewer/editor wants me to elaborate on it to make it obvious what is meant, which I, an author of a research paper, find confusing as adding that kind of clarification would turn a scholarly paper to a text typical of coursebooks. At least, in Slovakia we are strongly encouraged to differentiate the two text types."

1 Note that we are focused here on linguistic/sentence-level editing. There are deeply significant discussions to be had about discursive and rhetorical choices writers make from the ground of different traditions.

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We could state that editing serves authors who seek the opportunity to learn more about standard written US English conventions. But even if that were true, what kind of framing would editing in line with US English academic norms require, and are we sure we want to endorse that framing? If we state instead that it is simply for respecting standard/conventional usage, we are immediately faced with the question of whose conventions to apply, among the many Englishes available to us. It's a well-established linguistic truth that no one English is linguistically superior or has more meaning-making value than any other variety, including the varieties produced by "second"- or twentieth-language users. So that leads us to think we are choosing the US or perhaps UK conventions for other reasons—geopolitical, or social, or …? And this is whether editing is considered "light touch" or heavy-handed. The degree changes but the underlying principle does not. Whose standards are we choosing, actively, to uphold? We emphasize that we are not referencing only official "other Englishes" and their standards but in fact any use of English in play.

The dialogue with this series' editors raised the same questions and more: who are publishers imagining the audience, the readers, to be? What are those readers' meaning-making expectations? Do the readers accept that no one use of English is linguistically superior? Is the imagined audience amenable to engaging English as it is lived and used, or do the editors think that printing varieties of English-in-use in an academic text diminishes the credibility of the text, the author, the editors, the series, and the publisher?

In the past twenty years or perhaps more, scholars in several traditions—at least those working directly on text production without translators involved—have been arguing for a different approach to language, linguistic valuing, and re-definition of the "norm." Just a quick review surfaces perspectives from multiple scholars on the topic. For example, drawing on Bakhtin's distinction between a unitary language in the abstract and lived heteroglossia, Turner foregrounds "the tensions between the assumptions of a unitary English, dominant in the contemporary neoliberal discourse of transnational higher education, and the on-the-ground, more heteroglot, diverse, and uncertain reality." Bruce Horner has suggested that:

> English in its practice as a global lingua franca is not merely plural but in constant flux. This is the finding of scholarship on English as a lingua franca. While initially that scholarship appeared to be directed toward identifying English as a Lingua Franca (ELF) as a particular variety of English, studies have made it increasingly clear that *ELF is, instead, a function*

> (Friedrich and Matsuda 2010) [emphasis mine] whose *formal characteristics are under continuous revision*, contingent on its specific occasions of use. Indeed, researchers find that "[ELF] never achieves a stable or even standardized form." ELF, they find, "is intersubjectively constructed in each specific context of interaction … negotiated by each set of speakers for their purposes" (Meierkord 2004, p. 129 qtd. in Canagarajah 2007a, p. 926). In fact, as Nicos Sifakis has explained, "[V]ariability in the communication between different [ELF speakers] renders any attempt at codifying [and teaching] the various uses of English in [ELF] situations difficult, since we would have to know in advance many things that are situation-specific and user-dependent" (Sifakis 2006, p. 155)—and not just the forms ELF takes, but "even the enabling pragmatic strategies do not have to be the same" for its speakers (Canagarajah 2007a, p. 926).

This leads us to thinking about the way English is used in world-wide publication, not as a transparent medium of scholars' thinking in a particular fixed "lingua franca" type of English, but as a constantly-in-flux, user-driven negotiation that ultimately implicates readers as well. In this case, the writer is negotiating with the language itself.

Arguments have been made as well about scholars' rights, at conferences, to work in a language that is not English and to use cultural rhetorical practices that are not grounded in Anglo-Saxon models (Navarro et al., 2022), which suggests they also have the right to use English in the forms that work for them. In this case, like conference-goers encountering presentation languages they may not know, readers might need to do harder work in the interest of maintaining just and equal access to publishing—let alone in the interest of ensuring we hear not only the meanings but the rhythms and voices of world-wide writers working in a language they have not lived in always.

Takino's study of Japanese writers has "showed that processes of accommodation are more important than linguistic correctness" in business English, an attitude of accommodation that builds, of course, out of frequent interaction with all forms of linguistic usage. This case has been made by multiple authors who argue that discursive and linguistic flexibility (of both writers *and* readers) is ultimately the key to negotiating meaning among interlocuters (see, for example, Kramsch, 1998; Canagarajah, 2007; and Donahue, 2018.).

We found ourselves asking, when do we start actually living by these language arguments that have been made? Are we thinking that in practice, they can't or shouldn't be followed? When we talk with students about the

norm being translingual, linguistically heterogenous, we tell them we want to help them question currently-imposed standards. They say, "But the world demands I know the standard, to succeed and advance—to get published, to get promoted …." But does it? What if our starting-point was instead "How can we change the world?"

There are plenty of quite successful people who communicate without applying these standards; as a small example, see Wolfe et al.'s 2016 article on the value of factors other than linguistic "correctness" in business correspondence written by multilingual peers. There is also evidence that editing can be "in the end, the proofreader's suggestions [that]represent just a different way of saying something. Istvan Kecskes speaks of 'formulaic' preferred ways of saying things and preferred ways of organizing thoughts (2021)—… it is often the case that editing is understood as making preferential choices" (Tereza Kacmarova, personal communication, 2024).

The same can be said for authors who *want* to be edited for "standard" English. Are they stating it because they don't see another way to be allowed into the currently-dominating discourse? Because they have adopted/inherited the hegemonic discourse of expectations? What if this weren't the only reality? My (Donahue's) French colleagues for many years have echoed the going Anglo-Saxon theme that there is no teaching of writing in French higher education (an idea that still circulates). But when research started pointing to all the ways writing *was* being taught in France, they said "Oh—yes! I hadn't thought about it that way" and reinvented their perspective. Can we provide authors a way to wonder? In this case, to wonder whether the language editing they thought they needed may not be? To reconsider their stated need for editing? If not us—publishers, editors—then who? When does meaningful revolution begin? Why not with the WAC Clearinghouse, as it strives to serve the international, to be international? And further, why not with this collection?

In some ways, what we are calling for is not just a change in editing practices and publication expectations, but a change in who we are as editors and readers. I personally do not *want* to join the writing/editing equivalent of the industrial-military complex in the world (an "Anglo-linguistic hegemonic complex"?), though perhaps not all authors in this collection would agree, for complex reasons that might include pressure from colleagues or supervisors, or simply different beliefs about English.

Maybe most important of all, if people read linguistic variation, and understand (or learn to understand) it over time, they'll change over time. After all, we've all learned how to read and value multilingual texts, and multimodal texts. We call for reading and valuing students' linguistic worlds, so

why not our own? Additionally, what seems a "typical" or "well known" way to express something is terribly culture-bound. Readers from other contexts may well find certain syntaxes easier to process than the typical reader well versed in Western Anglo-Saxon discourse would. While some non-edits will seem an affront to some readers' expectations, they will open the door to others. Readers need the opportunity to be confronted with new textual norms and to learn to do the work of making sense of them. We, as editors, have to create those opportunities.

For this collection, we decided to only edit if a non-US-standard convention created actual meaning difficulty, not if it was simply a sensed affront to our long-developed editorial instincts. In the current volume, you will thus read chapters with a variety of usages, in line with a variety of versions of English, and many phenomena you might consider to be "errors" based on your sense of English. These are quite different from the translingual "rarified" examples so often critiqued as representing only translingualism in its beauty and poetics. They are instead "working" English examples—English as it *is*, produced by English users doing the work of writing research around the world.

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1 Cultivating Collective Research Capacity through International Exchanges about Higher Education Writing Research

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Situating the Collection in Scholarly Exchanges

Various disciplines offer ways "in" to questions of research and writing around the world via studies of writing and writers "whose life-work and life experiences transgress and surpass the national boundaries that existed or emerged in the 20th century" (Boter et al., 2020, book cover), or through studies of knowledge-making itself in transnational contexts, underscoring that "the view that knowledge circulates by itself in a flat world, unimpeded by national boundaries, is a myth. The transnational movement of knowledge is a social accomplishment, requiring negotiation, accommodation, and adaptation to the specificities of local contexts" (Krige, 2019).[1]

This compilation of essays uniquely addresses critical international and transnational writing studies (cf. Björk et al., 2003; Boter et al., 2020; Chitez & Kruse, 2012; Gorska, 2012; Graham & Harbord 2010; Harbord, 2010; Kramer-Dahl, 2003: Merman-Jozwiak, 2014; Muchiri et al., 1995; Nesi & Gardner, 2012; Okuda, 2018; Rijlaarsdam, 2005). While the studies themselves contribute to the robust field of international studies of writing, the

1 Please read the opening statement for this collection, "Editing in US-Based International Publications: A Position Statement," before reading this introduction (https://wac.colostate.edu/docs/books/supporting/statement.pdf).

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collection overall is a window on a particular event that began in 2008 as a response to the recognition that there was no clear place at the College Conference on Composition and Communication for international work, no comfortable way to welcome international scholars, no existing approach at CCCC for the in-depth exploration (rather than brief presentation formats) that international exchange demands, and no clarity about questions of inter-, trans-, or multinational and -lingual work. This collection, then, rather than being guided by a thematic thread, national coverage, or methodological strands is intended to show the kinds of work shared at the International Researchers Consortium over the years. The creation of this collection thus continues the very question raised 18 years ago at the first IRC workshop: how might we exchange, fully understand, and respect research from within and across international borders? We are still working through the answers, and this compilation also exemplifies the difficult discussions that need to continue.

As is the case with other international collections, each of the projects and researchers has a unique research tradition and history; however, the essays published here were crafted for or further developed through a set of shared experiences over the course of nearly twenty years at the annual International Researchers Consortium (IRC) workshop at CCCC. This collection, then, is a unique enactment of an ongoing and evolving initiative, one that has attempted to cultivate collective research capacity through extended, committed, mutual international dialogue about specific projects *and about the very nature of international and transnational writing studies research itself.* The studies offered here represent a range of what enacted research across borders looks like.

The late 1990s and early 2000s saw a series of efforts to put several theoretical and applied strands of language and literacy scholarship from around the world into conversation, exploring what they might teach each other and how they might be aligned or divergent. By necessity, these developing conversations included questions of language, culture, and power. They exposed some of the previously largely invisible U.S. beliefs about Anglophone (and even more, US-Anglophone) institutions and practices as the dominant engines of scholarship, when in fact the wealth of work around questions of writing research and teaching is richer and more varied. In sum, a host of projects took shape to encourage international research conversations, support new scholarship, and take up questions about the nature of scholarship itself.

In this brief review section, we look at a selection of US- or UK-based collections or articles that attend to gathering multisite scholarship, ones which in some way address questions of transnational, international, or

cross-national work. Some studies have the express purpose of comparing practices or projects across borders; other studies aim to collect multiple sources or types of data to situate this Anglophone collection in that particular landscape. We then identify some key articles or collections from contexts not limited to the US or UK. Finally, we draw on a sampling of work not published in English that addresses issues aligned with the ones in this volume. There is work in many languages from many contexts, often not published in English; studying it all would be a project of its own. Therefore, the discussion here is truly just a sampling, meant to inspire further attention and exploration. We encouraged authors of these chapters to cite work not in English and their bibliographies offer an excellent starting point. We look forward to learning more about the wealth of non-Anglophone work which can inform Anglophone scholarship in both familiar and unexpected ways.

In the US we have certainly come a long way since texts such as the 1956 CCCC's "The Foreign Student in the Freshman Course" (though certainly that article was already well ahead of its time). Publications in the past thirty years or so have clustered around the topics of writing research and instruction in different ways. 2002 saw Foster and Russell's *Writing and Learning in Cross-national Perspective: Transitions from Secondary to Higher Education*, featuring authors from various countries exploring writing instruction at the crucial secondary/post-secondary threshold. In addition, some edited collections feature multiple authors and disciplines, but all within a particular country or small set of Anglophone countries, as in *Writing in the Disciplines* (Deane & O'Neill, 2011); *International Students Negotiating Higher Education: Critical Perspectives* (Sovic & Blythman, 2012); *Genres across the Disciplines: Student Writing in Higher Education* (Nesi & Gardner, 2012); *Teaching Academic Writing in UK Higher Education: Theories, Practices, and Models* (Ganobscik-Williams, 2017); *Negotiating the Intersections of Writing and Writing Instruction* (Gustafsson & Eriksson, 2022)

Other works in English have focused on collecting research from a variety of contexts around the world, such as John Harbord's 2010 chapter, "Writing in Central and Eastern Europe," which explores practices in a variety of institutions and the paths their writing programs have taken. Lennart Björk and colleagues' 2003 edited collection *Teaching Academic Writing in European Higher Education* offers chapters on multiple writing instruction approaches in different European contexts. Montserrat Castello and Tiane Donahue's volume *University Writing: Selves and Texts in Academic Societies* (2012) also features chapters from multiple countries about writing instruction and research in different contexts. In that same year, Madalina Chitez and Otto Kruse published an in-depth exploration of practices in multiple European

countries in "Writing Cultures and Genres in European Higher Education," (See also Kruse et al., 2016), and later *University writing in central and eastern Europe: Tradition, transition, and innovation* (Chitez, Dorohoschi, Kruse, and Salski (2018). In 2016, Steve Graham and Gert Rijlaarsdam called for a new international study of writing, one better equipped to take into account the differences (and similarities) in writing practices around the globe, as they highlight in their text. We also see attention to writing centers around the world, as studied by scholars such as Osman Barnawi with his focus on the Arabian Gulf (2018) or Tomoyo Okuda with her 2017 dissertation focused on writing centers as global pedagogy. That dissertation is referenced in a 2023 description of Japanese writing centers, including the realities and the challenges they are facing in *WLN: A Journal of Writing Center Scholarship*. It also mentions the *13th* Symposium on Writing Centers in Asia in the context of a 20-year history, suggesting a rich, extensive research context.

Some studies focus in-depth on one particular context: *Chinese Rhetoric and Writing: An Introduction for Language Teachers* (Kirkpatrick & Xu, 2012) or *Emerging Writing Research from the Russian Federation* (Squires, 2021). Ernest Pineteh's case study of South Africa's undergraduate students' writing challenges (2014), published in the *International Journal of Higher Education*, reminds us that "writing" journals and presses are not the only ones to publish about higher education writing instruction and research.

We also see collections, articles, and other publications focused on understanding the US role in global contexts, whether from what arrives in the US, what U.S. writers experience in non-U.S. contexts, or what U.S. composition does in interaction with global contexts. Mary Muchiri et al. (1995) paved the way for later work, such as their contributions to the 2016 *Composition Studies* special issue "Composition's Global Turn" or some of the chapters in Bruce Horner and Donahue's 2022 collection, *Teaching and Studying Transnational Composition*. Jay Jordan's examination of South Korea and transnational writing partnerships for writing in the disciplines "closely describes and theorizes the intellectual, social, and material complexities of cross-border educational efforts" which address the "differing expectations, national aspirations, and individual and collective goals and anxieties richly nuanc[ing] the argument that literacies can never be reduced to classroom or curricular plans (back matter)" (2022).

This volume is an appropriate place for highlighting some of the ways the subject matter is developed in volumes and articles published in languages that are not English. It also takes into account that the subject of writing research is often labeled or disciplinarily organized in different ways. Some of the work reported here focuses on writing within a given non-Anglophone

setting, and some focuses on comparisons across national or regional lines, or on the nature and value of transnational work itself. Latin America, Europe, and South Africa provide some rich examples. This work is being heard in these contexts, but rarely in Anglophone ones; we would like to honor these voices in our volume as well.

Latin American work on higher education writing in general, published in Portuguese, Spanish, or French, is widespread (cf. work by authors such as Navarro, Ávila Reyes, Gonzales, Brunner, Miranda, Calle-Arango, Chiroleu, Marquina, Lovera Falcon, Gajardo, Montes, Lizama, Moyano, Natale, Colombi, Pereira, Tapia Ladino, Alves Assis.) For an excellent summary, see the 2021 "On the Teaching of University Writing in Latin America," Ávila Reyes and Navarro. A trilingual 2019 volume focused on *Praticas discursivas em letramento academico: Questões em estudo* exposes transnational work via essential studies in France and Brazil, including work on formative aspects of academic literacy (Goncalves Correa, 2019); the interaction between disciplinary context and written production (Delcambre, 2019); web-based writing's discursive practices (Rodriguez & Silva, 2019); or reading-writing relationships in academia (Neves de Brito, 2019).

Research on international exchange programs take place in many languages across non-Anglophone countries, such as the Brazil-Switzerland exchange described by Finardi and colleagues in their 2024 article "Global citizenship and internationalization at home: Insights from the BRASUIS virtual exchange project." Our project fits into larger themes Finardi and her colleagues pursue, focused on language itself and its central role in the internationalization of higher education. Kyria Finardi and colleagues studied the ways in which epistemologies of the global South and the global North, seen in eleven different countries (most non-English-speaking), can help us to question the role of languages in the production and dissemination of global knowledge. While this broader interest is not directly about writing, it informs the literacy questions that interest transnational writing scholars.[2]

A new Latin American journal of writing research, *Revista Latinoamericana de Estudios de la Escritura* (RLEE, https://wac.colostate.edu/rlee/), is raising awareness of work in multiple contexts. Its goal of publishing in Spanish, Portuguese, and English is borne out in its first edition, with topics from several countries and research traditions side-by-side. Other extended research looking across national borders can be found in *Un estudio de las habilidades de los estudiantes de América Latina y el Caribe* (2010) overseen by Ana

2 This particular article is published in English, but Finardi publishes extensively on the same topics in Spanish.

Attoresi, exploring both process and textual product across 16 Latin American, Mexican, and Caribbean higher education contexts. This work, built from earlier research by the same agency in the 1990s, reports on students' writing in transnational settings via writing tests. The study's final report "offers data on relevant aspects of the writing process and product, such as what is transformed between the draft and the text, the coherence of the information in the final version, the appropriateness of the topic and its adjustment to the communicative situation, the use of lexis and spelling correction, among others" (2010, p. 12) (translation by authors, DeepL assisted).

Research in this part of the world has sometimes been grounded in questions of linguistics and language teaching, as we see in the edited collection serving as proceedings of a 2015 Latin American conference focusing on multilingualism, interculturality and language teaching: *Plurilinguismo, interculturalidad, y ensenanza de lenguas: Linguistica contrastiva y traduccion* (Baduy et al., 2015). The volume draws together chapters on diverse facets of plurilingualism, language competence, the teaching of writing, and the necessity for intercultural communication. Other networks are focused on academic literacies in various Latin American contexts. For example, *Universidades en red en torno a las prácticas letradas: aportes a la construcción de saberes en el marco de la integralidad de funciones universitarias* (Giammarini et al., 2023) is grounded in the past twenty years of Latin American research.

The International Exchanges: Latin America book series, established under the WAC Clearinghouse's International Exchanges on the Study of Writing series with lead editor Federico Navarro, highlights years of the region's scholars and their writing research, having secured permissions to make available eleven landmark volumes via open access (see https://wac.colostate.edu/books/international/la/ and https://wac.colostate.edu/books/international). The series publishes in Spanish, Portuguese and English, with classic volumes such as Giovanni Parodi's 2010 compilation of thirty scholars from Latin America and Spain, *Alfabetización académica y profesional en el siglo xxi: Leer y escribir desde las disciplinas*, Judith Kalman and Brian Street's 2009 compilation on literacy and numeracy in Latin Americ, *Lectura, escritura y matemáticas como prácticas sociales: Dialogos con América Latina*, and the recent publication of *Centros y programas de escritura en América Latina: Opciones teóricas y pedagógicas para la enseñanza de la escritura disciplinar* (Moyano & Lizamo, 2023). These monographs and collections suggest the range and wealth of research and program development across countries in this part of the world.

Moving to European examples, we might consider Swedish research that highlights the pedagogical choices made in writing centers working with

diverse students. Studies using interviews, observations, writing center documents, students' texts, and videos of tutoring sessions underscore findings that

> writing centers have potential to be sites for pedagogical development where tutors can share, with students and staff, their expertise gained when working with a diverse student population. To strengthen writing centers' position at universities, professionalization of tutors is needed and most importantly research needs to be conducted in writing centers. Students from diverse backgrounds are entering higher education and to value their knowledge and experiences is crucial, not least from a democratic perspective. The writing center can play an important role in this effort. (Lennartson-Hokkanen, 2016, abstract)

The studies in Lennartson-Hokkanen's work highlight tutor marginalization and issues with "skills"-based models of writing, while documenting writing centers as sources for significant meaning-making and engagement.

Other Swedish scholars have offered ethnographic insights into the discourses of students, researchers, faculty, and administrators in Swedish universities. Luke Holmes, in his 2022 dissertation (supervisors C. Kerfoot and L. Salo) highlights "potential new ways of engaging, learning, and knowing that might be more justifiably described as ethical and multilingual" (p. iii). This work uncovers the vast multilingual practices at play in a "truly international" modern context.

A special issue in 2020 of the journal *Tijdschrift voor Taalbeheersing* (whose abstract notes that the (sub)discipline Taalbeheersing [Discourse Studies] was founded around fifty years ago) addressed current concerns about writing skills of students entering higher education. It outlines key strands of academic literacies research, exploring them "as a process and as a result, as a condition and as an outcome, and from a social as well as from an individual perspective" (p. 224; authors' translation with DeepL support). In that special issue, the 2020 article "Het schrijfcentrum als onderzoeksobject. Een brede verkenning van effectstudies" explores Dutch writing centers in the context of writing centers worldwide and underscores the widely-shared challenge of studying writing center effectiveness empirically. The impact of classroom translanguaging strategies on students is the focus of *Is translanguaging een duurzame strategie voor het hoger onderwijs in Zuid-Afrika?* wherein Adelia Carstens explores student perspectives in the translingual-transnational context of South Africa (2019), one that has often been seen as highly fraught. The author suggests that all learners benefit from translanguaging in the classroom, though differently according to whether the student or the teacher introduces it.

Elke Gilin et al. (2021) investigate assumptions about the linguistic proficiency of what they label L1 and L2 students in the Belgian area of Flanders, where Dutch is the official language, in *Een taalvaardigheidstest voor anderstaligen voorgelegd aan leerlingen in het Nederlandstalig middelbaar onderwijs. Een onverwacht effect?* Studying non-L2 Flemish secondary students who took the Dutch as a Foreign Language university entrance test, she found that non-L2 writers did not necessarily fare better than their L2 counterparts, for whom the test is required. This provocative result could lead to widespread rethinking of questions of linguistic proficiency and "deficiency" in different national contexts.

We discover in German publications, as well, a wealth of coverage. A recent example is the 2020 volume *Schreibwissenschaft. Eine neue Disziplin* by Birgit Huemer et al., which brings works about writing in higher education primarily from Austria, Switzerland, and Germany into transnational conversation with each other. Stephanie Dreyfürst and Nadja Sennewald's 2014 volume, *Schreiben. Grundlagentexte zur Theorie, Didaktik und Beratung,* represents a cross-national collection of texts exploring central writing studies' theories and practices from outside of Germany.

Close analysis of academic writing differences in the Baltic States has been at the heart of work by research teams including Anni Jürine et al. (2021); Helen Hint et al. (2023); Anna Ruskan (2020), Dzintra Lele-Rozentāle et al. (2021) among others. As with the others, research by Djuddah Leijen and colleagues explores rhetorical and linguistic structures in these countries, seeking to "address the lack of an empirically grounded holistic understanding of non-Anglophone writing traditions by mapping the academic writing traditions in the national languages of the Baltic States: Estonian, Latvian, and Lithuanian" (2021, abstract). Hint et al.'s 2022 article *"Eestikeelse akadeemilise teksti tunnustest"* focuses specifically on academic language in Estonian but lays the theoretical and methodological groundwork for the cross-national comparative work that has followed. We underline the fact that analyzing students' academic writing in Estonian, Latvian, and Lithuanian contexts has much to offer in terms of research approach and evidence.. Indeed, the article notes that the team seeks to provide an understanding of the essence of an Estonian writing tradition and offers an extensive literature review of the work in this area.

This brief sample of research underscores the value of seeking, recognizing, and engaging with research published not in English or not focused on Anglo-Saxon traditions, actions we see as philosophically aligned with Navarro et al.'s statement about the right to hold conference presentations in languages that are not English (Navarro et al., 2022) Scholars concerned

with transnational/multilingual/translingual and linguistic difference must seek out and read research that arises from non-Anglo-Saxon orientations and is published not in English. But this is also true for those who teach students from countries where writing scholarship has long research traditions: what better ways to understand, think differently about, or design methodology for studying and teaching populations with linguistic differences? For the vibrancy and growth of our field—and to ensure the field does not close in on itself—the Anglo-Saxon writing research community must interrogate its own English-only research world, and not discount other rich and well-developed ways of working and knowing. This includes resisting the tendency to discount research we see as not in our landscape of interest.

The Story of the International Researchers Consortium: Origins, Contexts and Founders

As co-editors of this volume and sponsors of the first full decade of work, we met at one of the early Cornell Consortia for Writing in the Disciplines in 2003, hosted by Jonathan Monroe, which had just begun to feature selected international programs in its multi-day discussions. Donahue, a bilingual/bicultural researcher at a French linguistics research *laboratoire* (*THEODILE*) and faculty member of a U.S. university, and Gannett, a Composition-Rhetoric, Writing Center/WAC faculty with a masters in Applied Linguistics from the US, were on a panel together. We gave our first international panel together in 2005 at the European Writing Center Association (EWCA) conference in Halkidiki, Greece, organized by Anna Challenger.

Cinthia Gannett: While I had taught ESL and tried to be mindful of supporting international and multilingual writers and scholars' many competences and resources in writing courses, writing center, and writing program work, this full immersion into a multi-lingual, multicultural non-US-based literacy studies conference first opened me to the lingering parochial traces of my Anglocentric perspectives about the nature of writing and writing research. It was enormously—and simultaneously—disorienting and exhilarating. These new networks drew me more and more into international conversations and projects, including the developing Writing Development in Higher Education organization and the Academic Literacies movement in the UK, as well as the broad array of language, education and literacy projects in the research centers network across France, and later the European Association of Teachers of Academic Writing (EATAW), International Writing Center Association (IWCA), Writing Research Across Borders (WRAB),

and the International Society for Academic Writing Research (ISAWR). Each of these encounters brought increasing insight, and inequal measure, increasing humility in the face what I needed to learn to participate more fully in this developing area of study world.

Tiane Donahue: My journey started much earlier: my intimate imbrication in all the questions and challenges of the current multi/transnational moment has accompanied me as a bilingual/bi-cultural student and scholar across my whole life. As a dual citizen of France and the United States, I had studied in France at both the secondary and post-secondary levels, ultimately pursuing my PhD at l'Université René Descartes (Paris V) in Linguistics. My dissertation focused on close analysis of French and U.S. student writing, which entailed studying the scholarship and landscape of European and U.S. work on writing in higher education. That experience convinced me that many of the myths circulating in U.S. composition and rhetoric about university writing outside the US needed debunking, and that deep reservoirs of scholarship in those contexts needed to be made visible to U.S. scholars and teachers. I joined a French university research laboratory at l'Université de Lille while remaining faculty for teaching in the US and began various initiatives to foster equal exchange and collaboration between Europe and the US.

Increasingly, we both felt the need to create a specific venue for such conversations at the Conference on College Composition and Communication (CCCC), one of our major U.S. professional associations, to allow for greater mutuality of cross-cultural scholarly exchange, and to work to replace export models of knowledge production that were more common in early cross-national encounters. We also felt a strong need to help U.S. scholars and teachers attending the CCCC to begin to see the rich work from outside of the US and to help international scholars at the CCCC to engage more effectively with the CCCC experience.

Equally, we wanted to move away from models of academic research that privilege scholars working alone or in small teams to "perform" publication in the form of high-stakes monologic presentations at scholarly conferences and to produce a continuous stream of articles and monographs regardless of the actual time and resources researchers need to do their work. We realized the short conference presentation format prevented audiences from entering into the complex and multi-tiered contexts (institutional, theoretical, methodological, in practice) that come with international exchange. We wanted to honor individual researchers and projects and their specific contexts, but also create larger transnational communities of practice. Here is what we came up with.

The International Researchers Consortium Workshop: Structure and Development

Responding to the CCCC call for greater "reciprocal relations with international colleagues," for example, our session description for 2010 aimed for

> sustained contact with writing scholars from around the globe who have been engaged in their own novel and situated research projects on essential questions of writing theory, praxis, and pedagogy.... Dialogue with international colleagues requires by its very nature, time for processing and extended discussion, as well as defined protocols for opening up the various cultural, theoretical, and linguistic differences that may prevent scholars from fully engaging or appreciating the larger intellectual, cultural, linguistic-discursive frames and traditions in which the projects take place and produce meaning.

The sustained contact approach, including the reading of each other's work in advance, was modeled after European approaches to conferences that Donahue had frequently observed and participated in.

The whole process that culminated in the workshop would begin the previous year with a call to all the international list-serves we could locate, as well as networks from previous presenters. We invited very brief descriptions of research projects at any stage of development and corresponded often with all the scholars as they formalized their proposals. We welcomed early-stage projects-in-progress, because those might benefit more from an international set of respondents. We wanted to create a space for cultivating research capacity—to create an enduring community of practice that works to open the conversation on writing research in all kinds of ways—fostering serious, mutual, and sustainable cross-cultural conversation that questions and remakes restrictive notions and practices. In order to traverse the enormous variation in international institutional, cultural, and scholarly-research traditions across national boundaries, and to ensure that respondents were mindful of the situatedness of projects outside their immediate scope of understanding, we asked them to post: (1) Institutional descriptions and contexts, (2) a glossary of context, culture-specific, or research-specific terms, and (3) a digest of key theories, theorists or frames used in the study along with their drafts-in progress. These were posted on the International Writing Studies CompFAQ wiki many weeks before the workshop, so everyone could read across all the projects that would be discussed during the workshop. Presenters could also

correspond with other presenters ahead of time if they found connections, new research, or new questions to take up, to begin to develop a sense of community and mutuality. The key aim was that participants would engage with each other's work ahead of the full-day event so that informed conversation about the projects and their contexts could take place.

For the workshop itself, rather than using expert workshop leaders to present their work to a receptive audience, everyone was a presenter-facilitator of a discussion about their own work, as well as a willing, better-prepared respondent for several other papers across a range of subjects and research traditions throughout the day. And while the workshop took place primarily in English, the various projects and researcher's language practices required an openness to many kinds of language meshing. Everyone had to agree to be comfortable with being uncomfortable. Over time, the maxim "We are all experts; we are all novices." became a mantra for the workshop. Thus, we attempted to build the workshop to create a series of spaces for immersive cross-national conversation and to establish supportive environments for scholars at every professional level to interact as equals. We very intentionally set aside the notion that writing research was a U.S.-only domain of expertise and created a space where U.S. researchers could begin to understand the research being done in other locations world-wide.

The collaborative exchange at the heart of the workshop, both in advance of the meeting and in person, was also intended to invite metacommentary on the complexities of attempting—and attending to—international writing research itself. To that end, we included multiple full group encounters across the day to harvest our insights, findings and ongoing questions. We used four overarching areas of interactive questions to structure these broader dynamic conversations each year:

1. What is research? What counts for research or credible research methodology in different contexts? What are the fields in which the writing research can be found? How are they linked to where and how writing is taught, learned, and practiced across the world?
2. Which populations, sites and demographics are studied and why? What kinds of courses, programs, interventions, concerns, or practices are objects of research within or across contexts and cultures?
3. How do questions about a particular language complicate our work geopolitically, linguistically and rhetorically? Or the necessity of working across and through multiple languages? And what about seemingly transparent textual practices (like citation or other standard conventions)?

4. What do we take as the evolving meanings of "international" or "global" or "transnational" for our concerns? How do local cultural and institutional frames shape these meanings and vice versa?

As each workshop ended, we also asked the participants to share the kinds of resources they could cultivate for themselves and with others in the coming year—new research interests and resources, new colleagues, future opportunities for collaboration, presentations, consulting, and publication. Responses to these questions thread through the chapters in this collection.

Participants were also invited to return in future years as their own work developed or in the company of new researchers who could benefit from this special kind of research community—in essence to continue the work of cultivating collective research capacity. Of course, the International Researchers Consortium developed and evolved in new directions over the next dozen years. Originally it was allied structurally with the CCCC Committee on Globalization, and later the Second Language and the Transnational groups, but these alliances did not guarantee a slot in the conference, and the process of designing and organizing yearly full-day workshops disclosed hidden structures of exclusion that created significant obstacles.

Over time, it became clear that the CCCCs was not a perfect vehicle to host this type of international gathering. Even with provisional acceptance to the workshop, acceptances were sometimes sent too late for international scholars to arrange for travel. One year, a CCCCs committee accepted the morning half of the conference, but not the afternoon half of the SAME workshop, so we had to rent our own space and serve everyone lunch to allow for the time frame needed. Lack of clear signage and other informational resources made it much harder for multilingual scholars to navigate the locations, or even find coffee after very long travels. On several occasions, the CCCC administrative process did not issue all the presenters' individual invitations until we requested them, nor were all individuals identified fully in print and online conference programs, simple but essential requirements for international travelers to get funding and travel visas. Later, when the conference went fully online because of COVID, the time slots given would not work—not only for the time required for the workshop itself, but also because international work requires coordination across many time zones. Working through these issues explicitly reminded us, and those running the CCCC across the years, about the many invisible challenges involved in attempting inclusive work across borders.

Even with institutional challenges, the workshop evolved in terms of international participation and scope as well. In the first two years, our multi-national

scholars were more often located in the US or UK or had connections to U.S. or UK scholars or institutions. In 2009, for example, the workshop drew sixteen scholars including Chris Anson, Kathy Cain, and Joan Mullin from the US and several well-known researchers from the UK: Mary Deane, Rebecca O'Rourke, Joelle Adams, Mary McKeever, Margo Blythman, Mary Scott, and Joan Turner, as well as Dilek Tokay (Turkey), Gerd Braüer (Switzerland)) and Susan Thomas (Australia). The research studies included a variety of international populations and study sites in Turkey, Ireland, Switzerland, Lebanon, Australia, and Sweden. By 2010, we had 18 scholars representing 12 countries, and by 2011, we had 38 scholars from 18 countries participating! Eight years into the project, by 2014, the workshop was hosting 40 scholars from 24 countries working on 33 separate projects. Even with all its warts, the scholars found the experience so worthwhile that they promoted it in other international groups and networks, and several scholars have returned with later versions or new projects and brought their colleagues. We understood, too, when researchers could not travel to join us, often for institutional, cultural, and political reasons, and invited them back for the next year. We always appreciated the enormous efforts of these scholars who came at very considerable cost to themselves in time, energy and other resources in order to share with each other and to renew/remake scholarship for U.S. scholars who had much to learn from them. In October 2014, our proposal to become a "Standing Group" of the CCCC was accepted, so we could create a larger international board, begin new initiatives, and have a guaranteed slot on the program from 2015 on (though in 2021 that guarantee was not honored and we hosted the workshop independently).

In 2014, to assess the workshops' effectiveness and determine how to direct future efforts, the new IRC Standing Group surveyed 180 participants of previous workshops from 45 countries to find out what they found important or distinctive about the work of the IRC. Here is a representative sample of responses that speak to aspects of the IRC found most valuable in the community:

Pavel Zemliansky: The most useful and inspiring aspect of these workshops (I have participated in 3 so far) is the ability to meet with colleagues from across the world and discuss issues in writing instruction in various countries. I am always reminded that writing instruction and writing research are local, and affected by larger social, educational, and even political forces. I am also reminded that we as a profession need to get beyond the U.S.-centric view of writing studies and that we have much to learn from colleagues abroad, as they have much to learn from us.

Zsuzsanna Palmer: The workshop made me realize that we work in different institutional and national contexts. Opening up a dialog about the most

effective ways we can teach our writing students exposed each participant to a much wider array of teaching approaches. In addition, I learned about writing scholarship widely known in other countries that is relevant to my research but is not well represented in North American professional journals. Through the international writing workshop I was able to widen both my teaching and research horizons.

Baldur Sigurðsson: The international workshop 2014 was an enriching experience, a unique opportunity to meet researchers from many countries presenting their papers or drafts in a relaxed atmosphere, characterized by shared interests and confidence. Thanks to the stimulating organizers, that conducted the workshop with firm hand, based on a solid experience. I think everybody got the most possible positive feedback on what they were doing. Very good memories.

Mary McKeever: I will never forget my first visit to CCCC. I felt overwhelmed by the sheer scale of the event, the huge number of participants and the seemingly impossible choices to be made. The international consortium, which met before the conference started, helped me to simultaneously lose my bearings and to find my feet. It gave me an awareness of the limitations of my own parochial, Anglo-centric world and at the same time helped me narrow down the field and select the best presentations of the conference—many of which were by participants in the group.

Connie Kendall Theado: The format of this workshop—share drafts prior to the conference so that those in attendance can preview their colleagues' work ahead of time and, as a result, spend the workshop time in deeper conversation with one another—is a particular (and I'd add, unique!) benefit to participants. For those of us just launching a study, the feedback received from colleagues is immeasurably helpful. The first time I participated in this workshop, I received this kind of feedback and when I returned to Cincinnati, I was able to modify my IRB protocol to gather better data. All good!

Montserrat Castelló: I have great memories of the Workshop. It was amazing to join those people from over the world, read their work and have the opportunity to engage in a really fruitful discussion during the workshop! I will be back again soon.

Jennifer Craig: I participated in a pre-conference workshop in 2012 re: International Writing Research, and that exchange was the most valuable experience I had during the 2012 CCCC conference. I think it was so powerful because of the caliber of the people who participated, but also the dynamic discussion of information.

Brooke Ricker: I'm currently in Serbia doing my dissertation research, and my internet access is somewhat limited, but I wanted to be in support of

your efforts, if it's still useful. I had a wonderful experience with the International Research workshop in 2013; I received wonderful feedback from the group and was also able to connect with another scholar who was putting together an edited collection on writing instruction in post-Communist contexts and invited me to contribute a chapter. As a novice academic, this was an important moment for my involvement in the field of writing studies, as it encouraged me to continue pursuing international research.

Vassiliki Khourbani: First of all, I am deeply grateful for you both for your vision in initiating this collaboration which allows participants to get in touch with best practices and promote their research in the emerging global knowledge economy of the 21st century. Having attended the CCCC Conference for the first time, I really enjoyed the International Research Workshop which gave me the chance to present my research data, delve deeper into wonderfully raised and engaging topics and interact with participants from different linguistic, institutional, geographic, and pedagogical places.

Cecile Badenhorst: As a scholar from the global South, now working in North America, I found the International Research Workshop to be invaluable in helping me integrate in this context.... I have made connections and developed colleagues working on similar research areas which has led to further successful projects. I found it an invaluable forum for showcasing research and networking.

Melanie Brinkschulte: I attended the workshop at the CCCC in 2010. It was the most inspiring workshop I had because I met so many international researchers and got the chance to establish a network of international working researchers.

Amy Zenger: I have attended the international research workshop several times. Over the years it has become increasingly diverse, and more and more exciting because of this. The diversity emerges not only through the identities of researchers or locations of teaching; programs may approach their work from a different perspective, and research methods may be new to me—perhaps because the methods are practiced in a related field. I was especially happy to discuss archival research one year with a scholar working in Romania; we were studying archives in Beirut. I also love seeing projects at all sorts of stages—they have ranged from a generative set of ideas scrawled on a few pages to publication-ready studies. The structure of the workshop is what I find most invigorating, however. Having to share papers ahead of time and read each other's work makes substantive discussions more likely and allows more voices to participate.

Ligia Mihut: In 2012, I shared a draft of my first experience of doing work in the archives in Romania. My draft was about the literacy education in 1980s in

Communist Romania. Although it was a difficult text to write and read, I found a very patient audience at International Research workshop at the CCCC. They helped me sort through murky ideas and center my work on relevant issues. Also, my work did not seem to fit in any other "categories" of interest: it was international, historical, ethnographic, and highly political. Yet, this workshop welcomed mixed methods and a challenging research topic.

As much as our participants and we ourselves had enjoyed the marvelous and meaningful work of coordinating the IRC by ourselves for so many years, we (Tiane and Cinthia) realized that to ensure the international/transnational possibilities of the IRC both within and beyond the CCCs, we needed to create a truly international steering committee and be willing to step down from that advisory group over time. By its ten-year anniversary in 2018, the IRC had begun to transform itself in a variety of new directions: we now had an excellent International Steering Committee: Magnus Gustafsson (Sweden), Lance Cummings (US), Steffen Guenzel (US/Germany), Anne-Marie Eriksson (Sweden), Violeta Molina (Colombia), Monserrat Castelló (Spain), Tiane Donahue (US/France). We began to experiment with different ways to record and preserve our rich conversations during the workshop itself, as well as piloting some forms of virtual participation.

The IRC has also begun to extend its work well beyond the CCCCs format to increase participation for international scholars who cannot travel to the U.S. by planning events in international spaces, realizing its original mission even more fully than we could have imagined in 2008. A small group of IRC researchers met at the WRAB meeting in Bogota, Colombia in 2016. And other planned workshops have been held in Porto, Portugal at the European Literacy Network Conference in 2018, and in Gothenburg, Sweden in July 2019 in connection with the tenth EATAW conference. In addition to a CCCC meeting in 2023, the IRC board hosted an international workshop in conjunction with the WRAB Conference in Trondheim, Norway in February of that year.

The challenges faced by the IRC have also brought successes: The development of a virtual platform proved prescient as COVID swept across the globe in 2020. The profound effects of the global pandemic over the last few years made daily and academic life enormously difficult for everyone: the 2020 conference was canceled and the 2021 conference was reduced and delivered only as a virtual workshop. The 2022 conference remained virtual as well and faced several challenges because the CCCCs virtual conference structure permitted only two-hour meetings rather than full day workshops and required other accommodations which forced several researchers to withdraw. More broadly, the massive disruptions to family, social, economic, and academic life brought much of the work of the IRC to a halt, for an extended time

including the work on this collection. Even so, we are heartened by the subsequent expansion of the IRC and pleased to be able to bring this book project to fruition after many years of work, grateful for the intellectual resilience and persistence of the authors, and thankful for the International Exchanges book series editors who accompanied us throughout this extended, humbling, and turbulent journey.

The Collection: Cultivating Collective Research Capacity Through International Exchanges about Higher Education Research

Cultivating Collective Research Capacity has been under discussion as a key project for the IRC since the earliest workshops. The manuscript process began in earnest in 2019 with the initial proposal to the WAC Clearinghouse's International Exchanges in the Studies of Writing book series, and despite many setbacks for the authors and editors during this period, the small silver lining is that the extended time gave all the authors needed periods for rethinking and revision, and as editors, we had the chance to let the essays teach us as they developed. That process taught us even more about international collaboration, in this case in times of global stress, and while this is the first book that thoughtfully reflects on the results of IRC researchers, we hope it is not the last that draws on IRC experience. In keeping with the original IRC workshop, the authors have included small sections on key terms and theories, institutional contexts, and reflective commentaries on their experiences in researching and writing. We also asked writers to comment on their engagements with the IRC workshop itself, to give readers a more holistic view of the scholars, their larger scholarship, their histories, and their situations, continuing the practice of "metacommentary as research/ research as metacommentary" so central to the habitus of the IRC.

The nine essays from nineteen scholars featured here span three continents and several countries, including Colombia, Germany, Austria, Switzerland, China, the UAE, France, Lebanon, the US, Estonia, and Romania. There are several comparative studies, such as the one by Narváez and her colleagues, or the chapter by Leijen, Hint, and Jürine. Most, in the spirit of Chitez and Kruse (2012) or Björk, Bräuer, Rienecker, and Stray Jörgensen (2003), are not comparing U.S. writing projects to international writing projects, but rather working across their own national boundaries as the IRC workshop always encouraged. Others focus entirely on a situation within a specific country, also in the spirit of IRC, in some cases including U.S. perspectives, but not setting

them as the standard of comparison. This collection is organized generally from those that take on broad multi- or transnational projects to those that have more specific objectives or sites of study. More importantly, it is meant to spark readers' own linkages and alignments and encourage all of us to question the basis of our national frames as we work with students and researchers across borders.

We start this collection with Ligia A. Mihut's research, which complicates questions surrounding multiple, interactive European writing traditions across personal, institutional, national, and transnational levels by considering how they operate simultaneously and in different proportions for different faculty within a single location, the West University of Timisoara (UVT) in Romania. She examines how Romania's own historical predisposition towards an "ethos of learning" and its more recent history of Romanian communist education with its "mutilated curriculum" is complicated by two additional factors. The institutional culture is composed of faculty who, despite the Romanian context, call on German, French and Anglo-Saxon writing tradition models in wide circulation across Europe. Added to this complexity of approaches to writing are EU multilingual policies installed since the Bologna Declaration in 1999 that bring both standardization as well as flexibility in discursive education.

To make sense of the interactions, Mihut maps the interactive dynamics of these influences through accounts of specific faculty who teach writing at UVT. Using richly coded interview data from eight extended interviews, she focuses on three writing faculty who call on their multiple "affinities" with language, national culture, linguistic, and pedagogical features to describe their own theories and practices as they negotiate the current EU guidelines. Building on her earlier work with the concept of affinity to understand "how transnational mobility is enacted," she demonstrates that scholars' affinities with particular traditions evolve, as they "adopt a certain global discourse in their teaching and research, while also maintaining their own local and national identities." She developed these theories of affinity in part through years of participation at the IRC and the Transnational Group at the CCCCs, where she also helped create and sustain new networks of international researchers, such as the larger cross-cultural, multi-sited collaborative study of writing in four countries (Colombia, Nepal, India, and Romania) of which this project is a part.

Otto Kruse also examines how writing cultures are central to understanding differences across local cultures, in this case, across disciplines. After exploring the notion of "culture" more generally, Kruse offers a frame for *writing cultures* that includes interrelated dimensions of writing practices,

languages, genres, beliefs, skills, and support that make up their defining core. He focuses on the dimensions of beliefs, skills, and support in three disciplines: mathematics and sciences, humanities, and the social science of economics, policy, and the law.

Using a European Writing Survey developed to identify features of writing cultures (with responses from 438 undergraduate students and 144 faculty), he compares what faculty value in student writing, what they consider "good writing" to be, and what students value and consider. While the study finds a fair degree of coherence between faculty and students overall in terms of what's valued, gaps were evident between the two populations' perceived actual competence in the areas valued. In comparing the data across populations, Kruse also found in-depth and provocative descriptions of disciplinary differences, particularly in terms of critical thinking and constructing convincing arguments.

Kruse underscores the value of interacting with scholars not just from different regions, but also from different institutional contexts and levels of resource. And his reflective piece highlights several points, among them, that encounters with other scholars can prompt our thinking and help us to question our research design and assumptions. He mentions the IRC collaboration helped him to move beyond his own "Euro-centered" perspective. Reading his comments about these differences underscores the necessity of scholars' reflection on their home traditions, whatever they may be.

The large collaborative research project authored by Elizabeth Narváez, Ingrid Luengas, Marisol Gómez, Luz Ángela García, Blanca González, and Hermínsul Jiménez provides yet another lens on international writing studies projects as it contributes to the field of studies on higher education literacy research in Latin-American Spanish-speaking countries—as well as international Literacy Studies. An established network of researchers at four public and private Colombian universities from different regions of the country developed an extensive literature review and mapped out the history of writing research in this context, surveying the rich number of studies from the early 1980s. Most of the studies have focused on varied disciplinary and institutional descriptions of writing development, identified as "immersive" training, rather than a defined sequence of courses across the vertical curriculum. While there are important studies of workplace and professional writing conducted in Spanish, the authors note that very few of the studies treat the actual workplace writing experiences from the perspective of alumni. An additional exigence for this study came in the form of a new national generic writing assessment (2010) for all advanced undergraduates, one which claimed to be useful for assessing success in later workplace writing.

Well-versed international researchers, Narváez, Luengas, Gómez, García, González, and Jiménez made use of the new transnational conversations to consider multiple theoretical and conceptual methodologies to incorporate, create, and analyze "panoramic" data to build large, but nuanced understandings of the multiple lives of writing. In this research study, they decided to consider how a single essay from a single student prompt could address the varieties of interdisciplinary and team-based workplace writing situations alumni would find themselves in. Using models from activity theory and communities of practice research, they characterized many specific ecologies of workplace writing in four professional fields through detailed survey and case study findings for alumni from all four institutions. This study will help create aggregate data on alumni workplace writing in Colombia, and the findings suggest that the type of assessment currently enacted might need to be reconsidered if it is intended to inform claims of student workplace writing effectiveness.

Sabine Dengscherz continues the volume with a seemingly simple and general claim, "Writing is a collective phenomenon." But her essay is a sophisticated treatment of the specific, multi-layered, and multilingual manifestations of that phenomenon through her site of study, her theoretical fellow travelers, and the actual encounters that led her to a set of research studies on writing processes and strategies. In her work at the University of Vienna's Center for Translation Studies (CTS) she has been attempting to understand the complex forms of professional writing strategies that students undertake in at least two or three working languages. In mixed method studies (case studies, analyzed student discussions, interviews, and survey questionnaires), she explored writing processes in German, English, French, and Hungarian against the background of individual stories of writing development. While the context is local in one regard, the situation is clearly international and transnational in scope.

Adapting her colleague M Knappik's work on *viability* as a key social construct (from Judith Butler's notion of the viable, legitimized writing subject), Dengscherz uses both theory from several language and cultural traditions and insights from her empirical work to posit a new stage in viability development, one that moves beyond writer's competent submission to standards and conventions and into the enactment of real discursive agency. Interestingly, she also claims that the IRC aims and practices themselves can act to sponsor "writing through viability" in the way that they create a community that is both academic and professional but also open to multiple insights and perspectives on language use that counter typical forms of hegemonic academic discourse. In Dengscherz's reflections, she notes that presenting her early scholarship at the 2016 IRC gave her important new insights on

professional multilingual writing development as the conversations helped open up the term "professional" from several perspectives and engaged her more fully with other international researchers on multilingual writing development. This enriched perspective promoted the rich theoretical frame she developed over the next several years.

In Djuddah Leijen, Helen Hint, and Anni Jürine's chapter, researchers at a relatively newly established multilingual writing center at the University of Tartu in Estonia found themselves working to identify and negotiate what appeared to be implicit Anglo-American notions of writing acting as default models both for Estonian writers and for writers from other language backgrounds. When Leijen, Hint, and Jürine brought an early part of the project to the IRC in 2018—on creating an Academic Phrasebank for writing in Estonian as an aid for students— the conversation led them to question what they actually knew or understood to be an Estonian writing tradition, and they decided to explore the research literature on that subject. Given how little literature was available, they determined to understand the foundations of these multiple, and divergent orientations, and how to address them by taking up the critical and sometimes vexed set of questions question relating to what constitutes a "writing tradition" within and across languages and cultures and how that knowledge could help them—and other international scholar-teachers—create more informed pedagogical choices.

They first identify some key issues: the dominance of studies in and about English as the privileged source for contrast, the lack of studies on writing traditions in other languages, and the overarching lack of methodological systematicity in considering different levels of textual and genre features (micro, meso, and macro). To begin to address these serious issues, they undertake a rich, detailed, and comprehensive literature review and synthesis across several regional languages and cultures to identify features which can be used to create a broader, more coherent, and more equitable model, one which allows for diversity and variation without privileging a single language or set of dominant languages. The research synthesis is enormously valuable for the diversity of fields and approaches it draws on, and the consequent first full draft of a model provides an excellent framework for productive international/cross-national scholarly and pedagogical work. Their next step is to collaborate with a network of other Baltic State scholars to use their findings to map out the writing and language traditions of Estonia, Latvia, and Lithuania, each quite distinctive, but also sharing geographical proximity, and other historical and cultural experiences. Thus, the questions raised in a single writing center in Estonia promise to make important contributions to international writing studies regionally, as well as globally.

While Dengscherz takes up the large construct of viability in writing studies, Xiqiao Wang, Lifang Bai, and Yixuan Juang treat the notion of *literacy mobility* as it expresses itself at the intersection of digital technologies and global migration processes. They note that most such research to date has focused on migrants, positioning literacy as a key component of global migration, but migration also occurs in the less-examined context of intra-national migration. Their rich case study is of one multilingual writer in a Chinese university who "works with, through, and against national initiatives, regional development plans, and institutional practices to manage her own geographic, academic, social and professional movement." This case study offers key insights into the literacy context in China, one that needs to be much more fully understood. The authors suggest that Jan Blommaert's framing of "scale" is particularly generative in this context and in the broader work of studying multilingual practices and identities. They use five scales of mobility—geographic, literate, imaginary, disciplinary, and social/class-based—to pull apart the layers of mobility in play. The case of graduate student Yi, chosen for the study, offers evidence of multilingual repertoires evolving alongside school- and self-sponsored literacies. The wealth of data collected—semi-structured interviews, field notes/audio recordings both in class and outside of classroom activity, drafting activities, and actual writing—built a deep resource for studying every aspect of the literate development in question. Their careful analysis of these aspects, informed by theories of literacy mobility developed in Rebecca Lorimer Leonard's work, highlights a profile of someone who could be seen as an unusual and extraordinary individual. However, as we read, we see that Yi is an example of the typical richness and complexity in all literate activity and the sophisticated, strategic ways in which multilinguals mobilize and weave semiotic resources to achieve contingent rhetorical goals as they work across boundaries of various types, in both fluid and frictioned moments. In some ways, the reflection offered by Xiqiao about her IRC workshop experiences (as the author who attended) is its own example of the multilingual literate mobility she studies in Yi. The workshop also set the stage for her partnerships with the future co-authors, via layered discourses across the contexts they navigated.

In her chapter, an intervention study of French student writers, Dyanne Escorcia also draws on metacognitive and sociocultural /contextual theory and framing in ways resonant with the work of Kruse or Leijen, Hint, & Jürine on "writing traditions." She explores the ways a specific intervention helps college students to improve their writing, situating her work in the French domain of *littéracies universitaires*, which underscores resistance to a deficit model of writing (any difficulties are "part of the integration processes

that students display while learning the diverse writing practices in HE"). Her project invited students to join a pilot program of writing instruction designed to address needs that had been identified by faculty. The study was grounded in already well-researched support for the value of metacognition, in particular, that student awareness of difficulties leads to improvement. The study tested three approaches: developing metacognitive awareness; teaching students about planning and revising processes they can control; and inviting them to tutor each other. Using pre- and post-writing samples, Escorcia was able to demonstrate that some features improved ("relevance" and "syntax"), while their "coherence" and mastery of their author-roles did not. The chapter also confirmed the existence of a history of writing instruction in France, though not under that name.

Escorcia's reflection about participation in the IRC workshop suggests that it supported both her research approach and her options for approaching teaching. The same benefits she describes from her participation in the workshop are the benefits readers can draw from this volume, and that we as editors can see for ourselves: encountering scholars from different countries and contexts; finding in-depth treatments of writing support; seeing the diversity of disciplinary angles to our common questions.

While many of the studies in the collection consider local, national or regional institutions (students, faculty, curricula) managing complex writing, speaking, language and other discursive traditions, both historical and current, the study offered by Lynne Ronesi and Maria Eleftheriou has a different twist, as its site is an American university in the United Arab Emirates—the American University of Sharjah (AUS)—a superdiverse institution of over 70 student nationalities, negotiating its American identities, structure, practices, and pedagogies in a MENA (Middle East North African) context. Inspired by her first experience at 2017 IRC workshop, Ronesi committed to returning in 2018 with a proposal to study a phenomenon that had long intrigued her as the AUS writing center tutor trainer: the commitment of engineering-major writing center tutors (EMWTs) in view of the "technical-social dualism" through which disciplines like engineering often privilege technical over social and communicative discursive competences. Given that this tension is amplified in MENA countries which attach higher social status to technical fields and lower status to the humanities, she and Maria, the AUS writing center director, determined to understand more about how EMWTs negotiate their writing center and disciplinary identities and experiences, and how they might be able to help others negotiate those multiple and potentially conflicting spaces. The eight research subjects (4 male, 4 female) from several countries— some dual nationality, all with heritage languages other

than English and from varied high school curricula, underwent recorded semi-structured interviews which were transcribed and collaboratively coded. Their analysis found that while the EMWTs' academic experiences did not emphasize literacy and social learning skills, those very skills were noted and appreciated by fellow engineering students, their professors, and prospective employers. Moreover, the study identified epistemological similarities between engineering education and writing tutor training that affirm the potential for mutual interdisciplinary exchange between the engineering department and the writing center.

The final essay in the collection directly takes up one of our central ongoing questions, "What constitutes research?" for writing and literacy teaching and research in this new era of international, transnational, and global higher education. Belinda Walzer and Paula Abboud Habre seek to critique some of the more traditional quantitative and qualitative methodologies often used in writing studies. Instead, they theorize their international collaboration—what they call a *collaboratory*—as the deliverable itself. Rather than their international partnership across the US and Lebanese contexts resulting in quantifiable outcomes and data generalizations, they conclude that the value of their collaboratory is the ongoing, sustained relationship they built over the years and the mutual knowledge-making process itself. Both writing center directors at their respective institutions in the US and Lebanon at the time of the study, Walzer and Habre connected at the 2017 International Research Colloquium after collaborating virtually for several years. It was at the IRC where they discovered both what was unique about their situation, but also that they were part of a "much larger existing conversation and network of international research partnerships."

The essay details the particular challenges they met as they attempted to conduct a large, ambitious, empirical research study virtually across institutions and their growing realization that "producing" a piece of standard published research was not workable, and indeed, not the final aim of their scholarly partnership. "Post-qualitative research," which they explain in depth, thus allowed them a methodology to understand the ways in which their "collaboratory" became the subject of the inquiry itself, demonstrating how it provided the kind of intellectually and personally supportive and generative "third space" where they could problem solve, share resources, and partner in writing center practice to support genuine transnational insights for themselves, their pedagogy, their writing centers, and their changing multicultural and multilingual institutional contexts. In other words, their research was the praxis; a kind of action research. Tracing the longer arc of their intellectual partnership, they show how their scholarly and personal relationship

has extended beyond their original institutions and positions and continues to enrich their professional and pedagogical work to this day. In sum, they make the case that establishing (and studying) these long term inter- and transnational partnerships on a meta-critical level is a vital, if often invisible aspect of international writing studies, and they argue that their own collaboratory is, in essence, a clear instance of the value of the larger extended dialogic network of the IRC.

Looking Back, Looking Forward: "Every seed bursts its container."

In an important sense, the collection acts as testament to our collective devotion to the first incarnation of the IRC—we hope it will be one milestone in a robust and supportive network for decades to come. We see the work presented here as contributing to a strong tradition of publications across national and international geographic contexts. While transnationalism is not an explicit frame for this collection, we remember, too, that transnationalism is neither new nor the sole purview of writing studies (!), and that there is a wealth of scholarship about writing, everywhere, often not in English.

As our position statement situated before this Introduction indicated, we have tried to be mindful of publishing and editing processes that balance various privileged forms of "standardization" and reader conventions with the imperative to be mindful of the variety of language and genre conventions readily and appropriately at play in international scholarly exchange. The International Exchanges series co-editors and the editors of this collection conducted long conversations and email exchanges about what kind of editing would respect those Englishes used outside of standard U.S. academic circles; about whether Standard American English-speaking academics would dismiss a chapter that did not meet preconceived ideas of how an academic article in English should read; about whether we could press against that attitude and help readers to reorient their expectations; and whether academic readers would reject or be curious about references that were not in current SAE canons. Just as in the IRC workshops, we editors had to negotiate our own blind spots and work out how we would enact ethical publication standards.

We invite readers to do the same, that is to examine their own systemically embedded assumptions about how we exchange, collaborate on and respect communicative practices across borders and languages. We invite readers to interrogate their own academic and cultural screens: what might the application of western academic traditions erase? While much work has emerged on students' linguistic agency within classrooms and institutions, how can that

work expand to academics open to new ways of listening to and coding our knowledge construction as academic researchers?

And as we consider the future of the IRC, we understand (to paraphrase the early 20th century American diarist Florida Scott-Maxwell) that every seed bursts its container or else there would be no growth. The CCCCs IRC will no longer be the sole "container" for our work as we seek new forums and associations to move our work forward. This first formal collection marks the end of the era of our collective work and launches us into the next incarnation of this dynamic, but continuous scholarly community. We celebrate this opportunity to honor the invaluable contributions of these international authors, who have so much to offer us all; we know that readers will engage them in the spirit of the IRC workshops—reading with full attention and with open hearts and minds.

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Appendix

Development of IRC and List of Workshops International Research Colloquium on Writing in Higher Education

- 2008: "Proceed with Caution: Working with and Working on Inter-trans-cross-national- institutional-global-cultural Writing Research," (no record of number of participants; we estimate 25)
- 2009: International Writing Scholarship and Collaborative Research: Attending to the Waves Between Continents: (16 Participants)
- 2010: Revisiting and Revising the CCCs through Exchanging International Post-Secondary Writing Research (10 countries, several cross-national studies, 19 scholars)
- 2011: New Webs of Relationships: International Dialogue about Higher Education research (18 countries, 38 scholars)
- 2011: Early Book Planning Discussions
- 2012: Accessing the Future of Writing Studies: Disruption and Dialogue via International Higher Education Writing Research (15 countries, 26 scholars, 19 projects)
- 2013: Diverse Disciplines, "New Publics": The Work of International Writing Research (24 countries, 37 projects, 50 scholars)
- 2014: Unwritten and Rewritten: Spaces for International Dialogue and Higher Education Writing Research. (24 countries, 33 projects, 40 scholars)
- 2014: Proposal to be CCCC Standing Group Submitted for 2015
- 2014: Creation of IRC Wiki on CompPile: https://wac.colostate.edu/community/international-writing-studies/
- 2015: Deep Rewards and Serious Risks: Working through International Higher Education Writing Research Exchanges: (30 researchers, 19 countries, 27 Projects)
- 2016: Responsible Action: International Higher Education Writing Research Exchange (39 researchers, 28 countries, 27 projects)
- 2017: Cultivating Research Capacity through International Exchanges about Higher Education Research (35 researchers, 24 countries, 26 projects)
- 2018: The Transformative Laboring and Languaging of International Exchanges About Higher Education Writing Research (29 researchers, 11 projects, 20 countries) Several could not attend.

- 2019: Co-Exploring International Writing Research and Rehearsing Scholarly Performances (32 scholars, 21 projects, 19 countries) Proposal work begins on collection
- 2020: Probing Commonplaces in International Writing Research (9 presentations)
- Cancelled for COVID
- 2021 Redefining the Common Place: Dialogue on Teaching and Learning in International Writing Research. (14 researchers, 12 projects, 12 countries) Online
- 2022: Committed to an Inclusive Discipline: Broadening CCCC Conversations with Researchers and Contexts. (31 researchers, 28 projects, 24 countries) Online
- 2023: Texts, Institutional Contexts, Framing Theories (4 researchers, 4 projects, 4 countries; occurred simultaneously with the WRAB conference in Norway which significantly impacted U.S. CCCC participants)
- 2024: Research Abundance Outside the U.S. Writing Context (20 researchers, 12 projects, 14 countries)

2 Affinity Work in the Teaching of Writing: The European Union Context

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Abstract. This chapter examines the impact of the European Union as a global force on local curricular and pedagogical enactments. The project takes into account personal, national, and global dimensions as they shape scholars' disciplinary identities and their choices in the teaching and research of writing. The analysis is based on qualitative research at West University of Timișoara, a renowned university in Romania, where eight professors were interviewed about their approaches to the teaching of writing; teaching artifacts such as syllabi, course posters, and teaching materials were also examined. Based on the findings, this chapter argues that scholars at this site perform a certain global discourse while also maintaining their local and national identity. The interplay of their personal and professional experiences involves push and pull forces that allow curricular performances to evolve rather than remain fixed in stable places or stable languages or stable disciplines. Building on this fluidity between languages, traditional writing cultures, and disciplinarity, the chapter argues that the logic of this fluidity is governed by affinity with a particular language, culture, or discourse and evolves through one's lifetime through interactions and global partnerships.

Reflection

My first encounter with the IRC was in 2011.[1] I was a graduate student on a leave of absence. Due to visa restrictions for international students, I had to return to Romania, my home country for the duration of my leave. While in Romania, I was working closely with another graduate student who was in the US, at University of Illinois, the same institution where I was pursuing

1 Please read the opening statement for this collection, "Editing in US-Based International Publications: A Position Statement," before reading this chapter.

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my Ph.D. in English. The title of that conference presentation, "Global Selves: 'The Struggle' and the 'Tools' in Collaborative Research beyond the US Borders" captured the struggles of being an international student at an international site, attempting to present in the US at CCCC, the largest conference on writing. From Ellen Cushman's *The Struggle and the Tools*, I borrowed the terminology needed to articulate the limitations and perspectives I faced as an international scholar. My challenges also stemmed from the fact that, at the time, I did not have access to our school library, and my colleague in the US became my mediator. The experience of doing research from an international site brought deep awareness about the impact of and the limitations of resources when it comes to transnational research. The IRC became a critical site where I could voice this realization. IRC created a space where conversations about international research were encouraged and valued, a space where international scholars could connect to and learn from each other. The following year in 2012, I was able to propose a new project and attend CCCC in person. My connection to IRC developed over the course of years since I stayed in touch with Tiane Donahue and became more familiar with her work of advocacy for international scholarship. In subsequent years, I followed Donahue's example of advocacy in my involvement with the Transnational Composition Group of the Conference on College Composition and Communication (CCCC). Working collaboratively with a team of scholars who have been members of this group, we used social media and various petitions to advocate and amplify the work and presence of international scholars at CCCC and beyond.

Institutional Context

Conducted at West University of Timișoara, Romania, this study is part of a larger project whose goal is to examine writing discourse in Colombia, India, Nepal, and Romania.[2] I chose Romania as a research site for two reasons: (1) I noticed a growing emphasis on writing in Eastern Europe and cross-cultural studies published in or about this region. Since I am originally from Romania, I identified the names of several Romanian scholars who have become increasingly visible due to their work and was intrigued to learn more; and (2) I was fascinated by conversations about writing in Romania specifically, a space that I knew prior to 2004 when I lived there but not in the last two

2 This collaborative study of writing in four different countries was sponsored by the 2015–2016 CCCC Research Initiative. The research team was composed of Sara Alvarez, Santosh Khadka, Shyam Sharma, and myself. Each team member visited one country Colombia, Nepal, India, and respectively, Romania.

decades. Having completed my formative education in Romania (K-12 and BA in English), I was learning about new writing initiatives that did not happen while I was a student there. Although I was connected linguistically and culturally to Romania, the current academic conversations were entirely new to me. I was able to connect with a scholar whose work I have read, Claudia Doroholschi, and inquired about the possibility of conducting a study at West University of Timișoara (Universitatea de Vest Timișoara) where she has been teaching. West University of Timișoara is one of the top universities in Romania. The fact that Doroholschi was already a published author allowed me to become familiarized with writing scholarship about Romania and the larger European space. This institution also hosted one of the first writing conferences in Eastern Europe. It was clear that extended conversations about writing were established in the region, and this school was a hub for these interactions. As the largest university in Western Romania, WUT serves 15,000 students, has 11 colleges and schools, and over 500 active partnerships with universities around the world. Overall, it aims to be an innovative, dynamic institution ("Why is WUT different?"/ "De ce este UVT altfel?"). I conducted my fieldwork in June of 2016 when I interviewed eight professors who were connected to the teaching of writing in Romanian, English, or German. In this chapter, I will focus on three accounts.

Introduction

This chapter examines the role of global forces, specifically the European Union's impact on curricular and pedagogical approaches in local contexts. The project takes into account personal, national, and global influences and how scholars' disciplinary identities and affinity for certain languages and cultures shape the teaching of writing. Based on analysis of qualitative research—interview data and teaching artifacts—at West University of Timișoara (WUT), Romania, this chapter argues that scholars at this site adopt a certain global discourse in their teaching and research while also maintaining their local and national identity. They do this by incorporating and connecting to larger writing cultures of Europe originating in France, Germany, and England/ the US. In doing so, they engage the European Union's global and multicultural discourse without a disregard of their own national identity. This balance between unity (being an EU citizen) and diversity (being a Romanian in the EU), between the global and the national and the personal involves push and pull forces allowing curricular performances to evolve rather than stay fixed in stable places or stable languages or stable disciplines. Fluidity between identities, languages, or disciplinary spaces is

not new. However, what I argue is that the logic of this fluidity is governed by affinity with a particular language, culture, or discourse, and this logic has the power to disrupt hegemonic global forces. In the context of transnational mobility, data also show that all influences are complex and dynamic rather than unidimensional. I follow the complexity and dynamics of these forces in the account of three scholars who teach writing at West University of Timișoara (WUT) in Romania.

Affinity in the context of language and literacy studies has been theorized mostly in scholarship about online communities (e.g., DeLuca, 2018; Gee, 2005) and immigrant literacy and transnationalism (Mihut, 2014). I built on my previous work, *Stories from Our People*, where I defined affinity as "a capacious term comprising empathetic language, emotional and personal narratives as well as those relations that create the infrastructure of texts, people, and communities" (2014, p. 9). In this chapter, I refer to literacy as affinity that covers "all aspects of the learner's life, across contexts vertically and horizontally" (Mihut, 2014, p. 13). Drawing on this definition, affinity implicates both the emotional work embedded in language and discourse and relationships formed based on commonality of experience, language, or culture. This latter aspect of affinity—relationships, connections, or points of intersections—is significant to the focus of this chapter as it shows how global scholars develop partnerships and remain influenced by mentors throughout their professional life trajectories.

Literature Review

Legacies: The Ethos of Learning and the Mutilated Curriculum

Studying academic literacy at West University of Timișoara, the same institution that I visited, Tilinca (2006) explains Romania's unique writing culture by examining the geography of this region and a particular "ethos of learning." Although geographically located in Central Europe, Romania is almost always associated politically with Eastern Europe and the former Communist bloc, shows Tilinca (citing Milan Kundera) in her dissertation. She further positions this space in its historical frame as part of Transylvania and thus, acknowledges its deep roots connecting it to the Austro-Hungarian empire. A famous saying refers to Romania as "a Latin island in a Slavic Sea" capturing Romania's desire to establish its linguistic identity as a Romance language despite its geographical location—surrounded by Slavic-speaking countries. Most importantly, Tilinca (2006) points to two important discourses characterizing Romanian education, particularly higher education: (1) the ethos of learning and (2) the totalitarian discourse. In defining the ethos of learning,

Tilinca relies on Virgil Nemoianu's (1993) article, "Learning over Class: The Case of the Central European Ethos" that defined it as "focused not on gainful labor and individual achievement but on the acquisition of learning and on the communitarian recognition of the primacy of learning as a standard of merit and social advancement" (p. 79). Essentially, this means that Romanian society valued learning and books and invested in literary societies through which they promoted the value of education and being educated over one's social position in society. Drawing on Nemoianu, Tilinca explains that in 1882 there were close to 4,000 cultural societies in the Hungarian part of the Austro-Hungarian empire which included Transylvania (now a Romanian region). The numbers skyrocketed to 11,000 in the early 20th century. Some of these literary societies have been linked to the formation of national academies in this region; others led to special interest groups who initiated schools, book clubs and later, public libraries (Tilinca, 2006, p. 12).

The other influential force on writing in Romania's higher education has been the totalitarian regime. The communist rule pushed countries from Central Europe further east in terms of "culture and learning" (Tilinca, 2006). While books and literacy continued to hold a significant role, the political regime appropriated and used the ethos of learning to serve its purpose: to manipulate and exercise social control. One such example is the change of curriculum. Tilinca calls this change the "mutilated curriculum," a school curriculum that preserved the hard sciences intact while retooling the humanities to serve a nationalist agenda and cutting off social sciences entirely. Although much of the writing in K-12 and postsecondary education in Romania was influenced by the French and German traditions before the Communist regime, after its installation, this changed; language and writing became channeled into one dominant way of communication, "the official speak," meant to serve the country's political agenda (Pavlenko et al., 2014). This official discourse made use of stale expressions and overuse of superlatives to describe the perfect socialist life. In other words, it became synonymous with falsehood or as Sonia Pavlenko et al. (2014) explain, "wooden language"—language that is fixed, unmovable, lacking substance and meaning. Significant changes in the curriculum were shaped by the Soviet model's push for standardization, the monopoly of the state over institutions of higher education, and an advancement of a centralized economy which decided majors and specializations (e.g., technical, medical, and agricultural studies) (Doroholschi et al., 2018). Additionally, in higher education, teaching was separated from research where the latter was moved to specialized research centers. The reintegration of research into the university occurred gradually after the 1989 revolution, however only after Romania's adherence to the European Union in 2007, did significant

changes emerge. Romania's integration into the EU engendered support for various research projects, funding and grants for research, and substantive assistance in collaborative partnerships for teaching and research.

EU's Impact on Higher Education in Romania

EU mandates, values, and vision have significantly impacted higher education in Romania and in the region. In addition to larger trends of increased mobility and new technologies that are pervasive worldwide, the EU also acknowledges specific countries' history and identity; thus, there is a constant dance between unity and diversity. Countries from the Eastern European bloc, however, have had their unique path of change and transformation. Doroholschi et al. (2018) explain that former communist countries, generally placed under the Eastern European banner, have been regrouped under Central and Eastern Europe and called "transition countries" (p. 4). This relabeling perhaps comes in an effort to remove the stigma of these countries being considered "left behind" compared to Western Europe. The structure, philosophy, and practice of higher education in this region have relied on the Humboldtian model of education with a rigorous research emphasis. However, certain countries like Romania followed closely the French educational system because of the Latin origin of Romanian and French languages. Being affiliated linguistically with the French allowed the Romanians to claim kinship of culture and language and simultaneously reject the Russian influence, which has always posed a threat to Romania's sovereignty.

The most significant transformation of higher education in Europe, a period of "redefinition and reform" (Doroholschi et al., 2018), has been affected by the Bologna Declaration signed on 19 June 1999. Included below are a series of propositions of this reform, which by and large emphasize connectivity and easy transfer of credits and credentials:

> Connecting national systems through issues such as shared degree programs, a credit transfer system, qualification frameworks, and accreditation programs to make educational programs in Europe more transparent and more permeable across countries. (Kruse et al., 2016, p. 12)

With the Bologna Declaration and the restructuring of higher education, a significant growth emerged in partnerships and exchanges between institutions and researchers in Europe, especially between the East and the West regions of Europe. One of the challenges of the Bologna process poses a critical dilemma. On the one hand, it has been instrumental in enforcing

more standardized ways of learning in EU countries. On the other hand, it has sought to foster multilingualism and cross-cultural communication as a European value. According to the EU's official language policy, it is a European value "to promote multilingualism with a view to strengthening social cohesion, intercultural dialogue and European construction" (Council of the European Union, 2008, p. 3). There is an apparent contradiction between fostering plurilingual approaches where EU countries are encouraged to promote their own identity, language, and culture and standardized educational goals where distinct features of one's educational system have been erased in the interest of EU values and platforms.

EU standards and vision become apparent in what programs and collaborative projects are selected for funding. In terms of writing, I noticed a surge of collaborative projects with scholars representing various EU countries, which may suggest an underlying EU preference to incentivize the study of writing education through a comparative, plurilingual approach. A few of such studies include Madalina Chitez and Otto Kruse, 2012; Chitez et al., 2015; Pavlenko et al., 2014; these studies explore genres across contexts, writing cultures in different countries, and the influence of various rhetorical traditions on local writing practices. One partnership called Literacy Development in the Humanities (LITHUM) that started in 2011 brought together scholars and institutions from three different countries from Eastern/ Southeastern Europe and one from Switzerland. The purpose of the LITHUM project was to investigate academic writing and the larger context of higher education such as the impact of internationalization; the context of academic publications; the development of new genres determined by the Bologna process; the growth of multilingualism, and the role of English as the new lingua franca (Kruse et al., 2018, p. 30). The results show similarities in terms of writing cultures, in particular writing genres which was the focal point of analysis, despite the diverse histories of the countries involved in the partnership: Ukraine, Romania, Macedonia, and Switzerland. The results also emphasize the need to facilitate access to international disciplinary communities, develop shared resources, adopt mentorship models for conference presentations and publications, and invest in the development of new writing courses which are to be integrated in the curriculum (Kruse et al., 2018).

Other projects and partnerships reflect, in part, the EU's commitment to diversity, research, mobility, justice, and other European values. Under the pressure of globalizing forces, many studies on writing in the European Union context examine writing comparatively as shown earlier but also explore the larger intellectual writing traditions that have permeated European universities—the Anglo-Saxon, German, and French influence. Each one of these

writing traditions captures a distinct intellectual approach: (1) the Anglo-Saxon is focused on logic, data analysis, and purpose; (2) the German is meant to advance a theory and engage in dialog, or (3) the French aims to display eloquence (Pavlenko et al., 2014). These writing traditions are widely present and discussed both in writing scholarship in European countries and were mentioned numerous times by my respondents during the interviews. There is certainly the danger of approaching these rhetorical traditions through an essentialist lens as a unified, singular representation of the nation, culture, and respectively language with which they are associated. A long history of contrastive rhetoric originating with Robert Kaplan (1966) has pointed to the problems of this type of essentialist approach and subsequent studies and uptakes of contrastive rhetoric have interrogated, expanded, and critiqued it extensively. Offering a thorough critique of contrastive rhetoric is beyond the scope of this chapter, especially since many scholars have already accomplished this effectively, and exposed the limits of contrastive rhetoric due to its "reductionist, deterministic, prescriptive, and essentialist orientation" (Kubota & Lehner, 2004, p. 10). A *critical* contrastive rhetoric, however, underscores systems of power and marginalization as well as a dynamic view of language and culture (Kubota & Lehner, 2004). While the three rhetorical traditions mentioned earlier—the Anglo-Saxon, German, and French—are slightly different from contrastive rhetoric in that they emphasize three different languages, English, German, and French rather than English as the only measuring standard, associating one language with one nation remains reductionist and problematic. At the same time, we need to understand these traditions are introduced from the perspectives of those on the ground who have been affected by these writing traditions and the message they exported to other countries at the margins of Europe. In this chapter, I capture the participants' perceptions of mainstream rhetorics circulating in Europe, because the participants themselves mentioned them in the interviews and often, identified or connected their own writing identity, their institution, or the Romanian writing culture to these mainstream rhetorics. Whether they have done so critically or not is debatable. In taking a grounded theory approach, this chapter accounts for the participants' perspective on this matter, which becomes even more significant when the respective participant's identity has been marginalized or in search of legitimation. Whether politically, culturally, or linguistically, Romania and the Romanian subject has sought and fought over the course of years to establish their identity and value in the European context, but due to various factors, this process of legitimation has developed by seeking identification or at least association with other European countries that were larger, more powerful, wealthier, and with broader influence. While it is essential to avoid treating traditions as essentialist, it is also absolutely crucial to understand their spread of influence

on people, cultures, and languages that have been traditionally marginalized or deemed insignificant in Europe and to view them through the powerful influence they exerted over other languages and cultures in Europe.

Such an orientation towards established writing traditions/ histories is necessary particularly in the case of smaller countries like Romania. Like many other countries in Southern and Eastern Europe, Romania occupies a small territory, and their languages are only used by a limited number of people. As Pavlenko et al. (2014) explain, Romania has a particular history that shapes writing instruction in higher education institutions. By joining the European Union, Romania has gained an open door to reinstallation of research and development of new, original ideas.

It is against this backdrop of both Romania and the EU context that I situate this study of the teaching of writing at West University of Timișoara. As shown earlier, Romania in the European context emerges as deeply connected to the main intellectual traditions (Anglo-Saxon, German, and French). The connections to these writing cultures are complex and often follow a logic that is nonlinear. I explored these connections and affinities with languages and cultures of Europe in the remainder of the chapter.

Methods and Methodology

Data Collection

Of the eight interviews with professors teaching writing at West University of Timișoara, I selected three accounts whose references to global mobility and EU were tied to one or more of the three rhetoric traditions mentioned in much of the scholarship from this region: the German influence, the Anglo-Saxon, and the French writing tradition. These three professors, Drs. Tucan, Țâra, and Șandor provided insightful accounts concerning the impact of EU on the curriculum, student and faculty mobility, and the teaching of writing, in general.

This chapter's data come from a larger cross-cultural, multi-sited, collaborative study of writing in four different sites—Romania, Nepal, India, and Colombia. Our research team's main research questions centered on two key issues: (1) writing identity/ definitions and (2) globalization.[3] We asked: (1) How do writing scholars in particular international sites define writing in college and (2) What is the role of internationalization and mobility in the teaching of writing at those respective sites? The specific interview questions are included in Appendix A. In this chapter, I focus only on data that I collected at one site,

3 The research team was composed of Sara Alvarez, Santosh Khadka, Shyam Sharma, and myself.

the West University of Timișoara, Romania and will only address the second research question about internationalization and mobility. I gathered qualitative data, specifically eight interviews with professors who were teaching writing in various humanities-related disciplines (English, Romanian, German, etc.) and extent data such as course syllabi that the respondents shared with me. All interviews were conducted in June 2016 and they vary in length ranging from 40 to 100 minutes. Overall, I obtained 469 minutes of interview data resulting in 208 pages of transcript that were analyzed using grounded theory and emerging codes. Guided by constructivist grounded theory (Charmaz, 2006), I applied both apriori codes such as EU, diversity, mobility, etc., which were established in response to the second research question and in vivo codes—descriptive codes that allowed me to preserve our participants' exact language or phrasing. Based on this coding, I identified four major categories of analysis referring to the internationalization of writing in Romania: (1) mobility of faculty and scholars (codes: "partnerships" or "exchanges" or "faculty area of expertise[4]"); (2) mobility of students (code: "student exchanges"); (3) writing traditions (codes: "Anglo-Saxon," "French influence," "German tradition," "Russian influence," "The Romanian way of writing," etc.); and (4) pedagogy, teaching tools, and assessment (codes: "textbook," "bibliographies," "Cambridge exams"). In Appendix B, I provided a sample of my coding.

In this chapter, I will discuss writing traditions/ influences since this was the most prevalent of these four major themes. Also, I only discuss three accounts because they offered the most information on these writing traditions. I coded all the transcripts solo since most of the interviews were conducted in Romanian and no one else in our research team spoke the language. Once I focused on the writing traditions/ influences, I identified the details surrounding the mentioning of these rhetorical traditions and when they were invoked: to define their own writing culture, to point to the current trends in writing, or to refer to the institutional or national writing culture, etc.

Background of the Three Professors

Dr. Țâra: A professor of Romanian studies with French influences. Dr. Țâra teaches a course in written communication (to sophomores) and a course in

4 Although this code may seem unusual relative to faculty mobility, it is in fact directly related to mobility since one's ability to speak English and one's area of expertise often determine the type and extent of international connections and partnerships. Faculty in the English department, for instance, have been much more mobile in EU while faculty from the Romanian department, much less because their expertise in the Romanian language and culture does not transfer easily across borders.

paleography for graduate students; both courses are taught in Romanian. He has graduated with a double specialization: French and Romanian studies and classical languages: Greek and Latin. His dissertation was focused on Latin linguistics, old texts, and the transition period from the widespread use of Latin to Romance languages. His understanding of old texts and the written word's role in preserving and changing society and culture has largely shaped his approach to writing. In his course in written communication, for instance, Dr. Țâra has included a unit on the stakes of writing in the transition from the oral culture to a written culture in Ancient Greece. His purpose is to emphasize the ways in which writing contributes to knowledge making and the preservation, circulation, and study of texts.

Dr. Tucan: A professor of Romanian studies with English/Anglo-Saxon influences. Dr. Tucan teaches two courses in the MA program titled, Literature and Culture within Romanian and European Contexts. One course is Literature and Trauma, focusing on the most tragic events in the 20th century, the Holocaust and the Gulag and a second course in Academic Writing. Dr. Tucan's approach to the teaching of writing, although having the same disciplinary affiliation as Dr. Țâra, is permeated by various terminologies and rhetorical moves typical to the Anglo-Saxon rhetoric. Perhaps, this is due to his participation in transnational partnerships with colleagues from Switzerland, Macedonia, and Ukraine. Dr. Tucan adopts Swales' rhetorical moves and inserts them in a MA course in academic writing. Not only have the partnerships raised awareness about various rhetorical traditions, but they also introduced the participants to empirical research and methodologies. Both approaches to writing are enlightening yet one scholar (Dr. Țâra) leans toward a more traditional approach towards mobility and English as a lingua franca while the other scholar (Dr. Tucan) is readily embracing the influences of the globalization and the EU mobility to and between EU countries. Dr. Tucan speaks and writes in English but has been educated in French language and literature.

Dr. Șandor: A professor of German studies. Dr. Șandor teaches courses in linguistics, such as grammar, syntax, morphology, and dialectology. In terms of writing courses, she teaches scientific writing which is integrated into practical courses; Dr. Șandor also teaches courses in editing and proofreading.[5] She explained that with the Bologna process, there has been a stronger push toward uniformity of the curriculum which effected changes in writing courses as well. With the Bologna process, a course that used to be taught toward the end of a four-year BA degree, with emphasis on thesis writing, got

5 Practical courses are similar to U.S. labs. They can be connected to a lecture course or offered independently covering particular subjects/ themes.

moved into the first-year curriculum with the title "Techniques of Scientific Writing." Șandor also explained that it is customary for German lecturers and professors to serve as visiting professors. As a result, much of the content of a writing course is shaped by practices developed at German universities. For instance, a writing genre/ paper called "referat" in the German school means an oral presentation, while in most contexts, it is a review of literature or a report without the critical evaluation of sources.

Findings

The key findings show the EU influence manifests in three different ways: (1) the mobility within EU and the partnerships established, (2) student mobility, and (3) the restructuring of the curriculum and the influence of traditional rhetorical traditions: German, Anglo-Saxon, and French. The accounts of the three professors I interviewed show that scholars on the ground resist following one single, unidirectional narrative—adopting the EU values and mobility at face value or uncritically implementing EU mandates in their local context. Rather, the EU influence on their teaching is varied and non-linear. In fact, even when a direct correlation of influence is established such as a professor who speaks French to be influenced by the French writing tradition or a professor in the German studies to adopt the German style of writing, etc., this does not always happen. The influences of these global writing cultures are varied and dynamic.

The results of the analysis show that each of these professors' affinity with a particular intellectual tradition of writing is not fixed, but rather evolving. Whether they were initially influenced by one of these established rhetorics—Anglo-Saxon, French, and German—or new actions through global mandates, over time other influences have shaped their views and teaching of writing. Altogether each of these influences are contested or permeated by their personal, professional, and institutional identities. Ultimately, my observation is that their connection to a particular writing culture is governed by affinity. They were most influenced by a writing tradition with which they shared a certain connection or commonality of experience, knowledge of a language, or culture that influenced their approach to writing.

Affinity with the Anglo-Saxon Rhetoric and English as Global Language

First, one of the respondents showed a clear affinity with the Anglo-Saxon rhetoric by pointing to identification (E.g., we write like the English or like the French); writing genres, and course bibliography. Of the three rhetorical

traditions have been mentioned, Dr. Tucan mentioned them relative to definitions of writing and situating one's identity in connection to these established writing cultures. He explains this as follows,

> this discussion [about how the teaching of writing in Romania] is absolutely contextual. In the Romanian university context, not to mention K-12, writing was not taught. Lately, however, under the influence of Anglo-Saxon academy, conversation emerged about what it means to write in the context of one's discipline.

As our conversation about definitions of writing evolved towards writing genres and what is being taught in a writing course, Tucan referred to "a terminology chaos in the Romanian context," which he attributed to the "lack of a [writing] tradition." He further explains:

> For instance, many call a paper that we ask students to write, a research paper, an original paper with all the key elements; others call it an essay. Well, in the Romanian context, we understand an essay to be something completely different, especially compared to those in the English department.

Notable is that Tucan keeps referring to writing in the Romanian context by comparing traditions or genres to what happens in English or Anglo-Saxon writing culture (notice that this is his terminology). He attributes the conversations about writing and writing in the discipline to the Anglo-Saxon education/ influence. In fact, comparing Romania to other writing cultures is also reflected in the fact that in the bibliography of a course he teaches in Romanian, Tucan has included texts about writing and research written by Romanian authors but also by English authors, such as Swales and his well-established rhetorical moves. This openness towards the Anglo-Saxon and English influences is interesting especially since he is a professor of Romanian studies with a background in French. Yet, through an affinity to the English language, Tucan has allowed other writing influences than what we would typically expect from a scholar with his background.

Despite his background and knowledge of French, we find him offering a critique of the French influence on the Romanian writing culture:

> This has to do the French influence that was fairly strong, that at some point configured our institutions. This is what the French influence did: it made it so that Romania would not talk about writing. Writing was learned through imitation.… But things changed in France, too.

As Tucan further elaborates on the content of the writing course he has taught, he contrasts the French or traditional writing (his terminology) to the newer influences of the Anglo-Saxon rhetoric. In his course, he explains to students the need to master the new model (the Anglo-Saxon) not just because English is the lingua franca of academia, (the way French used to be at least in Romania), but because it helps students in search of sources in international databases and this rhetoric explicitness is helpful to students. Tucan's perspective about English as the main language of communication in writing courses in universities in Eastern and Central Europe is both supported by research (e.g., Harbord, 2010) but also by a certain culture of appreciation of the English and American language.

In this scholar's approach to writing and the teaching of writing, the need to clarify writing terminology emerges forcefully as he situates writing in the Romanian context and in relationship to other major rhetorical traditions. The genres and the bibliography of the course he is teaching are imbued with his awareness that writing in the Romanian context is tied to the past (the French model of education) but also to the present moment and future as English is the lingua franca in academia.[6] As such, we note the dynamics of influences in his professional and linguistic formation (he mentions having learned English in high school but later focusing on French and now back to English) and in the evolution of the global academic sphere. His approach to the teaching of writing allows Romanian texts and Anglo-Saxon rhetoric (Swales' rhetorical moves) to shape students' praxis so that they can stay attuned to the current moment. His approach aligns with EU mobility and the fluidity of global forces, largely influenced by his own affinity with the English language.

Affinity with Old Traditions of Writing: The French, German, and Ancient Greek Rhetoric

In the case of Dr. Țâra, the influence of French rhetoric and tradition is noted in the process of transition from the Romanian system of education to the French one when he was a Ph.D. student at the Sorbonne. In turn, his own experience and disciplinary affiliation has impacted his approach to the

6 The French model of education has not been defined in detail by any of the participants. However, in Romania, it is a known fact that the French have influenced the Romanian education system. Doroholschi (2018) and many other scholars have mentioned this influence as well. The French influence was dominant even in the fact that French was one of the mandatory foreign languages that all K-12 Romanian students had to learn in addition to English or German.

teaching of writing. First, Dr. Țâra refers to the "old style professors," who would contend that "every statement is an argument." According to Țâra, they were formed in the German school which means "fantastic precision and rigor." From this acknowledgement of the German influence of his professors/ mentors, he elaborated on the fact that the school of linguistics in Romania has a long-established tradition whose foundations were laid out by the Germans. Established during the interwar period, Țâra further explains, "the golden age of Romanian linguistics" continued during the communist period and and the emergence of the Romanian studies linguists, scholars, scholars whose work Țâra found in Western libraries. In his views, these scholars' work was written to endure the test of time; they constitute, as he explains, "models of engagement" with text, "models of scholarship."

This type of admiration and respect for a particular scholarship is not atypical. As a scholar who was educated in the region, I identify with Țâra's perspective. I was also educated to value and align my scholarly aspirations to a certain standard of excellence that was determined by the academic culture in Romania at the time. How those standards were established was, however, a mystery. What is known is that when it comes to the teaching of writing, as mentioned earlier, Dr. Țâra adopts an orientation towards the past, the French tradition due to his doctoral training in France and the German tradition that shaped writing and research in Romania in the old golden period before the Communist regime. Țâra also showed appreciation of the written culture of Ancient Greece. His belief is that an understanding of the role of writing in the past can shape the present and future. His preference for the preservation and value of the Romanian language, in particular the lexis, surfaced as he mentioned the current influence of English on the Romanian vocabulary. He encourages students to resist the "anglicization" of the Romanian language. To be more exact, he upholds that English lexis should be used only when a Romanian equivalent is not available in Romanian.

These instances—Țâra's appreciation of the "old-fashioned professor" and the established German rigor of older scholarship, a preservation of Romanian lexis instead of the new English wave, and the influence of Ancient Greek culture—points to dynamic influences that are strikingly different from Dr. Tucan's. While Tucan is oriented towards changes moving forward, Dr. Țâra seeks change and inspiration for the current moment in the old traditions of scholarship and mentors. Tucan is also preoccupied with language and rhetoric in a more abstract or objective way. He mentions Swales and other texts that shape the Romanian ways of writing, but Țâra, in his discussion of French and German influences on writing, identifies people. He particularizes influences of professors and mentors whom he seems to know

and remember in a personal manner. Tucan displays an affinity for trends, lingua franca, and global change while Țâra shows an affinity with memorable experiences occasioned by mentors or key influencers of a movement or school of thought.

Affinity through Heritage Language and Cultures: Long-term Partnerships and Exchanges

In Șandor's account, my analysis shows that the EU's most significant impact on writing comes in the form of partnerships, workshops, and exchanges. These are established either between scholars, schools, or students from Germany and Romania. For instance, in response to my question about the teaching materials and resources for teaching writing in the German major, Dr. Șandor explained that she had attended a series of workshops with colleagues from Giessen, Germany, in the context of a partnership that lasted for five years. Due to the specialization of several colleagues at this school, academic writing was one of the topics of the workshops. Interestingly, as Șandor showed, the partnership offered workshops not only for faculty but for all students too—freshmen, sophomore, and junior students. During this partnership, teaching materials and resources were exchanged as well as open conversations about writing practices, conventions, citations, and other writing norms. Șandor provided a specific example about citations:

> Here in Romania, I wouldn't say it's just the German tradition but in general, a few years ago, there was a general way of citing a source: someone said this or referred to "someone once said." We did not have to provide the exact source, to give the exact moment or place, right? So, very vague.

This "vagueness" in citations is further discussed in terms of the structure of a scientific text. While in Romanian, the writing guidelines are evolving, the German influence on citations and writing is felt strong as shown in the next section.

These partnerships between schools, scholars, and students in Germany and Romania—some of which having been established before the adherence to the EU—and the nature of these partnerships make this German influence on writing unique. First, the influence of the German school in Romania has been established longer than the EU presence. Șandor mentions that writing was taught in the German major since the 90s. This is much earlier than the current trends and conversations about writing in the context of the EU and the Bologna process. For instance, the partnership with the Giessen school

was not an EU-sponsored project which suggests that various other types of interactions and influences have been taking place outside of the EU purview. This, perhaps, explains why mobility in the German major has multiple levels of interactions, where German professors teach workshops but also spend a longer time teaching and training at Romanian universities. Mobility and exchanges also operate between students, especially those close to graduation who are provided with the chance to do research at German schools. This affords them with a wide range of resources and research opportunities, as Șandor explains.

Second, these partnerships are more ample in their reach than traditional EU partnerships due to cultural, geographic, and historical affinities. The students involved in these exchanges and partnerships are not necessarily new to mobility although they may be new to academic discourse and research. Many students interested in the German major are, in fact, bilingual and/or ethnically German. Due to the ethnocultural context of this region, the Banat region, where West University of Timișoara is located, we can find a large number of German minorities who attend bilingual K-12 schools and speak German as their first language. Unlike the English and French majors, the German major mostly includes heritage speakers of German, and for this reason, their relationship with the German language and culture is unique. Many of them have family in Germany and are used to visiting and traveling back and forth. This ethnocultural connection to Germany enhances the type of partnership and exchanges that are established between academic institutions because the latter is built on already existent personal and cultural affinities with the German language.

While the German writing tradition and rigor in citations and the partnerships established are expected influences, Dr. Șandor added a surprising observation: "Lately, Germany resembles very much the English and American tradition … therefore, we became affiliated a bit with the larger model. However, in the Romanian tradition, there are certain aspects that are different or in the French one, certain aspects that are different and we discuss this." Although the German tradition is clearly dominant, a movement toward the Anglo-Saxon "larger" models is notable here, as Șandor explains. This shows a dynamic movement of influences and traditions. Similar to Tucan's and Țâra's observations, the factors that shape one's approach to writing are not unidimensional. While the German writing tradition remains pervasive in this case due to its cultural and intellectual presence in the region, it has been impacted by Anglo-American rhetoric. Instead of resistance, Șandor chooses to define this phenomenon of change in terms of "affiliation," or connectedness to larger global practices.

In the three cases studied, Tucan embraces the Anglo-Saxon rhetoric and its influence on his teaching of writing, Țâra shows a resistance in terms of anglicization and aligns his approach to writing to older models and traditions such as the older German influence, while Șandor adopts this change as affiliation, as a dynamic movement to new knowledge. In all three cases, the influences of French, German, and Anglo-Saxon rhetorics are dynamic and evolving rather than static. Initially, due to Țâra's training in the French writing tradition, it was expected that the French school would be the sole influence, but the earlier analysis shows his mention of old mentors who had been trained in the German school. Similarly, Tucan brings forth his French training and Șandor the German school of influence, but in fact, both acknowledge the current influence of English and the Anglo-Saxon writing tradition with its explicitness of conventions, citations practices, and argument structure. These various responses to the global writing cultures are also governed by various affinities to the language, culture, or other aspects of the respective writing tradition. In some cases, such as the German influence, the affinity with the culture, heritage, and history creates stronger ties. In other cases, we note a desire to affiliate with what is modern and global, with the writing in English that has become, for better or for worse, lingua franca particularly in academic discourse and culture.

Conclusion

In this chapter, my goal was to explore the interplay between global and local forces in the teaching of writing in Eastern Europe, in particular in Romania. My analysis focused on three scholars' accounts whose affiliation is not directly related to English since they teach writing in the Romanian studies and German studies majors. What emerges with clarity is the way in which these scholars situate writing in their disciplines relative to larger, global intellectual traditions: French, German, and Anglo-Saxon. However, these influences are dynamic rather than one-dimensional. These traditional rhetorics have impacted the teaching of writing not just in the current EU context but also in the past such as the French influence on Romanian education or the German school on German studies. In addition to dynamic forces, there is a clear complexity in how partnerships are established and how scholars react to global influences, in particular English and the Anglo-Saxon rhetoric. Some choose to embrace it, others to resist, and yet, others to create connections and ways to move forward in their own understanding of writing. The result is not one model or one set of factors but a series of factors always on the move based on affinity with a language, culture, or mentoring experiences.

Glossary

Ethos of learning: Virgil Nemoianu (1993) provides this term "the ethos of learning" as a descriptor of 20th century Romanian society that valued learning, books, and literacy over social class. Nemoianu contrasts the ethos of learning to the "Protestant work ethic" as the bedrock of capitalism in Western societies to show Central Europe's, including Romania's, attention "not on gainful labor and individual achievement but on the acquisition of learning and on the communitarian recognition of the primacy of learning as a standard of merit and social advancement" (1993, p. 79).

French/ German/ Anglo-Saxon rhetoric (writing tradition): Pavlenko et al. (2014) provide a definition of academic writing traditions in different cultures by drawing on Dirk Siepmann (2006). Siepmann (2006), in turn, first relies on Galtung's classification of Saxon, French, and German writing traditions based on differences in "thought and writing patterns" (Siepmann, 2006, p. 132). The Saxon or Anglo-Saxon associated with writing in the US and UK is defined as collaborative; aimed at proposing a hypothesis rather than a theory; and, amenable to dialog and divergent viewpoints. The French intellectual style, on the other hand, has been equated to "linguistic artistry" which presupposes attention to style and clarity and a tendency to conceal criticism of alternative views. The German writing tradition marked by its focus on "theory formation and deductive reasoning" follows an apprentice-based model rather than directly teaching writing. While Galtung's classification has been criticized for its discrete, essentialist, and simplified approach to writing and cultures, a critique that Siepmann briefly addresses, these writing traditions are further studied by Siepmann in the context of education in Britain, France, and Germany. Thus, Siepmann (2006) extends his analysis to actual writing genres and writing expectations in these different countries where he examines prompts, organization, paragraphing, and language and style expectations in order to propose suggestions for translation. While Gatlung's classification seems reductionist, Siepmann's goes a step further to examine the context and the genres of writing in these three different countries/ regions: the US/ UK, France, and Germany. These writing cultures and contexts are important for this chapter since less prominent cultures and countries in the context of the European Union, such as Romania tend to define their own writing tradition relative to the above-mentioned, long-standing writing traditions–Anglo-Saxon, French, and German.

Mutilated curriculum: "The mutilated curriculum" is a term introduced by Mihaela Tilinca to describe the changes and cuts of the curriculum during the Communist regime in Romania. Tilinca (2006, p. 15) defines it as the party-state

controlled education through forcing a mutilated curriculum into the system of education: "pure sciences" as Maths, Physics, Chemistry could do no harm, so these were in and they were allotted many hours; Romanian and History were the appropriate channels for presenting the "heroes" of Romanian history and life and to represent the "Western" and/or the rich as the enemy; any discipline that could teach critical thinking or reflectivity on social issues could not be allowed to exist, so social sciences and applied sciences were banned from schools, libraries or bookshops; the texts and/or the literary fragments included in school textbooks were under severe censorship (e.g., what we could read in our textbooks for English were either invented texts meant to teach us how to present the achievements of communist Romania to foreigners or literary texts chosen to capture the life of the poor and Western world as a profoundly unjust world, Dickens' *Bleak House* or A. Miller's *Death of a Salesman*).

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Appendix A. Interview Questions

1. What does "writing" mean to you as a scholar and teacher? Please elaborate its functions and meanings in the context of higher education in your country or part of the world.
2. What kinds of writing courses do you teach at your institution and in your discipline? What department are these courses part of?
3. What kind of student populations do you serve when you teach writing? What is the linguistic and cultural context of teaching writing at your institution?
4. Are the writing courses (or components) that you teach provided to

you or do you create or adapt them? If you create or adapt courses, materials, or teaching methods, please describe how you do that.

5. Does the curriculum or teaching of writing in your institution or country involve subject matters or communication skills related to globalization and international issues?
6. Do you deal with multiple languages as formal/informal part of teaching writing? If so, how?
7. As a teacher/ scholar of writing [or a related discipline], do you (or the curriculum provided to you) draw(s) on more than one linguistic, cultural, and rhetorical resources? If you are involved in research/ scholarship and professional development activities, do these resources influence those engagements? (How) do you draw upon different cultures, languages, literacy backgrounds, and writing practices that your students bring into the classroom?
8. What kinds of literacy and writing practices are your students engaged in outside of school? Are those practices in any way related to global issues and writing/communication in cross-cultural or international contexts?

Appendix B. Sample Coding

Participant	Transcript	Coding
Bogdan Țâra	It [Romanian] is part of Europe, that it is tied through, the manner in which the elites emerge/ formed, its history, and what it did, and everything is tied to Europe. B: Ah yes. I lived this very fact that our academic system umm is formed from the French one. The structure and the problems are about the same. I didn't notice big difference. Now certainly, when I went there, when I started to write.… I was at a certain level. I ran into new things that I would have encountered here too. … So I learned them there directly, not here. But when I returned, I noticed that they corresponded, that there were no major differences.	**Global/connection to Europe:** teaching the Romanian language through its ties to Europe. **French influence**/ tradition on writing
Bogdan Țâra	There are colleagues whose discourse I find difficult to understand because they use so many English expressions and they are professors of Romanian. In a way, it is not bad to know but … you give am ambiguous image about yourself because it is as if you are lacking in Romanian and do not know how to use it And this is why I tell my students: we use [English] but only when we do not have an equivalent or a perfect equivalent.	**English lexis vs. Romanian** Romanian language preferred—resists English imperialism

Participant	Transcript	Coding
Bogdan Țâra (continued)	But, I learned certain practices/ rituals from the French but I am also convinced that there are, knowing my professors here, those were old-school professors, that in writing any statement had to be an argument/ claim and those professors were formed in the German school primarily, and this meant precision and rigor.	**Influence of the French** The German influence/ tradition • old-school professors • -argument/ claims/ "precision and rigor"
Dumitru Tucan	D: But, this is what could be called research paper [in English] as simple as that a research paper [in Romanian], that's what we call it. Now, we have a terminology chaos. L: I see. D: In the Romanian context, precisely because of this lack of [writing] tradition. For instance, many call a paper that we ask students to write, a research paper, an original paper with all the key elements; others call it an essay. Well, in the Romanian context, we understand an essay to be something completely different, especially compared to those in the English dept. Others use generic terminology, those who work at the university; this is just a paper. I have to write a paper or something like that. Others call it referat. This name most likely comes from the Russian context.	"terminology chaos" (chaos in writing terminology) **Romanian context—no writing tradition** Research paper or essay or the generic paper. Different meanings. (traces this to the lack of tradition in the research and/ or teaching writing)
Dumitru Tucan	D: At some point, we discussed the structure of a research paper, we discussed about the moves and rhetorical moves. I believe that's what Swales call them. L: Yes D: Pasi si miscari retorice.[Steps and rhetorical moves] L: So Swales was translated into Romanian? D: Well, he's not translated into Romanian. He's there in English. But here, it is something completely different, in essence, this MA course is a type of workshop. Evidently, I do a lecture at the beginning about umm the practices of writing in the Romanian modern culture.... And the problems with writing in the educational context—remember the earlier definition—have a lot to do with the French influence that was extremely powerful here and which, at a certain time configured educational institutions. It made it so that in Romania we wouldn't discuss writing. In fact, writing is learned through imitation, including the bibliography....	**Anglo-Saxon influence** Rhetorical moves-Swales— **Anglo-Saxon influence:** • Swales read in English **French influence** powerful – • Influence on educational institutions • writing learned through imitation • writing was not discussed/ theorized

Participant	Transcript	Coding
	We had a series of workshops organized by UMM colleagues from a university in Giessen, Germany, with which we have a partnership; we are in our last, 5th year of the partnership. They held many workshops in Giessen and here, on diverse topics among which was academic writing. We have colleagues as Giessen who specialized in academic writing, scientific writing (he wrote a lot on this, many scholarly articles, Mr. Henish, a colleague got his doctorate in academic writing and this semester, he was here and he ran a workshop with a few modules with first and second-year students, and some students from the third year who were interested, to refresh their memory. "Most recently, Germany resembles very much the English and American tradition, so, yes, the British and the American. We too became more affiliated a bit with the larger model/ framework." "But in the Romanian tradition/ model, there are still aspects that are different or in the French tradition, which is different, therefore we always discuss this thing [difference]. Certainly, situated in the larger context, in the German studies, we have a MA that is even called, "German in the European context: Inter and Multicultural Studies.	Workshops organized by colleagues in Germany A partnership of five years on several topics in including academic writing. Also visited and ran workshops for students as well. Students in the first and second year. Influence of the British and American schools French traditions still present. Studying German in the European context.

3 Assessing Local Writing Cultures: Contrasting Student and Faculty Views on Writing in Three Discipline Groups

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Abstract: While, traditionally, the term "writing culture" has been used to characterize national or language-bound writing practices, today it is preferably applied in studies referring to smaller units like universities, disciplines, institutions or degree programs according to a suggestion of Holliday (1999). The study reported here, aimed at gaining an understanding of differences and commonalities of the local writing cultures in one particular university. The questionnaire used for this had been developed in several European-wide projects for cross-cultural research (Chitez et al., 2015) but is also sensitive to differences between disciplines. Results show a stable set of assumptions on academic writing which are equally accepted by students and faculty from all disciplines. There are also some marked differences between the humanities and the sciences. Students deviate from faculty not in their general preferences but in the degree to which they value certain textual qualities, particularly of academic language.

Reflection on the Relation to the IRC Colloquium

I was invited to the IRC colloquium by Tiane Donahue who participated in our COST action "Learning to Write Effectively."[1] The format of this colloquium was unusual enough to raise my interest, and the opportunity of participating in an intercultural exchange on writing research was something I would not have liked to miss. It also was kind of uncommon to present a

1 Please read the opening statement for this collection, "Editing in US-Based International Publications: A Position Statement," before reading this chapter.

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research project before it had started but this still offered me the opportunity to check the strategy and methodology of my project. There were several questions and remarks after the presentation and what I remember was one participant being amazed about the overly complex arrangement we had chosen for this study. This remark escorted me throughout the lifetime of this project and I am still wondering whether it was justified or not. Can there be intercultural research on writing or genre which is not overly complex? We finally did successfully finish the project and published some results from it (Chitez & Kruse, 2019). What made the project really difficult were the comparisons of genres across languages, a task that is rarely done and I know now why. Our overall finding was that writing cultures in Switzerland follow a national pattern rather than one determined by the three languages French, German, and Italian (with their respective background cultures) involved.

Anyway, the encounter with researchers and projects from all over the world was a good opportunity for me to adjust for my Europe-centred point of view on intercultural aspects of writing to a more global one. Dealing with some 50+ countries and as many languages in Europe, there is not much capacity left to keep an eye on the differences within the Americas or the Asian and Pacific countries, not to speak of the interactions between them. Still, the colloquium sensitized me for the problems of carrying out research in other parts of the world, some of them less privileged with regard to research funding as compared to the Anglophone or Western European countries. As we learned at that time, similar differences existed between Western and Eastern Europe to which we had to adjust in international projects. The long seclusion from international discourses and the orientation towards Russian sciences had resulted in a loss of adaptation to research standards in spite of high intellectual capacities. See the selected collection of Chitez et al. (2018) for more details on this.

As much as the colloquium itself, was the CCC Conference a fruitful lecture on intercultural differences in writing research. As there is no discipline like rhetoric/composition anywhere else in the world, I was amazed by the kinds of discourses going on which differed markedly from what I was used to from our European societies such as EATAW (European Association for the Teaching of Academic Writing), EARLI (European Association for Research on Learning and Instruction) or the Swiss Forum for Academic Writing. When it comes to research, however, the differences between cultures disappear widely. The logic of research is very much the same everywhere in the world and the need to publish in English additionally levels academic communication about research. The opportunity to reflect on this, as the IRC colloquium offers, is certainly a good addition to the usual routines of research

exchanges. I am convinced that exchanges between countries with more and with less resources for research have to be actively sought and arranged as the established publication and conference routines often exclude those who do not have the respective means available.

Institutional Context

The institutional background of my work is a Swiss University of Applied Sciences, a university format focussing on applied disciplines such as architecture, engineering, or life sciences. My School of Applied Linguistics hosts degree programs such as translation, journalism and cultural integration. Not long before the IRC workshop, I had moved from monolingual Germany to multilingual Switzerland (German, French, Italian, and Romansh as national languages) and got interested in the opportunities such an intercultural context would offer for the study of writing. At that time, I was teaching in a study program of translation, and had to develop a two-semester writing program in three languages (German, Italian, French) to introduce the translation students into writing in their first languages. For this, I had to negotiate with teachers from Germany, France, Italy (or from the respective Swiss language regions) on how to introduce students to such language practices as narration, argumentation, reporting, commenting and so on (see Kruse, 2012, for details). This task made me aware that a comment or report is not the same in each of these languages. Still, there was enough common ground on which to find lines of teaching applying to all of them.

From this experience came the idea of doing a comparative study in the main language regions of Switzerland to see how writing cultures differ. Amazingly, almost nothing was known about such differences. At that time, I participated in the COST (European Cooperation in Science and Technology) Action "Learning to write effectively", with over 80 researchers involved. COST is a funding scheme maintained by more than 40 European countries supporting large-scale projects devoted to research exchanges across Europe. I was coordinating a working group on genre. Additionally, I had received a grant for a project called "Writing culture as a mobility factor" which intended to find out to what extent differences in writing cultures prevent student mobility in Switzerland and Europe. It was planned to select three similar study programs in the three main language parts of Switzerland and compare their genres and genre practices. English was used as a reference language. The methods we wanted to apply were questionnaires for students and faculty, interviews as well as focus groups. This was the project I presented at the IRC (International Researchers Consortium) colloquium.

The study reported in this contribution is a follow-up to this earlier research drawing on the questionnaire methodology but using it in the setting of a single university.

Background of the Study

"Culture" is a fundamental term for all humanities and social sciences, pointing at what seems to be essential about communities or societies. Cultures, as is commonly assumed, grow historically and govern social units in a supra-individual way. Culture may refer to phenomena as different as intellectual properties, customs, rituals, educatedness, ideals, values, artefacts, literacy, and patterns of social relations. Holliday (1999) criticised such a use of the term when applied to large groups like nations, language communities or ethnicities, for its tendency to produce stereotypes which are then naturalized and possibly institutionalized. Differences between cultures are overgeneralized by this and the respective communities are "otherised." The "small culture" paradigm for research in applied linguistics that Holliday (1999) proposes instead, tries to avoid essentialist, prescriptive, and normative attributions to nations, languages or ethnicities. To Holliday, small cultures studies may apply to all kinds of groups that are connected by any kind of cohesive behaviour.

A small-culture approach has been adopted as a frame for this study, too, even though the origin of this research line has been rooted in the search for national differences as an approach to understand European writing cultures (Chitez & Kruse, 2012). Even though a historical view on writing does lead to interesting results (for instance, Russell & Foster, 2002) it should not be tied to the assumption that writing cultures are fixed to nations or languages, as the pioneers of intercultural writing research like Robert Kaplan (1966) or Michael Clyne (1987) had done. Rather, writing cultures should be related to smaller organizational units and explained by particular educational policies and practices such as patterns of disciplinary specialization, career patterns, examination and selection processes, university types or the transition processes between educational levels, as Russell and Foster (2002) proposed. In European studies, it turned out that processes of internationalization and shared educational programs of the European Union exerted a strong pressure on unifying teaching and writing practices (Chitez et al., 2018) thus superimposing any tradition that may have governed past practices. Today, cultural diversity and heterogeneity in writing are much better-grounded theoretically and are more common as access point to the study of cultural differences than it had been at the time when intercultural writing research started (Donahue, 2016, 2018b).

Writing cultures are defined, here, as integrated and relatively stable patterns of writing practices, genres and attitudes towards writing that may have emerged in a particular geographical, institutional or functional context. They are not fixed forever but may change whenever they get in contact to other writing cultures, be it within an institution, in national or in international contexts of higher education. Such contacts may permit or enforce adaptation to new procedures, practices or conventions.

To arrive at an operational definition of the term "writing culture", a multilingual questionnaire had been developed in several steps and adapted to the varying realities of European universities including translations into six languages (overview: Chitez et al., 2015). The questionnaire had been designed by an international group of researchers with the aim of providing a measurement tool sensible to differences between various kinds of writing cultures, including disciplines. The core issues of writing cultures as defined by the questionnaire, were the following:

- *Writing practices:* What is writing used for in study programs? This refers to the connections of student writing to learning, grading, selection, and graduation.
- *Languages used:* Which are the languages used for writing? How much English is involved? Are linguistic minority languages included?
- *Genres used as writing assignments:* Is there agreement on which genres are in use and how genres are related to writing practices and disciplinary learning? Are genres defined in any way?
- *Beliefs about "good writing":* What expectations do faculty have on good papers and good uses of writing? What do students assume about the expectations their teachers have about writing?
- *Writing skills:* What skills are necessary, desired and factually developed? How are skills developed or passed on? Is this seen as a collective educational task or left to the students' own initiatives?
- *Desired support:* What kind of support do students receive and what is missing? What would they consider helpful additionally?

What actually forms a writing culture are not only the characteristics within each of these dimensions but also the interrelatedness between them. Stability of such writing cultures results from the fact that, for instance, beliefs are connected to practices, genres to skills, and expectations from faculty to the tutoring strategies of the local writing centre. Additionally, each study program may have detailed specifications of the uses of written exams and will offer guidelines for theses and dissertations. Similarly, state or national legislation may provide a frame for the use of written exams and theses.

This contribution focuses on a selected set of data from a study on the undergraduate degree programs of one particular university in Germany and will focus on three issues: Beliefs about good writing, self-reported and attributed writing/study skills, and desired support for writing. The three faculty groups of the university allow for comparisons between sciences, humanities and politics plus economy. As faculty and students were asked similar questions, a comparison between their views on some issues was possible. Also, comparisons between first-year and third-year students could be done.

Student beliefs about writing are seen as important cognitive units regulating writing performance. They can be related to the writer's self-efficacy (Mateos et al. 2011; Sanders-Reio et al., 2014) or writers' assumption about the writing process (White & Bruning, 2005). Baaijen et al. (2014) see it related to assumptions about text quality and discovery through writing. Another source of beliefs results from the research tradition of epistemic development (Hofer & Pintrich, 1977; Perry, 1999) which sees the students' assumptions about truth, knowledge, and thought as important factors of intellectual development. Epistemic beliefs and writing cultures are closely related within disciplinary contexts as studies by Judith Langer and Arthur Applebee (1987) Barbara Walvoord and Lucille Parkinson McCarthy (1990) and Mya Poe et al. (2010) have demonstrated.

Writing competences were measured by scales asking for the self-assessment of skills relevant for academic writing. As differentiations between the terms "skills" and "competences" vary across disciplines and continents, we used the terms synonymously. Academic writing is not a unitary skill but has to be seen as a complex competence composed of many different sub-skills, each of them rooted in a different part of academic practice (Horstmanshof & Brownie, 2013, 2016; Petric, 2002). Kruse (2013) mentions connections of writing competence to

- Disciplinary knowledge construction which may be related to disciplinary epistemologies, theories, and research methods
- Writing processes, and procedural skills, such as planning, literature searches, structuring, and revision
- Discourse patterns, such as understanding audience, author roles, and communication practices
- Media use, such as making use of word processors, search engines and other digital support measures for writers
- Genre knowledge and genre awareness, such as understanding the differences between essays, seminar papers, research articles, etc.

- Linguistic skills, such as spelling, grammar, and rhetorical means like hedging, metadiscourse, intertextuality, and self-reference.

The scales of the European Writing Survey reflect these issues (except "media use") and ask students about their confidence in several relevant competence fields. Faculty were asked how important they felt these competence fields to be for student writing. To be able to contrast student self-perceived skills with faculty views, faculty additionally were asked to which degree they think their students are skilled.

The overarching research question of the study was: How can we characterize the writing culture(s) of one particular university as measured by the European Writing Survey? The aim was to provide data that can be used to open a dialogue across disciplines within the university and between universities. Responses from 438 undergraduate students of the Bachelor's degree programs and from 144 faculty were included in the evaluation. A full account of all data can be found in Kruse et al. (2015).

Methods

Data collection took place in the University of Constance, a publicly funded institution located in the South-west of Germany, which was founded in 1966 as a reform university. It had, at the time studied, roughly 12.000 students and 100 degree programs. It has not organized its departments and institutes in traditional faculties as is common in Germany but in three large discipline groups, called "sections." The organization in three sections covered:

- *Mathematics and sciences (further referred to as "sciences"):* Mathematics and statistics, computer sciences, physics, chemistry, biology and psychology
- *Humanities ("humanities"):* Philosophy, history, sociology, education, literature, arts, and media studies
- *Politics, economy and law ("pol+econ"):* Politics and administration studies, economics, and law, from which the law institution was excluded and studied separately.

Sampling: The university maintains five different types of degree programs. Next to the Bachelor's, Master's and doctoral programs, there are two state exam degrees, one for law and one for teachers' education. State exam programs involve government officials in exams and degree program committees. Because of differences in lengths and exam structures, these programs were not included in the evaluation. Also, master programs and doctoral

studies were excluded in order to have a homogeneous sample of Bachelor's degrees only. To make comparisons easier to interpret, we also excluded the law students (and faculty) from the third group (pol+econ) and evaluated them separately. Writing assignments and language education in law schools differ in several respects those from the social sciences (Kruse, 2016b) so that an exclusion seemed justified.

Questionnaire: The measurement tool was the European Writing Survey which had been developed and applied in several intercultural contexts (Chitez et al., 2015). The questionnaire exists in a faculty and a student version which both cover similar topics and in some scales are parallelized, so that student and faculty answers can be compared. It was administered in a bilingual German/English version with content-identical, but culturally adapted questions.

The questionnaire hosts several scales to assess different aspects of writing cultures (overview, see Table 1). Different variations of five-point Likert scales were used; all of them with a "medium" or "average" or "neutral" scale value in the middle from which two lower and two higher values were defined. For scales in which most items were of high value for the respondents, the medium scale value was called "average importance." while two answers for "of less importance" and two "of more importance" were offered. For the statistical evaluations, added values of the two highest or the two lowest scores were used. Means, standard deviations, and statistical significance were not calculated as the scale level of Likert scales does not support such statistics.

Data collection: Questionnaires were sent out in a digital form to all students and all faculty of the University. All of them received two reminders if questionnaires were not returned. The return rate for students was 8.15%, for faculty 13.49%. Numbers of the student responses in the bachelor programs were distributed unequally across the sections, sciences: N=95, humanities: N=241, and pol+econ N=103. Average age was between 22 and 23 years for each of the three student groups. Gender distribution was unbalanced with 34.9% male and 65.1% female across all three groups. This imbalance was due to the different gender representations in the sciences and the humanities where the percentage of males was 61.1% in the sciences, 21.2 in the humanities and 43.1 in the pol+econ group. As this roughly represents the overall gender distribution in these disciplines, we did not correct for gender as we see culture not as an abstract trait but as one that connects to a certain group with a certain gender proportion. If the group culture is determined by an overrepresentation of males or females, then we should not change that by adjusting the sample for gender. 94.7% of the sample reported German as their first language and the average number of semesters studied was 7 for the science group and 6 for the two others.

Table 3.1. Selection of Scales of the Writing Survey (Chitez, Kruse, & Costelló, 2015) with Questions and Answer Categories

Nr.	Student scales	Nr.	Faculty scales
1	Competences in academic writing: "Please indicate how confident you feel in mastering these competences?" Answer categories: not at all confident, not very confident, so-so, rather confident, confident	1	Importance of competences in academic writing: "When your students write a paper or a thesis in your discipline, what is particularly important to you?" Answer categories: Five-point scale: of less importance (-2), of average importance (0), of more importance (+2)
2	"Good writing": "What are the characteristics of 'good writing' in your discipline? Please indicate how important you consider the following characteristics." Five-point scale: of less importance (-2), of average importance (0), of more importance (+2)	2	"Good writing": "What are the characteristics of 'good writing' in your view? Please indicate how important you consider the following characteristics." Answer categories: Five-point scale: of less importance (-2), of average importance (0), of more importance (+2)
3	Self-evaluation of study competences: "Below you will find a list of study competences. Please indicate how confident you feel in each of them." Answer categories: not at all confident, not very confident, so-so, rather confident, confident	3	Evaluation of study competences: "From your experience, how competent are your students in these study competences?" Answer categories: not competent, rather not competent, so-so, rather competent, very competent
	Writing support: "How could instructions for writing during your studies be improved?" Please indicate to what extent you consider the following suggestions helpful: Answer categories: Five-point scale: not at all helpful; rather not helpful; so-so; rather helpful; very helpful.	4	Importance of study competences: "How important do you consider the following didactic elements for the teaching and learning in your classes?" Answer categories: Five-point scale: of less importance (-2), of average importance (0), of more importance (+2)

From the 144 faculty who returned the questionnaire, 64.6% were male, 33.4 female. 88.2% reported German as their first language. The distribution to the three sections sciences, humanities and pol+econ was N=46, N=61, and N=37 respectively.

Data processing: Data was evaluated qualitatively along the answer categories without calculating means and standard deviations, as scale levels did not allow for such measures. Significance tests were not carried out for the same reason.

Results

Faculty Beliefs about Good Writing

Figure 3.1 presents the answers of faculty to the question "What are the characteristics of 'good witing' in your view?" The scale consists of 12 items with answer categories in a 5-point Likert scale ranging from very important to very unimportant. Results reveal a relatively high agreement of seven key features which all scored above 90% as "important" or "very important." These were: *Objectivity, basing the text on sources, clear thematic structure, convincing arguments, terminological accuracy, critical thinking, and supporting arguments with evidence*. These values, we may conclude, form the core of academic writing across all disciplines of this university. We will see, however, that only five of them apply to all disciplines and are valued equally by students.

There is a large difference of about 25 percentage points to the next-highest characteristics *creative ideas* and *simple language* which both fall behind with short of 60% each and an even larger difference of more than 50% to, *avoidance of first person* and *elegant language* (both scoring slightly above the 30%.) *Figurative language* seems to be the only characteristic that does not bear relevance for academic writing.

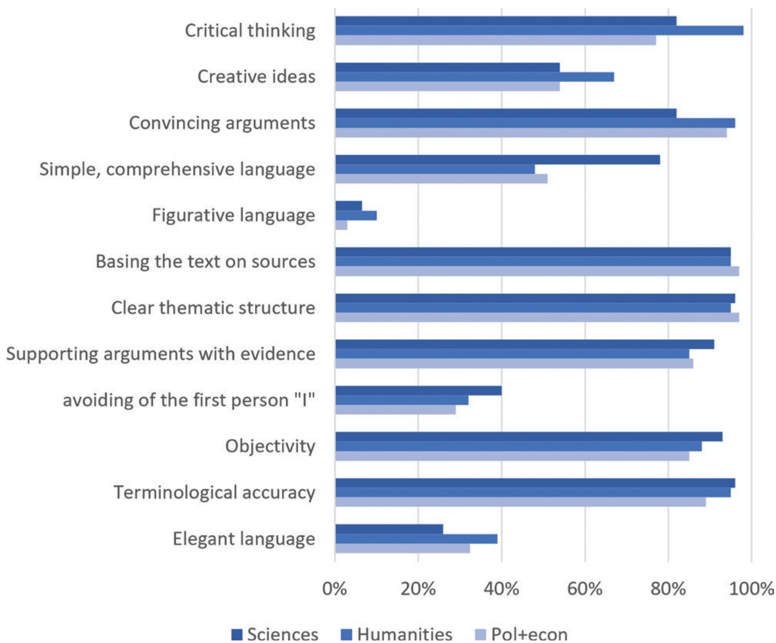

Figure 3.1. Faculty responses: "What are the characteristics of 'good writing' in your view?"

There are some differences when the disciplinary sections are compared. Figure 3.2 shows that only 5 basic values of academic writing score high in all three faculty groups while two of them seem to be valued unequally. *Critical thinking,* as one of them, receives a score of 98% within the Humanities—which makes this clearly a core feature of these disciplines—but scores about 15–20 percentage points lower in both of the other discipline groups. Even if we can assume that critical thinking is a fundamental value for all universities, today, it obviously plays a different role and asks for a different consideration in the disciplines. This also applies to the value of *convincing arguments* where the humanities score 96% and the pol+econ disciplines 94% while in the sciences it reaches only 82%. To account for these differences, it seems justified to speak of the big 5 factors (*objectivity, basing the text on sources, clear thematic structure, terminological accuracy, and supporting arguments with evidence),* which are accompanied by two important but not equally highly valued factors (*convincing arguments, critical thinking*). Taken together, it seems justified to speak of a 5+2 core value structure.

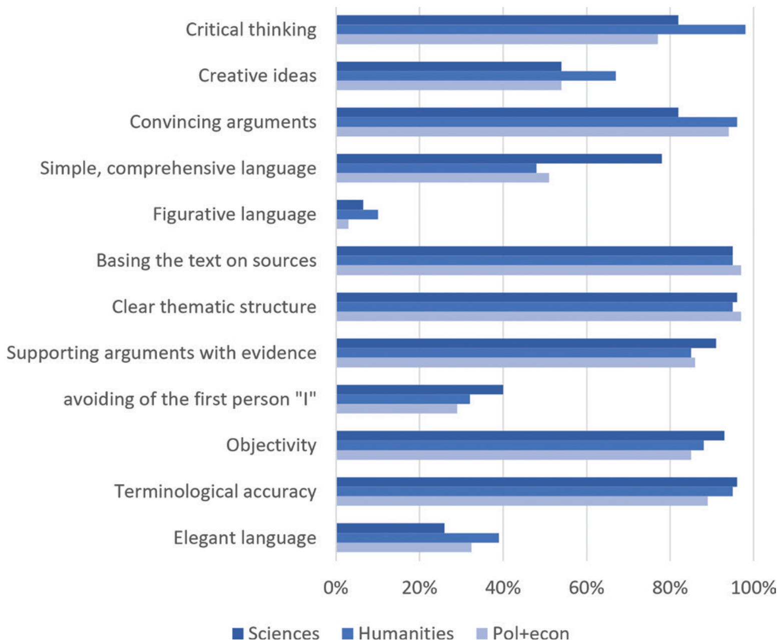

Figure 3.2. Faculty responses across discipline groups: "What are the characteristics of 'good writing' in your view?" Percentages of answer categories "important" plus "very important"

There is one linguistic item, *simple comprehensive language,* where the sciences score 30 percentage points higher than both other groups. Obviously, the plain style as suggested as a linguistic ideal for the sciences by Thomas Sprat in 1667 is still alive. The humanities, in turn, score somewhat higher on *elegant language* (38%) than the sciences (26%) and the pol+econ disciplines (32%). Stylish writing, as Sword (2012) has pointed out, should not be neglected altogether as a value in academic writing, even if it may seem marginal compared to the 5+2 core values. We may add that *creative ideas,* which are only of medium importance, score somewhat higher in the humanities section than in the other two.

Student Beliefs about Good Writing

What do students say to the values under study? When we look at the student evaluations (Figure 3.3), we see a similar picture as with the faculty. The five plus two outstanding values dominate the picture here, too, but with some deviances. Additionally, the differences between the discipline groups have a similar profile as with the faculty, but absolute values differ considerably.

Critical thinking is not of equal importance for the students as for the faculty but the differences between the disciplines remain the same with only 50% of the science students considering it important. *Creative thought* is more valued by the humanities students than by the two other groups and *elegant language* is fairly highly (around 50%) cherished by the humanities and pol+econ students but not by the science students. The importance of *convincing arguments* is seen much lower by the science students than by the two other groups. Less than 50% of the science students seem to value *convincing arguments* as part of research writing.

When comparing faculty and students across all sections (Figure 3.4), some commonalities and differences become obvious. Students are in line with their faculty in the "big five" of academic writing*: relying on sources, clear thematic structure, relying on facts, objectivity and terminological accuracy*. They are markedly less convinced of the importance of *critical thinking, creative thought,* and *convincing arguments* as important values and stay consistently 10 to 25 percentage points behind their teachers. In the language-related items, they overemphasize *elegant language* and *avoidance of first person ("I")* while they place less emphasis on the ideal of using a *simple, comprehensive language*. It seems that, here, is a wide field for language instruction to adjust these value differences and help avoid misunderstandings as to what kind of a research language is expected. Particularly, the faculty's low importance given to the avoidance of direct self-reference contrasts to the student belief that the use of "I" is not appropriate.

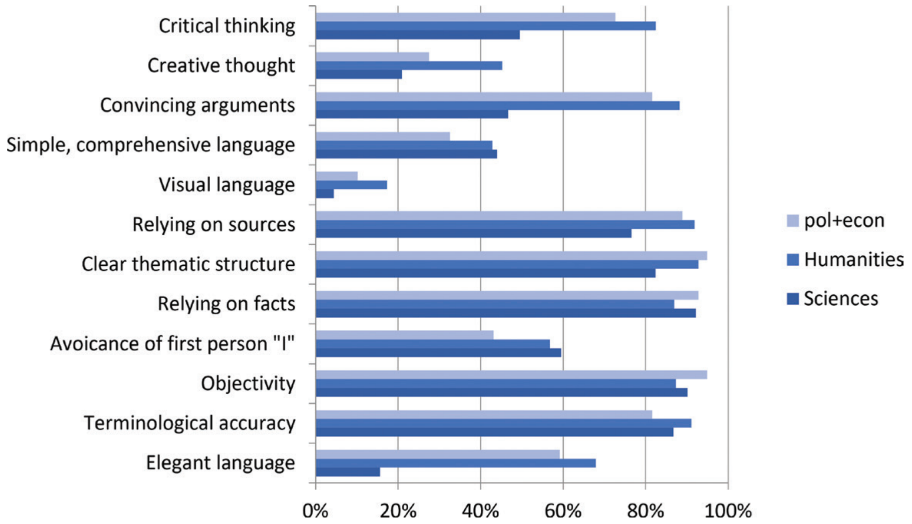

Figure 3.3. Student responses across disciplines: "What are the characteristics of 'good writing' in your discipline?"

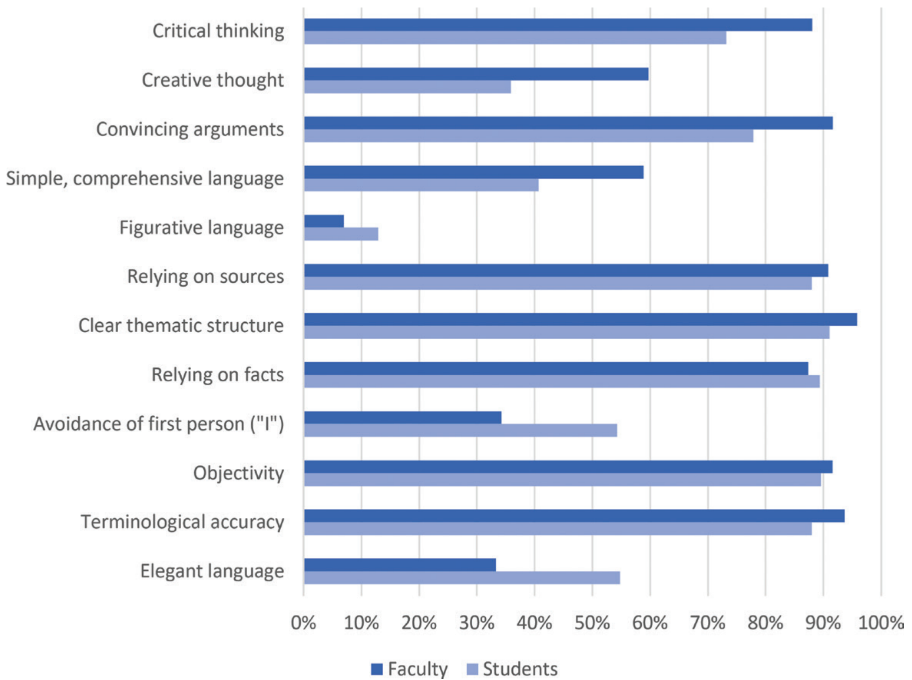

Figure 3.4. Student vs. faculty responses: Characteristics of "good writing."

Self-perceived Student Writing Skills

To learn more about the view students have on their writing skills, we asked them to indicate how competent they felt in several subskills of writing (Figure 3.5). They received a list with 21 skills that may be ascribed to academic writing. No item of this scale exceeds the 70% mark and only 8 of them touch the 50% mark. It is hard to say whether this is a relatively high or a low level as this would ask for comparable data from other writing cultures. *Revision for linguistic correctness* and *writing of a bibliography* are the top scorers, along with *using the right terminology and supporting one's own point of view.*

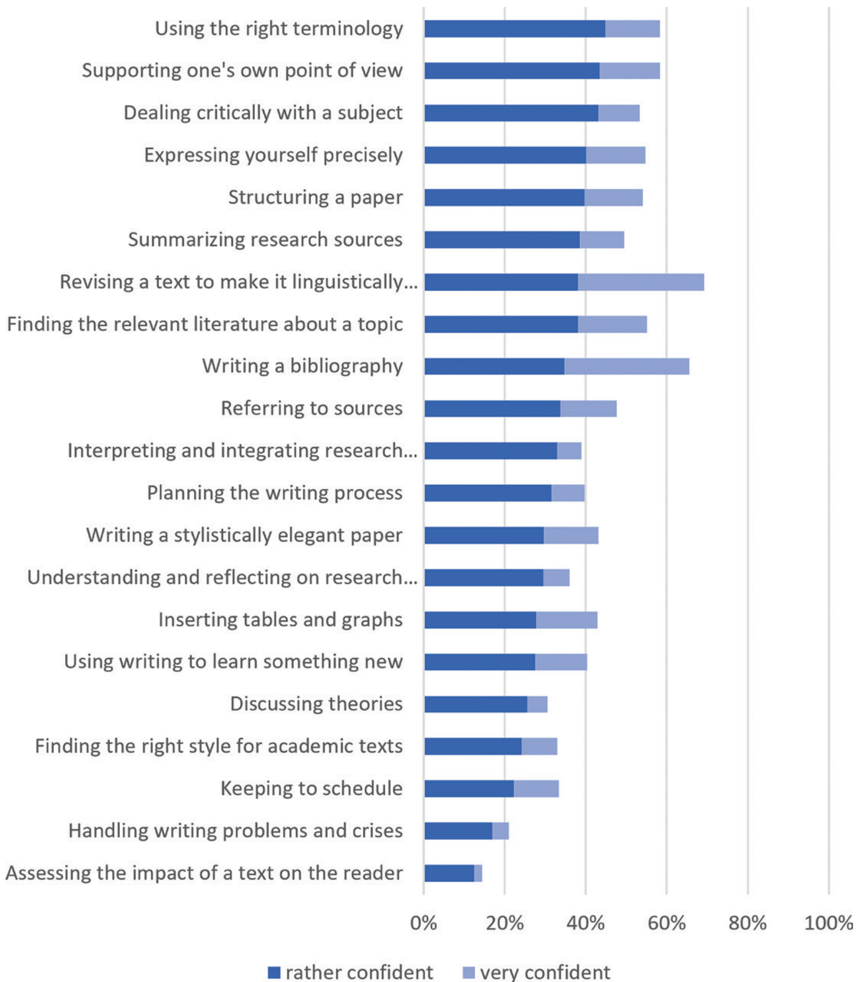

Figure 3.5. Student responses: "Please indicate how confident you feel in mastering these competences."

On the lower end of the scale, there are some issues where students unanimously report a lack of confidence in skills such as *assessing the impact of a text on the audience* and *handling writing problems and crises*. Along with *keeping to schedule*, these results point at problems with mastering the writing processes. All in all, it seems as if the research-related items about research methods, *literature searches*, *dealing critically with a subject*, using the right terminology and *summarizing research sources* are more familiar to them than the skills referring to mastering the writing process. Noteworthy, that formal aspects like *referring to sources* and *inserting tables and graphs do* not reach the 50% mark.

Faculty also received the list of 21 items on writing stills, but were asked for their evaluation of the importance of these skills for successful student writing (Figure 3.6).

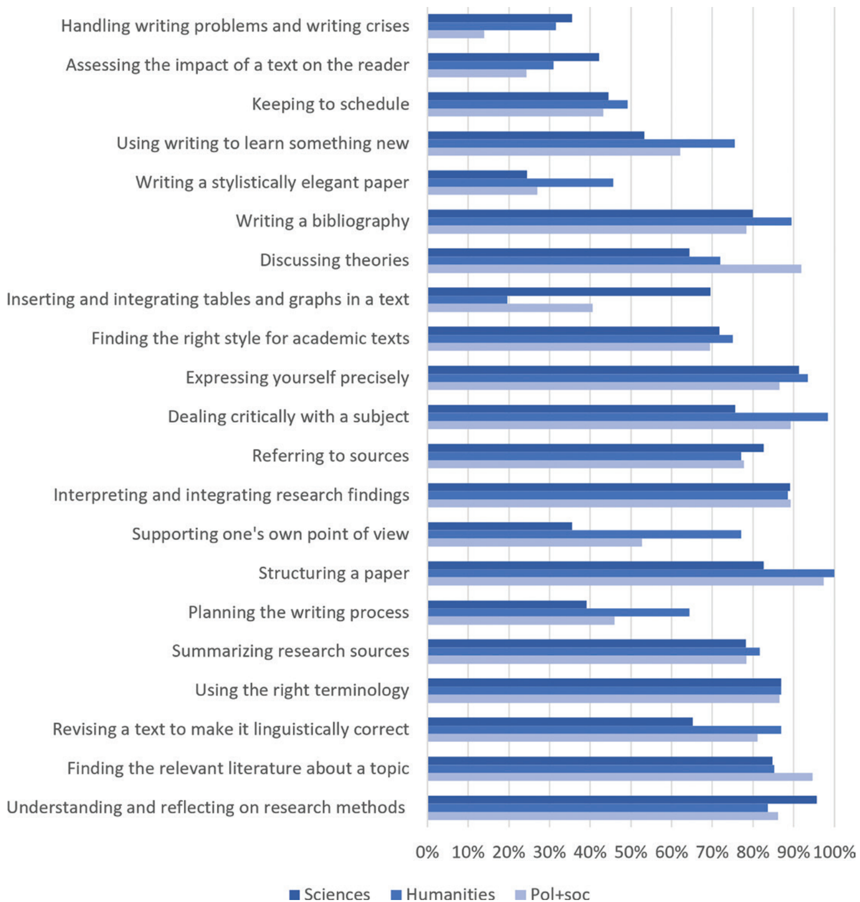

Figure 3.6. Faculty's evaluation: When students write a paper, what is particularly important to you?

We believe that such evaluations tell us something about the mindset of the teachers of this university and may be related to the confidence students assign themselves in the same skills.

Figure 3.6 shows the faculty evaluations of the importance of writing skills broken down for the three discipline groups. Evaluations of the importance of the writing process and linguistic issues scored, again, clearly lower, indicating different priorities of the faculty.

There were some differences among the faculty responses to the importance of the students' writing skills, which are worth being reported in single diagrams (Figure 3.7–3.9).

Figure 3.7 shows that *supporting one's own point of view* in student papers is only of medium importance, even in the humanities (77%) and clearly below average importance to the sciences (35%) while the pol+econ disciplines scored in the middle (53%). *Critical thinking* (Figure 3.8) has been addressed with a slightly different wording of *dealing with a subject critically* but received similar results as the *critical thinking* item in the good writing set of questions (Figure 3.3 and 3.4) with an almost 98% score from the humanities and about 10 percentage points less in the pol+econ and 20 points less in the sciences disciplines.

There was, finally, one issue where the pol+econ disciplines did not hold the middle place but scored highest (Figure 3.9). This was the question on *discussing theories*, an item which less than 70% of respondents from the sciences and humanities found of high or very high importance but more than 90% of the political sciences and economy. Theory seems of to be a particularly high value for the constitution of knowledge in these disciplines as compared to the others.

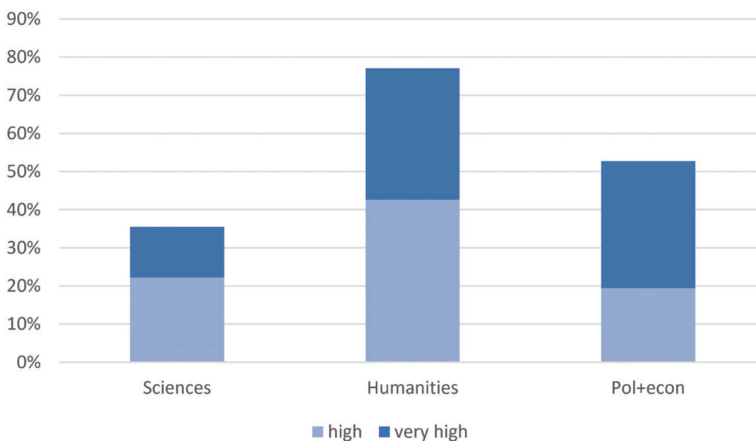

Figure 3.7. Faculty responses: "When your students write a paper or a thesis in your discipline, what is particularly important to you?"

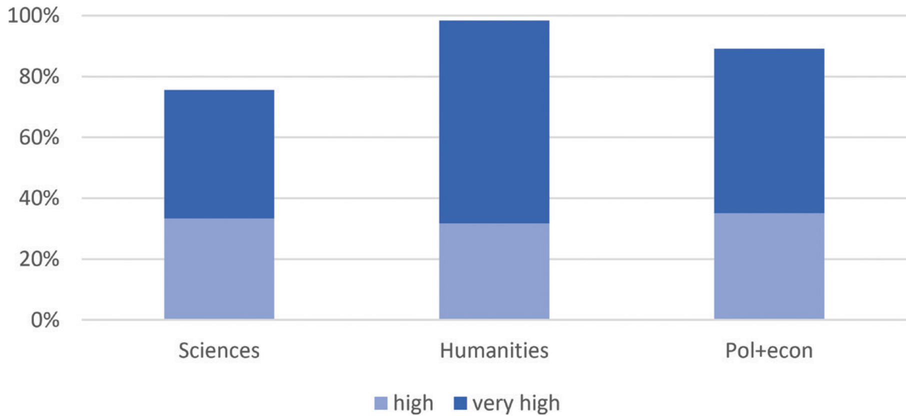

Figure 3.8. Faculty responses: "When your students write a paper or a thesis in your discipline, what is particularly important to you?"

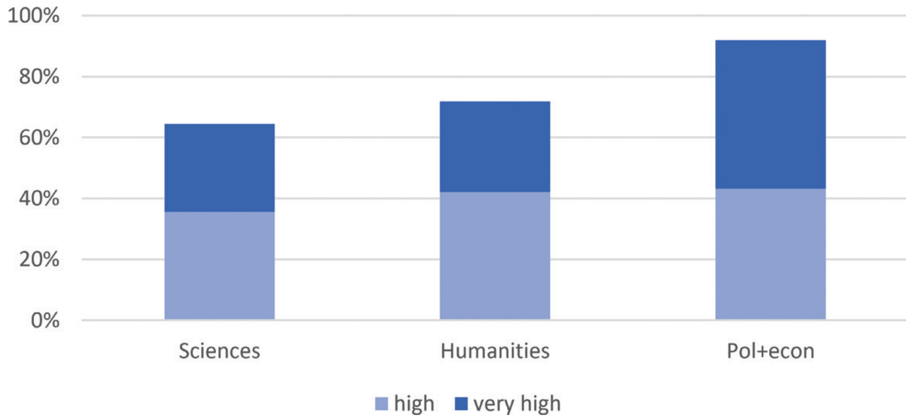

Figure 3.9. Faculty responses: "When your students write a paper or a thesis in your discipline, what is particularly important to you?"

Comparisons of Student and Faculty Evaluations of Study Skills

To better anchor the evaluation of writing competences, we included a scale comparing writing with other relevant study competences and activities. The questionnaire asked students to rate their study skills on the level of confidence. Faculty were asked to rate the general level of confidence in study skills of their students and also how important they consider these skills for student learning. Table 3.2 shows the data for both faculty evaluations of importance and skills level as well as for the students' self-evaluations asking for their confidence to master these skills.

Table 3.2: Comparison Faculty and Student Responses on Study Skills

	Faculty: **How important do you consider the following elements in your classes?** **Percentages of "higher than average"**	**Faculty:** **How competent are your students in these fields?** **Percentages of "rather competent" plus "very competent"**	**Students:** **How confident do you feel with each of these skills?** **Percentages of "feel confident" plus "feel very confident"**
Note-taking during lessons	27.3	35.9	57.8
Reading and understanding academic texts	89.3	36.5	75.7
Academic writing	78.4	17.9	45.7
Using information technology	36.4	53.6	50.9
Preparing exams efficiently	46.7	30.9	47.9
Organizing group work efficiently	53.9	39.4	33.9
Giving an oral presentation	78.5	44.6	41.3

What faculty consider most important in their classes is *reading and understanding academic text* (89%) along with *academic writing* (78%) and *oral presentations* (78%). Writing, here, has not the top place but scores at the same level as oral presentations skills only. *Information technology* (today we would probably call this "digital skills") were rated markedly lower (53.0%) as was true for *preparing for exams* (46.7%) and *note taking* (27.3%).

When asked to assess the competence level of their students for each of the study skills (Table 3.2, centre column), faculty ascribed the skills of *academic writing* by far the lowest value with only 17.9% indicating that only very few of their students are competent above average. Faculty obviously do not have much confidence in their students' writing skills. This contrasts markedly to the 53.6% of the faculty assigning their students high competence in *using information technology* which gained the highest level of all answers to student skills.

Faculty's low value (17.9%) for writing skills contrasts to the 45.7% which the students assign themselves. There is obviously a mismatch in self-assessment and third-party assessment of writing skills. In general, students rated

their study competences in literacy skills (except for the presentation skills) consistently higher than their faculty. Faculty rated student skills higher in *using information technology*, *organizing group work* and *giving oral presentations* than the students rated themselves.

To further explore how the faculty's low values for the students' writing skills can be explained, we looked at the differences between the discipline groups. Figure 3.10 shows that the main impact on the differences between self- and faculty evaluation comes from the humanities disciplines. Here, the contrast between self- and faculty evaluation is highest compared to the other two discipline groups. In the humanity disciplines, students evaluate their confidence in writing highest while faculty evaluate student skills as lowest. In both remaining discipline groups, differences are smaller even if here, too, self-evaluations are higher than faculty evaluations.

It should be noted that a comparison between "competence" (faculty) and "confidence" (students) has to be treated with caution as they are not identical measures and refer to different conceptualizations of skills. It may be argued, however, that the contrasts between the values allow for tentative interpretations, particularly if not absolute measures but rather the relations between values are considered.

There are some clear differences between the faculty from the three discipline groups with respect to their opinions on the study stills of their students. Figure 3.11 shows the faculty's evaluations of students' study competences broken down for the three discipline groups. It can be seen that there are fairly large differences particularly between the sciences group and the other two. In all literacy dimensions (except *giving an oral presentation*), faculty from the science disciplines evaluate their students consistently better than the other two groups, while the humanities seem to be the most critical, when it comes to an evaluation of the academic reading and writing skills of their students.

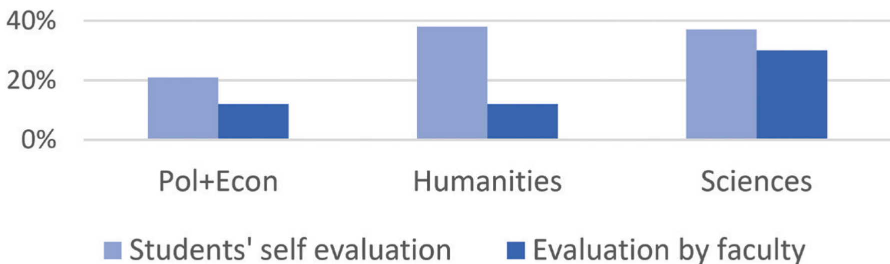

Figure 3.10. Comparison of evaluation of students' answers to "How confident are you in writing skills?" vs. faculty's answers to "How competent are your students in writing skills?"

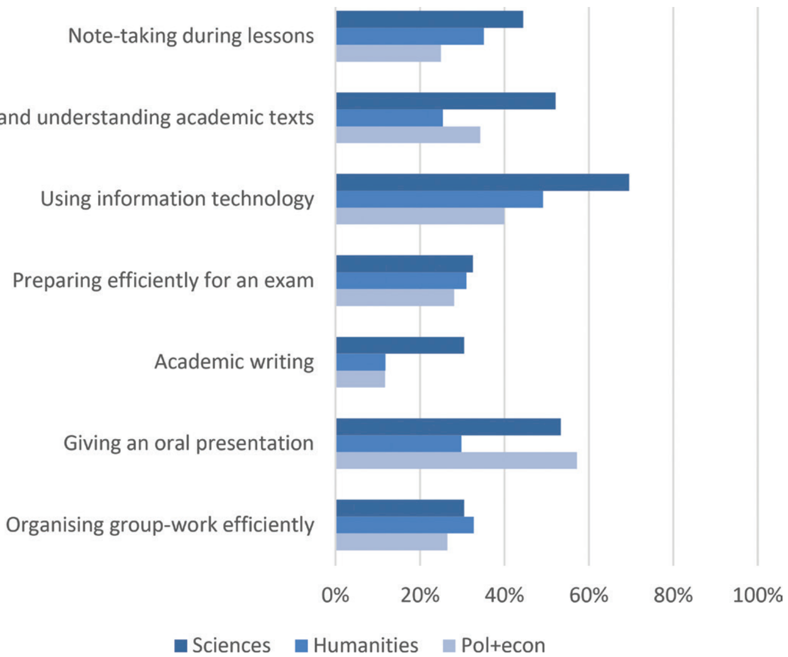

Figure 3.11. Faculty responses: Study competences across discipline groups ("from your experience, how competent are your students in the respective competence?").

Skills Development

Figure 3.12 compares first-year with third-year students to evaluate what kinds of development in the study programs might take place. Although the study produced no longitudinal but only cross-sectional data, we interpreted higher values in student self-evaluation in the third as compared to the first year as "gain." There was almost no gain in confidence from first- to third-year students *in taking notes, organizing group work, and discussing in class* but rather large gains in items referring to language use, such as *reading and understanding texts, presenting in public, and academic writing.* Also, gain*s in using information technology* and *preparing for exams* are clearly visible. The largest gain from 18% to 48% concerns *academic writing* and indicates that writing, at this university, receives enough attention to provide appropriate learning opportunities for the students. For a cross-check we also looked at the number of students rating their academic writing as "rather not confident" or "not confident" and here the data shows a reduction from 44% to 24% between first and third year. Although this is a substantial gain in confidence,

it indicates that almost a quarter of the students still feel not confident in academic writing at the end of the undergraduate program, which still is a good justification for an investment into a writing centre.

As a final point, students were asked which kind of support for writing they would appreciate (Figure 3.13). There were six different support measures which they could rate along their assumed helpfulness. All of them received support from more than 50% of the respondents. *More feedback* scores highest, next to *better instructions for my existing courses and online support for my writing*. New offers in form of *training courses* or *more writing in existing courses* score lowest. Still, all offers received Support by more than 50% of the respondents.

It should be noticed that the evaluations differed between the discipline groups. Students from the science disciplines rated all offers markedly lower than students from the other sections. But better instructions and more feedback remain the highest values also from them. Still, the role of writing in the STEM disciplines as well as the nature of writing instruction need further exploration.

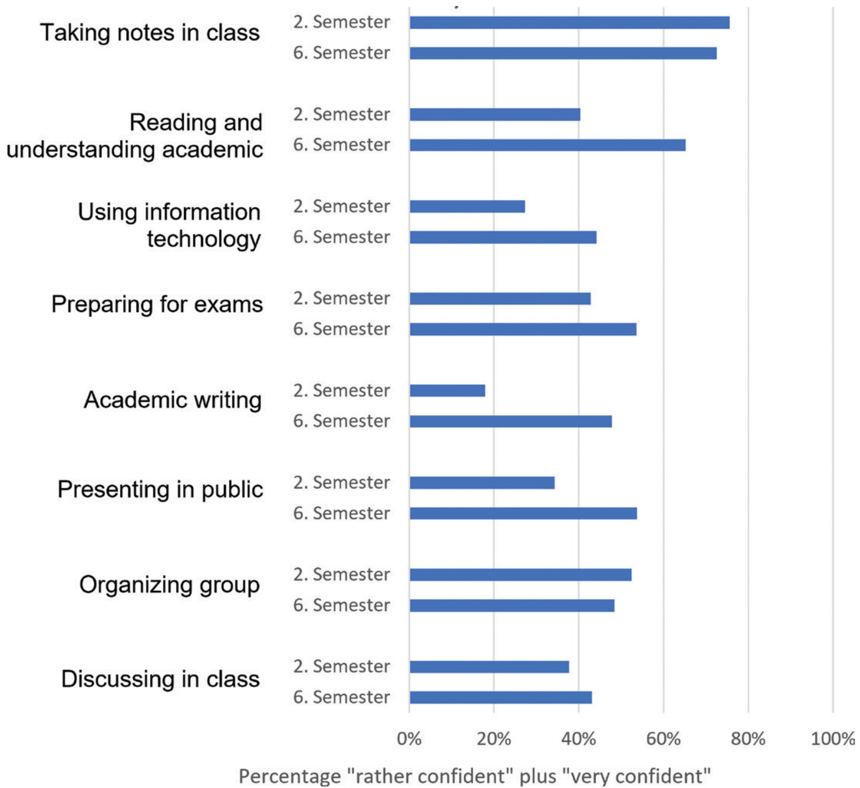

Figure 3.12. Differences in self-reported study skills between first and third year.

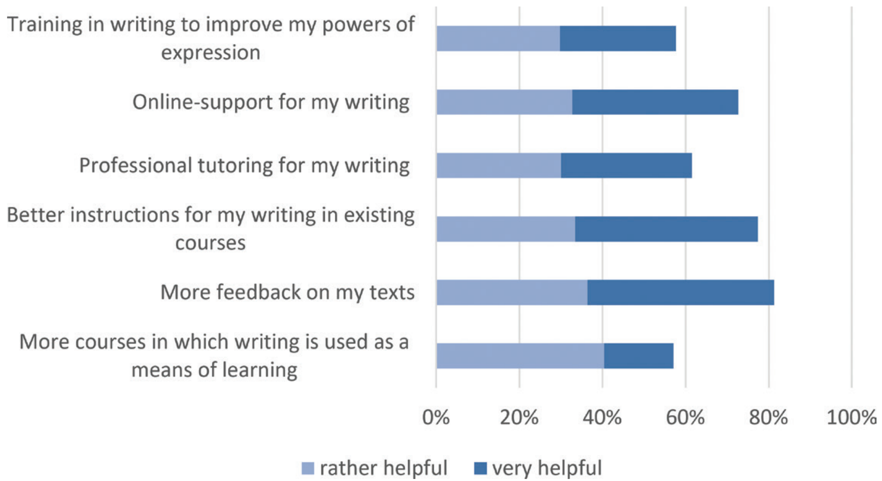

Figure 3.13. Students' responses on: "How could instructions for writing during your studies be improved?"

Discussion

The data from this study seems to provide a suitable basis for a description of the writing cultures of this particular university. The values faculty and students place on academic writing and academic texts within these particular undergraduate degree programs show fairly consistent patterns. The data also pictures fairly clearly what students and faculty believe about writing skills. Naturally, confidence in skills (students) and assumed skills (faculty) should not be mistaken for actual writing performance which demand a completely different kind of assessment. To understand cultures, however, beliefs may be even more revealing than performance measures as they refer to stable identities and motivations of the actors.

What seems the most noteworthy result for a characterization of the writing culture studied, was the existence of the "big five" values: *Relying on sources, relying on facts, objectivity, terminological accuracy, a clear thematic structure.* They were assessed by all groups unanimously with a degree of acceptance at around 90% as important beyond average. They connect all three discipline groups as well as students and faculty. We may link them to some larger objectives of all sciences and humanities: discursiveness of writing (sources), research-based writing (facts), exclusion of personal interests and emotions (objectivity), precise language use (terminological accuracy), and conceptual connectedness (clear thematic structure). Taken together, these values tie academic writing, at this university, to a research-based

quality of teaching at the expense of other, more creative or narrative ways of writing.

Two factors which often are thought of as universal values, turned out to differentiate between the sciences and the humanities. One of them is *critical thinking* which is the top value in the humanities but of lesser importance for the sciences and the pol+econ disciplines. The reasons for this lower appraisal are not quite clear. It may be caused by conceptual differences in understanding critical thinking or by different epistemic assumptions about the nature of knowledge. The other item marking a difference is *convincing arguments.* Although we do not believe that argumentation is of lesser importance for the sciences, it still stands back against the "big five" factors. We feel, however, entitled to speak of a 5+2 structure that includes the high-ranking values but also reflects disciplinary differences.

Different conceptualizations of writing may be assumed from the divergent evaluations of *expressing an own point of view* (Figure 3.7). Here, the humanities seem to have a different understanding of how writers are included in their text, and it may reflect the high value the humanities place on critical thinking as a way of student engagement in disciplinary topics (Bean, 2011).

The relatively high value of the humanities of *elegant language* and the equally high value in the sciences of s*imple and comprehensive language* point at a difference between the two linguistic cultures and remind us of the dispute on language use that has been addressed by Thomas Sprat already at the very beginning of science publication in the 17th century, where rhetorical refinement stood against plain language.

We found that students in general are in line with the values of their faculty. They do not misunderstand the main tasks or obligations of academic writing in any gross way. Still, there are some instructive differences between students and faculty evaluations which may be indicative of potential misunderstandings in the teaching of writing and the evaluation of student papers. These differences are connected with an understanding of the language dimension of academic writing where the consensus between faculty and students is rather low.

Does the questionnaire offer a foundation for characterizing local writing cultures? It may not come as a surprise that a research university fosters research-based writing. It is a surprise, however, how unanimously these values are expressed and how solidly they appear in the data as a baseline for writing instruction and teaching. This does not contradict the result, that there are enough open questions emerging from the data concerning the epistemological assumptions of the disciplines and the conceptualizations of writing as a means of learning and communication. At this point, comparative data from

other universities and from other contexts would be helpful. Even if the main values are shared throughout the university, there are some clear differences between the disciplinary groups and allow for interpretations of what is specific for each of them. The questionnaire allows conclusions for the teaching of writing and provides clues as to where students match and miss what their teachers have in mind. This, particularly, has been of worth for the writing centre of the university.

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Glossary

Beliefs about "good writing": Assumptions students and faculty hold about the desired or required qualities of writing and text characteristics. Such beliefs are an important part of writing cultures. Beliefs, however, tend to change with growing experience in academic writing as well as with learning opportunities by any kind of writing instruction.

Cultural diversity: A line of thinking based on cultural diversity assumes that groups and societies are not homogeneous or monolithic in their attitudes, behaviours, ethnic descendances, gender orientation, beliefs, etc., but that differences are constitutive for cultures. Writing cultures, seen through the lens of diversity, may be characterized not only by the shared properties of all members but also by the multitude of individual preferences, styles, activities, strategies, and values. In individualized societies, diversity is an essential part of social organizations from which important rules for social life evolve.

Epistemic beliefs: Based on a study by William Perry (1970) on the intellectual and moral development of university students, epistemic beliefs are defined as the assumptions students hold about the nature of truth and knowledge. In a four-stage developmental model subdivided into nine separate positions, Perry tried to capture the transformations students undergo from initial assumptions of absolute truth through stages of relativism to an individualized and research-based view on knowledge generation.

European writing cultures: Writing as a way of teaching and learning in higher education developed fairly independent from each other in each of the roughly fifty European countries most of which were using their own languages. Although some countries like the UK, Germany, France, and the Soviet Union were influential beyond their boarders, there were almost no coordinative and not even discursive connections between the countries. What connected the countries were the international publication norms which increasingly are taken as the basis to model student writing. Sources: Chitez & Kruse (2012); Chitez et al. (2015); Foster & Russell (2002); Kruse (2013).

Small-culture approach: In contrast to its common usage as a way of characterizing nations, ethnicities, or language groups, Holliday (1999) suggested to apply the term "culture" to the study of small groups such as institutions, disciplines, research communities, or working groups. The study of small groups provides a more solid empirical basis for generalizations which can avoid stereotypes and essentializations. To Holliday, small cultures studies may apply to all kinds of groups that are connected by any kind of cohesive behaviour.

Writing cultures: They may be defined as integrated and relatively stable patterns of writing practices, genres and attitudes towards writing that have emerged in a particular geographical, institutional or functional context. They are not fixed forever but may change whenever they get in contact to other writing cultures, be it within an institution, in national or in international contexts of higher education permitting or enforcing adaptation to new procedures, practices or conventions.

Writing practices: A main aspect of writing cultures may be summarized under the term "writing practices" referring to the activities into which writing is involved. Practices cover such issues as assignment procedures, written examinations, graduation routines, feedback practices, personal or reflective writing, and the individual organization of writing processes.

Writing skills: Academic writing is not a unitary skill but has to be seen as a complex competence composed of many different sub-skills, each of them rooted in a different part of literacy or academic practice. These may cover (Kruse, 2013): Disciplinary knowledge construction and their respective epistemologies; writing processes, and procedural skills such as planning, structuring, and revision; discourse patterns such as understanding audience and author roles; media use, such as making use of word processors, or search engines; genre knowledge and genre awareness; linguistic skills such as spelling, grammar, and rhetorical means like hedging, meta discourse, intertextuality, and self-reference. Writing skills and the ways they are taught (or not) are essential parts of writing cultures.

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4 Writing, Interdisciplinarity, and Teamwork: What We Have Learned from Exploring Workplace Writing Experiences of Colombian Alumni

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Abstract: This chapter presents a qualitative project aimed at contributing studies that aggregate data on workplace writing of Colombian alumni from Ecology, Communication, Advertising, Graphic Design, Speech Therapy, and Spanish Teacher Education. The analysis shed light on disciplinary, interdisciplinary, and teamwork-oriented features of professional writing across fields. Our data provide evidence to state that a national large-scale assessment applied in Colombia is exclusively evaluating individual performances on linguistic writing, while our results of alumni workplace experiences reveal collective, interdisciplinary, intra- and interorganizational interactions and interplays among linguistic writing, multimodal writing, and digital technologies.

Reflection[1]

The exchange of experiences and methodologies with participants from other contexts, in the IRC workshops, allowed us to recognize that methodological actions are being tried out to study writing that go beyond analysis of texts, application of questionnaires and carrying out of interviews, and

1 Please read the opening statement for this collection, "Editing in US-Based International Publications: A Position Statement," before reading this chapter.

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that there are as many methodological paths as there are fields of knowledge for analysis. In the workshops, we were also able to recognize points of convergence in studies carried out in different contexts. Thus far, having the opportunity to participate in international networks allowed us to learn from colleagues around the world or affiliated with different fields associated with writing, teaching and learning in Higher Education (e.g., Textual Linguistics, Applied Linguistics, Systemic Functional Linguistics, Language Didactics, Communication studies, Writing studies, and Genre Studies). Transnational conversations help us to understand that any effort will be well-received to support higher education students to explore, utilize, and reflect on the multiple existences of writing to become citizens and professionals. Participating in these international and/or interdisciplinary encounters nourishes methodologies, and, especially, challenges how to create "panoramic" data and analysis to capture complexities of the multiple existences of writing. Few studies, at least in Spanish, explore the workplace writing experiences of former students. Opportunities to learn about professional writing in different regions foster new research related to local and broader relationships between economies, cultures and languages. International and interdisciplinary encounters create a large panorama of variations and commonalities that writing researchers and instructors might consider in framing the scope of their initiatives. In particular, the study we will further present is an effort to bring together colleagues from diverse fields of affiliation (Advertising, Communication, Education, and Writing instruction) who also are interested in exploring how writing emerges in work experiences of different fields (Advertising, Communication & Journalism, Graphic Design, Ecology, Spanish-Teacher Education, and Speech Therapy) to "weave" data contributing on disciplinary and professional writing and communication for the Latin American region.

Institutional Context

The study collected data from four Colombian universities located in different regions of the country. The participating researchers had previous collegial and networking experiences and were affiliated to these four institutions. Two universities are located in the South-west of the country, Universidad del Valle and Universidad Autónoma de Occidente, in one of the main cities of Colombia, Santiago de Cali. The other university, Pontificia Universidad Javeriana, was located in the Capital of Colombia, Bogotá D.C., and the other, Universidad de la Amazonía, is located in the capital of a state in the South-east of the country. Two universities were public, Universidad del

Valle and Universidad de la Amazonía, and two were private, Universidad Autónoma de Occidente and Pontificia Universidad Javeriana (Figure 4.1). Table 4.1 also describes general features of the universities that were part of the research context.

The Colombian public universities after Independence (1810) and the Modernism period (from 1920) have had high influence in nationwide social and political movements. Before the Independence period, most of the universities were led by Catholic communities; the oldest current Colombian universities were founded during this period. However, supporting higher education with public funding has been also challenging; in many regions of the country, alliances between Catholic communities, or local and industrial economies and universities, have centralized and supported academic programs of private universities in the main cities.

Overall, having an undergraduate degree in Colombia is an opportunity, on the one hand, to join the professional and employment national market, and, on the other, contribute to linking development and industrial national progress.

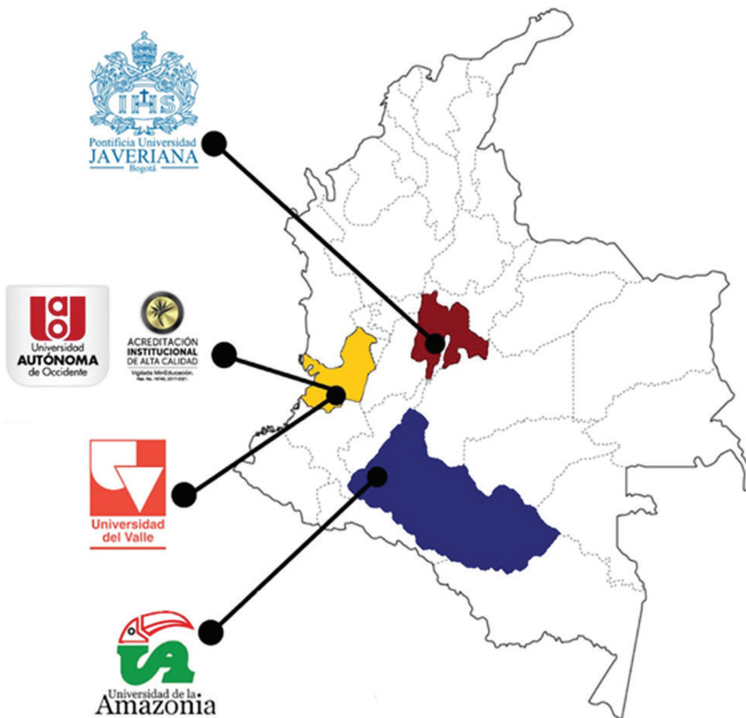


Figure 4.1. Geographic location of participating universities.
Source. Authors' elaboration based on authors' information.

Table 4.1. Comparative Description of Participating Universities

University campus features of the undergraduate programs	**Speech Therapy**	**Ecology**	**Spanish-Teacher Education**	**Advertising, Communication & Journal-ism, Graphic Design**
Name of the University	Universidad del Valle	Pontificia Universidad Javeriana	Universidad de la Amazonía	Universidad Autónoma de Occidente
Campus location within the country	South west	The Colombian capital	South east	South west
City and state of the campus location	Cali, Valle	Bogotá, Cundinamarca	Florencia, Caquetá	Cali, Valle
Foundation year of the University	1945	1623	1982	1970
Type of university	Public	Private	Public	Private
Student population in the university in 2019	25.868	18.725	9.240	8.569
Foundation year of the undergraduate program	1981	1995	1978	Advertising 1998 Communication & Journalism 1986 Graphic Design 2000
Student population in the undergraduate program in 2019	1.192	305	276	1.772
Alumni of the undergraduate program in 2019	3.270	1.014	872	3.971

Undergraduate program objective according to official and public information of the institutional websites	**Speech Therapy** To educate a professional who works for the communicative well-being of children, adolescents, adults and the elderly who have variations or disabilities in communication or who are at risk of acquiring them, in the components of health promotion and communicative well-being, prevention of deficiencies in the structures and body functions of the biopsychosocial processes of communication and swallowing, habilitation or rehabilitation of communicative disabilities and linguistic activities and equalization of opportunities for social participation
	Ecology To train professionals capable of conducting scientific research to generate knowledge; leaders who contribute to the understanding of natural systems and their interaction with social systems in order to create solutions for environmental problems.
	Spanish-Teacher Education To train competent teachers for teaching Literature and Spanish Language in elementary and secondary education.
	Advertising To train ethical and socially responsible people, professionally competent to work in planning, production, circulation, and evaluation of persuasive, pertinent, effective communication strategies, with high contextual impact that fulfill tactical purposes contributing to the strategic objectives of public and private organizations.
	Communication & Journalism To train Social Communicators - Journalists who are socially responsible and professionally competent to work interdisciplinary in the planning, production, circulation and evaluation of messages, channels and acts of communication that contribute to the social construction of meaning and the direction of socio-cultural changes in all areas of society.
	Graphic Design To respond to diverse demands of representation (symbolic or functional) that society poses to communication needs between individuals. For the performance of this profession, techniques are needed for development of visual thinking, as well as for necessary competences to utilize diverse graphics within different formats and on varied material supports, generating messages that satisfactorily comply with the function for which they have been designed according to social demands.

Introduction

In Colombia, college writing development might be characterized as an immersion process (Beaufort, 1999) or enculturation (Carrasco et al., 2012) past the first-year course, rather than being instructed by planned, advanced,

sequential writing experiences offered through writing programs or other similar initiatives. This situation is similar to that in most Latin American countries according to the data collected in the study titled "Writing initiatives in higher education, ILEES Latin America" (Narvaez-Cardona, 2016a).

A national higher education large-scale assessment in the form of a test has been applied in Colombia since 2010 as part of a public policy of quality education assurance. Colombian undergraduates who have completed 75% of their major credits must take the test. This assessment includes two sections: a disciplinary-oriented section that evaluates disciplinary and professional knowledge; the other section is declared as "generic knowledge-oriented" and applied to all undergraduates regardless of their disciplinary and professional affiliations. This generic section assesses: a) written communication in Spanish; b) quantitative skills; c) problem solving; d) interpersonal understanding; and, e) reading skills in Spanish and English (ICFES, 2018).

The students are requested to write either an academic essay or a report contrasting two readings. The assessment guidelines state that results: i) inform universities about writing development after undergraduate curriculum experiences; ii) indicate student preparedness for workplace writing; and, iii) alert employers about writing performances of alumni (ICFES, 2018).

The large-scale assessment framework suggests that written communication is a generic skill. However, U.S. Rhetorical studies on writing, learning and development in Higher Ed and workplace have shown writing variation depends on, among other issues: diverse usage and functions of writing across learning and participation contexts other than schooling and academic ones (e.g., workplace and community); influence of curriculum experiences; personal and individual dispositions; and, specific ways of thinking and doing associated with professional and disciplinary identities (Bazerman et al., 2018; Beaufort, 2008; Carroll, 2002; Devitt, 2004; Freedman, 2003; Freedman & Medway, 2003; Gere, 2019; Paltridge et al., 2012).

Likewise, in Latin America and Colombia, there are studies describing disciplinary and institutional writing variations throughout undergraduate and graduate experiences (Pérez-Abril & Rincón-Bonilla, 2013; Rincón Bonilla & Gil Rojas, 2010;), based primarily on the analysis of professional and disciplinary texts and interviews with faculty leading advanced courses (Laco & Ávila, 2012; Natale & Stagnaro, 2012; Navarro, 2012, 2013; Navarro & Chiodi, 2013; Parodi, 2008, 2009; Parodi & Gramajo, 2003). A literature review conducted in Spanish shows that publications are mainly essay-articles rather than empirical studies; this latter utilize linguistic perspectives of writing to describe textual and grammar conventions (Álvarez et al., 2012; Arnoux et al., 2016; Bach & López Ferrero, 2011; Cassany, 2004; González,

2010; González & Vega, 2013; González de la Torre, 2011; López Ferrero, 2002; Marinkovich et al., 2017; Mateos Cortés et al., 2016; Morales, 2010; Narvaez-Cardona, 2018; Ortega et al., 2017; Sánchez Upegui, 2016; Vázquez Aprá et al., 2014). Furthermore, studies published in English seem to mainly focus on Engineering and Business (Bourelle, 2015; Clayson, 2018; Conrad, 2017; Hynninen, 2018; Johnson et al., 2016; Lentz, 2013; Leydens, 2008; Narvaez-Cardona, 2016b, 2018; Nelson, 2003). Few studies, at least in Spanish, explore writing workplace experiences of alumni.

The Colombian higher education large-scale assessment is important to make visible the measurement of undergraduate writing development as a key aspect of higher education quality in the 21st century. However, this assessment might not be enough for universities to inform alumni writing development, and specifically student preparedness for workplace writing since results are based on the production of a text in the context of a large-scale assessment. Therefore, in this chapter we will present data of a qualitative project aimed at contributing studies to aggregate data on alumni workplace writing.

Framework

The study is framed within international contributions of the field of Literacy Studies. Therefore, we assume that writing and communication are interwoven and socially, historically, and culturally situated to be seen as constitutive of human collective activity (Brandt, 2014). In particular, the study takes contributions from the U.S scholarship integrating Activity Theory into the field of Writing Studies. This framework is useful to describe human actions, especially professional performance as driven towards results; thus, language becomes, simultaneously, a mediating tool and final products weaving collective human activity. This phenomenon is structured by roles, hierarchies, and contradictions due to overlapping personal motives and collective goals, which also brings opportunities for individual or group transformation (Engeström, 2001; Spinuzzi, 2015). Since language can emerge as a tool, intermediate product (e.g., emails or WhatsApp threads, tables, graphics), and final products (e.g., printed or digital deliverables of professional projects) in any collective human activity, this study assumes that "language", as activated in literacy practices, is used to create professional contents through diverse materialities besides linguistic forms (Kress, 2005).

We also embrace the Communities of Practice framework (Blackmore, 2010; Wenger, 2010), since characterizing workplace writing and communication might benefit from understanding writing learning and expertise achievement as part of group participation and membership development

(Wenger, 2010). This approach is useful to explore workplace writing and communication experiences embedded within collective human actions and continuing learning opportunities; consequently, expertise is not seen as a set of knowledge and skills that will be entirely acquired and controlled by a single person in a static life moment; rather expertise might be knowledge and abilities that may be dispersed, articulated, and mastered by a group, depending on conditions of the activity and goals that are pursued (Blackmore, 2010; Chaiklin & Lave, 2001; Spinuzzi, 2015; Wenger, 2010).

To explore professional writing and communication, we made distinctions between professional genres (e.g., business plans or patient files), and academic genres (e.g., essays or theses) (Parodi, 2010). Both types of genres are part of discourse communities (Gotti, 2008), but we focused on how alumni as practitioners from their fields reported how writing practices, communication, and texts were part of their professional experiences.

Therefore, to initially characterize writing and communication within and across the fields that were studied, we conducted exploratory and non-systematic reviews of publications in Spanish and a few in English that we will present as follows. The literature review suggests that in Communication and Advertising, the publications primarily conceptualize and study writing as "composition" (grammar and syntax) (Álvarez, 2016; De Aguinaga, 2000; Londoño, 2015; Ospina, 2013; Sánchez, 2017), and, also, they articulate composition and literary discourses (Akinbode, 2012; Hernández, 2010; Guerrero & Herrera, 2012). However, in Design, some publications in English highlight the interplay between writing and speaking to make decisions for solving professional problems by utilizing linguistic and graphic resources. These studies integrate the key role of visual expressions in the generation of ideas (e.g., drawing and sketching) (Garner, 2001; Tan & Melles, 2010; Stones & Cassidy, 2010; Van der Lugt, 2000). In Advertising and Design, we also found studies focusing on rhetorical and practical effects of professional decisions and interventions (Nini, 2006; Riaño, 2016; Soar, 2002; Spinuzzi, 2005).

Humanistic and literary-oriented writing seem to nourish the fields of Advertising, Ecology, and Communication. In Advertising, the use of poetry and literary resources is mentioned (Hernández, 2010), while in Ecology, writing to develop ecological thinking is integrated, particularly in U.S. studies (Baker, 2014; Netzley, 1999; Peary & Hunley, 2015; Preczewski et al., 2009; Wisenthal, 2016); finally, in Communication, literature and writing are intertwined in genres such as chronicle, documentary, and film (Londoño, 2015; Puerta, 2011). In Communication, we also noticed that journalism-oriented writing is primarily guided by structuralist perspectives to produce diverse genres as news, podcasts, and special reports (Álvarez, 2016; De Aguinaga,

2000; Sánchez Upegui, 2016). As for interdisciplinary writing and communication, we found studies in Ecology (Anderson & Runciman, 2000; Balgopal et al., 2012; Dobrin, 2012; Hada, 2008; Redford & Taber, 2000), and Speech Therapy (Hill & Griswold, 2013).

By articulating the framework of Activity Theory into the field of the Writing Studies, and based on the exploratory literature review across the fields that were studied, we decided to describe variations of professional workplace writing and communication taking into account diverse contents and materiality, such as images, audios, or graphics, besides the linguistic ones (Kress, 2005).

Methodology

The study was conducted by an interdisciplinary research team (2017–2019) that explored variations on workplace writing and communication of Colombian alumni from Ecology, Communication, Advertising, Graphic Design, Speech Therapy, and Spanish Teacher Education, who were affiliated with four Colombian universities. The research team consisted of five researchers and five research assistants affiliated with the fields of Education, Linguistics, Writing Studies, Communication-Journalism, and Advertising.

The exploration of challenging professional experiences was used as a methodological basis for data collection. We assume persons are always capable of learning, especially when they face non-routine experiences that demand knowledge transformation (Engeström & Sannino, 2010; Rounsaville, 2012; Tuomi-Gröhn & Engeström, 2003). Therefore, we asked alumni for self-reports about challenging professional experiences and how writing was related to them. Since we worked under a literacy framework, our analyses were focused on how writers talked about writing and collective efforts to create texts. The data was collected in two phases: 1: Designing, piloting and applying a qualitative questionnaire on professional workplace writing to alumni from four Colombian universities and different fields; and, phase 2: Analyzing case studies on challenging professional experiences voluntarily reported by the alumni who had participated in the phase 1.

Between January and November 2018, we created an alumni database and conducted participant recruitment for a qualitative questionnaire on professional writing experiences. Selection of the fields and universities were made by academic proximity among the participating researchers, who were affiliated with the four universities located in different regions of the country. The participant recruitment was carried out through different strategies such as: i) mailing the digital questionnaire to those registered in databases from the alumni offices or the undergraduate program directors; ii) mailing the digital questionnaire to

former students of the participating researchers; and, iii) distributing a printed questionnaire in alumni face-to-face meetings or events. Given these diverse strategies of data collection, response rates could not be calculated.

The questionnaire had 18 open-ended questions (except for question 11) that were grouped into four sections. The first section of the questionnaire requested personal and professional information: 1. Organization name; 2. Entailment time; 3. Appointment; 4. Appointment date; 5. Undergraduate program; 6. Graduation year; 7. If applied, graduate programs. The next section characterized a professional experience and, therefore, participants were asked to select a challenging professional project to answer the following questions: 8. Topic or project name (if possible); 9. Why the project was challenging; 10. Deliverables produced; 11. The option best describing activities in the project (a. You worked with other colleagues from your organization; b. You worked with other colleagues from other organizations; and, c. You worked with colleagues from your organization and other organizations); 12. Role in the project. The third section asked about professional writing: 13. In what situations writing was utilized to work on the challenging project mentioned; 14. In what situations cooperative writing with other colleagues was utilized to work on the challenging project mentioned; 15. Personal writing responsibilities in the challenging project; 16. Colleagues' writing responsibilities in the challenging project; 17. The hardest piece or situation to write for the challenging project; and, 18. The easiest piece or situation to write for the challenging project. In a final section, participants were asked for their personal information in case they agreed to be contacted to provide further information.

The open-ended responses were coded inductively, and the research team held approximately four meetings, between May and November 2018, to calibrate coding procedures and generate a codebook. The questionnaire responses were organized in an excel database; each column was a category, and responses within cells were inductively coding. During the meetings, we iteratively applied and compared coding decision making, and agreed on names that better suited data content description. Table 4.2 displays examples of the coding for the question # 9: Why the project was challenging.

Since informant participation was voluntary and the response rates were not tracked, the results mainly describe trends based on counts (Bonilla-García & López-Suárez, 2016; Merriam, 1998; Schettini & Cortazzo, 2015). Besides, our qualitative study aim was to contribute data for the Latin American region on variations of professional writing practices across fields; therefore, analytical generalization regarding similarities and differences between our data and other professional writing contexts will be an opportunity if other researchers compare their data against our work.

Table 4.2. Examples of Coding

Examples of codes	Sample original responses interpreted into English	Original responses in Spanish
Knowing lacking on project management, funding, and leadership	Proposing and conducting assessment of school abilities programs	Diseñar y ejecutar un programa de evaluación de habilidades escolares
Project outcome scope (local, nationwide, many details, pioneer, and/or degree of innovation)	This project was part of the city development plan and was carried out with community participants [victims] who had to validate the process.	Era una necesidad en cumplimiento del plan operativo, era de alcance municipal y debía desarrollarse de manera participativa con la comunidad y validado por las instancias de participación de las víctimas.
Collecting and summarizing diverse sources (research and synthesis)	New knowledge generation and study responsibilities while I was also working.	Generación de nuevos conocimientos y la responsabilidad de estudiar y trabajar al mismo tiempo.

The final number of questionnaires collected by fields is as follows: Communication, Advertising and Design: 103; Speech therapy: 24; Ecology: 24; and, Spanish Teacher Education: 39. In some cases when coding the open answers, we utilized more than one code that emerged from the data; therefore, some counts were greater than the total number of questionnaires.

Regarding the case studies, participation was also voluntary and data collection fulfilled IRB protocols. The participants were asked to: a) participate in an interview about a challenging professional project that they were conducting at the time of data collection; and, b) provide emails, digital files and/or WhatsApp threads they exchanged with other people who were related to the challenging professional project. The alumni were contacted by email to send the interview protocol and the informed consent; the interviews, approximately 1-hour long, were conducted through Zoom. The interview protocol is as follows:

1. What current project do you find challenging, since it does not resemble previous experiences?
2. Why is it challenging?
3. What is the project goal?
4. Describe the project methodology.
5. With whom do you interact, how and for what purpose in the project? What roles do these people have in the project?
6. What is the project timeline?
7. Describe project stages.
8. What has been your role in the project so far?

9. How is the project implementation evaluated?
10. What is the current stage of the project?
11. What have you learned so far from this experience?

The artifacts collected (emails, digital files and/or WhatsApp threads) and orthographic transcriptions of the interviews were organized in Excel files. A deductive content analysis was applied utilizing a binary coding of "Yes" or "No" (Y/N) on the following categories: i) Explicit presence of linguistic writing; ii) Presence of non-linguistic writing or multimodal writing; iii) Cooperative presence of writing or composition; and, iv) Presence of digital technology to produce content. Table 4.3 presents definitions of these categories that relied on our theoretical frameworks regarding intersections among literacy, activity theory, communities of practice, and multimodality.

To compare cases across the fields, we focused on responses to the following questions:

1. What current project do you find challenging, since it does not resemble previous experiences?
- Why is it challenging?
- What is the project goal?
- Describe the project methodology.
- With whom do you interact, how and for what purpose in the project? What roles do these people have in the project?
- What has been your role in the project so far?
- What have you learned so far from this experience?

Table 4.3. Definitions of Categories

Categories	Definition
Explicit presence of linguistic writing	Contents of artifacts or interviews statements associated with linguistic-textual and discursive dimensions of writing (e.g., textual structure, inclusion of sources, specific genres, grammar, editing, conventions, and spelling).
Presence of non-linguistic writing or multimodal writing	Contents of artifacts or interviews statements associated with multimodal dimensions of the productions (e.g., images, color, graphics, sound, spaces, videos, and multimodal genres).
Cooperative presence of writing or composition	Contents of artifacts or interviews statements associated with collective production (e.g., multiple authors/participants, roles, teams, and own and others' responsibilities in composition).
Presence of digital technology to produce content	Contents of artifacts or interviews statements associated with digital media (e.g., platforms, apps, software, social networks, and websites).

Table 4.4 shows index-terms and evidence that were taken into account to conduct deductive and binary coding to the interviews, transcriptions and artifacts (pictures, screenshots of WhatsApp messages and emails, or digital files exchanged by email or WhatsApp). The research team worked weekly during two months to cooperatively identify these index-terms and evidence.

Table 4.5 illustrates, for example, the type of analysis conducted on question: What have you learned so far, for case 1, based on the analytical categories presented in Table 4.3. The same table was applied to the other interviews' responses emerging from the all cases.

Table 4.4. Index-terms and Evidence to Conduct Coding of Interviews, Transcriptions and Artifacts

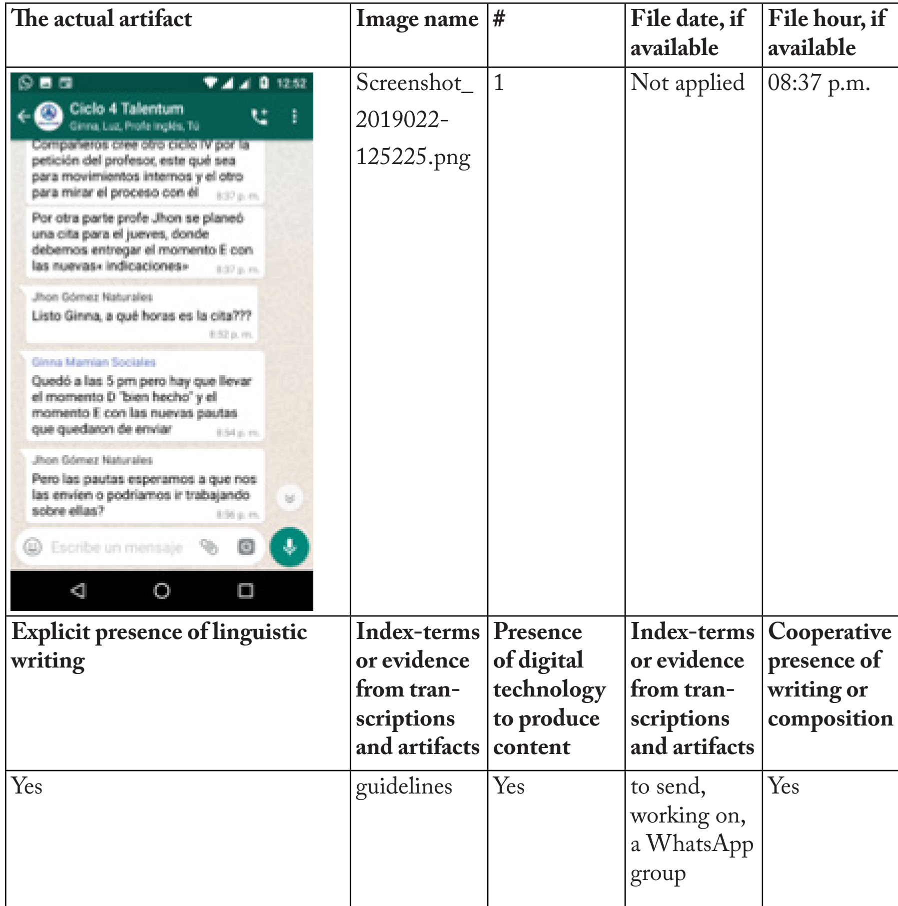
Type of information	Explicit presence of linguistic writing	Presence of non-linguistic writing or multimodal writing	Cooperative presence of writing or composition	Presence of digital technology to produce content
Index-terms from transcripts or written responses of alumni interviews	Protocol, Editing guidelines, Documents, Project, Project communication strategies, Design, contents, Content production, Podcast, communication strategy, Writing, production, Research, measurement, Evaluation, Values, Communication Project, process	Design, Podcast, Radio production, Values, Measurement	Support to authors, labs, Team, Group, Evaluation Process	Web text editing, Digital, Virtual, ICT culture, ICT digital transformation
Evidence from the artifacts	Writing, Design, Planning, Report	Design, Parts, Schedules, Image, Colors, Analysis, Transmedia Production, Multimedia, Crossmedia	Work teams, Colleagues	Digital Platforms

Table 4.5. Illustration of Analyzing Interview Responses

Case #	Response to question: What have you learned so far?	Explicit presence of linguistic writing	Index-terms or evidence from transcriptions and artifacts	Cooperative presence of writing or composition
1	Aprendí metodológicamente la manera de planeación desde lo más particular a lo general, desde el lenguaje, manejo de los licenciados, currículo, actividades, objetivo, son muy precisos. I learned methodologically the way of planning from single activities to groups of them in time, taking into account how to describe them, managing the team, curriculum, activities, objectives; they are very precise.	Yes	planning, how to describe them (lenguaje), curriculum, objectives	Yes
Index-terms or evidence from transcriptions and artifacts	**Presence of digital technology to produce content**	**Index-terms or evidence from transcriptions and artifacts**	**Presence of non-linguistic writing or multimodal writing**	**Index-terms or evidence from transcriptions and artifacts**
managing the team (manejo de los licenciados)	No	Not applied	No	Not applied

Furthermore, Table 4.6 illustrates a fragment of analyzing an artifact. Finally, in order to create analytical comparisons across the fields, we contrasted results from categories emerging from the coding, as possible.

Table 4.6. Illustration of Analyzing an Artifact

The actual artifact	Image name	#	File date, if available	File hour, if available
	Screenshot_ 2019022- 125225.png	1	Not applied	08:37 p.m.
Explicit presence of linguistic writing	**Index-terms or evidence from tran-scriptions and artifacts**	**Presence of digital technology to produce content**	**Index-terms or evidence from tran-scriptions and artifacts**	**Cooperative presence of writing or composition**
Yes	guidelines	Yes	to send, working on, a WhatsApp group	Yes

Professional Workplace Writing Experiences across the Fields

Survey Data

Across the fields, about 90% of the participants were employees (Figure 4.2), and approximately 71% of them hold appointments associated with their undergraduate studies. In the Speech Therapy case, 29.6% of participants

mentioned occupations not necessarily associated with the field, such as teacher, cultural manager, or faculty member. Only 8.7% of participants across the fields reported venture initiatives or working in freelance services.

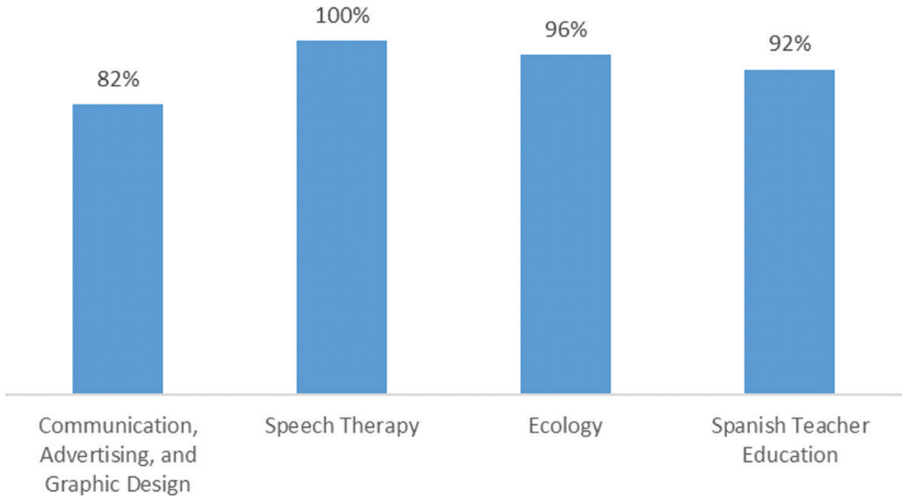


Figure 4.2. Employees versus fields.

As for occupations, the participants reported leadership roles carried out during the challenging professional projects across the fields: Communication, Design, and Advertising (96%), Ecology (59%), Speech Therapy (54%), and Spanish Teacher Education (19%) (Figure 4.3). Research-oriented occupations were only mentioned in Ecology (29%), and Speech Therapy (37.5%).

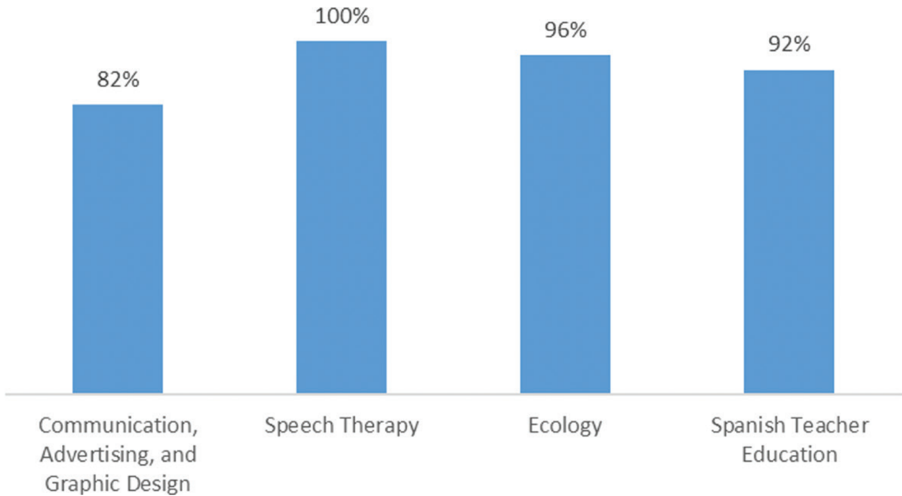


Figure 4.3. Project leadership versus fields.

Regarding challenging features of the projects, the most frequent mention was the scope of project results (e.g., local or nation-wide impacts, pioneering results, or transformational impacts) in the fields of Communication, Design, and Advertising (24.34%), Speech Therapy (41.67%), and Spanish Teacher Education (33.33%), and the most frequent mention in Ecology was project management (33.3%). (Most frequent mention highlighted in yellow in Table 4.7).

Table 4.7. Features of Challenging Projects

Features	Communication, Advertising, and Graphic Design	Speech Therapy	Ecology	Spanish-Teacher Education
Assessment and scope of the projects	24.34	41.67	0.00	33.33
Learning new aspects of professions	22.37	29.17	8.33	30.77
Project management	15.13	4.17	33.33	2.56
Interdisciplinary and transdisciplinary work	15.13	0.00	29.17	0.00
Rhetorical effects of contents	11.18	0.00	12.50	0.00
Personal learning experiences	9.87	4.17	4.17	20.51
Research and academic abilities	1.97	12.50	12.50	12.82

Genres associated with challenging workplace projects that are professionally oriented in Communication, Advertising, and Graphic Design (60.76%) and Spanish Teacher Education (47.06%), and research oriented in Ecology (54.17%) and Speech Therapy (37.50%) (Most frequent mention highlighted in yellow in Table 4.8). However, in Speech Therapy, responses were associated with academic/graduate rather than workplace experiences, and with research and scientific genres.

For the Teacher Education participants, the challenging projects were focused on teaching-centered roles (47.6%) and didactic processes (46.6%). This might explain why the analysis of Teacher Education results suggests that it is an "endogenous field," mainly focused on classroom work and writing with colleagues (gray bars in Figure 4.4) in contrast to the other fields in which alumni reported higher interactions to write interdisciplinary and cooperatively (blue and orange bars Figure 4.4).

Table 4.8. Genres Associated with Challenging Workplace Projects

Genres	Communication, Advertising, and Graphic Design	Speech Therapy	Ecology	Spanish-Teacher Education
Professional genres	60.76	8.33	0.00	47.06
Projects	36.08	24.00	33.33	0.00
Events and Public relations	3.16	0.00	0.00	0.00
Research and scientific genres	0.00	37.50	54.17	5.88
Reports	0.00	20.83	0.00	38.24
Pedagogical documents	0.00	0.00	12.50	0.00
Guidelines and protocols	0.00	0.00	0.00	8.82

In fact, the top-down distribution of results regarding interdisciplinary interactions showed the following tendency: Communication, Design and Advertising (66%); Ecology (44%), Speech Therapy (39%), and Spanish Teacher education (21%) (orange bars in Figure 4.5).

In Ecology, writing cooperatively with other professions (73%) was highly present in contrast to the other fields (blue bars in Figure 4.5); while writing cooperatively with colleagues was again more present in Spanish Teacher Education (37%) (orange bars in Figure 4.6); and, writing cooperatively with bosses and project leaders was only slightly mentioned by alumni from Speech Therapy (3%) (gray bars in Figure 4.6).

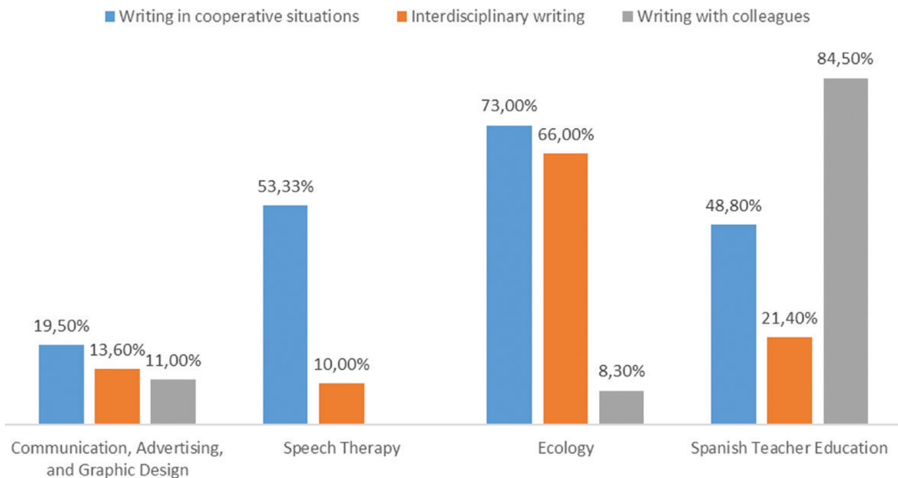


Figure 4.4. Writing and interactions.

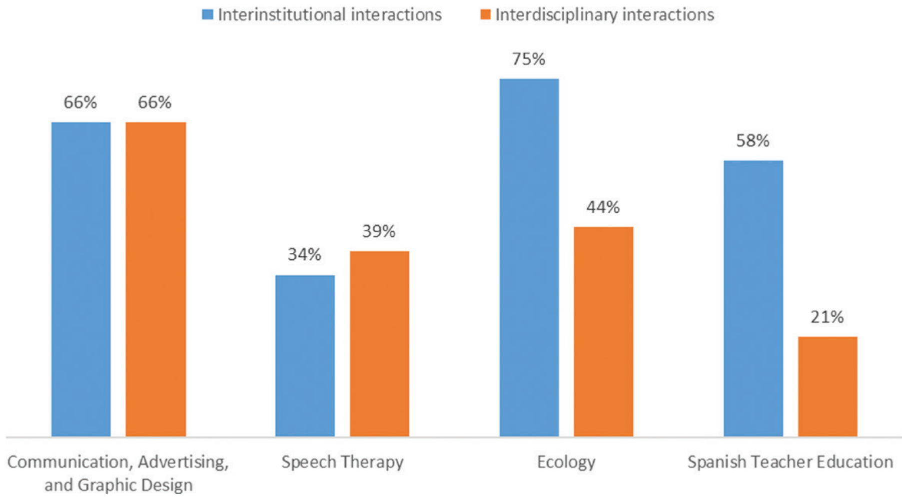


Figure 4.5. Interinstitutional interactions and interprofessional interactions.

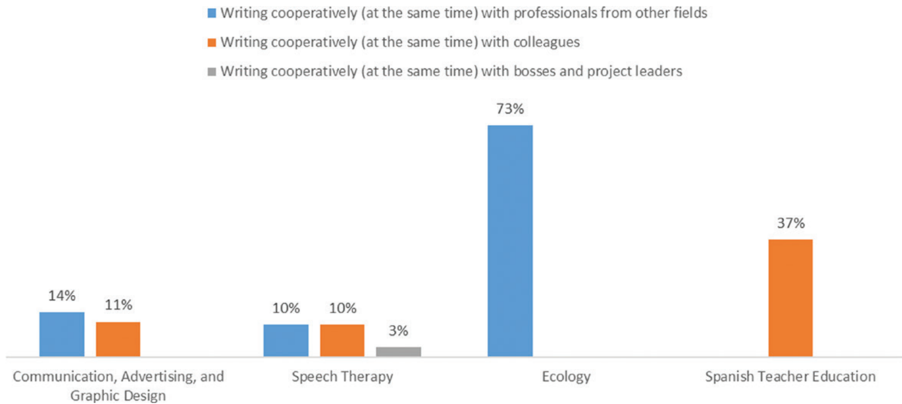


Figure 4.6. Interactions while writing cooperatively.

Regarding colleague roles in writing, colleagues who contribute with contents from their expertise were highly reported in Speech Therapy (71%) and Communication, Advertising, and Graphic Design (64%) in contrast to the other two fields (blue bars in Figure 4.7), and colleagues who contribute as reviewers and editors were more present in Ecology (50%) and Spanish Teacher Education (32) (orange bars in Figure 4.7).

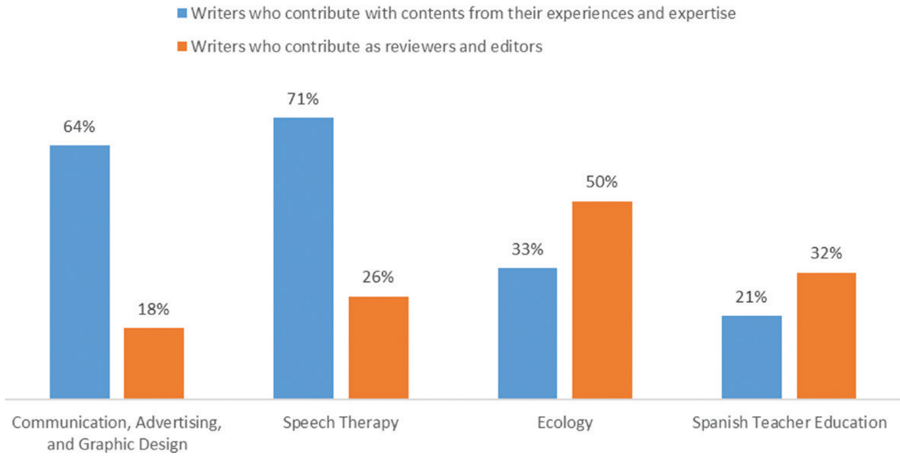


Figure 4.7. Writers' contributions.

The questionnaire responses about the hardest and easiest pieces or situations to write allowed us to identify writing knowledge and abilities that alumni might need to face in order to complete challenging projects:

- In Communication, Design, and Advertising, alumni reported the need to use writing with rhetorical effects (26.4%), address writing with rhetorical orientation, style, specialization and effectiveness towards audiences (34.3%), and create contents from multiple voices and/or with different formats/materials/uses (30.5%).
- The field of Speech Therapy is characterized by the preparation and delivery of reports/presentations (16.6%) and the production of "truthful" information for decision-making (26.2%). Professionals in this field also mentioned the preparation of reports/projects or reports/organization and systematization of information/content analyses (on follow-up individual cases, institutional/community projects, or academic/research projects) (51.7%).
- For the field of Ecology, writing for projects and their respective reports were often mentioned with emphasis on structuring proposals, defining objectives, collecting information, and completing final reports with methodology and result sections (41.6%).
- In the case of the Spanish Teacher Education, textual and grammar knowledge of written texts is expected (24.4%); especially, assuming writing as planning a manuscript that requires mastering cohesion and coherence (20.4%), as well as writing associated with textual planning (47%), and reporting and communicating professional experiences (54.2%).

Case Studies Data

Appendix 1 presents the final case studies that were constructed by voluntary participation of some of the participant alumni from the questionnaire. For the field of Communication, Advertising, and Design, seven cases were analyzed; four cases in Speech Therapy; two in Ecology; and one in Spanish Teacher Education.

The following analysis will be reported based on the categories described in Table 3 for the analysis of artifacts and orthographic transcriptions of the interviews.

Explicit Presence of Linguistic Writing

The analysis of the challenging projects shows that the explicit mention of linguistic writing is present in all the fields. In Communication, Advertising and Design, mentions of linguistic writing are present in (seven out seven cases), and were noted as what makes the projects challenging (six out seven cases); Linguistic writing in these fields was also related to the projects´ objectives or goals (six out seven cases), and project methodologies (six out seven cases). Linguistic writing was also reported as part of the professional roles in most of the cases (five out seven cases), and it was needed for tracking project implementation (four out seven cases), and related to what alumni learned from the challenging projects (six out seven cases). Linguistic writing was also present in 82.4% of the artifacts associated with the projects reported in Communication, Advertising and Design.

In Ecology, in both cases, writing and composition were multimodal, multimedia and multigenre. These practices involved writing texts (combining texts, images and graphics), and videos; managing shared folders, writing emails, reports and guidelines.

Likewise in Speech Therapy, linguistic writing appeared in four out four cases. In three cases, it was related to the project objectives, and methodologies, and in four cases, it was associated with what alumni learned from the projects. 93.10% of the artifacts associated with the challenging projects included linguistic writing.

In the case of Spanish Teacher Education, linguistic writing was mainly associated with progress and final reports of the in-service-teacher program (lesson planning, classroom follow-up, tutor feedback, and final report). The reports included what had been done and further steps (comparative analysis of proposed and achieved goals, and new challenges based on the training experience).

Presence of Non-Linguistic Writing or Multimodal Writing

The use of multimodal writing was also present in all the fields. In Communication, Advertising and Design, multimodal writing appeared in five out seven cases, and was mentioned as a) the feature making the projects challenging (three out seven cases); b) part of the objective/goal projects (five out seven cases); and, c) part of what alumni learned from the projects (six out seven cases). 33% of artifacts associated with the challenging projects included multimodal writing.

In Speech Therapy, multimodal writing emerges in four out four cases, and it was mentioned as part of a) the objectives/goals (two out four cases); b) the project methodology (one out four cases); and, c) part of what alumni learned from the projects (three out four cases). 86.20% of the artifacts associated with the challenging projects included multimodal writing.

In Spanish Teacher Education, multimodal writing was necessary to create evidence of classroom non-participating observations (e.g., "when I made reports in which I included what was happening in a certain class and I included photographs, videos, everything in detail").

Presence of Digital Technology to Produce Content

In Communication, Advertising and Design five out seven cases utilized digital technology to create content, and digital technology also appeared in 73.6% of the artifacts associated with the projects; however, digital technology to create content was considered a challenging feature of the projects in only two out seven cases. In most cases (five out seven cases), there was also the presence of digital technology to create methodological content of the projects, and it was mentioned only in one case as part of what alumni learned from the projects.

- In Ecology, while writing in Google Drive and through emails are mentioned, participants valued face-to-face interactions more than these digital forms, especially for fieldwork.
- In Speech Therapy, digital technology only emerges in one out four cases as part of the project methodology.
- In the Teacher Education case study, digital technology was associated with a specific platform where teachers' follow-up reports were archived.

In general, mentions about digital technology usage to create content were low (six mentions out of 47 interview questions analyzed across the

cases). However, in 89.6% of the artifacts associated with the projects, the presence of digital technology to produce contents was a feature. It seems that participating alumni took digital technology for granted for writing and communication in the challenging projects.

Cooperative Presence of Writing or Composition

In Communication, Advertising, and Design, cooperative writing and composition was present in four out seven cases, and in three out four cases in Speech Therapy. In Communication, Advertising, and Design, cooperative writing and composition also made the projects challenging (three out seven cases); and, it was part of the project objective/goal in four out seven cases, while in Speech Therapy, there was no mention of cooperative writing and composition.

In Ecology, cooperative writing and composition was mostly focused on providing the project materials for the reports (i.e., emails, digital files and/or WhatsApp threads), since the final deliverable reviews were typically done by hired editors or other colleagues (e.g., bosses). According to the information provided by the alumni, in this field, to make revisions, practitioners are expected to be familiar with report formats, writing based on evidence, logical organization, and conceptual precision. To these practitioners, coming to agreement was challenging to teamwork, since they a) participated in interdisciplinary work; b) produced results for sponsors; c) readjusted timelines according to teamwork and fieldwork changes and report deadlines; and, d) communicated with lay audiences.

In Communication, Advertising, and Design, cooperative writing and composition was present for project decision making but not for content and deliverable production. In 47.2% of artifacts associated with projects, there was evidence of cooperative writing and composition; in 34% of these artifacts, there was evidence of cooperative decision making on composition and writing.

In Speech Therapy, 93.10% of the artifacts associated with the projects required cooperative writing and composition. Figure 4.8 is an example of how cooperative writing takes place, during a WhatsApp conversation, the team makes agreements for reviewing documents of a project related to designing guidelines.

In Spanish-Teacher Education, cooperative writing and composition was associated with teacher learning communities, and training workshops for tutors. Cooperative writing and composition were also mentioned at the time of assessment and project closure.

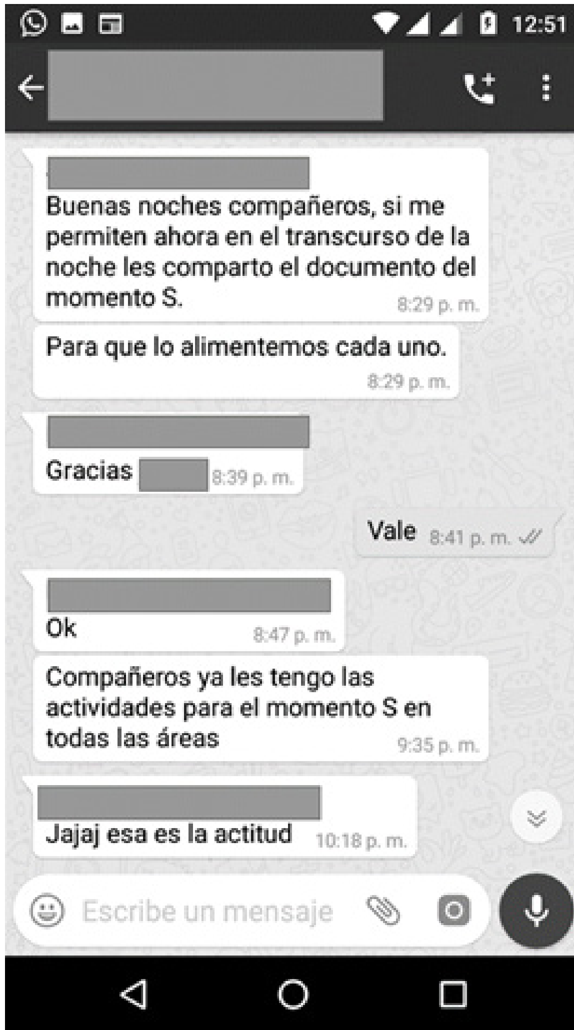
Original artifact	**Interpretation into English**
	Good night, guys! I will send you the document tonight to have your feedback. Thanks Ok Ok Guys, I already designed all the activities for the guidelines ha-ha great!

Figure 4.8. Example of cooperative writing.

Lessons Learned from Exploring Workplace Writing Experiences of Colombian Alumni

This study pointed to the need for further studies on distinctions in cooperative writing and composition as an individual practice in workplace

experiences. Our data confirms that alumni took roles as content contributors from their experience and domain in Communication, Advertising, Design, and Speech Therapy; in Ecology, alumni mentioned methodological complementarity; furthermore, in Communication, Advertising, and Design, they assumed reviewers' roles; and, in Speech Therapy, editing and reviewers' roles on formal writing features (mechanics and coherence), and persuasive and efficacy features of the contents.

In Communication, Advertising, Design, Ecology, and Speech Therapy, interdisciplinary, intra- and inter-organizational relationships were highly present in the data. On the contrary, Spanish Teacher Education might be seen as the most endogenous field. In the questionnaire and case study data, alumni mainly reported intraprofessional relationships in the same organization or with other organizations (with other teachers in the same or other disciplines). In a few cases, in Communication, Advertising, Design, and Speech Therapy, some mentions were identified about writing "simultaneously" with colleagues from the same field, from other fields, with bosses or project leaders. This data allowed us to start making distinctions between "collective writing work" (producing contents with others at different moments), and "cooperative writing and composition" (producing contents "simultaneously" with others, at the same time).

The "collective writing work" (producing contents with others at different moments) was more present in our data, mainly because, as colleagues often offer complementarity to what is produced, or because they assume roles as content reviewers.

Curriculum Recommendations

The collective and distributed nature of workplace writing responsibilities offered by this study could be simulated in the curriculum with group work and by differentiating roles in assignments (e.g., project leader versus project executor). Likewise, assignment evaluation of writing performance might be based on the achievement of diverse writing and composition responsibilities and performances and not only based on a final textual product which, as the data shows, in workplace experiences is the result of asymmetric and distributed responsibilities.

This difference between "collective writing work" (producing contents with others at different moments), and "cooperative writing and composition" (producing contents "simultaneously" with others, at the same time) is also important to inform curriculum designers in analyzing to what extent

curricula and subjects are mainly offering students to professionalizing collective experiences rather than interdisciplinary projects such as those we documented in our data.

The questionnaire results and the case studies suggest that, in all the fields, the alumni embrace to some degree, leadership and project coordination responsibilities. These occupational features emerging from our data might be useful to inform curriculum design to include opportunities in which students experience different roles and responsibilities, since workplace market seems to demand versatility to fulfill diverse professional roles.

These occupational leadership and coordination roles are also associated with writing expectations that alumni reported as challenging to face in the workplace. Therefore, the following writing knowledge might be offered as part of professional education:

- project writing, including evidence-oriented and progress reports that synthesize content from multiple voices and/or with different formats/materiality;
- content creation targeting diverse audiences, especially lay and interdisciplinary audiences; and,
- deliverable submission in tight timelines (project management).

Conclusion

This chapter reported a qualitative study to contribute with data on workplace writing in the context of Latin American writing studies. The analysis shed light on disciplinary, interdisciplinary, and teamwork-oriented features of professional writing across fields, which is not measured by the current Colombian large-scale assessment applied at the end of the undergraduate programs. Our data provide evidence to state that the national large-scale assessment is exclusively evaluating individual performances on linguistic writing, whereas our results of workplace experiences reveal the importance of collective, interdisciplinary, intra- and interorganizational interactions and interplays among linguistic writing, multimodal writing, and digital technologies. Therefore, universities are called upon to i) design institutional assessment programs that aggregate data to the current Colombian writing large-scale assessment results, and ii) carry out post-graduation undergraduate studies that might create a more comprehensive picture of the impact of writing curricula on alumni, especially on their professional experiences.

Acknowledgments

This study was part of the research project titled "*Exploring alumni workplace writing experiences for aggregating data to Colombian large-scale college writing assessment reports,*" and funded by Universidad Autónoma de Occidente, Colombia (2017–2019).

Glossary

Academic essay: Argumentative writing asked for the National higher education large-scale assessment.
Academic genres: Genres utilized for learning and assessment across Higher Education (essays and theses).
Alfabetización académica: Latin-American pedagogical and scholarly field that encourages diverse curriculum initiatives and pedagogical research such as Writing Across the Curriculum (WAC) and Writing within Disciplines (WID) to support academic socialization and learning of disciplines and professions across tertiary educational levels.
Challenging professional project: Strategy utilized to data collection. It refers to a demanding collective activity for practitioners, both intellectually and in terms of capacities professional. This professional project was the context to explore workplace writing.
Colombian field on teaching reading and writing in Higher Education: Group of pedagogical practices developed since 2010 approximately particularly influenced by Language Didactics and Textual Linguistics, which have contributed with teaching processual approaches to writing as an individual experience, and descriptions of text prototypes, respectively. After 2010, other scholarly works have contributed from genre pedagogies.
Communities of Practice framework: An analytical concept, based on social learning systems, which serves as basis for analyzing emergent structures, complex relationships, self-organization, boundaries, negotiations, and changing identities of participants in collective activities. In the project, it was used to study writing as part of collective activity in workplaces.
Enculturation: In educational environments, social experience to learn without direct instruction.
IRB protocol: Ethical protocol fulfilled to human subject research.
Genres: Theoretical category to study writing as rhetorical and textual phenomenon.
National higher education large-scale assessment: Colombian public policy since 2010 as part of quality education assurance.

Professional genres: Multimodal genres utilized as ways of doing and thinking through language within professions.

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Appendix. Case Studies by Field

Case	Cases Study Name	Field	Interview Date	Informed Consent Received	Materials Receipt Date *
1	Protocol and guidelines for edition and correction of legal documents	Commu-nication – journalism	28/02/2019	Not apply	Not apply
2	Crowdfunding strategy design: Redesigning a website.	Commu-nication – journalism	25/10/2018	Not apply	Not apply
3	Online radio station - Timeless Writing for Radio	Commu-nication – journalism	21/11/2018	11/2018	21/11/2018
4	Change Management for Digital and Cultural Transformation	Commu-nication – journalism	19/10/2018 8:30am	21/11/2018	18/11/2018
5	Research on communica-tion values in the Spain banking sector	Advertising	2/10/2018	2/10/2018	08/11/2018
6	ICT culture project in a university	Advertising	23/08/2018	03/08/2018	21/08/2018
7	Virtual Program _ Analysis and Software Development	Graphic Design	26/10/2018 10am	26/10/2018	14/11/2018 and 22/11/2018
8	Educational manuals – Pedagogy	Speech Therapy	27/02/2019	2/2019	06/11/2018
9	Management and occupa-tional health manual for a company	Speech Therapy	28/02/2019	Not apply	Not apply
10	Research project on music therapy	Speech Therapy	24/02/2019	27/02/2019	27/02/2019
11	Writing booklets on pro-cess facilitation tools	Speech Therapy	27/02/2019	26/03/2019	25/02/2019
12	Biodiversity analysis in a Colombian region and community work	Ecology	28/09/2018	28/09/19	28/03/19
13	Educational materials for a Colombian region (Chocó)	Ecology	17/12/18	17/12/18	11/02/19
14	Teacher mentor of the national teaching devel-opment program "Todos a aprender" of the National Ministry of Colombia	Teacher Education	10/09/19	10/09/19	10/10/19

Source. Own elaboration based on authors´ analysis

* Associated with the challenging project/emails, digital files and/or WhatsApp threads

5 Writing through Viability: Perspectives on Professional Writing Expertise, Conditionality, and Agency

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Abstract: The chapter addresses professional writing expertise in the context of social power relations. It introduces and discusses the concept *writing through viability* which refers to a developmental stage of professional writing in which writers have learnt to build on their expertise as well on their position in the (institutional) field. Based on reflection and expertise the writers are able to take responsibility for their texts and live the choices they have—against the background of various limitations. The concept *writing through viability* is inspired by feminist philosophy, especially Judith Butler who coined the term "viability," and by a study on writing development, legitimation, and agency by M Knappik. The chapter introduces the concept, reveals its background and the discursive dialog that had inspired it, and discusses on several aspects that build the base for it. In doing so, it refers to interrelations between viability, agency, and the development of professional writing expertise; requirements of professional writing; and the field of tension between "submitting" to contexts and developing agency. Thus, *writing through viability* addresses the complex interrelations between social limitations, agency as "having a choice," taking responsibility for text production as a prerequisite for professional writing, and the reflection of all those aspects.

Reflection

In 2016, I took part in the IRC workshop at the CCCC in Houston.[1] My research on strategies and routines for professional multilingual writing was

1 Please read the opening statement for this collection, "Editing in US-Based International Publications: A Position Statement," before reading this chapter.

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funded by the Austrian Science Fund FWF, which allowed me to travel. I remember the lively, constructive discussions at our round table. Some misunderstandings concerning my approach on professional writing turned out useful for pointing out what I still needed to explain more extensively for an international discourse community or to think about more deeply in the first place.

Now, several years later, my research project has been completed; it has led to a new writing process model that considers individual and situational variation (the PROSIMS model; Dengscherz, 2019, 2022) and to a book (Dengscherz, 2019), in which I also discuss professional writing and its product-oriented requirements. During writing, our round table came to my mind every now and then, for example, when I discussed my perspective on professional writing as inspired by my institutional affiliation with the Center for Translation Studies (CTS) at the University of Vienna. In its Bachelor's program Transcultural Communication, professional writing is taught as the production of functional, reader-oriented texts in two or three working languages. Students are expected to acquire an overarching writing expertise that refers to much more than writing as part of one's job or in a particular discipline with specialized terminology.

And my perspectives on professional writing also are at core in this chapter. To some extent, thus, some passages can be read as a late answer to our round-table discussion. For my chapter in this collection, though, I return to the topic of "professional writing," with a specific scope, introducing the concept of *writing through viability*. This connects to an additional dialog with a colleague of mine who has known my research project from the beginning, M Knappik. This colleague did not take part in the IRC workshop but, in another project (Knappik, 2018), developed a framework for thinking about writing development in social contexts. *Writing through viability* adds to M Knappik's model.

With *writing through viability*, I address professional writing development from a social perspective. The concept refers to authorization through social groups, to regulation, limitation, and empowerment. When I was working on my book, the concept of *writing through viability* emerged as a kind of by-product, which I mentioned in passing and described only briefly. This anthology provides the ideal context for elaborating my considerations, as the IRC workshops add to *writing through viability* in several ways. Most fundamentally, they support international interaction among colleagues. Since the texts to be discussed are shared in advance, the exchange of ideas can go into depth and detail.

For me, the on-site discussions in the IRC workshop especially revealed what I might have been taken for granted too easily. This way, it helped me

to clarify what it is I *really* wanted to say and to reflect on how I can make it understood (and accepted?) by the community. This contributes to an important refining of ideas and to a potential emancipation from hegemonic discourse positions. And both are crucial aspects of agency and empowerment in writing—thus, also of the concept of *writing through viability*.

Institutional Context: The CTS at the University of Vienna

With about 85,000 students and 10,000 employees, the University of Vienna is the largest university in Austria (as well as in German speaking countries), one of the largest universities in Europe—and one of the oldest (founded in 1365). The university is subdivided into 20 subunits (15 faculties and 5 centers). One of these centers is the Center for Translation Studies (CTS).

In research and teaching, the CTS focuses on professional multilingual communication and adopts interdisciplinary approaches in the sub-disciplines of translation studies, interpreting studies, terminology studies and transcultural communication. Key research areas at the CTS are *Technologies and socio-cognitive processes in translation and interpreting* and *Translation and interpreting in social, institutional and media context*. The research is conducted by professors, pre- and postdoctoral researchers, senior-lecturers and other staff members and independent (habilitated) researchers. Most of the ca. 120 colleagues are also engaged in teaching.

About 2,000 students enroll in one of the CTS' programs at BA, MA, or doctoral level and choose two or three working languages among the following: Bosnian/Croatian/Serbian, Czech, English, French, German, Hungarian, Italian, Polish, Portuguese, Rumanian, Russian, and Spanish (in the MA-program additionally Japanese and Chinese). Especially German and English are the "large languages" at the CTS, with accordingly large groups (course groups for professional writing may consist of 30–60 students). The lingua franca for teaching on a cross-language meta-level is mostly German, partly English.

The BA-program focuses in a general way on forms of transcultural communication as professional text production in (two or three) working languages, while the MA-programs offer specializations: *Translation in Literature – Media – Arts*; *Specialized Translation and Language Industry*; *Conference Interpreting* and *Dialogue Interpreting*. In the doctoral program, the CTS cooperates with the faculty of Philological and Cultural Studies, and the CTS-candidates choose their topics, again, from the broad field of Transcultural Communication—which also may include writing research.

Gaining professional writing expertise is a special aim of the BA-program. The students engage with various genres and fulfil a broad range of writing

tasks that simulate order-specific writing in professional text production (for example PR-contexts, international conferences, institutional communication, etc.). When I use the term "writing development" in my chapter, I refer to the development of those skills, concerning professional writing expertise, last but not least in addressing specific genres and discourse communities.

The students' language and writing biographies are quite diverse. Some students have already been raised bi- or multilingually, others have built up their multilingual repertoires later in their lifetimes. Many students have migration biographies and have attended school (also) in other countries than Austria. For several students, their working languages have already been educational languages, others have used them mainly in private contexts and now try to systematically gather academic language proficiency at university. Additionally, their experience with different genres varies according to their writing biographies before university.

A main aim of the BA studies at the CTS is to build up transcultural, multilingual expertise in communication (oral and written) on a meta-level which is meant to be transferred to various contexts and social fields. Individual professionalization in text production and communication (product oriented as well as process oriented) is at core of the BA studies at the CTS. As professional text production is complex and needs competencies at several levels (including language, genre knowledge, cultural knowledge, etc.) which develop over time and need a lot of practice it provides a broad range of challenges for the students—and a broad range of opportunity to develop agency in communication.

Introduction

Writing is a collective phenomenon. Although, practically, I am sitting at my desk alone while writing these lines, I do not write in solitude. My chapter is inspired by discussions with colleagues and influenced by many other texts. (Academic) discourse is created by "countless people" (Roozen, 2016, p. 18); every text is "full of the voices of others" (Donahue, 2019, p. 50). This applies to discourse positions and the eristic structure of academic discussion (Ehlich, 2018) as well as to genres as social actions (Miller, 1984) and the heteroglossic nature of voices in the sense of Mikhail Bachtin (1979).

These voices affect writing in different ways: Some provide ideas as starting points for one's own reflections or lead to the refinement of those ideas. Others refer to conventions, questions of acceptability, or possible expectations held by readers. Some might sound encouraging, while others might appear as internal or external censors (Keseling, 2004). Against this background,

writing development can be regarded as a socialization process, as a process of learning to deal with voices in the discourse and with communicative practices in social groups (Russell, 2012), last but not least when it comes to the development of professional writing expertise (see below).

This is related to power relations. We can ask which voices dominate and which writers are expected to conform more than others. We can discuss hegemonies of discourse positions or languages (Canagarajah, 2013), for example, English in international academia (Lillis & Curry, 2010) and the issue of "native speakerism" in multilingual contexts (Knappik & Dirim, 2013). Especially in educational institutions, learning is related to a field of tension between "mastery and submission" (Davies, 2006).

Power relations might affect text production and the self-perception of writers. The latter has been explored by Knappik (2018) in a qualitative analysis of writing biographies of (multilingual) students at the university of Vienna. Knappik takes up Judith Butler's idea of "viable subjects," which refers to people who are "legitimized" to participate in societal actions and focuses on writers' perceptions of their agency in writing in the context of German as a second language. Knappik identifies three stages of writing development: *Writing before a requirement for viability*, *writing for viability*, and *writing in viability*. Interestingly, Knappik states that in these stages, mastery leads to increasing submission rather than to more agency. This emphasis on the close relationship between legitimization and submission seems to contradict common arguments for education as means for empowerment (see, e.g., Mandal, 2013; Russell, 2012).

In my approach, I try to bridge the gap between these seemingly contradictory discourse positions in adding a fourth stage of viability-development to Knappik's three: *writing through viability*. This concept can be regarded as a "missing link" between Knappik's work and "empowerment-by-education" discourses. With the concept of *writing through viability,* I refer to (advanced, professional) writing expertise as a way to regain agency in writing. My arguments are rooted in the realm of multilingual professional writing in Transcultural Communication, which includes a broad range of genres (including academic writing). However, the concept is not restricted to this realm; I address professional writing expertise at a meta-level as targeted toward communicative creative writing with a high-quality demand in general.

Writing through viability is a theoretical concept that is based mainly on theoretical considerations. Nevertheless, it is inspired by insights from empirical research, in particular the study of Knappik (2018) and my own research on writing processes of successful multilingual writers (Dengscherz, 2019, 2022) and in my institutional background.

In the following sections, I discuss my ideas regarding *writing through viability* and professional writing expertise as well as some considerations that contribute to my argument. My chapter consists of three main sections: First, I disclose some reflections on viability, agency, and writing development, mainly addressing Butler's thoughts on viability and conditionality as well as Knappik's study on writing development. Second, I clarify my position toward professional writing against the background of other perspectives in academic discourse. Third, I bring these topics together and discuss several aspects of requirements in professional writing that are related to my concept of *writing through viability*. In the conclusion, I summarize the main arguments for *writing through viability* and reflect on some implications for writing didactics.

Viability, Agency, and Writing Development

With the concept of *writing through viability* (Dengscherz, 2019), I add to a travel route of theory (in the sense of Edward Said, 1983) that started with the idea of "viable subjects" (Butler, 1995a, p. 42; cf. Butler, 1997) in societies. As viability addresses the conditions for being considered "possible" as a writing subject, it is closely tied to legitimation. Bronwyn Davies (2006) discussed this idea in relation to educational contexts; Knappik (2018) transferred it to writing development. In an educational institution, a "viable subject" is legitimized to obtain a degree, which is often closely tied to writing performance (Knappik 2018). In the following subsections, I will explain Butler's approach and Knappik's study in more detail and point out at which points of the discussion I step in with my arguments toward *writing through viability*.

Viability, Conditionality, and Agency in Writing

When we enter new social fields and try to act in them, we need to deal with expectations from others and new communication conventions. We may ask ourselves to what extent we want to adjust to these expectations and do what seems to be asked of us. Adjustment can be regarded partly as submission to the conditions of an environment, partly as a learning process that might lead to empowerment and agency. When we address viability in the context of (the development of) professional writing expertise, we address the issues of agency and conditionality.

With "agency," I refer to writers' scopes of action concerning content and positioning in the discourse as well as concerning text design and style, including dealing with genre conventions and communicative aims, which, in turn, are deeply rooted in social practices (Russell, 2012). When writers' texts

enter a given discourse, some of them might become influential for others and, thus, also contribute to or even change the social field to some (small) extent. My focus in this chapter, however, is not the power that texts might enfold in the discourse *after* their publication. Instead, I aim at sounding out the agency of writers that they enfold *in* their texts, in drafting and designing them, and I reflect on the conditions of the field of tension between mastery and submission that defines the space for this agency.

My considerations are inspired by Butler's ideas on the possibilities and limitations of developing discourse positions against the background of societal conditions. In the context of postmodern feminist philosophy, Butler argues for the political necessity of speaking while at the same time discussing the limitations of the socially constituted subject: As "no subject is its own point of departure" (Butler, 1995a, p. 42), we all are part of social fields, their power relations, and complex, interwoven discourses. Agency, then, is possible through positioning in these discourses and the resignification of discourse positions, which, in turn, already have affected the individual:

> My position is mine to the extent that "I"—and I do not shirk from the pronoun—replay and resignify the theoretical positions that have constituted me, working the possibilities of their convergence, and trying to take account of the possibilities that they systematically exclude. [. . .] it is clearly not the case that "I" preside over the positions that have constituted me [. . .]. The "I" who would select between them is always already constituted by them …, and these positions are not merely theoretical products, but fully embedded organizing principles of material practices and institutional arrangements, those matrices of power and discourse that produce me as viable "subject." (Butler, 1995a, p. 42)

Viability, thus, is constituted by power relations in social contexts. However, Butler's "I" is not just a plaything of higher powers; it is a thinking and speaking "I" that takes its agency not least via *opposing* certain positions:

> Indeed, this "I" would not be a thinking, speaking "I" if it were not for the very positions that I oppose, for those positions, the ones that claim that the subject must be given in advance, that discourse is an instrument of reflection of that subject, are already part of what constitutes me. (Butler, 1995a, p. 42)

This simultaneous relationship between conditionality and opposition seems contradictory at first sight, especially since Butler refers to a subject

that opposes the claim of its own autonomy. Individual development is closely tied to social contexts. These contexts provide ideas and perspectives that can be taken for granted—or serve as points of departure for reflections and resignification. They provide support and authorization as well as, at the same time, limitations and sometimes even oppression.

Davies (2006) adapted Butler's considerations to the institutional context of education. She describes "the formation of the subject" as dependent "on powers external to itself" in a field of tension between conditionality and agency and focuses on "the dual process of submission and mastery in the formation of the subject" (Davies, 2006, pp. 426-427). This, in turn, is an important point of departure for Knappik's reflections. In narrowing the scope, she applies the ideas of Butler and Davies to (multilingual) writing development in relation to social and institutional power relations, focusing on writing in (Austrian) schools and universities. In Knappik's study, "writing development" refers to the development of the writing skills required in educational contexts: in school mainly on the text production in typical "school genres" which follow their own, specific rules, at university, then, more focused on academic writing.[2] While Davies (2006) addresses submission and mastery as a field of tension, for the students in Knappik's (2018) study, viability is already closely related to submission, conditionality, and limitations of agency.

This might be astonishing, as individual competence is usually addressed as crucial for agency in social environments (Pany-Habsa, 2020). Especially for writers from disadvantaged social classes, expertise is an important basis for success (Russell, 2012). When writers have proven to be "viable subjects" (Butler, 1995a, p. 42; cf. Butler, 1997) in specific communities, they have the chance to become visible and "legitimized" as successful writers. For students in school or university, this may result in good grades; later, in one's professional life, it might result in published texts, academic or other positions, awards, funding, commendatory reviews, appreciative comments, and so forth.

Such appreciative reactions enfold an "authorizing power" in the sense of Butler (1995a, p. 42) and, thus, socially confirm the *viability* of successful professional writers. Viability, in this sense, partly refers to status (i.e., to one's social position as a writer), partly to writing expertise (i.e., to one's know-how based on writing experience), and partly to a habitus (that is based on status *and* expertise). That writers *know* about their expertise and viability contributes, along with writing experience, to their self-confidence in writing. This

2 A description of these "school genres" in Austria is available under the following link: https://www.matura.gv.at/index.php?eID=dumpFile&t=f&f=4525&token=950c7f2b86f0ebc3459c5f0aa0e04013ab99c572 (last accessed: May 17th, 2025)

builds the base for "empowered voices" (cf. Bartholomae, 1985) and a wider scope of maneuver in texts—and in the discourse. It leads to agency.

Viability and Writing Development

The concept of "viability" addresses agency and submission as two sides of the same coin. Agency is based on the "authorizing power" of communities, and gaining authorization is interrelated with considering the written and unwritten rules of these communities and, thus, with restrictions. In following conventions, for example, we show that we know them and that we are *capable* of following them. This way, we prove ourselves to be viable subjects (Butler, 1995a). Against this background, writing development in educational or professional contexts seems to be a process that shapes "rough" and diverse individual voices into more conventional ways of writing. Such a perspective on mastery—following the rules and conventions of a social group—emphasizes the submission side of the coin. This is the basis for Knappik's (2018) study, which focuses on multilingual writers and their struggles to become viable subjects in the education system.

Knappik (2018) explores "how writing development is influenced by relations of language and power in migration societies" and conceptualizes writing development "as the production of writer-subjects through discourses and practices" (p. 14). Knappik embedded the research in a seminar context in the Master's program of German as a Second Language at the University of Vienna. One task in the seminar was to write one's own "writing biography." In a qualitative study, which follows a Grounded Theory methodology, Knappik analyses these writing biographies of 58 students and discusses writing development as negotiation of viability. The study is positioned against the background of work by Michel Foucault (1966, among others) and Butler (1995a, 1997) and related to discourses on education in migration contexts in Austria and Germany, especially to the work of Paul Mecheril and of İnci Dirim and their respective engagement for equal opportunities in education and their critical perspectives on racism (see, e.g., Dirim 2010; Mecheril, 2004). The language and writing biographies of Knappik's participants are complex and diverse. They include writing in German as L1 and German as L2, while at the same time problematizing these categories (Knappik, 2018). Referring to Butler (1995a) and Davies (2006), Knappik (2018) analyzes the development of multilingual writing competence as embedded in power relations and identifies three developmental stages in the field of tension between mastery and submission.

The first stage, *writing before a requirement for viability* ("vor einem Viabilitätserfordernis"; Knappik, 2018, p. 135), refers to writing without institutional

restrictions or explicit expectations toward the writers' performance. It applies to children who "write" in a playful way, similar to drawing. It can also apply to adults who write for themselves without addressing (other) readers with expectations. In this stage, writers are free to try out what they want, and writing conventions are not (yet) important (Knappik, 2018).

In the next stage, *writing for viability* ("für Viabilität"; Knappik, 2018, p. 142), writing becomes more regulated and restricted. When starting school or, later, university, writers are confronted with certain expectations toward their texts. First, young writers are confronted with questions of linguistic correctness and orthography; later, they engage with specific genres and their respective requirements. In trying to prove that they are able to meet the requirements of the educational institution, students write *for viability,* aiming at legitimization in the respective context (Knappik, 2018). In this stage, the writers try to adhere to conventions; however, their mastery is still to be developed.

The third stage, *writing in viability* ("in Viabilität"; Knappik, 2018, p. 160), refers to writers who succeeded in achieving the mastery required by educational institutions. These writers are able to follow linguistic and genre conventions and to produce texts as they are expected from them. Thus, they have come to be perceived as viable subjects. However, this comes at a high cost: writers may feel that, in order to adhere to conventions, they had to give up their own voices (Knappik, 2018). In other words, with increasing mastery, young writers' agency becomes "conditioned" (Davies, 2006, p. 426) and, thus, restricted.

This is where Knappik's story ends. Frankly, the findings are quite disenchanting. In school, several of Knappik's participants seemed to have experienced structures of assessment and evaluation that were not supportive. They perceived "typical school genres" as little motivating, the high workload at university was discouraging to many of them, and some experienced "native speakerism" as well (Knappik, 2018, p. 218). Some of the issues reported refer to power relations in the context of migration—for example, the monolingual paradigm (Canagarajah, 2013)—or other forms of discrimination in education (see, e.g., Knappik & Dirim, 2013).

In the stage of *writing in viability*, Knappik's participants had been legitimized by their institution—but not empowered. However, writing development is not necessarily finished at this stage. *Writing in viability* can and should, in the long run, build the basis for empowerment and regaining agency. It can, as I argue, lay the groundwork for a fourth stage of development that I call *writing through viability*.

In this next stage, writers take empowerment out of having been legitimized as "viable subjects" in social fields and of having learned to act as such. Then, mastery is no longer a form of submission but rather a *means*

to overcome submission. For this, other levels of mastery—and/or another approach to mastery—might be needed. These can be ones which are at the core of professional writing, as we will see.

Requirements of Professional Writing

In the following, I briefly explain my approach toward professional writing against the background of other perspectives in academic discourse. First, I outline some discourse lines around professional writing. Second, I sketch my own approach toward professional writing as rooted in Transcultural Communication. This creates the basis for the third subsection, in which I discuss the characteristics of overall professional writing expertise as related to *writing through viability*.

Perspectives on Professional Writing

Professional writing is an ambiguous term. It can refer to writing as part of one's job or to writing expertise—or to both (Russell, 2012). Some approaches are based on dichotomies and refer to professional writing through the lens of what is *not* perceived as such. Françoise Cros et al. (2009), for example, distinguish (reflexive) writing in the profession from writing in the process of professionalization; Brigitte Bouquet (2009, p. 82) distinguishes between "écriture personnelle" and "écriture professionnelle"; and Stefan Trappen (2003, p. 171) distinguishes between "intuitive" and "professional" writing.

Each of these dichotomies foregrounds a different aspect of professional writing: Cros et al. (2009) emphasize writing in the job as writing after having finished the education required for the job. Bouquet (2009) focuses on profession in the sense of writing as part of one's job, with professional writing as writing in the public sphere. Both mainly address the context in which such writing takes place. Trappen (2003), in turn, focuses on exigence and expertise.

"Professional writing" applies to many different forms of writing and encompasses a variety of genres along with their social practices and communicative aims (Sitri, 2015). Possible categories are specific professional situations ("situations professionnelles"; Cros et al., 2009) or specific aspects of exigence that are important across professions and genres. With a focus on professional situations, for example, Bertrand Daunay and Morrisse (2009) analyze writing practices of teachers, and Bouquet (2009) deals with writing in social work. Such approaches toward professional writing as writing in the job include (more or less) spontaneous ways of text production. They include

e-mails, preparation sheets, and teaching protocols or can refer even to filling in forms—for example, by teachers (Daunay & Morisse, 2009) or by farmers on stock markets (Jones, 2000).

In approaches that emphasize expertise, professional writing is often addressed as a sophisticated, demanding form of text production (Trappen, 2003), and writing sometimes is perceived as the profession itself.[3] Céline Beaudet and Véronique Rey (2012) describe "rédaction professionnelle" as a specific expertise that is focused on functional text production oriented toward readers: "le rédacteur professionnel est apparu comme un spécialiste, dont le domaine d'expertise est l'adéquation d'un texte de nature fonctionnelle à son lecteur" (p. 174).

I take a similar approach to professional writing. I am interested in professional writing as reader-oriented text production with high-quality demands, thus in "focused writing" in the sense of Troy Hicks and Daniel Perrin (2014).[4] Professional writers are aware of the functionality of texts in relation to specific situations and audiences (Dengscherz & Cooke, 2020). Professional writing expertise needs to be transferable between different situations; however, each situation is unique, and competencies are not expected to be transferred automatically or easily to new situations (Russell, 2012). Therefore, it can be regarded as a special expertise of professional writers that they are able to transfer their knowledge between various kinds of communication situations and languages (Kaiser-Cooke, 2004). Professional writers are not "answer-filled experts" (Yancey et al., 2016) but, rather, aware of the requirements and potential challenges of writing and prepared to continue to learn and adapt to new situations–or to new techniques that might affect the writing process (like, e.g., Large Language Models and other AI-tools). This approach aligns with the realm of Transcultural Communication and my institutional background at the Center for Translation Studies (CTS).

Professional Writing in Transcultural Communication

At the CTS, the students in the Bachelor's program Transcultural Communication engage (in addition to their academic writing in general) in producing short functional texts for various genres, domains, and communication situations, usually in two or three working languages. This includes a broad variety

3 This expertise can be focused directly on writing or on other aspects of a given job. For this chapter, the writing approach is the relevant one.

4 Hicks and Perrin (2014, p. 237) distinguish between "writing by the way" (spontaneous forms of writing, low requirements) and "focused writing" (demanding forms of writing, high requirements).

of situations and genres. Here, "professional writing" is interpreted as general writing expertise that can be transferred between languages and to many different fields (such as journalism, public relations, and academic writing).

It is in this realm of professional writing (expertise) in Transcultural Communication, my research project (PROSIMS) on strategies, routines, and language practices in writing processes of successful multilingual writers was situated. PROSIMS is an acronym based on the German project title "**Pro**fessionelles **S**chreiben **i**n **m**ehreren **S**prachen" (professional multilingual writing). In this project, I applied a mixed-methods design that included analyses of student discussions, case studies, and a questionnaire (Dengscherz, 2022). At the core of the project were case studies of 17 multilingual writers (13 students and 4 researchers) who recorded writing sessions with the screen-capturing software Snagit (© TechSmith) and, additionally, provided information about their writing habits, framing conditions, and writing and language biographies in interviews.

The case studies aimed at real-life writing in academic contexts, and the participants in the project worked on a broad variety of writing tasks and genres (for detailed information, see Dengscherz, 2019, pp. 299-350), including extensive academic texts (term papers, research articles, Master's theses), short academic texts (abstracts, components of project reports), short texts with professional requirements (such as commentaries and glosses), and others texts, mainly with educational aims (such as summaries and reflections).[5] All these genres can be demanding for writers and bring their own restrictions, for example, concerning genre conventions. The target language for the texts produced was either German or English for the academic texts; for the other genres, also French and Hungarian. One of the project's outcomes was the PROSIMS writing process model that explicitly covers situational and individual variation in strategies, routines, and language practices (Dengscherz, 2019, 2022).

All in all, the project was focused mainly on the process level of writing. However, writing processes were analyzed against writers' biographical backgrounds, their writing habits, and their attitudes toward writing. This way, the project also addressed product-oriented aspects and especially individual approaches to professional writing and writing expertise. In the interviews that were part of the case studies, the writers provided information about their previous experience and their (emotional, theoretical, etc.) approaches

5 The writers worked on tasks independent from the project. This provided insights into their real writing worlds in the academic field and in its institutional conditions. The participants of my study were engaged mainly in writing utility texts. In their writing biographies, they sometimes referred to literary forms, too.

to writing. In this, some of the writers referred to normativity and conventions, sometimes explicitly questioning them. As the writers engaged in forms of professional writing, they developed individual writing strategies, routines, ways of organizing their writing processes, and approaches to text design. On several levels (product-oriented as well as process-oriented), the writers showed to have developed agency and to have individually shaped their approaches to writing (Dengscherz, 2019).

Characteristics of an Overarching Professional Writing Expertise

Against the background described above, I address professional writing on a general meta level as a demanding (i.e., sophisticated and possibly challenging) form of writing that explicitly takes communication goals in specific situations, for particular addressees, and contextual factors into account. Professional writers consider conditions of success and failure in their texts, and they make well-thought-out communication offers. Professional text design requires complex, informed decisions concerning the selection and order of information as well as style and wording (Beaudet & Rey, 2012; Dengscherz, 2019).

In order to act responsibly in professional text production, following rules is not enough. Designing texts implies making decisions about *how* to design and which information to use[6] or generate (Risku, 1998). Hans Vermeer (2006) conceptualizes interaction, communication, and translation as "holistic acting" and refers to acting as intentional, conscious behavior. "Consciousness," here, does not refer to the level of the writing *process* but to that of the *product*. Professional writers are supposed to be aware of the effects that the final versions of their texts may have on their audience and be able to explain and argue for the specific design of their texts.[7] From this perspective, an important aspect of professional writing is responsibility (Dengscherz & Cooke, 2020).[8] Professional writing, in my understanding, is a responsible action in the sense that writers are responsible to their readers and take responsibility for their texts and their designs, including the selection of information (from human or AI sources), macrostructural setups, styles, and perspectives.

6 Against the background of recent technology development and campaigns of misinformation, the relevance of this aspect has even increased, also in terms of taking responsibility for texts as an aspect of professional writing (see below).

7 Draft versions, in turn, can have different functions in the writing process and do not need to be audience-oriented at all.

8 Responsibility may refer to professional qualities in a job (Bouquet, 2009) or to the text itself and its design and implications (Dengscherz & Cooke, 2020). For my purposes here, I take the latter perspective.

Further, professional writing is often related to efficacy. This refers to an advantageous relation between the time writers spend on writing and the quality of the texts they produce. While this is an issue of work-life balance, perceptions and interpretations of "advantageous relation" differ individually. Certainly, not every "detour" in a writing process should automatically be regarded as inefficient. On the contrary, efficacy can be a way to follow detours in a fruitful way, for example, general reflection and broadening of one's expertise. Especially in multilingual settings, writers might go on "detours" when they take writing as an exercise with a focus on language proficiency, for example, when they try out expression variants or conduct research on linguistic means. This includes taking responsibility on a writing-process level.

Viability and Agency in Professional Writing Expertise

As we have seen, agency in professional writing is closely tied to responsibility. In the following subsections, I sound out several aspects of the scopes of agency in professional writing. First, I reflect on responsibility in the context of audience awareness. Next, I discuss different levels of situatedness and their impact on conditionality and agency. Further, I tackle the issue of authenticity and "choice" in relation to problem-solving, awareness, and reflection. Finally, I consider text conventions and subversive strategies (in multilingual contexts).

Responsibility in the Context of Audience Awareness

Audience awareness is an important aspect of professional text production (Beaudet & Rey, 2012; Kellogg, 2008; Resch, 1999). Orientating toward readers includes considering their previous knowledge and their expectations as well as the specifics of communication situations and contexts (Pogner, 1997). Professional writers make "informed decisions" (Bachtin, 2011, p. 76), which, in turn, are a prerequisite for responsibility. Without deliberate choices and a certain scope of agency, responsible action is not possible.

At the same time, considering expectations touches questions of acceptability. This points to inclusions and exclusions on institutional, educational, and discursive levels and, again, to restrictions of writers' agency. Individual ideas and texts are shaped by the dialogs into which they enter as well as by power relations, (anticipated) expectations, and conventions in discourse communities. John Swales (2017) describes discourse communities as social groups that broadly agree on a set of goals; have mechanisms of intercommunication

and feedback among their members; foster a certain set of genres, possibly using specific terminology; share some ideas of forms of communication that need not be openly discussed; and, against this background, develop horizons of expectations. *Considering* expectations, however, neither means claiming definite knowledge about them (Spivak, 1993) nor trying to meet them at any cost. Rather, it means *being aware* of them and *reflecting* on them based on one's previous experience.

Discourse communities can be tied to institutions or to professional communities (e.g., in academic disciplines). They may share some ideas about "good" writing and text design (Dengscherz, 2019) with hegemonic views, but, all in all, they should be imagined as heterogeneous. The IRC workshops, for example, can be regarded as a specific, international discourse community that is focused on writing research and interdisciplinary to some extent as the researchers derive from heterogeneous backgrounds (as demonstrated by this collection). Writers/researchers can "test" their positions and texts in this community, against various perspectives and research traditions, language backgrounds, and (sub)disciplines. This leads to a refinement of these positions and, at the same time, to an empowerment of the writers as they gain self-confidence in developing their voices in the context of international discourse (in the lingua franca English).

Agency and Conditionality on Different Levels of Situatedness

As professional writing requires responsibility, it appears to be, at least on the product level, a relatively controlled practice based on conscious intent (Rolf, 1993). Writers need to be "masters of the situation" in their text production. But how can such a view on professional writing be compatible with (postmodern) approaches that emphasize the conditionality of human behavior and fundamentally question independent intent? If writing, as every other behavior, is socially constructed, how can writers take responsibility for a text and develop agency at all?

Key to these questions could be specific understandings of "situation" and its particular scope. Thus, we must ask which *kinds* of "situations" it is that professional writers are expected to master. "Situation" addresses different aspects of "conditions" that are relevant for writing. From a process-oriented perspective, writing processes can be regarded as sequences of writing situations with specific heuristic and rhetorical requirements and challenges (Dengscherz, 2019, 2022, 2024). From a product-oriented perspective, writing can be regarded as embedded in societal framing conditions and communication situations. In this, different *levels* of situatedness seem to be relevant

for the issue of agency and conditionality and, thus, have different sets of effects on writing. When Butler (1995a) emphasizes the conditionality of all acting and thinking, she is referring to social context on the level of society and educational-intellectual biography. When we focus on communication situations that are relevant for professional writing, however, we do not necessarily respond to an entire society but instead to an interaction that takes place under conditions that refer to a much smaller scope.

Of course, communication situations and writing are embedded in larger contexts—in institutions, discourse communities, society. However, for discussing agency in writing (development), we usually focus on the levels of either the communication situation (product-oriented) or the writing situation (process-oriented). On these levels of situatedness, agency can serve as an accessible and realistic goal related to expertise. Process-oriented agency refers to managing the writing process in a way that meets writers' needs; product-oriented agency conceptualizes professional writing as responsible expertise toward dealing with information and text design.

When we refer to social contexts on a larger scale, as Butler (1995a) does, the issue is more complex, and agency becomes more limited. This does not only apply to situations in which texts (and/or writers) are directly assessed by others (such as the participants in Knappik's study) but also to more subtle or unconscious limitations. One cannot realistically claim to have control over all discursive influences, deeply rooted ideological issues, and other kinds of social influence in one's (educational) biography.[9] Conscious and unconscious social aspects are interwoven, as Pierre Bourdieu (1970) explains with his concept of *habitus*, which he describes as a system of organic or mental dispositions and unconscious thought, perception, and action schemes, an internalization of field conditions.

Roland Barthes (1987) refers to such mental dispositions as *voices* and, additionally, introduces *off-voices*, which have faded and gotten lost in the "hole of the discourse" (Barthes, 1987, p. 46), in the mass of what has already been written. The writer is not (necessarily) aware of them. Writing seems to oscillate between the interconnected ideas of others (what Margarete Jäger and Siegfried Jäger call the "discursive swarm," 2017, p. 25) and one's individual way of making sense of these voices and ideas, at least of those of which we are conscious. In this, the IRC workshops, in their heterogeneity of perspectives and their open discussions, can raise the awareness of researchers

9 This is a delicate issue, since primordial culture concepts operate on this level as well, stressing a kind of programming of the mind, which opens the door to essentialist concepts of culture. To avoid simplistic claims in this concern, it is useful to take discursive complexity and dynamic negotiation processes into account.

toward positions in their specific situatedness. Reflection, then, is an important factor in *writing through viability*, as it supports the sounding out of the specific scope of agency in a communication situation.

Authenticity and "Choice" in the Context of Problem-Solving, Awareness, and Reflection

Agency in writing can refer to taking a position and to developing an authentic voice. David Bartholomae (1985) describes students' writing development at universities as an emancipation process that is directed toward increasing authenticity, which, in turn, is related to agency. Writers need to find "some compromise between idiosyncrasy, a personal history, on the one hand, and the requirements of convention, the history of a discipline, on the other" (Bartholomae, 1985, p. 135). Students, he argues, perceive academic writing as especially difficult in artificial situations, when they are expected to slip into the role of the experts that they have not yet become.

This is compatible with the approach of Helmuth Feilke and Torsten Steinhoff (2003), who, in the context of German higher education, focus on students' language use and distinguish between *habitus adjustment* ("Habitusanpassung") and *problem-solving action* ("problemlösendes Handeln"). Habitus adjustment refers to a (not yet authentic) imitation of (German) "academic language," which often leads to meaningless phrases that appear academic only at first sight. Problem-solving action, on the other hand, refers to a conscious process focused on understanding and learning step by step, while at the same time becoming more and more authentic. While habitus adjustment is ascribed to students who are not (yet) aware of the language and phraseology they use, problem-solving is their successive gaining command of their language resources and using them authentically.[10]

With this distinction, Feilke and Steinhoff (2003) adopt a specific perspective on writing and problem solving. They prefer the conscious over the intuitive, and technique over inspiration. However, even professional writing is intuitive to some extent (Girgensohn, 2007). A broad understanding of "problem" is helpful in this regard: According to Kaiser-Cooke (2004), a problem occurs "when there is a discrepancy between general theory (a priori knowledge) and the actual event" (p. 287). This includes ill-defined problems

10 Feilke and Steinhoff refer to writing in the first language (German). Handling language resources is even more affected by power relations in multilingual contexts. Here, I need to add that the very categorization of language resources as first or second language is an issue of power relations itself, sometimes related to native-speakerism, and does not always describe individual language repertoires sufficiently (Dengscherz, 2019).

and leaves room for experience-based intuition that may serve as a starting point for efficient routines (Kaiser-Cooke, 2004; Ortner, 2000).[11]

Feilke and Steinhoff (2003) conceptualize awareness in problem-solving as a means of emancipation in academic writing and academic language use. This makes sense if we consider that awareness enables reflection and that reflection makes it possible to understand conditions that shape contexts and situations. Reflection is also a precondition of flexibility, of adapting to new situations (and their possible problems) and of evaluation processes concerning information found in other texts (may they be created by humans or AI-tools). Additionally, and this is especially important for the issue of agency, reflection builds the basis for having a choice. As Butler states, a subject (an "I") is not forced to *confirm* (to) existing discourse positions; there is also the possibility of *opposing* them. Resignifying (theoretical) positions and responsible action in social contexts implies having a *choice*. Choice, in turn, is based on awareness and reflection.

Yet, importantly, we cannot claim to be aware of all discursive influences on our writing. However, we can try to *become* aware of more and more of them, step by step. When we enter a discourse, we "come late" to an "unending conversation" that began before us and will continue after us, and we need to find out what the discussion is all about and catch "the tenor of the argument" (Burke, 1973, p. 110). The IRC workshops provide several starting points for catching this tenor and the underlying arguments in an international dialog. The exchange with colleagues is extremely helpful in raising awareness concerning the choices writers might have. Through exchanging papers and via round-table discussions, the workshops provide a space in which perspectives and discourse positions can be negotiated and refined in an open, explicit dialog with others. Individual agency develops when we work with the material that we find around us—and *change* this material, "replay and resignify" (Butler, 1995a, p. 42) it. In reflecting on different perspectives, we can reflect on options—our choice. This creates the basis for emancipation—from discourse positions and source texts but also from conventions and questions of style. In some cases, this might lead to subversive strategies for text production.

Text Conventions and Subversive Strategies

Communication situations are characterized by specific relationships between communication partners, their ideas about each other, their

11 An alternative to problem-solving approaches is, for example, the concepts of "reflection-in-action" (in situ, during a process) and "reflection-on-action" (with distance, for example, after a process) as described by Donald Schön (1983).

expectations, intentions, and attitudes, as well as by framing conditions such as spatial or temporal proximity or distance (Dengscherz & Cooke, 2020).[12] Although every situation is unique (in a material sense), from an intersubjective perspective, we can reflect the recurrence of situational parameters. In similar situations, "rhetors respond in similar ways, having learned from precedent what is appropriate and what effects their actions are likely to have on other people" (Miller, 1984, p. 152). From this perspective, genres can be addressed as social actions, as a "situation-based fusion of form and substance" (Miller, 1984, p. 153). Knowledge of genres can serve as reference points that restrict text production and, in this way, facilitate writing by freeing writers from the need to newly "invent everything" (Beaudet & Rey, 2012, p. 177). Similarly, "sedimented language acts" (Pennycook, 2010, p. 138) provide orientation through sample solutions for text design that have proven to be successful in past communication situations (Resch, 2006).[13]

To some extent, genres are provisional (Sitri, 2015); they change with their social contexts and especially with their functions (Russell, 2012). Through repetition and habituation effects, however, (genre) conventions affect expectations and enfold a certain normative power (Russell, 2012) that is related to submission and/or conditionality. While submission mainly refers to hegemonic expectations and norms, conditionality covers influence from the social field in its heterogeneity and complexity. To some extent, it is exactly the heterogeneity of discourse positions, genres, and style that opens a certain space for agency, since writers choose *among* possibilities.

Texts do not necessarily need to follow conventions to be functional (Engberg, 2001), and communication is influenced by norms but not entirely determined by them (Busch, 2012). Conventions and expectations contribute to the possibilities in the social field, which, at large, is rich in variety. The more writers know about the variety of expectations, conventions, positions, and so forth, the more clearly they can see the choices they have.

In this context, it is revealing to look at some considerations by Steinhoff (2007) and Thorsten Pohl (2007). Focusing on linguistic aspects of text production, especially phraseology, Steinhoff (2007) analyzed and compared academic texts of students and experts and, on this basis, derived a developmental model for language use in German academic writing. The model

12 The *communication* situation should not be confused with the immediate *speech* situation. In linguistics, it is often emphasized that written texts are liberated from the speech situation, since their production and their reception may occur far apart in time (Linke, 2010; Ehlich, 2018). However, this does not release a text from its *communication* situation.

13 Sample solutions have also proven useful for Large Language Models.

contains three stages: preconventional, conventional, and postconventional.[14] In the *preconventional* stage, students transpose well-known language material from essay writing and journalism into their academic texts and imitate complex syntax; similar to habitus adjustment (Feilke & Steinhoff, 2003), this does not lead to good academic style. In the next stage, the student writers elaborate and transform their linguistic repertoires until they produce *conventional* academic texts. Steinhoff does not stop here but continues to the possibility of *postconventional* language use, which applies to writers whose texts are communicative and functional even when they do not follow the conventions (in this case, of academic writing). While Steinhoff's understanding of "postconventional" includes breaking the rules to some extent, Pohl (2007) uses the term in a slightly different way, referring to writers who have a wide repertoire of conventional alternatives that they can apply selectively and with a high degree of variation. Nevertheless, both understandings have in common that they refer to writers who make *deliberate choices*. This view matches approaches to professional writing that highlight personal responsibility and decision-making against the background of the functionality of texts (Beaudet & Rey, 2012).

Being able to understand the function of conventions and to know under which circumstances unconventional solutions might be adequate is part of professional writing (Dengscherz, 2019). In their conceptions of "postconventional," both Steinhoff and Pohl focus on one's command of academic language. In comparison, *writing through viability* refers to a wider scope; it focuses on agency, self-perception, and power-relations but also on the interrelation between writing expertise and social contexts.

Text patterns, genres, and conventions are not just pragmatic but also related to ideological positions. The reproduction of genres can be regarded as a reification of hegemonic structures. When we question power relations in text production, we might discuss which kinds of influences and voices are dominant and which are marginalized (Dengscherz & Cooke, 2020). Against this background, a targeted breaking of conventions can be a subversive strategy for addressing or undermining power relations. One example for such a strategy is

14 Phraseology in writing has been addressed extensively concerning the application of discursive linguistic routines. In German discourse, such phraseological analysis has a broad tradition at the intersection between writing didactics and linguistics, especially in relation to the teaching of writing in school. At the core of this discourse is the work of Feilke (e.g., 2012, 2015) who discussed the relevance of phraseological knowledge in writing and education under the label of "Textroutinen" (textual routines) and "Textprozeduren" (textual procedures). In French, Emilie Née, Frédérique Sitri, and Marie Veniard (2014) addressed this phenomenon of "l'articulation entre des déterminations discursives, des phenomènes de figement et le processus rédactionnel" (p. 2113) as "routines discursives."

codemeshing. Vershawn Young (2004) describes codemeshing as "allowing black students to mix a black English style with an academic register" (p. 713). Suresh Canagarajah (2013) conceptualizes it as a subversive double-strategy in (academic) texts: large parts of the text follow the usual norms and conventions, while other parts contain targeted deviations from the expected (e.g., through the application of marginalized varieties of English). Codemeshing refers not only to the hegemonic role of academic English (cf. Lillis & Curry, 2010) but also to postcolonial power relations, the uneven prestige of different language varieties, and discrimination against World Englishes.[15]

Subversive strategies can take many forms, including playing with language(s) or varieties, genres, ideologies, or other conventions.[16] They all, however, contribute to discourse through performative acts. Performativity can become a strategy for change. It "brings into being or enacts that which it names" (Butler, 1995b, p. 134). Butler emphasizes the relation of performative acts to conventions: "For a performative to work, it must draw upon and recite a set of linguistic conventions which have traditionally worked to bind or engage certain kinds of effects" (1995b, p. 134). Following conventions for large parts of a text can serve as an authorization strategy that allows the breaking of conventions in other parts of the text. Having proven themselves to be viable subjects in the (academic) discourse community authorizes writers to develop forms of agency that might not be entirely conventional. Subjects take their agency from the power they oppose (Butler, 1997). This is *writing through viability* in its clearest form.

However, agency should not be reduced to subversion and breaking conventions alone. Having a choice also includes the possibility of following conventions fully. Additionally, conventions themselves have many faces and variations. Having a choice is the basis for decision making and, therefore, for responsible action.

Conclusion: Writing through Viability

As I have shown, professional writing implies responsible action that is based on having a choice. Some aspects of having this choice are immanent in text

15 Language variety, however, is only one aspect of hegemonic power relations in academia. Academic discourse is dominated by international journals, and contributing to these journals is expected of academics all over the world. Through citing texts from theses journals, academics show that they are familiar with the relevant discourse, reproducing hegemonic structures. For this anthology, one strategy for counterbalancing hegemonic discourse was asking contributors to give preference to non-US references where possible.

16 A relatively recent example of playing with academic genres is a collection edited by Michael En (2020). Its expansion of conventions already manifests in its subtitle, "A festschrift, love letter and thank you to Michèle Cooke."

and writing; they refer to expertise and the ability to understand the effects that a text might have on readers. Other aspects are external to the text and the writing; they refer to a position in the field, presupposing writers that are already accepted as viable subjects. This way, agency can be regarded as a question of "power and finesse" (Bartholomae, 1985, p. 140). With *writing through viability*, I refer to precisely this interrelation.

On the one hand, *writing through viability* is related to social contexts and positions in discourse communities that enfold an "authorizing power" in the sense of Butler. This widens writers' scopes of action, which can result in deliberate performative acts and, sometimes, in postconventional writing like described by Steinhoff (2007) and Pohl (2007). On the other hand, *writing through viability* is based on expertise. To be able to choose, writers need to know what the options are. Not *knowing* about discourse positions, conventions, expectations, and potential resulting restrictions (as in Knappik's *writing before a requirement for viability*) would not provide a suitable basis for agency and self-determined action. *Considering* expectations, in turn, does not necessarily mean *following* them or *wanting to meet* them in any case; *knowing* conventions does not equal *submitting* to them.

Knappik's (2018) participants, writing *in viability*, did not feel they had a choice, yet. They were glad to have mastered the conventions but still lacked the power and finesse for potential further steps. However, now, years after their accounts in the original study, one might expect some of them to have started expanding the scope of their individual agency. This does not mean that they necessarily break or expand writing conventions (although they might).

Writing through viability does not imply that writers overcome all limitations and restrictions or that they are set free from the complexity of social contexts and their power relations. The concept acknowledges that autonomy and agency are limited. However, it emphasizes that agency is, nevertheless, possible and a goal that, if desired, anyone can reach. How can we support writers, then, to increase their agency?

As having a choice is based on awareness, fostering this awareness in particular is crucial. This needs reflection: on text design in the context of the functionality of genres as social actions, on writing processes, and on positions in the field. The more that writers have understood patterns, interrelations, and the nature of power relations in hegemonic discourse, the sooner they will be able to choose between *following* the rules and *challenging* them in functional ways. Professional writing is not just "restricted" writing, it is responsible action. Professional writing expertise can be a means to regain agency, through viability and beyond.

Writing development is a life-long process, last but not least in professional writing. We all refine our expertise through new challenges, technologies, ideas, and dialogs with others. Our position in the field is dynamic, too. To some extent, we change it when we question the power relations around us, when we engage in fruitful exchanges, and when we try to emancipate ourselves. Of course, our acting is not independent from social conditions and influences. However, admitting conditionality does not necessarily imply negating agency. Although autonomy remains socially restricted, it is a part of viability (Davies, 2006).

Writing through viability refers to having choices on several levels, such as topic and information selection, developing (theoretical, political, ideological) positions, and ways of designing texts according to these positions and the audiences we want to address. We can develop our own positions by replaying and resignifying "the theoretical positions that have constituted [them]" (Butler, 1995a, p. 42), and we can also encourage our students to do so.

To some extent, academic writing is always resignifying, since we consciously, deliberately, and explicitly reflect on the influences that the ideas of others have had on our own. We enter discourses (and the complex, interwoven dialogs in them), learn from others, oppose opinions, borrow arguments, develop them further, and so forth. Writing oscillates between reproduction and creation. We work with existing material, change it, adapt it to new contexts, and develop new positions by resignifying existing ones. The IRC workshops contribute to these dialogs and discussions in many ways. The exchange that they foster influences us, our ideas, our writing. And it empowers us at the same time.

Glossary

Agency: Agency refers to opportunities for acting. In the context of writing, it can refer to developing an individual voice, one's own position, to represent concerns and intentions in a text and to choose between different forms of text design (and organization of the writing process).

Communication situation: Communication is always situated. A communication situation is constituted through several dimensions: framing conditions (such as time, space, closeness, or distance), media, socio-political power relations, contexts, intentions, and communication roles. Communication partners act based on their expectations and previous experience.

Conventions: I address conventions on a product level. Conventions can refer to language use (varieties, correctness, etc.), genres, and other ways of established forms of text design and linguistic matters. Conventions are related to discourse communities, institutions, and other contexts.

Professional writing: Professional writing is an ambiguous term that can refer to writing as part of one's job or to writing expertise—or to both. I address professional writing expertise on a meta-level as targeted toward communicative writing with a high-quality demand.
Viability: According to Butler (1995a, 1997), viability refers to being legitimized in a certain context. Butler does not refer to writing expertise but to social communities in general. Davies (2006) and Knappik (2018) transpose the concept to writing expertise, especially in education. Here, I adapt it for professional writing.

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6 Academic Writing Tradition and How to Model It

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Abstract: The identification of differences between written texts in different languages remains an ongoing area of academic inquiry. These differences have traditionally been attributed to geo-political factors, genre variations, research and writing traditions, and/or cultural differences. While comparative and contrastive studies have predominantly favored English as the dominant writing language, this has created a noticeable gap regarding writing practices in languages other than English. This gap is further complicated by the absence of a systematic methodological framework for analysing texts across macro, meso, and micro levels. In this paper, we aim to address this inconsistency by laying the foundation of a larger research study (Jürine et al., 2021) aimed at identifying academic writing traditions in the national languages of the Baltic States—Estonian, Latvian, and Lithuanian—as an illustrative case. To achieve this aim we outline a systematic approach to mapping academic writing traditions and construct a model with features that can be used to capture any writing tradition, irrespective of language or culture. We construct this model through an extensive review of literature that provides insights into the defining features that make a writing tradition. Next, we challenge and clarify the notion of a writing tradition by introducing a model designed to capture diversity, moving beyond a singular portrayal of a particular writing tradition.

Reflection

We attended the IRC workshop in 2018 during the CCCC convention in Kansas City.[1] Participating in the workshop was an immensely beneficial

1 We would like to dedicate this article to the memory of Anni Jürine, our friend and colleague, who passed away on the 20th of April, 2021. Anni played an integral role in the creation of this article—her legacy lives through these words. Her passion for the research and teaching of writing will continue to inspire all of us who have had the chance the meet her.

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experience not only for carrying out our project, but also because it made us more aware of the differences between the different contexts of research, and more importantly, the importance of being able to explain them to an international audience.[2] This, in turn, led us to our current project that aims to map Estonian, Latvian, and Lithuanian writing traditions and develop a methodology for investigating writing traditions in our local context and elsewhere.

The project we presented at the IRC workshop aimed to build an Academic Phrasebank for Writing in Estonian. The outcome of the project was a practical one—to collect expressions typical to Estonian academic text and find the functions (moves and steps) that they are typically associated with. Sharing our Estonian writing-oriented project to colleagues with different cultural backgrounds and experiences made us realize that it is not only important to describe what we do in our project, and how we do it (the aim and the method), but it is equally as important to be able to describe why we are doing it and what sort of value it has in our local context, as well as on a more global level. In other words, we would have to explain the necessity for an academic phrasebank and, of greater significance, the rationale behind delving into the exploration of Estonian texts (or other languages, by extension) for its construction. The question arises as to why the approach of translating an existing resource, such as the Manchester phrasebank rooted in English writing, to another language is not simply sufficient.

The reason why we need an empirical analysis of Estonian texts in order to say anything about Estonian academic text is, of course, contextual. What works in one setting, does not necessarily work in others; what makes sense in an Anglo-American context is not necessarily directly translatable in Estonian because the conventions of academic writing vary from culture to culture. This idea is not new—Robert Kaplan (1966) already described in the 1960s how writers with different cultural backgrounds have different thought patterns—and provides a useful point of departure in our context. This phenomenon has been further investigated by many students, critics, and followers of contrastive rhetoric (Connor, 1996; Connor et al., 2008) ever since.

However, what we realized during the workshop, and in many discussions afterwards, is that we do not actually know what an Estonian writing tradition is and how it relates to other traditions, such as Anglo-American or German traditions or other smaller national writing cultures in continental Europe, such as in Ukraine or our neighbors Latvia and Lithuania. Moreover, we realized that there is still much confusion and myths when it comes

2 Please read the opening statement for this collection, "Editing in US-Based International Publications: A Position Statement," before reading this chapter.

to determining what a writing tradition is and how we can capture it. This has led us to the current paper—a literature review of studies investigating (academic) writing traditions either by investigating them holistically or by identifying the various atomistic features.

Local Institutional Context

The ambition of the project grew out of the University of Tartu in Estonia, where the study of writing was gaining some momentum due to the establishment of a writing center within the university language center (Leijen et al., 2015). The initial focus was on teaching English language writing through the traditions of English for Academic Purposes (EAP) and English for Specific Purposes (ESP). The University of Tartu is the national university of Estonia and the number of international students at that time (the period between 2008 and 2010) was limited, so the majority of students attending these writing courses were primarily educated in the Estonian education system. As per usual, the teaching of writing took an Anglo-American approach to writing, which is commonly outlined as being problem- and data-based and following linearity of thought (Clyne, 1987; Duszak, 1997; Rienecker & Stray Jörgensen, 2017). As a result, common struggles with writing in English became obvious for non-writers of English. For example, students' inability to write topic sentences, their lack of constructing cohesive and coherent paragraphs (according to the Anglo-American writing traditions), and writing problem-based research papers. As the interest in the topic of writing grew and the authors who attended the IRC workshop increased collaboration (one embedded in the writing in English and the other writing in Estonian), it became obvious that Estonia lacked a clear understanding of its own writing tradition. This lack of understanding only grew when we developed courses to teach Estonian writing. Digging into the Estonian literature for studies focusing on the analysis of text and writing, we found that only a few researchers had conducted and published research about specific text types. However, no comprehensive overview was or is available that constructs a holistic understanding of what constitutes Estonian writing. What was obvious is that the teaching of the "Anglo-American writing styles" were creeping into Estonian writing classes in some schools and some disciplines. When discussing these issues with our Baltic neighbors, Latvia and Lithuania, similar concerns were raised. As such, as a result of a single institutional context addressing the need for their small cultural context to investigate what writing in Estonian is, a larger Baltic network was established. The purpose of this network is to evaluate whether there are any historical, geopolitical (all three countries being post-soviet countries

and all three countries having been in the Baltic-German sphere of influence), or contextual similarities and differences that can be drawn when comparing these three similar yet different countries with different languages and different educational policies. In addition, a larger issue to be addressed was whether we can even talk about an Anglo-American writing tradition versus the traditions that might prescribe the writing of our Baltic languages and cultures. In order to understand our own writing it would make more sense to investigate these through the existence of our own texts rather than a comparison to other "tradition"—whatever these may be.

Introduction

The need to identify and distinguish disparities between written texts in different languages, such as English and other languages, has been a subject of study and debate for quite some time. These differences are often attributed to geo-political differences, genre differences, differences in traditions of writing and research (often attributed as a result of education or osmosis), or cultural difference (which can be associated to a larger cultural group, i.e., national level, or smaller cultural groups, i.e., discipline or sub-groups) and generally these differences are measured by observable linguistic difference recognizable in published texts. Historically, the need to identify and distinguish differences emerged when assessing a specific norm of one text revealed inherent disparities from another. Such instances necessitated explanations for these differences, enhancing comprehension and aiding corrections in relation to one text in comparison to another. For example, much of the work of Kaplan (1966) focused on contrasting texts written by different cultures. This approach helped English writing teachers better understand and teach writers who do not write as we would expect them to write.

Even in more contemporary research, investigating, reporting on, and explaining differences in writing across languages and cultures often continues to label differences as different writing traditions (see also Otto Kruse's chapter in this volume, and e.g., Kruse, 2013; Rienecker & Stray Jörgensen, 2003). However, the notion of a "writing tradition" (sometimes also referred to as "writing culture"—as highlighted in Otto Kruse's chapter in this volume) is oftentimes undefined and lacks precision. Furthermore, many more or less related concepts can be spotted, e.g., national-cultural context, also institutional-cultural context (Donahue, 2008); epistemological differences in writing (Kafes, 2017); linguacultural background (Pérez-Llantada, 2021); text culture (Berge, 2007), and also translingualism (Anokhina, 2016; Canagarajah, 2013; Donahue, 2018; Dryer, 2016; Horner et al., 2011; Lu & Horner, 2013), to

name just a few. In the present paper, we aim to provide a better understanding about the possible ways to capture an academic writing tradition. Therefore, it is critical to understand right from the beginning what we mean by a "writing tradition," and why this term is preferred to the other alternatives.

In this paper, "writing tradition" is used to refer to specific shared conventions and practices of writing in a specific context that have been passed down over time. A writing tradition, therefore, is situated within the larger contexts of cultures which are defined by physical or linguistic boundaries, but can also be distinguished in smaller cultures, such as those defined in disciplines, e.g., chemistry, or humanities. In effect, cultures (as in writing cultures) assume a group of people belonging to a culture (e.g., chemists, computational linguists or social scientists) share a writing culture. Whereas, delineating it to a tradition, writing can be characterized by a number of features, such as linguistic or language specific features, geo-political features, institutional features, disciplinary or even text type features, which can be shared across persons or disciplines. As such, we admit that differences are observable all over the place (Bazerman, 2018). To identify what distinguishes a tradition from another tradition, it is necessary to know what to compare within and throughout texts in order to determine whether differences and similarities or which differences and similarities belong to what tradition. As a result, we therefore further elaborate on the writing tradition, as is currently used in literature, and challenge the notion of a writing tradition by proposing a methodological approach that will allow us to place writing within a flexible feature model which can help representing differences and similarities when determine a writing tradition.

As indicated earlier, Kaplan's seminal paper (Kaplan, 1966) on cultural thought patterns has been inspirational to many researchers and practitioners across the globe as a means to make sense how different cultures and languages affect the way we communicate our ideas in text. It is important to note that Kaplan's study has been subject of much debate and criticism in recent years. However, despite its limitations, the discipline of contrastive rhetoric exploded and the number of studies drawing from the field has spun into many different directions, for example, studies evaluating the impact of ESL writing of speakers of other languages. The main criticism of these studies is the overemphasis on the influence of the first language and the neglect of other factors related to education and individual differences among learners. While Kaplan's work remains contentious, it provides a valuable starting point for our study, as it allows us to critically examine the assumptions and limitations of contrastive rhetoric and to explore new avenues for understanding the complex interplay between culture, language, and writing.

We recognize the importance this work has had and still has in the way we investigate and research texts written by writers who do not have English as their primary language or simply do not write in English. However, in our view, Kaplan's doodles have unintentionally created a problematic framework in which cultural diversity in writing is viewed through the lens of a single, dominant standard, rather than being appreciated and studied in its own rights. As a result, most of the research on contrastive rhetoric investigates patterns of written and oral discourse across languages and cultures and with a primary focus on English for Academic Purposes (EAP) research agendas. An example of such dominance is the large body of research focusing on investigating rhetorical challenges students or researchers from varied language and cultural backgrounds have when writing in English as a foreign language as opposed to writing in the language which would be considered the primary language of the writer (e.g., Hyland, 2016; McIntosh et al., 2017). Other research approaches contrast different rhetorical patterns in texts written in different languages, e.g., research articles in English and Spanish (Mur-Dueñas, 2011).

English-oriented comparisons may, however, provide a false image of non-Anglophone writing traditions, despite there being studies that focus on other writing traditions or studies which treat different traditions as equals. These studies often investigate specific text types or genres, such as essays and generalize without giving empirical evidence (Galtung, 1981; Siepmann, 2006). Of course, more contemporary studies take an empirical approach to investigating writing conventions, but these investigations often have a narrow focus and deal with a specific aspect or level of the text, such as rhetorical promotion (Martín & León Pérez, 2014) or metadiscourse features (Mur-Dueñas, 2011). Frequently, these studies take a qualitative approach to their analysis (presuming a manual text analysis) and are therefore based on small size corpora. In addition, many of these studies cover only one specific genre or part of that genre, e.g., research article introductions (Loi, 2010). The overall picture is, thus, scattered and partly fueled by myths that have not been empirically tested.

In this paper, we aim to address this lack of coherence by laying the foundation of a larger research study (Jürine et al., 2021) identifying academic writing traditions in the national languages of the Baltic States—Estonian, Latvian, and Lithuanian, as an example. To achieve our ambitious aim to map academic writing traditions, our first step will be to build a model with features that can be used to capture any given writing tradition (regardless of language or geo-political location or culture). We build this model through an extensive review of literature that offers a hint of what features make a writing tradition (rhetorical structure, stance, authorial presence, coherence/

cohesion, and argumentation). Next, we challenge and clarify the notion of a writing tradition by presenting a model which can capture diversity rather than a single description of a single writing tradition. Finally, we stipulate how we will use the model to identify a writing tradition across Estonian, Latvian, and Lithuanian.

To identify features from existing literature that can be used to characterize a writing tradition, we used contrastive rhetoric (Connor, 1996; Connor et al., 2008), discourse analysis (Biber et al., 2007), and genre analysis (Swales, 1990, 2004). We combine these three to provide us with a more comprehensive perspective of the features needed to map rhetorical structures of academic texts. This comprehensive approach will also allow us to observe features manifested at a macro-, meso- and micro-level of a text. Future analysis using the identified features in the model will need to take an empirical approach, thus special focus will be on being able to operationalize features primarily, rather than siding with a specific school of thought or research approach about these features. Thus, the main contribution of this paper is to provide a holistic model of features which can be used to empirically capture a text to determine a writing tradition by departing from the common narrative about writing traditions which often are based on hunches (Omizo & Hart-Davidson, 2016). Additionally, we aim to consolidate the plethora of research which take a stab at identifying writing traditions atomistically.

Literature Review: Conflicting Traditions and/or Cultures

To build our model to determine what features make a writing tradition, we wanted to better understand how the term writing tradition is currently used in literature. We have identified three. The first context in which writing traditions are construed is through culture, which according to Imam Munandar (2017) can be traced back as far as Aristotelian traditions and values of Teutonic cultures. As indicated in the introduction, the contrastive movement has regularly reported how cultural norms in one country/or language influences how we write. In other words, when investigating a writing tradition, we are looking for confirmation in styles which conform to cultural norms and values which are highly generalized (Clyne, 1987; Galtung, 1981). More recently, the direct association with culture is also made by Niall Curry (2020) and Lotte Rienecker and Peter Stray Jörgensen (2003) who more specifically link the cultural element to academic cultures and traditions and the academic cultural identity that shape the nature of academic writing (Curry, 2020).

The second context in which writing traditions are used is somewhat related to the first; however, in this context, a writing tradition compares an

Anglo-Saxon context to a non-Anglo-Saxon context (Hyland, 2002). The majority of these studies refer to the dominant tradition, the Anglo-Saxon or Anglo-American tradition, and a submissive tradition: all others (Chitez et al., 2018). Languages and studies where these comparisons have been drawn can be found in Dutch (De Haan & Van Esch, 2004); Czech (Dontcheva-Navratilova, 2013, 2016; Plecháč et al., 2018); Russian (Blinova, 2019; Grigoriev & Sokolova, 2019; Khoutyz, 2016), and Turkish and Romanian (Bercuci & Chitez, 2019; Kafes, 2017), just to name a few. The comparison seems to highlight that a writer of one tradition, for example, the Russian writing tradition, struggles to meet the standards of the Anglo-American tradition. Thus, much of this line of research emphasizes how writers in other languages struggle to write in English as a result of conflicting traditions.

The third context highlights differences in writing traditions not so much through big cultures (geo-political and linguistic), but writing traditions embedded in research traditions (i.e., how we conduct research in general or how we conduct research in specific disciplines) (Jones & Neergaard, 2014; Rienecker & Stray Jörgensen, 2003). These research traditions are occasionally linked to regions, such as Indonesian (Rakhmawati, 2013) or Albanian (Alhasani, 2015). In most cases, however, the distinction is between the social sciences (and/or humanities) and the natural sciences (Olivier, 2016). In the context of educational establishments, a writing program or other institutional settings form the basis of norms and values that constitute what good writing looks like. Often these norms and values are either formed through the institution or a department (Thomas, 2019). In addition, writing style manuals, which are promoted often are imbedded in a specific research tradition (Dontcheva-Navratilova, 2013, 2016).

Thus, in all three contexts, diverse cultural norms that influence the way we write forms a tradition (Solli & Ødemark, 2019). The Anglo-American tradition, which seems to be only written about outside of the Anglo-American context, is the cultural norm (Ryazanova, 2015) and everything else, which seems to be different from the norm, forms its own tradition (Overton, 2015). Often these traditions are rooted in comparative (contrastive) studies, whether in languages in Asia or Europe (Mur-Dueñas, 2011). These narratives are being challenged (Iermolenko et al., 2021) and alternative approaches are suggested, such as critical contrastive rhetoric (Kubota & Lehner, 2004), as the impact itself leads to a bias towards one tradition over another, where writing academically in English often is set as the dominant tradition and all other languages need to adapt their tradition to a tradition that is well established. In our view, the relative scarcity of comprehensive overviews on writing in their specific languages often prompts comparisons with English, which

boasts a well-established tradition of studying writing within educational frameworks, guidebooks, research, and more. Thus, when a writing tradition is contextualized in an Anglo-American tradition, it is often through the lens of how the tradition of writing has changed over time as noted by József Horváth (2001). Such examinations may also contrast different genres, like creative writing versus academic writing, as discussed by Éva Cserháti (2014).

To determine what features make a writing tradition, we departed from a well reported friction in studies reporting on writing traditions across cultures and a key concept in contrastive rhetoric: reader responsibility vs. writer responsibility (Hinds, 1987; MacKenzie, 2015; McCool, 2009; Qi & Liu, 2007; Salski & Dolgikh, 2018). This concept was first introduced by John Hinds (1987) who claimed that a reader and writer's involvement in the textual communication process varies. Often depicted on a continuum, reader responsible is often identified to contain the following features: intuitive argumentation, telegraphic statements, and including loosely connected ideas. On the other end of the continuum, writer responsible text contains features such as, linear argumentation, well-organized statements and coherence.

Despite the criticism Hinds has received on his findings, as reported by Kubota and Lehner (2004), the dichotomy presented by reader vs writer responsible text serves us well. A further investigation into the topic of reader-writer responsibility suggests that writer-responsible texts are characterized as being clear and coherent, having linear argumentation, well-organized statements, deductive reasoning, including interactional resources, explicit transition statements, being practical and action-oriented, and often following the IMRAD structure. Reader-responsible text, on the other hand, are being characterized as ambiguous and imprecise, digressing from the main topic, consisting of loosely connected ideas; and having non-linear argumentation, telegraphic statements, (quasi-)inductive reasoning, subtle transition statements, and being theoretical and subject-oriented.

A similar friction between different ways of writing had also been pointed out by Rienecker and Stray Jörgenson (2003). Rienecker and Stray Jörgenson base their claims on observations made by Michael Clyne in 1987 (Clyne, 1987) who highlighted that differences across or between cultures also exist along another continuum. This continuum, according to Rienecker and Stray Jörgenson (2017), distinguishes on one end of the spectrum the continental (Roman-Germanic) research tradition, and on the other end the Anglo-American research tradition. Some examples of features which are common in the continental research tradition are: a) an inclusion of numerous points and b) claims and conclusions around a subject and text which is primarily considered a thinking text. Whereas examples of features which are common in the

Anglo-American research tradition are: a) one-point, one claim, one conclusion and b) being centered around texts which aim to solve problems. As one can observe a great deal of overlap of concepts and terms used to describe what the ends of the continuum highlight, Rienecker and Stray Jörgenson (2017) equal writer responsible text with that of the Anglo-American tradition and reader responsible writing with the continental traditions. As such the concepts identified in both networks can be merged.

As the assumptions of diverse writing traditions often are depicted comparing one tradition versus another tradition, we can use the features used to present these opposing traits to measure whether and to what extent these features are present. More importantly, following Critical Contrastive Rhetoric (Kubota & Lehner, 2004), we want to be able to identify the non-binary state of these features and locate the features as they generally occur in a text and large amounts of text. The central features of the text that emerge from these two largely coinciding frictions are: argumentation, coherence, structure of the text (rhetorical structure) to which we added two more general and often compared and contrasted overarching features: stance and authorial presence. These features served as initial input for detecting and organizing the component parts of a model that help us to characterize the writing tradition. In the next section, we explain the process of building this model.

Methodology

The proposed feature model contains the following five features: rhetorical structure, argumentation, stance, authorial presence, and coherence. The features were extracted from the conceptual and terminological conundrum presented in the literature, and identified as often being positioned on a continuum in a text (e.g., a text can be presented with linear argumentation or circular, or anywhere between the two). The features are a result of requiring a framework which would fit our further analysis that would help us to measure a writing tradition.

In order to gain a deeper insight into the concepts and features that current literature use to define differences in academic writing, we reviewed literature on these individual concepts and features. In our choice to select literature to build a feature model, we relied on three main theoretical frameworks: i) Contrastive rhetoric (Kaplan, 1966) or Intercultural rhetoric (Connor et al., 2008) including critical contrastive rhetoric and contrastive linguistics (Kubota & Lehner, 2004); ii) genre theory (Bazerman, 1997) including English for Academic Purposes (Swales, 1990); and iii) discourse analysis (Hyland, 2004; Upton & Cohen, 2009) including text linguistics. The next

step was to categorize the main recurring features being reported on in these traditions which typify an academic text.

Given the nature of these three frameworks, we would be able to identify features which would primarily say something on the text as a whole (macro- and meso-level) in studies investigating genre, and rhetoric, and features which would primarily say something on smaller parts of the text (meso- and micro-level) in EAP, genre, and discourse analysis studies. Because of our ambitious goal—to characterize an academic writing tradition as a whole—an important criterion for identifying the features was that they would need to be observable and measurable across the text: macro level (the whole text); meso level (the paragraph level); and micro level (sentence level).

While we recognize that the literature in these domains encompasses a huge variety of features, and that identifiable features can reveal something of a text at one, or two, or three levels, we included these features. This inclusion was made with the understanding that not every feature needs to be observable at each level in every language. For example, lexical devices are primarily used to study the feature stance, mostly at the micro level. The feature examining genre differences might not immediately be revealed at the micro level (as or within individual sentences) but is more likely evident at the meso level (spanning across paragraphs). Nevertheless, we anticipate language-specific variations, implying that the combinations of features and levels should be tailored for each language individually.

As the model would have to help us map our respective writing traditions through empirical analysis, another criterion for reviewing the literature was operationalizability of concepts. For example, we did not only review literature that would characterize a writing tradition (e.g., being coherent or incoherent), but also searched for studies that shed light on how to measure coherence vs. incoherence. Naturally, in the process we came across different frameworks and perspectives on these topics, resulting in a conceptual and terminological conundrum. Once the overlapping frameworks were consolidated and merged into a format fitting our analysis of the literature uncovering an aspect of or aspects of academic writing, we evaluated our concepts and terms and clustered them into a general feature which would help us to measure a writing tradition.

In the following section we will further expand on the features and how these features are manifested in our model and manifested in texts. As we do not view the model to be a static model, given it must be adaptable to accommodate observations in any language, we also include a third dimension to the model which would allow sub features to identify an aspect of another feature and at the same time also identify something about another feature.

For example, in our model, coherence as a feature is often measured through the use of personal pronouns (which is labelled a sub-feature), but personal pronouns can also function as metadiscourse markers, i.e., express stance in our model, and they certainly belong to the feature authorial presence.

As such, our perception of what a "model" identifying a writing tradition looks like refers to what Tiane Donahue and Theresa Lillis (2014) described as "… referring in a broad sense to the different ways in which the activity of writing and activities around writing are construed" (p. 55). More specifically, by modelling a writing tradition, we aim to bridge the limitation current models might present as they are often constructed with "…standard varieties and monolingual frameworks, … and emphasize the verbal dimensions of writing to the exclusion of other modal aspects" (Donahue & Lillis, 2014, p. 55). Finally, we describe a first attempt at constructing a model across languages and are not presenting a model which is devoid of adaptation and growth. We will assume that with each passing the model can gain features and lose features, gain sub-features and lose sub-features, depending on context, language, and content.

Results

In this section, we introduce the five features of our model. Each feature is elaborated on generally, with reference to the literature, by answering the following questions: i) What is it (and what concepts does it include and how are these related); ii) How are these concepts measured in a text (operationalization); iii) What approaches and methods have been used in the past (qualitative, quantitative, corpus methods, computational, etc.) to capture the feature in a text; and iv) What do the differences speak of (discipline variation, academic level of writer, etc.). Plus, we emphasized how the feature itself can be operationalized when measuring a large database of texts across the 3 levels: macro, meso, and micro.

Rhetorical Structure

Rhetorical structure describes the structure of the text with a special focus on the function that the text carries. The feature, rhetorical structure, can be observed on all three levels of the text (i.e., on macro-, meso- and micro levels), as reported in the literature. On the macro-level we can observe the global meaning structure of the text (Faigley & Witte, 1981; Hall-Mills, 2010; van Dijk, 1980). Most studies focusing on macro structure of academic texts have investigated the manifestation of the IMRaD structure and/or its

variations (Atkinson, 1999; Day, 1998; Huth, 1987; Lin & Evans, 2012), which are highly frequent in natural and social sciences, while section headings reveal a more topical macro-structure in humanities (Gardner & Holmes, 2010). Other studies report on rhetorical structures manifesting in specific sections of a text (e.g., introduction section, abstracts, summaries, etc.) and in a move-and-step analyses (Swales, 1990), which is a two-level analytic approach, aiming to determine text functions (Connor et al., 2008; Moreno & Swales, 2018). The most famous being Swales' CARS (Create a Research Space) Model which identifies three common moves in introductions of research papers (Move 1, establishing a territory; Move 2, establishing a niche; Move 3, occupying the niche), and each Move containing a number of steps (e.g., Move 1, Step 1, claiming centrality and/or, Step 2, making topic generalizations and/or, Step 3, reviewing items of previous research. Most common Move and Step structures are determined combining top-down and bottom-up approaches, i.e., close reading of texts to determine topic or content shifts and searching for signs in vocabulary or syntactic structure (Fiacco et al., 2019). The unit of analysis varies from clause (on the step level) to sentence (on the move level) to paragraph (Moreno & Swales, 2018). Thus, in our approach, move and step models are observable on macro-, meso-, and micro-level.

This kind of close analysis of text usually calls for a manual analysis, although more recent studies (Cortes, 2013; Li et al., 2020) have applied computational methods to identify move structure in academic texts. The advantage of an automated approach is the ability to process larger corpora, more adequate representation of moves, and minimalization of observer's bias (Li et al., 2020).

Move-and-step models are used to describe the rhetorical structure of a text, which in turn allows us to compare and contrast texts in their specific contexts. There is a number of studies looking at variation in rhetorical structure in terms of cultural variation. For example (Soler-Monreal et al., 2011) investigated research articles in English and Spanish focusing on similarities and differences in the rhetorical structures in the text. Through these differences in the rhetorical structure, differences in the writing traditions are observed. In addition to cultural variation, disciplinary variation is investigated (Stoller & Robinson, 2013). Some authors (Martín & León Pérez, 2014; Yakhontova, 2002, 2006) have pointed out that when explaining variation in rhetorical structure, disciplinary conventions may be even more prominent than cultural conventions.

Determining the move-and-step structure is the ultimate purpose in many studies. However, some authors have used it as an intermediate step to

observe other textual features. For example, after performing a move analysis Thomas Upton and Ulla Connor (2007) performed further functional analysis, in which they observed the use of stance devices (Biber et al., 1999) in order to determine typical stance structure of moves. Similarly, Budsaba Kanoksilapatham (2007) performed a move-and-step analysis on fundraising letters, which was complemented by multidimensional analysis, which allowed her to identify and analyze linguistic characteristics of each move type. Pedro Martín and Isabel León Pérez (2014) observed self-promotion against the backdrop of Swalesian CARS model in the introductions of research articles. As such, move-and step structures can be a research goal in itself as well as a gateway to observe other features.

Argumentation

To simplify our understanding of academic writing, we apply the term academic writing to mean writing that focuses on presenting arguments supported by research. While this statement may be a broad generalization, for the purpose of this paper academic writing primarily involves using language to introduce ideas and present evidence that either supports or refutes those ideas, based on findings in research. In other words, argumentation is to make use of language to communicate reason. The focus, thus, is to inherently link language with argumentation, which opens the possibility to measure and investigate language to detect ways through which arguments are structured. As such, we apply the feature of argumentation to be embedded in a theoretical framework which measures argumentation through discourse analysis and rhetorical analysis. The latter, rhetorical analysis, partly overlaps with the feature rhetorical structure.

In writing research, argumentation schemes and structures often rely on Stephen Toulmin's argumentation theories (Toulmin, 2003) to map the several components that identify argumentation in text: premise, claim, warrant, or attack (Accuosto & Saggion, 2020; García-Gorrostieta & López-López, 2018; Lawrence & Reed, 2020). In text, argumentation can manifest itself at the macro-, meso-, and micro-level. At a macro-level, for example, the general structure of a paper such as the journal article and most Bachelor's and Master's theses are formatted around a structure representing a cohesive argument, starting with an introduction of the topic, claims, questions, thesis; followed by a research method, and results; followed by a discussion and conclusion—often resembling the basic essay structure or IMRaD structure. At its root, the macro structured argumentation resembles the classical Aristotelian Rhetoric, i.e., rhetoric as a theory of argumentation (Kienpointner,

2017). However, in comparison to our previous feature, rhetorical structure, for argumentation we separate a more discourse analysis to argumentation, extracting the persuasive element.

At a meso-level, argumentation manifests itself following the general patterns used in the different types of arguments. For example, inductive arguments often display results followed by a generalization of the observation of the results. Deductive arguments, on the other hand, start with a major premise and a supporting premise from which conclusions are drawn. Applied to Toulminian argumentation, at a meso-level, text will often follow a pattern where a claim is provided, grounds are given, and a warrant offered. Given these structured patterns, argumentation schemes and taxonomies have been developed from authentic empirical examples in corpora (Kienpointner, 2017). For example, argumentation mining often resort to the annotation of the argumentative units of claims and premises (Aharoni et al., 2018), whereas other studies expand on these two basic units to include proposal, assertion, result, observation, means, and description (Accuosto & Saggion, 2020).

Finally, at a micro-level, the general structures provided by the different argumentation schemes come with specific linguistic cues which identify a specific discourse relationship between a premise, for example, and a rebuttal; e.g., however, accordingly, in conclusion (Lawrence & Reed, 2015; Palau & Moens, 2009). As such, identifying key linguistic cues in a text may offer an entry point in being able to detect larger (meso and macro) chunks of arguments in a text. Earlier studies of argumentation have primarily used hand coding and annotation to identify these different argumentation components and build taxonomies to help identify the specific linguistic features (Kienpointner, 2017). More recently, these taxonomies have been used to build an automatic classifier to be used to automatically annotate and identify the applied schemes in large amounts of text (Accuosto & Saggion, 2020; García-Gorrostieta, López-López, & González-López, 2020; García-Gorrostieta, López-López et al., 2021; Kirschner et al., 2015; Lawrence & Reed, 2017). In the last decade, many of these argumentation patterns, schemes, and taxonomies are being used to automatically identify argumentation structures in texts using machine learning techniques (Lawrence & Reed, 2015, 2016, 2017). For example, a strand of research called argumentation mining (Lippi & Torroni, 2016), which has grown out of the field of argumentation mapping; through argumentation schemes and structures (Kirschner et al., 2015; Peldszus & Stede, 2013), and argumentative zoning (Moens, 2013).

Argumentative zoning (Teufel et al., 2009) approaches the identification of specific aspects of argumentation in text (scientific texts more specifically)

in accordance to the different functions on a macro- and meso-level of the text, and allocates a more rhetorical function to argumentation in text and the Toulmin model (Kirschner et al., 2015; Peldszus & Stede, 2013). Argumentative zoning, in comparison to argumentative schemes and structures seeks to identify the formulaic expressions that belong to argumentation. Given the relevance to identifying different modes and usages of argumentation in text, and assuming that argumentation in text occurs differently across text genres, disciplines and even writers, the application of argumentation mining offers a very rich feature of writing tradition, assuming there is not one approach or application of argumentation.

Academic writing is a genre of writing where the use of logic and argumentation is essential, thus, being able to identify how patterns occur and where and how they manifest themselves in a text is of great value to not only understand the text as a whole, but also the writer. Applying such analysis across languages and across genres would provide evaluators of texts a tool that would allow them to identify these components, regardless in form or language they have been produced.

Stance

Stance refers to the author's personal opinion or attitude, encoded in the text they produce. The way academics persuade readers and present their claims is both linguistically and culturally relevant, as the scientific community is challenged with presenting their findings in a modern society. Linguistic nuances of scientific writing are therefore productive indicators of cultural context.

The terminology surrounding the topic of stance is rather varied, with researchers using such umbrella terms as affect (Ochs & Schieffelin, 1989), evaluation (Hunston & Thompson, 2000), appraisal (Martin, 2000), and footing (Goffman, 1981). More granular fields in this category are evidentiality (Chafe & Nichols, 1986), hedging (Hyland, 1998), intensity (Labov, 1984), and engagement (Hyland, 2004). For the purpose of our study, we follow Bethany Gray and Douglas Biber (2012) in referring to the overall concept entailing all mentioned fields as stance.

The notion is not internally uniform as one can differentiate between attitudinal stance and epistemic stance. While attitudinal stance, sometimes also called affect, refers to the author's personal feelings (e.g., expressed with phrases such as fortunately, sadly) (Ochs & Schieffelin, 1989), epistemic stance, sometimes called evidentiality, reflects the degree the author expresses certainty (clearly, impossible) or doubt (assume, perhaps) (Chafe & Nichols, 1986). While remaining conceptually different, most approaches attempt

to view attitudinal and epistemic stance together (Hyland & Jiang, 2016), because as showed by Biber and Edward Finegan (1989), they are largely expressed by the same linguistic devices.

A large number of linguistic devices expressing attitudinal stance were identified by Elinor Ochs and Bambi Schieffelin (1989). For instance, in English Ochs (1989) and Schieffelin include the use of "get" passive (this got refuted) to express adversative or confrontative affect, the use of mood (if only) to express positive affect, etc. (p. 12). Reyhan Ağçam (2015) shows that attitudinal stance is more commonly expressed by verbs (hope, require) than nouns (thought), adverbs (hopefully) or adjectives (glad). As academic texts are generally believed to be scarce in attitude (Hood, 2010; Hyland & Jiang, 2016), researchers of academic writing have paid more attention to epistemic stance than attitudinal stance.

Epistemic stance can be expressed by means of various lexical and grammatical elements as well (Hyland, 1998). Biber (2006) points out that adverbs reflecting a high degree of epistemic certainty (actually, certainly) are the most commonly used adverbs in academic text. Biber also shows that complement clauses with stance nouns, such as that- and to-clauses, are generally only present (and common) in written academic registers (The possibility that …), while that-complement clauses with certainty words are common in both spoken and written registers (It is known that …). According to Biber (2006), the latter also constitutes a stance marker very characteristic of academic genres, when compared to other registers.

Epistemic stance can be measured in a number of ways. Most approaches view it as a binary variable. For instance, Sue Wharton (2012) measures the occurrence of hedges (may, could, indicate), boosters (obviously, a clear connection) and vagueness (most of the points). Similarly, phrase units are categorized as either as epistemically hedged or direct in Françoise Salager-Meyer et al., (2012). However, Halil Kilicoglu and Sabine Bergler (2008) take a more detailed approach, viewing epistemic stance as an interval variable. They assigned each lexical cue (obviously) a numerical weight between 1 and 5, depending on its semantic strength. Syntactic cues (e.g., negation and governed infinitives) then either add or deduct points from lexical cues. Their system was also used by Alan Gross and Paula Chesley (2012) who calculated a hedging score for each sentence in their datasets based on it. This allowed them to use a regression model to compare several groups of texts.

Researchers have also outlined the differences between writer levels (student vs. professional) and/or language environments and used the results to offer guidelines to student or L2 writers for adopting academically successful rhetoric practices. For instance, Ken Hyland (2012) shows that student writers

in Hong Kong use various stance techniques much less frequently than professional writers in research papers. Several papers have found L1 to be a relevant factor in determining the amount and form of attitudinal stance in a text, when comparing academic texts with authors of different first languages (Ağçam, 2015; Blagojević, 2009; Hatzitheodorou & Mattheoudakis, 2010).

Authorial Presence

Another feature that emerges from the literature on academic writing is authorial presence. Authorial presence is understood as "the degree of visibility and authoritativeness writers are prepared to project in their texts for personal support of their statements when expressing their attitudes, judgements and assessments" (Dontcheva-Navrátilová, 2013, p. 10). As such, it is closely connected to stance, which was discussed above (see, for example Hyland's work on authorial stance Hyland, 2002; Hyland & Jiang, 2016). In our account, we consider authorial presence as a separate (yet related) concept, which includes many other concepts, such as self-mention, authorial identity, self-promotion, self-citation, and averral and attribution. Defined as such, authorial presence can be viewed on all levels of the text, i.e., macro-, meso-, and micro-level.

The question whether the author should be hidden or visible in academic text has been a central one in research on academic writing. Even though the traditional understanding would have the author divorced from the text, especially in the pedagogic literature (Harwood, 2005), recent research on the matter has revealed self-mention as a rhetorical device used to emphasize writer's contribution (Hyland, 2001). As such, the focus has shifted from the question whether the author should be mentioned or not, to the question how does the authorial identity manifest itself in the text. One of the most common means of looking at authorial identity/self-mention is through 1st person pronouns I, me, my, we, us, and our (Hyland, 2001). However, studies have also looked at nominalizations, anticipatory it, inanimate subjects, passive constructions as means of representing the author (for an overview, see Walková, 2019). Authorial presence has also been investigated from the perspective of the function that the pronoun carries, e.g., I as the representative, I as the architect, I as the recounter of the research process (Tang & John, 1999). As such, self-mention is mostly observed on the micro-level of text.

One of the most central aspects of authorial presence is self-promotion. This is especially relevant in the context of this investigation because self-promotion has been a topic of interest in respect to cultural and disciplinary variation. Cultural variation in self-promotion has been investigated, for

example by Phillip Shaw (2003) who looked at promotional language used in academic texts written in Danish and English. In addition, more and more work focusses on disciplinary variation and cultural and disciplinary variation in combination. For instance, Tatyana Yakhontova (2002, 2006), who studied Slavic and English writers, observed stark differences in self-promotion between mathematicians and linguists. Martín and León Pérez (2014) who investigated promotional value in research articles in Spanish and English found that within specific disciplines cultural background overrides the influence of disciplinary background, but when looking at broader fields, it is the disciplinary conventions that seem to influence self-promotion more.

Even though self-promotion is also most obviously observable though pronouns, i.e., on the micro-level, it also manifests itself on the meso-level. For example, Nigel Harwood (2005) claims that pronouns are used to express other text functions, e.g., creating a research space, reporting or summarizing findings, explaining the researcher's previous work. Self-promotion is also observable on the macro-level, for example Carol Berkenkotter and Thomas Huckin (1995) associate self-promotion with whole sections of text, such as the abstract, which arguably serves to as a screening device that foregrounds important information and summarizes the main points. They also view titles of research articles, where it has been measured through results statements per unit.

A close concept to self-promotion is that of self-citation. Hyland and Feng Jiang (2018) looked at frequency and disciplinary variation of self-citation. Self-citation can be viewed as a rhetorical tool for author's visibility that writers can use to demonstrate progress and consistency in their research over time. It also helps them to establish credibility and authority and advocate their earlier research. Studies in self-citation have demonstrated disciplinary variation (Aksnes, 2003; King et al., 2017). In addition to observing how authors refer to their own previous work, the author's presence and contribution can be viewed through their dialogue with other authors. The presence of the self and the others in academic text has been investigated for example as polyphonic visibility (see Fløttum, 2005), and through the concepts of averral and attribution (Abdesslem, 2020; Sinclair, 1986).

Averral and attribution are used to identify, position, and evaluate and position voices in academic texts (Groom, 2000). As such, we observe again a close connection between authorial presence and stance, because it signals to what extent the author aligns themselves with the statements made. Averral and attribution has been operationalized through reporting verbs (e.g., claims, argues) and citation patterns (where the citations are located within a sentence and in a paragraph). As such, we can observe it on micro- and meso-level of

the text. Citation patterns are usually studied qualitatively. However, more recent research also suggest computational methods are applicable (Omizo & Hart-Davidson, 2016). The benefit of studying citation patterns using computational methods supports the testing of different types of taxonomies currently used to determine different citation patterns in a text to determine a) the reliability of the taxonomy when evaluating it on a large set of texts, and b) to determine whether any specific observable patterns emerge when testing large sets of texts. In addition, testing different taxonomies will also help to determine which of these taxonomies can be reliably identified by computational methods. Ryan Omizo and William Hart-Davidson (2016) in their study compared a computational rhetoric analysis to analyze the use of citations to the same research caried out by qualitative researchers coding by hand. The results were promising as the reliability of identifying citation patterns using computational analysis matched those of the hand coding study.

Coherence (and Cohesion)

Coherence seems to be one of those basic terms in linguistics that is known by every linguist but has proved rather difficult to define and explain exhaustively. Coherence is generally understood to indicate something about the relationships and network of discourse referents and discourse segments which work together in a text so that the text can be understood to "make sense." Coherence, at the same time, is often very differently understood in terms of how these relationships are measured or valued. The concept of coherence, in the context of this paper, has its roots in text and discourse analysis and it generally refers to the continuity of the propositional content and concepts referred to, that is necessary for a text to be meaningful (Halliday & Hasan, 1976). Coherence is often used as an umbrella term to cover two slightly different text qualities: coherence and cohesion (Sanders et al., 1992; Taboada, 2019). Coherence as opposed to cohesion relates to the meaning of the whole text and how all smaller textual units (e.g., sentences and clauses) are connected to make sense to meaning, having specific world knowledge as a background. Cohesion as opposed to coherence concerns the overt expression of how lexical elements stick together, i.e., how entity relations are shown, for example through different referential expressions (Berzlánovich & Redeker, 2012; Halliday & Hasan, 1976; Morris & Hirst, 1991; Taboada, 2019).

For a further treatment of this feature in our model, we generally refer to the term coherence only and simultaneously draw the commonly accepted distinction between different types of coherence: relational coherence on the global (i.e., meso and macro) level to generally refer to coherence on the

semantic and pragmatic levels of language, and referential coherence (i.e., cohesion) on the local (i.e., micro) level as indicated by lexicon and grammar (Das & Taboada, 2019; Degand et al., 1999). The first type—relational coherence—most generally relates to the use of different connectors (e.g., because, so, besides, etc.) and other means used to identify relationships between successive sentences in a text. The main linguistic devices in the second type—referential coherence—cover various referential expressions, including deictic and anaphoric devices (e.g., 1st person pronouns, 3rd person pronouns, demonstratives, shifters, etc.) that build connections between entities that are referred to in the text (Das & Taboada, 2019; Degand et al., 1999; Donahue, 2008; van Dijk, 1980).

The importance of measuring (different types of) coherence as a feature of text, across languages and cultures (for example, C. Donahue, 2008), is based on the common understanding that coherence (and cohesion) is needed for the intended message of a text to be communicated successfully by the writer of that text (Knott & Dale, 1996). According to Betty Bamberg (1983, p. 417), "writing that lacks coherence will almost certainly fail to communicate its intended message to a reader." This latter statement highlights why coherence needs to receive a much more thorough analysis across languages and cultures; especially when considering the fact that in our methodological justification, we presented a dichotomy which somewhat questions the validity of Bamberg's statement: reader versus writer responsibility—with the added presumption that less coherent text leans more towards reader responsible text and more coherent text towards writer responsible text. We, however, want to challenge this notion by considering, perhaps, whether it is based on the understanding how we measure coherence, or who does the measuring, which offers more insights into a writing tradition (Kubota & Lehner, 2004).

To measure coherence in a text, different approaches have been proposed. Perhaps the most common approach is identifying various discourse relations across a text, i.e., the inferred connections between propositions that the writer/speaker or the addressee makes or is expected to make in order to establish a coherent text (Asr & Demberg, 2012; Taboada, 2019; Trnavac et al., 2016). William Mann and Sandra Thompson (1988) have identified as many as 23 discourse relations across a text (e.g., relations of cause, evidence and justify, restatement and summary, etc.), whereas Andrew Kehler et al. (2007) identified as few as six common discourse relations between portions of texts that form different propositions (e.g., occasion, elaboration, explanation). Other studies suggest that the main identifying relations of coherence across a text are cognitive relations (Sanders et al., 1992). According to Ted Sanders et al. (1992), the different relations form

based on principles resting in argumentation, such as those in argument and claim or relations of cause and consequences, as can be identified in text. Some of this manifests semantically, others pragmatically. Both the discourse relations and the cognitive relations approach provide guiding taxonomies; and in the case of cognitive relations, are tested across languages (Dutch and English) (Sanders et al., 1992).

Another way to look at coherence is by analyzing common linguistic devices which are used across two or more portions of texts to signal a particular discourse relation. These devices, although understood relatively similar among researchers, have been referred to with different terms, e.g., signaling phrases (Sanders & Noordman, 2000), cue phrases (Grosz & Sidner, 1986; Knott & Dale, 1996), or discourse markers (Das & Taboada, 2019) (e.g., since, because, nevertheless, etc.). Oftentimes, the inclusion and connection between these phrases determine how parts of the texts are connected, and these manifest themselves at the level of words, phrases, and sentences, paragraphs, and wider spans of text. Some studies, however, have only taken account of connections which are made at the sentence and clause level (e.g., Knott & Dale, 1996), while other studies consider various types of other possible coherence-creating devices as well, for example referential expressions in the text (e.g., Asher & Lascarides, 2003). The problem when annotating only the signaling phrases is that not always are these phrases indicative of the whole text spans in terms of coherence, and multiple signals can appear together with other contextual signals (Das & Taboada, 2019).

For our study, coherence as a feature in the model may prove to be difficult to measure but essential to identify. The advantage of the above-mentioned approaches is that one takes a more top-down approach to measure relations of coherence by identifying the discourse relations, and the other a bottom-up approach to measure coherence by first finding the signaling phrases in the text. Exploring ways to automatically identify these across a text will take both approaches to validate how these relations will manifest themselves in texts which are written in languages which are not Indo-European languages.

Discussion

We generally seem to have a hunch what a writing tradition is and what it is not. Currently, however, we lack the understanding how we can holistically and empirically measure a writing tradition in general and specifically. The aim of this paper was to address this lack of a coherent overview of what constitutes a writing tradition by laying the foundation of a larger investigation mapping academic writing traditions in the national languages of the

Baltic States—Estonian, Latvian, and Lithuanian (as examples). All three languages lack a comprehensive overview in literature. To achieve this aim, we propose the five-feature model outlined here that can be used to identify a multitude of aspects in a text that can be used to measure writing pertaining to a tradition, discipline, culture, or language (or as a combination of these). To develop the model, we used studies in contrastive rhetoric, discourse analysis, and genre studies to identify features that manifest themselves at the macro-, meso-, and micro-level to get a comprehensive overview of a whole text rather than just parts of a text (for example, only an abstract or summary).

Moving forward with the model, the next step in the research is to start identifying these features and sub-features in the literature addressing the three targeted Baltic languages (Estonian, Latvian, and Lithuanian). As the model has to identify features of languages other than English, a knowledge base would need to be constructed of the language(s) the model is modeling. For example, for the feature Stance, we do not want to rely on studies conducted about Stance in English to determine where Stance manifests itself in a text, but rely on studies about Stance conducted in Estonian, for example, to determine where it manifests itself and how. If no studies have been conducted about Stance in Estonian text, we have identified a gap in research, plus an opportunity to build a taxonomy to investigate Stance in Estonian from the ground up, rather than from the perspective of English.

Once literature or gaps in literature about the features and sub-features of our model have been identified, the next step is to (1) fill the gaps and/or propose investigations to fill the gaps, (2) identify whether current literature provides evidence how the feature can be measured in the target languages, and (3) if not, develop and identify a systematic approach to measure these features in the target languages. To identify these features, we will need to develop a large database containing academic texts in the target languages. These texts can be scraped from existing open databases such as university libraries (e.g., digital BA, MA and Ph.D. theses), and open databases of journal articles, year books, conference proceedings, etc. Collecting this data across the three languages also provides insights into the relative prominence of scholarship in these languages, as countries with strong policies to promote scholarship in their national languages are likely to have a larger body of academic writing in those languages. Given the flexibility of the model and the extent of the dataset, the next step involves building Machine Learning and Deep Learning models which can identify the features and/or sub-features and how these features and/or sub-features manifest themselves in these texts. One step is to have the algorithms detect patterns with minimal bias or support (unsupervised learning), and the other step is to have the algorithms

detect patterns with the input of existing taxonomies belonging to a feature (supervised learning). The main idea behind either approach is to gather as much evidence as possible across a large number of texts which will also allow us to adjust for text type or genre (e.g., BA, MA, of Ph.D. thesis) or discipline (e.g., Medical Science journals, MA theses in humanities or linguistics) or year (e.g., only texts from 1995–2000).

Finally, once we have described the observations, we can return to the texts and apply a more ethnographic approach questioning specific cohorts of people (students, teachers, researchers, etc.) across the different text types, genres, and disciplines how their personal perspectives towards an Estonian writing tradition, for example, is observable in the data and vice versa. Also, given we have data and observations of the data across three Baltic languages, who share a similar geo-political history, can we observe similarities which might be attributed to culture or tradition. Or can we observe similarities across specific institutions of higher education across the three countries or genres or disciplines. At the moment, we can only assume, as we do with many writing "traditions" in languages other than English, and the aim of our study, how to model an academic writing tradition, is to provide a methodological approach applicable to any language and any text type, genre and/or discipline.

The novelty of our proposed model is to fundamentally seek a shortcut or a "quick and dirty" method to catch up on the wealth of research conducted on texts written in English or compared to English. Rather than being informed by what is known, a more language-driven model can be used to investigate what might be—if we collect and make observations of a very large collection of academic papers written in other languages. As a result, we may begin to ask simple questions to test the main assumptions, such as: is author stance genre driven, or do we observe stance to be driven by specific journals, disciplines or across various disciplines? What type of rhetorical structures can be observed across various universities, and can we observe differences and/or similarities across languages? How strong is the influence of survivorship bias in texts published in journals in comparison to BA, MA, or Ph.D. theses?

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Glossary

Feature: In this paper, feature is a means for describing a writing tradition. As such, we refer to the model for investigating writing traditions a feature model. Every feature in the model describes and consists of a whole range of concepts relevant to this particular feature. These concepts are operationalized as linguistic devices that may be grammatical, lexical, constructional, etc.
Macro-level: Means the largest textual unit of analysis, i.e., the complete text.
Meso-level: Refers to sections and paragraphs as the textual unit of analysis.
Micro-level: Refers to the sentence or word unit of analysis.
Sub-feature: Sub-features are features which can manifest themselves across the five identified features, and across the three different text levels (Macro, Meso, and Micro level).
Writing tradition: The term Writing tradition is used in a broad sense to stand for shared conventions of writing in a specific context. A writing tradition is located within larger cultures defined by physical or linguistic boundaries, but can also be distinguished in smaller cultures, such as those defined in disciplines, e.g., chemistry, or humanities. A tradition can be characterized by a number of features. For a more thorough elaboration on the term see the chapter entitled: Literature review: conflicting traditions and/or cultures.

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7 Developing Multilingual Repertoire at Intersecting Mobility Scales

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Abstract: This article draws on and extends research on literacy mobility (Fraiberg et al., 2017; Lam, 2009; Lorimer Leonard, 2017) to examine one writer's multilingual repertoire and literacy practices at the intersection of global processes of migration that shaped her personal, professional, and academic pursuits at a Chinese university. Taking up the concept of scale (Blommaert et al., 2005), this article explores how the student's multilingual repertoire is complexly motivated by her own geographical, imaginary, and literacy mobilities, which were themselves shaped by access to scaled semiotic resources, valuation systems, and tropes of migration. More specifically, we explore how Yi, the focal student, mobilizes semiotic resources and literacy practices from school- and self-sponsored literacy and professional activities to develop her multilingual repertoire; we then discuss how Yi's multilingualism is complexly shaped by geographical, professional, literacy, and imaginary mobilities at intersecting scales.

Reflection

Our commitment to under-represented students stems from our life trajectories as multilingual writers, biliterate scholars, and transnational individuals working in institutional and disciplinary contexts that operate with distinct orientations towards knowledge-making practices.[1] Our own struggles to add

1 Please read the opening statement for this collection, "Editing in US-Based International Publications: A Position Statement," before reading this chapter.

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academic English to our linguistic repertoires formed our commitment to understanding diverse students' language and cultural differences as assets rather than deficits.

Xiqiao discovered the possibility for international collaboration from the 2015 IRC workshop, which led her to meeting her wonderful colleague Gita Dasbender, who reported on her research conducted through the Fulbright Specialist Program. At the time, Xiqiao had been working on collaborative multi-sited research studies that investigated international students' literacies, identities, and mobilities, which culminated in her co-authored book entitled Inventing the World Grant University: Chinese International Students' Mobilities, Literacies and Identities. Such research has led her to examine the role of globalization and digital technology in enabling the mobility of people, ideas, and narratives at national and international scales, which manifest in the literacy practices and identities of newly mobile and affluent international students migrating in a global marketplace of higher education. While such research has revealed the creative and innovative ways in which international students mobilize languages, literacy resources, friendships, and networks globally to achieve academic and professional success, it has also called attention to the increasing disparity and social fragmentation that imposed detrimental effects on migrant laborers in China, whose work has contributed to the rapid accumulation of wealth but whose sacrifices are inadequately recognized and theorized.

Xiqiao and Lifang met through our joint participation in a visiting scholar program in a U.S. university and our collaboration has grown with subsequent collaborations in research and professional development initiatives. In 2018, Xiqiao completed a Fulbright Specialist assignment in collaboration with Lifang at HNU. It is through this Fulbright assignment that we began to explore the possibility of integrating translingualism into the existing curriculum at HNU and to pursue deepening theoretical questions by shifting our analytical attention from mobile, privileged international students to first-generation college students who grew up as left-behind children during China's labor migration. Yixuan, one of the nine undergraduate students who participated in the summer course, provided invaluable insights in the ongoing development of the project.

To prepare for this study, Xiqiao had conducted pilot studies through projects funded by internal grants from Michigan State University, which allowed her to develop preliminary exploration of young women's literacy learning in China. Subsequent to the 2018 collaboration, Xiqiao had also gathered data from a cohort of 33 participants in Anhui and Guizhou provinces, two economically underdeveloped regions with large out-bounding migratory

populations. On one hand, these pilot studies have revealed important themes about how national and transnational processes of labor migration has disadvantaged and victimized young women growing up as left-behind children; on the other hand, it also called for the need to develop methodological tools to systematically account for and further delve into young women's experiences developing expertise and resources despite unfavorable circumstances that limit their geographical, social, and professional mobility.

Currently, Xiqiao and Lifang are planning for further collaboration, which will allow them to pursue the issue with additional methodological tools adapted from social geography (e.g., mobility journal and mobile interview) and new literacy studies (e.g., digital storytelling). These tools will allow us to further describe young women's experiences with rural and urban spaces as well as the literacy resources embedded in such spaces. Such a move is critical in generating "thick" descriptions of how left-behind children work through, with, and against social, political, and educational structures to achieve mobility. In so doing, we hope to further unravel how movements across borders create practical, intellectual, emotional, and imaginary demands, thereby spurring needs for new forms of communication using multiple languages and modalities. It is with such knowledge that literacy educators can begin to imagine equitable, asset-based pedagogies for supporting the literacy learning and development of diverse learners.

Institutional Context

The research was conducted in the College of Foreign Languages at Hainan University (hereafter referred to as HNU), which is the only university with 211 and Double World-Class Discipline designations (indicators used in a national ranking system used in China) in the island province of Hainan, China. Following the university's Double World-Class Discipline designation in 2017, the mission statement of the college was revised to reflect the elevated strategic position of the university in the region's economic development under the national Belt and Road Initiative. The revision included outcomes such as these: to help students "draw on multiple languages to discover, analyze, and solve problems embedded in everyday, workplace, and international contexts" and to develop students' ability to "craft and communicate significant stories across languages and cultures" ("Learning Outcomes"). Aiming towards these revised learning outcomes, the English department had been working to reinvent its curriculum by developing new professional and digital writing courses, which ran as addendum to traditional, proficiency-based courses in English Pronunciation, Speaking and Listening, Reading and Writing.

In 2018, Xiqiao and Lifang collaborated to offer a six-week summer course as part of the institutional effort to develop an asset-based curriculum that prepares students for communication in globally-oriented workplace and professional contexts. In this course, we explored ways to integrate translingual theory (Horner et al., 2011), aiming to help students develop translingual dispositions and practices through assignments that position students' languages and cultures as assets for learning, encourage students' theorization of cross-language relationships, and invite students' inquiry into language differences. In particular, we focus on "translation" (Gonzales, 2018; Horner & Tetreault, 2016; Wang, 2020) as a useful metaphor to help students recognize and develop strategies for moving meaning across languages, modalities, genres, and life worlds. Course assignments (Translation Narrative, Writing Theory Cartoons, I am from Poetry) invited students to practice and reflect on their own practices of translating texts from their home language into English (Kiernan et al., 2017), to theorize and represent language and cultural differences (Wang, 2017), and to consider their multilingualism as shaped by powerful literacy brokers and spaces (Stewart & Hansen-Thomas, 2016). Positioning students' languages and cultures as sites of inquiry, such assignments created many opportunities to identify, discuss, and gather data about students' multilingual repertoire in connection to their experiences with and expectations for geographical, academic, and professional mobility. An asset-based pedagogy not only invited students to share, reflect on, and theorize their own multilingual repertoire as shifting and transformative, but also provided us with the opportunity to complicate the ways in which multilingual repertoire are co-constituted with mobility. It is from this research context that this project emerged.

This article draws on research on literacy mobility, which has yielded useful theoretical and methodological tools to examine language learning and literacy practices at the intersection of advancing digital technologies and global processes of migration (Fraiberg et al., 2017; Lam, 2009; Lorimer Leonard, 2017). With such research focusing on transnational migrants who move across geographic, linguistic, and cultural borders, literacy researchers have examined how migrants leverage old and new literacy practices to sustain social networks, send financial and social remittances, and navigate transnational bureaucracies of immigration. Such research has not only examined how digital literacies provide transnational youth with opportunities to negotiate multiple identities, languages, and networks embedded in online and offline spaces (Barton & Lee, 2011, Black, 2005; Wang, 2017; Yi, 2009), but has argued for the central role of literacy in enabling migrants' navigation of institutionally sponsored spaces that control and regulate individual mobility (Lorimer Leonard, 2013). Such

scholarship has positioned literacy as an important dimension of transnational migration, as those on the move learn new ways of reading and writing in anticipation of their geographic mobility, economic solvency, and emotional intimacy (Vieira, 2019). In important ways, multilingual writers constantly reconfigure their language repertoire in reaction to social, bureaucratic, and ideological structures that privilege languages of the powerful and render the languages and narratives of the vulnerable invisible. In this article, we use literacy mobility to explore the ways in which multilingual students move, attune, and assemble dynamic semiotic resources for strategic gains. Mobility allows us to explore the dynamic ways in which students' multilingual repertoire enables mobile potential for meanings and experiences through such practices as translation and interpretation; it provides a way to observe how different languages in an evolving multilingual repertoire are negotiated, valuated, and leveraged according to contingent communicative needs; it also alerts us to the possibilities to observe literacy mobility as mobilized and mobilizing by other forms of geographic, physical, and imaginary movements fueled by personal, professional, and academic needs.

Whereas current research has often celebrated transnational migration for enabling the fluid movements of social, learning, and financial resources across international borders, such a celebratory stance has often risked creating "contemporary silences about internal migration," or ways in which migratory experiences are powerfully shaped by nation states and narratives of national identities (Schiller & Salazar, 2013). Indeed, recent scholarship has complicated metaphors of fluidity for their narrow focus on how languages and resources flow across ever-loosening borders and boundaries. Such research has called attention to the complex ways in which multilingual writers work with and against power-invested linguistic, cultural, and rhetorical differences embedded in social, political, and institutional structures that often stall movements (Lorimer Leonard, 2017; Wang, 2020). In this chapter, we provide a detailed account of how one multilingual writer from a Chinese university works with, through, and against national initiatives, regional development plans, and institutional practices to manage her own geographic, academic, social and professional movements.

Situating the Research

With China's rapid economic growth and urbanization, its population of migrants moving from rural areas to urban centers has increased from 70 to 247 million in the past three decades, accounting for 16.5% of its total population. More recently, China's expansionist agenda has been accompanied by outward

labor migration and new forms of immigration through geopolitical policy plans such as the Belt and Road Initiative (Haugen, 2012; Lee, 2017). Hainan province, where this research took place, presented a telling example of how regional economic structures evolved in reaction to such national mobility-oriented initiatives. Located at the southernmost point of China and facing the South China Sea, the island is an important node of the "Maritime Silk Road" under the Belt and Road Initiative. As China's largest special economic zone, the island province was to be developed into a globally influential, high-level Free Trade Port (FTP) by the middle of the century. At the time of our study, President Xi Jinping had just delivered a keynote speech in celebration of the 30th anniversary of the Special Economic Zone's establishment. Xi announced the national plan to develop and promote a "free trade zone with Chinese characteristics" around the island, with renewed governmental commitment to helping the province achieve "phenomenal social and economic growth" by means of dedicated support to develop its "tourism, modern services, and high-tech sectors." Development in such sectors is expected to facilitate "multi-level and multi-field cooperation with countries and regions along the Belt and Road."

Such national and regional development initiatives had important implications for lived and anticipated migration at local, national, and global scales. For one thing, as the only university in the province with a 211-research designation (a national ranking system), HNU was expected to lead in research efforts in tandem with the development priorities set out in the national policy. In addition to serving the 38,000 domestic students from 34 provinces within China, HNU had been actively developing new forms of global collaboration by recruiting international students from countries targeted in the Belt and Road Initiative, forging collaboration with elite research centers globally, and developing joint international colleges. While the intertwinement of internal and outbound labor movements at the national level has enabled social mobility, shifted social structure, and displaced families (Lee, 1998; Naughton, 2007), students attending HNU were also re(imagining) their educational and career aspirations in response to opportunities and challenges embedded in lived and imagined mobilities promised in the national initiative. Therefore, HNU provides an interesting site for examining how various forms of mobilities materialize in students' literacy learning.

Scale as an Analytical Tool

Researchers of literacy mobility have used scale to explore how semiotic and identity resources are unevenly distributed and mobilized in transnational

contexts (Lam, 2009; Wang, 2017). Scale is a concept borrowed from social geography to capture the complex stratification of spaces, which are power-invested structures that exist in hierarchical relationship to one another. Jan Blommaert (2015) has theorized scale as semiotized space/time, or "invokable [chunk] of history that provide meaning-attributing resources [and] historically configured and ordered tropes" (p. 111). Scale therefore provides a means of tracing the invocation of historically developed semiotic resources across time-space relationships as students develop their multilingual repertoires.

To trace the movement and invocation of semiotic resources, it is useful to attend to the horizontal dimension of spatiality (Blommaert et al., 2005), which organizes spaces at local, translocal, national and transnational scales (e.g., street, neighborhood, city, state, country and continent). Simultaneously, scale operates vertically to account for the asymmetrical manner in which the mobility of people, texts, and semiotic resources are enabled, directed, or limited. While horizontal ordering of scaled spaces allows us to trace how semiotic resources travel, vertical scales allow us to observe the power differentials that enable global centers (e.g., world-renowned universities, powerful nations, global lingua franca) to exploit the resources on the peripheral (e.g., regional college, developing countries, non-dominant vernaculars). Scale is therefore a useful concept to capture the complex ways in which languages are positioned and valued in relation to each other-processes that are mediated by resources unevenly located at local, regional, national, and transnational scales. Such a view is especially important in studying multilingual practices and identities because scale allows us to trace and theorize how historically developed resources, norms, and imaginaries about why and how people move are invoked to mediate local performance and valuation of language work.

Scholars have used scale to describe how power asymmetries can unfold in practices to disadvantage particular groups and their multilingual repertoire as well as creating exigencies for negotiation (Dong & Blommaert, 2016; Kell, 2015; Stornaiuolo & LeBlanc, 2016). Together, such research situates the mobile potential of literacy as mediated by and negotiated with historical meanings embodied by semiotic resources, artifacts, and networks. While such research has directed our attention to the contentious labor of producing texts as layered by scaled resources, there has been little understanding of multilingual students' active and strategic working and reworking of such resources as dynamically tied to institutional, regional, and national structures.

In this chapter, we consider how one student's multilingual repertoire was complexly motivated by her own geographical, imaginary, and literacy mobilities, which were themselves shaped by access to scaled semiotic resources, valuation systems, and tropes of migration. On one hand, we observe Yi's

ability to access and leverage language resources at horizontal scales through efforts such as offering English tutoring in her immediate community (local), taking courses in foreign languages (university), providing translation services at an international forum (regional and international). On the other hand, we observe how scaled languages are hierarchically arranged and valuated based on their social and economic values through such practices as acquiring an internationally accredited certificate to participate in a global marketplace, learning a foreign language to facilitate geographic mobility during travel, or leveraging one's translation practices to facilitate the transnational mobility of idea and commodities. In approaching scaled semiotic resources from horizontal and vertical perspectives, we grapple with the various power structures that shape the students' effort to recognize, attune, and strategize their multilingual repertoires for strategic gains. The following questions guide the present study: How does Yi (the focal student) mobilize semiotic resources and literacy practices from school- and self-sponsored literacy and professional activities to develop her multilingual repertoire? How is Yi's multilingualism shaped by geographical, professional, literacy, and imaginary mobilities at intersecting scales?

Methodology

Through the summer course, we worked with nine sophomore English majors at HNU to explore their literacy mobility and multilingual repertoire. Yi was purposefully selected because of the dynamic ways in which she leveraged multiple languages to pursue academic, professional, and social mobility within and beyond the university. We focused on Yi's multilingual repertoire as co-evolving with a wealth of school- and self-sponsored literacy activities she developed. In so doing, we explore how Yi's multilingualism co-evolved with her changing career aspirations, which reverberated with mobility tropes from national policy initiative, regional economic plans, and shifting missions of the university.

Data Collection & Analysis

To fully explore Yi's multilingual repertoire and literacy mobility, we attended to her ongoing drafting of assignments as sites of inquiry. That is, we used Yi's evolving drafts, which provided descriptions of and reflections on her multilingual experiences, to guide semi-structured and discourse-based interviews, which prompted additional observations of Yi's literacy activities inside and outside the classroom. The following strands of data were collected (Table 7.1).

Table 7.1: Data Collected

Data Strand	Count	Study Objectives
Semi-structured interview	2 (Total: 120 minutes)	Literacy identities, history, and practices Physical and imaginary movements
Field notes and audio recordings of in-class invention and drafting activities	4 (Total: 160 mins)	Sharing of ideas individually, in pairs, and in groups
Writing Artifacts	2 drafts of I am from Poem (Chinese & English) 1 draft of Translation Narrative 1 draft of Translation Narrative with two peer reviewer comments 2 drafts of Writing Theory Cartoon 3 pages of Japanese Art Journal	Yi's ongoing description, reflection, and theorization of her multilingual repertoire and experiences moving across languages, modes, and life worlds
Field notes of informal literacy activity observation outside the classroom	1 (Total: 60 mins)	Yi's routine movement on and off campus tied to professional aspirations and literacy activities

Note: We gathered different types of ethnographic data to achieve a rich understanding of Yi's literacy activities across contexts.

Data analysis began with interview transcripts, which were segmented and coded at the clause level to identify themes, such as literacy sponsor (e.g., parent, foreign teacher), mobility (e.g., move to gain access to resources, plans to study abroad), literacy practices (e.g., help a foreign teacher prepare bureaucratic documents, engage in fandom-based activities, provide interpretation services at a conference), and translingual theorizing (e.g., contemplation of language differences and irregularities, consideration of cross-language relations). These codes were then verified and refined through a triangulated reading of artifacts, classroom recording transcripts, and field notes. For instance, Yi's discussion of cross-language relations as a strategy to develop her multilingual repertoire during interview was triangulated with discourse-based interview about her *I am from* poem, which contained telling examples of code-meshing and translation; her Translation Narrative, which contained detailed discussion of how she mobilized strategies developed across multiple languages to engage with translation; and classroom

recordings, which contained an episode of her and a classmate discussing linguistic features of multiple languages.

Our second move was to further explore types of mobility (e.g., geographical, literacy, imaginary) as mediated by semiotic and professional resources and norms located at different horizontal scales (e.g., local, regional, transnational). We noted in particular how each type of mobility might acquire different scalar qualities vertically. For instance, Yi's discussion of how she utilized multiple modes of transportation to acquire bureaucratic documents from the custom office was coded as geographical mobility at local scale; but such local mobility was entangled in anticipated international travel of her foreign teacher's cat, which was coded as geographical mobility at transnational scale. Such analysis often revealed vertical qualities of scales, such as how transnational mobility was enabled through bureaucratic procedures conducted in English, which came at the cost of labor-intensive mobility work at a local scale (e.g., repeated trips made to local agencies or extensive translation labor to prepare documentation). See Table 7.2 for an outline of Yi's mobilities.

Table 7.2: Mobility Across Scales

Mobility at Different Scales	**Description**
Geographic	Movements of physical bodies across multiple geographic locations at local (villages), regional (province), national (within nation state), international (between nation states), and global (fluidly across national states) scales.
Literacy	Movements of life experiences, life worlds, and meanings across languages, through writing, translation, adaptation, and remix (e.g., using transnationally distributed media content to learn Japanese to get access to fandom resources at national scale)
Imaginary	Imaginary movements of peoples, ideas, financial resources, technologies as laid out in strategc plans, visions, narratives, and discourse (e.g., learning a foreign language to enhance one's employability at transnational scale)
Disciplinary/ Professional	Movements of expertise, strategies, and knowledge across disciplinary and professional fields to enable the accumulation of academic and professional credentials (e.g., acquiring educational credential recognized at international scale)
Social/Class	Movements across social and class strata, often connected to geographic movements in search of work, remittance of technologies, money, and literacy artifacts, and consequent accumulation or loss of family wealth (e.g., working hard so that parents achieve regional mobility by relocating to a new city with better healthcare)

Note: This table summarizes our ongoing effort to theorize different types of movements manifesting Yi's life and shaping her multilingual repertoire.

Findings

Yi, a sophomore English major at the time of the study, came from a family of Chinese herbal medicine practitioners. As her parents' work often kept them from home, Yi grew up under the care of her grandparents. Having witnessed how hard her parents worked to obtain professional certification for their practice, Yi placed much value on her education. Although Yi indicated her preference for finance and medicine on her college entrance application, her testing score fell short, resulting in her placement as an English major. This outcome was celebrated by her parents, who saw the major as promising a less stressful career.

At the university, Yi described herself as an average student with mediocre testing scores, but she also placed value on a wealth of extracurricular activities she pursued, which were fueled by multiple personal and professional aspirations. She argued that academic studies only occupied a small parcel of her daily routine, as she invested much time in student government, fandom-based clubs, professional development initiatives, and part time work. It was through her engagement with this rich writing extracurricular (Gere, 1994) that Yi recognized the value of and the need to continuously cultivate her dynamic multilingual repertoire consisting of Chinese, English, French, Japanese, and Indonesian. In what follows, we begin with an account of Yi's multilingual repertoire as co-evolving with a wealth of literacy practices operating with semiotic resources at varying scales. We then discuss how her multilingual repertoire is entangled in physical and imaginary mobilities at local, regional, national, and transnational scales.

Recognizing Cross-Language Relationships

Yi's I am from poem (see Figure 7.1) contains rich olfactory details in memory of her childhood, which was embodied by the scent of "herb cans" containing "dried tangerine" and "reed's roots"—commonly used ingredients in Chinese herbal medicine. Her childhood "was immersed in pleasant scents of herbal medicine" and marked by "failed attempts to steal a sip from ancient herb alcohol" her grandfather brewed. She provided Chinese annotations to her English poem, partially because she wanted to supply the cultural resonance lacking in words translated from Chinese into English. For instance, she provided the name of the traditional Chinese medicine (陈皮) next to its English translation "dried tangerines," which to her had deprived the concept of all cultural connections to the history, practices, and art of practicing

herbal medicine. The visible movements of ideas across languages observed here were rooted in her interests in language studies in general. Below, we discuss how code-meshing manifested in her poem provides a window into her strategic, routine traversal across multiple languages, which provided useful strategies for developing her poem immediately and her multilingual repertoire in general.

As an avid fan of Japanese TV drama, Yi had spent three years in intense, self-sponsored Japanese learning. Since high school, Yi had enthusiastically followed the work of Ninomiya Kazunari, a Japanese TV actor, and Oda Kazumasa, an award-winning Japanese musician. Yi had begun taking French in fulfillment of the departments' requirement for second foreign language learning. While she followed the assigned textbook and worksheets to learn French, she resorted to Japanese TV dramas and online tutorials to study Japanese. Daily traversal across these languages helped her develop a disposition towards open inquiry into language differences.

I Am From Poem
16 级外国语言文学类 1 班 蒋艺萱 20161881310003

I am from the herb cans
From dried tangerines(陈皮) and reed' s root
I am from the aroma of ink
Mild, moldy, with flower's scent
I am from the sequoia(水杉)
Tall, straight and silent
I' m from fireworks and homemade lanterns
From Duan Qirui and Hegui
I' m the medical books and wards
From "Go and finish your homework!" and "Want more books?"
I'm from soul of my ancients, mixed with ash of paper ingot(锭)
I' m from the capital of crayfish（小龙虾）and the hometown of the Emperor
Fried prawn slices on the table of family assembly, and hot fish pans
√From the adversity my dad had to chase his "dreaming of university"
√The sleepless nights in which my mom worked to get the certificate for assistant practicing doctor
In an old drawer made by camphor(香樟) spilling some albums
Concealing his suit, her wedding dress and my childhood
I' m from those moments going on my way to a city faraway

Figure 7.1: Yi's I Am From poem. This poem emerged from inventive activities offered during the class to help Yi reflect on important aspects of her culture and family heritage.

In her translation narrative, she explored how English was connected to other languages:

> Learning other languages helps me develop my English, like Japanese and French. French follows similar inflection rules like English does and you see so many English words that were borrowed from French. When I study French, I take extensive notes of similar usages in French and English. Learning French helps me learn English. Similarly, Japanese has many borrowed words from English. Studying across these three languages helps to expand my vocabulary. I begin to summarize lexical rules for inventing new words across languages. This is an area where rote memorization never helps a learner. (Personal communication, June 10, 2018)

Evidenced here is an emerging, metalinguistic understanding of languages as linguistic, rule-governed structures that are dynamically related to each other. The metalinguistic awareness Yi demonstrates here is mirrored in Robert Jiménez et al. (2015), which explores how middle school students learned to collaboratively translate carefully selected excerpts from grade-appropriate literature in Spanish. These authors not only observe how translation activities encourage students to "draw on their cultural and linguistic knowledge to derive meaning" (Jiménez et al., 2015, p. 249), but also argue that translation is an especially important metalinguistic activity because it requires students to compare, reflect on, and manipulate multiple languages (p. 251). For students like Yi, dynamic negotiation of meaning through translation is already a routine part of their linguistic reality. Her theorization of cross-language relationships manifests in her evolving metalinguistic knowledge of vocabulary as partially determined by grammatical overlap and divergence between English, Japanese, and French, which have a history of cross-fertilization and borrowing despite surface understandings of them as seemingly discrete and bounded languages. This informal theory, one that begins to consider how grammatical and lexical features across different languages can be strategized to facilitate her learning of English immediately and to cross linguistic barriers in her interest- and professionally-driven activities, mirror a translingual view that position languages as evolving in relationship to each other (Horner et al., 2011).

Mobilizing Fandom-based Literacies

Yi's linguistic traversal was an important dimension of her transnationally dispersed literacy landscape. As an avid fan of Japanese TV drama, Yi had developed a wealth of literacy activities that enabled her participation in an

online community where fans from Japan, China, and South Korea shared news about concert tours, media releases, and celebrity gossip. Her activities in the forum, primarily conducted in Japanese, further motivated Yi to develop other self-sponsored Japanese learning activities, such as watching dubbed Japanese TV drama without subtitles, following and interacting with Japanese fans and celebrities on Instagram, and using her "naturally grown Japanese (野生日语)" to translate Japanese TV shows and write fan mails to her idol. Such self-sponsored learning had translated into a professional credential- Yi had passed Level 3 of Japanese Language Proficiency Test.

Her fandom activities not only motivated daily traversal in the digital world, but had compelled her geographical mobility at a transnational scale. In the summer of her freshman year, Yi took advantage of a university-sponsored study-abroad program to spend two weeks in Japan. In addition to participating in school activities, she spent the last few days exploring several destinations, including Waseda University, a prestigious institution of higher education that a number of her idols attended, as well as scenic locations where memorable scenes in her favorite TV series were shot. She described her excursions as a means of paying homage to people whose artistic achievements inspired her. Additionally, she documented her travel experiences in Hobonichi, an Otaku-inspired literacy practice known as Japanese art journal, in which she blended texts, images, and colors to document her experiences (See Figure 7.2).

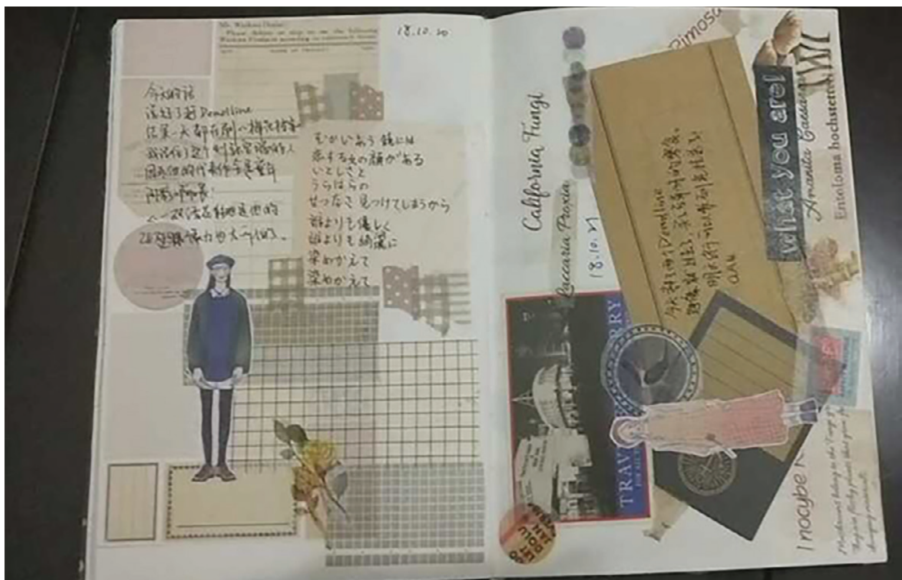

Figure 7.2: Yi's Art Journal. Yi routinely used Art Journal, a fandom literacy practice, to record and reflect on important life experiences.

Her experiences with Japanese had important implications for her creative writing across languages. In one stanza of her poem, Yi wrote about "the aroma of Ink" from shelves of old Chinese herbal medicine books in her family home as "mild, moldy, with flower's scent." When asked about her uses of "aroma" and "scent," she suggested that she carefully considered the nuances and connotations entailed in words such as "fragrance," "aroma," and perfume," which led her to an understanding of an important lexical difference between Chinese and English. Whereas Chinese compounds a shared root word "香 a pleasant smell" with affixes to evoke different smells of books (书香), flowers (花香), and ink (墨香), English operates with distinct lexical units such as aroma (food), fragrance (flower), and perfume.

More importantly, the use of "scent" helped her invoke a rhyming pattern she had learned to appreciate from studying Japanese. Noting that rhyming was not discussed or required in the assignment, Yi explained that "poetry has to have rhyming" and suggested that she worked hard to make sure she "switched to a different rhyme every other two lines." Instead of using "fragrance," her first choice, she used "scent" to create a rhyme with "root." This understanding of genre convention was developed through her regular performance of Japanese poetry, as she explained,

> I often record my own covers of songs from Japanese idols and when I go to KTV with my friends, I sing these songs. Such performances have led me to recognize the rhymes embedded in the lyrics. One of my favorite songs is "Fairy Tale." Written in Japanese, it operates with "a" rhyme for the first two lines of a stanza and then switches to the "no" rhyme in the second two lines. Rhymes switch every two lines, and I love that. I tried to do that in this poem. (Personal communication, July 10th, 2018)

In discussing another feature of her writing-her use of precise verbs, such as "chase" and "spill", she mentioned that she was particular about using precise words rather than rhetorical flourishes because of her experiences as a fanfiction writer. In writing the poem, she put much emphasis on achieving clarity and resonance with her audience rather than showing off her techniques. This approach was informed by extensive experiences with fanfiction writing:

> I write fanfiction based on Japanese TV series. In my stories, I like to carve out details. Rather than replicating characters and plots found in the original, I focus on storytelling because I

> am not confident that I have a good grasp of human nature or psychology, which is often an important aspect of Japanese TV drama. I like to tell a good story through good details. Even if the story is told through rough language, it is great because it draws readers into it. Readers in these communities are more interested in stories and you will get teased if you use too much rhetorical flourishes. (Personal communication, June 10th, 2018)

From a mobility perspective, it is important to attend to textual meaning as emerging through the convergence of multiple literacy trajectories accumulated over the course of a literate life and operating at different scales. The seemingly simple act of writing the poem draws on "cultural, rhetorical, and technical skills [developed] through lived experiences" to transform meaning across languages (Gonzales, 2018, p. 11). In addition to drawing on memories scattered across moments and spaces, the writing itself takes shape through creative reconfiguration of writing knowledge, practices, and strategies that are necessarily heterogeneous, multi-sensory, and multivocal. Her access to transnational fandom-based online communities powerfully shapes her approaches to writing.

It is also important to attend to creative ways in which Yi leveraged rich semiotic resources located at different scales, most notably transnational fan activities, which privileged the use of Japanese. However, Yi mobilized writing-related strategies (e.g., rhyming, vivid writing) located at the transnational scale to facilitate her English poetry writing for a limited audience. Writing a poem in English involved constant traversal across multiple languages and literacy spheres, which invited ongoing efforts to access multilingual texts, assess alternatives, and negotiate rhetorical differences. Indeed, the choice of a detail or a verb mobilizes many moments embedded in Yi's reading and writing lives within and beyond the university, across genres and spanning multiple scales, for different purposes and audiences, and subjected to different assessment standards. In this recursive process of defining meaning, negotiating differences, and connecting with her audience, Yi repurposed writing knowledge and strategies developed through previous literacy activities in innovative ways.

Brokering Labor Migration at Transnational Scale

As a member of the Public Relations Committee in her college's Student Government, Yi had worked as a student liaison whose charge was to facilitate the settlement of new foreign teachers (外教 wai jiao, a label used to describe instructors with native-level fluency in a certain language from a country

in which the language is dominant). She provided support to help foreign teachers navigate social and institutional processes entailed in transnational migration of international faculty. During her two years at the university, she had picked up arriving faculty at the airport, made arrangements for accommodations, sent packages domestically and internationally, and gathered and completed government documents on behalf of faculty. Completion of such tasks required constant and creative leverage of her multilingual repertoire:

> My foreign teacher's cat has been sick and she needs to bring it back to the UK for medical treatment. I have been learning a lot about what it takes to bring a kitty from China to the UK. I have taken her to various offices, like veterinarian clinics, custom office, and health department, to get all necessary documents for custom clearance upon departure and arrival. I ordered medications and thermal containers for her online. What made these tasks challenging was the medical jargon. I often found myself scrambling on the spot, translating back and forth using my phone. But she could not have done any of these without my help. (Personal communication, June, 8th, 2018)

As seen here, Yi's multilingual repertoire is entangled in various forms of mobility at intersecting scales. Transnational processes of talent migration are at work, as they manifest in the hiring and settling of foreign teachers; Yi plays a central role in brokering difficult transitions and adjustments entailed therein. The institution's recruitment of foreign teachers partially responds to pressures to position itself as a world-class university that embraces international collaborations and attracts global talents. In addition to the need to provide students with access to authentic linguistic and cultural knowledge locally, the preference of international faculty with native-level fluency is also complexly intersecting with a global hierarchy that orders countries and languages in a center-peripheral scheme, with the English language and native speakers from English dominant countries placed above students' multilingual and multi-dialectical repertories, the needs of such faculty satisfied at the cost of students' physical and intellectual labor (Blommaert et al., 2005). In part, the very existence of student liaisons emerged in connection to the flow of transnational labor from the center to the peripheral, the direction of such flow partially determined by the hierarchical privilege awarded to English as a global lingua franca.

Tellingly illustrated in the example is also the complex ways in which mobility at the global scale is enabled by mobility at local and national scales.

Yi leveraged multiple modes of transportation (e.g., school-reimbursed cab services, ride-share bike rental, bus) to travel to various governmental offices as she researched and completed the paper trail needed to register and vaccinate the cat, to apply for custom clearance, and to arrange for international travel. A nationally implemented supply chain is also at work to enable such transnational mobility. To pick up her online order of a thermal container and medication necessary for the cat's international travel, we walked to one among many "delivery pick-up centers" on campus, which housed hundreds of delivery items for students and faculty. Outside the crowded warehouse, small trucks made multiple runs daily to deliver online orders; drivers riding electric scooters waited to collect items for delivery to campus locations for those who were not willing or able to physically visit the center.

Additionally, Yi's literacy mobility, particularly her translation skills, played a central role in enabling the transnational movement of bodies and artifacts. It has been argued that multilinguals carefully cultivate, configure, and leverage their semiotic repertoire to achieve mobility for themselves and their loved ones (Vieira, 2019) and multilingualism accrue social and economic value by staying mobile. As in the example of Khadroma, a graduate nursing student whose translation and interpretation skills accrue economic and cultural value through service provided to stakeholders (Lorimer Leonard, 2017), the daily translation services Yi provided was similarly a practice with tremendous mobile potential. Translation provided Yi with the opportunity to engage in the intellectual, emotional, and physical labor of working with, through and against internally diverse, interpenetrating, and fluid languages at the intersection of local and transnational scales (Gonzalez, 2018; Wang, 2020). The strategic nature of her translation manifested in ongoing effort to broker an otherwise stalled communication between two stakeholders—the instructor with an urgent travel need, and local police and custom officers struggling to communicate institutional processes to an English speaker. The sheer amount of physical labor involved in such work (multiple trips to gather necessary forms), the emotional reward from doing so (many informal dinners with her teacher and learning a family recipe from the teacher), and the intellectual growth achieved (conversations about British movies, music, and daily life), helped Yi develop cognitive and linguistic dexterity, a disposition of openness, and a growing aspiration towards multilingual expertise.

Reinventing a Global Imaginary of Mobility as Opportunity

Yi's continuous honing of her multilingual repertoire was also fueled by a nationally inculcated imaginary that positioned the island as a hub of

international collaboration and trade. Under the Belt and Road Initiative, the island was envisioned as a prosperous trade zone bustling with transnational movements of people, corporations, and technologies, a vision that quickly figured into the career and professional realities of students. Yi, along with a group of her peers, was selected to serve as a volunteer at 2018 Bo'ao Forum for Asia Annual Conference. Yi worked hard to secure a position at the conference, where she provided simultaneous interpretation for a keynote speaker who delivered a talk on recent developments in agricultural technology. After the conference, she translated the speech into Chinese, which was then worked into promotional materials and media reports broadcasted locally and nationally. Even though the experience felt rushed and stressful, she embraced the opportunity as intellectually and professionally rewarding.

> Although I have been practicing my interpretation skills, I still felt unprepared for the job. Between the acceptance notice and the assignment, we were only given a week to prepare. I didn't receive the speaker's PPT until the night before his talk and it took me 4 hours to translate it for my own preparation. The next day, I didn't get to meet the speaker until ten minutes before his talk and the check-in was brief. He would only pause every 5–6 sentences instead of pausing at the end of each sentence like I asked him to, leaving me feeling very nervous and awkward. But I was so happy to see my translation appearing in the website update for the program. (Personal communication, July 18th, 2018)

What struck Yi was the tremendous economic and social values of her multilingualism as well as the consequences of failing to leverage it successfully. On one hand, Yi felt incredibly proud to find herself positioned at the center of the global traffic of ideas; she was an indispensable bridge between the speaker, a researcher from a U.S. university, and his audience, consisting largely of entrepreneurs, government officials, and Chinese university researchers. On the other hand, she felt great pressure to continuously hone her multilingual repertoire, which was important in her job search immediately and her pursuit of further educational credentials in the long term.

Yi's multilingualism was cogently positioned and valued at intersecting scales. Within her department, a small cohort of students with demonstrated expertise were chosen, as they were expected to be seen as an embodiment of the university's mission, the quality education it offered, and its ability to lead the region's economic and technological development. The strategic

vision for the university, as well as the professional trajectories of its students, are connected to the national Belt and Road initiative, an ambitious strategic plan that seeks to expand China's global influence by developing a trans-continental path of trade and investment. The impact of the initiative was further illustrated in the university's rush to offer more classes in foreign languages. The positioning of the island as a geographic hub connecting China with neighboring Southeastern Asian countries, such as Lao, Indonesia, and Thailand, led to the college's introduction of a new course in Indonesian, which was actively promoted to students for providing highly marketable skills needed to enhance regional collaboration between China and its trading partners. Yi had just begun her first semester taking a class in introductory Indonesian.

Whereas Yi actively worked to add multiple languages to her linguistic repertoire, English remained at the front and center because of its position at the hierarchical center. At a national scale, Yi's proficiency in English would greatly enhance her ability to cross disciplinary borders and obtain nationally recognized educational credentials. On a global scale, such proficiency enables the materialization of a cosmopolitan imaginary of the global elite, whose lifestyle was marked by global footprints through leisure and business travel, professional affiliation with fortune 500 companies, and fulfillment of consumeristic aspirations (Dong & Blommaert, 2016). Yi had been studying for the chartered financial analyst (CFA) certificate, which is a globally-recognized, coveted professional credential. For Yi, the certificate "exudes prestige" if only for the fact that all available studying materials and exams were conducted in English.

Manifested here are various imaginary mobilities, including the imaginary of the global elite who travels around the globe and the positioning of the island as a global center for trade and technological innovation. Such imaginaries, premised on the island's ability to enable the movements of professionals, companies, and technologies, directly translates into positive recognition and valuation of Yi's multilingual repertories. Events such as the Bo'ao Forum and international trade shows help to construct a narrative that celebrates mobility as engendering regional progress and global growth. Such an imaginary worked at national, institutional, and personal levels to alert students to the importance of linguistic dexterity as well as the values of versatile professionals who not only participate in, but also propel the global traffic of people, commodities, and financial resources. However, missing from such imaginaries are profound ways in which global economic injustice reverberates, with regards to the different valuation of privileged languages such as English versus languages on the periphery, such as Indonesian.

Conclusion

Yi's multilingual repertoire is constantly valued and reevaluated in accordance with national development initiatives, regional economic structures, institutional policies, and personal aspirations. While our discussion seems to portray a top-down reverberation of economic incentives and political priorities, which seem to dictate how literacies and languages move, Yi has shown us the strategic ways in which multilinguals fashion fluid semiotic resources to specific ends (Lorimer Leonard, 2013). Literacy mobility, manifested in her attempt to move meaning across languages, is entangled with other forms of mobility at different scales, such as the daily movements between Chinese and Japanese culture through digitally mediated fandom spaces, physical movements at a local and transnational scales (e.g., organizing travel itinerary in accordance with the literacy footprints of celebrities or visiting local offices to gather documents), professional mobility (e.g., learning multiple languages in anticipation of studying or working in a global marketplace), and imaginary mobility (e.g., policy initiatives in motion to facilitate anticipated movements of people, technologies, and ideas). A view towards intersecting mobilities lends to an understanding of linguistic, cultural, and disciplinary border-crossing as an important dimension of her rhetorical repertoire.

Scale offers a way to observe the circulation of material, cultural, and semiotic resources across spaces and to capture the reconfiguration of such resources in developing multilingual repertoires. Foregrounding scale allows us to trace the flow of tropes, imaginaries, and trajectories of mobility across interconnected spaces, ultimately allowing us to understand the effects national, regional, and institutional structures have on what people can do and can become in them. Scale captures the horizontal distribution of linguistic resources and vertical, hierarchical ordering of those resources in various dimensions of Yi's literacy landscape. The coupling of scale's horizontal and vertical qualities allows us to examine the complex ways in which Yi's multilingualism is co-constituted across spaces when languages, norms, and strategies are differently valued and therefore dynamically reconfigured.

Although the portrait presented here seems to focus on the fluid manner in which life experiences, writing-related knowledge, and ideas for writing travel seamlessly across ever-loosening borders and boundaries, we are reminded of the fact that literacies and languages are differently valued, with relations of power rendering certain repertoires and literacies invisible and irrelevant (Lorimer Leonard, 2017). For instance, Yi's literacies, creatively honed in the writing extracurricular, rarely traveled into the academic sphere, where grades are the basis for awards, scholarships, and internships. Even as she

prepared her application for graduate schools in Japan, a TOEFL score was required. Her work as a student liaison was barely compensated in financial terms. Multilingual writers work with and against power-invested linguistic, cultural, and rhetorical differences embedded in social, political, and institutional structures. We argue that an understanding of the geographic, affective, and embodied crossings is not complete without attention to these moments of frictions—even as this attention makes difficult the necessary task of positioning personal aspirations within powerful hierarchical structures.

Glossary

Belt and Road Initiative: A global infrastructure development strategy adopted by the Chinese government in 2013 to invest in nearly 70 countries and international organizations. It is a centerpiece of Chinese leader Xi Jinping's foreign policy.

Double World-Class Discipline Designation: A tertiary education development initiative launched by the Chinese government in 2015 to construct world-class universities and first-class disciplines (Double First-Class Initiative) to adapt to changes in the educational environment at home and abroad. It aims to develop elite Chinese universities and world-class disciplines by 2050. It represents a new way of ranking Chinese universities, with impact for funding distribution.

Literacy mobility: The movements of meaning and ideas from one language, person, mode, rhetorical tradition, and cultural context to another.

Mobility: Physical, imaginary, and symbolic movement across linguistic, physical, political, economic, class, and virtual borders.

Scale: Semiotized space-time relationship, with historically formulated meanings and norms that can be mobilized. It can be used as a horizontal way of rendering spaces in hierarchical relationship to each other and in vertical way by differently valuing semiotic resources and tropes at different scales.

Semiotic Resources: An assemblage of resources or tools that people use when they communicate (such as speech, image, text, gesture, sign, gaze, facial expression, posture, objects and so on) that can be reconfigured in synergetic ways in fulfillment of communicative purposes.

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Helping Students in Higher Education to Improve Their Written Products: Effects of a Pedagogic Intervention Study Based on Metacognition and Sociocultural Perspective

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Abstract: The present research aims to test and to analyze the contributions of a specific pedagogical approach to teach academic writing based on metacognition and sociocultural dimension of writing. In particular, we consider the theoretical contributions from Brown (1987), Flavell (1979), and Schraw and Dennison (1994) about metacognition. Complementary to this bi-dimensional view, we base our research on a sociocognitive perspective by considering the theoretical developments of Zimmerman and Risemberg (1997) about three categories of the self-regulation processes of writing. We aim to put this psychological perspective in connection with a sociocultural perspective to writing, in particular the French field of study called "Littéracies Universitaires" (Delcambre & Lahanier-Reuter, 2012a) that analyzes how writing is taught and learned at university as part of specific disciplinary and social contexts. This field of study is similar to American Composition Studies, the main characteristic of which is the systematic teaching of writing skills at universities, but also the theorization of academic writing and an interdisciplinary and transversal approach to writing at university (Delcambre et al., 2012; Donahue, 2008).

Reflection

Our interest on teaching academic writing results from a more general question that have captured our attention since our doctoral studies (PhD, , 2007).[1]

1 Please read the opening statement for this collection, "Editing in US-Based Internation-

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Our central topics of research have been the metacognitive processes of writing, taking university students as the main focus. In this sense, we have focused our research works on writing in higher education by putting the emphasis on the individuals and their socio-cognitive processes that participate in writing. After having to develop our research from a descriptive and correlational perspective for understanding metacognition in writing, we decided to introduce a more applicative view among our research's interests. In the French context, the questions about the teaching methods for helping post-secondary students to integrate academic writing have started to mobilize certain researchers in the Litteracies Académiques area for the last 15 years. However, few research works about the teaching of academic writing were available in the French scientific literature. For the past 10 years, our research questions were not only about the principles and procedures for promoting the writing acculturation of learners in higher education but also about the development of a multidisciplinary approach. This latter aspect seems an essential component, knowing that several academic disciplines, such as literature, educational sciences, psychology, sociology, and language science, are interested in the characterization and the evolution of writing practices of university students. Also, we thought that multiple persons, teachers in the disciplines, experts on language, tutors, and academic advisors could participate to promote better learning of academic writing.

From this set of questions, in 2016, participating at the CCCC International Researchers Consortium constituted an ideal opportunity to amplify our experiences and knowledge by meeting people from other disciplines and research methodologies as well as other educational persons. We particularly appreciated having a more in-depth view of the writing center as well as the various modalities to support the learning of writing within and outside the academic disciplines in higher education. Several experiences of researchers who had constructed and conducted interventions in their own courses, and who had taken these experiences as a research object, captured our attention. The data and the analyses shared with the participants were extremely rich. We also found that the fact of having different categories of professionals provides benefits such as the comprehension of institutional dynamics that support all education programs.

Thanks to our participation at the CCCC International Researchers Consortium, we consolidated in our professional activities a certain interest in developing a complementary perspective by integrating a multidisciplinary view and actions with professionals other than researchers or

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al Publications: A Position Statement," before reading this chapter.

university teachers. From a research perspective, we developed further on this perspective by trying to make a connection between socio-cognitive and sociocultural views and by organizing scientific meetings about learning and teaching writing in higher education. From an applicative perspective, we experienced several modalities to support writing in our own courses, and we have reflected with other teacher colleagues on possibilities for interventions in different contexts. In relation to the complementary vision in working with other types of professionals, we appreciated the advantage of this collaboration during our three-year mission as a member of a center that supports pedagogy in higher education.

For these reasons, we consider the Writing International Exchange, as an international experience, to constitute an opening to other opportunities to do research and take educational action.

Institutional Context

Precisely, the Writing International Exchange allowed us to communicate about our own experience in teaching academic writing. This experience took place, following a collaborative perspective, in a specific learning and cultural context in France. The training program concerned students attending a university in southwest France. This public institution enrolls 24,000 students in different domains, such as Humanities, Linguistics, Arts, Management, Engineering, Health, and Technology. Each year, about 2,000 new students enroll. Similar to all French universities, this institution awards three degree levels: a Licence's degree that comprises the three first years, a Master's degree, integrating two years after the Licence's degree, and a Doctoral (Ph.D) degree. The main characteristic of the Licence's degree in French universities is specialization in a discipline domain and the transmission of knowledge that is basically theoretical.

Since 2013, this university has implemented a comprehensive program to promote students' academic success by developing two principal axes: teaching training, and research oriented to propose alternatives for aiding academic success.[2] This institutional program integrates a large-scale French government plan to reduce the academic failure of students enrolled in the first years of the Licence's degree. The present research is part of the institutional program following the specific goal to explore the students' writing difficulties and competencies and their relationship to academic success. In particular,

2 The program "Academic success" (PaRé) http://pare.univ-poitiers.fr/ of the University of Poitiers has been in place since 2013.

we examined the effectiveness of our writing training to enhance the writing performance of students who presented evident difficulties in producing academic written texts. Also, we analyze the links between the academic results and improvement in terms of academic writing.

Introduction

Research Questions

In light with our interest in experimenting with a means to help post-secondary students to improve their written productions, we considered precisely the following questions: To what extent does writing training based on metacognition contribute to improving the post-secondary students' written products in a given entry-level disciplinary course? Does participating in a writing support program improve the students' academic success? In particular, we tested the Self-regulated Writing Strategies Development (SRSD) principles developed by Steve Graham et al. (2005; Berry & Mason, 2012; MacArthur & Philippakos, 2013; MacArthur et al., 2015), given that, following the review of literature presented in the next section, this pedagogic method seems a pertinent option for analyzing the contributions of metacognition and self-regulation. We focused in on three education strategies engaged in the SRSD' perspective: the development of metacognitive knowledge, the direct teaching of strategies for self-regulating writing planning and revising processes, and the peer-tutoring. Complementary to this vision, we chose to integrate writing training into specific discipline content by connecting the program' aims with specific learning goals related to a disciplinary course. Therefore, we engaged a sociocultural perspective by taking into consideration a contextualized learning where the goals and norms of writing are established. A last particularity of the present research was to examine the effectiveness of the writing training to enhance the writing performance of students presenting difficulties in producing academic written texts.

Combining Perspectives to Teach Academic Writing

As mentioned in the preceding section, several theoretical perspectives constituted the foundations for the designing of the teaching. These perspectives correspond to delimited domains of research. According to Otto Kruse (2013), the perspectives on academic writing in European higher education follow three orientations. The first is the analysis of cognitive processes

based mainly on John Hayes and Linda Flower's contributions. The second is the study of discipline contexts and their effects on the development of writing practices in post-secondary education. This tendency illustrates the Writing in the Disciplines perspective and the influence of Composition studies. The third is the exploration of the writing practices in their institutional context, which corresponds to the Academic litteracies domain. In this article, we rely on Littéracies universitaires, a French-speaking research domain that communicates with Composition studies and Academic litteracies (Delcambre, 2018; Delcambre et al., 2012). Littéracies universitaires share with these frameworks developed in the English-speaking context issues concerning discipline contexts and the impact of the types of texts on students' writing practices in higher education (HE). From Littéracies universitaires and a sociocognitive view, the present research aimed to implement a writing training program based on both metacognition and contextual factors in order to help post-secondary students to improve their academic written productions.

Littéracies Universitaires

Littéracies universitaires emerged in the French-language context 20 years ago looking to explore an essential aspect: the sociocultural perspective of writing (Delcambre, 2018; Delcambre & Lahanier-Reuter, 2010). Following Isabelle Delcambre and Dominique Lahanier-Reuter (2012a), Littéracies universitaires concern the study of reading and writing practices within their cultural contexts. Among the specific concerns addressed by this orientation, scholars examine the lifelong nature of academic writing learning through all levels of post-secondary education, the cultural traditions and their associated norms that shape students' social and academic integration, individuals' perceptions (those of teachers and students) about writing, and the particularities of the types of texts with regard to the discipline contexts. The present study searched to contribute to the Litteracies universitaires development by exploring three essential sets of questions that have interested this field of research.

First of all, from the beginning of this French-speaking domain a crucial concern has been to understand the writing difficulties of students at the post-secondary level. Instead of considering students' obstacles in writing as a lack of skills, Littéracies universitaires view the difficulties as part of the integration processes that students display while learning the diverse writing practices in HE (Reuter, 1998). The various forms, objectives, and intentions that characterize written production across the education levels

and disciplines constitute both fractures and improvements (Delcambre et al., 2012). In this regard, the learning of academic writing corresponds to a long-term and gradual process in which the specific types of texts, their characteristics, and the particular manner in which to express and produce knowledge within the disciplines shape students' writing practices (Delcambre & Donahue, 2011). Coherent with this perspective, the present study focused on students presenting some difficulties in academic writing. Precisely, the training program that we performed considered the explicit teaching of a specific genre of text that students practice into their disciplinary courses. We supposed that facilitating this learning helps students to face their difficulties in academic writing.

The second set of research questions, which complements the previous set, concerns teachers' perspectives. To analyze writing practices within and across disciplines, Littéracies universitaires explore teachers' conceptions and their teaching and writing assessment practices. In this issue, the modalities for teaching the norms of the texts specific to the disciplines and the assessment processes for students' writing abilities are part of the questions explored from the teachers' viewpoint. In particular, some researchers (Delcambre & Lahanier-Reuter, 2013; Escorcia, 2015) described teachers' conceptions of writing and their self-reported strategies for promoting students' writing appropriation. These studies revealed that teachers associate certain norms more frequently with academic writing, and that the writing teaching profiles are different in regard to the types of texts and the courses taught (Delcambre & Lahanier-Reuter, 2013; Escorcia & Moreno, 2019). With the present research, we aimed to incorporate the teachers' visions in the design of the training program via a collaborative approach.

The last collection of research questions that interest Littéracies universitaires concerns a praxeological prospect—that is a less theoretical perspective and more education action-centered perspective – that constitutes a certain evolution in the domain. As highlighted by Delcambre and Lahanier-Reuter (2010), the question relative to how to teach academic writing was not a priority for the sources of Littéracies universitaires, although an essential hypothesis within this domain has considered that writing could be an explicit object of teaching in HE (Delcambre & Lahanier-Reuter, 2012b; Reuter, 1998). For the past fifteen years, several researchers analyzed the effects of educational programs that consider, to different degrees, the writing competences identified by Michel Dabène (1991): linguistic and socio-pragmatic knowledge, communicative and affective dimensions, writers' perceptions or attitudes, and technical and procedural knowledge. Three main modalities have been developed through

these educational programs. First, some of these latter target the acculturation of students to academic writing by considering the heuristic dimension of writing and the characteristics of academic texts (Brunel & Rinck, 2016; Frier, 2016; Gettliffe, 2018; Lafont-Terranova et al., 2017). These programs focus on students' perceptions and attitudes. A second modality relies on reflection as an essential means for learning academic writing practices, where the production of texts other than "classical" formats, such as the portfolio or the "writing reminder" (souvenir d'écriture) guides the teaching of writing practices (Bibauw, 2010; Delcambre, 2004). Finally, a third group of education programs concentrates on training for improving students' linguistic skills (Lafontaine et al., 2015; Laurent, 2015). From these modalities, mainly those of the first and second group of programs, there is a consensus: the disciplines and the various forms and intentions of academic written texts play a crucial role in learning academic writing. It appears that, for facilitating the learning of academic writing, the central goal is to encourage writers' awareness related to the type of text and writers' attitudes to writing. Coherent with this tendency, we targeted the individuals' reflection as the central support for teaching academic writing and we adopted as main pedagogic means the promoting of metacognitive processes.

With the three sets of questions (i.e., how do students learn academic writing, and what do they find difficult during this process? How do teachers view the particularities of academic writing? What principles can guide the explicit teaching of writing in post-secondary education?), scholars participating in the Littéracies universitaires domain have shown that learning and teaching of academic writing interact with cultural context where the students' writing practices take place. The study we conducted aimed to complement this sociocultural perspective through the promotion of context-based learning of writing and metacognition.

Teaching of Writing Based on Metacognition

Metacognition is considered as an essential variable to learn writing. Individuals need to develop metacognitive skills in order to manage different constraints when they produce written texts in specific contexts. Metacognition contributes to the writers' awareness, this is why encouraging the development of the metacognitive skills seems necessary to learn academic writing.

In regard to the initial definitions proposed by Flavell (1979), Brown (1987), and Schraw and Dennison (1994) from cognitive psychology, metacognition refers to knowledge and strategies that allow individuals

to control their cognitive functioning. In the context of writing, metacognition concerns mainly metacognitive knowledge, that is, the writer's knowledge about the written task (the characteristics of the text, the reader's expectations, etc.), about their own writing strategies, and the adequacy of writing methods for the task (Englert et al., 1988; Raphael et al., 1989). When the term metacognition appears in the education field, it is frequently associated with self-regulated learning, a close concept used to represent the learner's capacity for self-monitoring his or her learning processes. Daniel L. Dinsmore et al. (2008) observed that metacognition and self-regulation refer to similar processes, but self-regulation denotes a more socio-cognitive framework that includes, in addition to knowledge and regulation of cognitive strategies, motivational and emotional aspects. In this case, the learning context plays a dominant role through the social interactions and the specific conditions (materials, task requirements, etc.) that enable individuals to control their cognition, motivations, and behaviors during learning.

Zimmerman & Risemberg (1997) defined writing self-regulation process as being beliefs, attitudes, and actions that writers engage in to attain their objectives during writing. According to these researchers, writers can deploy three forms of self-regulation: covert self-regulation, when the individual controls his or her cognition or emotions during writing, for example, by setting goals or by employing techniques for decreasing the stress associated with a specific writing activity; behavioral self-regulation, which is writers' strategies for self-monitoring the course of the activity when writing; and environmental self-regulation, which is when writers manage writing context constraints, material conditions, and external resources (pairs, guides, or supports) where the production takes place. Researchers (Carey et al., 1989; Harris et al., 2002; Zimmerman & Kitsantas, 1999, 2002) have shown that strategies such as goal setting and self-monitoring contribute to improve the quality of written texts. In addition, metacognitive knowledge related to writing in HE is key to producing good texts (Hacker et al., 2009; Tian et al., 2018). In the same manner, other researchers (Castelló et al., 2009; Colognesi & Nieuwenhoven, 2016; Escorcia & Fenouillet, 2011; Escorcia & Gimenes, 2019; Karlen, 2017) have emphasized the positive role of self-regulation strategies and metacognitive knowledge in planning and revising processes.

Furthermore, in the European French-speaking context, scholars have considered metacognition as a variable strongly associated with academic success in HE (De Clercq et al., 2013; Dupont et al., 2015; Romainville, 1993). These researchers have shown that the university students' capacity to

become aware of their method and difficulties in learning, and their skills in using this knowledge to manage their learning development, contribute to the students' success. Beyond the HE context, the analysis of metacognitive processes continues to mobilize scholars in the Education domain, as evident in recent publications on self-regulation that consider cognitive and motivational dimensions and the function of the learning context (Berger & Büchel, 2013; Cosnefroy, 2011). Some of these research works described the effects of teaching programs based on metacognition applied in different domains of learning in primary and secondary schools. On this foundation, the training program we displayed contemplated both the explicit teaching of metacognitive knowledge and strategies for self-regulating writing, and the situated learning of academic writing.

Writing training based on the cognitive processes: What characteristics in HE?

Given that our contribution focused on the metacognitive processes related to writing, we observed the general principles of the process writing approach (PWA) as identified by Graham and Karin Sandmel (2011). This approach, mainly experienced with young pupils and adolescents, considers the cognitive processes of writing (e.g., planning, transcription, revising) involved in situated writing activities guided by explicit goals. Metacognitive reflection, peer tutoring, and personalized learning play a central role. How do writing training programs in HE implement these characteristics? To answer this question, and knowing that few French research works about this subject have been published, we conducted a state of art review, from English-language literature, focused on writing training programs developed in post-secondary institutions. We identified several studies published between 2005 and 2020. In Education and Psychology databases (ERIC, PsychArticles, and PsychInfo), we found 18 research works presenting the results of writing training programs based on writing processes. This set of studies represent a variety of cultural contexts given that the programs took place in North-American countries (44%), Asian context (39%) and European region (17%). The characteristics of the studies found are presented in Table 8.1 organized by the criterion proposed by Graham and Sandmel (2011) for defining the PWA. Next, we analyze key traits of the training programs displayed in HE that we identified through the state of art. For this analysis, we engaged the follow criteria: a) the place, nature, and modalities for supporting the reflection; b) the location of the sociocultural aspects; and c) the effects of the programs.

Table 8.1. Characteristics of the Writing Training Based on Processes

Criteria	Number of Studies	%
Writing processes		
Planning	1	6
Revising	7	39
Planning and revising	8	44
Planning, translation, and revising	2	11
Writing in situated context		
Non	2	11
Within a specific disciplinary course	6	33
As part of a writing academic training	9	50
Not specified	1	6
Means for the reflection on the writing strategies*		
Non	4	14
Personal journal	6	21
Peer collaboration	12	41
Self-evaluation (questionnaire, interviews)	4	14
Checklist of strategies	3	10
Peer to peer learning		
Yes	12	67
Non	6	33
Type of texts touch*	4	13
Argumentative	5	16
Persuasive	5	16
Narrative	4	13
Literature review, scientific article	3	9
Technical rapport	3	9
Others (essay, procedural or informative text, summaries)	4	13
Not specified	4	13
Sustain personalized		
Yes	4	22
No	14	78
Improvement of the writing performance (effects)		
Yes	9	50
No	5	28
Not specified	4	22

Note: Some studies integrated several strategies or type of texts

Note: The measurement of each criterion ranges from 1 to 4; the global score results from the addition of note from the four criteria; the linguistic errors indicates the number of spelling and grammar mistakes.

Concerning the first topic, the majority of the studies (86%) present training programs that aimed to encourage writers to reflect. Consequently, awareness of writing strategies constitutes a central element. In general, the programs promote the use of specified methods for planning or revising, but only some programs guide learners precisely and directly to display self-regulation strategies. This is the case of researchers who follow the Self-regulated Writing Strategies Development (SRSD) principles developed by Graham et al. (2005). In addition, the studies tested several intervention approaches; the most common was peer tutoring during revising and planning (Covill, 2010; Higgins et al., 1992; Liang & Tsai, 2010; McGrath et al., 2011; McGroarty & Zhu, 1997; Villamil, 1998; Yang, 2010). Other methods were the personal journal to keep track of and reflect on writing development and personalized support delivered by the trainer. The latter was a teaching practice weakly represented in the programs, although from the PWA perspective, it can allow closer monitoring of writing students' progress. Only some researchers (Berry & Mason, 2012; MacArthur & Philippakos, 2013; MacArthur et al., 2015; Negretti, 2012) based their program on this practice.

Relative to the connection between programs that teach writing in a disciplinary context, 50% of the programs took place within methodology courses focused on writing support. For example, Raffaella Negretti (2012) integrated her program in a course on written communication, and Charles A. MacArthur and Zoi A. Philippakos (2013) proposed an independent writing support course. Other programs were, in contrast, associated with learning specific discipline content that the students had to express or to transform through their written production. Thus, Pietro Boscolo et al. (2007), Amy E. Covill (2010), and April L. McGrath et al. (2011) conducted experimentation in psychology courses, and Jyh-Chong Liang and Chin-Chung Tsai (2010) displayed their training in a biology course. However, although certain programs did not explicitly connect to learning within disciplines, the researchers aimed to establish links with learning goals related to the curriculum.

In the matter of the effects of the devices on writing performance, most of the researchers observed that the quality of the students' written text improved after the training. Thus, awareness of writing combined with encouragement to employ planning and revising processes at specific moments of writing helped improve the products, although the measurement of the written text quality varied among the studies. For example, MacGrath et al. (2011) assessed characteristics such as the content, the organization, and the writing' style. On their part, MacArthur et al. (2015) rate the overall quality of the texts based on criteria for content, organization, word choice, sentence fluency, and errors in grammar.

In summary, the writing programs experimented in HE following the writing processes' perspective seem concentrated on the development of metacognitive knowledge through different means to encourage writers to reflect on their writing. However, most programs did not prioritize direct training of self-regulation strategies. In addition, these programs were not very personalized. However, many of them adopted the peer-tutoring thus reflecting a clear sociocognitive perspective. Finally, regarding the dimension of the training programs, only a part of these programs directly attached their content to limited discipline contexts, showing that teaching writing within a specific discipline culture was not a priority for the experimental training within these programs based on writing processes.

After this review, we note that, similar to the reviewed training programs displayed into the Littéracies universitaires domain, the training based on writing processes in HE take the reflective dimension of writing as a central variable. However, the latter programs teach cognitive strategies directly and search to develop the metacognitive knowledge.

The Study

In this section, we will describe the main characteristics of the study, first of all by presenting the context where the training program took place. Precisely, this context was a French university, and our method was a collaborative perspective looking as its main aim to help students in the improvement of their writing productions and texts.

Method and Context of the Research

Through interventional study, we implemented a flexible and collaborative research process both for selecting the participants and for designing the writing program.

The writing training involved students attending a university in southwest France; the institutional context we describe here for this study is the one described above at the start of this chapter ("Institutional Context"). As noted there, several categories of higher education institutions exist in France (Office National d'Information sur les Enseignements et les Professions, ONISEP, 2022): the universities (publics and privates institutions), the Grandes écoles, the Specialized Schools, and the Lycées (that are secondary education institutions that propose vocational and technical post-secondary diplomas). The public universities host the majority of French students (Annoot et al. 2019) as consequence of the massive arrival of first-year students, a phenomenon that, as

note Asma Benhenda and Camille Dufour (2015), characterizes the evolution of the French higher education since the mid-1990s. The French universities are essentially multidisciplinary, each institution providing four typical domains: Arts, Literature and Language; Law and Management; Human and social sciences; and Technologies and Health sciences. Concerning the Grandes Écoles, they provide in specific domains such as Engineering, Management, Arts and Architecture or Journalism. Finally, the Specialized Schools comprise other domains as social service assistant, specialized educator, nursing, among others.

The public university where we displayed the research study counts 24,000 students. Each year, about 2,000 new students enroll. As all French public universities, this institution awards three-degree levels: the Licence's degree that comprises the three first years, the Master's degree, integrating two years after the Licence's degree, and the Doctoral degree (Ph.D). The main characteristic of the Licence's degree in French universities is specialization in a discipline domain and the transmission of knowledge, basically theoretical.

Since 2013 to 2020, this university implemented a comprehensive program to promote students' academic success by developing two principal axes: teaching training, and research oriented to propose alternatives for aiding academic success. This institutional program integrates a large-scale French government plan to reduce the academic failure of students enrolled in the first years of the Licence degree. The present research was part of the aforementioned institutional program, following a specific goal to explore the students' writing difficulties and competencies and their relationship to academic success. An academic track had been identified by the staff of the aforementioned institutional program as including students with significant writing difficulties: the Licence in Management and Economy (ME). Thus, we decided to focus on this specific disciplinary program.

Following a collaborative process, we contacted the pedagogical team responsible for this academic program in order to know more precisely the students' writing practices and difficulties. Several meetings with the team put in evidence some issues. From the pedagogical teams' view, the students in ME do not possess basic skills necessary to write clear and organized texts. The students' reading ability makes it hard for them to comprehend the complex texts specific to the disciplines of ME. For explaining these difficulties, the pedagogic staff considered several factors. First, a considerable number of foreign students, whose mother tongue is not French, enroll in the ME track. Coupled with weak competence in linguistics (grammar, spelling), the team perceived some students' problems in learning academic writing (i.e., norms, formats, etc.). Also, the educational background of the students was considered as very heterogeneous by the team. Note that in the French education system

there are three tracks for secondary school education which provide an important degree of specialization in terms of knowledge and skills acquired at the end of the high school.[3] The pedagogical team observed an increase in the numbers of students following the "professional" track where pupils learn little content related to economics and social sciences. Thus, the pedagogical team perceived these students are less prepared for the courses in the ME program.

After the meetings with the pedagogical team of the ME Licence, we designed the training program with the objective to specifically target the students' writing difficulties as perceived by the pedagogical team. From the principles of the teaching based on metacognition (see preceding section), we adapted the education strategies in response to the needs and the aims of a specific course integrating the ME Licence degree. Here also, we displayed a collaborative process by associating the teacher responsible of the course in order to integrate the specific disciplinary content and her expectations relative to the students' written productions.

Participants

The participants were part of the cohort enrolled in ME Licence in the year 2015–2016 which was constituted by 150 students. With the teacher responsible of the specific course for which we provided the writing training, we focused on a group integrating 26 students who had revealed writing difficulties since the start of the university year. Then, we invited this reduced group to participate in the support program. 10 students agreed.

The participants' average age was 19 (SD 1.55). They were 5 men and 5 women who followed different tracks during their secondary education. All the participants obtained their secondary diploma in France. Despite that the ME program host a large number of student practicing French as second language, only one student with this characteristic participated in the writing course. Table 8.2 shows that some students obtained a professional baccalauréat. This is a specialization of the French high school diploma which progressively trains the pupils for working in specific area of expertise. After the 9th Grade, the professional baccalauréat takes place over three years enabling the pupils to exercise a job or to integrate a post-secondary institution. Other participants received a general baccalauréat with an Economics and Social Sciences orientation. As with the professional baccalauréat, this is a track that pupils choose after the 9th Grade. The main aim of the general baccalauréat is to prepare

3 There are three main types of French high-school diplomas: general diploma (with three possible emphases: Literary; Economics and Social Science; and Scientific), technologic, and professional.

student for accessing post-secondary institutions like the public universities. Opposite to the professional baccalauréat, this kind of diploma does not allow to practice a specific profession. The Economics and Social Sciences path constitutes one among three orientation paths of general diploma, the others being Literary path and Scientific path. Since 2019 these orientations were replaced by 13 domains of specialization that students could choose, for example Arts, Humanities and philosophy, biology, engineering, mathematics, etc.

Research Procedure

The procedure consisted of four phases (Figure 8.1). First, we made an initial measurement of the writing performances in order to delimitate the skills and writing difficulties of participants. This information was helpful to precisely adjust the training accordingly. Second phase, we constituted the sample and we delimited the characteristics of the participants in terms of writing abilities. Third time, we conducted the education program following specific steps. Finally, we assessed the students' writing performances with the intention to perceive the effects of the training program on the improvement of the students' written products. We will describe precisely these four phases.

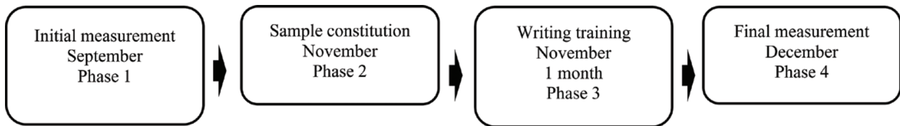

Figure 8-1. Four phases of the research process

First Phase: Initial Measurement of the Writing Performance (IM)

With the objective to obtain a measure of the students' writing qualities and weakness before the education program, we decided to capture this information at the beginning of the academic year. We asked all the students enrolled in the MA Licence degree program (2015–2016) to produce a written text respecting several requirements. This production took place at the first week of the academic year (September), and the students wrote individually during a one-hour group session. The participants produced a summary of a source text that we provided them, to answer a specific question. We chose the writing assignment and the type of text with the teacher for the course to connect the writing training to the specificities (content, general goals, written text specifics) of the discipline teaching. We followed two criteria: the theme of the written production had to relate to the content of the course, and the subject should be easy for the first-year students (see Appendices). We communicated to students the writing assignment and the source text

in a written document that explained the task requirements: to write 10 to 15 lines, to construct sentences without abbreviations, to write legibly, and to make appropriate use of spelling rules. We considered these standards as minimum and easily understandable by students who have just graduated from high school. No other elaborated assessment criteria based on complex textual dimensions of written texts were then communicated, to avoid to create feeling of insecurity or incompetence in these novice students.

For assessing the students' written productions, we elaborated an instrument based on criteria used by the teacher for judging the characteristics of the summary texts produced by her students. Our aim was to reflect the demands and norms that the students would have to respect within that course. The criteria were related to the text's structure, coherence (i.e., write clear paragraphs and transitions between them), the relevance of the answer to the content of the source text, and syntax. Two external judges (psychology master's degree students) assessed the texts by using the assessment instrument we constructed. On this data, we were able to make a diagnosis of the participants' written text once they agreed to participate in training (second phase).

Second Phase: Sample Constitution and Delimiting of the Participants' Writing Abilities

Here, we observed the initial differences between the students who agreed to participate at the training. The description of these disparities was an essential point to identify the students' needs. Following the importance assigned to personalization in self-regulated learning (Paris & Paris, 2001), and considering students' characteristics related to their diverse education backgrounds (Table 8.2), we conducted a qualitative analysis by identifying subgroups of participants. Four subgroups appeared.

The first subgroup included the four students who received the lowest global scores phase at T1 (Table 8.3). They differed considerably in terms of the assessment criteria, but three of these students obtained very low results concerning mainly Coherence and Syntax. The second subgroup included two participants. Their productions were similar concerning the Coherence and they obtained the lowest result on this point. The third subgroup contained two participants whose results were very similar on Relevance and Author, but quite distant on Coherence and Syntax. Their highest scores at T1 were for the two first criteria. Finally, the fourth group included two participants with the highest scores for all criteria. Their strongest performances concerned Relevance. After identifying these particularities, we engaged some adaptations for a more personalized program while respecting the general principles presented at the next section.

Table 8.2. Sample Characteristics

Participant	Age	Sex	High-school diploma
P1	19	M	Professional
P2	20	F	Professional
P3	21	M	Literary
P4	17	F	Economic and Social
P5	18	M	Economic and Social
P6	19	M	Technology
P7	22	F	Economic and Social
P8	19	F	Professional
P9	18	F	Technology
P10	21	M	Economic and Social

Table 8.3. Writing Performances

	Author		Relevance		Coherence		Syntax		Global score		Linguistic errors	
	IM	TT	IM	TT	IM	TT	IM	TT2	IM	TT	IM	TT2
Subgroup 1									8	10.2		
P2	3	3	1	2	1	2	1	2			8	4
P10	3	3	2	3	2	2	2	3			2	2
P6	3	3	3	3	1	2	2	3			8	4
P9	3	3	3	3	1	2	1	2			7	7
Subgroup 2									12	13.5		
P8	3	2	2	3	2	3	3	4			5	0
P7	4	4	4	4	2	3	4	4			8	0
Subgroup 3									12	14		
P1	3	3	3	4	4	4	4	4			4	2
P5	3	3	3	4	2	3	2	3			5	5
Subgroup 4									14,5	14.5		
P3	4	4	4	3	3	4	4	4			2	2
P4	3	3	4	4	4	4	3	3			1	2

Note: the measurement of each criterion range from 1 to 4; the global score results from the addition of note from the four criteria; the linguistic errors indicates the number of spelling and grammar mistakes.

Third Phase: Deployment of the Writing Training Program

The training started in November, 3 weeks after teacher had begun its disciplinary course. The program comprised 6 hours distributed in 4 sessions of 90 minutes each, and the program lasted for 1 month. Figure 8.2 shows the training stages, as well as the number of sessions, and the hours dedicated to each time.

As we mentioned above, the writing training program followed the SRSD principles proposed by Graham et al. (2005) that means: acquisition of metacognitive knowledge about writing, improvement in self-regulation skills through explicit teaching, and peer assessment.

Figure 8.2. Stages of the writing training.

A first stage aimed to promote the acquisition of metacognitive knowledge about the kind of text. For about 30 minutes, the trainer and students discussed the characteristics of the summary, readers' expectations, and the structure of this type of text regarding teachers' demands (Stage 1). Next, the explicit teaching phase focused on directly instructing students to practice self-regulation strategies. In particular, they learned planning strategy consisting of identifying key questions (models of questions) that would be useful for reading texts selectively and monitoring the (re)reading of the source texts. Then, with the participation of the students, the trainer constructed a checklist containing the key questions that writers could employ during note-taking (Stage 2). Subsequently, the participants practiced the planning strategies when they wrote a summary individually (Stage 3). The central aim during this time was to acquire certain automatism in exercising self-regulation strategies. The students were invited to integrate the explicit procedural knowledge about writing summaries and the planning strategies (i.e., reading and selecting ideas) that they learned at the previous step. Finally, the trainer led the participants to peer assessments of the texts produced in stage 3. Based on the key questions and the assessment criteria, the students assessed their partners' texts before rewriting their own texts (Stage 4).

From these general principles, we integrated some specificities in relation to the students' needs we identified during second phase of the research. The adaptation of the training program in order to provide a personalized support constitutes a component of the writing teaching based on process and self-regulation (Paris & Paris, 2001). However, we remarked that most of the studies

we reviewed having experimented training writing in HE did not emphasize this element. In order to fill this gap, we decided to emphasize personalization by incorporating, notably during phase 3, complementary resources targeting the improvement of linguistics and textual aspects. Thus, concerning subgroup 1, despite their diversity in terms of writing difficulties, we targeted improvement of Syntax (i.e., to construct clear sentences that contain the basic elements, that is, subject, verb, and complement) and Coherence, but also Content relevance (in the case of P2 and P10). For the subgroup 2, given that their difficulties touched mainly Coherence, we supported these students by focusing on their use of connector words to clarify the links between the parts of their texts. We insisted the students reread their own texts. Furthermore, the differentiated support provided for the members of subgroup 3 aimed to increase the Content relevance, and P5 received specific help on Coherence and Syntax. Finally, for the subgroup 4 we supported P3 for improvement in Coherence and P11 the syntax.

Fourth Phase: Final Measurement of the Writing Performance (FM)

We collected a final measurement of writing, during a collective session, 4 weeks after the training program. However, some participants were absent at this time.

Data Analysis

As the aim of the research was to observe the contribution of writing training to increasing the students' writing performance, we first aimed to determine the improvement between the written texts produced at the beginning (IM) and after the training (FM). This result will concern the students having participated at first and fourth phases (n= 6). With this data, we conducted a global analysis of writing progressions. Then, complementary to this comparison, we checked the differences between the initial written texts (IM) and the final version of the texts produced during the training (TT; see the third stage of the training). This analysis will concern all participants in training. Here, we conducted a more qualitative and detailed vision of the student's progression. Also, we considered the evolutions relative to the linguistic errors.

For determining the writing performance, we calculated a total score by adding the points awarded for each criterion, which were rated from 1 to 4. The writing progression corresponds to the distance (number of points) between the initial measurement and the final assessment.

In addition to the writing performances, we analyzed the improvement of the students' academic success. This assessment corresponded to the grades given by the teacher responsible of the disciplinary course. This grade seemed to us a relevant measure considering the contextualized nature of the present research. Knowing that the problems related to academic success were at the

basis of the research program that mobilized our support program, we aimed to establish to what extent the participants progressed in terms of their acquisition of discipline knowledge in the specific course. We considered the students' academic results just before the writing training and at the end of the semester.

Results

After having presented the method concerns of the research, we will describe the key results in regard of the aim that consisted mainly to study the contributions of the metacognition and sociocultural perspective to the students' academic writing performances. First, we will explore how the quality of the students' written texts evolve from the beginning to the end of the training program. Second, we will consider the progress concerning the students' academic success.

The Evolutions of Writing Performances

Comparing IM and FM: A Global View of Evolutions

Figure 8.3 presents the results from six participants having produced texts in first and fourth phase of the research. The majority of these students (4 over 6) increased their writing performances. In fact, they obtained 2 points of progression on average. Note however that two students decreased their performances. Figure 8.4 indicates the progression of writing performances in function of the criteria. Concerning Relevance and Syntax, 4 students on 6 improved their performances. In contrast, there was a smaller number of participants that progressed relative to Coherence and Author (only 1 student).

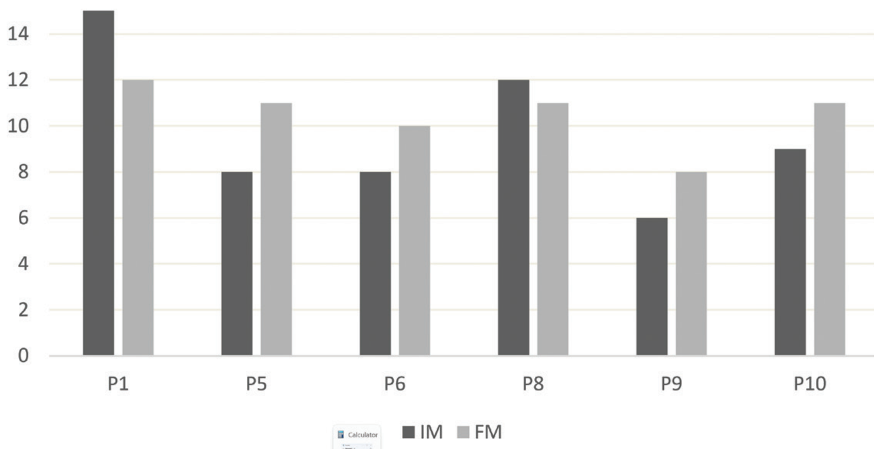

Figure 8.3. Writing performances from initial measurement (IM) to final measurement (FM).

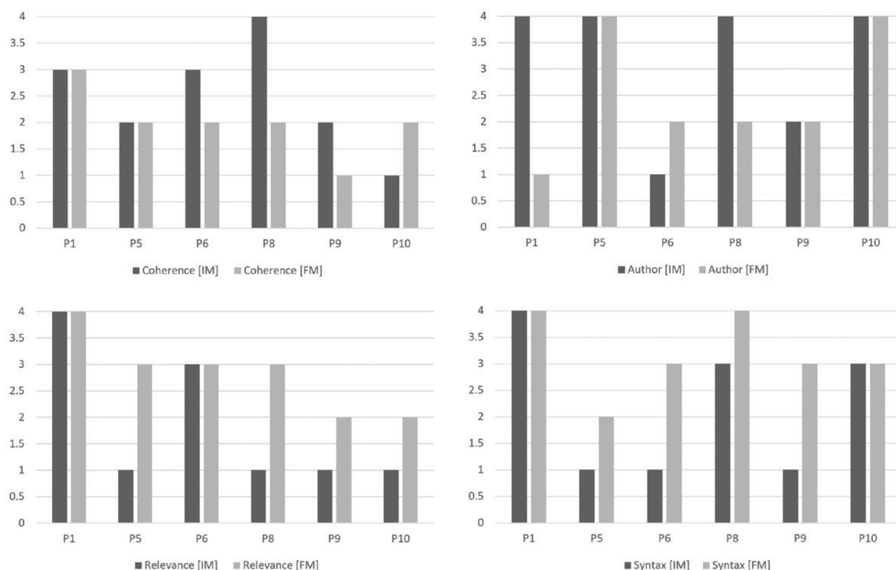

Figure 8.4. Writing performances from initial measurement (IM) to final measurement (FM) in function of criteria.

Comparing IM and TT: A Detailed Vision of Evolutions

Figure 8.5 presents the results of IM and TT by comparing each subgroup. Complementary to this presentation, Figure 8.6 shows the gap between the two measurements in terms of the points (increase or reduction).

Subgroup 1

Considering results for this subgroup, we found improvement of their writing performances mainly in Syntax, Coherence and Relevance (Figure 8.5), the progression having been respectively 1,17, 0,75 and 0,42 points (Figure 8.6). But when we observed in detail the participants' progressions by participants some variabilities appeared (Table 8.3).

In particular, the assessment of P2's writing performances showed that her main improvements concerned Relevance, Syntax and Coherence criteria, which were extremely low scored in the T1. Globally, P2 was able to formulate with her own words the ideas extracted from the reading source text. It was however difficult for her to organize ideas and to put in evidence through writing the key content in order to answer the question. It was also complicated for her to construct good sentences. She was advised to polish her sentences, to select the most important ideas and to apply adequate

connecting words. The number of linguistic mistakes they made decreased by half (Table 8.3) presenting the most remarkable progression of the sub-group 1 on this concern.

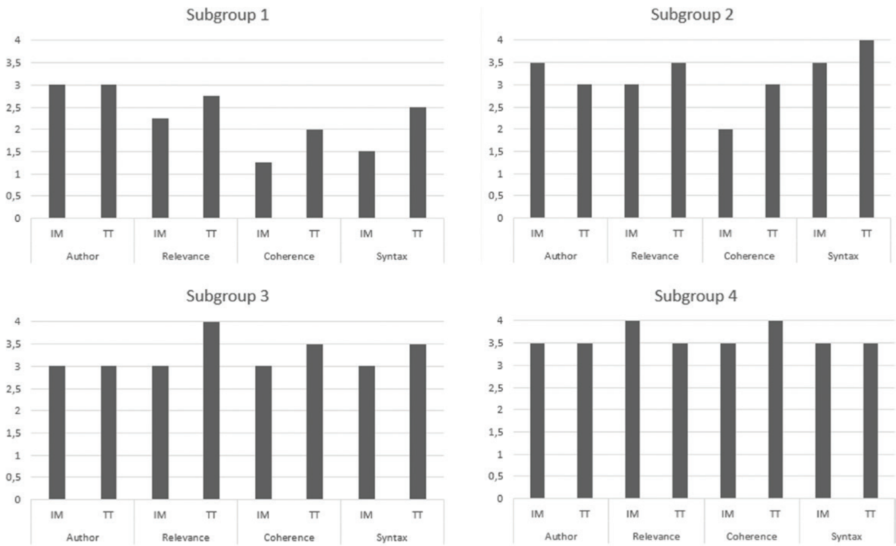

Figure 8.5. Improvement of writing performances of the sub-groups. Detailed vision in function of the subgroups/criteria.

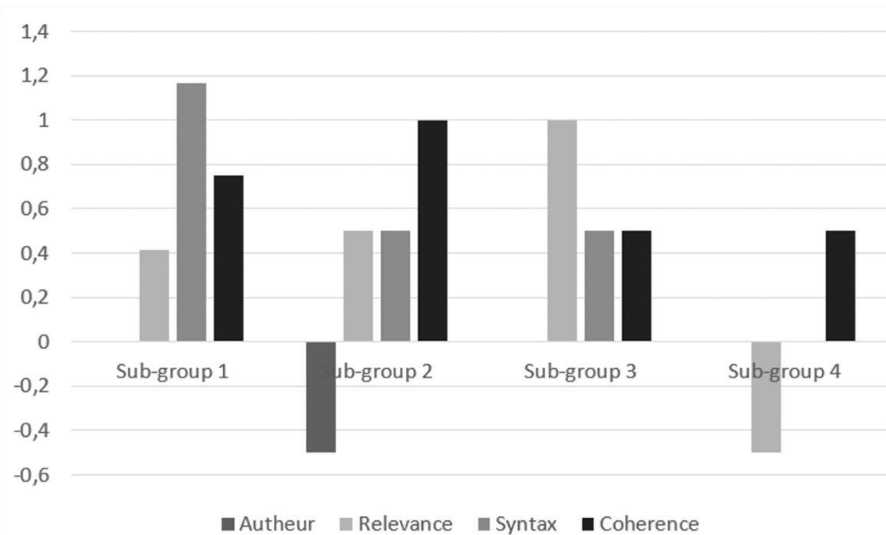

Figure 8.6. Points of progression of sub-group writing performances.

P10 presented progression regarding Relevance and Syntax from T1 to T2. She did not present major linguistic difficulties (Table 8.3) and she could construct clear sentences albeit these presented some syntax errors in T1. She was able to understand the source text's content but, in her first text, she showed few skills to select key elements from the source texts. The individualized feedbacks addressed to P10 searched to promote the connection between words and sentences and to better target the central ideas from the texts. However, the scores concerning Author and Coherence did not move.

P6 displayed improvements in Coherence and Syntax criteria. The individualized feedback aimed to help him to polish his sentences construction (clarity and correct syntax) and connection words. The training also supported his skill for organizing ideas in relation to the task requirements. At T2, P6 was able to construct more consistent texts, to elaborate more correct sentences, and to synthetize essential content. But Relevance and Author did not improve. P6 progressed in a remarkable measure on linguistic aspects by decreasing the number of errors in half.

Finally, P9 presented contrasted writing performances regarding the criteria given that his results did not move regarding Author and Relevance, but they improved concerning Coherence and Syntax.

Subgroup 2

These participants improved on Relevance, Syntax, and especially on Coherence (Figure 8.5), presenting the highest measure of progression on Coherence.

In particular, the texts produced by P8 presented evolutions concerning Relevance, Syntax and Coherence (Table 8.3). She was supported by the course in improving her sentences (clarity, use of adapted vocabulary and syntax) and choosing consistent connecting words. But, P8 decreased her results concerning Author.

Concerning P7, his writing performance did not move a lot between T1 and T2, however the scores obtained at the first written text revealed already high scores concerning Author and Syntax. He improved Coherence. Indeed, the individualized feedback insisted on the necessity to polish the connection between the sentences and to take into consideration all the key elements asked in the question.

The both participants did not present linguistic errors at final assessment when they had presented a certain number of these at initial assessment.

Subgroup 3

This subgroup improved notably in Relevance, Coherence and Syntax

(Figure 8.5) but the highest progression were obtained on the first criteria (Figure 8.6). P1 and P5 presented a moderate-high writing performance at T1. Precisely, that they wrote with a relative facility and that probably their writing performances would be appropriate from the beginning of writing training. However, a progression was observed related with Relevance in the case of P1 (Table 8.3). The individualized feedback aimed to teach him the necessity to be more precise during the selection of ideas to write, by suppressing not essential content, and to take into consideration the rhetorical aims of text.

Otherwise, the P5's writing performances were different. His overall writing performance was lowest than that of P1, specifically with concerns to Syntax, Coherence and Relevance. P5 put attention in following the strategies learnt and did not hesitate to ask trainer about specifics difficulties or hesitations. He progressed on several aspects (Relevance, Coherence and Syntax). The scores relative to linguistic mistakes did not move.

Subgroup 4

Finally, the subgroup 4 progressed on coherence solely (Figure 8.5).

P3 and P4 showed the highest writing performances at first assessment. We observed that their results remained high during the writing training. In particular, P4 did not improve on any criterium. The individualized feedback aimed to help P10 for helping him in improving syntax and reformulating. On the other hand, P3 improved on Coherence. During the individualized feedbacks the trainer promoted the importance of polishing the coherence. However, the final written text (T2) presented a little decrease on Relevance aspects.

Improvement in Academic Success and Link between Writing and Academic Performances

Figure 8.7 shows the participants' academic and writing performances. The academic success was compared from the assessments conducted by the teacher during the first weeks of the semester and the final average grade at the end of the semester. The mean score at the beginning was 4,9 (SD= 2,9) and that of the final was 6,9 (SD=3,8), their difference was significant (p= 0,00). Figure 8.7 shows that all students progressed in terms of grades, but this improvement was more visible in subgroup 4 relative to subgroups 1 and 2. In contrast, subgroup 4 showed the least improvement in the quality of the written production at the end of the writing training.

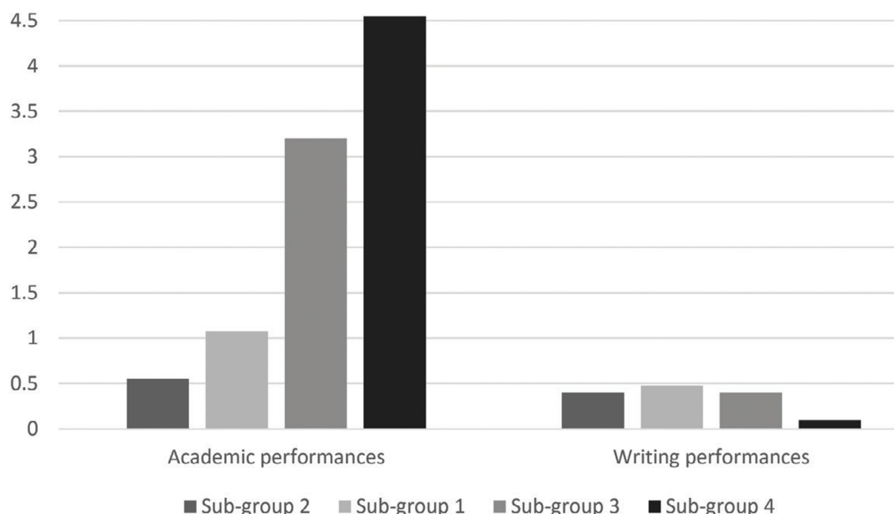

Figure 8.7. General view of the students' progression in writing performances and academic performances

This figure illustrates that the students presenting the lowest scores in writing at the beginning were the ones who obtained the highest progression on writing performances. This is a key result knowing that the writing course was specially designed with the purpose to help students with writing' difficulties.

Discussion

From the initial (IM) to final measurement (FM) data comparison, we note that the implemented writing program helped a majority of participants (4 out of 6) having completed these assessments to improve their writing performances. However, this evolution was not comparable through all criteria considered. Precisely, the participants were more numerous to increase their scores relating to Relevance and Syntax. But, concerning Coherence and Author, a certain part of participants decreased or they did not move. That means that the program did not affect the diverse students' writing skills in the same way. We consider that the personalized support and the practice of self-monitoring strategies could explain these variations. Indeed, given the short duration of program (6 hours), we prioritized at only some difficulties for each participant. This option could increase the participants' interest because they could perceive specific ways to use the acquired knowledge to surmount actual constraints they encountered in the discipline course. By bringing tools and advice based on analyzing

students' needs, we guided their attention to specific aims and to precise strategies to master. Moreover, the students were encouraged to practice self-monitoring through the utilization of key questions to address oneself concerning above all the clarity of their sentences and the understanding of assignment.

The effects of the writing program were also observed by considering the evolution of written text from initial measurement (IM) to the final version of text produced during the training (TT). Here also, a majority of participants enhanced their writing performances. Considering their global scores (Table 8.3), we observed that sub-groups 1 to 3 took advantage from the training although this evolution was remarkable mainly in the groups presenting the lowest results at the initial measurement. This finding is in line with the effects of the SRSD observed in elementary and secondary schools (Graham et al., 2012; Graham & Perin, 2007) and in HE (MacArthur & Philippakos, 2013) and we consider that the highly directed nature of training led the participants to gain confidence in their writing skills. Also, a particularity of the present training, that could precisely enable the progress of students with low-level, was the focus on linguistic support. Although this aspect does not seem essential in the SRSD perspective, we aimed to assist participants in improving delimited linguistic aspects to guide them in constructing a better attitude to writing. Providing them with specific aids on this point, they could experience a feeling of competence necessary to engage self-control of writing processes. That is probably why the members of Sub-group 1 and 2 decreased the quantity of linguistic errors as well as they improved their global writing performance global score.

Additionally, regarding the evolutions between IM and TT with respect to the criteria, we observed that, like to the results from IM to FM comparison, students moved essentially on Relevance and Syntax. Indeed except for Sub-group 4, all the other sub-groups improved these aspects (Figure 8.5). But, the criterium having enhanced through all the sub-groups was Coherence. We can conclude that to succeed on this criteria, self-reflection, strong guidance for self-regulating writing processes, and peer-assessment facilitate the improvement of texts during the time of training. However, this enhancement was not transferred later for producing texts in another conditions. Contrarily to the program condition, during final measurement (phase 4 of the research) students wrote alone without aids or peer-assessment. Certainly, in the case of the students presenting weakness, the ability to create coherent texts is harder to acquire and require, more than produce clear sentences and relevant content, social mediation. We can imagine

that training for a longer period can facilitate an extensive practice and develop a larger expertise on this complex aspect of writing.

With these results, the present research is coherent with findings from Ann Bassett Berry and Linda H. Mason (2012), MacArthur et al. (2015), and MacArthur and Philippakos (2013) regarding the effects of direct teaching of self-regulation strategies. However, the present study deepened on the contextualized nature of training. Different to the aforementioned programs, we connected more strongly the training with specific discipline content, and we proposed the program as complement to a specific course. Following the Litteracies universitaires perspective, we opted to strongly insert the writing training into a specific context. This particularity could facilitate the students' writing performances in two different ways: by encouraging the participants' interest to engage the training resources to achieve authentic aims in their learning agenda, and by developing writing in situated and cultural spaces delimited by the specific norms and disciplinary course teacher' expectations. The collaboration between researcher and teacher allowed us to integrate these cultural concerns from which we adapted the program. In order to increase the collaborative perspective of the research, it will be interesting to intensify the participation of the teacher in the training, through far example her/his feedback focused on the written texts. Additionally, this option would consolidate the sociocultural perspective in the present program.

We also aimed to know whether the students' improvement in their writing performances was included in the improvement of their academic performance. We observed no equivalence between students' writing performance and academic success. Although all participants improved their academic results, this change was stronger in students who had the highest grades at the beginning of the training. At the same time, these last students improved in the writing domain to a lesser degree than the other subgroups. We explain this gap, first, because the academic results combined many competencies in addition to writing skills, for example, the level of content knowledge and the capacity to manage stress in assessments. Certainly, the students with the weakest writing performances did not attain a sufficient level of autonomy at the end of the training that might have allowed them to improve their academic success more. Another reason could be the motivation to engage in the practice of writing strategies for improving the quality of their texts, notably in the case of students who had the best performances in this domain.

Despite the positive results of training on writing performances, we identified some methodological limitations. Concerning the measurement of the

participant skills during the sample constitution, it would be appropriate to measure their linguistic skills and their level of disciplinary knowledge. Thus, in addition to obtain a complete vision of linguistic abilities of students we could determine in what extent the students' thematic knowledge condition their writing performance. Another variation to integrate could concern the duration of the program. Probably, with a longer time for training, students could practice more to become really autonomous writers on all the skills necessary to succeed academic writing. Finally, in order to generalize the results from this program, new experimentations seem necessary with variate publics and different disciplinary courses.

Beyond to these limitations, two institutional aspects should be considered in order to replicate this kind of writing training. The personalized nature of the experimented training implies to organize collective sections integrating reduced number of participants. Yet, the French public universities had to generalize teaching in large groups where the students receive little guidance from their teacher. That was consequence of the massive arrival of first-year students which characterizes French universities as we mentioned in the introduction section. Workshop (namely travaux pratiques) or tutorials sessions (namely travaux dirigés) have been replaced by lectures (cours magistraux) addressed to large number of students. Despite these institutional constraints, an alternative could consist in integrating the writing training into the sessions for sustaining students in learning methods of academic work. These teaching courses (namely methodologie du travail universitaire) exists in France for reinforcing the first-year students' academic success. Even though these specific courses are not specially orientated to sustaining learning of academic writing, it could constitute a domain to explore.

Another institutional factor that would preclude the development of personalized support for writing within specific discipline courses is teacher training. We experienced that a collaborative work as we experimented requires the participation of teachers specialized in the discipline content. The question is how different experts in discipline content, didactics and cognitive processes of writing can collaborate to guide students for learning of academic writing. The collaboration between teacher specialists of disciplines and teacher specialists of writing is an interesting solution, but difficult to generalize. Thus, training discipline teachers to implement some of the proposed principles for teaching writing is a significant challenge knowing that training teachers to teach in higher education is a relatively recent practices in France. This collaborative approach could be interesting to explore through different cultural contexts and the results of these experiences could be shared by scholar networks.

Conclusions

Through the present research we aimed to analyze the results of implementing a training program in order to increase the quality of written texts produced by university French students. We based our work on two domains of research and perspectives. In the field of Litteracies universitaires, we developed a training program taking as main object the writers' attitude for reflecting on writing and individuals' writing processes, while positioning this individual process in regard to discipline cultures. In the field of writing training based on processes, this research deepened the role of metacognition in improving writing performances. With these considerations, the findings highlighted that teaching academic writing focused on metacognition contributes to enhance the quality of the texts, notably those of students who have writing difficulties. Thus, the present research reinforces the preceding findings about the effects of the explicit instruction of self-regulation for supporting the learning of writing in post-secondary. However, personalized and situated support for writing in HE, by observing the principles that we implemented, could be limited by institutional aspects (i.e., pedagogical and organizational constraints, etc.) and by the possibilities to integrate writing training into the disciplines. For attaining this point, we consider two essential elements that were to increase teaching training in HE and to work for a stronger collaboration between different experts in education.

Consequently, the academic writing could become a field where the Littéracies universitaires and the domain of research on teaching practices in HE participate together to a better comprehension of the learning and teaching academic writing and the students' academic success.

Glossary

Academic success: Academic success corresponds to the average grades for an entire academic semester or year. In France, the grades are set from 0 to 20. The closer the university student is to 20, the better his/her academic success.
Cognitive process of writing: From a cognitive point of view, the writing processes are categorized in different groups of intellectual mechanisms. The Hayes (2012) and Hayes and Flower (1986) contributions have allowed the development of a domain of research that targets describing the cognitive functioning of writing and the nature of the interaction between different categories of mental processes.
Direct instruction: Direct instruction refers to teachers' actions that precisely explicate the object and the method of leaning. In the writing domain, direct

instruction encompasses interventions for explicitly teaching strategies of writing in accord with clear aims. Thus, individuals learn not only the task's writing characteristics but also the suitable procedures for writing.

Metacognition: Metacognition is commonly considered to be cognition about cognition. According to Flavell (1979), it refers to knowledge about different variables that participate in cognitive functioning; for example, the characteristics of the task or the strategies. In addition, metacognition involves the regulation of cognitive processes. This bidimensional vision of metacognition coexists with other conceptionalizations about the term self-regulated learning. Following Dinsmore et al. (2008), this last term constitutes the object of research that analyzes the cognitive and motivational processes implied in the self-management of learning processes.

Metacognitive knowledge: Metacognitive knowledge is individual pieces of knowledge about tasks, strategies, and the suitability between aims and strategies. This type of knowledge integrates the set of information that writers engage with at different stages of writing; for example, during planning. It is supposed that knowing their own writing methods, or the task's characteristics and its constraints, provides key information in order to regulate writing.

Self-regulation strategies: This category includes a set of mechanisms that allow regulating cognitive, emotional, motivational, behavioral, and environmental aspects when individuals do an action targeting specific writing goals (Zimmerman & Risemberg, 1997). Concerning the different activities related to writing (e.g., reading and understanding texts, taking notes, planning, rewriting, and producing words), the self-regulation strategies are responsible for the management of thoughts, emotions, intentions, perceptions, and behaviors related to writing in order to attain the writer's aims.

Sociocognitive perspective: This optic corresponds to a domain of research that analyzes the learning processes, taking into consideration an interactional point of view. Bandura's theoretical developments (2002) are at the foundations of this perspective following two main hypotheses. First, the environmental conditions and the social interactions affect the cognitive processes of learners. Second, the cognitive processes interact with motivational dimensions such as self-efficacy and the personal aims of the learner.

Sociocultural dimension of writing: This view refers to the development of a theoretical framework in the French context based on the consideration of the sociology of education and French didactic contributions. Here, the language abilities are considered to result from the interaction between the context and the individual attitudes. The context refers to the space as delimitated by the norms that the scientific disciplines taught in higher education define for expressing, through the writing, the knowledge that they produce and their

evolution. Through this integration of norms and writing constraints specific to the academic disciplines, the sociocultural dimension emphasizes the influences the disciplines have on students' and teachers' practices related to writing. **Writing performance:** Writing performance is a measure of the writer's efficiency at a specific writing task. Here, writing performance corresponds to the quality of the text. Several criteria illustrate the writing quality, such as the degree of correctness in the use of linguistic rules, the clarity of the idea's organization, or even the content's relevance. The norms that delimit what is a "good text" are supposed to reflect the cultural conventions and the teachers' expectations in specific contexts.

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Appendix

Initial production

Vous devez rédiger un texte de 10 à 15 lignes pour répondre à la question suivante:

> D'après D. Cohen l'Homo Economicus ne parvient pas à atteindre le bonheur. Expliquez les causes de cette difficulté.

Vous vous appuierez sur le texte de Daniel Cohen joint à cette consigne. Vous ne devez pas résumer la totalité du contenu du texte, mais plutôt cibler quelques éléments clés afin de répondre précisément à la question posée ci-dessus.

Vous essaierez de respecter quelques consignes minimales : que le texte soit lisible, construire des phrases, utiliser une orthographe correcte et éviter les abréviations.

Vous disposez d'une heure maximum pour réaliser cet exercice (lecture et travail d'écriture compris)

Final production

Vous devez rédiger un texte de 10 à 15 lignes pour répondre à la question suivante:

> D'après les études mentionnées par les auteurs du texte « Bénévolat et accès à l'emploi » quelles sont les deux principales motivations de l'engagement bénévole ? Expliquez-les.

Vous vous appuierez sur le texte joint à cette consigne. Vous ne devez pas résumer la totalité du contenu du texte, mais plutôt cibler quelques éléments clés afin de répondre précisément à la question posée ci-dessus.

Vous essaierez de respecter quelques consignes minimales : que le texte soit lisible, construire des phrases, utiliser une orthographe correcte et éviter les abréviations.

Vous disposez d'une heure maximum pour réaliser cet exercice (lecture et travail d'écriture compris)

9 Engineering Majors as Generalist Writing Tutors in the UAE: Societal Expectations, Epistemological Dispositions, and Disciplinary Schisms

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Abstract: This study examines the perspectives of engineering undergraduates at an English-medium university in the UAE who serve as writing center tutors. Interviews with four male and four female upper-level engineering-major writing tutors (EMWTs) explored how they interpret their writing ability and their role as writing tutors in terms of their major, their experience at the university, and their prospects as future engineers. This research was driven by our observation that, despite a traditional divide between technical and humanities fields in the MENA region, engineering students had consistently engaged as writing tutors over the years. Findings reveal EMWTs to be engaged, collaborative, and experiential learners with multiple interests who view writing as a tool to enhance their academic and professional standing, positioning themselves as skilled communicators within their discipline. They act as role models, assisting peers in articulating technical knowledge while applying analytical skills from engineering and math to tutoring. Notably, female tutors exhibited greater autonomy in choosing their major and a stronger disciplinary identity than their male counterparts, whose decisions were often influenced by family and schooling limitations. This study highlights the interdisciplinary role of EMWTs,

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> bridging engineering and writing, and suggests that their experiences contribute to both academic success and career prospects. The gender-related findings, though incidental, indicate a need for further research on disciplinary identity formation among engineering students in the region.

Reflection

Ever since I (Lynne) started training the writing tutors at the American University of Sharjah in 2007, I had considered the engineering-major writing tutors an intriguing population to study, especially given the techno-social divide in our context.[1] Yet, turning this long-term interest into a research project emerged from a commitment made to myself after the IRC 2017 workshop: to return to IRC the following year.

The IRC 2017 workshop had revived a notion held by a younger, more idealistic me: one who had imagined life as an academic engaging with colleagues on exciting research ventures. I felt uplifted by the IRC day-long workshop—enthused by colleagues' fascinating scholarship and the thoughtful attention they gave to my own design-writing research.

Indeed, the IRC workshop was the closest I had come to that ideal since receiving my Ph.D. Academic life had not facilitated such pursuits; teaching large writing courses each semester left little time to collaborate with colleagues. Like many, I coped with publication requirements by cramming research into late and early hours—times ill-suited for the "tête-à-têtes" I had envisioned as a doctoral student.

My IRC 2017 experience prompted me to invite my colleague Maria Eleftheriou, our Writing Center director, to study the engineering-major writing tutors together. A proposal for IRC 2018 was submitted, and, a year later, when I attended IRC 2018 in Kansas City, Maria and I had completed interviews and identified preliminary findings, thus reaching an ideal juncture for engaging with colleagues there.

Indeed, discussion with IRC 2018 participants was as rewarding as anticipated. I keenly appreciated my conversation with Karl-Heinz Pogner, who had studied engineers' problem-solving strategies and negotiations. Our chat prompted reflection on similarities between engineering-style interactions and writing center tutorials. Subsequently, Maria and I began noticing our tutor-participants' perspectives on skill adaptation and transfer between the two endeavors. This became an important part of our findings.

1 Please read the opening statement for this collection, "Editing in US-Based International Publications: A Position Statement," before reading this chapter.

We know that, like us, many writing professors are so overwhelmed with grading and commentary that collaborative-research ventures are sidelined. Yet, the IRC inspired us to embark on our tutor-research adventure, and for that, we are grateful. When the pandemic further restricted our time and the imposed lockdown prevented us from meeting in person, Maria and I completed this research using Zoom and WhatsApp. Certainly, we are thankful for the online platforms that allowed us to circumvent COVID constraints. Looking back, our resolve to collaborate has made for a rich and memorable research experience that transcended the challenges of time, space, and pandemic. Looking forward, we feel the limitations of the pandemic have broadened our interpretation of and capacity for working with both local and global colleagues: location and time difference no longer figure as prominently as barriers, but we still appreciate the magic inherent in meeting face-to-face. The option for hybridity has made proceeding with future collaborative ventures more attractive and viable, in our estimation.

Institutional Description

The American University of Sharjah (AUS)—www.aus.edu—is a Middle States accredited American university within the emirate of Sharjah, in the United Arab Emirates. Founded in 1997, AUS is one of several universities in Sharjah, but is distinguished by its status an accredited American university, and the fact that it is the only co-educational campus in the emirate. Currently, over 5000 undergraduates and graduates are enrolled. The university is a multicultural one, represented by students of 70+ nationalities; the top ten are Emirati, Egyptian, Jordanian, Syrian, Palestinian, Indian, Pakistani, Saudi Arabian, Lebanese, and Iranian. The nearly 400 faculty members represent 50 nationalities. AUS houses a College of Engineering (2047 undergraduates), a School of Business and Management (1108 undergraduates), a College of Arts and Sciences (784 undergraduates), and a College of Architecture, Art and Design (654 undergraduates).

The Bachelor of Science degree programs in chemical engineering, civil engineering, computer engineering, electrical engineering and mechanical engineering offered by the College of Engineering are accredited by the Engineering Accreditation Commission of ABET (http://www.abet.org/). AUS was the first university in the Gulf region and the second outside the United States to receive this accreditation.

Introduction

Engineering educator David Radcliffe describes the successful engineer as

> self-aware, emotionally intelligent, empathetic, an active listener and a nuanced communicator with diverse groups, persuasive both orally and in all manner of written styles, trustworthy and collaborative. (Radcliffe, 2017, p. v)

To develop these qualities in engineering students, writing in the disciplines (WID) scholarship has promoted course-based collaborative and interdisciplinary written assignments and projects (Bairaktarova & Eodice, 2017; Hirsch et al., 2001; Poe et al., 2010; Ronesi, 2017). Marie C. Paretti (2011) notes, however, that engineering faculty tend not to adopt these instructional approaches, even when writing is a requirement in their course. Jon A. Leydens and Juan C. Lucena (2018) trace this resistance to "technical-social dualism" within engineering, which serves to overlook "the complex interplays between the social and the technical in engineering and scientific practices" by elevating the technical aspects and trivializing the social components (p. 50).

In the Middle East–North Africa (MENA) region, this disciplinary schism is exacerbated by a pronounced social-status distinction between technical and humanities fields; this division further hinders interdisciplinary cooperation between academic fields (Hodges & Kent, 2017). Attesting to the inimical effects of this schism, regional employers have identified engineering graduates' writing and verbal skills as problematic (Prescott et al., 2011; Ramadi et al., 2016).

Yet, at the American University of Sharjah (AUS) in the United Arab Emirates (UAE), engineering majors represent a consistent and significant number of the writing center tutors—around 30% every semester since the 2004/2005 academic year—a participation rate second only to the College of Arts and Sciences.

We two AUS writing center practitioners—peer tutor trainer and writing center coordinator—see engineering-major writing tutors (EMWTs) as creative negotiators of this "technical-social dualism" and recognize EMWTs are well-positioned to influence other students' perspectives. To discern how they understand and negotiate the dynamics of their social and disciplinary realities, we undertook an IRB-approved study, conducting semi-structured interviews with four male and four female EMWTs shortly before their graduation. Our research investigates how EMWTs interpret their role as writing tutors in terms of their learning, their engagement as engineering students, and their disciplinary identities.

This chapter begins by exploring writing-tutor identity and experience as well as engineering-student epistemological identity and sense-making. We lay out our methodology and then present the socio-cultural and institutional

context of the study. Using EMWT voices to discuss regional attitudes and institutional realities, we highlight the tension that manifests when an American-curriculum university offers a general education curriculum to students who have experienced discipline-specific tracking in secondary school (Tétreault, 2011). Also, we address the role of the AUS Writing Center as a support to American-university writing instruction in a superdiverse context, its significance to the EMWTs, and EMWT tutor training and recruitment challenges. Finally, we examine how EMWTs perceive their roles as writing tutors, and navigate their own aptitudes, goals, and epistemological dispositions within societal, institutional, and discipline parameters.

Literature Review

Writing Center Tutor Scholarship

During the past two decades, writing center scholarship has featured calls to investigate the influence of "out-of-writing-center" tutor identities and experiences on tutoring (Dinitz & Kiedaisch, 2003; Geller et al., 2007). Responses to these calls question long-held metaphors, assumptions, and orthodoxies regarding the tutoring experience (DiBiase, 2016; Fallon, 2010; Watson, 2012). Siobahn T. Watson (2012) addresses the disparities between tutorial identity and writing center discourse and training, noting that tutors who do not fall within established narratives may experience dissonance and feel compelled to sublimate aspects of themselves that fall outside discursive orthodoxy. Brian J. Fallon (2010) and Christopher J. DiBiase (2016) examine tutor perception of tutoring through Edward Soja's framework of spacial epistemologies, theorizing the writing center as a "thirdspace" where tutors' motivations, emotions, and lived experiences as well as "acknowledged and unacknowledged social and institutional forces" drive their work (Fallon, 2010, p. 179). DiBiase notes that tutor agency is an important factor for overcoming the writing center's physical [firstspace] limitations or discursive [secondspace] orthodoxy and suggests that careful recruitment and training attract tutors with the requisite investment and agency to make writing centers "spaces for struggle, liberation, [and] emancipation" (citing Soja, 2016, p. 68). Flexible practices with firstspace and secondspace aspects of the writing center—i.e., encouraging tutors to take ownership of the physical space to enhance the tutoring experience or enabling them to use their judgement in tutoring even if their choices defy the scholarly discourse—foster tutors' investment in their work. The latitude to call upon "discourses, values, and practices from non-writing center spaces" (DiBiase, 2016, p. 251) allows the tutors to make epistemological sense

of their tutoring and to understand the out-of-writing-center impact on their own lives and the lives of those they tutor. Such scholarship has re-conceptualized the understanding of tutors and raised questions about their training.

Engineering Student Education

Similarly, engineering pedagogy is evolving from earlier orthodoxy, aiming to restructure the traditional techno-centric engineering curriculum towards a sociotechnical, or heterogeneous, approach. To re-orient engineering pedagogy, studies have sought guidance from engineering practice (see Stevens et al., 2014) and have highlighted communication, non-technical, and contextual competencies important for engineering: negotiation and dialogue (Kastenberg et al., 2006; Pogner, 2003); adaptive expertise transfer (McKenna, 2014; Poe et al., 2010); global competency (Downey et al., 2006; Kastenberg et al., 2006; Leydens & Lucena, 2018); and social justice ethos (Cumming-Potvin & Currie, 2013; Leydens & Lucena, 2018).

A challenge to this evolution is integrating these competencies while maintaining the rigor of the traditionally content-heavy engineering curriculum. A popular response is introducing "wicked" or ill-structured problems into the engineering curriculum (Crickenberger, 2017; Jonassen, 2014; Lönngren, 2019 Stevens et al., 2014). Replacing the customary exercise of solving "well-structured problems" that have neat parameters and established solutions, "wicked problems" involve ambiguity and conflicting values and have a variety of possible and untidy solutions. Wicked problems aim to extend engineering students' problem-solving repertoire, introduce real-life considerations, and develop adaptive expertise "particularly relevant in the domain of engineering, where design problems by their nature are ambiguous and complex, and almost always require knowledge integration from a range of sources, disciplines, and perspectives" (McKenna, 2014, p. 230).

In addition to real-world engineering applications, scholarship has explored engineering student culture and identity (for meta-analysis on engineering campus cultural identity, see Tonso, 2014). Despite research support for heterogeneous approaches to engineering curricula, engineering campus culture continues to perpetuate the idea of the technicist engineer (Leydens & Lucena, 2018; Stevens et al., 2014). Investigating technicist-oriented engineering students and heterogeneous-oriented engineering students in group design projects, Karen L. Tonso (2006) noted that technicist students applied a reductionist approach to the work, privileging "manipulating decontextualized, mathematical abstractions central to academic science over the application of scientific knowledge to real-world engineering dilemmas

[used by heterogeneous students]" (p. 292). On the other hand, heterogeneous students in group projects drew on the knowledge gained from their personal interests—often ones affiliated with the engineering realm, contributed non-technical information, utilized social skills to enhance teamwork, and emphasized group success over their own, even while using approaches in line with actual engineering work and contributing more to the project's success. Nonetheless, students and faculty in this study considered the technicist engineering students as ideal engineers; heterogeneous engineers—whose contributions were often backgrounded—were less well-regarded.

There is concern that a technicist-oriented campus culture misrepresents the epistemological needs of real-world engineering and forces out potentially excellent engineers who cannot reconcile their heterogeneous epistemological dispositions with traditional engineering curricula (Danielak et al., 2014). Noting that epistemological framing varies with content and context, David Hammer et al. (2005) and Andrew Elby and Hammer (2010) suggest students should learn to vary their sense-making approaches depending on content or learning activities.

On the other hand, Benjamin D. Geller et al. (2014) suggest that a perceived clash between students' sense-making preferences and disciplinary epistemology can have positive implications. For example, students' frustration with a discipline to which they remain committed may lead to a search for options within the field that better accommodate their sense-making preferences. Another consequence is that students' interdisciplinary sense-making becomes strengthened. This happens when students encounter out-of-discipline learning which matches their sense-making preferences and then realize the epistemologies associated with a particular discipline can be used for sense-making in another—i.e., using free-writing strategies learned in composition class to better grasp a mathematical concept. Once students realize that sense-making can cross disciplinary boundaries, they not only become open to adopting those strategies but also understand that knowledge and insights from other disciplines can be useful in understanding their own specialization.

Methodology

In Spring 2017, our proposal to study EMWTs was approved by the AUS Institutional Review Board (IRB). The study was conducted over the course of two semesters; the participants were EMWTs who had tutored at least two semesters and were in their last semester prior to graduation. Gender was not a selection criterion; while fortuitous, the gender balance was not surprising as it has been customary among EMWTs.

The eight EMWTs represented the variety of nationalities typical of the AUS student population: Bulgarian, Canadian, Egyptian, Iraqi, Jordanian, Pakistani, Palestinian, and Syrian; a few had dual nationalities (See Table 9.1). Six EMWTs were raised in the UAE while two were raised in nearby countries. To ensure the EMWTs' anonymity, we have used pseudonyms and omitted identifying details.

Table 9.1 EMWT profiles

EMWT	Gender	Origin	Major
Ruba	Female	Levantine	Chemical Engineering
Noor	Female	North African (Grew up in the UAE)	Computer Science
Razan	Female	Levantine (Grew up in the UAE)	Chemical Engineering
Jowana	Female	Levantine/European (Grew up in the UAE)	Civil Engineering
Ahmad	Male	Subcontinent	Computer Science
Omar	Male	Gulf (Grew up in the UAE)	Mechanical Engineering
Mustafa	Male	Subcontinent (Grew up in the UAE)	Civil Engineering
Bilal	Male	Subcontinent (Grew up in the UAE)	Mechanical Engineering

All EMWTs spoke heritage languages other than English in their homes and with friends. While all attended English-medium secondary schools, their curriculums differed as per these EMWT descriptions: "supposed to be an American system," "Pakistani public school based on British curriculum," "American curriculum which is modified for the region," "community school for South Asians [that] followed the British curriculum."

The EMWTs were sent emails inviting them to engage in an hour-long semi-structured interview in our offices at the end of their final semester. Our interview questions were informed by the scholarship on writing tutors and engineering students and reflected our understanding of the significance of the societal and institutional context on our EMWTs. As such, we formulated interview questions to understand how the EMWTs had situated themselves within these contexts as both negotiators and mediators of the cultural technical-social dualism. The beginning of the interviews focused on their pre-university experience. We began by eliciting their accounts of the curriculum and instruction

at their secondary schools and the EMWTs' academic strengths, hobbies, and interests at that time, with attention to their sense of their families', peers', and educators' perception of and influence on their trajectories. EMWTs were then asked to share their experiences with university writing instruction and engineering instruction, with attention to critical experiences in both sets of courses as well as factors leading to their selection of major. This was followed with questioning on how the EMWTs learned about tutoring at the writing center and understood their peer tutor training course, with discussion on critical or illustrative incidents characterizing their perceptions of themselves as EMWTs. The last part of the interview addressed how the EMWTs connected the two realms: the intersection between their engineering knowledge and writing tutor knowledge and the EMWTs' perceptions of their writing center experience as significant to their success as engineering students and to their identities as future engineers.

The interviews were audio-recorded, then transcribed. We listened to and read the transcripts separately, independently generated codes, then met to review each interview, honing our coding as we worked through each of the interviews to draw our conclusions. While initial coding mostly reflected our own understanding of the EMWTs, iterative reading of interviews and resulted in more complex coding. For example, "multifacetedness" was employed early in our coding to highlight a characteristic we had long observed in our EMWTs. Noting how EMWTs discussed this characteristic in their interviews, we realized "multifacetedness" was associated with "out-of-writing-center" tutor identities which was addressed in the writing tutoring literature and to "heterogeneous orientation" which was addressed in the engineering education literature. Our coding was thus refined and helped us understand this characteristic's role in the EMWTs' identity and epistemological dispositions.

Once complete, this chapter was returned to the eight EMWTs for member checking; all eight confirmed our interpretation represented their perspectives and resonated with their experiences.

Regional Attitudes and Institutional Realities

In the UAE, even senior engineering positions can rank below comparable positions in finance, marketing, banking, law, and medicine in terms of basic wages and allowances (Maceda, 2016). Nevertheless, engineering continues to be a revered profession throughout the Middle East and Subcontinent—regions of origin for many in the largely expatriate UAE workforce. This inclination towards engineering is represented in the university curricula of the Gulf Arab States (Miller-Idriss & Hanauer, 2011) and appears linked to

what Shafeeq Ghabra and Margreet Arnold (2007) identify as "[traditional] thinking of strict employability within fields of study" (p. 12), which leads to valuing professional programs of study over social sciences and humanities. Moreover, this emphasis is consistent with current efforts in the UAE to guide the economy toward knowledge-based models featuring science, technology, and engineering (Aswad et al., 2011).

In this context, American-curriculum universities—characterized by their liberal arts and communication focus—face the challenge of accommodating the regional preference for professional studies (Tétreault, 2011). This negotiation is evident at AUS, an independent, English-medium American university with four schools/colleges: the College of Architecture, Art, and Design; the College of Arts and Sciences; the School of Business Administration; and College of Engineering.

Accredited by the Middle States Commission on Higher Education, AUS boasts a well-developed general education curriculum that requires students to take roughly one third of their credits in liberal study courses spanning history, culture, literature, arts, and social/behavioral sciences. In keeping with the regional inclination, nearly half of AUS undergraduates are enrolled in the College of Engineering pursuing degrees in Mechanical Engineering, Computer Science, Computer Engineering, Industrial Engineering, Civil Engineering, Electrical Engineering, or Chemical Engineering.

While the large number of engineering majors is congruent with the MENA context, the choice of an engineering major may not reflect students' aptitudes and personal inclinations. In this region, choice of major is often a family—not an individual—decision (Aswad et al., 2011) and EMWTs acknowledge engineering tends to be the default major for many. EMWT Ahmad provides some humorous insight on the perspectives of families in his community:

> So you can go to your parents and say "Mom, I really want to try out theatre" and they'd be like, "But what about mechanical engineering? Why don't you give <u>that</u> a shot?" So the [question parents have about all] the other majors, is, as we say [in Urdu] *kya koro gay iska?* (what would you do with that?) So, the idea is if you do engineering, you will, like, after one month of graduation, get a job, but if you do something like theatre or liberal arts, what will you do? Will you be a professor? And these [notions] are there in society.

Accordingly, while the perceived prestige of an engineering degree from an American university may attract students and their families, they may not

understand or appreciate the American curriculum's focus on liberal arts and communication. The first-year academic writing instruction, specifically, is a source of much student anxiety, particularly as, coming from a variety of secondary curriculums (i.e., in addition to American and British, Arabic, Indian, Iranian, Pakistani, Russian, etc.), many AUS students were not introduced to writing as a medium of learning in their schooling. In fact, in some of these schools, English is not the medium of instruction, and even in many English-medium secondary schools, academic writing may not have been addressed. Reflecting on her secondary writing instruction in an account consistent with other EMWTs, Jowana recalls, "[My school was] supposed to be an American system [but] I never learned what a thesis statement means. We had writing, but writing was like, 'what did you do over the summer?' in one page; no structure, nothing. I didn't know there was a huge gap between the way we were writing [in school] and the way we write here [at AUS]."

Some EMWTs link the lack of emphasis on—or rigor in—writing instruction to the early discipline-specific tracking common in regional schools, noting that, in their schools, science and the less prestigious business tracks were the only viable options for academically-inclined students:

> My personal interest was in English but [my school] didn't have anything related to it. If you want to appear for the English course, English as a second language was the only [option]. So, the only two choices I had were science and commerce. Because I was getting good grades in maths and sciences, my teachers were like, "You are a good student. You should go for science." So, I was like, "What about commerce?" [My teacher] was like "That's for the weak students." Yes, it may sound a bit funny, but that was the answer that I got. (EMWT Bilal).

Consequently, many AUS students have little or no experience with writing instruction in English and find their first-year writing courses quite daunting—particularly, the application of critical thinking to their reading and writing assignments, source-based argumentation, and adherence to academic integrity requirements. Their struggle in these courses, their unfamiliarity with the communication-based goals of an American curriculum, and their inability at this early stage to appreciate the role of writing in their disciplines can engender much student resentment about the writing courses in the curriculum (Bilikozen, 2015). This is particularly the case with many engineering students. EMWT Noor describes many students' attitudes as "I'm here to study engineering only. I have nothing to do with English."

The EMWTs also identify as a prevalent AUS-student assumption the idea that engineering students are unable to write. Ahmad recalls a student at the writing center almost refused to work with him: "Because she knew I was a computer science major, she's like 'Wait, you're going to be the one tutoring me?' And I could see from her face she was not satisfied [with being tutored by] a computer science major."

The Writing Center

In step with typical American-university approaches to supporting writing, a writing center was established soon after AUS's inception. Eleftheriou, upon assuming responsibility of the Writing Center in 2004, introduced a generalist peer-tutoring model with undergraduate tutors. The following year, AUS added a writing fellow program—where peer tutors assist students in their writing assignments in writing-intensive courses across disciplines—and a semester-long peer-tutoring course required for employment in the Writing Center.

Since then, the AUS Writing Center has been a site of research for theorizing writing center pedagogy for the linguistically- and culturally-diverse students in the UAE. These investigations, undertaken with tutors and students, have addressed the Writing Center practices: Eleftheriou's (2011; 2019) stimulated-recall study on tutorial practices; research on online tutoring (Eleftheriou, 2013; 2015); the importance of offering formal tutor training courses for peer mentors and tutors (Eleftheriou, Al-Dawood et al., 2022); the examination of the Gricean cooperative principle as a peer-tutor training tool (Eleftheriou, Spyropoulou et al., 2022); evaluation of the training course (Ronesi, 2009), the writing fellows' support (Ronesi, 2011a, 2017), the impact of multilingualism on the tutors (Ronesi, 2011b); and, currently in-process, code-switching in tutorials. Sharing this research at nearby and international conferences, often along with the tutors, has brought recognition to the AUS Writing Center as a regional leader.

The Center's reputation, staff, and usage grew, and in 2012, the Center was allotted a large open-concept room adjacent to the AUS library. Tutors decorated the Center with colorful art and posters of literary figures and quotations on writing. Prior to the pandemic which has forced the AUS Writing Center to operate online only, the tutors kept the whiteboards updated with writing tips, sketches, and wry commentary. In this cheerful space, tutors often remained outside of their shifts to collaborate on various projects such as writing contests, the newsletter, social media promotion, and classroom workshops. Also, a private area in the back of the Center provided tutors a place to work on their own assignments or rest between classes.

Training and Recruitment

As noted above, a credit-bearing peer-tutor training course prepares undergraduates for a generalist tutoring model. The course curriculum was designed to help tutors-in-training to bridge the gap between the AUS context and the context assumed in the mostly North American-based course readings. One goal of the training course is to elicit trainee awareness of both personal and locally-oriented writing challenges as a springboard for approaching their tutorials. While dialogue journals, a tutoring practicum with reflections, and a locally-relevant research project help support this course goal, class discussion is seen as integral for its attainment (for greater detail on the theoretical underpinnings of the training course, see Ronesi, 2009). Even as most trainees initially feel discomfort at voicing their perspectives on course content, they come to acknowledge its importance to their development as tutors and as individuals, as EMWT Razan explains:

> The person I am now—I can just start a conversation with anyone, anywhere, anytime. I wouldn't be this way if it wasn't for the writing center. If it was left for the university to break my bubble that I was in, it would have not worked. Because, in the writing center, I was kind of forced. Even in the [training course], we had a lot of discussions. Actually, this was the first class [in which] I had discussions in the class. Like before, it was all math courses. Everyone sits alone. I didn't work in groups before that course, as far as I remember. So, [in] the course itself, we had to speak up. [There were] points [allotted] for participation. So this pushed me out of my comfort zone somewhat.

While Razan was clear on the benefits of the tutor-training class and tutoring in the Writing Center, like five of the eight EMWTs, she did not join the class in the standard fashion, which is through professor recommendations. Each mid-semester, we ask writing faculty to identify "strong writers who demonstrate diligence, accountability, and interpersonal skills." Recommended students are emailed an invitation to join the tutor-training class the following semester. Non-recommended students like Razan and the male EMWTs can join the course if space is still available after recommended students enroll. Razan was encouraged to enroll by the writing fellow assigned to her chemical engineering course who recognized Razan as a strong and engaged writer. The four male EMWTs were encouraged to enroll by writing tutor acquaintances who seemed better positioned than the four's writing

professors to appreciate their potentiality as tutors. We address the issue of recruitment in the discussion section.

The EMWTs

Secondary School and First-Year Writing

EMWTs reported doing reasonably well in writing and English in secondary school but characterized their assignments as simple. Even EMWTs who felt challenged by writing were not particularly daunted, like Noor who "never [felt as] strong as [she] hoped to be … but again, was focused on maths and physics." Writing was not considered a high-stakes skill by the EMWTs, their schools, or their parents. Ahmad recalled "[My parents] had heard from my teachers [that] 'He's okay but he's not as good as some,' so they had made their peace with the fact."

Still, EMWTs felt motivated by their first-year writing courses at AUS. In those courses, writing became process-oriented, and the focus on argumentation and source-based writing suited them more than the expressive writing assigned in secondary school. The first-year writing courses revealed their latent writing abilities and constituted a pivotal step in their writerly identity:

> [A]s I became stronger and had more vocabulary, more ideas, a better way to form sentences, [I realized] I like doing this. I like writing. I wanted to do well because of my [previous] low expectation. So that's how it started. (Noor)

Paths to Engineering

Even as EMWTs came to appreciate writing in their first year, they did not consider majoring in fields traditionally associated with writing. Their accounts indicate that the trajectory to studying engineering had been established early in their lives. However, the distinctions in the ways male and female EMWTs chose their majors both highlight and complicate assumptions of gender and vocation in this region.

For the female EMWTs, the path to studying engineering had been determined by personal interest and aptitude in their teens, a finding resonant with regional scholarship demonstrating genuine interest in STEM subjects by female engineering majors (Aswad et al., 2011; Hillman & Salama, 2018). The female EMWTs were committed to their majors, expressed an aptitude and passion for STEM subjects from their teen years, and anticipated studying at the post-graduate level. Ruba, Noor, Razan, and Jowana were active members

of engineering clubs and organizations; they sought opportunities to collaborate with engineering professors and to participate in their research projects. Moreover, they envisioned careers at the managerial level and in academia.

Ruba's love of the sciences led her to her major: "Through my childhood, I loved the sciences—specifically chemistry, physics, and math. The major that combines them is chemical engineering." She expressed enthusiasm at the prospect of "designing a process … to produce something from raw materials into something that's usable." Ruba was applying for jobs, and hoped, after a while, to apply for master's degree programs in environmental engineering. Ruba's family was supportive of her decision to major in engineering and to pursue her career in terms of jobs or further education. Ruba's father, also an engineer, had provided guidance throughout her undergraduate years.

Noor, a computer science major, reported being "more left-brained—more math and science side" as a teenager, and cited math as her favorite subject in secondary school. She enjoyed her major courses, particularly "the ones with labs and projects, and stuff where you actually get to code." While acknowledging the stigma associated with humanities majors in the Middle-East, Noor reported that her family would have supported any choice of major. When interviewed, Noor had been accepted into a master's program for applied computing at a North American university. She planned to focus on graph theory, artificial intelligence, and machine learning. Eventually, Noor hoped to get a PhD and felt "inclined towards teaching and working in an academic environment" citing its flexibility in terms of specialization.

Razan reported an early interest in science: "We did chemistry in grade eight, and this is how it started." She had been interested in majoring in chemistry, but her parents discouraged her: "[Y]ou'll end up being a schoolteacher, just teaching chemistry. So how about engineering?" Emphasizing employment opportunities and high salaries, a family friend convinced Razan and her parents that chemical engineering was most suitable. Razan eventually realized that engineering is "more of the application, not the science itself. And I happen to like this more, actually." Just before our interview, Razan had been accepted into a regional master's degree program in the biomedical field and intended to research drug delivery.

Jowana's preference and aptitude for physics led her to a civil engineering major. However, Jowana's parents, unlike those of Ruba, Noor, and Razan, did not appreciate her choice: "They were like, 'You're a girl, why would you go into engineering? You're very good at public speaking; why don't you go into media?'" Indeed, recognizing her communication skills positioned her for success in administration, Jowana had recently declared a minor in engineering management. Jowana envisioned pursuing a graduate degree abroad

in the future: “I'm going to finance it myself, so I'll have to get a job first.”

Although most male EMWTs claimed they were comfortable with their choice of major, they did not relate their selection to an early and prolonged interest in STEM subjects. In comparison to the female EMWTs, the male EMWTs' choice of study appeared less intrinsically motivated and more propelled by social parameters, curricular limitations, and family expectations. While their accounts indicated they dedicated great effort to their major courses, their engagement in their major seemed less pronounced; no male EMWTs discussed discipline-based extracurricular activities or research projects with professors. Also, the males demonstrated more ambivalence about an engineering-career trajectory.

Ahmad's strengths in secondary school were math and physics. A computer science major, Ahmad had never considered pursuing any degree other than one in engineering, pointing out that his secondary school offered only two career tracks: science or business: “So engineering or business: it's like the other [disciplines] don't exist at all.” Ahmad had enjoyed his major courses, particularly the self-driven learning his projects entailed: “I am enrolled in five online courses at the moment, learning five different technologies, mostly for my senior project and one of my courses, the internet application development course.” Ahmad had recently accepted a software documentation position with an international company.

Like Ahmad, Omar was restricted in secondary school to science or business so he chose the scientific track, taking chemistry, physics, and biology. As Omar was uncertain what to study at university, his parents suggested engineering: “For my parents at least, it ties into notions of prestige in [our country].” Omar mused, “I don't think [engineering] was an incorrect choice. I think an engineering route gets me more financial opportunities in the future. Is it what I want to do my entire life? I don't know. The reason I gravitated towards transportation planning is because it is not just number crunching. You have to take urban fabric into account, so that's sociology. You have to take into account the environment; you have to take into account what people think. So that's why I gravitated towards that.” At the time of his interview, Omar was negotiating employment with the transportation agency where he had interned.

Mustafa chose mechanical engineering partly out of practicality and partly to distinguish himself in his family, none of whom were engineers. While he was most drawn to graphic design, photography, and visual media, he felt that these fields were unlikely to offer him financial stability. In secondary school, he had studied physics, chemistry, and mathematics. “[Mechanical engineering] felt kind of a better option.... I like cars a lot. So, this was, like,

the only engineering field that I could relate to." Acknowledging the design element in mechanical engineering, he concluded mechanical engineering "overlapped with his interests." Still, Mustafa was ambivalent about becoming an engineer: "I'm not really serious about getting a mechanical job after graduating. I would prefer a job that's more hands-on but I wouldn't mind [any] work, as long as it's a field that I have some interest in."

Unlike the other EMWTs, Bilal had a strong interest in English during his secondary years; however, he had no opportunity to pursue English as he, like Ahmad and Omar, was limited to science or business in secondary school. He opted to study chemistry, math, and physics, which he did not enjoy. Seeing university as a way to return to his love of English, Bilal expressed his hope of pursuing an English major with the goal of teaching. However, his parents objected: "If you are a teacher, you stay a teacher. There's no career progression in that." Bilal recounted, "My whole family was sitting with me when I was filling in my [university application] form and they told me, 'Go for engineering.'" Bilal applied himself to his mechanical engineering courses but was disappointed by his performance. He was anxious about the effect of mediocre grades on finding engineering jobs in the short-term until he was able to enroll in a Master's degree in linguistics or literature. Bilal's goals were to obtain a PhD and, eventually, a position as a university professor.

These EMWTs are gifted students not only in engineering and in written communication but also as multilingual individuals negotiating the superdiverse context that characterizes many Gulf states (Hillman & Eibenschutz, 2018; O'Neill, 2017). This exposure to the cultural and linguistic diversity within their locales, schools, and, often, their families has positioned them as globally competent (Ronesi, 2011b). Given recent calls for globally-proficient engineers (Cumming-Potvin & Currie, 2013; Downey et al., 2006; Leydens & Lucena, 2018), we surmise that the EMWTs' attributes qualify them as desirable candidates for engineering positions globally.

While acknowledging the EMWTs' potential as future engineers, we authors have sought to explore the EMWTs' experience as undergraduate writing center tutors. Acknowledging the technical-social schism pervading engineering and societal attitudes, we note that the EMWTs have fought against the current to integrate their personal and professional aspirations into their university experience. Their choices underscore our need to better understand them—to learn how EMWTs "move through writing center spaces, [bring] different writing practices from outside the center into their tutoring work, and … [take] some of the work of tutoring with them when they finished their shifts and went about their days" (DiBiase, 2016, p. 46).

Findings

Negotiating the Terms of Learning

In their interviews, EMWTs express their desire to develop their various interests and aptitudes in their personal, academic, and professional lives. EMWTs see the Writing Center as an adaptive environment (Loi & Dillon, 2006; Poe et al., 2010) where identity, epistemology, and affect interact, and where, as writing tutors, they can position themselves to engage in heterogeneous approaches to learning: "[the Writing Center] is where I learn, and this is the basis on which I plan to look into the future" (Bilal).

For EMWTs, the Writing Center constitutes a context where their heterogeneous-orientation to learning and their "out-of-writing-center" identities and experiences are validated. EMWTs see themselves and the other tutors as multifaceted and appreciate the resulting easy camaraderie among them—a rapport not always possible with acquaintances from their majors.

> [T]here is no restriction [on topics we tutors might discuss amongst ourselves]. You don't feel like "I'm not a part of this" or this person doesn't understand me, because in the Writing Center, you get the sense everyone knows about everything you're talking about. (Mustafa)

Multifacetedness is also perceived as valuable in tutorials, as Noor notes:

> You have to be open or have the general knowledge to discuss with students and [advise] them: "Alright, have you read [about] or heard that there's this—I don't know—new political movement? So maybe you can argue about that, or there's this and this." So, for you to be a successful tutor, you have to be diverse in your thinking. [It's] not "I'm only good at English so I can edit." No. There's also discussion that goes on, brainstorming.

Tutoring encompasses a broad learning experience for which EMWTs can draw upon their values, personal interests, lived experiences, and understanding of institutional and social norms. These "out-of-writing-center" identities allow them to be mediators for other students who need support crossing boundaries. Sensitive to the politics and history of the region, Omar seeks to support students who might feel resistance to expressing themselves in English: "How can I make [students] feel comfortable writing in this language … when their [grandparents and] parents have been telling them stories about the colonial era?" Razan, familiar with the challenges of

visually-impaired individuals, provides dedicated assistance to students with visual disabilities. Bilal is the "go-to" tutor for the students on his cricket team and members of his cultural club. Mustafa employs his design skills for the writing center newsletters, posters, and social media needs. Moreover, EMWTs find tutoring gratifying—"it's really nice to be able to help someone, especially with something that you're not just good at but you really like" (Ahmad)—and they credit tutoring for gains in self-confidence and interpersonal skills.

Using Heterogeneous Competencies in Mediating Others' Learning

Hands-on learning in both engineering group projects and writing center conferences prompt EMWTs to engage in heterogeneous sense-making, an adaptive competency that they then share with the students they support in both domains.

Problem solving, according to Ruba, connects her role as an engineering student, future engineer, and writing tutor. Her description of tutoring sessions is suggestive of engineering instruction's "wicked problems" with numerous variables interacting to pose a challenge—a challenge, as Noor notes above, going far beyond editing. As Ruba explains, tutoring draws on multiple abilities: "fitting your work within a time limit, dealing with the situations of people that you're tutoring, difficult linguistic skills, plagiarism issues, [students] who don't want to be in the Center. You develop the skills to deal with these."

EMWTs note that the skills developed in their roles as engineering students and writing tutors get adapted to and transferred between the two domains—sometimes in surprising ways. Jowana describes mediating for the members of her engineering group by drawing on the facilitative approach she was introduced to as a writing tutor to resist the tendency of one person to commandeer engineering group projects.

> You know, [these individuals act] like "the big engineer boss" and, it always clicks, "remember [the] facilitative approach [of tutoring]" and I [will say to them], "You're very directive. You need to be more facilitative. You don't just impose your opinion on the entire classroom." So, I've suggested every group [member] pick one idea or project or thought that they want to contribute. I feel we need to understand that everyone's opinion on our project matters. I think that has really benefited me in engineering projects.

Razan depicts an interesting circular trajectory of heterogeneous sense-making as she discusses the relationship between approaches used for engineering study and writing tutorials. As she begins her explanation, Razan claims implementing an engineering-prompted systematic approach has helped her be a more effective writing tutor.

> Engineering taught me to be organized. In engineering, with an application of an idea, of a theory, you cannot do step two without doing step one. And I think this started to affect my writing as well, especially when I brainstorm ideas. [Now] I tend to write on the side, like an outline with numbers. So, when someone comes [into the writing center] and they want to brainstorm ideas, we do it in a list form and sub-lists. I tell them, "Put it in numbers so it's easier for you, so you can tell to put this before this, so it makes more sense."

As Razan continues, she describes using this approach to support her peers in her engineering courses for which she credits her writing center experience.

> Now, if a fellow chemical engineer asks me a question in a major course, when I tell them the answer, I put it in steps. And I got this [approach] from [my work in] the Writing Center, so it, just like, works this way.

Like Razan, many EMWTs report drawing on approaches they attribute to their engineering training. Jowana describes how she breaks down student writing into components: "Whenever their intro is [only] two lines long, here's what needs to be done. Number one: hook. Number two: elaborate on topic. So, I create this, like, engineering chart [for] what the introduction should look like." Ahmad and Noor, the two computer-engineering EMWTs, recount adapting coding problem-solving strategies to the writing dilemmas their students face in the Writing Center. Noor explains approaches she uses in both coding and writing tutoring:

> It's the same logic in a way: your code isn't working. Okay, let's backtrack. Your sentence doesn't make sense. Okay, let's break it down. What do you want to say? And same with programming. Okay, what do you want the output to be? Or what do you want the program to do?

Similarly, Ahmad acknowledges the overlap: "I think that really helps at the Writing Center." And like Jowana, Ahmad makes use of diagrams in his

own engineering work and writing—and as a visual aid to support student understanding of structure and flow in tutorials.

EMWTs engage in interdisciplinary sense-making and play a mediator role by sharing those competencies with students they support.

Supporting Fellow Engineering Students

While the Writing Center follows a generalist peer-tutoring model whereby EMWTs tutor students of all majors in writing assignments across the disciplines, EMWTs find gratification tutoring students with engineering assignments. EMWTs are pleased when their understanding of engineering-related concepts and discourse conventions can support engineering writing. Ruba is not daunted by the technical topics engineering students bring to the tutorials and is touched by their relief when she understands their topics: “Since I’m an engineer, I’m helping engineering [majors]. And I enjoy it.” Mustafa notes students who need to write in technical language value his engineering background and his ability to determine “[if the writing] makes sense in terms of scientific concepts.”

Yet, that disciplinary support extends beyond EMWTs’ facility with engineering content and discourse. Omar, mindful of the technical-social schism, perceives his disciplinary contribution to engineering students in affective terms. He notes “a lot of the time, the engineering students have been better writers than other students I’ve worked with,” an observation he regularly shares with engineering majors to encourage them: “I convey that it’s fine that you’re an engineer; it doesn’t really mean you’re destined to be a worse-off writer than everyone else here.” Having previously considered himself a weak writer, Ahmad empathizes with engineering students, wants to help them to recognize their potential as effective writers, and in fact, has made a practice of recommending particularly strong writers he encounters to the tutor training class: “So when I see someone like that, generally these are people who are in their freshman or sophomore year, so I see someone who is exactly like [I was].” While Jo Mackiewicz (2004) establishes that tutors who have engineering-specific experience are more effective than general tutors at supporting engineering writing, our study demonstrates EMWT assistance for fellow engineering students can also extend to the affective realm—in this case, from concerns that consider institutional and social norms.

Distinguishing Themselves Within Their Discipline

The EMWTs’ heterogenous approach and their roles as boundary-crossers have placed them in highly beneficial positions. Their writing skills and their

association with the Writing Center are perceived as singular strengths which are acknowledged and appreciated by fellow engineering students, their professors, and prospective employers.

EMWTs note that their engineering courses require written assignments and their professors reward good writing with higher grades. This not only bolsters their own grades but also makes EMWTs desirable on project teams as they provide their groups a competitive edge: "I basically end up doing the bulk of the report-writing when it comes to group projects and lab reports. It is a plus [my group members] count for me" (Omar).

Jowana attributes her inclusion into a prestigious engineering honor society over "friends with higher GPAs" to her role as a writing tutor: "Writing Center gets you that!" For Razan, an interview with a professor about joining his research turned in her favor once she mentioned she was a writing tutor: "He was like, 'You know what? You're in! I'll have to get you into my research group.'"

Omar's writing skills were "a big plus" during his internship. "There was an appraisal and [my supervisor] mentioned [my research and writing skills] as a really big plus, and he told other people we were working with that I was good at what I was doing so they should give me work to do." Ruba and Ahmad mentioned their positions as writing tutors were noted during recent job interviews. Ahmad observed, "They were pretty impressed by the fact that I work at the writing center. It's not very common." Rather counter-intuitively in this techno-centric context, the EMWTs' willingness to incorporate writing into their engineering identities distinguishes them from their engineering peers.

Discussion

This study exploring EMWTs' interpretation of their writing tutor roles in terms of their learning, their engagement as engineering students, and their disciplinary identities was undertaken through a writing-center lens. Noting that contextual cues determine the saliency of identity and epistemological beliefs (Elby & Hammer, 2010), we understand that collaboration with engineering colleagues—or even conducting interviews in the engineering building—may well have elicited different student perspectives.

We acknowledge the limitations engendered by our positionality not only as writing center practitioners but as individuals who were raised in North America and attended universities shaped by a liberal arts approach. Neither of us has access to the communities of the EMWTs nor speaks their heritage languages. To address the potential biases and preconceptions implicit in this situation, we

used EMWT voices in developing the context and explaining our findings and engaged in member-checking once the chapter draft was completed.

In engineering education research, we were excited to find themes similar to those in writing tutor scholarship. These themes center around reconsidering earlier pedagogical orthodoxies; valuing heterogenous competencies and various epistemological approaches in negotiating content and problem solving; and integrating the knowledge gained from "out-of-context" identities, lived experience, and social and cultural context into student learning. Indeed, we feel the frameworks in engineering education literature have a lot to offer writing tutor scholarship. More generally, our study affirms the immense potential inherent in interdisciplinary connections between the writing center and engineering department.

Regarding the AUS context, our findings demonstrate that these EMWTS, who had experienced discipline-specific tracking in their high schools, greatly benefitted from the American-curriculum focus on liberal arts and communication. In particular, our tutor training and writing center space provided EMWTs the latitude for an adaptive environment to flourish. The EMWTs were able to support their epistemological inclinations—as well as their social, prosocial, and professional aspirations—through their tutoring. However, our investigation highlighted deficiencies in our recruitment strategies. Because writing professors teach students across the curriculum, we had considered writing faculty recommendations to be a discipline-neutral approach to recruitment. Yet, we learned through our EMWT interviews that this recruitment strategy neglects engineering students. Over the past five years, writing professor recommendations had accounted for only 35% of EMWT enrollment in the tutor training course, as opposed to roughly 60% of non-engineering tutors. Why this occurs is an important issue to pursue in a future study.

The EMWTs' perspectives suggest a tutor-driven recruitment strategy should be formalized alongside recommendations from our writing faculty. A tutor-driven recruitment committee can join the ranks of the newsletter, social media, and writing contest committees. All tutors should see recruiting new tutors as part of their role, with recommendations from tutors treated just as recommendations from professors—followed up with an email invitation to join the training course. Further, EMWTs should be encouraged to promote the writing center in their departments. As engineering professors require written assignments and value strong writing, EMWTs can identify engineering professors who might encourage their students to use the writing center and even recommend strong writers for tutor training. Given contextual constraints, engineering faculty are likely more receptive to the initiatives introduced by their students than by faculty in other departments.

These proposed measures are commensurate with the findings of this investigation. Given their investment in their writing tutor roles and their cognizance of the effect of the techno-social schism on their and other students' lives, EMWTs are persuasive advocates for interdisciplinary cooperation between the writing center and engineering departments.

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Glossary

Accreditation Board for Engineering and Technology (ABET): An accreditation body for postsecondary engineering programs (not for entire institutions). An accreditation by ABET means that the engineering program of a particular institution has been deemed as meeting a high standard of quality with regards to students, curriculum, faculty, administration, facilities, and institutional support. This accreditation lasts for 6 years. (http://www.abet.org/).

English-medium instruction: instruction that takes place in English in non-Anglophone settings like Europe, the Middle East, and Asia where it is a growing trend at the postsecondary level

First-year Writing/Composition (FYW/FYC): a fundamental part of American-university curricula, first-year writing courses generally introduce first-year students to academic writing with emphasis on critical thinking, rhetorical strategies, audience, purpose, genre, and source-based writing. This introduction should lay a foundation for discipline-based writing in upper-division courses.

Middle East-North African (MENA) countries: Algeria, Bahrain, Djibouti, Egypt, Iran, Iraq, Israel, Jordan, Kuwait, Lebanon, Libya, Malta, Morocco, Oman, Qatar, Saudi Arabia, Syria, Tunisia, United Arab Emirates, West Bank and Gaza, and Yemen

Sharjah: one of the seven emirates (like state or province) of the United Arab Emirates. The other six are Abu Dhabi, Dubai, Ajman, Um al Qawain, Fujairah, Ras al Khaimah. All emirates have their distinct qualities. Sharjah is known for its culture (16 museums) and higher education (several universities).

United Arab Emirates: an oil-rich gulf state founded in 1971, characterized

by a very small local population and a large, multilingual, multicultural work force of expatriates. Islam is the official religion, and Arabic the official language, although English, Hindi, and Urdu are widely spoken.
Writing Center: commonly found at universities in the US and Canada but increasingly throughout the world, a venue where students receive assistance on their written assignments from undergraduate peers who have been trained to support them in maintaining structure, clarity, and integrity in their writing.
Writing Center tutor: at AUS, this refers to an undergraduate student who has been trained to support the various students with their writing assignments in any class at the university writing center

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10 Boston to Beirut: Understanding an International Writing Center Collaboratory through Post-Qualitative Inquiry

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Abstract: This chapter takes up one of the collection's central questions: "What constitutes research?" Walzer and Abboud Habre critique some of the more traditional quantitative and qualitative methodologies often used in writing studies. Instead of demonstrating how their international writing center partnership across U.S. and Lebanese contexts resulted in quantifiable outcomes and data generalizations, the authors conclude that the value of their research is the ongoing, sustained relationship they built over the years. Utilizing post-qualitative research, which they explain in depth, they theorize their international collaboration—what they call a "collaboratory"—as the deliverable itself. They demonstrate how the collaboratory provided the kind of intellectually and personally supportive and generative "third" space where they could problem solve, share resources, and partner in writing center practice to support genuine transnational insights for themselves, their pedagogy, their writing centers, and their changing multicultural and multilingual institutional contexts. In sum, they make the case that establishing (and studying) these long term inter- and transnational partnerships on a meta-critical level is crucial, even if it is often an invisible aspect of international writing studies, and they argue that their own collaboratory is a clear instance of the value of the larger extended dialogic network of the IRC.

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Reflection

This chapter is a byproduct of several years of research, collaboration, friendship, and solidarity between the authors.[1] It reflects a kairotic moment in which international politics, our respective institutions' goals, and our personal histories and intellectual identities aligned. The year 2016 was a fraught political time in the US, but it was still relatively stable in Lebanon. Both of our institutions had strategic plans to globalize and were funding international projects and collaborations. Northeastern was opening sister schools in cities and countries across the world and offered grants for global opportunities. Belinda Walzer was interested in globally networked pedagogy and was actively looking for international partnership opportunities. As a brand-new writing center director in a multilingual context, she sought a mentor with experience in multi/translingual writing centers. Simultaneously, Lebanese American University had just purchased a satellite campus space in New York City and sought relationships with U.S. institutions. Although Paula Habre had significant experience in writing center work and was already working with the U.S. Embassy to establish writing centers in secondary schools throughout the MENA region, Paula's Chair and Dean were keen for her to utilize the relationship to benchmark her relatively young writing center against a well-established, internationally recognized writing center.

Additionally, both Belinda and Paula each had personal and academic histories that gave rise to the project. While working toward her MA in Teaching English as a Foreign Language (TEFL) at the American University of Beirut, Paula received a scholarship to study in Boston when regional conflict interrupted her studies. While in Boston, Paula worked in a nascent writing center at Boston University; thus, she was familiar with writing center pedagogy in a multilingual U.S. context. Conversely, Belinda was a research associate at American University of Beirut while writing her dissertation on international human rights rhetoric and pedagogy and so had familiarity with the Lebanese context.

Belinda and Paula were connected by a mutual friend in Lebanon and met in Beirut in the spring of 2016. We hit it off immediately. We began developing our project through virtual exchanges and the next time we met (the only other time we have gathered in person) was at the 2017 International Research Consortium. The IRC gave us an invaluable opportunity: it modeled for us what rigorous international research looked like, it exposed us to scholars talking about the region, and it helped us recognize the value

1 Please read the opening statement for this collection, "Editing in US-Based International Publications: A Position Statement," before reading this chapter.

of our project and need for research in this area. In short, the IRC helped us realize not only how unique our situation was, but also that our work was part of a much larger existing conversation and network of international research partnerships. We believe that each partnership is born out of unique circumstances and creates its own internal culture—no two collaborations are the same and they are constantly changing. What was once an institutionally-driven research "collaboratory" has become a friendship that continues despite the fact that neither directs a writing center any longer. In the next iteration of our partnership, we plan to globally network our writing courses. Our experience is illustrative in that it demonstrates the ways in which these partnerships are so much more than their deliverables. They not only provide professional development, but also enduring personal connection.

Institutional Descriptions

Northeastern University Institutional Context at the Time of the Collaboratory (2016–2018):

Northeastern University is a private, urban, residential, R1 institution in the city of Boston, Massachusetts, known for experiential learning. In 2017, it enrolled upwards of 20,000 students, with approximately 17,500 undergraduates and 7,000 graduate students. The student body was diverse with 18 percent international students and over 75 percent of students with financial support.

Northeastern is unique in its focus on experiential learning. Undergraduates participate in a co-op program built into their academic study by interning or working in the industries in which they are majoring. Over 60 percent of students participated in co-op in 134 different countries in 2017. Northeastern's mission statement at the time was "a global, experiential, research university built on a tradition of engagement with the world, creating a distinctive approach to education." The globalization of higher education was a specific presidential priority at the time of the study.

The Writing Center at Northeastern University serves the entire student population. At the time of the study, it was staffed by peer tutors at the undergraduate level from all different disciplines, Masters-level students from multiple disciplines, and English PhD students. Over 50 percent of consultations from 2014–2018 served students who self-identified as international or whose first language was not English. Additionally, the writing center filled a significant need for international graduate writer support. Over 40 percent of the sessions were with graduate students and of those, 85 percent were with self-reported multilingual students.

Lebanese American University Institutional Context at the Time of the Collaboratory (2016–2018):

The Lebanese American University is a leading, nonsectarian, private higher education institution in Lebanon. It operates under a charter from the Board of Regents of the University of the State of New York and is accredited by the New England Association of Schools and Colleges. It is composed of two campuses, Beirut and Byblos, and offers programs leading to degrees in Arts, Sciences, Architecture, Engineering, Pharmacy, Business, Nursing, and Medicine. In the fall 2016 semester, LAU had more than 8,400 students enrolled with 4,551 in Beirut and 3,942 in Byblos. Almost one-fifth of its students at the time were international and more than 50 percent were women. There were 310 full-time and 510 part-time faculty members.

LAU's mission statement states that the university is "committed to academic excellence, student-centeredness, the advancement of scholarship, the education of the whole person, and the formation of students as future leaders in a diverse world." A big number of its graduates travel to Europe or the States for graduate studies and/or work abroad, so a lot of effort is invested in preparing them for new settings.

The Writing Center was established in 2010 in Beirut and in 2012 in Byblos. Even though the Writing Center supports students from the different schools at the graduate and undergraduate levels, it belonged to the English department at the time of the study. The Writing Center tutors are part-time English faculty who have undergone training. The Writing Center serves a majority of undergraduate students with almost 51 percent of the clients at the sophomore level and 13 percent of clients at the graduate level. It is also worthy of mention that 83 percent of the students who visit the Center use Arabic as their self-identified first or home language, 77 percent of the clients use English as their second language, and 14 percent use French as their second language.

Introduction

Over the past several decades, there has been growing enthusiasm for the value of globalizing higher education—particularly in the US—not least as a means of providing university students with access to educational opportunities that are not geographically bound. As Wendy Olson (2015) posits, "college composition is necessarily a transnational enterprise." (p. 303). This global turn in higher education is paralleled in writing studies as the field continues to counteract the Americentrism of its conversations and conventions

(see research by Arnold, 2016; Bou Ayash, 2014; Donahue, 2009; Martins, 2015; Starke-Meyerring, 2015; Starke-Meyerring & Wilson 2008; Tardy, 2015; Trimbur, 2016). The International Researchers Consortium (hereafter IRC) has done much to facilitate this work by fostering international research and partnerships across institutions and geographies. This chapter tells the story of one such transnational partnership facilitated by the IRC between two writing centers—one in Boston and one in Beirut—and the lessons we learned over the course of several years of our "collaboratory" about international writing center practices and tutor training within the globalization of higher education.

Our partnership set out to conduct qualitative research that could examine how the demand for globalizing higher education within neoliberal universities was manifesting in writing centers. Across the multiple years of collaboration beginning in 2016, there were several points of interaction among the authors (who were the writing center directors at the time), the tutors, and the tutors in training. Between 2016 and 2018, the authors also made numerous attempts to collect robust qualitative data. However, during this time we came to learn that the most valuable aspects of our partnership emerged out of our friendship and included sustained and supportive interactions, surprising similarities, and solidarity across differences in our writing centers. In other words, despite our failure to be able to conduct the data-driven research initially proposed to the IRC, what emerged as the primary takeaway from this experience was the value of sharing the mutual concerns that gave rise to our initial research questions in the first place.

In order to understand this phenomenon better, in this chapter we turn to post-qualitative inquiry as a way to approach what we came to call the "collaboratory" itself as data, and thus come to terms with how the conditions under which our collaboration thrived actually disallowed the kind of research we set out to do. Instead, it fostered other kinds of equally productive and collective knowledge. Ultimately, post-qualitative inquiry helps us understand the value of what we achieved: a sustained and mutually enabling space that allowed us to partner in practice, and move beyond the performance and products of research.

By making a portmanteau of the words "laboratory" and "collaboration" to describe our partnership, we borrow from the sciences and offer the term "collaboratory" as an example of a shared mutual space of engagement, facilitated by digital means, that centers the object of our research on the partnership itself. This "third space" of the collaboratory also provided us both a way to conceptualize the identity of our centers beyond our individual and geographically bound institutional settings. In so doing, we drew

on the robust discussion of the transnationalizing of composition and writing studies that seeks to decenter U.S. methodologies and epistemologies while simultaneously attending to the nuances of context and the complexities of power structures across international partnerships and difference (see research including: Arnold et al., 2017a Donahue, 2009; Kiedaisch & Dinitz, 2007; Martins, 2015; Severino, 2009; and more). For example, in her 2009 article, "Internationalization and Composition Studies: Reorienting the Discourse," Christiane Donahue cautions U.S. researchers to resist the "us-them" paradigm that the current discourse on internationalizing higher education advances by instead "thinking where our work fits in the world rather than where the world's work fits into ours" (p. 214). In fact, this collaboratory enabled us to conceptualize our partnership as its own entity outside of this hierarchized dichotomy of cultural difference and find value in these kinds of sustained international partnerships for personal and institutional survival.

By sharing our story here, we offer that, in addition to producing empirical research that could be transposed to other institutional contexts in replicable ways, another valuable aspect of international partnerships is to model a shared space. This shared space enables participants to examine with new eyes the unique contexts of each individual's experience and support one another in navigating individual and shared challenges across different contexts. When viewed through post-qualitative inquiry, what is exportable about our experience, then, is the "collaboratory" model itself of sustained and supportive international partnership that the IRC offers on a large scale and that our collaboratory demonstrates on a more intimate scale.

Institutional and Collaboratory Context

Writing centers are born out of and conform to their localized contexts, whether in institutional positionality, funding, staffing structures, leadership conditions, and/or student needs and demographics—all of which condition a writing center's praxis. As such, any universalizing research about writing centers must be mediated through local circumstances and conclusions adapted to individual contexts. We offer a detailed overview below of each institution in the partnership and the contours of the partnership not only as a way to demonstrate the unique specifics of what shaped our collaboratory for readers interested in facilitating their own but also as a way to provide context for the collective identity that emerged out of our individual contexts in the third space of the collaboratory. Additionally, this context helps to demonstrate why the empirical nature of our research ultimately failed and instead gave rise to another perhaps more generative process of inquiry.

Lebanese American University (LAU) is a leading, nonsectarian, private, university in Lebanon, situated in Beirut and Byblos. It is chartered through the Board of Regents of the University of the State of New York and is accredited by the New England Association of Schools and Colleges. LAU's mission statement shows that the university is "committed to academic excellence, student-centeredness, the advancement of scholarship, the education of the whole person, and the formation of students as future leaders in a diverse world." The primary language of instruction is English and most students are multi or translingual with English, French, and Arabic as primary languages. At the time of this study, LAU had more than 8,400 students across both its campuses. And almost 20 percent of its students were international (Lebanese American University Fact Book, 2016–17).

The Lebanese American University Writing Center (hereafter LAUWC) was established in 2010 at the Beirut campus and in 2012 at the satellite campus in Byblos. The LAUWC supports all students but serves a majority of undergraduate students. Because LAU's curriculum is all conducted in English, the writing center serves an almost entirely multilingual population with Arabic as the first or home language of a majority of the tutees. At the time of the study, all of the tutors were multilingual in languages including Arabic, French, English, Armenian, and more. English and French were the most common second languages of the tutees with English as the second language of 77.69 percent of the tutees and French as the second language of 14 percent of the tutees.

During the time of the study, the LAUWC was situated within the English department and was staffed by professional tutors, many of whom were also part-time English faculty with Master's degrees and specialized training in writing center pedagogy. Because the center was staffed by professional tutors, there was very little turnover. At the LAUWC, tutors who were not trained at previous writing centers were required to undergo training that consisted of required readings, discussions, observations, as well as mentoring by a veteran tutor who submitted an evaluation report on the novice tutor to the director. Moreover, during the study (and partly because of the collaboratory) the LAUWC also began employing peer tutors for the first time.

Northeastern University is a private, urban, residential, research institution with its flagship campus in the city of Boston, Massachusetts and additional campuses and partnerships across the US, Canada, and England. It also has significant online enrollment. Academic work at Northeastern is primarily conducted in English. At the time of the study, it enrolled upwards of 35,000 students. According to data gathered by Northeastern in 2017, the student body was diverse with over 135 countries represented, 18 percent international

students, and over 75 percent students with financial support. Northeastern's mission statement in 2017 was "a global, experiential, research university built on a tradition of engagement with the world, creating a distinctive approach to education." It sought to "make the world its classroom." Undergraduates participate in a co-op program built into their academic study by interning or working in the industries they are studying. In 2017 over 60 percent of students participated in co-ops in 134 different countries.

The Northeastern University Writing Center (hereby referred to as NUWC) was established several decades ago. Although the NUWC is situated within the Department of English, it serves all students even those abroad or at satellite campuses. Although there was also an additional writing center that served only international students through the professional college, over 50 percent of consultations at the NUWC (between 2013–2017) served students who self-identified as multilingual. The NUWC also filled a significant need for international and multilingual graduate writer support as 40 percent of sessions were with graduate students and, of those, 85 percent were with multilingual graduate students.

During the collaboratory, the NUWC was directed by a full-time faculty member, and staffed by peer tutors at the undergraduate and Master's level from different disciplines and English PhD students. Towards the end of the partnership, the NUWC hired a multilingual writing specialist who was, at the time, the only professional tutor. Tutor training occurred at the start each term through workshops and observations and all tutors participated in required ongoing training sessions throughout their tenure. Significantly, there was huge turnover in tutors across semesters at the NUWC, particularly at the undergraduate level (the largest staffing demographic), because many tutors went on co-op. All training was completed as part of tutors' paid hours, which contributed to the challenges surrounding implementing the data-driven aspects of the collaboration: there were labor concerns in asking NUWC tutors to spend too much time beyond their tutoring on research projects.

The partnership began in late spring 2016 with a site visit to Beirut, Lebanon by Belinda, director of the NUWC, to meet Paula, director of the LAUWC. Belinda was interested in facilitating the relationship because she was a new director at a university with an increasing multilingual population and had experience and connections in Lebanon already (see chapter reflection). She was grappling with the challenges that many writing centers face of resisting linguistic colonialism within a multilingual context while simultaneously meeting the needs of tutees who seek the center precisely for help conforming to the high-stakes demands to perform Standard Academic

English (for example, see work by Arnold, 2016; Bou Ayash 2014; Canagarajah, 2016; and Trimbur, 2016). Belinda sought a partner from whom to learn the intricacies of running a multilingual center and someone who could mentor her in the process.

Paula, who was part of founding the LAUWC only five years prior, welcomed the collaboration not only because it aligned with her institution's recent mission of globalizing, but also because she saw an opportunity to enable tutors to compare styles, needs, and demands, and help her relatively new writing center benchmark their growth, goals, approaches, and philosophies with an established writing center in the US (Paula also had experience in Boston; see chapter reflection). In other words, the partnership paired an inexperienced director at the helm of a robust and institutionally secure center with an experienced director still building institutional support to grow her relatively new center. At the time of this study, both directors were full-time teaching faculty who taught upwards of three courses at a time in addition to their directorship responsibilities. This contextual information becomes particularly important not only from a labor standpoint but also because the directors came to the partnership with similar institutional positionalities. This began a dynamic that allowed each partner to bring shared experience as well as both expertise and humility to the shared digital space.

We continued our collaboratory for two years, from 2016–2018 (until Belinda moved institutions), through multiple synchronous and asynchronous modes. During each of the five terms that constituted the active part of the collaboratory, we had multiple forms and modalities of contact between the sister centers: (1) several synchronous joint web conference trainings, (2) paired collaboration and mentorship between multiple tutors and tutors-in-training across centers, (3) several different asynchronous blog discussions, (4) virtual introductory videos shared between the centers, and (5) many synchronous web conference discussions between the directors. As previously mentioned, to facilitate the relationship's start, Paula hosted Belinda in Beirut for a few days in May 2016. Despite chatting over video conference nearly every month to plan and coordinate the various points of engagement, the only other time the directors met in person was at the IRC at the 2017 CCCCs in Portland, Oregon. The NUWC also hosted two LAU tutors in Boston for an afternoon in Summer 2017. At the end of the active portion of the collaboratory, the tutors were asked to respond to reflective surveys on what they learned throughout the collaboratory; these reflections inform and provide insight for what follows.

When we began our partnership, scholarship on globally networked learning as well as our experiences in the International Research Consortium

provided us language and models for how to frame our collaboratory to avoid problematic pitfalls of many cross-institutional transnational collaborations. For example, the article by Connie Kendall Theado et al. (2017) describes a partnership between the University of Cincinnati in the US and the Salahaddin University-Hawler in Iraqi Kurdistan that provided a model for our own study. Theado et al.'s collaboration focused on curriculum reform, and the "benefits accruing to cross-institutional collaborations between U.S. and Kurdish university faculty while challenging the U.S.-centric perspective" (p. 152). It questioned the "presumed portability of western knowledges and pedagogies into Kurdish institutions of higher education," and a persistent and ideological bias, where western is regarded as interchangeable with global (Theado et al., 2017, p. 153). The authors describe a process of collaboration defined by productive resistance that makes space for "periodic and recursive instances of silence, contact, and negotiation" in order to value the pluralistic co-construction of knowledge across vastly different cultural contexts (Theado et al., 2017, p. 159). The authors also offer a model of narrative interpretations of "critical junctures" in the partnership that contributed to their larger understanding of the role of productive resistance in collaboration.

Transnational partnerships in and across the Middle East and North Africa (MENA) region were also instrumental to our understanding of our collaboratory. The MENA region is quickly emerging as a critical center for writing studies interested in super diversity, and a hub for transnational partnerships, largely due to organizing by the Middle East-North Africa Writing Centers Alliance (MENAWCA). For example, Lisa R. Arnold et al.'s transnational partnership between students writing literacy narratives at the American University of Beirut and at the University of Michigan, Dearborn describes a partnership that facilitated a dynamic interaction among voice, identity, and context that enabled students to "unother" the other (2017a). This helped us to recognize the ways in which international partnerships provide opportunities for increased self-reflection that yield deeper intra-cultural understanding (the recognition of internal diversity of the home community) and a much deeper understanding of global knowledge production (also see Moore & Simon, 2015; Starke-Meyerring & Wilson, 2008).

Although this kind of globally networked learning is generally conducted at the student level in a classroom setting to facilitate transnational empathy (Arnold et al., 2017a) or at the faculty level between departments in different institutions (Theado et al., 2017), our collaboratory moves globally networked learning into the dynamic co-learning setting of the writing center. In this way, our partnership responds more directly to the IWCA 2018 keynote speech by Amy Hodges, Lynne Ronesi, and Amy Zenger, three writing center

directors from American universities in the MENA region (Qatar, UAE, and Lebanon, respectively), who call for writing professionals to learn "from" the Middle East and North Africa rather than conducting research "on" the MENA region since it represents the most complex forms of multilingualism and super diversity. Hodges et al. (2019) assert that by understanding the many traditions of researching writing and the teaching of writing, directors and tutors everywhere can make their centers more globalized. Although our collaboratory began a few years before their address and subsequent article, it resonates with our goals, which sought to move away from a consultancy model and instead toward an exchange between equal partners, defying the trope that knowledge flows from West to East. By learning from and, perhaps even more importantly, *with* each other, we respond directly to their call for equal access, opportunity, and support for populations of writers in their own context.

Theorizing Research Outside of Methodology: Post-Qualitative Inquiry

When we began the partnership, we set out to develop a replicable, aggregable, data-driven (RAD) research project using qualitative and ethnographic research methodologies to study multilingualism and labor in writing centers in two globally-oriented universities in differing geographical and cultural locations. The partnership also began with the assumption that a collaboration between international writing centers could facilitate deeper global knowledge production and help students and tutors better recognize the demands of writing for global audiences. We hoped it would continue to dismantle the Americentrism of writing center studies by exposing assumed universalities of Academic English, tutoring strategies, student needs in writing centers, and writing situations that might not be shared across different writing center cultures.

During the first year of the partnership, we attended the 2017 IRC in Portland, Oregon in order to workshop our research design and methodologies and learn from other international collaborations and research projects. This also provided us an opportunity to meet in person for the second time. During the IRC we workshopped research methodologies to examine guiding conceptual questions including: What is the impact of an international partnership on tutor training? As pressures for globalizing curriculum increase in higher education, how do they manifest in local tutor sessions? What is the impact of an international partnership on the historical centrality and assumed universality of U.S. writing center epistemologies and pedagogies?

How might a cross-cultural and cross-institutional partnership help us better interrogate and operate ethically within our own local institutional pressures for globalization that stem from neoliberal forces?

These guiding conceptual questions emerged from concerns around the labor underlying the globalized nature of higher education and the role of the writing center in equipping students to participate in an increasingly globalized workforce with adaptable communication skills, while simultaneously critiquing the linguistic coloniality, habits of white language supremacy, and neoliberal foundations of this demand. These questions about labor within the intersections of the neoliberal university and its global mission seemed particularly relevant given that, as Starke-Meyerring argues, "neoliberal global policies … have rendered higher education a privatized commodity to be traded in global markets." (2015, p. 309). We planned to collect qualitative data from tutors in each location through a series of reflections on filmed sessions. Essentially, we hoped this data would help students and tutors better understand their own positionality within institutional pressures for Standard Academic English.

However, one of the factors our collaboratory clearly helped us understand was the labor creep at the director level that is part and parcel of the neoliberal globalization of higher education. Although the IRC offered us a valuable and supportive space to meet with each other (one of only two in person meetings we had across the entire collaboratory) and bond in solidarity together and with other international writing practitioners and scholars who were also grappling with many of the same challenges that we were, once we each returned home from the IRC, we struggled to find the time to launch the empirical aspects of our research. As contingent teaching faculty with full teaching loads as well as our directing responsibilities, the robust nature of transferable empirical research across borders challenged our temporal means at that time. Additionally, the turnover in tutors at the NUWC made it difficult to get buy-in to participate in the labor-intensive qualitative data collection method we had planned.

Instead, we found ourselves focusing on the more daily and supportive aspects of the collaboration and relationship that helped to facilitate mentoring, training, and collaboration. In fact, the turnover in peer tutors at the NUWC ended up becoming one of the reasons the collaboratory thrived: because it functioned as part of the training and reflective practices for the NUWC and drew on the existing mentoring experience of the LAUWC professional tutors. In other words, while we did not gather evidence as proposed in the IRC, we argue that the daily practice of our collaboration has value to the larger conversation on RAD research when viewed through the lens

of post-qualitative inquiry. The analytic process of post-qualitative inquiry enables research to come “differently into focus” (Levy et al., 2015) than traditional methods of qualitative and quantitative research.

Post-qualitative inquiry is just emerging in writing studies but has been circulating in social science discourse and education research since the 1990s. Post-qualitative inquiry refuses methodological repetition. It draws on the poststructuralists Deleuze and Guattari, Foucault, and Derrida, and is, as Elizabeth St. Pierre (who is largely credited with its origin) argues, “deliberately anti-method” (2019, p. 2). It is “composed of specific components, which change when the concept is taken from its specificity on the plane on which it appears, so those concepts don’t travel,” but instead are applied to “lived human experience … for re-orienting thought” (St. Pierre, 2019, p. 2). It refuses the “representationalist logic” that “assumes there is the real out there and then a representation of the real in a different ontological order” (St. Pierre, 2019, p. 4). In other words, post-qualitative inquiry can add to more traditional qualitative inquiry by suggesting not only that data cannot speak for itself, but also that “research does not simply describe, it is performative” (Gerrard et al., 2017, p. 391). Aligned more with the practices of literary study, rhetorical study, and philosophy, post-qualitative inquiry recognizes that naming creates, and thus rejects more essentialist approaches wherein uncovering reveals, enabling a deeper engagement with the power structures and issues of representation embedded in any inquiry.

We offer that post-qualitative inquiry allows us to examine not only our collaboratory itself as data, but also encourages a power critique of that data, including the process of collection. If autoethnographic research enables one to become the object of their own research lens and to connect one’s experience to larger cultural, political, and social forces, then post-qualitative inquiry decenters the “I” in the autoethnographic experience, throwing into circulation the subject and object as the agentic forces that produce the ethnographer’s authority and even the ethnographer as a researcher. What post-qualitative inquiry enables us to see are the ontological links between our position as researchers and the object of research, which in this case includes ourselves, our institutional contexts, and our geographical relationality and subjectivity. This expands the tool-box for researchers fostering transnational communities of practice because it enables a refocusing of the critical lens beyond the performance of empirical research toward deeply sustained collaborations (like our collaboratory and like the IRC itself) that can be valued alongside objective RAD work.

Power is embedded in how knowledge is produced through research and manifests particularly in the “rigid and unproblematized mobilizations of

subject-object positions within the knowledge created by research" since, as Foucault reminds us, these very same conditions that produce the subject also "discipline, surveil, and produce the forms of conduct for the subjection" (Gerrard et al., 2017, p. 385). In other words, post-qualitative inquiry helps to "reject the presumptive centering of the human subject" and thus the "constitution of data." (Gerrard et al., 2017, p. 385). However, Jessica Gerrard et al. critique post-qualitative inquiry as purporting to do that which it denies. By working in opposition to humanism, post-qualitative inquiry can end up creating a false dichotomy and essentializing humanism and thus qualitative research. By critiquing the ostensible universalizing gestures of qualitative research and its teleology of generalizing, abstracting, and categorizing, post-qualitative inquiry actually risks universalizing qualitative research itself, and, ironically, thus defining itself through this opposition despite its objections to definitive practices.

Therefore, we seek to avoid this essentializing move by valuing the work that qualitative (and quantitative) research can do within the field and particularly in international research—not least because it has enabled the field of writing studies and writing center studies to define itself and carve out an institutional reputation. We also seek to add to the research repertoire in writing studies and writing center studies a post-qualitative inquiry that engages directly with the values of transnational and decolonial research by centering the power relations that form and underscore all writing situations, writing programs, writing centers, and international exchanges in writing studies. Thus, post-qualitative inquiry supplements replicable research because it privileges invention over discovery and iteration as remaking rather than repetition so as to think questions that are out of the ordinary. When we set out on our project, we quickly realized our original questions about the pressures of neoliberalism on the global academy and how that manifests in localized tutoring sessions were too broad to study robustly using existing qualitative or mixed methodologies. So, instead of narrowing our questions to ones that were able to be studied, we turned the lens on ourselves to consider the ways in which those pressures emerged in the impetus for our partnership in the first place and in the various points of engagement we facilitated across the contours of a writing center. We examine those moments below within their various contextual forces as a way to offer evidence to our claim that the partnership operated as a microcosm of the IRC in facilitating a sustained international partnership. This method enables us to privilege the values of the IRC in so far as we offer that our collaboration itself is simultaneously the object of inquiry, the data, and the outcome. By centering the phenomenon of collaboration, we study the third space of the collaboratory not as a fixed entity that is replicable, aggregable and universal or exportable, but instead

as a continually emergent network that assumes an identity outside of the individual subjectivities of the participant-researchers.

The Collaboratory:

In his book, *Beyond Conversation* (2020) William Duffy articulates a theory of collaborative writing grounded in new materialist theory, interactionist theory, and post-qualitative inquiry. He coins the useful phrase "minor literatures of collaboration" to describe "scholarship that performs the complexities of authorship it theorizes or otherwise takes as its subject" (Duffy, 2020, p. 139). Building on Duffy's phrase as he translates it from world literature conversations to writing studies, we offer that the value of our collaboratory to international research lies in its valuing of these "minor literatures of collaboration." Where Duffy is talking about the excesses of invention and production that occur in the collaborative writing process, we offer that the minor literatures of collaboration in our collaboratory occur in the excesses of our partnership: the quiet moments of mentorship, solidarity across difference, and friendship during the hours of Skype, Zoom, and WhatsApp calls between the directors and the intangible, difficult-to-measure moments of exposure, growth, and self-reflexivity across difference among tutors on both sides of the collaboration.

These minor literatures of collaboration, often defined by their surfeit to the economies of production and the "actual" research at hand, "provoke—to degrees that can only be anticipated but not predicted, and in ways that resonate differently from one location to the next—perturbations that can frustrate these economies" (Duffy, 2020, p. 139). As Duffy offers it, post-qualitative inquiry can supplement the more procedural methods of social science and writing studies research with a more "speculative" approach, akin to Ann Berthoff's call to study the "'concrete particulars' of experience" (Duffy, 2020, pp. 142-143).

Evidence of these minor literatures of collaboration are difficult to pin down and make tangible, but they are surely present in the four synchronous joint virtual workshop trainings that comprised the most significant engagement among tutors from both centers. To facilitate these sessions, the directors partnered lead tutors to help plan and conduct the trainings. Across all four sessions, the minor literatures of collaboration emerged in the conversations prompted by tutor questions and responses and the exposed anxieties around authority, disciplinary knowledge, writing center praxis, multilingualism, and the challenges of negotiating pressures for Standard Academic English (SAE) in both contexts. The conversations that ensued throughout these training workshops challenged previously held assumptions on both sides grounded in cultural, linguistic, and contextual differences, as well as assumptions about the

role of writing centers and tutor authority in antiracist and translingual work. The workshops resembled support groups and acted as an outlet for tutors and directors to vent frustrations and challenges as they exposed similarities and differences. For the purposes of this chapter, we will focus on the final workshop that asked tutors to discuss the collaboratory itself and the reflective blogs we asked tutors to complete throughout the active partnership.

The fourth and final virtual training session occurred in the final semester of our collaboratory. We wanted to take a closer look at the localized contexts in order to reveal some similarities and differences across the collaboratory so we gathered together a group of tutors around each web camera in Boston and Beirut and engaged in a discussion that reflected the themes that arose frequently during the previous two years of touchpoints during the collaboratory. For example, we asked tutors to jot down how they understood their role as tutors and compare that to their center's philosophy, and we asked them to reflect on what they assumed about student expectations for each center. The discussion that ensued demonstrated the value of the inter/intra-cultural reflection on tutor roles, writing center institutional positionality, tutor authority, and multilingual writing. We discussed the challenges of tutoring in ways that valued multilingualism, translingualism, and rhetorical choice given the pressures for SAE and we discussed the benefits and importance of linguistic diversity and multilingual tutors in each writing center context. Once again, each side of the partnership was surprised by just how many similarities we share in these institutional pressures that manifest in high stakes ways for tutees and writing centers as we seek to help students who are both the goal and the outcome of globalizing higher education.

The reflective blogs we asked tutors to complete confirmed this realization that there were more similarities than differences across the partnership and that the interactions garnered solidarity as each center turned to the other, despite their different contexts, for help negotiating and navigating similar contextual challenges around authority, knowledge, training, and access. One Beirut tutor's reflection encapsulates the minor literatures of collaboration and the ways in which they enable solidarity across difference as a source of self-reflection:

> At this critical juncture in our history … Now more than ever is the time to be building bridges … between people and cultures everywhere; initiatives like this collaboration … will go a long way in establishing cross-cultural collaboration and understanding. For me, fostering civil discourse is extremely important as a skill that is fast eroding from public life. In

> our context, we Lebanese have a hard time speaking to one another in a civil manner, especially when discussing religion and/or politics (these topics are pretty much banned on campus, for good reason!). I think this puts on us teachers/tutors an added responsibility … to teach the skill of respectful dialogue and debate—writing center tutorials are ideal for this.

This tutor situates the writing center at the forefront of civil discourse and democratic life, not only as a site to teach this kind of discourse to students, but also as a site to practice it with other tutors across difference, be it local, cross-cultural, translingual, or transatlantic. Another tutor responded, "I have basically learned that maintaining an open communication between writing centers across regions can actually be beneficial since it allows us, as tutors, to reassess where we stand, to learn and get informed about new ideas to explore, and to share experiences that could be of benefit to other fellow tutors." These responses are clear examples of the self-reflexive work so important to inter and intra-cultural understanding and the ways in which the transatlantic partnership asked tutors to recognize the diversity of their home communities as well as differences across the transatlantic contexts. However, we want to resist quantifying these responses as a data point in a RAD framework or outcome-based model of research. Instead, we encourage these reflections to be read as one node in the ecology of the collaboratory.

We began the collaboration and research process anticipating that our conclusions would lead to top-down adjustment of our practices based on our evidence. Instead, the process of our collaboratory changed our way of thinking and our practices more organically. It enabled each side to reexamine or rejustify long-held assumptions and policy decisions. For example, the NUWC began hiring more multilingual tutors and conducting explicit training around rhetorical and multilingual grammar tutoring, and the LAUWC hired their first peer tutor. Finally, little did we know that our relationship would transcend the functionality of the collaboration to a genuine friendship and support network for the directors. We found ourselves sharing experiences, not only for the sake of comparison, but also as a means to solve problems and share successes related to our common experiences as contingent faculty members directing writing centers similarly positioned institutionally, albeit in vastly different contexts.

What we offer through the example of this collaboratory is a model of international writing center research that is not necessarily product-driven, replicable, or aggregable, but rather process-oriented and valued for its minor literatures of collaboration. In other words, our model allows for the research

process to be generatively enacted such that the writing center itself is valued for the production of and as the product of ongoing, constantly shifting, research-in-action through methods such as the collaboratory. This model is akin to the kinds of arguments some writing program administrators and writing center directors make in tenure and promotion documents that administrative work in writing studies is itself the product and production of continued reflexive research and might be valued institutionally the same as other tangible and quantifiable products like publications, only with even more applicable and fluid context, exigence, and outcomes. In fact, we argue that the collaboratory's sustained partnership-in-practice had a much more significant impact on our practices than any publication based on our "failed" RAD research might have had since it impacted every tutor and tutee at each institution in meaningful and non-fungible ways as well as enabled a sustaining friendship between the directors that persists today.

Glossary

Collaboratory: a portmanteau of the words "laboratory" and "collaboration" that centers the object of research on the partnership itself.
Globalization of higher education: the desire in the 2010s, generated largely by U.S. institutions, to increase their international student body, facilitate international study, and globalize their curriculum. Often predicated on neoliberal impulses and outcomes.
Globally networked learning/pedagogy: shared curriculum across international contexts that facilitates and develops inter and intra-cultural knowledge and knowledge production.
MENA: Abbreviation for Middle East and North Africa: A diverse region that includes approximately 19 countries in which its students are primarily Arabic speakers who often study English or French as a second or foreign language.
Multilingual and Translingualism: Multilingualism is the use of two or more languages while translingualism is the phenomenon of inhabiting multiple languages.
Neoliberal university: the late capital shift in higher education to neoliberal and capitalist values of economic growth as the structure and function of the university rather than a primary mission of education. This relates to the globalization of higher education because it means higher education becomes "a privatized commodity to be traded in global markets." Starke-Meyerring (2015, p. 309).
Post qualitative inquiry: a process of research inquiry that emerges out of

poststructuralism and that approaches data not as a sovereign entity waiting to be uncovered but as a co-constructed process. This enables an approach to research that centers the power relations of researcher and researched and privileges invention over discovery.

RAD research: an acronym for replicable, aggregable, data-driven research often collected through quantitative and qualitative empirical means.

SAE or Standard Academic English: The genre and dialect of English used in research, study, teaching, writing, and universities. It refers to the primarily written language proficiency in academic programs. Current antiracist scholarship defines SAE as steeped in white language supremacy.

Transnational writing studies and writing center studies: research that seeks to decenter the "Americentrism" of writing studies and writing center studies while accounting for the complexities of power structures and difference across transnational contexts.

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