

**Processes and patterns of classroom life:
the dynamics of exchanging knowledge and values between
teachers and learners in English language writing classrooms**

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Abstract

Classrooms are complex. This complexity emerges from the social practices and language uses that have developed in education. This thesis furthers our understanding of teacher feedback practices in pre-tertiary academic English writing classrooms. I examine curriculum enactment in context from three perspectives: that of classroom interactions between teacher and learners; feedback practices across four different classrooms; and the spheres of control of curriculum agents.

Studies on teacher feedback in the Second Language Acquisition and TESOL literature have researched types of reified feedback and identified their importance in language development (Ellis, 2009). However, fewer studies have examined how teacher written feedback is incorporated into classroom discourse, an essential part of curriculum enactment and the achievement of lesson objectives. The study uses a synthesis of explanatory frameworks from Legitimation Code Theory (Maton, 2014) and pedagogic register analysis from the Martinian model of systemic functional linguistics (Martin, 1992; Martin & Rose, 2007; Rose, 2014; 2018; 2020) to analyse the knowledge and language of teacher feedback practices.

The study draws four main conclusions. Firstly, agent alignment is essential to understanding curriculum enactment. Secondly, teachers use feedback to meet course objectives while also meeting learners' needs, two targets that are not always in alignment. Thirdly, the study identifies semiotic resources employed in teacher feedback practices and establishes how these link to teaching choices in the classroom. Finally, the study suggests how to move the field beyond its current limits, namely the dichotomy of the written corrective feedback debate (Truscott, 1996; 1999, Ferris, 1999; 2004) and the limitations of cause-and-effect studies that attempt to identify the most effective forms of feedback (Bitchener & Ferris, 2012). I recommend a model that conceptualizes feedback as a pedagogic tool used dynamically by experienced teachers to oscillate between interpretation and evaluation, from sense making to meaning making, in classroom activities.

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Declaration

This is to certify that to the best of my knowledge the content of this thesis is my own work. This thesis has not been submitted for any degree or other purposes.

I certify that the intellectual content of this thesis is the product of my own work and that all the assistance received in preparing this thesis and sources have been acknowledged.

Andrew Scott

Brisbane, Queensland, Australia

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Meeting a friend in a corridor, the educational linguist asked:

“Tell me, why do people always say that it is natural for people to assume that explicit learning results in knowledge and values rather than that they come from exposure to semantic waves, curriculum genres and the ambient culture?”

Their friend said,

“Well, obviously, because it just looks as if explicit learning results in knowledge and values.”

To which the linguist replied,

“Well, what would it look like if it looked as if knowledge and values come from exposure to semantic waves, curriculum genres and the ambient culture?”

With apologies to Wittgenstein, Anscombe and Stoppard
(Stoppard, 1972, p. 75; Anscombe, 1959, p. 151)

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Chapter 1 Introduction: the problem, the purpose and the position of the study

How is it possible to introduce students to pre-existing systems and at the same time enable them to make independent choices? ... [T]he interaction between teacher and student through talk must play a central role in the strategies by which teachers seek to reconcile the two horns of the dilemma.

Barnes (1990, p. 44)

1.1 An overview of the research project

This qualitative study investigates the phenomenon of teacher feedback on learner writing on pre-tertiary English language courses. This includes the role of teacher talk in the teaching of writing with a particular focus on feedback episodes. More specifically, this study examines classroom language in order to describe feedback practices of teachers and to explain how these help teachers to achieve course goals. In addition, it aims to describe the linguistic resources marshalled in feedback practices and to identify local and global patterns in pedagogic discourse (Rose, 2014; 2018; 2020).

Large numbers of learners on pre-tertiary English language courses encounter difficulty learning to write at the proficiency level required for tertiary study in English. Despite considerable investment of time and money, some learners either struggle to achieve the minimum English language entry requirements for writing while others who meet these requirements struggle with the writing demands placed upon them during their studies. There are a small number of classroom research studies from pre-tertiary and English for Academic Purposes classrooms that describe and seek to explain how the teaching of writing occurs with a focus on feedback (Macnaught, 2015; Unlu & Wharton, 2015). However, more research is required in this area in order to understand feedback on writing practices in these pre-tertiary English language classrooms.

The purpose of this study is to describe and then seek to explain what occurs in teacher-led exchanges in four pre-tertiary English language writing classrooms. I anticipate that the knowledge from this study will afford new insights and understandings that might inform classroom practice while also making a small contribution to the theoretical frameworks employed in the study. This qualitative study employs tools from Legitimation Code Theory (Maton, 2014) and pedagogic register analysis (Rose, 2014; 2018, 2020) to analyse classroom talk. Participants in this study include a purposefully selected group of four English language teachers and their classes of up to 18 language learners who had started but not yet completed their pre-tertiary courses. These four teachers and classes constitute a multi-case study that affords points of meaningful comparison and contrast.

In order to investigate the role of language in the teaching and learning of writing in an academic English classroom, I examine how teachers vary context dependence and density of meaning (Maton, 2014) in classroom discourse. In particular, I focus on changes in the context-dependence of knowledge in revision and editing activities in writing lessons and how these unfold linguistically as pedagogic discourse. This chapter continues with an examination of the term English as an additional language (EAL). This is followed by the context and background of the study. The following sections provide statements of issue and purpose, the assumptions that underpin the study, and the research questions. This chapter also includes a discussion of the research approach and the study's contribution to knowledge. The chapter ends with an overview of the organization of the thesis.

1.2 English as an additional language (EAL)

At this point it is useful to clarify the use of some of the terms I use in this study and how they relate to each other. In a context-sensitive study such as this, it is essential to consider the broader context to gain a comprehensive and thorough understanding of social practices in the classroom. To understand more fully what occurs in the classroom, we are required to examine practices external to the classroom. For example, the decisions about lesson planning, curriculum development and, indeed, who is present in the classroom are usually made outside of and often from a physical and social distance from the classroom itself. In designing a context-sensitive study that accounts for relevant contextual factors, I

drew upon the ‘Sydney school’ architecture of systemic functional linguistics (Martin, 1992; Martin & White, 2005; Martin & Rose, 2007) because it theorizes context as two meaning-making systems in a stratified model of register and genre (Tann, 2017). This alternative to Halliday and Hasan’s model of context (Matthiessen, 1993) is discussed in greater detail in Chapter 3, Section 3.6. Conceptualizing classroom phenomena from a context-sensitive viewpoint has enabled me, figuratively, to step back and consider broader issues, as well as step in to examine the small and precise details of classroom interactions. This multifocal approach has encouraged me to question narrow, predetermined categories that entrench current views and privilege established perspectives.

One aspect of this approach involved critically evaluating and selecting appropriate terminology, such as, after careful consideration and research, my preference for the term EAL to describe the learners in the study, which I will now explain. The acronym EAL/D stands for English as an Additional Language or Dialect and describes a diverse and heterogeneous group of learners whose first language is a language or dialect other than English (ACARA, 2014, p.6). These learners were previously termed as learning English as a second language (ESL), non-English speaking background (NESB) learners or English language learners (ELL), unneutral terms that have become reductive and exclusionary by, for example, not recognizing bilingualism or multilingualism (Linse, 2013). The term EAL/D includes learners whose first language or dialect is not a Standard English. EAL/D is an umbrella term that covers a range of students that, in an Australian context, may include:

- Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander students¹

¹ Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander students who use one or more varieties of Aboriginal English as a first language are learning Standard Australian English (SAE) as an additional dialect (Eades, 2013). The question of improving educational outcomes for Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander students and the role of language in achieving this, is one of great importance that demands separate treatment from this thesis. For this reason, I use the shorter term EAL to describe the group of learners to which the EAL international students of my study belong. Australian genre pedagogy has worked to support language and literacy development for Indigenous Australian learners (see Rose & Martin, 2012). For a systemic review of factors contributing to educating outcomes of First Nations students from remote communities in Australia, see Guenther et al (2019).

- immigrants to Australia and temporary visa holders from non-English speaking countries
- learners with a refugee background
- children born in Australia of migrant heritage where English is not spoken at home
- English-speaking learners returning to Australia after extended periods in non-English speaking settings
- children of deaf adults who use Auslan (Australian Sign Language) as their first language
- international students from non-English speaking countries (ACARA, n.d.)

The focus of my research in this thesis concerns courses, teaching and learning for the final group in the list, that of international EAL students. International EAL students are themselves a diverse and heterogenous cohort.

The breadth of coverage of the term EAL is useful when considering the learners in the Australian educational context of this study. Australia is a culturally and linguistically diverse (CALD) nation, with school students coming from more than 2,000 different ethnic backgrounds (ACARA, n.d.). Across Australia, “around 25 per cent of primary and secondary school students learn English as an additional language or dialect” (ACARA, n.d.) and “in some schools this figure can be as high as 90 per cent” (ACARA, n.d.). Many students for whom English is an Additional Language (EAL) continue on to study at tertiary (i.e. post-secondary) level education. Two million people aged 15-24 years in Australia were studying in 2021; that is 65% of young people, including school students (Australian Bureau of Statistics, 2021). Around one million of these were studying for a certificate III² level qualification or above (Australian Bureau of Statistics, 2021). These figures suggest that

² AQF Level 3 – Certificate III descriptor: “The purpose of the Certificate III qualification type is to qualify individuals who apply a broad range of knowledge and skills in varied contexts to undertake skilled work and as a pathway for further learning. Certificate III qualifications are located at level 3 of the Australian Qualifications Framework.” (Australian Qualifications Framework Council, n.d.)

domestic EAL students are studying, or preparing to study, in tertiary education³ but, as they are not international students, they are not clearly acknowledged in official figures and therefore not visible as a cohort of learners. This lack of recognition suggests that, given the challenges EAL learners face in accessing the curriculum (Beveridge et al, 2021; ACARA, 2014; Rose & Martin, 2012), they might not be receiving the support they require to fully achieve their potential.

Similarities may be drawn with education systems in England and the USA. In England 975,238 children in primary schools were recorded as speaking English as an Additional Language, and a further 601,238 in secondary schools (Explore Education Statistics Service, 2021). About 19% of primary school students and 15% of secondary school students were recorded as EAL in 2015, although many are bilingual or have substantial familiarity with English (The Migration Observatory, 2016). In US schools, there are approximately 5 million children who are in the process of developing initial proficiency and competency in English (Linse, 2013, p.117). EAL enrolment in US publicly-supported school grades prior to college (kindergarten through to the 12th grade) has increased by more than 1 million students since 2000 (Office of English Language Acquisition, 2020) with enrolment “surging in states across the South and Midwest that had almost no English-learners at the turn of the century” (Mitchell, 2020). EAL learners are a large group in these education systems, and we might reasonably expect some to go on to study at university. As figures are not available, this is an area that requires further research. However, figures are available for international students. For example, international students made up 20% of the university student population in the UK in 2018/19 (Humphreys, 2022, p.2), and 22% in 2019/2020, with “around 557,000 international students, both EU and non-EU, [...] studying in UK higher education institutions, the largest number on record” (The Migration Observatory, 2021), followed by 605,130 international students enrolled in higher education (HE) courses in 2020/21 (Universities UK, 2022). These figures suggest that EAL learners, and

³ I have been unable to find figures reporting on the number of EAL students in higher education. Perhaps there is an assumption that following the completion of secondary education, EAL students are no longer recognized as requiring identification or support. An alternative explanation would be that these learners are unable to access higher education. Whatever the reason, a lack of data on EAL students raises questions of inclusivity, equity and access to higher education.

their associated needs and differences, warrant the attention of educational institutions, researchers, and policy makers.

EAL has been used to describe international students in Australian HE for at least a decade (Moore, 2012) and is used by the Australian institution in my research. The term international EAL students (Humphreys, 2022) describes students from non-English speaking countries, the cohort of learners in the classrooms investigated in this present study. Thus, in Australia the term EAL is used to describe both 'domestic' students (such as immigrants to Australia and temporary visa holders from non-English speaking countries, learners with a refugee background and children born in Australia of migrant heritage where English is not spoken at home) in HE and international students (Moore, 2012; Humphrey, 2022). The term was adopted in 2020 by the English language teaching (ELT) Centre and university in this thesis, following the recommendations of a working party established in 2018 (Institute for Teaching and Learning Innovation, n.d.), to enhance the CALD student experience and supporting EAL academic success. The term EAL is therefore relevant to the immediate and broader context of this research.

I view international EAL students as part of the culturally and linguistically diverse (CALD) (Sawrikar & Katz, 2009) cohort of learners in tertiary education in Australia because this enables a clearer perspective on the challenges and opportunities faced by educators. Identifying a student's nationality or permanent country of residence is not a clear indication of their ability to access English language academic discourse, "a key repository of accumulated human knowledge and wisdom" (Martin, Maton & Doran, 2020, p.1) and essential for success at university. Students in this broad and heterogenous group require different types of support to learn 'academic English' at school and university, depending on their level of English language proficiency in general, and 'academic English' in particular (Choudry, 2018; Rose & Martin, 2012; Hertzberg, 2012; Dobinson & Buchori, 2016), the linguistic resources students need to develop control over in order to achieve educational success in English language education (Martin, Maton & Doran, 2020; ACARA, 2014; Hessel & Murphy, 2018; Hutchinson, Whitely, Smith & Connors, 2003).

International EAL students possess shared characteristics and similar needs with other EAL university students who are learning English as an additional language. For example, they need to develop greater control over relevant genres (Nesi & Gardner, 2012) and gain access to the academic discourse necessary for achievement in their studies and,

through this, to access future opportunities to “wealth, health and the capacity to create or destroy worlds, real or imaginative” (Martin, Maton & Doran, 2020, p. 1). Recognizing these similarities enables educators to take a coherent approach to addressing issues of access, inclusion and equity. Access covers “all factors that relate to students before they are accepted into the university” (Wanti et al, 2022: 280) that are beyond the control of the individual, such as government policy (Walker, 2019); inclusion covers issues relating to whether teaching and learning includes every learner in the classroom or programme cohort (Grace & Gravestock, 2009: 1), fairly recognizing the needs and differences of students; and equity covers “all factors related to retention and successful completion of studies at the university level” (Wanti et al, 2022, p. 281) in tertiary education. For example, there has been a move in recent years for education providers in Australia to bring pathways into university for international EAL and domestic students together with information for both international students and domestic/Australian students on their homepages (QUT College n.d.; UQ College n.d.). This combination recognizes that by creating single organizations that provide pathways to tertiary study for both international EAL and domestic students avoids the fragmentation and duplication of services and promotes a coherent strategy for working towards greater inclusion and access.

In this study, the term pre-tertiary refers to courses of study undertaken by learners prior to entering tertiary study in order to prepare them with the knowledge and skills required to complete their future course. This includes foundation courses for those who left school early and language courses for international students preparing to study in an additional language. They are often termed ‘pathway’ or ‘bridging’ programs because they lead to a place at university. Some of these courses are for students who did not complete their schooling or do not meet entry requirements required to enable them to access post-compulsory education. While not exclusively for EAL learners, EAL learners unable to gain direct access to HE enrol on these courses. Within this larger group of pre-tertiary courses, there are programs for international students who do not speak English as their first language. In this study I refer to these courses as one type of English for Academic Purposes (EAP) courses. EAP can be wide-angled (Williams, 1978; Widdowson, 1983) or narrow, general or discipline specific (Hyland, 2002) in nature. The program I investigated in this study was an English for General Academic Purposes course. In their seminal publication, Flowerdew and Peacock (2001, p. 11) characterize EAP by discipline, (e.g. English for

Biology, English for Mathematics, English for Economics, etc.) modelling it as a typology, a classification according to type of academic discipline. EAP courses, teachers and learners are those involved in learning English for purposes of university study or research (Flowerdew and Peacock, 2001, p. 8).

The term EAP is a term that describes “a specialist branch of English-language teaching” (Ding & Bruce, 2017, p. 1) that aims to prepare or support students to study, conduct research or teach in English speaking higher education (Flowerdew & Peacock, 2001, p. 8). This often involves teaching EAL students. EAP describes curriculum and pedagogic practice in this specialist area of English language teaching (ELT) and is not an explanatory framework informing substantive research studies (Maton, 2014, p. 15). Following Bruce and Ding (2017), I see EAP as a professional field and a field of scholarship, and I hope that insights from this thesis will be of interest to EAP practitioners and researchers. I also hope that the study might prove of interest to practitioners and researchers involved in non-EAP pre-tertiary courses working with EAL learners more broadly, not just ‘international students’.

Finally, I prefer the term learner to student. These adults preparing for university study are better thought of as learners than students, as the term student may suggest school-age students and their associated attitudes, behaviours and needs. In addition, I view the term student as an administrative term used by institutions to categorise one group of stakeholders in contrast to another, such as staff. It is also important to note that the administrative and financial differentiations between ‘Home’ and ‘International’ students “become blurred and almost irrelevant once learning begins” (Bond, 2020, p. 5) on tertiary programs. The term learner is also a better fit with my understanding of teaching and learning, discussed throughout the thesis and in particular in Section 6.8. The social practices in the classrooms that form the focus of my study contain international EAL students. However, these also represent instances of a larger phenomenon, that of EAL learners in Anglophone education systems and, as such, I hope that this study will be of interest and even some use to teachers, teacher educators and other stakeholders keen to gain a greater understanding of the EAL writing classroom.

To summarize the arguments around my use of the term international EAL students, EAL is an umbrella term that covers a diverse and heterogenous group of learners. International EAL students is an established term in Australia for a subgroup of learners

within EAL. To recognize and address the challenges and opportunities faced by university student communities, Australian universities may identify international EAL students as EAL learners to avoid the fragmentation and duplication of responses when promoting inclusion and access.

1.3 Background and context

Control of written language is essential for international students embarking on university study and this forms an important strand in English for Academic Purposes (EAP) courses, especially short, intensive courses designed to prepare international students for degree level study. The learners on these high-stakes courses are usually new, not only to university, but also to the city and country in which they are studying. The first challenge faced by stakeholders is the question of how to develop learners' writing in a short amount of time to meet university entry requirements. The second challenge involves preparing international students for the use of the advanced language associated with tertiary studies, despite many of them being assessed as only intermediate students (Moore, 2006) according to standardized tests, such as the International English Language Testing System (IELTS). In their future studies, much of their learning will be assessed by the written work they produce. Courses preparing international students for English medium higher education (HE) continue to be important for both HE providers and students. A central issue, therefore, is the need for a clearer understanding of teaching in these contexts and the identification of effective practices.

1.4 Statement of issue

It is through teacher-led interaction, more than curriculum, teaching materials or assessment, that learning occurs in the social context of language classrooms. Materials, activities and feedback are provided to students through teacher-led interaction, primarily using the medium of language. The role that teacher-talk plays in pre-tertiary writing classrooms is the main focus of this study. In particular, this study investigates shifts in meaning in feedback on writing practices, how this unfolds linguistically and how teachers marshal these resources to achieve learning outcomes and course goals. Investigating this topic encompasses the areas of knowledge, language and learning. Halliday has emphasized

the centrality of language to learning (1993a) and his stratified model of language (Halliday, 1985a; Halliday & Matthiessen, 1994; 2004; 2014) as a social semiotic system (1978) has been further developed by educational linguists working with genre pedagogy (Martin, 1992; Christie, 2002; Martin & Rose, 2007; Rose & Martin, 2012; Rose, 2014; 2018; 2020). In Halliday's terms, "[t]he social semiotic is the system of meanings that defines or constitutes the culture; and the linguistic system is one mode of realization of these meanings" (1975, p. 139). For culturally and linguistically diverse (CALD) international students preparing for university in English speaking countries by completing pathway courses, English is not their first language but it is the medium of both instruction and assessment, while also being the object of study on these pre-tertiary courses. This combination of classroom medium, topic and goal (Halliday, 1993a, p. 112) makes these contexts particularly complex to describe and explain and, as such, rich research sites to explore and develop theory.

1.5 Statement of purpose

This study investigates educational practices in context in order to understand the feedback practices of teachers. Teacher feedback is important because the feedback learners receive from teachers is an intrinsic part of the educational endeavour (Bernstein, 1990/2003; Goffman, 1981). The purpose of this study is to identify, investigate and understand the complexity of these practices in order to provide insights for writing teachers and teacher educators and to inform future educational policy and practice.

The complexity of feedback practices often places teachers in a pedagogical predicament with simultaneous and seemingly contradictory and irreconcilable demands. One example of this faced by many teachers is (that of) guiding learners to a predetermined end point by following a prescribed syllabus while also recognizing and working with the learners' current knowledge and skills. Simultaneously, teachers must acknowledge that language learning is a dynamic process that is "a gradual, cumulative, often non-linear process [that] involves zig-zag developmental paths, U-shaped behavior, passage through fixed developmental sequences [...], plateaus, restructuring, lengthy periods when non-target forms and constructions are the norm, fluctuations in error rate, and only gradually improving accuracy" (Long, 2005, p. 3). It is in recognition of the dynamic nature of language learning that I use the term 'emerging' language in this study to reflect the notion of

learners' language development, which results in learners exercising ever greater "competence towards independent control" (Rose & Martin, 2012, p. 61) with time, guidance and practice. This research investigates this complex conundrum of balancing course outcomes with addressing learner needs (West, 1994, Swales, 2001; Long, 2005).

The complexity of this conundrum became clear during the study and the salient issues are outlined here. The first issue concerns planning and teaching. The challenges involve reconciling the dual demands of achieving lesson aims while also responding to the learners in the class. The first issue is that of managing the teaching and learning process in such a way that ensures the lesson aims are achieved while simultaneously responding to the actual writing produced by learners. This may be thought of as the teacher recognizing the starting point, that is the learners' current writing skills and knowledge about language, while managing the lesson in such a way that also achieves a desired aim. In addition, the teacher needs to view the class as a whole with its own group needs (e.g. linguistic) that are common across the cohort, while also striving to meet the needs of individuals (West, 1994, Swales, 2001; Long, 2005). Investigating and understanding the complexity of these issues is the purpose of this study. The insights from the study provide a greater understanding and awareness of classroom practices with applications for teachers and implications for teacher education and development programs.

1.6 Assumptions and research questions

There are several assumptions that underpin the study. The first assumption is that language plays a central role in language learning, both in terms of classroom discourse and writing tasks, as outlined in section 1.3 above. The second assumption is that the teacher-led classroom discourse varies from talk around specific examples of language in specific written passages to talk around more general features of language in written passages and even to talk of a more abstract nature, such as grammatical systems of the English language. In other words, the teacher varies the context dependence of the classroom discourse. The third assumption is that these changes can be identified and further analysed to show the linguistic choices that enable these interactions to unfold. The fourth assumption is that there are different patterns at different stages of the lesson. The fifth and final assumption

is that careful description of these phenomena will lead to greater understanding of both what occurs in the classroom and how it occurs.

The main, overarching research question is as follows:

1. How do teachers work towards both achieving course goals while simultaneously developing learners' emerging language and control of written genres during feedback in writing lessons?

To operationalize this overarching research question and address it systematically, I divided it into five narrower research questions, listed below:

- a) How do teachers both achieve lesson objectives and respond to learners' writing?
- b) How do teachers both meet group needs and individual learner's needs?
- c) How do teachers guide and support learners through giving feedback on writing?
- d) What linguistic resources do teachers employ in the classroom to effectuate these ends?
- e) What insights into classroom practice are offered by this analysis and description?

A summary of my responses to the research questions are provided in Section 7.2 of Chapter 7.

1.7 Research approach

The remaining part of this chapter outlines the research approach of the study and describes my relationship to the research site. It ends by outlining the contribution of the thesis before providing an overview of the organization of the thesis and a chapter summary.

With the approval of Lancaster University's Ethics Committee (reference FL19013), I studied four English language teachers teaching writing to adult international students on a pre-tertiary course over three units of work. These teachers were familiar with the course. They were teaching the learners on a ten-week course. This investigation represents a multi-case study using qualitative research methods. Case study research (Duff, 2014) is an appropriate methodology as its characteristics matched the project's aims to investigate real-world phenomena in context. This study investigates classroom discourse through careful and context-sensitive data-collection methods involving multiple data sources.

The research approach involved the recording and transcription of classroom discourse and its subsequent analysis for context dependence, density of meaning (Maton, 2014) and linguistic patterns (Rose, 2014; 2018; 2020). In addition, the multi-case study involved detailed descriptions of classrooms contexts and participants and post-lesson interviews, which were analysed for issues, patterns and themes. In common with typical case study methodology, the purpose of analysis was to provide an in-depth understanding of these cases rather than to generalize beyond these cases. However, substantive research projects do inform theories and this project also aspired to achieve this.

Observation and recording of classroom lessons were the primary methods of data collection. The process began with teachers recording their writing lessons. For each teacher, I also observed lessons and took field notes. I then listened to these recordings, took more notes and conducted interviews with each teacher every week at the end of each unit of work. The classroom recordings were transcribed and analysed, as were the interviews. The analysis of these transcribed recordings and interviews obtained through this process form the basis for the findings of this study. Each interviewee was given a pseudonym and all lessons and interviews were digitally recorded and transcribed verbatim. To support the findings from the classroom and interview recordings, I also referred to the detailed field notes, descriptions and student writing that I collected.

A comprehensive review of the relevant literature, reported in Chapter 2, and an exploratory study, Study One, shaped and refined the data collection methods, which are reported in Chapter 4. A translation device (Maton, 2014) was developed and refined on an ongoing basis, guided by both the study's theoretical framework and a continuing critical engagement with the data. In addition, various strategies were employed, including the search for discrepant evidence, peer review at different stages of the project and continuing dialogue and support from my research supervisors.

1.8 Contribution of the thesis

The study makes the following contributions. Firstly, that understanding agent alignment is essential to understanding effective curriculum enactment and the greater the misalignment, the greater the risk to teaching and learning. Secondly, teachers use feedback practices to meet course objectives while also meeting learners' needs, two targets that are

not always in alignment and, consequently, achieving this feat is a constant challenge for teachers to achieve. Thirdly, the study offers a model for educational researchers and practitioner researchers to examine teachers' feedback practices in order to chart changes in the complexity of knowledge (Maton, 2014) and systematically map teaching choices in the classroom (Rose, 2018). Finally, the study suggests how to move the field beyond its current limits, namely the dichotomy of the written corrective feedback debate (Truscott, 1996; 1999, Ferris, 1999; 2004) and the limitations of cause and effect studies that attempt to identify the most effective forms of feedback (Bitchener & Ferris, 2012). I recommend a model that conceptualizes feedback as a pedagogic tool used dynamically by experienced teachers to oscillate between interpretation of oracular texts (van Leeuwen, 2015) and evaluation of *minoic* texts (see Section 6.6.5), from sense making to meaning making in classroom activities. This model of the classroom affords a new perspective to teachers and researchers, providing a dynamic view of feedback, not as static and reified, but rather as a crucial element in the process of teaching and learning.

1.9 Organization of the thesis

The thesis is organized as follows. Chapter 2 reviews studies relevant to this research project and positions the current study in the current literature. Chapter 3 describes the theoretical frameworks of Legitimation Code Theory (Maton, 2014) and pedagogic register analysis (Rose, 2014; 2018; 2020) and justifies their use in the study. Chapter 4 outlines the methodological approach and specific research methods. It also reports on the importance of Study One, the exploratory study that informed the main study. Chapter 5 reports on the investigations into the interface of knowledge recontextualization and knowledge reproduction in curriculum enactment. These investigations were conducted at three levels: 1) that of the curriculum, 2) a comparison across classrooms and 3) a detailed analysis of classroom discourse. Chapter 6 discusses how teachers use written texts and feedback to craft a pedagogic tool for use in the teaching of writing. Chapter 7 summarizes the main conclusions of the study, outlines its limitations and suggests avenues for future research.

1.10 Chapter summary

This chapter has aimed to provide a clear introduction of the study, identifying the issue and describing the research approach of the study, identifying the methodological foundations and justifying their selection. Developing out of a review of the research into classroom discourse, a key component on the research design was Study One, which enabled me to test the data gathering methods and analyse the results. This experience enabled me to fine-tune the research design for the main study, Study Two, to ensure that the data gathering methods provided the data required to answer the research questions.

This opening chapter describes the key components of the study: the problem, the purpose and the research questions. The chapter also locates the study and describes the research approach, the researcher and associated assumptions. The chapter then outlines the contribution of the thesis by outlining its rationale and relevance. It concludes by providing an outline of the thesis.

Chapter 2 A selective review of literature used to inform this study

Any remark on a student essay, whatever its form, finally owes its meaning and impact to the governing dialog that influences some student's reaction to it.

Knoblauch & Brannon (1981, p. 3)

2.1 Introduction

There has been great research interest in giving feedback to learners. In my study, feedback takes many forms such as written comments on learners' work, written corrective feedback (WCF), teacher to whole class feedback, teacher to individual learner feedback and peer feedback and discussion. In each of these forms, feedback is acknowledged as "one of the ESL writing teacher's most important tasks, offering individualized attention that is otherwise rarely possible under normal classroom conditions" (Hyland & Hyland, 2006, p. xv). While feedback is recognized as an important practice for teachers and a central concern of research (Hyland, Nicolás-Conesa, Cerezo, 2016, p. 433), not all scholars agree on the most effective focus of feedback (see Truscott, 1996, 1999, 2007; Ferris, 1999, 2004, 2010; Brown, 2012) with some suggesting that written corrective feedback is harmful to learners' linguistic development (Truscott, 1996; Truscott & Hsu, 2008). Researching written corrective feedback (WCF) has led to many studies that have sought to measure the effects on learners' linguistic development and, in particular, learners' increased grammatical accuracy in response to different types of written corrective feedback (Bitchener & Knoch, 2009a, 2009b, 2010a, 2010b).

There has been a considerable amount of second language acquisition (SLA) oriented L2 writing research in the last twenty years (Hyland, Nicolás-Conesa, Cerezo, 2016, p. 435) seeking to determine a) if writing practice can lead to second language development in addition to learners' writing abilities and b) if different types of feedback on learners' writing can lead to more complex, accurate and fluent second language writing (Bitchener & Ferris, 2012). Research into written corrective feedback has led to a greater understanding of feedback practices. However, the WCF research has produced mixed findings which is due, in part, to "variation in research contexts, designs and writer-internal and external

variables in focus” (Hyland, Nicolás-Conesa, Cerezo, 2016, p. 442). As Hyland and Hyland (2006) note, this makes comparisons across studies and generalising from studies difficult, due to the range of research designs and contexts which may impact findings.

This chapter reviews relevant empirical studies and critiques the field. The empirical studies are relevant because they have informed my study, either directly or indirectly by highlighting limits in our current understanding of WCF. This review of relevant literature aims to summarize current understandings and highlight the complexity and ambiguity that is a source of potential confusion to classroom practitioners. The chapter also aims to examine the dichotomy suggested by current positions (i.e. feedback as damaging or useful; the efficacy of direct versus indirect feedback; the efficacy of focussed versus unfocussed feedback) and suggest explanatory frameworks that allow the field to move forward. Before reviewing the literature, I will outline and justify the primary purpose of this chapter as a review *for* research.

2.1.1 The form and function of the literature review in this thesis

The primary purpose of this literature review is a review *for* research (Maxwell, 2006, p.28). This contrasts with literature reviews *of* research which “summarize and synthesize a specific field of research for a wider audience” (Maxwell, 2006, p. 28). Regarding my study, this literature review *for* research is intended to inform the study by creating a focus and justification for the study. The literature reviewed has had an important influence on the design, conduct and interpretation of the study (Maxwell, 2006, p. 28). My aim is to “support and explain the choices made *for this study*, not to educate the reader concerning the state of science in the problem area” (emphasis in original) (Locke, Spirduso & Silverman, 1999, p. 69). This literature is selective and, as noted by Rudestam and Newton (2001, p. 59), most of the studies I have read over the course of my studies are not included here. The selected studies have a direct bearing on the thesis and research questions and I aim to illuminate these direct relations. I aim to achieve this by following Krathwohl and Smith’s (2005, p. 49) advice to survey a select group of studies that anchor the study, to identify studies that connect to this study and secure it firmly in position. I discuss the relevance of these studies to my project and describe their contribution. I finish by stating how my study moves beyond them.

I have identified and selected relevant studies to my project by clearly defining the notion of relevance. By relevance, I mean a study that provides a method, finding or idea of value to the research project's conceptual framework or design, or a study that contributes to part of the argument that leads to an explanation and justification of the study, or both of these contributions (Maxwell, 2006, p. 29; Locke, Spirduso & Silverman, 1999, p. 69). In addition, a study is relevant "if failing to discuss it would create a significant gap in this explanation or justification, leave unanswered an important question that a reader of the dissertation might raise, or miss a potentially valuable contribution to the research." (Maxwell, 2006, p.29). However, I also review research outside of the narrow field of written corrective feedback studies for several reasons, which I outline below.

Firstly, prevalent perspectives in a field can distort research (Becker, 1986, pp. 146-149). This is because a limited literature review "increases the danger that the student will become a prisoner of the theoretical or methodological perspective that dominates this literature, and fail to see alternative ways of conceptualizing or studying the issues or problem" (Maxwell, 2006, p. 29). Adopting current perspectives on feedback on writing without critically evaluating them may simply perpetuate current thought and may also lead to particular, predetermined interpretations of data and impede my ability to analyse and interpret data on its own terms. Indeed, it might be suggested that studies of written corrective feedback are 'imprisoned' by inherited theoretical and methodological perspectives used in the field that limit our ability to move the field forward. Secondly, a broader perspective of relevant literature allows me to counter the limitations of working within current paradigms, identified above. These alternative perspectives "can come from other fields or theoretical approaches" (Marshall & Rossman, 1995, pp. 28-35), or from the researcher's observations and personal experiences (Grady & Wallston, 1988, pp. 40-42). This approach allows me to utilize both my classroom observations made during the study while also drawing and reflecting on my own experiences in English language classrooms over the last twenty-two years.

Finally, drawing on research from other explanatory frameworks offers the potential of providing new perspectives on old problems and thereby moving the field forward. This aligns with Maxwell's non-foundationalist view of literature reviews as conceptual frameworks, drawing on sources in addition to published literature as one of multiple components of a research project's design (Grady & Wallston, 1988; Martin, 1982; Maxwell,

2005), as an alternative to literature reviews as “the basis and starting point of the research” (Maxwell, 2006, p. 30). Additional components of such a design might include “perceived problems, goals, research questions, research methods, and validity threats” (Maxwell, 2006, p. 30). These components are an interactive system and, rather than one component being a foundation for the others (Maxwell, 2006, p. 30), “each influences the others and each is a major factor in the outcome of the research” (Grady & Wallston, 1988, p. 12). I have adopted such a view in my study. The following section outlines key issues in responding to learners’ writing before reviewing current research perspectives relevant to this study and outlining their limitations. Finally, explanatory frameworks that offer new perspectives are introduced and discussed.

2.2 Key issues in teaching and learning EAL writing

Key issues in responding to learners’ writing in higher education relate to many aspects of second language writing pedagogy. These include different methods of research (Ferris, 2016, p. 142), such as text analysis, from early empirical research arising from English for Specific Purposes (ESP) programs that were greatly influenced by the linguistic approach of Halliday et al., (1964) and Kaplan’s contrastive rhetoric hypothesis (1966) to more recent research into written corrective feedback (e.g. Bitchener & Knoch, 2010a, 2010b) and to the computational and statistical methods employed by corpus linguistics (Biber et al., 1998; Nesi & Gardner, 2012). Other research has used case study methods (Raimes, 1985; Zamel, 1983) to investigate individual student writers and ethnographic methods to provide in-depth studies of different objects of study, such as writing programs (Atkinson & Ramanathan, 1995), or a class and its teacher (Tardy, 2006). Further methods include quasi-experimental research (Bitchener et al., 2005), survey research (Montgomery & Baker, 2007) and mixed-methods studies that use a combination of these methods (Ferris et al., 2011). Studies such as these have led to major insights (Ferris, 2016, p. 144) such as descriptions of L2 writers in higher education (Ferris, 2009), pedagogical approaches to the teaching of L2 writers such as English for academic purposes (Swales, 1990) and Australian genre pedagogy (Rose & Martin, 2012), similarities (Zamel, 1997) and differences (Ferris, 2009) between writing in L1 and L2, programme delivery issues, such as placement, curriculum, and assessment (Costino & Hyon, 2007; Harklau, 2000), teacher preparation

(Campion, 2016) and insights beyond the writing classroom including support services and writing in the disciplines (North, 1984; Wolfe-Quintero & Segade, 1999; Hafernik & Wiant, 2012). This brief overview illustrates the breadth of research into L2 writing covering issues concerning writers, texts, curriculum and pedagogy which researchers have identified as important in understanding the teaching and learning of English as an additional language (EAL) writing classrooms.

From such a broad range of research methods and studies of EAL writing, it is interesting to note that leading scholars identify methods which elicit data from observation or analyses of authentic texts are more common than quantitative research (Hyland, 2016 p. 78) and there has been an increasing number of qualitative and mixed-methods studies over the last twenty years (Goldstein, 2016, p. 422). One reason for this is that when data is aggregated in quantitative research approaches, then clarity and detail is lost. For example, it can become unclear “how individual teachers respond, how they respond differently to different students or to different genres, or different levels, and so forth” (Goldstein, 2016, p.422). Another weakness of some quantitative studies has been due to “confounding variables” (Goldstein, 2016, p. 422). This is when:

students at different levels or who have different teachers have been combined when analysing the effectiveness of their revisions in response to particular types of comments or their reactions to teacher feedback, two or more teachers’ feedback has been combined in analysing how teachers give feedback, or essays written at different times in the semester or across semesters, or different genres have been combined for analyses of teacher feedback, student reactions, or student revision. (Goldstein, 2016, p. 422)

Such issues highlight the limitations of some quantitative research designs and offer reasons why qualitative approaches to second language writing have increased over recent years. This is important to my study because it has informed my decision to employ methods which elicit data from observation and the analyses of authentic texts such as classroom discourse.

In addition to these research areas in second language writing, feedback has also received attention in studies of tertiary education and the scholarship of teaching and learning. This has included calls for a shift from students as passive recipients of feedback

(Boud & Molloy, 2013; Nash & Winstone, 2017) to a learning-centred perspective (Boud & Molloy, 2013; Carless, 2015; Winstone & Carless, 2019) that foregrounds the actions of students in seeking out, engaging with and acting upon feedback in order to facilitate feedback that has impact (Henderson et al., 2019). This learning-centred view is termed “feedback literacy” (Carless & Boud, 2018, p. 2). From this perspective, feedback is viewed as a series of processes in which learners “make sense of information about performance” (Malecka, Boud & Carless, 2020, p. 2) in order to improve their work or learning strategies (Carless 2015; Henderson et al., 2019).

This focus on future action raises two implications: first, learners must be engaged in making sense of the feedback; and secondly, learners must have the opportunities to act on feedback in future work (Malecka et al., 2020, p. 2). This notion of feedback literacy places learners and learning at the centre of these feedback processes. This has led to four initial components of feedback literacy: appreciating feedback, making judgments, managing affect and taking action (Carless and Boud 2018), which have since been developed into a comprehensive student feedback literacy framework, (Molloy et al., 2020). This framework highlights the knowledge learners require about the role of feedback and the skills required to act upon this for future improvements (Malecka et al., 2020, p. 3). This can inform educators on how to introduce relevant feedback activities into courses (Malecka et al., 2020, p. 3). Scholarship in this area, while not directly investigating second language writing, offers new perspectives on EAL writers in higher education and the role of feedback in the development of their writing. These studies are relevant to my study in that they provide a broader perspective on understanding the role of feedback in teaching and learning. In the next section, I narrow the focus of this chapter to review research into one form of feedback in second language writing, studies into written corrective feedback. I then continue on to discuss the implications these studies have had on my own research.

2.3 Research relevant to this study

Written corrective feedback (WCF) refers to responses to linguistic errors in learners’ writing (Mao & Lee, 2020, p. 1). It is a “conventional tool” (Mao & Lee, 2020, p. 1) used by teachers to help learners to improve accuracy in their writing. Research into WCF forms an important part of L2 writing pedagogy, leading to many studies (Truscott, 1996, 1999, 2007; Ferris,

1999, 2004, 2010; Brown, 2012). It has also generated much discussion in the literature as researchers have argued about the effectiveness of WCF in improving L2 writing. While some researchers have argued that WCF is ineffective in improving L2 writing and may actually have a damaging effect (Truscott, 1996; Truscott & Hsu, 2008), other researchers have suggested that WCF could have a positive effect on L2 writing accuracy (e.g. Bitchener & Knoch, 2009a, 2009b, 2010a, 2010b; Bitchener & Storch, 2016; Sheen, 2010; Van Beuningen et al., 2012). This has prompted studies seeking to identify the most effective types of WCF and the optimum amount of WCF for teachers to give i.e. feedback scope (Ferris, 2011). This term refers to whether teachers respond to all errors or select some as the focus of WCF.

The key issues in the debate about responding to learners’ writing may be traced back to the opposing arguments articulated by Truscott (1996) and Ferris (1999). Truscott in his seminal paper questioning the efficacy of WCF, argues the following: “My thesis is that grammar correction has no place in writing courses and should be abandoned” (Truscott, 1996, p. 328). Truscott defines the term grammar correction as “correction of grammatical errors for the purpose of improving a student’s ability to write accurately” and notes that this correction may come in many different forms but that these distinctions have little importance because, he argues, they are all misguided and none should be used in writing classes (Truscott, 1996, p. 329). The main arguments that Truscott presents for why grammar correction in L2 writing classes should be abandoned are listed in Table 2.1 below.

Table 2.1 Reasons to abandon grammar correction in L2 writing classes
(Truscott, 1996)

a. Substantial research shows grammar correction to be ineffective and no studies show it to be helpful (p. 329).
b. Truscott also considers and rejects a number of arguments previously offered in support of grammar correction (p. 338).
c. For both theoretical and practical reasons, one can expect it to be ineffective (p. 341).
d. It has harmful effects e.g. it is demotivating for students (p. 354).

Truscott argues that the first step in the correction process is teachers being able to recognize that an error has been made and to identify the correct form or usage. This may cause difficulties, as Truscott points out, because “questions regarding grammar can be very difficult, even for experts” (1996, p. 350). When teachers do recognize and can correct an error, they may not be able to explain the problem to the students due to either a lack of knowledge or a lack of time. Even when teachers are able to explain problems clearly, “students may well fail to understand the explanation” (p. 350), may forget the information even when they do understand it, or may not be sufficiently motivated to apply the knowledge to their future writing.

Ferris (1999) challenged Truscott’s argument, identifying issues with both Truscott’s definitions and support for the argument, concluding that Truscott’s thesis is premature and overly strong and Ferris takes this as an opportunity to discuss areas for further research. The main arguments that Ferris presents against Truscott’s argument are listed in the Table 2.2 below.

Table 2.2 Reasons why Truscott’s thesis is premature and overly strong
(Ferris, 1999, pp. 3-5)

a) Lack of definition for the term ‘error correction’: Truscott only defines ‘grammar correction’. (Ferris, 1999, pp. 3-4)
b) Problem of support: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The subjects in the various studies Truscott cites are not comparable; • The research paradigms and teaching strategies vary widely across the studies; • Truscott overstates negative evidence while disregarding research results that contradict his thesis. (Ferris, 1999, p. 4)
c) While Truscott is right in asserting the evidence supporting the effectiveness of error correction is scant, this must be qualified by the inadequacy (in terms of research design and methods) and lack of generalizability of the few studies on the topic. “It is a logical leap to then argue that research has proven that grammar correction never helps students” (Ferris, 1999, p. 5).

In addition to the rebuttals outlined in Table 2.2 above, Ferris also identifies three reasons to continue with error correction in L2 writing. Firstly, learner opinion about teacher feedback as reported in surveys (Cohen, 1987; Ferris, 1995; Hedgcock & Lefkowitz, 1994; Leki, 1991; Radecki & Swales, 1988) consistently highlights the importance learners place on

receiving grammar correction from teachers (Ferris, 1999, p. 8). Secondly, Ferris refers to “error gravity” research (without citing any sources) and, while acknowledging in a footnote that this research is inconclusive and inadequate, suggests that some English-speaking university academics feel that English as an additional language (EAL) students’ “linguistic errors are bothersome and affect their overall evaluation of student papers” (Ferris, 1999, p. 8). Thirdly, Ferris emphasizes the importance of EAL learners becoming “more self-sufficient in editing their own writing” (Ferris, 1999, p. 8). WCF may help learners take editing their written work more seriously and the absence of any feedback or strategy training might mean that many students never seriously consider the need to improve their editing skills and, indeed, that they will not have the knowledge or strategies to edit their writing even when they do perceive this as important.

Truscott (1999; 2007; 2009; 2010a; 2010b; 2016) and Ferris (1999, 2004, 2006, 2010) have spent the proceeding years further investigating WCF and other researchers have also contributed to the debate (Bruton, 2009a, 2009b, 2010; Brown, 2012; Bitchener, 2008). The broad term “error correction” from Truscott’s paper has been conceptualized as different types of feedback (Ellis, 2009) that distinguish between the explicitness of the error (direct versus indirect), the use of metalanguage and the breadth of error treatment (unfocused versus focused). Studies have also examined electronic feedback, reformulation and also learners’ response to feedback. These types of corrective feedback are summarized in Table 2.3 below.

Studies in the field of SLA have sought to take a type of error correction and measure its effectiveness in improving accuracy in writing. This has led to claims about the benefits of using different types of feedback. For example, some studies suggest that direct WCF offers clear and unambiguous guidance (Sheen, 2007; Bitchener, 2008; Bitchener & Knoch, 2010a; 2010b) whereas other studies suggest that indirect WCF may have benefits for long term learning as more effort and reflection is required by the learners (Ferris & Roberts, 2001). In addition, indirect WCF may also improve learner autonomy (Bitchener & Ferris, 2012; Shintani & Ellis, 2013) and problem-solving skills (Ferris, 1995). Learners’ language proficiency is also an important consideration (Ferris, 1997) and while unfocused WCF may be beneficial for higher proficiency language learners, focused WCF may be more beneficial for lower proficiency learners (Ferris, 2003; Bitchener & Storch, 2016).

Table 2.3 A typology of teacher written corrective feedback

(reproduced from Ellis, 2009, p. 98)

Type of corrective feedback (CF)	Description	Studies
A: Strategies for providing CF		
1) Direct CF	The teacher provides the student with the correct form	e.g. Lalande (1982) and Robb et al., (1986).
2) Indirect CF	The teacher indicates that an error exists but does not provide the correction.	
a. Indicating + locating the error	This takes the form of underlining and use of cursors to show omissions in the student's text.	Various studies have employed indirect correction of this kind (e.g. Ferris & Roberts, 2001; Chandler, 2003).
b. Indication only	This takes the form of an indication in the margin that an error or errors have taken place in a line of text.	Fewer studies have employed this method (e.g. Robb et al., 1986).
3) Metalinguistic CF	The teacher provides some kind of metalinguistic clue as to the nature of the error.	
a. Use of error code	Teacher writes codes in the margin (e.g. ww = wrong word; art = article).	Various studies have examined the effects of using error codes (e.g. Lalande, 1982; Ferris & Roberts, 2001; Chandler, 2003).
b. Brief grammatical description	Teacher numbers errors in text and writes a grammatical description for each numbered error at the bottom of the text.	Sheen (2007) compared the effects of direct CF and direct CF+ metalinguistic CF.
4) The focus of feedback	This concerns whether the teacher attempts to correct all (or most) of the students' errors or selects one or two specific types of errors to correct. This distinction can be applied to each of the above options.	Most studies have investigated unfocused CF (e.g. Chandler, 2003; Ferris, 2006). Sheen (2007), drawing on traditions in SLA studies of CF, investigated focused CF.
a. Unfocused CF	Unfocused CF is extensive.	
b. Focused CF	Focused CF is intensive.	

5) Electronic feedback	The teacher indicates an error and provides a hyperlink to a concordance file that provides examples of correct usage.	Milton (2006).
6) Reformulation	This consists of a native speaker's reworking of the students' entire text to make the language seem as native-like as possible while keeping the content of the original intact.	Sachs & Polio (2007) compared the effects of direct correction and reformulation on students' revisions of their text.

B: Students' response to feedback	For feedback to work for either redrafting or language learning, learners need to attend to the corrections. Various alternatives exist for achieving this.	
1) Revision required		A number of studies have examined the effect of requiring students to edit their errors (e.g. Ferris & Roberts, 2001; Chandler, 2003). Sheen (2007) asked students to study corrections.
2. No revisions required		
a. Students asked to study corrections		A number of studies have examined what students do when just given back their text with revisions (e.g. Sachs & Polio, 2007).
b. Students just given back corrected text		No study has systematically investigated different approaches to revision.

Recent meta-analyses have suggested that WCF can improve accuracy (Kang & Han, 2015; Lim & Renandya, 2020) but the relationships between linguistic factors, such as WCF types and error types, is less clear. The WCF debate has provided a rich area of investigation for researchers as evidenced by recent studies into WCF (Lee, 2019a, 2019b, 2020; Lee et al. 2021a, 2021b). This complex area offers no clear and simple guidance to practitioners and it is perhaps understandable that studies have identified mismatches between teachers'

beliefs about WCF and their practices (Lee, 2009; Mao & Crosthwaite, 2019). This, in turn, has led to work in developing feedback literacy for writing teachers (Lee, 2021).

However, there are limitations to these studies. One weakness is the use of global error rates that do not track specific errors, therefore incorrectly suggesting a lack of effectiveness of WCF (Bruton, 2009a). Another weakness is that WCF can only account for changes in accuracy of corrected errors, leaving improved accuracy in errors not previously corrected unaccounted for (Hyland et al., 2016, p. 437). A further weakness is that improvements in writing accuracy from other learning sources in and out of the L2 classroom are not acknowledged or accounted for (Hyland, Nicolás-Conesa, Cerezo, 2016, p. 437). These three weaknesses represent unresolved issues in WCF research design and the interpretation of research findings. A more general weakness is that studies that seek to measure the efficacy of WCF treatments by seeking to quantify accuracy pre and post error treatment fail to account for the teaching and learning that occurs in the interactions between the teacher and learners. These interactions are unknown and something of a 'black box'; the learning is inferred by changes in the learners' post-treatment writing.

A further weakness is that the framing of the key issues in terms of a debate encourages the adoption of one of the two opposing views. In this sense the WCF debate creates a false dichotomy of choosing to provide WCF or not. This invites teachers and researchers to 'pick a side'. To give WCF or not are both possible choices for teachers and WCF is one tool of many possible tools. Rather than viewing each side of the debate as mutually exclusive, it is perhaps more useful to see each side as taking a different approach to the same problem. WCF cannot be expected to do all the work. It is part of the continuing evaluation that is the distinguishing feature of educational discourse. From my review of studies in the field of WCF, my hypothesis is that WCF does not work in isolation but is brought into the classroom through classroom discourse where it:

- 1) is negotiated through classroom discourse
- 2) sets up future learning cycles for learners to complete and
- 3) is finally evaluated by the teacher, either in the classroom or in a later draft of the written work.

This hypothesis, arising from my reading of the literature, has guided the development of my research questions. This study is a response to my sustained engagement with these key issues as both a research and a classroom practitioner.

Another issue is that many studies do not view feedback, with its evaluative function, as an integral part of the educational endeavour. Scholars in Sociology have long recognized evaluation as an intrinsic feature of education. Bernstein, writing from a sociological perspective, recognized the unequal relations inherent in education. The pedagogic relation is “essentially, and intrinsically, an asymmetrical relation” (1990/2003, p. 63) because “the essence of the relation is to evaluate the competence of the acquirer” (1990/2003, p. 64). Bernstein maintains that “the key to pedagogic practice is continuous evaluation” (1990/2003, p. 177) because it captures the essential meaning of teaching and learning. Similarities may be drawn with Goffman’s *educational imperative* that governs classrooms and determines the interactions that occur in them (Goffman, 1981). For Goffman, “the teacher’s purpose is to uncover what each and every pupil has learned about a given matter and to correct and amplify from that base” (Goffman, 1981, p. 53-54). Evaluation is an integral part of teaching and learning interactions.

As evaluation is present in all teaching and learning interactions, it is therefore a way into examining teaching and learning. Feedback presupposes a completed task which presupposes the selection of a task. The selection and sequencing of tasks provides language teachers with a syllabus to follow, with lesson aims, unit objectives and course goals. Feedback and evaluation is an intrinsic part of education, found in initiation, response, feedback (IRF) moves in classroom discourse (Sinclair & Coulthard, 1975) , and after activities, lessons, sequences of lessons and at the end of courses and entire programs. WCF is a form of evaluation. In the second language writing classroom, teaching materials may suggest feedback practices and WCF but they do not mandate these and teachers have a degree of freedom when giving their feedback. The ubiquity of feedback coupled with teacher freedom of choice makes WCF an interesting entry point into the second language writing classroom.

Recent studies have examined WCF in authentic L2 writing classrooms (Lee, 2020; Lee, Luo & Mak, 2021a, 2021b), which has enabled researchers to connect predetermined error categories to predetermined linguistic features of target genres from the curriculum (Lee, Luo & Mak, 2021a). Such studies resonate with calls for situated research designs in preference to statistical research designs (Bruton, 2010), research into contextualizing corrective feedback in second language writing pedagogy (Evans et al., 2010), studies into classroom feedback interactions around EAP writing (Unlu & Wharton, 2015) and written

corrective feedback from an ecological perspective, examining the interaction between the context and individual learners (Han, 2019). While these studies suggest a growing recognition of both the limitations of quasi-experimental studies and the potential of context-sensitive studies, one challenge they face is balancing the specific details of individual classrooms with the underlying features and principles of the broader context. This is important because to understand the broader context, we must understand the detail of what occurs between teachers and learners, and to understand the detail, we must also understand the broader context, its stakeholders and their relationships.

As Dreyfus, et al., (2016, p. 268) have suggested, feedback may vary in explicitness and the amount of rationale (see Table 2.4). They go on to identify four categories of feedback on a Cartesian plane which allows for categorization and the positioning of examples of different strengths and different points on each cline (see Figure 2.1 below). For example, hand-holding is explicit and provides a rationale. This conceptualization of feedback, and indeed most research into written corrective feedback, comes from a static perspective of feedback as comments or symbols written in response to the learners’ work. However, this model does recognize the purposes that inform teachers’ decisions when considering different forms of feedback. My study develops this by taking it one step further to examine how these types of feedback invite learners to participate in future action. In my data, this often plays out in the classroom. This is discussed further in Chapter 6 ‘Crafting a pedagogic tool’, section 6.7.

Table 2.4 Typology of feedback
(Dreyfus, et al., 2016, p. 268)

Feedback type	rationale	explicit
Hand-holding	+	+
Carrying	–	+
Bridging	+	–
Base jumping	–	–

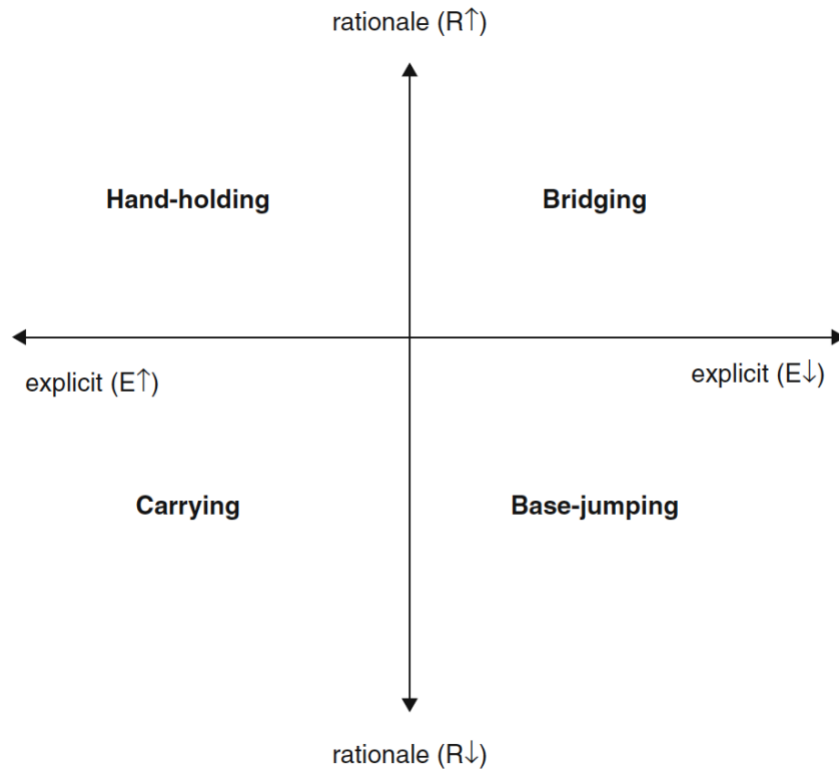


Figure 2.1 A typology of feedback mapped on a Cartesian plane
(Dreyfus et al, 2016, p. 267)

These studies with situated research designs and that contextualize corrective feedback contribute to my study by raising questions about how best to understand feedback. If we view feedback as a tool, these studies aim to show the value of the tool by the outcome of its application. However, a tool alone is not the only factor to consider. We must also consider who is using the tool, their experience, present circumstances and current aims. In other words, it is not sensible to measure the value and efficacy of certain types of WCF by measuring linguistic forms produced by learners after receiving WCF. My study moves beyond these studies by using a context-sensitive approach to consider feedback as a ‘tool’ and also who is using the tool (teacher and learners), their experience, present circumstances (the writing task at hand and learners’ current linguistic resources) and current aims (lesson aims and course goals). These are discussed further in Chapter 5 ‘Understanding the interface of knowledge recontextualization and knowledge reproduction in curriculum enactment’ and Chapter 6 ‘Crafting a pedagogic tool’.

2.4 Explanatory frameworks that offer new perspectives on old problems

Most of the studies discussed above have not analysed feedback as part of the educational discourse between teachers and learners. One advantage of placing written teacher feedback into the broader context of educational dialogue between teachers and learners is that its role in teaching and learning becomes clearer. This is discussed further in Chapters 5 and 6. Using explanatory frameworks from Australian genre pedagogy and Legitimation Code Theory affords the opportunity to see teachers' written feedback as a form of social action in context and starts to reveal the principles that underpin teachers' feedback practices.

A different perspective might offer a way to build on this body of research on WCF by reconciling the dichotomy of the WCF debate, seeing past studies that seek to measure the effects of different forms of feedback. One option is to use explanatory frameworks that give the researcher a new lens with which to view WCF and offer the potential to move the field forward by offering new understandings. Two such explanatory frameworks are Legitimation code Theory (LCT) (Maton, 2014) and pedagogic register analysis (Rose, 2018). These are introduced and discussed in Chapter 3. They inform the research design of this thesis and this is described in Chapter 4. While the combination of these two frameworks to study WCF may be innovative, several other WCF studies have adopted explanatory theories from outside SLA. One example is Storch's research into WCF from a sociocultural theoretical perspective (2018). Weissburg's research has also used sociocultural theory to examine the role of speaking in L2 writing development (1994, 2000, 2006). There is also Fiona Hyland's work into interpersonal aspects of feedback such as the impact of teacher written feedback on individual writers (1998), student engagement with teacher feedback (2003), praise and criticism in written feedback (Hyland & Hyland, 2001) and the construction and interpretation of teacher written feedback (Hyland & Hyland, 2006). Finally, there is research that places feedback into the wider classroom ecology, such as van Lier's research from an ecological perspective (van Lier, 2000, 2004).

SLA researchers have also identified limitations in another frequently employed construct used to measure second language writing development. Limitations in complexity, accuracy and fluency (CAF) measurements in instructed SLA has led to calls for more

multidimensionality and dynamicity in future research (Norris & Ortega, 2009). One justification for their call for the multidimensional measurement of complexity is found in systemic functional linguistics (SFL) (Halliday & Matthiessen, 1999) and its model of language development (Norris & Ortega, 2009, p.562). The SFL model recognizes language development proceeding from parataxis (i.e. coordination) to hypotaxis (i.e. subordination) and then finally to grammatical metaphor (e.g. nominalization), resulting in advanced language with lower levels of subordination and clausal complexity but higher levels of lexical density and phrasal complexity (Norris & Ortega, 2009, p.563). This linguistic development is not recognized by established CAF measurements (Wolfe-Quintero, Inagaki & Kim, 1998). Norris and Ortega conclude that:

researchers must engage in a much more organic practice in order to achieve a thorough understanding of CAF as conditioned by realities of learning contexts. On the one hand, it means that our measurements must provide multivariate, longitudinal, and descriptive accounts of constructs in L2 performance in order to capture the complex, dynamic, and developmental nature of CAF phenomenon. On the other hand, it means that measurement will also need to provide learner-, task-, and L2 form-sensitive accounts of the local SLA ecology, given the ways in which these factors moderate the observations we might be making about CAF. (Norris & Ortega, 2009, p. 574).

They continue by recognizing that there is more to language learning and use than what is accounted for by CAF measures and, therefore, researchers must not ignore other phenomena “essential to a more complete understanding of second language learning” (Norris & Ortega, 2009, p. 575).

Norris and Ortega’s call for greater context-sensitivity in studies predates the work of the Douglas Fir Group (DFG). The Douglas Fir Group (of which Ortega was one of the 15 authors) have reimagined and expanded SLA (Han, 2016) in a transdisciplinary framework that reconceptualizes the complexity and dynamism of language teaching and learning in a multilingual world. The framework recognizes the multifaceted nature of language learning and teaching by encompassing “a growing body of theory and research” (2016, p. 24) that emphasizes the ongoing nature of language learning and the influences of social activity, sociocultural institutions and communities, and society-wide belief systems and values “with particular orientations toward language use and language learning” (DFG, 2016, p.

24). These calls for context-sensitive studies from SLA studies into WCF, studies employing CAF measures and a reimagining of SLA as a transdisciplinary endeavour with greater explanatory power and influence suggest it is an opportune time to investigate WCF and the writing classroom from new perspectives.

Studies employing a systematic functional multimodal analysis approach to pedagogical discourse (Lim, 2011) and teacher-student consultations (Amundrud, 2017) have investigated the semiotic resources of language, gesture and space through the positioning and movement of teachers, developing previous systemic-functional multimodal discourse analysis (SF-MDA) with applications for the study of classrooms (e.g. Christie, 2002; Iedema, 2003; Kress et al., 2004; Hood, 2011). Discussing multimodality in education, van Leeuwen (2015) identifies one of the benefits of research as a positive impact on practice, emphasizing the interrelations between objects and people in the process of learning. Van Leeuwen states that “texts are resources, objects used in specific ways in practices, sometimes playing a relatively marginal role, sometimes a fundamental one” (2015, p. 586). This perspective offers a new way of considering the role of learner produced texts and teacher feedback. The practice of teacher feedback is transformed into “a text used as a source of truth in the context of a particular interpretive practice” (van Leeuwen, 2015, p. 586), a phenomenon which van Leeuwen terms an “*oracular text*” (emphasis in the original, 2015, p. 586). This notion of oracular text in relation to teacher feedback is developed further in Chapter 6.

Rose’s work on pedagogic register analysis (2020) is timely, building on previous work in Martinian linguistics (Martin, 1992) while recognizing and incorporating pedagogic modalities in its system networks. These networks model sense-making and meaning-making as choice, with speakers marshalling these repertoires of resources to achieve social goals through unfolding interactions (Rose, 2018, p. 3). The stated aim of this description is “to account for the choices that interactants actually do make, from systems of potential options” (Rose, 2018, p. 3) with the goal of empirically showing “how teaching and learning occur, to inform teaching as a consciously designed professional practice” (Rose, 2018, p. 3). Such a model affords us the opportunity to more fully understand teacher feedback practices with a view to informing professional practice.

A teacher’s annotations on learners’ writing do not do the work of teaching and learning. I see them as a pedagogic tool that implies and invites further work, either in the

form of discussions with peers or with teachers. Teachers and learners use the tool to help them develop their writing by, for example, improving the accuracy or complexity of their work. The tool might be focussed or unfocussed, direct or indirect, depending on teacher beliefs, learning objectives and learner needs and preferences. The process of the teacher annotating learners' written work is the process of fashioning a pedagogic tool. Simply examining the tool and the results of its use, as many studies have done, provides a very limited understanding of how the tool is used. To fully understand the tool, we need to understand how, when and why it is used and by whom. In short, context-sensitive studies that examine the tool in the hands of its users are more likely to produce clearer understandings, forming a stronger basis for evaluating different tools.

Feedback and evaluation are intrinsic elements of education, found in moves in classroom discourse, after activities, lessons, sequences of lessons and at the end of courses and entire programs. In the EAL classroom, teaching materials may suggest feedback practices but they do not mandate these and teachers have a degree of freedom in their feedback practices. The ubiquity of feedback coupled with teacher freedom of choice makes WCF an interesting entry point into investigating the EAL writing classroom.

The notion that WCF can lead to an increase in grammatical accuracy assumes that learning is due to explicit learning. This contrasts with scholars who view learning as enculturation, namely "picking up the jargon, behavior, and norms of a new social group; adopting its belief systems to become a member of the culture. [...] The ease and success with which people do this (as opposed to the intricacy of describing what it entails) belie the immense importance of the process and obscures [sic] the fact that what they pick up is a product of the ambient culture rather than of explicit learning" (Brown et al., 1989, p. 34). When feedback is viewed as a tool, the value and efficacy of such a tool cannot be measured by its effects without a consideration of who is using it and for what purpose. Therefore, context-sensitive studies that can investigate and account for these factors are necessary if we are to understand the efficacy and value of feedback.

2.5 Conclusions

In this chapter I have aimed to select literature relevant to my study that has had important implications for its design, conduct and interpretation. I have aimed to show trends and

patterns in the theories, themes, methods and results by summarizing, synthesizing, analysing, interpreting, and critically evaluating these studies. There has been a growing call for context-sensitive studies within the field of SLA in recognition of the complexities of language learning (Norris & Ortega, 2009; the Douglas Fir Group, 2016). There has also been a growing number of studies that would enable such a context-sensitive study (Maton, 2014; Rose, 2018). These are discussed at greater length in the next chapter. At the end of this literature review, I now have “an integrated set of theoretical concepts and empirical findings, a model of the phenomena” I am studying “that informs and supports the research” (Maxwell, 2006, p. 30) and provide an anchor for my study.

My interpretation has revealed the following limitations in the literature. Current studies do not consider feedback as part of the ongoing discourse that occurs between teacher and learner. The research design of many WCF studies seeks to isolate and test variables for particular effects in an atomistic approach. They therefore fail to take into account the broader educational ecology in which feedback occurs. Such limited perspectives may only afford partial views of the phenomenon that cannot account for the efficacy and value of feedback. The new knowledge this study can contribute is to show the value of context-sensitive studies that conceptualize feedback as a dynamic process that is embedded in classroom discourse. A context-sensitive approach enables the study of such a process. The methods I employ are discussed further in Chapter 4, my analysis and interpretations are discussed in Chapters 5 and 6, and the conclusions are summarized in Chapter 7.

This chapter has aimed to establish a rationale for this study by identifying the limits to our current understanding of the written feedback teachers give EAL learners on their writing. Alternative paradigms from fields of research beyond SLA studies offer new perspectives and alternative explanations and understandings to these educational practices. This study uses explanatory frameworks from the Sociology of Education, specifically the dimension of Semantics from Legitimation Code Theory (Maton, 2014) and pedagogic register analysis (Rose, 2018; 2020) grounded in Martinian systemic functional linguistics (Martin, 1992). These complementary frameworks provide a new vantage point from which to consider these established debates on the efficacy of written corrective feedback (Truscott, 1996; Ferris, 1999) and its different forms (Ellis, 2009). The rationale for

choosing these two frameworks and the features most salient to my study are discussed in the following chapter, Chapter 3: 'Explanatory frameworks'.

Chapter 3 Explanatory frameworks: meta-knowledge and crossing the Rubicon

There is of course no very clear boundary between theory and description. Describing a language is a work of interpretation; and interpretation is a theoretical pursuit. New descriptions, therefore, enforce new theories. But this, as I see it, is where the theory comes from.

Halliday (1980, p. viii)

3.1 Social ontologies, explanatory frameworks and research studies

The key elements of the theoretical frameworks that are relevant to this study are discussed in the following sections. While the concepts and frameworks described below may be broadly described as theory, at this point it might be useful to clarify the nature of these theories and how they relate to both social ontologies and the proposed study. Figure 3.1 heuristically represents social ontologies (SO), explanatory frameworks (EF) and substantive research studies (SRS). Each of these possess their own types of theories, from the meta-theories of social ontologies to the substantive theories of studies (Maton, 2014, p. 15) based on empirical data. Ideally, social ontologies inform explanatory frameworks with meta-theories, and in turn explanatory frameworks inform substantive research studies (indicated by arrows in Figure 3.12). A similar ideal relationship may be traced back because studies inform frameworks through their findings and, consequently, frameworks shape social ontologies as they provide access to the social world (Maton, 2014, p. 15).

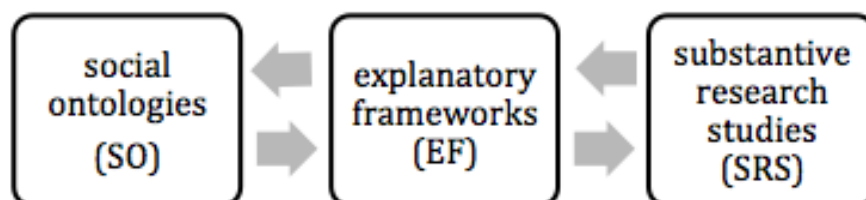


Figure 3.1 Meta-theories, theories and substantive theories (reproduced from Maton, 2014, p. 15)

This model (see Figure 3.1) may be applied to the two frameworks in my study. The first, Legitimation Code Theory (LCT), is an explanatory framework with a direct relationship to substantive research studies, such as my research study. LCT is “a conceptual toolkit and analytic methodology” (Maton, 2014, p. 15). The second explanatory framework is systemic functional linguistics (SFL). SFL is a theory of language in social context that has been used to describe and explain human languages such as English (Matthiessen & Halliday, 2009, p. 12; Halliday & Matthiessen, 2014; Martin, 1992).

LCT, building on work in the sociology of education and ‘social realism’ in particular (Maton, 2014, p. 9), works towards developing a realist sociology that aims to understand knowledge (Maton, 2014, pp. 2-3) in terms of its forms, effects and “inner structures with properties, powers and tendencies of their own” (p. 2), conceptualizing knowledge as both socially produced and of “possessing properties, powers and tendencies that have effects” (Maton, 2014, pp. 9-10). It is in this sense that knowledge is both social and real. As such, “research aligned with social realism explores the organizing principles of (or ‘relations within’) different forms of knowledge, their modes of change, and their implications for such issues as social inclusion, student achievement and knowledge building” (Maton, 2014, p. 10). In this way LCT aims to resolve issues created by essentialist views of knowledge as “identical, homogenous and neutral” (Maton, 2014, p. 2), what Maton terms the ‘knowledge paradox’ (Maton, 2014, pp. 1-2), by offering a means of understanding knowledge by making knowledge practices visible (Maton, 2014, p. 2-3).

Social realism and, by extension, LCT emphasize that knowledge is produced by people engaged in social practices, “characterized by intersubjectively shared assumptions, ways of working, beliefs and so forth” (Maton, 2014, p. 11). Importantly, these members of an epistemic community may not meet in person but rather interact at a distance, engaging in knowledge practices in “an immense cooperation that extends not only through space but also through time” (Durkheim 1912/1967, p. 15). One clear example of this is Fermat’s Last Theorem, resolved by an English mathematician in 1993, communicating with Fermat in seventeenth century France, and through him with the classical mathematician Diophantus of Alexandria, and through him “Babylonians from three millennia past” (Maton, 2014, p. 59). This extended epistemic community “extended across time and space, where living members intersect with the dead to produce contributions which, when they have died, will be in turn the living concern of future members (Maton, 2014, pp. 59-60). In summary,

social realism maintains “that analyses of ‘relations to’ and ‘relations within’ education and knowledge can be brought together to offer greater explanatory power, therefore, thereby denying the dilemma” (Maton, 2014, p. 10), that is “the false dichotomy between positivist absolutism and constructivist relativism” (Maton, 2014, p. 6). This offers the researcher the possibility of exploring and explaining the organizing principles of knowledge practices.

Maton clarifies LCT’s ontological position by using three notions from critical realist philosophy as proposed by Bhaskar (1975; 1979; 2009; Archer et al, 1998), namely *ontological realism*, *epistemological relativism*, and *judgmental rationality*. Ontological realism highlights that there is a reality external to discourse that contributes to the formation of our knowledge of the world; “knowledge is about something other than itself” (Maton, 2014, p. 10). Epistemological relativism recognizes that our knowledge of the world is limited and “not universal, invariant, transhistorical and essential truth” (Maton, 2014 p. 10). These limitations mean that our knowledges of the world are socially produced, and they alter “over time and differ across social, historical and cultural contexts” (Maton, 2014 p. 10). Importantly, epistemological relativism does not involve the notion that judgments are not possible among different knowledges (Maton, 2014, p. 10). By contrast, judgmental rationality emphasizes the intersubjective foundation for ascertaining the respective value of contending assertions of knowledge (Maton, 2014, p. 10). Judgmental rationality accommodates the ostensibly opposing views that while definitive truth may be unattainable, there are methods for judging different knowledge claims because “critical preference does not entail transhistorical belief” (Maton, 2014, p. 10). In summary, these three notions draw attention to three important features of knowledge: “knowledge is about something other than itself, draws on existing knowledge, and is produced and judged by socially situated actors” (Maton, 2014, pp. 10-11). Social realism builds on these ideas sociologically to deny the epistemological dilemma in educational research (Maton, 2014, p. 11) of a false choice between either positivism or relativism (Maton, 2014, p. 7):

social realism is thus concerned neither with essentialist definitions of ‘knowledge’, ‘truth’ or ‘belief’, nor with proclaiming all definitions are equal. Rather, it highlights the need to explore how knowledges come to be defined in particular social and historical contexts, their forms and their effects. (Maton, 2014, p. 11)

As such, it emphasizes that knowledge practices are not able to be reduced or simplified to their contexts of production, while simultaneously emerging from such contexts and consequently shaping them (Maton, 2014, p. 11). This tenet is particularly important for a study such as mine that seeks to understand patterns and processes of classroom life in a context-sensitive study. These ontological premises align with those of the other explanatory framework employed in the study, that of systemic functional linguistics.

The forms of knowledge that are of primary interest to me in this study are linguistic, namely how teachers use spoken and written modes of language to give feedback on learners' written language (while acknowledging that this also involves other semiotic systems). From the perspective of systemic functional linguistics, language is "a property of social collectives made up by persona taking up different institutional roles in different network[s]" (Matthiessen & Halliday, 2009, p. 13). From this perspective, language and other semiotic systems are "social, biological and physical" (Matthiessen & Halliday, 2009, p. 13). Matthiessen and Halliday outline an ordered typology of systems operating in different phenomenal realms (Matthiessen & Halliday, 2009, pp. 12-13), consisting of two material systems, physical and biological, and two immaterial systems, social and semiotic. In this typology,

systems are ordered in increasing complexity, starting with physical systems: physical systems (1st order) – biological systems (2nd order) – social systems (3rd order) – semiotic systems (4th order). Each new order of systems inherits the properties of the immediate lower order system but has some new characteristic property in addition. (Matthiessen & Halliday, 2009, p. 12)

Following this pattern of inheriting properties but adding a new one, these four systems are conceptualized as follows. Physical systems are first order material systems consisting of matter in space-time. They do not evolve in a technical sense but change over time (Matthiessen & Halliday, 2009, p. 13). Biological system, second order material systems, are self-replicating physical systems. They are "physical systems with the additional property of "life" [...] that evolve through natural selection [...] and that thus embody a sense of memory and history" (Matthiessen & Halliday, 2009, p. 13). Social systems, third order immaterial systems, are biological systems "that are organized into networks of

complementary roles that define patterns of interactive social behaviour, that embody a division of labour and which may over time become hierarchic” (Matthiessen & Halliday, 2009, p. 13). Social systems are biological systems with the additional property of ‘value’. Finally, semiotic systems, fourth order immaterial systems, are social systems with the additional property of ‘meaning’. Semiotic systems can convey “or even create meaning” (Matthiessen & Halliday, 2009, p.13). Semiotic systems are social systems that are stratified into content and expression planes, with first-order semiotic systems conveying meaning, but higher-order semiotic systems also creating meaning (see Matthiessen & Halliday, 2009, p. 13 for a more detailed description of this ordered typology of systems and see Chapter 3, Section 3.6 for a detailed discussion of the architecture of SFL). This ordered typology of systems is “a manifestation of the holistic approach taken in SFL” (Matthiessen & Halliday, 2009, p.14) to language in context, based on systems thinking (Matthiessen & Halliday, 2009, p.8). These complementary ontologies underpin my study and inform my understanding of the data I have gathered. Different explanatory frameworks and, consequently, different research methodologies, are underpinned by differing ontologies and epistemologies. It is important that these align to ensure the trustworthiness of the research.

The ontologies described above informed my choice of adopting abduction (Douven, 2021), a form of explanatory inference, understood as “inference to the best explanation” (Harman, 1965; Lipton, 1991). I use abduction to infer from my set of data to a hypothesis about a structure or process that explains the data (Godfrey-Smith, 2003, pp. 43-44). As we shall see in Chapters 5 and 6, this involves a move away from viewing teacher feedback as reified symbols and comments on the page, to conceptualizing feedback as part of the ongoing exchange between teacher and learner, with feedback used as a *pedagogic tool*. This hypothesis enables me to explain feedback as a cyclical process in which the teacher moves in cycles between interpretation and evaluation, through the use of *oracular* (van Leeuwen, 2015, p. 586) and what I term as *minoic* texts (see Section 6.6.5). These differing ontologies and epistemologies are in alignment and ensure the trustworthiness of the research.

Systemic functional linguistics is also an extravagant explanatory framework with a direct relationship to substantive research studies, and parts of this framework inform my study. A central concept in SFL is what Halliday termed ‘applied linguistics’. For Halliday,

this 'application' is "a general characteristic of a theory, not its application 'to' this or that particular issue" (Halliday, 2010, p. 128) and "a way of thinking about language: that is, its immediate scope and context of application. But to be applicable to real-life situations and real-life tasks, it has to be good to think with..." (Halliday, 2010, p. 141). Halliday's concern with applicable linguistic theory, 'applicable linguistics', as well as applying linguistic theory, 'linguistics applied', illustrates his belief that "linguists should be able to apply knowledge about linguistic theories practically in their daily lives and understand the importance of language education in maximizing one's life potential" (Pakir, 2019, p. 327). In Halliday's terms, "[t]he social semiotic is the system of meanings that defines or constitutes the culture; and the linguistic system is one mode of realization of these meanings" (1975, p. 139). In SFL there is "no sharp distinction between theory and application: they are just different ends of a cline of instantiation from the system as a meaning potential to the selection of resources in specific contexts of use" (Bartlett & O'Grady, 2017, p. 2). This is discussed further in Section 3.6.5 below. SFL is an applicable linguistics and "the value of the theory lies in the use that can be made of it" (Halliday, 1985b, p. 7) and as such it does not privilege 'theory' over 'application' (O'Grady & Bartlett, 2017, p. 641). The key elements of these theories that are relevant to this study are discussed in the sections below.

3.2 Researcher positionality and reflexivity

Positionality refers to both a researcher's world view and the position they adopt to both research activity and the activity's broader socio-political context (Holmes, 2020; Foote & Bartell 2011; Savin-Baden & Major, 2013; Rowe, 2014). Such a world view is influenced by three sets of assumptions, concerning ontology, epistemology and "human nature and agency" (Holmes, 2020, p. 1). My world view and assumptions have been discussed and clearly stated in the previous section (3.1 Social ontologies, explanatory frameworks and research studies) and draw upon critical realism (Bhaskar, 1975; 1979; 2009) and social realism (Maton, 2014). My positionality is also informed by the view that human nature and agency are bound up in "social collectives made up by persona taking up different institutional roles" (Matthiessen & Halliday, 2009, p. 13) and that language as well as other semiotic systems are properties of such social collectives (Matthiessen & Halliday, 2009, p. 13). These assumptions inform and shape my "beliefs about the nature of social reality and

what is knowable about the world [...] beliefs about the nature of knowledge [and my] assumptions about the way we interact with our environment and relate to it” (Holmes, 2020, p. 1). Thus, these assumptions determine my positionality, how I locate myself within the research study in relation to the phenomena of study, the research design, the system of methods, the research participants, and the outcomes and results (Holmes, 2020, p. 12, Grix, 2019; Rowe, 2014, Savin-Baden & Major, 2013 p.71; Malterud, 2001). In summary, positionality “affects the entire research process” (Holmes, 2020, p. 3).

Reflexivity is the notion that a researcher should acknowledge and state relevant facets of the self in an attempt to understand the researcher’s own part in, or influence on, their research (Cohen et al., 2011). In the process, elements of the self are expressed as ‘positions’, thus “reflexivity informs positionality” (Holmes, 2020, p. 2). The process entails an ongoing and clearly stated and detailed assessment of the self, including personal views and, consequently, how these have possible or certain, and direct or indirect effects on any aspect of the research (Holmes, 2020, p. 2; Greenbank, 2003; May & Perry, 2017). Self-reflection and reflexivity are “both a necessary prerequisite and an ongoing process for the researcher to be able to identify, construct, critique, and articulate their positionality” (Holmes, 2020, p. 2). My own notes and reflections, the continuous process of writing and editing, discussing my research with my supervisor and peers and rewriting in response to these activities have enabled me to engage in reflexivity and, consequently, understand, acknowledge and state my positionality.

In conducting research for my study, I recognize I have a duality to my position, one related to my role as a practitioner practising in the research context and a second position as a researcher. This has influenced how I have prepared for and conducted the research and interpreted outcomes. I have sought to understand the classroom from theoretically informed perspectives while maintaining my understandings as a practitioner. Some of these influences and the implications of my position are clear to me. For example, observing a course in a context with which I am familiar and with which I have personal experience with the curriculum, teaching materials, activities, resources, learners and other factors has given me a practitioner’s insight into classroom events. However, I also acknowledge that with this familiarity comes the potential of bias, and of viewing events in a particular way.

A key to understanding this duality is the Insider-Outsider positionality debate, and “whether a person is an actual insider or outsider to the culture under investigation”

(Holmes, 2020, p. 5), regardless of their ontological positioning. In my case, I have a similar background to the research participants and a similar relationship to the research site through my experiences as a fellow colleague and practitioner. However, my longstanding commitment to both this research project and my research training sets me apart. While there are several arguments given in support of each position, the main argument (Kusow, 2003) centres around, from the insider position, whether outsiders are able to understand the experiences of insiders, whereas, from the outsider position, the central question is whether insiders can “sufficiently detach themselves from the culture to be able to study it without bias” (Holmes, 2020, p. 6). The duality of my position has afforded me two perspectives, that of insider and outsider. Bourlessas suggests the metaphor of the “two-faced figure of Janus, embodying simultaneously two faces-roles”, that of researcher and, in my case, teacher (2019, pp. 3), with Janus’ practitioner face as an insider and Janus’ researcher face as an outsider. There is also an argument that insider or outsider as opposites may be an artificial construct. These positions have also been conceptualized as a continuum, (Christensen & Dahl, 1997) “with multiple dimensions and that all researchers constantly move back and forth along several axes, depending upon time, location, participants, and topic” (Mercer, 2007, p. 6). It is therefore possible for a researcher to “inhabit multiple positions along that continuum at the same time” (Holmes, 2020, p. 6). This resonates with my own experiences during the study.

The ongoing process of reflexivity and clearly articulating my positionality enabled me to carefully consider the insider/outsider continuum and its implications for my research. One example of this was when I conducted interviews and whether responses were primarily directed from one insider to another (e.g. a teacher to a colleague). This raised questions of the ‘accessibility’ of such responses for ‘outsider’ readers. When I understood interviewee statements to express an ‘insider’ understanding, I prompted the participant to discuss, and so explicitly draw out, the ‘insider’ meanings and implications for the benefit of future ‘outsider’ readers. Another example of the insider/outsider issue relates to my use of explanatory frameworks (e.g. LCT). My use of such frameworks not only helped me to understand my data but also express that understanding in terms accessible to ‘outsiders’.

Nevertheless, it is important to acknowledge that, despite ongoing reflexivity and considerations of positionality, reality can never be objectively described (Dubois, 2015) and

some form of bias and subjectivity will remain (Holmes, 2020, p. 4). However, the exploration of positionality leads to an increasing awareness of potential bias, enabling the researcher to better identify and help mitigate issues. My overall approach was to aim for 'empathetic neutrality', in an attempt:

to avoid obvious, conscious, or systematic bias and to be as neutral as possible in the collection, interpretation, and presentation of data...[while accepting] this aspiration can never be fully attained – all research will be influenced by the researcher and there is no completely 'neutral' or 'objective' knowledge. (Ormston et al., 2014, pp. 22-23)

I have aimed to achieve such an empathetic neutrality in my research while declaring potential bias, recognizing that positionality and personal experiences “may influence what researchers may bring to research encounters, their choice of processes, and their interpretation of outcomes” (Foote & Bartell, 2011, p.46). The issues of trustworthiness, credibility, dependability and confirmability are discussed further in Chapter 4 (section 4.8).

At the time of conducting this study, I was employed as a TESOL teacher at a university language centre working on pre-tertiary English programs, concurrent English language support programs for students studying at the university, and teacher training programs for pre-service and in-service English language teachers. I had twelve years' experience teaching on pre-tertiary English programs in both Australia and the U.K. and over twenty-two years' experience as an English language teacher. I therefore brought to the research process practical experience as a working professional on pre-tertiary courses, possessing both knowledge and understanding of the broader context of these types of courses as well as the specific program investigated in the study.

I acknowledge that this same experience that provided insight into the language classroom and pre-tertiary courses has the potential to bias judgement regarding the research design and the interpretation of findings. The following measures were taken to mitigate the possibility of subjective distortions. My assumptions and the theoretical orientation of the study were made explicit at the start of the study. In addition, I engaged in continuous critical self-reflection through journal entries written throughout the study and through dialogue with my research supervisors. Finally, to address this issue of

subjectivity and to increase the credibility of this qualitative research, I took procedural steps and employed the notion of triangulation to inform the research design. Triangulation is a metaphor that is used to refer to the combination of different data sources, theories and methods (Wodak & Meyer, 2016; Hyland, 2016, p. 78; Flick, 2018, p. 191; Hammersley, 2008; Fielding & Fielding, 1986, p. 23; Denzin, 1989, p. 237; Cicourel, 1973; Cicourel et al, 1974). These combined research strategies included triangulation of data sources, triangulation of methods and triangulation of theoretical frameworks. They are described and discussed in detail in Chapter 4.

In this context-sensitive study, I also responded to the preferences and requirements of the English language teaching (ELT) Centre. The academic manager responsible for the course was directly involved in the selection of teachers for the research. After discussing the research project and my preference to invite both male and female teachers to participate, the manager wrote two lists of names, one list for each of the two five-week courses and the two phases of Study Two. I required two teachers from each list to participate and I approached the teachers as they were ordered on the list. In both cases, the first two teachers on the list agreed to participate in the study. Context-sensitivity means it is important to respect the ELT Centre, to take responsibility for the research project and limit any unforeseen side-effects and to mitigate possible practitioner-researcher biases. Careful consideration of researcher positionality and reflexivity have enabled me to mitigate my status as insider researcher. This is discussed further in Section 4.8 Issues of trustworthiness.

3.3 Restatement of issue

The role that teacher-led classroom discourse plays in writing feedback lessons is the main focus of this study. Investigating this topic encompasses the areas of language, knowledge and teaching. It is my position that it is through dialogue that teachers guide learners towards learning outcomes and course goals, developing learners' emerging linguistic resources and control of written genres in the social context of language classrooms. This dialogue is more important than the curriculum, teaching materials or assessment practices. Teaching materials, activities and feedback are made accessible to students through teacher-led interactions, primarily using the medium of language. Halliday has emphasized

the centrality of language to learning (1993a). Halliday's stratified model of language as a social semiotic (1978) has been further developed by educational linguists working with genre pedagogy (Martin, 1992; Christie, 2002; Martin & Rose, 2007; Rose & Martin, 2012; Rose, 2014, 2018). By conceptualizing language as a social semiotic, Halliday views language as a resource for making meaning, or "meaning potential" (1973, p. 51), employed by society to realize meanings. This captures the totality of potential meanings in a society. Access to these resources can either enable or restrict participation in social practices. For culturally and linguistically diverse (CALD) international students preparing for university in English-speaking countries, English is generally not their first language, but it is the medium of both instruction and assessment, in addition to being the object of study. The combination of classroom medium, topic and goal (Halliday, 1993a, p. 112) makes these contexts particularly complex to describe and explain and, as such, rich research sites to test and explore theory.

Control over written language is essential for students embarking on university study and this forms an important strand in English for Academic Purposes (EAP) courses, especially short, intensive courses designed to prepare international students for tertiary level study. These learners' access to and control of linguistic resources determines whether they may start their studies and impacts their achievement in their future studies. A central issue, therefore, is the need for a clearer understanding of teaching in these contexts and the identification of improved practices.

3.4 Rationale for the study

This qualitative study aims to investigate classroom language to describe feedback practices of teachers. These descriptions involve identifying the underlying patterns and guiding principles of these classroom practices (Maton, 2016, p. 7). This can be modelled linguistically through the moves of pedagogic activity (Rose, 2014, p. 13). Semantic profiles and pedagogic register analysis offer complementary means of understanding classroom interactions, each informing the analysis and adding to our understanding of teacher feedback practices.

3.5 Overview of explanatory frameworks

This study's main concern is with how teachers use classroom discourse to achieve course goals while simultaneously developing learners' emerging language. The study applies recent work in pedagogic register analysis (Rose, 2014; 2018; 2020) to map teachers' choices as they work to meet these twin aims. This includes how roles in classroom discourse are enacted and to what purpose, through exchanges between participants using the discourse semantic system of NEGOTIATION (Martin & Rose, 2007). The study therefore draws on discourse semantics (Martin & Rose, 2007), Australian genre theory (Martin & Rose, 2008) and, more broadly, systemic functional linguistics' view of language (Halliday, 1978; Halliday & Matthiessen, 2014) to analyse the linguistic resources employed in these classroom practices. The study also draws on Legitimation Code Theory (LCT) (Maton, 2014; Martin & Maton, 2013) and its concept of semantics (Maton, 2013; Matruggio et al., 2013; Macnaught et al., 2013) to identify moments in writing lessons when the context-dependence and complexity of classroom practices change. The study then analyses these practices as language in context, describing and explaining these changes. Key elements of these explanatory frameworks that are relevant to this study are discussed in the sections below.

3.6 Systemic Functional Linguistics

Systemic functional linguistics (SFL) provides the underlying theory for the analysis of classroom language in this study. SFL (Halliday & Matthiessen, 2014; Martin, 1992; Martin & Rose, 2007, 2008; Martin, 2009b) is a model of language in context that conceives language as a meaning-making resource. The suitability of this model for my study is its ability to anchor language in its context. In the Sydney architecture of SFL, context is modelled on two levels, following anthropological studies by Malinowski (1923; 1935) that were adopted first by Firth (1957) and then Halliday (1959; 1961). The first layer is the context of situation, and this refers to the immediate context of a text including the social activity, the distance between participants and the role of language in the interaction. The second layer is the context of culture, a broader concept encompassing all the meanings it is possible to mean in a particular culture (Butt et al., 2000, p. 3).

As a theory of language in context, SFL draws on these notions of context of situation and context of culture, first proposed by Malinowski (1923; 1935), as essential for understanding language in use, or texts, and their meanings. The term 'text' here means "any instance of language [...] functioning in context" (Halliday & Matthiessen, 2014, p. 3). The notion of context has been understood and applied differently within SFL, resulting in different models. The differences in the models are clearest at the level of semantics and context. However, it is important to point out that flexibility is a feature of the theory (Halliday, 1980) and the different dimensions can be played off against each other in this 'flexi-model' (Matthiessen, 1993, p. 232). Therefore, it should not be surprising that different elements have been modelled differently by different functional linguists. There is no single functional grammar and it is interesting to note that the fourth edition of what was previously titled *An introduction to functional grammar* (known as IFG) is now called *Halliday's introduction to functional grammar* (Halliday and Matthiessen, 2014).

SFL has been called an extravagant theory (Halliday, 1980; Martin & Rose, 2007, p. 2) as it seeks to provide a coherent and cohesive account of language in context. This extravagance "is a function not only of the scope of the theory, [...] but also of the several different functional relationships that are theorised to hold between different elements within the model (Bartlett & O'Grady, 2017, p. 3). SFL views language as polysystemic, a system of systems (Firth cited by Matthiessen, 1993, p. 222). These systems include the systems of phonology and graphology at the expression plane, the systems of lexicogrammar and semantics at the content plane that interfaces with higher order semiotic systems at the context plane above the linguistic system (Matthiessen and Halliday, 2009, p.93).

While related models of context were developed by Halliday and his contemporaries (see Martin, 1992, p. 499 for a comparison of five models, including those of Gregory, Ure and Ellis, Fawcett and a comparison of Halliday et al., 1964 and Halliday 1978), there are two main approaches to modelling register in SFL (Matthiessen, 1993, p.231). The first views register as a functional variation (Halliday et al., 1964; Hasan, 1973; Halliday, 1978; Halliday and Hasan, 1985) and the second views register as a dimension of stratification (Martin, 1992; Martin, 1999a; Martin & Rose, 2007; Martin & Rose, 2008; Martin, 2014; Martin, 2016). Matthiessen suggests that these two views are "genuinely alternative ways of modelling register" (1993, p. 232). The two models may be seen as reflecting the different

specific interests of researchers and research projects that led to differences in their development. As such, they were not intended to be combined but they may be viewed as complementarities (Matthiessen, 1993, p. 232).

In my study I will be using Martin's model for reasons that I will outline in Section 3.6.9. First, I will outline the organizing dimensions of SFL, providing a framework for the following discussion. Then I will describe the two models of register and discuss how Martin's model differs from Halliday's model. Matthiessen notes that this theoretical variation is not only valuable but essential in clarifying "the overall theoretical space" (1993, p. 234). By means of this exploration, I hope to clarify the overall theoretical space of my PhD study and provide a clear rationale for my own theoretical stance.

3.6.1 Stratification, metafunctional diversity and instantiation

The global organizing dimensions of SFL relevant to clarifying my study are 1) stratification, 2) metafunctional diversity and 3) potentiality (Matthiessen, 1993, p. 225), the last of which is now usually referred to as instantiation (Halliday and Matthiessen, 2014, p. 27).

Stratification is the order of abstraction described in Section 3.6.2 below, from the context plane, through the content plane down to the expression plane. Metafunction refers to the three broad purposes that language serves. These are the ideational, interpersonal and textual. These language-internal metafunctions are associated with the context of situation, often organized by metafunction into field, tenor and mode in what is termed the context-metafunction hook-up hypothesis (Bartlett, 2017, p. 381) or metafunctional resonance (Hasan, 2014). The field refers to what is happening, the tenor refers to the participants and the mode refers to the role of language (Halliday and Matthiessen, 2014, p. 33).

Instantiation models the relationship between the potential of language and particular instances. These dimensions are presented in Table 3.1. The dimension of instantiation is only relevant to my study in terms of clarifying the theoretical model of register that I plan to use.

Table 3.1 The global semiotic dimensions of language in context

(Reproduced from Halliday and Matthiessen, 2014, p. 32)

Dimension	Orders
stratification	context – language [content [semantics – lexicogrammar] – expression [phonology – phonetics]]
instantiation	potential – sub-potential/instance type – instance
metafunction	ideational [logical – experiential] – interpersonal – textual

I will discuss each of these dimensions in turn, highlighting the differences between Martin's and Halliday's models.

3.6.2 The hierarchy of stratification

The expression planes of phonology and graphology are where language is manifested in the physical world e.g. as sound waves or physical representations of symbols. The next systems are those of the content plane. These include lexicogrammar and semantics (for Halliday) and discourse semantics (for Martin). SFL is a model of language in context and beyond language there is context (see Figure 3.2). This overall theoretical architecture is apparent in both models and the main differences lie in the conceptualization of semantics and context. However, there are departures from this overall architecture in other models, such as that of the Cardiff school (Fawcett, 2008) and it would be inaccurate to present Halliday's and Martin's models as the only theoretical variation within SFL.

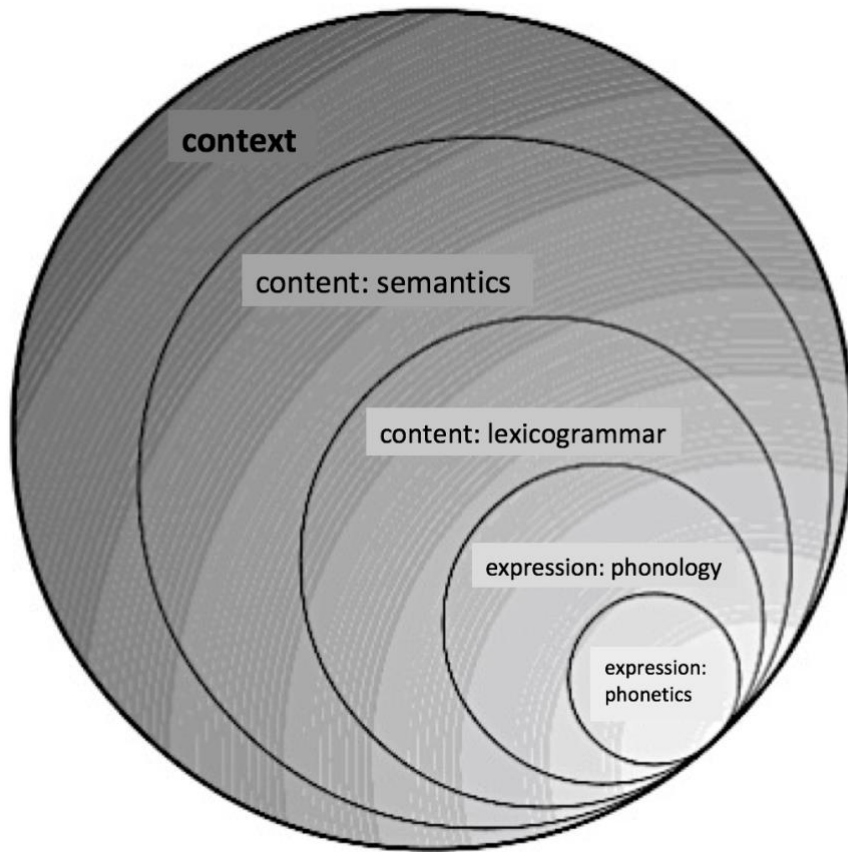


Figure 3.2 Stratification

(Reproduced with clearer labels from Halliday and Matthiessen, 2014, p. 26)

In Halliday's model, context is presented as a single plane beyond language (see Figure 3.2). Context interfaces with the lexicogrammar through semantics. It is the means by which non-language is construed, enacted and presented as meaning (Matthiessen et al., 2010, p. 189). The relationship between them is theorized as realization and can be categorized according to metafunction. That is to say that interpersonal semantic systems resonate with tenor variables, ideational ones with field variables and textual ones with mode variables (Matthiessen, et al., 2010, p. 189).

In Halliday's model, register is located here in the semantic plane as actual language. Figure 3.2 shows semantics as part of the content plane of language, and Figure 3.3, below, shows how semantics is the interface between the lexicogrammar and the eco-social environment. The semantic system of language also interfaces with other socio-semiotic systems (e.g. gesture, facial expression, voice quality, pictorial systems, music) and bio-semiotic systems (e.g. perception, action and attention) (Matthiessen et al., 2010, p. 189).

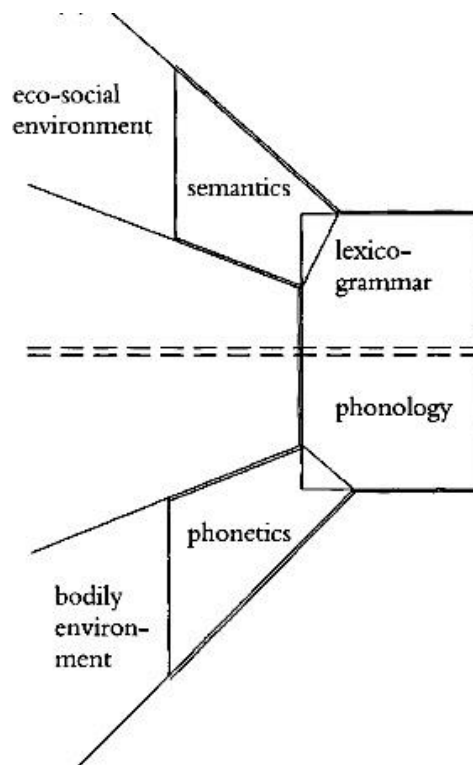


Figure 3.3 Language in relation to its eco-social and bodily environments

(Reproduced from Halliday, 2003, p. 13)

Another way of conceptualizing the model and the processes of how the environment interfaces with the linguistic system and, through the various strata, produces language on the expression plane (e.g. as sound waves) is illustrated in Table 3.2. A speaker interacts with the environment, via receptors, at the stratum of semantics. It is here that non-language is construed, enacted and presented as meaning (Matthiessen et al., 2010, p.189). This meaning is realized by lexicogrammar at the stratum of wording. The highest-ranking unit is that of the clause, and unit complex that of the clause complex (Matthiessen et al., 2010, p.190).

Table 3.2 From eco-social environment to sound waves: speaker perspective

(Halliday and Matthiessen, 2014, p. 26)

[from environment to] meaning:	interfacing, via receptors	semantics
[from meaning to] wording:	internal organization	lexicogrammar
[from wording to] composing:	internal organization	phonology
[from composing to] sounding:	interfacing, via motors	phonetics

The relationship between the strata is that of realization. Realization does not indicate a causal relationship but here refers to how one plane relates to another. When analysing text, structural features realize various choices in the system (Halliday and Matthiessen, 2014, p. 24) and this phenomenon represents a relationship found throughout language because language is modelled as a stratified system (Halliday and Matthiessen, 2014, p. 24). Halliday’s model of language is clearly illustrated in Figure 3.2, with the two content planes of semantics and lexicogrammar and the expression plane of phonology.

3.6.3 Metafunctional Diversity

From the perspective of SFL, language has evolved to fulfil generalized functions. These are the ideational (which can be further differentiated into the experiential and the logical), the interpersonal and the textual (Matthiessen et al., 2010, p. 138). The organization of language reflects these functions. In Halliday’s model, all three metafunctions are found on the content planes, (those of semantics and lexicogrammar), and the expression planes (those of phonological and phonetic systems).

Figure 3.4 illustrates these broad metafunctions operating across the language strata. An alternative visual representation is offered in Figure 3.5, with the three metafunctions shown as square planes with language strata common to each.

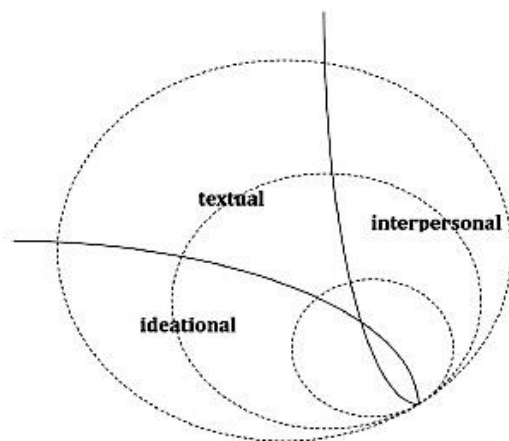


Figure 3.4 Mapping metafunctions across strata in SFL

(Reproduced from Martin, 2016, p. 45)

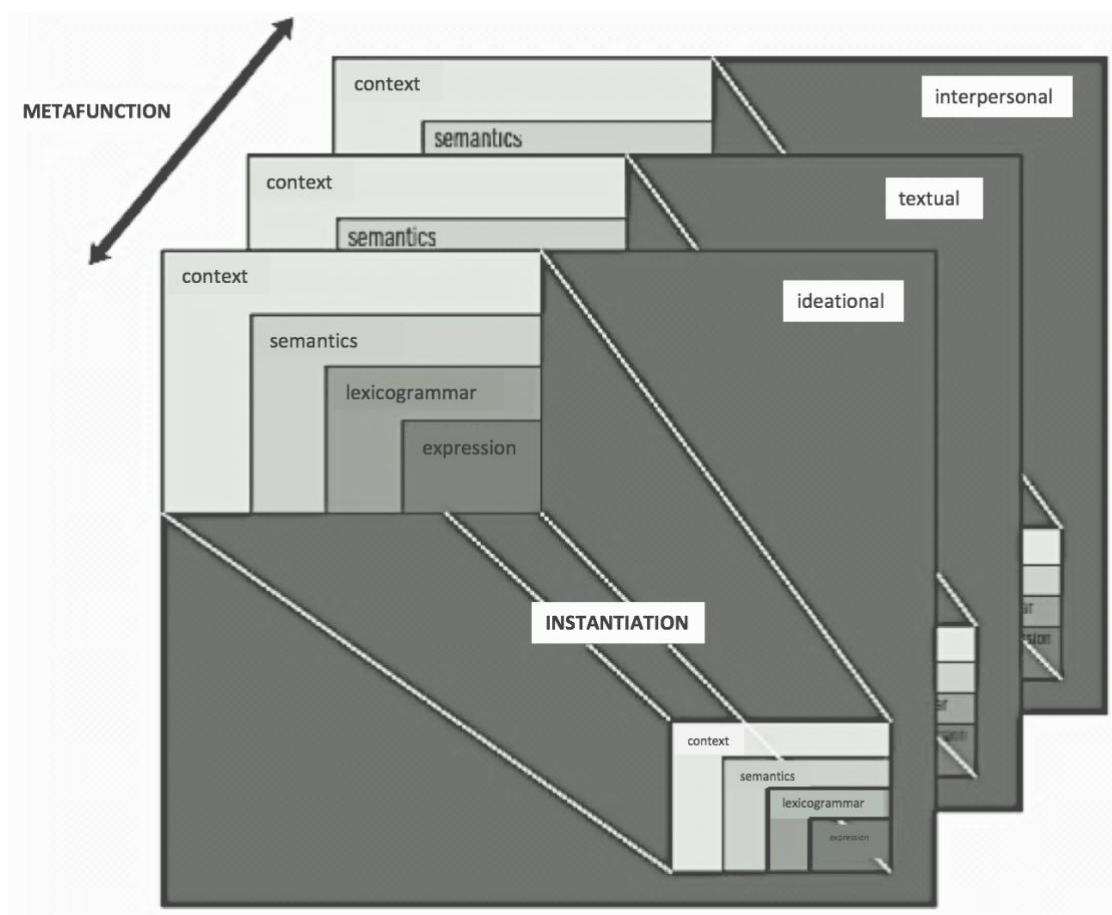


Figure 3.5 Metafunction

(Reproduced with clearer labels from Halliday and Matthiessen, 2014, p. 31)

3.6.4 Differences in the model of stratification

In Martin's model, language is "a stratified semiotic system involving three cycles of coding at different levels of abstraction" (Martin & White, 2005, p. 8). In written language the most concrete of these is graphology and the organisation of letters into words and sentences. Graphological patterns are recoded as lexicogrammatical structures. The concept of recoding emphasizes that lexicogrammar is not made up of graphological patterns but rather it is realized through them and is therefore more abstract.

Similarly, meanings beyond the clause (e.g. how participants organize turns into exchanges in the system of negotiation) are realized by lexicogrammatical resources. This stratum is called discourse semantics and the systems here operate across grammatical boundaries and they are realized by a range of grammatical categories (Martin & White, 2005, p. 10) (see Figure 3.12). At the level of language, these systems are viewed as denotative semiotics. However, the level of context is viewed as a connotative semiotic with language is its expression plane. As we move up through the model there are patterns of patterns. This is termed metaredundancy (Lemke, 1995). In this stratified model, context itself is a meaning-making resource and there is a two-way relationship between context and language; just as context influences choices lower down the strata and language symbolizes its social context, so language construes experience and enacts relationships that influence the context of situation and, over time, the context of culture.

Therefore, in Martin's model, register is organized by metafunction in field, mode and tenor (Martin & Rose, 2007, p. 296) and as register varies, the meanings found in a text also vary. Register is conceptualized as meaning potential rather than as instances of functional variation. This is illustrated in Figure 3.6. Register as meaning potential is visually represented as a larger circle in Figure 3.6 (ii). The alternative model of register as instances of functional variation is visually represented with these instances as separate circles in Figure 3.6 (i).

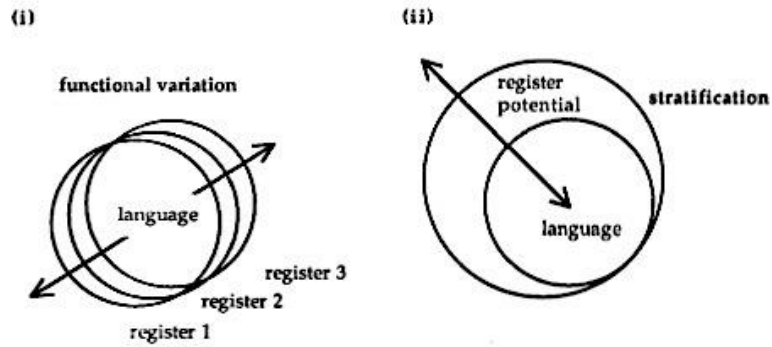


Figure 3.6 Register as state in functional variation or as a connotative semiotic

(Reproduced from Matthiessen, 1993, p. 232)

3.6.5 Potentiality and the cline of instantiation

Potentiality is a representation of what language users can do. This is expressed in SFL as meaning potential and refers to what a language user can mean. This meaning potential contrasts with actual language use, what the language user actually does (Matthiessen et al., 2010, p. 138). This is illustrated in Figure 3.7.

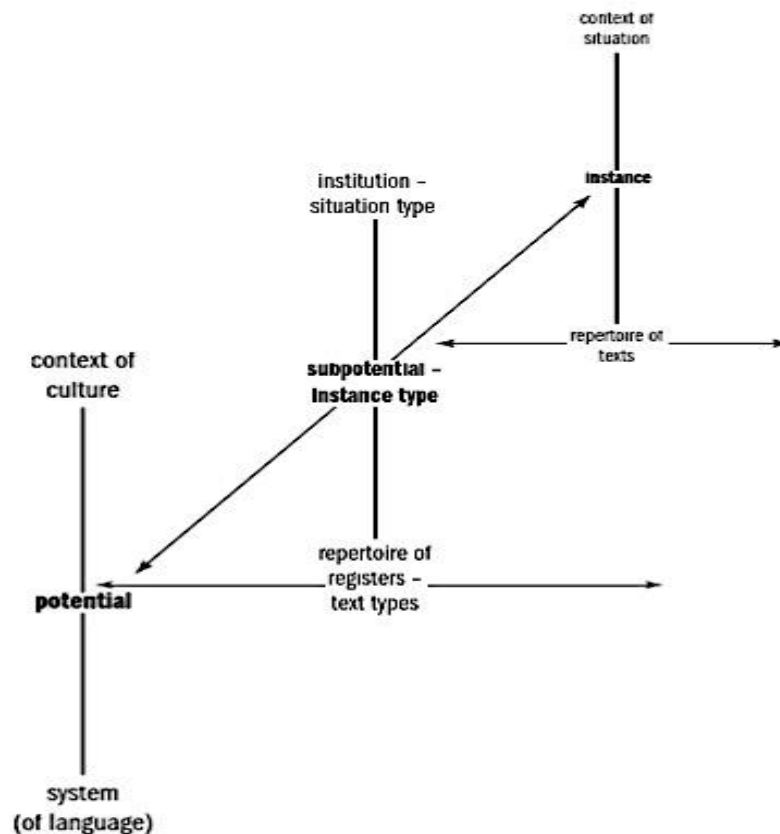


Figure 3.7 The cline of instantiation

(Reproduced from Halliday and Matthiessen, 2014, p. 28)

The system of language in a general sense encompasses the totality of specific systems across every stratum. This overall system is the underlying potential of language as a meaning-making resource (Halliday and Matthiessen, 2014, p. 27). The system is instantiated in texts. However, they are not two separate phenomena; the relationship between system and text is like that between climate and weather (Halliday, 1999) and depends on the observer's perspective. Between these two extremes lie intermediate patterns (Halliday and Matthiessen, 2014, p.29). From the potential pole of the cline, these can be viewed as functional varieties of language, or registers, and from the instance pole, they can be seen as text types (Halliday and Matthiessen, 2014, p.29). The meaning potential of language is a feature of the context of culture whereas texts are a feature of the context of situation.

The cline of instantiation is modelled again, slightly differently, in Figure 3.8. The cline of instantiation moves from system on the left (including context of culture and language as a system) to instance on the right (including context of situation and language

as text). The relationship between the top (context) and the bottom (language) is that of realization. In Halliday’s model, register (and text type) is a matter of instantiation (Halliday, 1999; Hasan, 2009). Register is positioned along the cline of instantiation from potential (language as system) to instance (language as text). In this model, register is conceptualized as functional variation (see Figure 3.6 (i)). Instantiation is also the relationship that holds between context as culture and context as situation. This is shown in Figure 3.7 and Figure 3.8 by the opposing poles of potential (context of culture) and instance (context of situation).

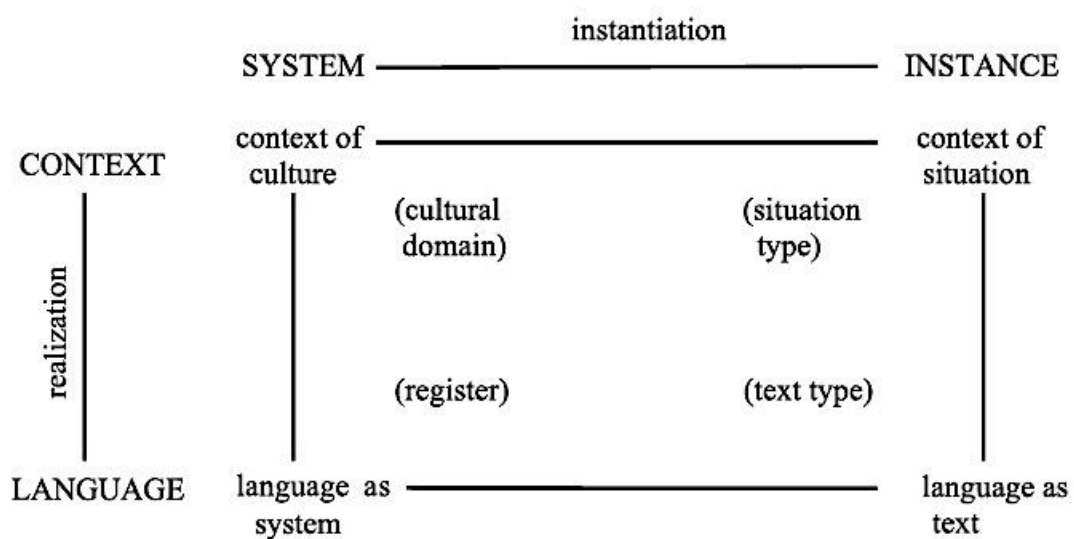


Figure 3.8 Language and context, system and instance
(Reproduced from Halliday, 1999, p. 8)

3.6.6 Differences in the modelling of register: instantiation versus realization

A key idea here is that of a connotative semiotic (Hjelmslev, 1947; 1961), that is a semiotic that takes another semiotic as its expression plane. In this model, context is a connotative semiotic that is expressed by language (which is a denotative semiotic). The relationship between the context plane (genre and register) and language is a symbolic one. That is to say that language use symbolizes its social context and context itself is a meaning-making resource. In Halliday’s model, by contrast, register (and text type) is a matter of instantiation

and it is positioned along the cline of instantiation from potential (language as system) to instance (language as text), as discussed in Section 3.6.5 above.

Halliday's 'register' is positioned in semantics (Lukin et al., 2011, p. 191) as part of language (see Figure 3.9). In Halliday's model, systems of higher-level meaning occur in context (see Figure 3.9) but these are understood in terms of instantiation: the contextual potential of culture and, moving along the cline of instantiation, cultural domains or institutions and contexts of situations operating within these (Halliday and Matthiessen, 2014, p. 33).

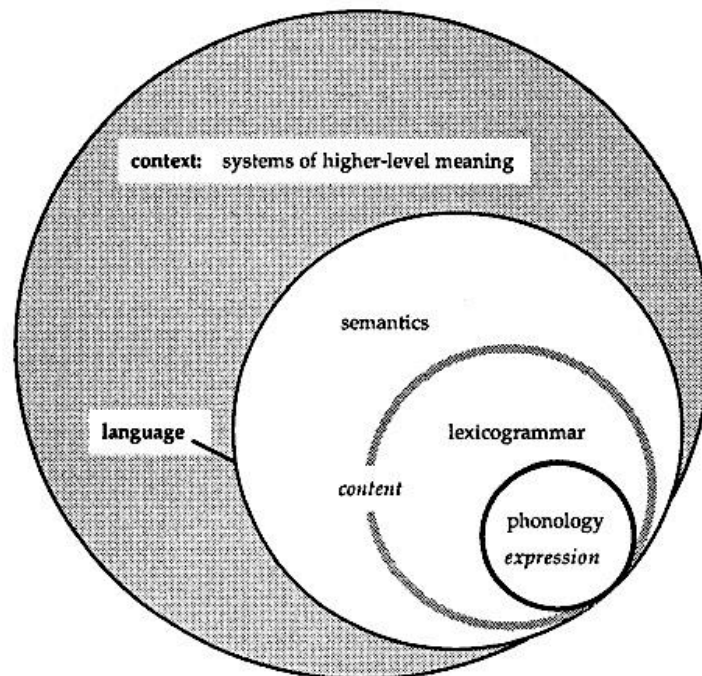


Figure 3.9 Stratification of language in context
(Reproduced from Matthiessen 1993, p. 227)

This model can be contrasted with Martin's model (see Figure 3.10) with its stratified model of context. Beyond language is register, organized by metafunction, and then genre. These have been respectively related to the context of situation and the context of culture in contrast to Halliday's model of instantiation (Martin, 1999a, p. 54 note 3).

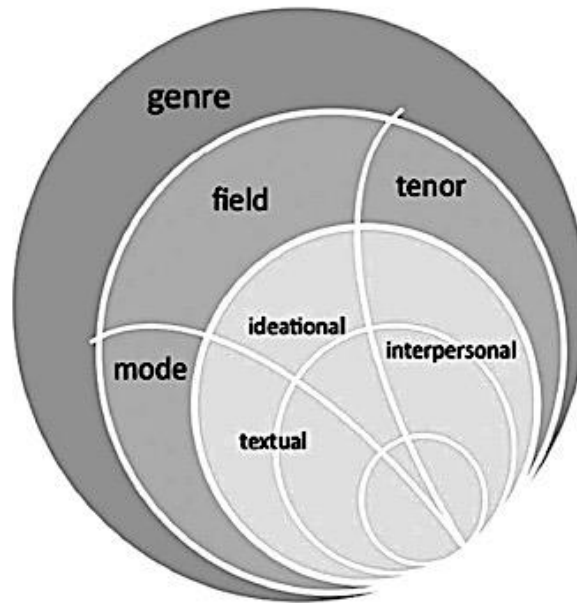


Figure 3.10 Martin's stratified model of context in relation to metafunctions and language strata with genre and register as context

(Reproduced from Martin, 2016, p. 50)

3.6.7 The Martinian architecture of systemic functional linguistics

The SFL model of language conceptualizes three metafunctions that comprise of ideational, interpersonal and textual resources that operate simultaneously (see Figure 3.10). These allow meaning in context to be viewed along three dimensions: (1) ideational meaning as a resource for participation in social activities; (2) interpersonal meaning valuing these activities; (3) textual meaning as bringing the other meanings together in a manner sensitive to the mode of communication (e.g. spoken discourse). These metafunctions are realized through the register variables of field, tenor and mode, which shift according to the context of situation. For example, different social activities (field), different levels of formality (tenor) and varying modes of communication (mode) lead to changes in the register variables. Above the level of register is that of genre. Genre may be defined as a staged, goal-oriented social process (Martin, 2009a). These social processes have developed in the context of culture. Genre coordinates these linguistic resources to organize meaning potential into repeated patterns of meaning, realizing meaning through stages. This model allows for the identification of the social purposes of discourse in terms of spoken classroom genres and the discussion of the linguistic resources across the register variables these genres employ to achieve their goals.

We can now see in Martin's model the position of genre on the two hierarchies of realization (a hierarchy of abstraction) and instantiation (a hierarchy of generalization), drawing here on terms used by Martin (2009c). Martin notes that "[a]s a recurrent configuration of field, mode and tenor patterns, genre sits on top of the realization hierarchy, as the highest level pattern of patterns. But since each genre constitutes a subpotential of the meaning potential of the system as a whole, it sits one rung down on the instantiation hierarchy, on the way from system to reading" (2009c, p. 558). Each hierarchy provides a different perspective on language. To investigate how teachers achieve their pedagogic purposes through staged, goal-defined social processes of recurrent configurations of meanings (Martin, 2009a, p. 19), the hierarchy of realization (a hierarchy of abstraction) is most appropriate for my study.

3.6.8 The interpersonal metafunction: language as action

The interpersonal metafunction of SFL (Halliday and Matthiessen, 2014, p. 30) views language as action and the clause as an exchange. Language is seen as enacting our personal and social relationships. The personal and interactive nature of these meanings is reflected in this metafunction's name: interpersonal. While the ideational metafunction construes our experience of the world, the interpersonal enacts our relationships in the social world (Matthiessen & Halliday, 2009, p. 54). For example, we adopt roles when exchanging information that, in turn, assign a complementary role to our interlocutor. In this way the participants co-author the text. When a teacher asks a learner a question, the learner either offers an answer, the role the teacher is expecting, or adopts a different role, perhaps posing their own question. It is in this sense that our relationships are enacted through language. While all pedagogic activities, relations and modalities simultaneously transmit skills and values (Rose & Martin, 2012, p. 315), there is a clear interest for the educational linguist in examining language as action and how the teacher and learners enact their relationships in the classroom through language. For this reason, the interpersonal metafunction is the most appropriate lens with which to view classroom discourse in my study.

The interpersonal metafunction operates at different levels of the hierarchy of stratification, for example in the lexicogrammar (Matthiessen and Halliday, 2009; Painter,

Matthiessen & Martin, 2010; Thompson, 2014; Coffin et al., 2009; Eggins, 2004; Butt et al., 2000) and discourse (Martin & Rose, 2007; Rose & Martin, 2012). Discourse here refers to patterns of meaning beyond clauses and across whole texts (Rose & Martin, 2012, p. 236), technically termed discourse semantics (Martin & Rose, 2007, p. 74). This is one development of Halliday and Hasan's work on cohesion (1976) (which was modelled from the perspective of grammar) that models meanings across texts in a stratum between grammar and register (Martin & Rose, 2007). The advantage of adopting this perspective is the ability to see patterns of meaning unfold across texts such as classroom activities and lessons. This makes the study more accessible to those likely to benefit the most from its findings, namely teachers, because their professional practice is concerned with activities and lessons.

3.6.9 A rationale for my own theoretical stance

Martin's stratified model of context has several advantages on both theoretical and practical grounds (Martin, 1999a, p. 31). Firstly, it characterizes genre as multifunctional rather than associating it with one register variable (Martin, 1999a, p. 31). For example, Halliday associated genre with mode (Halliday, 1978), while Hasan associated it with field (Hasan, 1999, pp.270-271 & pp.281-282; Martin, 1992, pp. 499-501). In Martin's model, all three register variables and metafunctions are employed in genres.

From the perspective of Martin's stratified model, genre specifies field, tenor and mode options that a culture regularly uses in social processes. When constrained by genre, register represents what a culture has done and still does. When unconstrained by genre, register represents what a culture may have stopped doing or may do in the future (Martin, 1999a, p.32). This is an alternative view from the perspective of potentiality and instantiation. Martin's model illuminates what a culture does versus what it does not do. In Martin's terms "[g]enre states the meaning potential that is immanent in a culture; register allows for what could be" (Martin, 1999a, p. 32). This is useful for my research because Martin's model conceptualizes the meaning potential that is immanent in adult language classrooms, what teachers have done and still do. The Martinian linguistic model enables me to examine language in context in terms of genre, register and discourse semantics (discussed further in Section 3.6, below) and identify diverse patterns of meaning.

This linguistics model enables the analyst to divide language into strata, just as white light is dispersed into a spectrum through a prism (Firth, 1962, p. 6) as illustrated in Figure 3.11. As Halliday’s teacher Firth notes,

Language text must be attributed to participants in some context of situation in order that its modes of meaning may be stated at a series of levels, which taken together form a sort of linguistic spectrum. In this “spectrum” the meaning of the whole event is dispersed and dealt with by a hierarchy of linguistic techniques descending from social contextualization to phonology. (Firth, 1951, p. 76)

This enables the linguist to examine the “processes and patterns of life” (Firth, 1968, p. 24) in the classroom⁴.

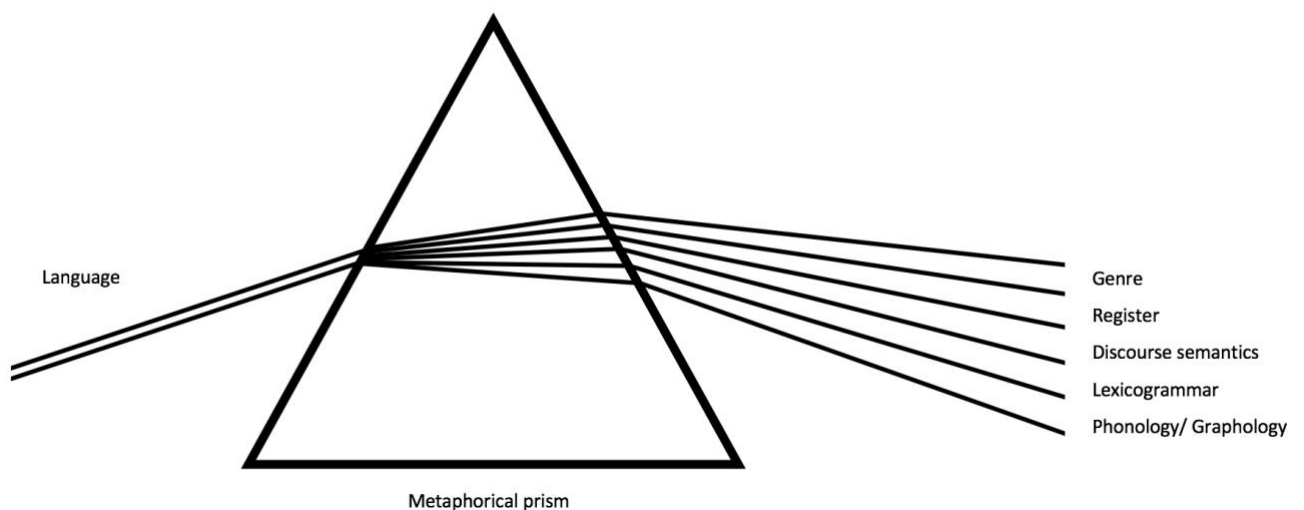


Figure 3.11 Martinian model of language visually represented by Firth’s metaphor of language split into a spectrum through linguistic analysis (replacing white light split through Newton’s prism) (Based on Newton’s illustration of a prism refracting the light of the sun, 2010 [1730], p. 163)

For a genre to complete its purpose it must progress through various stages and these transitions can lead to a shift in register. As meaning unfolds in a text, these changes can be accounted for in Martin’s dynamic modelling of genre (Martin, 1999a, p. 32). This model conceptualizes genre as independent of register. This distinction allows the analyst to

⁴ The title of this thesis is inspired by this quotation and is, thus, a modest tribute to Firth’s foundational work.

understand genres and registers as two distinct phenomena that can vary independently of one another (Gardner, 2017, p.477). For example, in Christie's research into pedagogic discourse (2002) using functional linguistics and genre theory, various curriculum genres have been proposed. One such genre is curriculum initiation with its stages of task orientation, task specification and task conference. (Christie, 2002, p. 103). These stages are not the same register throughout but are realized by what Christie terms regulative (first order) register and instructional (second order) register (Christie, 2002, p. 103). This explanatory model allows the analyst to model classroom episodes linguistically as staged, goal-oriented social processes (Martin, 1997, p. 13) in the context of culture (i.e. curriculum genres) that is realized through registers in the context of situation. This highlights the relationship between classroom discourse with its context.

Martin's model also allows for the notion of contextual metaphor, when one text type is used for an additional purpose. This has parallels with Halliday's work on grammatical metaphor (Halliday and Matthiessen, 2014, p. 698). One well-known example of contextual metaphor is Carle's (1974) story *The Very Hungry Caterpillar*. This is a narrative at the level of register but at a deeper level (genre) it also functions as a scientific explanation of metamorphosis (Martin, 1999a, p. 34). The text is to be read metaphorically, on two levels and its purpose lies in the tension between the two (Martin, 1999, p. 34). A similar example may be found in English language teacher training, which may use loop input (Woodward, 1991). Loop input aims to achieve a congruence between what the training is about and how it is completed through experiential tasks that sees one text stand in for another. For example, this might be a training session on dictation delivered through dictation activities on the topic of dictation (Woodward, 2003, p. 302), involving "an alignment of the process and content of learning" (Woodward, 2003, p. 301). Here, one can see the intention of one text to be read at two levels, resulting in a "reverberation between process and content" (Woodward, 2003, p. 303) with the training experience offering the potential of a deeper understanding.

Finally, Martin's stratified model of context has led to work identifying systems of genres. For Martin, culture is a system of genres (Gardner, 2017, p. 478). The separation of genre analysis and register analysis has been the most frequently applied, and is therefore the most influential, genre theory in SFL (Gardner, 2017, p. 478). Many of these applications have been made in educational linguistics. This is where I am positioning my own study and I

therefore benefit from previous studies examining genre in education in terms of the texts that learners read and write and also in terms of curriculum genres.

3.7 Discourse semantics

There are three distinguishing features to Martin's model (Tann, 2017, p. 438): firstly, there is the status of context as a connotative semiotic (see Section 3.5.7 above); and secondly, there is its stratified model of context (again, discussed in Section 3.5.7 above). The final difference is in the relationship of context to language. In Martin's model, the interface is between the context of situation and discourse semantics (and then, through this, to lexicogrammar).

Martin presents his work on discourse semantics as a means of conducting discourse analysis in the SFL framework (Martin, 1992, p. 1; Martin, 2009b) that elaborates on Halliday and Hasan's work on cohesion (1976). Discourse semantics takes text as its unit of analysis rather than the clause. While Halliday and Hasan's work on cohesion contrasted grammar (i.e. structural meaning making resources) with cohesion (non-structural meaning-making resources) (Martin, 1992, p. 1), Martin's contrast is stratal; discourse semantics contrasts grammar (i.e. clause-oriented resources) with semantics (text-oriented resources) (Martin, 1992, p. 1). This focus on text-level meaning led to the name discourse semantics. It is designed to be "grammatically responsible, interfacing with a grammar that is equally responsible to textual considerations" (Martin, 1992, p. 2).

Martin identifies two uses of discourse semantics that have evolved (1992, p. 2). These are, firstly, as a way to examine the relationship between text (i.e. language functioning in context) and context (i.e. register and genre) and secondly "as one foundation for the development of an educational linguistics" (Martin, 1992, p. 2). This is because discourse semantics has the potential to provide insights into the relationships between text and context to further our understanding of education and ensure it provides opportunities for all. This second use of discourse semantics explains the subsequent work on education, which has focused on literacy development (Painter & Martin, 1986) and, consequently, genre pedagogy (Martin & Rose, 2008; Rose & Martin, 2012). Both these uses are relevant to my study of classroom discourse, relating teacher feedback practices with the teaching

and learning of writing. This second use is of particular relevance to my study and the importance of international education in providing opportunities to all.

Discourse semantics consists of six sets of text-level meaning-making resources (Martin & Rose, 2007, p. 17). These can be organized by metafunction (see Figure 3.12). The two interpersonal systems are NEGOTIATION and APPRAISAL. NEGOTIATION focuses on interaction as an exchange, the roles speakers adopt and assign, and the organization of moves in relation to each other (Martin & Rose, 2007, p. 17). This is particularly useful when examining classroom discourse and its role in the teaching and learning of writing. APPRAISAL looks at evaluation, both that of attitudes and their strengths. These are realized prosodically across a clause or group (Martin, 1992, p. 11).



Figure 3.12 Martin's model of discourse semantic systems (and implicated structures)
(Reproduced from Martin, 2016, p.46)

Ideational systems are IDEATION and CONJUNCTION. IDEATION focuses on content, both the types of activities and participants involved in them. These meanings realize the field of a text (Martin & Rose, 2007, p. 17). CONJUNCTION looks at connections between activities (Martin & Rose, 2007, p. 17) and it realizes logical meanings e.g. to form temporal, causal and other connections (Martin & Rose, 2007, p. 11). These are realized as a kind of particulate structure, with experiential meanings as part/whole (e.g. as nuclear relations with periphery elements such as modifiers playing different roles to a thing in a nominal

group) and logical meanings as part/part (e.g. viewing the nominal group as a word complex with a Head and regressive and progressive dependents) (Martin, 1992, p. 13).

Finally, there are the textual systems of IDENTIFICATION and PERIODICITY. IDENTIFICATION focuses on tracking participants (Martin and Rose, 2007, p. 17). PERIODICITY looks at the information flow of discourse, the layers of prediction and consolidation used to organize discourse as waves or pulses of information (Martin & Rose, 2007, p. 17). These are realized periodically as wave structures, that map out the “peaks of prominence at the beginning and end of the English clause” (Martin, 1992 p. 11). The two interpersonal systems, NEGOTIATION and APPRAISAL, are discussed further below.

3.7.1 The interpersonal metafunction and discourse semantics: NEGOTIATION and APPRAISAL

Of the six discourse systems described by Martin and Rose (2007), two serve the interpersonal metafunction, namely APPRAISAL and NEGOTIATION. APPRAISAL is concerned with evaluation whereas NEGOTIATION is concerned with interaction as an exchange between speakers (Martin & Rose, p. 17). The NEGOTIATION system focuses on dialogue and how speakers adopt and assign roles to each other and how moves are organized and sequenced as exchanges. This system allows for the analysis of meaning across discourse, revealing how exchanges unfold. When classroom teaching and learning is viewed as a social endeavour, it follows that the discourse system of NEGOTIATION is likely to offer the most useful insights by examining the roles of speakers and the organization of classroom dialogue.

3.7.2 Exchange structure

NEGOTIATION is the discourse system that provides speakers with the resources to interact with each other. Exchanges develop by speakers adopting and assigning speech roles and the system of NEGOTIATION accounts for how dialogue develops through the organization of these roles into moves, which are then sequenced as exchanges (Martin & Rose, 2007, p. 219). Studies using exchange structure analysis (Dreyfus et al., 2011) owe much to the pioneering work by Berry (1981) and Ventola (1987). More recent studies have developed from earlier work on classroom discourse (Sinclair & Coulthard, 1975; Wells, 1999).

The main data source of my study is transcribed classroom discourse, analysed using pedagogic register analysis (Rose, 2014; 2018; 2020) with its foundation in exchange structure analysis, drawing on the discourse system of NEGOTIATION, which serves the interpersonal metafunction. This involves identifying the speaker roles (e.g. primary or secondary knower/actor), moves (and move complexes) and exchanges (and exchange complexes). This provides a linguistic basis for examining how classroom interactions unfold using systemic functional research methods with a view to describing, explaining and ultimately informing effective classroom practice.

In social semiotic views of language (Halliday, 1978) the clause is seen as performing different functions. In the interpersonal metafunction, the clause is viewed as an exchange that allows us to enact our social relationships (Halliday & Matthiessen, 2014, p. 30). In the MOOD system, language has an active meaning, allowing us to inform, question, give an order and express an attitude towards who we are speaking to and what we are speaking about. While the ideational metafunction can be termed language as reflection, the interpersonal metafunction is language as action (Halliday & Matthiessen, p. 30). From this perspective, the interpersonal meaning of the clause is one of an exchange. The main grammatical system for this metafunction is that of MOOD, offering the choices of declarative, interrogative or imperative.

Exchanges are developed through clauses that select from different types of Mood (Halliday & Matthiessen, 2014, p. 134). Made up of Subject and Finite, Mood is the part of the clause that expresses MOOD choices. In the interactive event of the clause, speakers adopt a speech role, which, in turn, assigns a complementary role to the listener (see Table 3.3). Participants take turns in this interactive process and co-author the text, adopting speech roles and assigning a complementary role to each other (Halliday & Matthiessen, 2014, p. 135).

The fundamental speech roles are 1) giving and 2) demanding but these basic categories entail complex notions. The action does not only involve the speaker because something is also required of the listener. For example, giving involves inviting to receive and demanding includes inviting to give (Halliday & Matthiessen, 2014, p. 135). The act of speaking is perhaps more appropriately termed an interact because it is an exchange that involves reciprocity. A further basic difference concerns the nature of the exchanged

commodity. This can be either a) goods-&-services or b) information (see Table 3.3 below). The combination of role and commodity provides four basic speech functions.

Table 3.3 Four primary speech functions

(reproduced from Halliday and Matthiessen, 2014, p. 135)

Role in exchange	a) goods-&-services	b) information
i) giving	'offer'	'statement'
ii) demanding	command	question

These four primary speech functions can be displayed with their reciprocal responses to give a complete picture of the basic speech functions found in exchanges (see Table 3.4 below). In addition, there are five more speech acts: greeting and response to greeting, call and response to call, and exclamations. This means there are a total of 13 basic speech acts.

Table 3.4 Speech functions and expected responses

(adapted from Halliday and Matthiessen, p. 137 for easy comparison with Table 3.3)

	initiating	responding
giving information	statement	acknowledgement
demanding information	question	answer
giving goods and services	offer	acceptance
demanding goods and services	command	undertaking

The same speech functions and expected responses are also given by Martin and Rose (see Table 3.5 below). The tables are the same (Rose, personal communication, 20th June 2019) because they are describing speech functions, that is the semantic functions of MOOD choices in an exchange. However, Martin and Rose prefer the term 'compliance' to 'undertaking' "because it allows the possibility of non-compliance" (Rose, personal communication, 20th June 2019).

Table 3.5 Basic speech functions

(reproduced from Martin and Rose, 2007, p. 224)

	initiating	responding
giving information	statement	acknowledgement
demanding information	question	answer
giving goods and services	offer	acceptance
demanding goods and services	command	compliance

The system of MOOD provides a way of understanding how exchanges develop at the level of grammar. A move is a ranking clause, including any embedded clauses and any clauses dependent on it (Martin & Rose, 2007, p. 234). Speech function choices are ordered as moves in exchanges. The moves identified above often pair up but it is possible that it may take either more or less than two moves to negotiate information or goods-and-services (Martin & Rose, 2007, p. 236). An exchange is a complete negotiation. It is possible for exchanges to contain one obligatory move that either supplies the goods, performs the service or establishes facts authoritatively in an information exchange.

However, to understand classroom discourse it is necessary to examine a different stratum of meaning. Building on work by Sinclair and Coulthard (1975), Berry proposed applying Halliday's metafunctions to discourse in order to explain patterns of meaning across texts. Regarding the interpersonal layer of meaning, Berry (1981) terms a goods-and-services negotiation an action exchange and an information negotiation a knowledge exchange. This leads to the identification of the person responsible for supplying goods-and-services as the primary actor (A1) and the person with the authority to adjudge information as the primary knower (K1). The other dialogue participant who receives the goods-and-services or information assumes the role of secondary actor (A2) and secondary knower (K2) respectively (Berry, 1981; Ventola, 1987; Martin & Rose, 2007). The contribution of exchange structure analysis is twofold; it enables an analysis of texts that goes beyond surface features and it has also been an important step in developing a theory of discourse. For example, feedback moves can be either obligatory (as in 1 below) or optional (as in 2

below) but coding only for Initiation, Response and Feedback (IRF) (Sinclair & Coulthard, 1975) does not reveal this.

3) Quizmaster: In England, which cathedral has the tallest spire?

Contestant: Salisbury

Quizmaster: Yes

4) Son: Which English cathedral has the tallest spire?

Father: Salisbury

Son: Oh (good now I can finish my crossword)

(Berry, 1981, p. 122)

This distinction enables us to see similarities and differences within and across texts. This supports my understanding of how meanings are exchanged and developed in classroom discourse and how the teacher-learner relationship is enacted through language.

Another important pattern in classroom discourse involves the teacher adopting the role of delayed primary knower (dK1) by asking a question to which the teacher already knows the answer. When the initiator and primary knower adopt different roles, the primary knower's contribution is made in the second move.

A: K2 What time is it?

B: K1 Ten o'clock

However, when the initiator and primary knower take the same role, the primary knower's contribution is made in the third move. In these instances, the initiator is the primary knower and is already in possession of the knowledge. This exchange is common in both television game shows and classroom discourse.

A: dK1 Jenny, what time is it?

B: K2 Ten o'clock

A: K1 That's right

SFL views language as a semiotic resource rather than a set of rules. From this perspective, language provides users with choices between meanings. By examining the potential meanings in a given context, we can identify a system of options. By examining “choices among relevant options in context” (Thompson, 2014, p. 10) we can investigate why a language user has chosen to express a particular meaning in a particular way at a particular time. The benefit of this is that it allows for the identification and engagement with real world issues, in the case of my study that is the teaching and learning of writing on university pathway courses for international students.

A systems network is a visual representation of these choices, ordered along a scale of delicacy from left to right, with a square bracket with horizontal arrow indicating a binary choice (Martin, 1992, p. 5). Figure 3.13 illustrates the basic options for pedagogic exchange roles for an action exchange and a knowledge exchange. In an action exchange, there is a choice of either the primary actor (A1) or the secondary actor (A2) initiating the exchange. When A1 initiates, there is the choice of either performing the action or anticipating the action with a delayed primary actor move (dA1). The caret “^” means “is followed by”. These are mirrored in the choices available for knowledge exchanges. The IRF sequence (Sinclair & Coulthard, 1975) is represented here by $dK1^A K2^k1$.

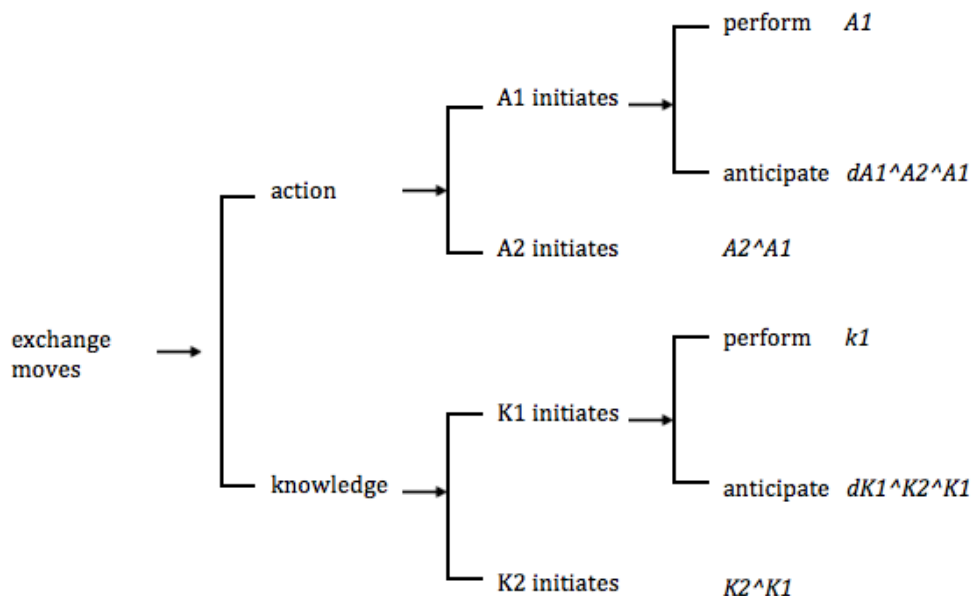


Figure 3.13 Systems network for basic options for pedagogic exchange role (Rose, 2014)

developed from work in genre pedagogy (Rose & Martin, 2012), provided some of the conceptual tools I used to analyse my classroom data. Pedagogic register analysis (hereafter PRA) aims “to show empirically how teaching and learning occur, to inform teaching as a consciously designed professional practice” (Rose, 2018, p. 3). When used to analyse classroom discourse, pedagogic register analysis maps choices in teaching and learning (Rose, 2018, p. 29), allowing us “to interpret pedagogic practice in close detail, with empirical consistency and coherence” (Rose, 2018, p. 31). As lessons unfold “we can then generalise empirically about how learning occurs with various types of pedagogic practice” (Rose, 2018, p. 31). This approach offers the possibility of understanding the multi-case study of the teachers in my research while allowing for meaningful comparisons with other cases and contexts.

In the so-called Sydney school of genre pedagogy (Rose & Martin, 2012), genre is defined as a goal-oriented process that develops through language in stages (Martin, 2009a, p. 13). Learning is viewed as a process of “guidance through interaction in the context of shared experience” (Martin, 1999b, p. 126). In a classroom setting, this involves the teacher guiding learners to interact with knowledge genres through curriculum genres (Rose, 2020, p. 239). Knowledge genres are those specified in a syllabus and selected by materials designers or teachers. Examples of knowledge genres are argument genres such as expositions and discussions (Rose & Martin, 2012). Examples of knowledge genres in the published syllabus of my main study include the following genres: **consequential explanation**⁶ (Unit 1), **classifying report** (Unit 2), **discussion** (Unit 3), **problem question** (Unit 4) and **exposition** (Unit 5) in the reading material and writing tasks. A more detailed genre and register analysis of the syllabus is provided in Appendix 1.

The classroom is a social space where teachers use language to achieve goals in stages. As with the knowledge genres described above, classroom language use can also be defined and categorized as genres. Australian genre pedagogy views classroom language use as specialized curriculum genres with particular selections in register (Rose, 2020; Christie, 2002). From this perspective, interactions between teacher and learners enact relationships, classroom activities construe experience and language is used to construct and organize

⁶ **Bold font** is used to indicate technical names of genres.

meanings as the lesson unfolds. Curriculum genres are “the multimodal genres of classroom practice, in which knowledge is exchanged between teacher and learners” (Rose, 2020, p. 239), first described by Christie (2002). In a classroom setting, teachers guide learners to interact with knowledge genres through curriculum genres (Rose, 2020, p. 239).

Curriculum genres configure two registers (Rose, 2018, 2020). The first is a curriculum register of knowledge and values and the second is a pedagogic register of activities, modalities and teacher/learner relations. These resonate with the metafunctions of field (pedagogic activities), mode (pedagogic modalities) and tenor (pedagogic relations). Classroom discourse is the exchange of knowledge and values between teachers and learners. It realizes curriculum registers and pedagogic registers. Pedagogic and curriculum registers serve both the knowledge and values of the curriculum *and* the practice of teaching and learning (Rose, 2018). They may do this simultaneously. For this reason, curriculum genres cannot be neatly divided into either teaching/learning practice or curriculum knowledge/values. Curriculum knowledge appears as the matter of learning cycles and values in pedagogic register are part of the curriculum register. These values may not have direct realizations in classroom discourse, but they are exchanged between teachers and learners and accumulate over time (Rose, personal correspondence, 2019). The relation between pedagogic and curriculum registers is “an exchange between teachers and learners (in preference to metaphors of embedding or projection)” (Rose, personal correspondence, 2019). This is explored further in Chapter 5, section 5.9 and Chapter 6, sections 6.4 and 6.5.

In genre pedagogy, curriculum genres are carefully planned to ensure teachers can guide learners through interaction in the context of shared experience. Curriculum genres have developed through action research projects and educational linguists working closely with teachers over many years (Martin, 1998). These have been reported by Rose and Martin (2012) and made accessible to teachers through the Reading to Learn (R2L) program (Rose, 2017b), which is both a genre-based pedagogy and a professional learning program (Rose, 2020, p. 236). However, this theoretical framework can also be used to understand classroom practices of teachers who are not trained in Australian genre pedagogy. The use of consistent terminology for these choices enables generalizations, comparisons and classifications within and across classrooms. An analysis of pedagogic discourse as it unfolds in lessons enables empirically informed generalizations about how learning occurs across

various types of pedagogic practice (Rose, 2018, p. 31). This approach offers the possibility of understanding the multi-case study of this thesis while allowing for meaningful comparisons with other cases and contexts.

PRA takes the social activity of teachers and learners in the classroom and models it as choices. The choices available are represented as options in a system. This builds on the SFL convention of modelling language as a semiotic resource which affords choices to language users. PRA develops previous work in discourse semantics on move analysis and exchange structure analysis, discussed in the previous section. The move up to register is in recognition that to explain the use of language in the classroom, we need to account for context (Rose, 2014; 2018; 2020). Teacher and learners use the classroom context as a resource to convey and share meaning. For example, these resources can include artefacts such as teaching materials (such as the syllabus outline in Appendix 1), books, websites, images, a whiteboard, data projector, document camera as well as a host of other resources including the people in the classroom. These resources for “bringing meanings into each move of an exchange” (Rose, 2018, p. 11) are represented in the complex system for Pedagogic modalities. This includes environmental sources, “phenomena in the environment, which may be an **activity**⁷, **persons**, **things** or **places** [and the] primary options for sourcing these phenomena are to **name** or **indicate** them” (Rose, 2018, p. 12). This system network involves the simultaneous systems of ENVIRONMENT SOURCES, options related to the origin of the meaning, and ENVIRONMENT SOURCING, the means of bringing the source into the exchange (Rose, 2018, p. 11). The options are set out the system network for PEDAGOGIC MODALITIES: ENVIRONMENTAL SOURCES in Figure 3.14. The system network is explained below.

We can employ pedagogic register analysis (Rose, 2014; 2018; 2020) to explore these pedagogic modalities. Specifically, we need to track the sources and sourcing of meaning. Choices in pedagogic register systems are visually represented as system networks, ordered along a “cline from general to specific” (Matthiessen et al 2010, p.80) in a scale of delicacy from left to right. Whereas a square bracket with horizontal arrow indicates a binary choice (Martin, 1992, p. 5), a right-facing brace indicates a logical ‘and’ (Martin, 2013, p. 14); the

⁷ **Bold font** is used to indicate technical terms in the systems of pedagogic register.

two systems enclosed by the brace are two simultaneous systems. The names of systems are written above the arrow leading into the system, or above and below when the system has two names, in small capitals (Martin, 2013, p. 14), for example ENVIRONMENT SOURCES and ENVIRONMENT SOURCING in Figure 3.14.

The system ENVIRONMENT SOURCES has a binary choice with two options (termed **activity** and **item**) called features, “the names for classes of semiotic phenomena’ (Martin, 2013, p. 14) and written in lower case. The system indicates that a teacher can select either **activity** or **item** but not both nor neither. The square bracket indicates “a logical ‘or’ [... and] the arrow, the square bracket and the features **together** comprise the system” (emphasis in the original) (Martin, 2013, p. 14). The primary options here are sources of meaning from the environment, either through a record or through speaking. The technical term ‘sources of meaning’ refers to the options available to teachers and include “spoken, written, visual and gestural modes of communication” (Rose, 2020, p.240). These phenomena may be an **activity, persons, things** or **places** as indicated in Figure 3.14. Sourcing refers to the means of bringing these phenomena into the exchange by either naming or indicating them. If the feature **indicate** is selected then the choice of two simultaneous systems, INDEXICAL TYPE and INDEXICAL MODALITY are available. Each of these systems presents a binary choice. For example, if INDEXICAL TYPE is selected, then the choice of either **describe** or **point** is available.

Systems can have a complex entry condition or point of origin that gives access to the system (Martin, 2013, p. 15), involving more than one feature (Martin, 2013, p. 17). One example of this is a conjunctive entry condition, indicated with a left-facing brace (Martin, 2013, p. 17). This makes it possible to represent a combination of features acting as an entry condition. For example, the conjunction of feature the **describe** and the feature **verbal** in Figure 3.14. Lines from these two features engaged in the entry condition are drawn to the brace (Martin, 2013, p. 17) to graphically represent the conjunctive entry condition for the VERBAL DESCRIPT system. The system thus specifies that the VERBAL DESCRIPT system can only be entered if both features are chosen.

System networks from pedagogic register analysis (Rose, 2018) used in my study are discussed and reproduced in Chapter 5, Section 5.9. Graphic conventions used in system networks are reproduced in Appendix 5⁸.

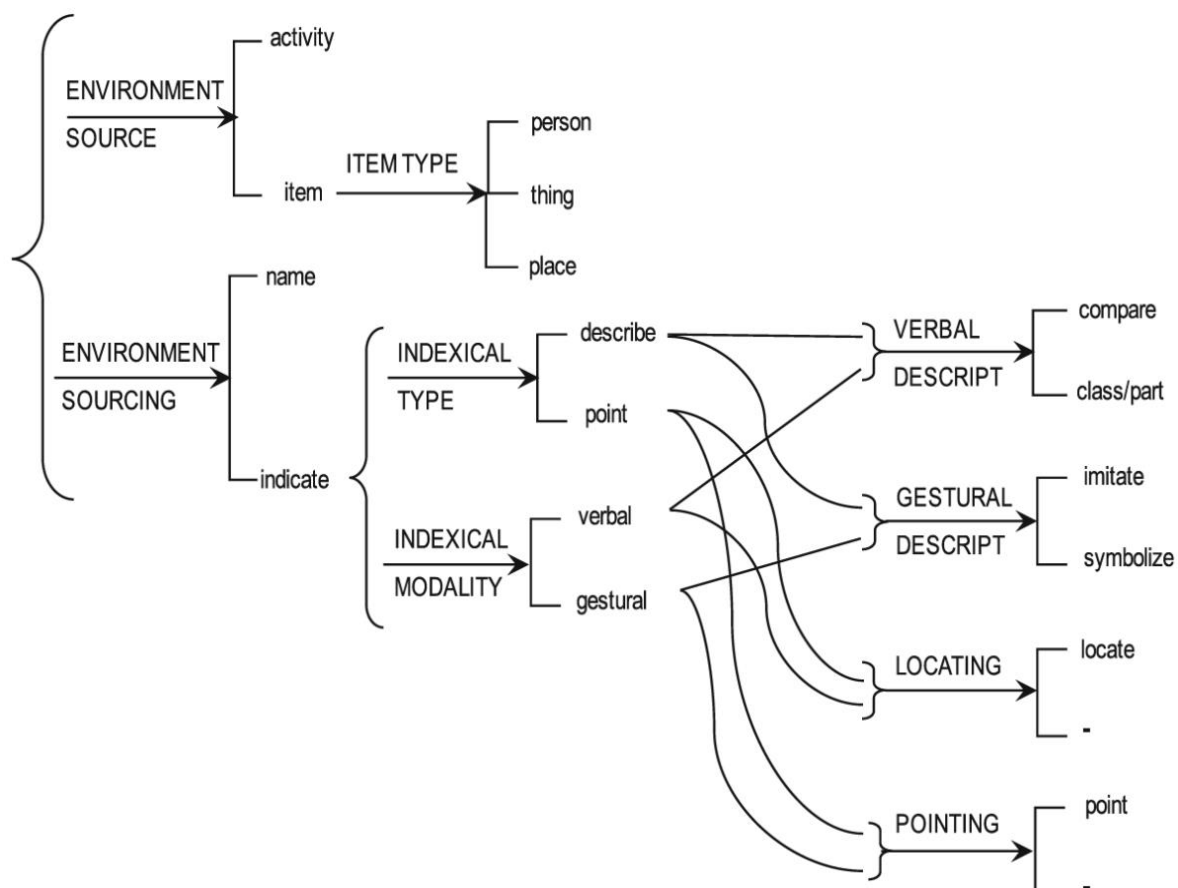


Figure 3.14 System network for Pedagogic modalities: environmental sources

(Rose, 2018, p. 13)

The aim of pedagogic register analysis is to empirically demonstrate how teaching and learning happen with the objective of informing “teaching as a consciously designed professional practice” (Rose, 2018, p. 3). When used to analyse the practices of experienced and expert teachers, pedagogic register analysis maps choices in teaching and learning (Rose, 2018, p. 29) that allow us “to interpret pedagogic practice in close detail, with

⁸ These conventions are from Halliday and Matthiessen (2014, p. X). See Martin (2013) for an introduction to the principles and practice of using system networks and Matthiessen et al (2010) for a glossary of key terms in SFL.

empirical consistency and coherence” (Rose, 2018, p. 31). The terms used in pedagogic register analysis are “technical but accessible” (Rose, 2018, p. 31) and reveal a set of principled choices made by teachers and learners. The use of language in the classroom requires us to look beyond language itself to other semiotic resources in the classroom context to understand and explain the choices teachers and learners make. PRA enables us to do this.

3.9 Legitimation Code Theory

The study also draws on Legitimation Code Theory (hereafter LCT) (Maton, 2014) and the concepts of semantic gravity and semantic density. LCT is a sociological theory that builds on the work of Bernstein’s code theory and Bourdieu’s field theory (Maton, 2014, p. 19), and provides a means of analysing the structure and patterns of knowledge. LCT examines knowledge practices, enabling explorations of their organizing principles and effects. LCT developed from work contributing towards a realist sociology of education (Maton, 2014, p. 17) and provides a multidimensional explanatory framework for examining contexts, practices and actor’s dispositions. It views society as consisting of actors struggling to maintain and maximize their positions while also simultaneously cooperating within domains that have underlying features in common in relation to contexts, practices and actor’s dispositions. These underlying features are conceptualized by LCT as *legitimation codes* and they represent values that actors ascribe as most important in a particular field. One of LCT’s express aims is to make knowledge and knowledge practices visible⁹ by providing tools that allow researchers and practitioners to link theory to practice.

The participants in my study, engaging in teaching and learning practices, are social phenomena with their own social relations and identities that exist within broader systems of social relations and identities. These teaching and learning practices and processes occur within a system of social relations. Bernstein highlights the implications for how knowledge is appropriated, brought into relationship with other knowledge and used for the purpose of teaching and learning in what Bernstein terms “a principle for the circulation and reordering

⁹ LCT provides the analyst with knowledge about knowledge, hence the term ‘meta-knowledge’ in this chapter’s subheading ‘Explanatory frameworks: meta-knowledge and crossing the Rubicon’.

of discourses” (2000, p. 32). Bernstein’s sociological concept of pedagogic discourse is “a principle for delocating a discourse, for relocating it, for refocusing it, according to its own principle” (2000, p. 32). This recognizes the fact that, although a particular lesson is about a particular subject, the knowledge has come from somewhere outside of the classroom and in this process the knowledge has changed. A recontextualized pedagogic discourse always involves values from outside the discipline being transformed into pedagogy. From this perspective, in a physics, chemistry or psychology lesson, pedagogic discourse “is not physics, chemistry or psychology [...] it cannot be identified with the discourse it transmits” (Bernstein, 2000, p. 32). A key to understanding this is Bernstein’s notion of “the pedagogic device” (2000), an ambitious model ranging “from social structure to individual consciousness [...] a complex web of relations among finely differentiated series of agents, contexts and practices” (Maton, 2014, p. 47). Bernstein’s concept of the pedagogic device is “a model for analysing the processes by which discipline-specific or domain-specific expert knowledge is converted or pedagogized to constitute school knowledge (classroom curricula, teacher-student talk, online learning)” (Singh, 2002, p. 572). The pedagogic device is the combination of procedures through which knowledge becomes classroom talk and curriculums and Bernstein’s model enables researchers to describe the macro and micro structuring of knowledge (Singh, 2002, p. 571). This work reflects Bernstein’s sustained research interest for over 40 years in the production and reproduction of social inequality through education systems (Singh, 2002, p. 572) through an examination of “devices of transmission, relays of the symbolic, modalities of practice, and the construction and change of forms of consciousness” (Bernstein, 1995, p. 392). Consequently, his theoretical project is of enormous significance to an analysis of the production and reproduction of knowledge via official educational institutions (Singh, 2002, p. 572).

Bernstein (1990, 2001) proposes that the pedagogic device contains three main fields of practice. These are fields of knowledge production, recontextualization, and reproduction. These fields are ordered to reflect the relationship between knowledge production, recontextualization and reproduction, ordered to recognize that “recontextualization of knowledge cannot take place without its production, and reproduction cannot take place without recontextualization” (Singh, 2002, p. 574). Consequently, the reproduction of knowledge usually occurs in primary, secondary and tertiary educational institutions; the recontextualization of knowledge occurs in “state

departments of education and training, curriculum authorities, specialist education journals, and teacher education institutions” (Singh, 2002, p. 574); the production of knowledge occurs mainly in institutions of higher education and private research organisations (Bernstein, 2000).

The field of recontextualization is positioned between the fields of knowledge production and reproduction. This field consists of two sub-fields termed the pedagogic recontextualizing field (PRF) and the official recontextualizing field (ORF). The ORF is created and dominated by the state and its agents (e.g. in the case of my study, the producers of HE entry requirements and visa requirements) while the PRF consists of teachers, educational institutions and publishing houses (Bernstein, 2000, p. 31-33). More specifically, the PRF is comprised of “university departments of education, together with their research” (Singh, 2002 p. 576) and “specialized media of education, weeklies, journals, and publishing houses together with their readers and advisers” (Bernstein, 1990, p. 192). Agents within the PRF compete to control procedures for constructing pedagogic practices (Singh, 2002, p. 576). Bernstein notes a distinction within the pedagogic recontextualizing field between specialized sub-fields of the educational system, curriculums or student cohorts (1990, p. 198), noting that:

It is useful to distinguish agencies of pedagogic reproduction which, within broad limits, can determine their own recontextualizing independent of the State (the private sector) and agencies which although funded by the State may have a relatively larger measure of control over their own recontextualizing (until recently the universities). (Bernstein, 1990, p. 198)

Just as LCT views society as consisting of actors struggling to maintain and maximize their positions while also simultaneously cooperating, so agents of recontextualization struggle for control over procedures for constructing pedagogic practices. They seek to control the pedagogic discourses that regulate the production of pedagogic knowledge and practices, “the relations between agents in these contexts, and the texts produced by these agents at the macro levels of state policy formation (ORF) and micro levels of classroom interactions” (Singh, 2002, p. 577). When agents within the PRF have a degree of autonomy over the construction of pedagogic discourses and practices, the PRF becomes a site of conflict and

contestation (Singh, 2002, p. 577). These insights are relevant to the research site in my study, introduced in Chapter 4 and discussed further in Chapter 5.

The pedagogic device provides the principles for privileging certain knowledge through three inter-related rules: distributive, recontextualizing, and evaluative. These rules control and maintain the activities in a field in the following ways. Distributive rules maintain and control access to the field of production, regulating “the power relationships between social groups” (Singh, 2002, p. 573) and specializing “forms of knowledge, consciousness and practice” (Maton, 2014, p. 49) to particular social groups. Recontextualizing rules maintain and control the process of “delocating a discourse, for relocating it, for refocusing it” (Bernstein, 1996, p. 47) for knowledge “to become pedagogic discourse in the field of recontextualizing” (Maton, 2014, p. 49); evaluative rules control and maintain pedagogic practices in the field of reproduction (Maton, 2014, p. 49) and “are concerned with recognizing what counts as valid acquisition of instructional (curricular content) and regulative (social conduct, character and manner) texts” (Singh, 2002, p. 573). It is this principled ordering and disordering of the pedagogizing of knowledge that Bernstein (1990, 1996, 2000) describes as the pedagogic device. It is this device that accounts for the ‘relay’ or assemblage of “rules or procedures via which knowledge (intellectual, practical, expressive, official or local knowledge) is converted into pedagogic communication” (Singh, 2002, p. 573).

Maton has further developed and refined Bernstein’s pedagogic device in the following ways and for the following reasons. Maton notes that Bernstein’s model derived from a primary interest in pedagogic communication, resulting in a pedagogic perspective on knowledge production (Maton, 2014, p. 49). One consequence of this is that knowledge production is conceptualized in terms of its role in pedagogic knowledge rather than according to its own conditions. This raises three implications (Maton, 2014, p. 49) for developing Bernstein’s model: 1) the need to theorize the ‘rules’ regulating the fields of knowledge production; 2) recognition that these ‘rules’ are not primarily distributive but that distributive rules concern all fields of the arena/device and 3) there is a broader need to reconceptualize the device to accommodate analyses beyond pedagogy to include knowledges in a move to an epistemic-pedagogic device (Maton, 2014, p. 50). The epistemic-pedagogic device (EPD) marks one facet of the Legitimation Device. The EPD brings into existence an arena of struggle “comprising *production fields* (where ‘new’

knowledge is created and positioned), *recontextualization fields* (where ‘new’ knowledge is curricularized), and *reproduction fields* (where knowledge is pedagogized). The effects of struggles over the EPD are revealed by analysing the legitimation codes of practices” (Maton, 2016, p. 238, emphasis in the original). Maton’s EPD develops Bernstein’s pedagogic device in three ways (Maton, 2014, p. 51). Firstly, ‘rules’ are re-termed as ‘logics’ to avoid “mistaken claims that they posit practices as deterministically rule-governed (Maton, 2014, p. 51). Secondly, movement across the arena is explicitly recognized, in contrast to the pedagogizing of knowledge foregrounded in Bernstein’s model (Maton, 2014, p. 51). Thirdly, the term epistemic logics is introduced to describe practices regulating the fields of production, and because distributive logics are now applicable across the arena (Maton, 2014, p. 51).

The epistemic-pedagogic device connects power, knowledge and consciousness, translating “power relations into discursive relations” (Maton, 2014, p. 53) and vice versa, making the EPD the “focus of domination and resistance, struggle and negotiation, both within education and across wider society” (Maton, 2014, p. 53). The EPD can, therefore, be conceptualized as “generating a symbolic ruler of consciousness, in both senses of having power over consciousness and measuring the legitimacy of its realizations” (Maton, 2014, p. 53). The EPD is an important conceptual tool for understanding the sites and processes of teaching and learning in my study. As discussed later in Chapter 5, the ELT Centre may be viewed as a field of knowledge reproduction where pedagogic practice occurs (Maton, 2014, p.47; Bernstein, 1990/2003, p. 200) and the social practices of actors in the ELT Centre represent struggles for the resources and status within this field of practice (Maton, 2014, p. 44). My macro analysis highlights this struggle between the publisher and the ELT Centre, or in Maton’s terms, between actors in the field of knowledge recontextualization and knowledge reproduction. This site of teaching and learning is a place where knowledge is contested as “[p]rivileged and privileging pedagogic texts created in the field of recontextualization, such as curricular schemes and textbooks, [and] transformed again as they [are] appropriated by teachers and converted into modes of common or shared classroom knowledge in interactions with students” (Singh, 2002, p. 577). Bernstein (1996, 2000) emphasized the distinction between these two transformations, firstly within the ORF and PRF as knowledge is relocated from fields of knowledge production, and secondly of this pedagogized knowledge by teachers and students within the field of reproduction in the

classroom as knowledge is relocated from the fields of knowledge recontextualization (Singh, 2002, p. 577). I examine these transformations through analysing the practices and relationships between the publisher, ELT Centre managers, teachers, and learners in my study.

3.9.1 SFL and LCT

Research using LCT began in the 1990s with the exploration of knowledge practices in education. However, the dialogue between SFL and code theory began in the 1960s and has evolved as each theory has developed over five principal phases of exchange (Maton & Doran, 2017). SFL and Bernstein's sociological framework have a longstanding relationship (see Table 3.6 below). The first phase involved discussions among Basil Bernstein, Michael Halliday and Ruqaiya Hasan that resulted in mutual influences in their thinking (Maton et al., 2016, p. 95), illustrated by Bernstein's assertion that "[i]t became possible for me to think about linguistics in sociological terms and sociology in linguistics terms" (1995, p. 398). The discussions also influenced empirical studies (Maton et al., 2016, p. 95), with Halliday's grammar providing a means of enacting code theory in language studies (Bernstein, 1973), which in turn led to theoretical development in SFL, particularly semantic networks (Hasan, 2005).

Table 3.6 Summary of principal phases of exchange between code theory and systemic functional linguistics

(Maton and Doran, 2017, p. 606)

Phase	Period began	Concepts central to phase of exchange from:	
		code theory	systemic functional linguistics
I	1960s, 1980s-	coding orientation	linguistic variation, semantic variation
II	1990s-	pedagogic discourse	genre-based literacy
III	early 2000s-	knowledge structure	field
IV	mid 2000s-	LCT: Specialization dimension (specialization codes, knowledge-knower structures, insights, gazes, etc.)	individuation / affiliation, field, appraisal, and many others...
V	2010s-	LCT: Semantics dimension (semantic gravity, semantic density, semantic profiling, etc.), constellations and cosmologies	mode, field, appraisal, grammatical metaphor, technicality, individuation / affiliation, literacy, iconography, and many others...

Exchanges between the theories have covered a wide range of issues, asking questions and providing insights to the other that have resulted in developments in each framework (Maton & Doran, 2017, p. 605). These exchanges have brought the theories into “creative dialogue and tension” (Bernstein, 1995, p. 398). It is becoming increasingly common for both models to be used within studies (Maton et al., 2016, p. 98). LCT is being used alongside concepts from SFL in education because using both together “offers greater

explanatory power, challenges deeply-held beliefs and provokes new theoretical developments” (Martin & Maton, 2017, p. 23). Developing Bernstein’s relational model of knowledge practices and their social and symbolic contexts (1990/2003), Maton (2014, p. 110) views practices as relating to their context to varying degrees. This is examined further in the next section.

3.9.2 Semantic gravity and semantic density

There are five dimensions of LCT, three of which are currently active. These dimensions explore different organizing principles of knowledge practices (Maton, 2014, p. 19). One of these, Semantics, relates to meaning. Semantic gravity (SG) refers to “degrees of context-dependence of meaning” (Maton, 2014, p. 107). The concept is defined in theoretical terms and at a distance from specific data in order for it to be able to analyse a range of phenomena. Maton’s use of context here may be understood as the situation in which something happens. Meanings are either closely tied to their context (SG+) or they carry more abstract meanings (SG–). For example, a teacher can discuss a student’s written text in terms of the content i.e. the words on the page (SG+). However, the teacher can also make generalizations about the text using metalanguage (SG–). Maton’s research shows that weakening and strengthening of semantic gravity by moving from ‘concrete’ examples to ‘abstract’ ideas enables cumulative learning (Macnaught et al., 2013). Without this, a student’s understanding can remain locked within specific contexts, unable to be transferred to new contexts and therefore restricting future learning opportunities.

Semantic density (SD) refers to “the degree of condensation of meaning within sociocultural practices (symbols, terms, concepts, phrases, expressions, gestures, actions, clothing, etc.)” (Maton, 2014, p. 129). In other words, the strength of meaning can vary. For example, the term ‘vocabulary’ used in a postgraduate linguistics lecture has relatively greater semantic density than when it is used in casual conversation to compliment an articulate speaker on their lexical range. The strength of meaning is not intrinsic to the symbol itself but rather in the relational systems of meanings of the semantic structure in which it is found. SD can be relatively weaker (–) or stronger (+) along a continuum of strengths. The stronger the SD, the greater the condensation of meanings within practices.

As all practices possess characteristics of both semantic gravity and semantic density, these are not simply categories in which to assign empirical practices. Rather, their relative strengths produce semantic codes (SG+/-, SD+/-) that provide a set of organizing principles. This allows for the typologizing of practices using the four semantic codes as well as placing them on a continua of strengths to identify their positions within a relational topology (Maton, 2013, p.12; Maton, 2011, p. 66). One strength of this model is that it moves beyond dichotomized categories (e.g. concrete/abstract) in order to explore differences between and within semantic codes, and the ability to analyse these over time. Another strength is that the model is designed to uncover organizing principles from a range of data. Taken together, the concept of semantic gravity and semantic density reveal underlying principles of empirical data, rather than simply describing empirical characteristics.

For example, Figure 3.15 heuristically portrays three semantic profiles over time and their associated semantic range between their lowest and highest strengths. This is important for capturing cumulative learning, or knowledge building (Maton, 2014), over time. The semantic scale is represented on the y-axis and time on the x-axis (e.g. over the course of a lesson or written text). A context-independent theory with highly condensed concepts that did not interact with empirical data would produce a high semantic flatline (A). In contrast, description of empirical data without the aforementioned theory progresses as a low semantic flatline (B).

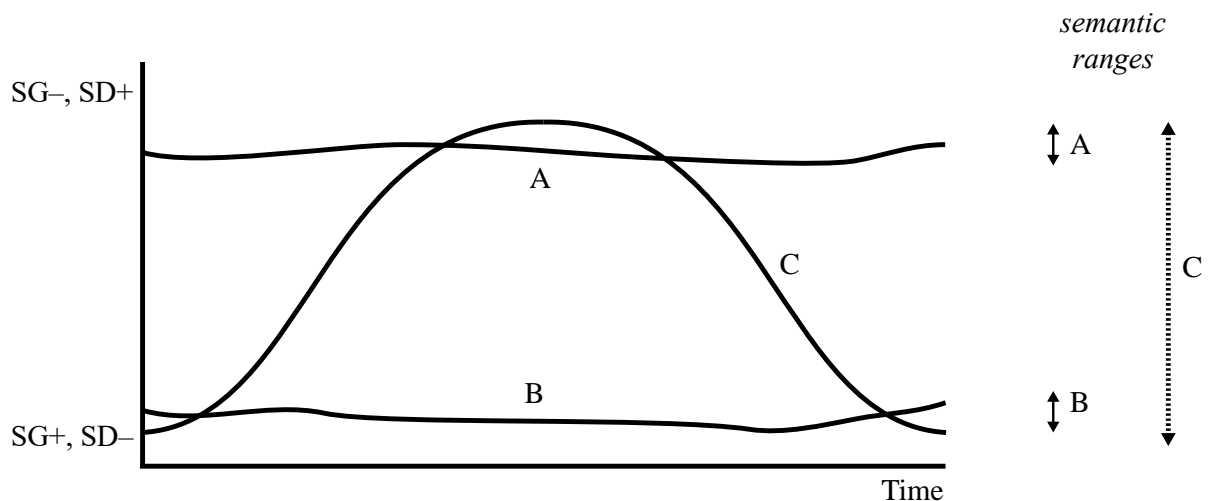


Figure 3.15 Three semantic profiles

(Maton, 2013, p. 13)

When a description of empirical data begins to draw on a context-independent theory, a semantic wave is produced (C). The theory weakens semantic gravity, rising above the details of a particular context and into the condensed meanings of the theory. This allows for the concepts to be applied to a greater range of contexts, overcoming compartmentalized learning and encouraging knowledge building (Maton, 2014, p. 143). Over time, the theory is then applied to a specific context, resulting in the strengthening of semantic gravity and weakening of semantic density, shown by the fall in the wave in Figure 3.15.

Semantic profiles have revealed semantic waves in high achieving student writing (Maton, 2014, p. 119) and in classroom discourse (Macnaught et al., 2013). An example of a semantic wave in the second language writing classroom might involve the teacher discussing a particular feature of a model text before weakening semantic gravity and discussing a feature of the grammatical system more generally before strengthening semantic gravity and returning to the specific example in the model text. In addition to semantic waves, a semantic profile may also reveal a high or low semantic flat line. An example of a high semantic flat line is a writing teacher discussing the grammatical system without providing contextualized examples, thereby remaining in abstract concepts. By contrast, an example of a low semantic profile would be a teacher discussing features of a particular text without discussing how these relate to other texts or language systems,

leaving students' understandings locked in one specific context. A semantic profile of my classroom data reveals moments of strengthening and weakening semantic gravity. This analysis uncovers the guiding principles that experienced teachers employ and, therefore, are of interest and use to teachers and teacher education programs. In addition, I employ pedagogic register analysis of my classroom data to reveal the roles speakers adopt and the choices they make as the discourse unfolds, offering insights into effective teaching practice. These analyses are reported in Chapters 5 and 6.

Representing the SG and SD continuums as clines and then placing the SG cline perpendicular to the SD cline creates a Cartesian plane. Cartesian planes are a relational means of portraying legitimation codes, the organizing principles of practices, dispositions and contexts (Maton, 2016, p. 240) to make the semantic plane (Maton, 2016, p. 236). The semantic plane is a Cartesian plane with four quadrants for the four principal code modalities. However, the semantic plane is also a topology as data may be placed anywhere on each cline to give a more detailed analysis. These four principal semantic codes are: rhizomatic, worldly, prosaic and rarefied. Rhizomatic codes have relatively weaker semantic gravity and stronger semantic density, where the basis of achievement comprises relatively context-independent and complex stances (Maton, 2016, p. 131). Worldly codes have stronger semantic gravity and stronger semantic density, where the basis for achievement comprises relatively context-dependent stances that condense many meanings (Maton, 2016, p. 131). The prosaic code is characterised by stronger semantic gravity and weaker semantic density, "where legitimacy accrues to relatively context-dependent and simpler stances" (Maton, 2016, p. 131). Rarefied codes have weaker semantic gravity and weaker semantic density, "where legitimacy is based on relatively context-independent stances that condense fewer meanings" (Maton, 2016, p. 131). The four principal codes are shown in Figure 3.16 below, that illustrates the semantic plane.

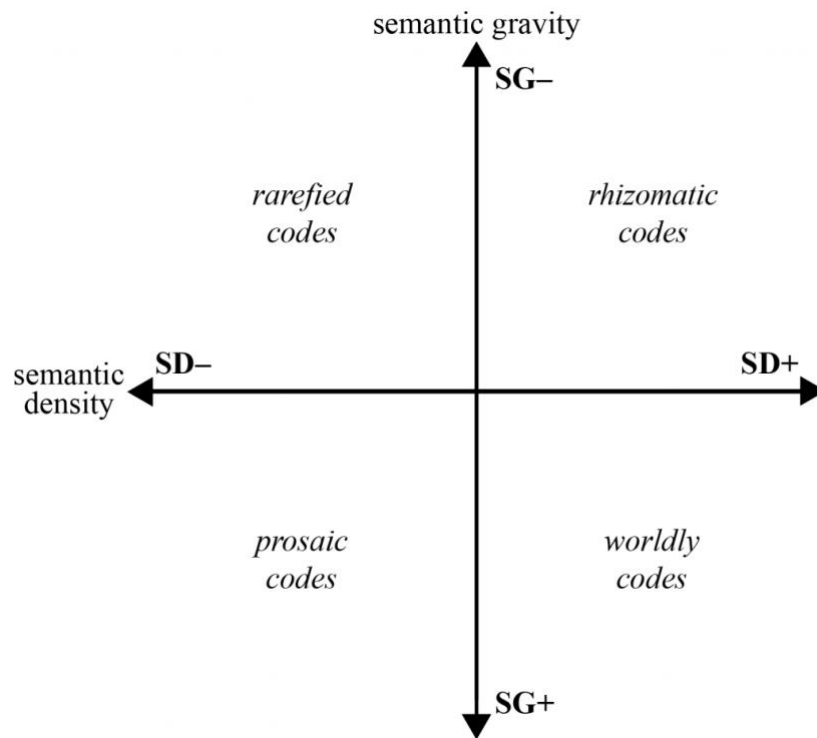


Figure 3.16 The semantic plane

(Maton, 2014, p. 131)

As I shall discuss in Chapter 5, an analysis of my data identified a recurrent semantic profile, with teachers talking about learners' writing (SG+, SD-), quoting from specific learners' writing ('quoting learner language'), with relative falls (SG++, SD--) and highlighting linguistic features (talking about language') seen in rises (SG-, SD+) that then return to the 'talking about the text' position (SG+, SD-). This is found throughout the four lessons. However, in addition to these semantic waves, there are also episodes in which semantic gravity and semantic density vary independently of one another. For example, there are also episodes in the data when the teacher maintains the relative strength of semantic gravity but also increases the strength of semantic density, resulting in a worldly code. Examples of this include the teacher taking lexical items from a learners' writing and defining, clarifying, and exemplifying relevant meaning and usage. This cannot be captured in a semantic profile but requires the topological account afforded by placing the continua of semantic gravity and semantic density together to generate the semantic plane. The practices associated with these classroom processes of reviewing lexicogrammar appear to have a coherence to me as a practitioner-researcher. These coherent groupings of practices are conceptualized in LCT as constellations and are described in the next section. Arranging

these practices into such a pattern enables me to represent their selection and arrangement in a clear and salient manner.

3.9.3 Constellation analysis

In LCT, a *cosmology* is “the logic of the belief system or vision of the world embodied by activities within a social field” (Maton, 2014, p. 152). Cosmologies are the established and organised form of “social fields that underlie the ways action and practice are differentially characterised and valued” (Maton, 2014, p. 152). All fields have specific worldviews, logic or belief systems that legitimize particular ways of being or doing (Winberg. McKenna & Wilmot, 2021, p. 6). In terms of internal relations, a cosmology “shapes the hierarchizing of actors and practices within fields” (Maton, 2014, p. 152) through *clustering* and *constellating*. *Clustering* is the grouping of ideal practices that form *constellations* over time. (Winberg. McKenna & Wilmot, 2021, p.6). The LCT concept of constellations groups ideas and practices that are associated together in a manner analogous to groupings of stars into images (Winberg. McKenna & Wilmot, 2021, p.6). One such astronomical constellations is Taurus, famous for the bright stars Aldebaran and Elnath (see Figure 3.7 below). Aldebaran is an orange giant star located approximately 65 light years from Earth and Elnath is a blue-white star located approximately 131 light years away. These two stars have no astrophysical relationship to each other despite forming part of the constellation (Maton, 2014, p. 152). Similarly, constellations are not essential or invariant (Maton, 2014, p. 152) but are “groupings that appear to have coherence from a particular point in space and time to actors with a particular cosmology” (Maton, 2014, p. 152).

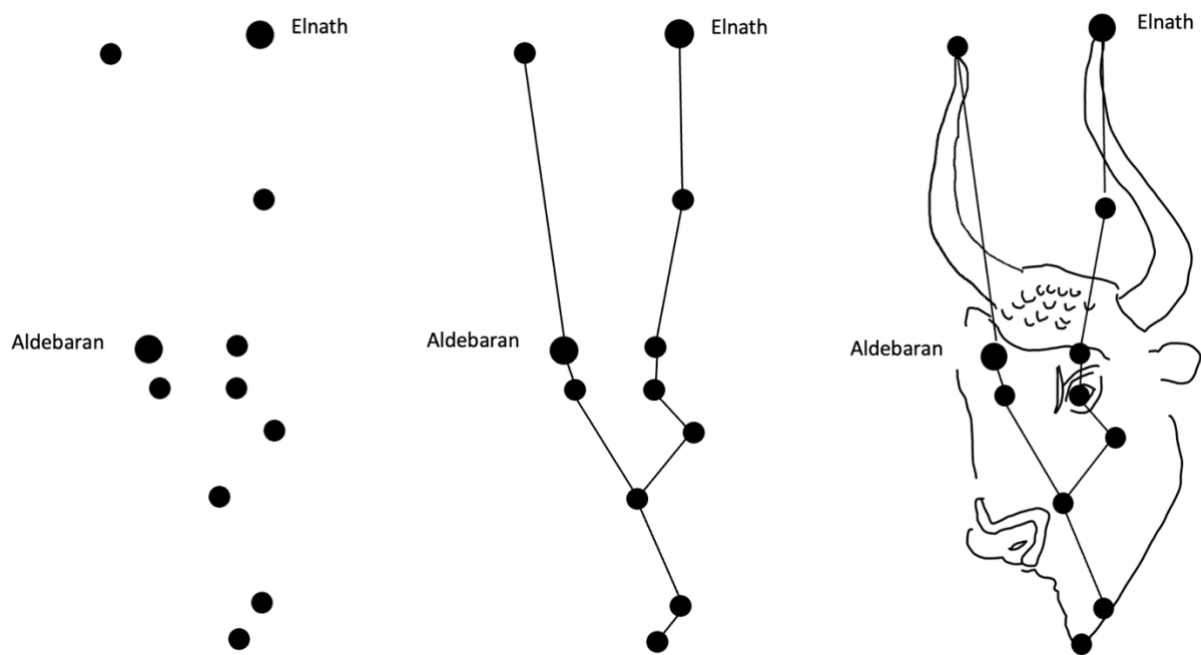


Figure 3.17 The constellation of Taurus (image: author's own)

An epistemological constellation is a collection of objects, ideas, practices and beliefs that are constructed as belonging together (Rusznyak, 2021, p. 91). Analysing practices as constellations provides “powerful explanations with practical implications” (Maton, 2014, p. 170) and, as such, I have found it useful in understanding the classroom practices of experienced practitioners. I draw upon constellations as a heuristic in Chapter 5, Section 5.8 to illustrate and explain the practices of a teacher conveying the meaning of the lexical item ‘significant’ in writing feedback.

3.10 Bringing the classroom into focus

In this section I bring the focus of our attention to classroom discourse, my main object of study. The explanatory frameworks outlined above have been used to examine varied educational practices. For example, Australian genre pedagogy (Rose & Martin, 2012) has developed from research into literacy pedagogy informed by social semiotic theories (Halliday, 1978; Sinclair & Coulthard, 1975; Berry, 1981; Ventola, 1987, Martin & Rose, 2007). As discussed above, these have included studies which have used exchange structure analysis to study the discourse moves that enable learning to occur. This section views

classroom discourse from a social semiotic perspective. It discusses language and learning and examines the model of learning activity cycles (Rose & Martin, 2012). It also reports on recent research into knowledge building using the tools of LCT to reveal the context-dependence and density of meaning in educational practices. The final section describes a model of teaching and learning often employed in Australian genre pedagogy (Rose & Martin, 2012).

The ‘teaching and learning’ of writing in classrooms proceeds simultaneously on a series of levels, from curriculum to syllabus and from lesson to activity. These all occur through micro-interactions (Rose, 2014) that can be analysed to identify knowledge practices (Maton, 2014) and patterns in pedagogic register (Rose, 2014; 2018; 2020). Over a series of lessons there is likely to be a sequence of writing activities that involve classroom speaking activities about writing (see Figure 3.18). It is the revising and editing stage that holds the greatest potential for developing student writing (Weissberg, 2006, p. 24) because it maximizes opportunities to support learners when responding to learner writing.

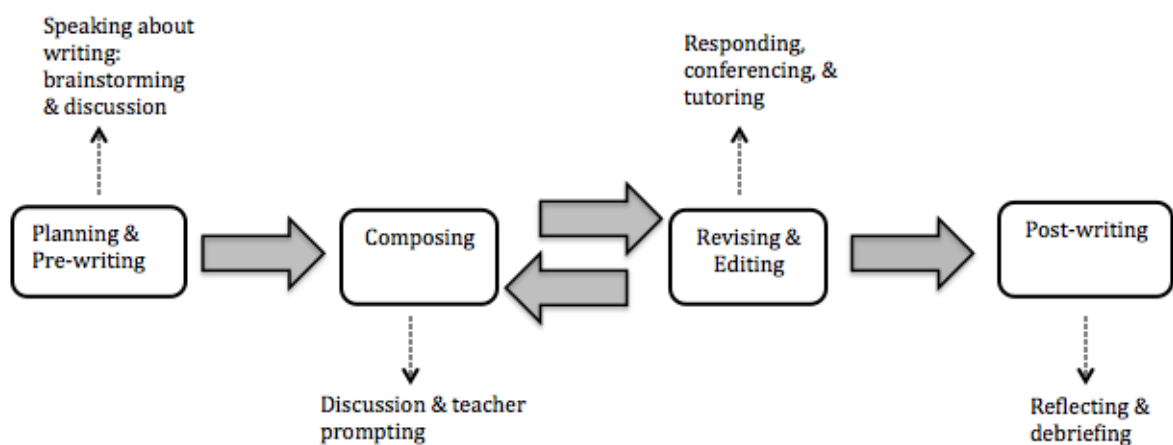


Figure 3.18 Dialogue around writing

(Weissberg, 2006, p. 21)

In other words, it allows the teacher to evaluate the students’ current writing proficiency and respond directly to this. It is for this reason that the speaking in this stage of the writing process is the focus of this study.

3.10.1 Language and learning

Adult EAL learners are simultaneously “learning **language**, learning **through** language [and] learning **about** language” (emphasis in the original) (Halliday, 1993a, p. 112). The nature of my study’s context sets it apart from that of EAL learners in mainstream K-12 education. The learner-participants in my study are cognitively developed adults with a range of backgrounds, experiences and first languages. Halliday views language as a social semiotic, which means “interpreting language within a sociocultural context, in which culture itself is interpreted in semiotic terms – as an information system” (Halliday, 1978, p. 2). Halliday conceptualizes language as comprised not of sentences but of texts that allow “the exchange of meanings in interpersonal contexts” (Halliday, 1978, p. 2), and which themselves are “a semiotic construct, having a form (deriving from the culture) that enables the participants to predict features of the prevailing register – and hence to understand one another as they go along” (Halliday, 1978, p. 2). The sequential organization of meanings in texts can be explained by the concept of genre, as “a staged, goal-oriented social process” (Martin et al., 1987, p. 58) and this is the model used in my study.

3.10.2 Importance of feedback

An intrinsic part of the educational endeavour is the feedback learners receive from teachers. This is “essentially, and intrinsically, an asymmetrical relation” (1990/2003, p. 63) because “the essence of the relation is to evaluate the competence of the acquirer” (1990/2003, p. 64). Bernstein maintains that “the key to pedagogic practice is continuous evaluation” (1990/2003, p. 177); see Section 2.3 for further discussion of this in the work of Bernstein (1990/2003) and Goffman (1981). This feedback can be either clearly stated or implied and “informs learners of the value of the knowledge” they have offered (Rose, 2018, p. 5). How teachers use feedback can be understood and investigated by conceptualising giving feedback as a knowledge practice, again using Semantics (Maton 2014) (see Section 5.7 and 5.8). In addition, when we conceptualize language as a system, the linguistic resources teachers use to provide guidance in teacher-led interactions during feedback in writing lessons may be seen as choices within systems of choices (Rose, 2018). By mapping out these choices, a picture begins to emerge of the linguistic resources that are used. As meaning unfolds over the course of a lesson, this is most clearly accounted for at the level of

pedagogic register (Rose, 2018) (see Section 3.8, and 5.9). As learners exercise ever greater “competence towards independent control” (Rose & Martin, 2012, p. 61) with time, guidance and practice, teachers withdraw their support. In answering my research questions I sought explanatory frameworks that enabled me to conceptualize the social practices of the classroom in context. The LCT dimension of Semantics (Maton, 2014) and pedagogic register analysis (Rose, 2018), which is grounded in the Martinian architecture of systemic functional linguistics (Martin, 1992), provided the conceptual tools I required to achieve this. In my study I also sought to evaluate the effectiveness of Semantics (Maton, 2014) and pedagogic register analysis (Rose, 2018) in providing insights into classroom practice. The analyses are reported in Chapters 5 and 6 and a summary of responses to the research questions is provided in Section 7.2.

3.10.3 Teacher to student interactions: learning activity cycles

Building further on work on exchange structure (Berry, 1981; Ventola, 1987), Martin and Rose’s (Rose & Martin, 2012) analysis of classroom discourse has identified a nucleus of pedagogic activity. This involves an additional layer of analysis that considers moves in terms of pedagogic purposes. The IRF move, analysed as $DK1^{\wedge}K2^{\wedge}K1$ knower roles, can be additionally viewed as $Focus^{\wedge}Task^{\wedge}Evaluate$ (see Figure 3.19). The learner’s task is the core of the activity, central to classroom learning. It is through successfully completing the task that students learn. The Focus move sets up the task and the Evaluate move is when the teacher indicates whether the student has been successful. The nucleus of a learning activity includes these elements (Rose, 2014, p.11) in an orbital structure (Martin, 1996) with elements more or less central or optional.

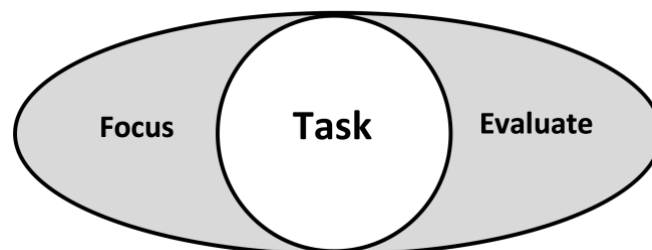


Figure 3.19 Nucleus of pedagogic activity

(Rose, 2014, p. 13)

There are also optional phases that include a preliminary Prepare move, where more information can be given to students to support successful completion of the task, and an Elaborate move where the teacher can give more information by explaining or giving further examples (see Figure 3.20). In this model, there are the following moves: Prepare, Focus, Task: Identify or Propose; Evaluate: Affirm or Reject, Elaborate and Direct. This orbital model of pedagogic activity illustrates the central and optional moves and, therefore, the general structuring potential of classroom interactions. This pattern is repeated many times in a lesson and is called a learning cycle.

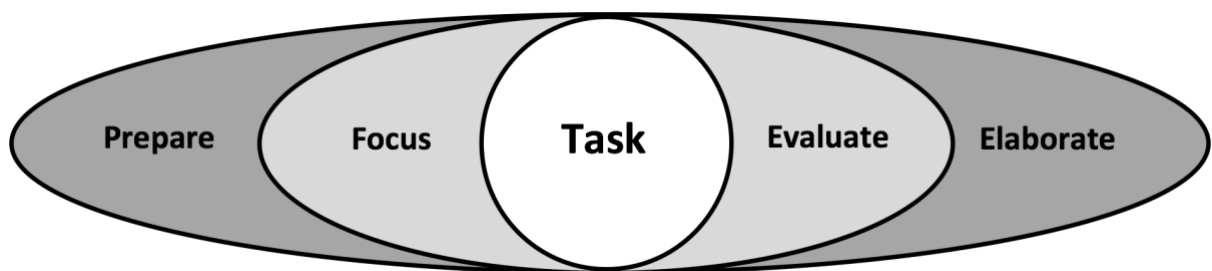


Figure 3.20 Optional moves of pedagogic activity
(Rose, 2014, p. 13)

This orbital structure represents interactions in the classroom, but pedagogic activity has a hierarchical organization of larger units consisting of smaller units (Rose, 2014, p.11). Learning cycles are components of learning activities, which in turn form part of lesson stages, which make up a lesson or curriculum genre (Rose, 2014, p.11). Christie (1993; 2002, p. 22) proposes that classroom activity is best understood by considering curriculum genres and larger unities referred to as curriculum macrogenres. These are staged, goal-oriented activities with the purpose of accomplishing significant educational aims and, because of this, are fundamental to the organization of classroom discourse.


3.10.4 Semantic profiles in classroom studies

The LCT dimension of semantics has been used in several classroom studies. These have included work on the context-dependence and the density of meaning in spoken and written texts (Georgiou, 2016; Clarence, 2016; Blackie, 2014; Macnaught et al., 2013). Another study reports on the classroom use of semantic gravity waves in the EAP classroom

to aid in the teaching of reflective writing for master’s students of anthropology (Kirk, 2017). Although a continuum, Kirk divided semantic gravity into three sections, distinguishing concrete, generalized and more abstract meanings (see Table 3.7). Developed from enacting semantic gravity in the classroom, this model is useful for students while also maintaining conceptual integrity. This has been developed further by Kirk to analyse the EAP curriculum (2018). This three-level translation device was a starting point for my own research, and I used it in Study One. As the focus of my study narrowed to examine teacher feedback practices, I subsequently developed a four-level translation device for my own study. A discussion of its development appears in Chapter 4, Section 4.7 because it developed out of my analysis of my data.

Table 3.7 Heuristic sectioning of the semantic gravity continuum

(Kirk, 2017, p. 112)

SG-	Relates to <u>more abstract</u> or theoretical content – less connected to a particular context
	Relates to <u>more generalised</u> content and <u>patterns</u> of experience
SG+	Relates to <u>more concrete</u> experiences

Another recent study identifies the important relationship between classroom interaction and knowledge building practices (Macnaught et al., 2013). Examining a biology teacher’s spoken discourse during a text construction activity, the semantic wave analysis reveals how the teacher explained technical meanings to students using more common-sense meanings and then completed the wave by repacking the meaning back into technical and register-appropriate language. Once the student had understood the meaning, they were then shown how to express this in a manner valued by the discipline (i.e. biology). A full semantic wave is therefore necessary to enable cumulative knowledge building where knowledge is not bound by context, but students are able to apply it, via more abstract meanings, to a variety of contexts.

3.10.5 Teaching as guidance

Martin's principle of "guidance through interaction in the context of shared experience" (Martin, 2000, p. 50) foregrounds the importance of teachers in enabling learners, when in familiar contexts, to make similar meanings and then continue to do so in less familiar contexts. This guidance represents the temporary support given to learners that allows them to increase their meaning potential rather than remaining within the bounds of their current resources. A distinction may be made between 'designed-in' guidance and 'moment by moment' guidance (van Lier, 1996; Wells; 1999; Hammond & Gibbons, 2005; Humphrey & Macnaught, 2011, p. 102), often referred to in the research literature as interactional contingent scaffolding. Designed-in guidance anticipates learner needs and is evident in syllabuses and lesson plans, whereas interactional contingent guidance provides support at the time of need and is adjusted to the needs of learners.

3.11 Rationale for using these theoretical frameworks in the study

My research questions developed from my interest in English language teaching in adult classrooms and how teachers give feedback on writing by varying the context-dependence and density of meaning and the role language plays in this. The data includes classroom discourse and the written texts adult learners read and write. Martin's model allows me to work above the clause, viewing classroom episodes as curriculum genres (Rose, 2014; 2018; 2020) that in turn form part of larger curriculum macro-genres (Christie, 2002). Moving down the stratal framework to discourse semantics, I can use the system of NEGOTIATION to examine classroom discourse with exchanges as the units of analysis to see how moves are organized and roles adopted and assigned through teacher-led dialogue (Martin & Rose, 2007, p. 127). However, to explain the choices teachers make requires a move up in abstraction and the application of pedagogic register analysis (Rose, 2018; 2020).

The role of classroom discourse in developing second language writing in adult classes is an under-researched field, with Macnaught's study (2015) into collaborative text creation on academic English classrooms revealing the value of such research. My study will contribute to knowledge by addressing this lack of research, bringing together insights from these areas of inquiry and in this way increase our understanding of the role that classroom language plays in the teaching and learning of writing. This qualitative study provides a

greater understanding of classroom practices in EAL writing classrooms. In addition, its contribution to theory is a greater understanding of how semantic codes can be used to identify data that warrants closer inspection and how this can be achieved through pedagogic register analysis (Rose, 2018; 2020). Stepping back, this also contributes to how both theories can complement each other, with each theory illuminating the other i.e. how changes in semantic gravity and semantic density indicate classroom episodes that warrant closer linguistic investigation. Following on from these analyses enables an examination of how and why linguistic resources are used to change the semantic profile. Initial results from Study One show that changes in the semantic profile can occur when the teacher guides learning in response to learners' needs. This may be modelled linguistically through the moves of pedagogic activity (Rose, 2014, p. 13). Semantic profiles and pedagogic register analysis offer complementary means of understanding classroom interactions, each informing the analysis and contributing to our understanding of classroom discourse.

Both of these theoretical frameworks foreground the social. Taken together, SFL and LCT allow the issue of teaching and learning writing to be systematically analysed by i) the description of semantic profiles in writing lessons and ii) the linguistic exploration of these using pedagogic register analysis. These frameworks have greater explanatory power when employed together than either of them used separately.

3.12 Chapter summary

This chapter has aimed to provide a clear introduction to the dimension of Semantics and placed this within the broader framework of Legitimation Code Theory. The notions of semantic gravity (degrees of context-dependence of meaning) and semantic density (the degree of condensation of meaning) offer the researcher a means of systematically investigating and understanding the complexities of classroom practices. This chapter has also introduced Pedagogic Register Analysis and the associated discourse semantic system of NEGOTIATION and placed these within the broader architecture of systemic functional linguistics. This chapter has also described the features of Martinian linguistics that make it an appropriate and effective choice for investigating classroom discourse. Thus, the chapter has aimed to establish a rationale for the use of these two complementary frameworks. The

research methods I used in the study are described in the following chapter, Chapter 4: 'The system of methods used in the study'.

Chapter 4 The system of methods used in the study

In the field of observation, chance favours only the prepared mind.

Pasteur¹⁰ (1854)

4.1 Introduction

The purpose of this study is to investigate the role of knowledge and language in feedback on writing lessons in pre-tertiary English language classrooms. To fulfil this objective, I began by examining how teachers vary context dependence and density of meaning in their practices through classroom discourse. In addition, I examined how teachers support learners by transforming student writing into semiotic objects to be used as tools to aid the description of relevant linguistic features for the dual purpose of achieving learning objectives and meeting individual learner needs. I focused on changes in the context-dependence of knowledge in feedback, revision and editing activities in writing lessons. I also focused on how these unfolded linguistically as exchanges among pedagogic register variables.

The role of classroom discourse in developing second language writing in adult classes is an under-researched field, with Macnaught's study (2015) and Wharton and Unlu's study (2015) notable exceptions. My study aims to address this lack of research by bringing together insights from inquiries into the context dependence of knowledge and the linguistic resources employed by teachers, to increase our understanding of the role that classroom discourse plays in the teaching and learning of writing. To answer my research questions, introduced in Section 1.6, I used the research design, methods and procedures described in this chapter to conduct the study.

The main study (Study Two) involved gathering data from a total of four teachers and their lessons across four units of work. Data gathering began on Monday 20th January and finished on Tuesday 9th June (20 weeks), unexpectedly extended from the planned ten

¹⁰ This quote is from Pasteur's inaugural address to the Faculté des Sciences at Lille on December 7, 1854 (Pearce, 1912).

weeks due to the COVID-19 global pandemic. I gathered data from four teachers and their classes including live observations, digital photographs, digital audio recordings and teaching materials. The lessons were from the same four units of work because this allowed for a meaningful comparison of how teachers give feedback on learner writing and work on revisions and editing. This chapter starts with an overview of case study methodology. The next section gives an outline of the overall research design and methodology, including the steps followed in conducting the research from data collection through to data analysis. The following section describes my adoption of a case study approach and my decision to conduct a context-sensitive study. The next section provides more detail on data gathering, discussing the theoretical bases of the data gathering methods and the reasons for selecting them. The chapter then reports on the data gathering process over Study One and the main study, Study Two. The next section provides an account of data analysis and synthesis, describing how I organized and analysed my data in preparation to report my findings and interpret them. The next part of the chapter discusses ethical considerations concerning the study and the steps I took to address them. The chapter then discusses the criteria for evaluating the trustworthiness of the research in terms of credibility, dependability and transferability and outlines how these issues relate to the study and the strategies I employed to enhance trustworthiness. The chapter ends with a description of the research site and participants, in preparation for the report and discussion of my findings in the subsequent chapters.

4.2 Research design overview

The study models language use in the classroom as curriculum genres that consist of a curriculum register of knowledge and values and a pedagogic register of activities, relations and modalities (Rose, 2014, 2018, 2020; Christie, 2002) that draws on genre work in the SFL tradition (Martin & Rose, 2008; Christie & Martin, 1997; Martin, 1992), which developed out of Halliday's model of language as text in context (1978, Halliday & Hasan, 1989) and Bernstein's work on classroom discourse (1973, 1990/2003, 2000). In addition, it takes knowledge as an object of study that is both social and real in its "properties, powers and tendencies that have effects" (Maton, 2014, p. 10) and uses the tools of LCT to analyse the organizing principles of knowledge and their implications for knowledge-building (Maton,

2014). These complementary theoretical frameworks informed the design of the study. This relationship is important because different research methods are underpinned by differing ontologies and epistemologies that need to align to ensure the trustworthiness of the research. This section outlines my overall research methodology and design and describes the process that was involved. The research objectives led to the formulation of research questions, informed by the explanatory frameworks of LCT and SFL. The operationalization of the study involved the identification of units of analysis (i.e. feedback practices) and units of inquiry (e.g. lesson observations, interviews), leading to methods of data gathering and data. The data in turn was analysed and interpreted. The stages of the process are illustrated in Figure 4.1, below. This section then goes on to give further details of the data gathering methods and the process of data analysis.

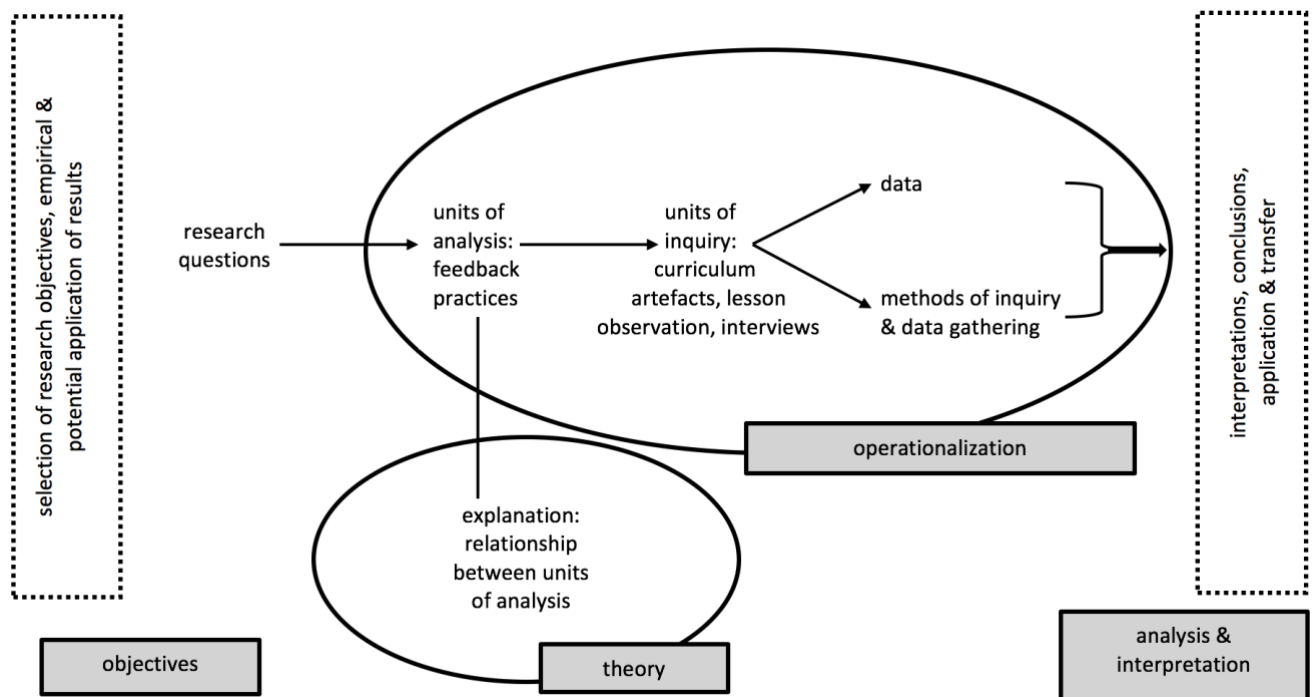


Figure 4.1 Stages of the research process in empirical social research

(Adapted from Wodak and Meyer, 2016, p. 15)

The term methodology refers to the guiding principles and understandings that influenced my choice and use of methods in the study. If methods are the techniques of data gathering, then methodologies are their systematic application (Hyland, 2016, p. 117). Methodology clarifies how the research was planned and conducted, explains how I

analysed the data to produce the findings and justifies the knowledge and understandings that were gained. Assumptions underpinning the study are that language is viewed as text in context (Halliday, 1978; Halliday & Hasan, 1989), and that genre is modelled at the level of culture beyond register as a connotative semiotic (Martin, 1999a, p. 28; Martin & Rose, 2008, p. 16). Correspondingly, assumptions underpinning the study are that it is important to observe language use in context through observation. Therefore, I used the data gathering methods of observation, field notes and audio and visual digital recordings of lessons. In contrast to the lessons, in which language accompanied social action, the interviews I conducted are viewed as social interactions in which language plays a key role, constituting the social activity (Martin & Rose, 2008, p. 15).

The list of stages in conducting my research from preparation to data gathering through to analysis are illustrated in Figure 4.2 below. Each box represents different phases in the study. The boxes that overlap indicate phases that occurred simultaneously. The lists in each box are numbered for ease of reference and to indicate the general sequence. However, this suggests the process was rigid, linear and unidirectional, which it was not. For example, the two stages of data gathering meant I was still conducting interviews with Stage One participants while I was beginning the data gathering for Stage Two. The data analysis did not progress in a linear manner but involved movement back and forth between data and the explanatory frameworks. As Wodak and Meyer note, “all approaches proceed *abductively*, i.e. oscillate between theory and data analysis in retroductive ways” (emphasis in the original) (2016, p. 18). This was the case in my study in a process that generated insights and greater understanding of both the data and the explanatory frameworks.

Both a comprehensive review of the relevant literature and a smaller-scale study shaped and refined the data collection methods. A translation device (Maton, 2014) was developed to relate concepts to phenomena beyond LCT’s dimension of Semantics and this was refined on an on-going basis, guided by both the study’s theoretical framework and a continuing critical engagement with the data. In addition, various strategies were employed, including the search for discrepant evidence, peer review at different stages of the project and continuing dialogue and support from my research supervisor.

My research endeavour can be divided into two parts, Study One and Study Two. Study One was an exploratory study that served two main purposes in preparation for Study Two. Firstly, it enabled me to learn about the writing classroom in its broader institutional

context. I achieved this by conducting interviews with stakeholders within the English language teaching (ELT) centre as well as those the within the university but outside of the ELT centre. Secondly, a smaller-scale classroom study of two teachers and their classes provided me with data. This enabled me to conduct an analysis tracing semantic gravity and semantic density over time to produce a semantic profile (Maton, 2014) and then employ the discourse semantic system of NEGOTIATION (Martin, 1992; Martin & Rose, 2007) and conduct an exchange analysis. Achieving both of these purposes were instrumental in developing Study Two, the main study. Further details on Study One are given in Section 4.5.1 and its influence on Study Two are discussed in Section 4.5.2. Study Two was planned in two stages, with Stage Two mirroring Stage One. This was because it was not possible for me to observe and interview four teachers over the same five-week period. Fortunately, the centre ran the same course five weeks apart and this enabled me to gather data from two teachers at a time. Across Study One and Study Two together, I observed 17 writing lessons and six tutorials, taking accompanying field notes and photographs. I recorded and analysed 37 audio recordings of writing lessons, I interviewed 42 stakeholders, and I conducted four focus-group interviews. An inventory of data gathered is given Appendix 3.

After receiving ethics approval (reference FL19013), the first step in Study Two was to seek and obtain informed consent for the study to proceed from the ELT centre. The next step was to invite teachers to participate. This was done by talking to the academic manager responsible for the course and asking for a list of male and female teachers who I could invite to participate. For both Stage One and Stage Two of Study Two data gathering, the first two teachers I approached agreed to participate. For the study to be feasible, I observed the lessons of two teachers first and then after I had completed Stage One, I went on to observe the third and fourth teachers. However, gathering data from two teacher participants at the same time meant I was not always able to observe both of their lessons when they were timetabled to teach at the same time. By talking to the teachers, I was able to select the most appropriate time to observe in terms of their writing lessons and the aims of the study. In addition, each teacher had a digital recorder, which allowed them to record lessons I was unable to attend.

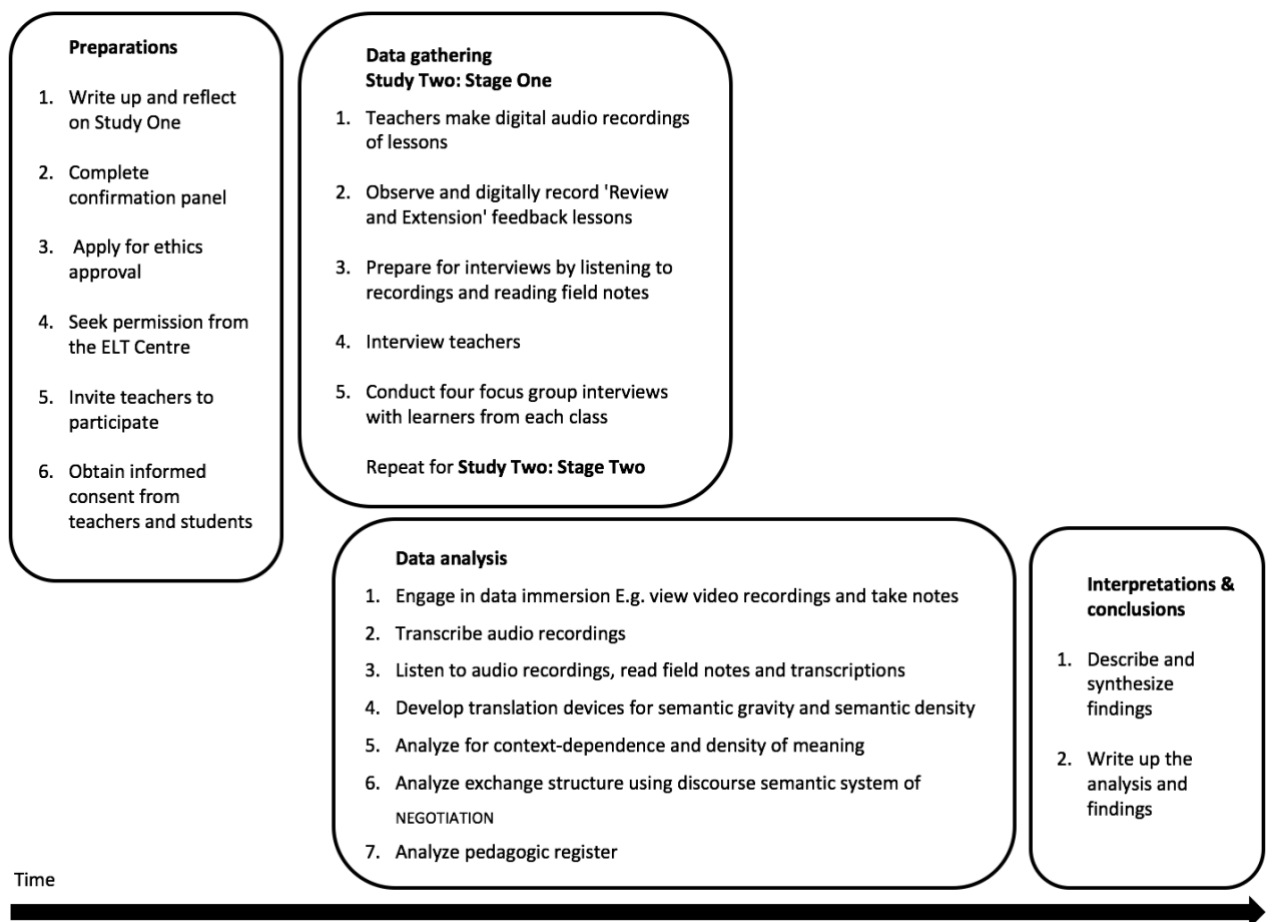


Figure 4.2 Stages of the research process for Study Two

4.3 Case studies

Case studies are a “widely used approach to qualitative research in education” (Gall, Gall and Borg, 2007, p. 447). I adopted a case study approach in this study because the teachers, students, pathway course and university English language teaching (ELT) centre provided “readily observable, accessible, multidimensional individuals, events, and sites, [...] in researchers’ immediate environments” (Duff, 2014, p. 233). I had knowledge and experience of the course and the ELT provider as a practising teacher at the centre, which not only gave me greater insight into the case but also meant I had existing professional relationships with gatekeepers and the teacher participants.

An important decision I made was with regards to the segmentation of data. I decided to approach the multi-case study from three perspectives which I termed macro, meso and micro levels (see Figure 4.5 below). These are defined and discussed more fully in

Chapter 5, Section 5.1. Regarding the location and size of the study, at a macro-level of analysis the whole study can be viewed as a case study of a particular pathway course occurring with a particular group of teachers and learners in a specific university ELT centre. However, at a meso-level of analysis it consists of four case studies. Each case is a teacher in their professional social context working with a class of learners. The classroom discourse of their lessons provided the data required for a micro-level analysis of the teacher-led exchanges that occurred during feedback on writing episodes.

I collected data by means of observation, taking photographs, field notes and audio recordings of each teacher in the classroom while they were providing feedback to learners during writing lessons. In addition to classroom data collection, I also interviewed the teachers and conducted focus group interviews with a small group of students from each class. This represents “in-depth study of instances of a phenomenon in its natural context and from the perspective of the participants involved in the phenomenon” (Gall, Gall and Borg, 2007, p. 436), to develop a thorough understanding of the phenomenon using the case as an exemplar (Duff, 2014, p. 237). As such, the case study provides a deeper understanding of teaching practices in a particular educational context and presents a contextualized profile of writing lessons as a specific learning event.

However, the main purpose of the study was to use these exemplars as a means of understanding how experienced language teachers manage the dual challenge of meeting course learning objectives while also meeting the needs of the individuals in the class. Stake (2005) makes a distinction between case studies that are undertaken because the particular case is of interest, namely intrinsic case studies, and case studies in which the case leads to a greater understanding of other phenomenon, namely instrumental case studies. While this study has features of both, with the practices of individual teachers being of great interest, it is primarily instrumental because it aims “to provide insight into an issue ... and [the case] facilitates our understanding of something else” (Stake, 2005, p. 445). Through this case, I present a contextualized profile of writing feedback lessons as an example of how teachers manage course objectives and individual learners by both varying the context dependence and density of meaning of classroom discourse and marshalling various linguistic resources in specific learning events.

The study draws on two complementary approaches to research, case studies and an analysis of classroom discourse (using LCT’s Semantics and pedagogic register analysis). The

organisation of the study into the investigation of four teachers teaching the same lessons over a five-week teaching session is a means of investigating a particular situation by examining “the close-up reality of participants’ lived experiences and thoughts about a situation” (Hyland, 2016, p. 121). This allows for greater insights into the English language writing classroom and allows for theoretical generalizations (Hyland, 2016, p. 121). Case studies have similarities with ethnographic approaches, allowing for detailed investigations in an authentic setting (White, Drew & Hay, 2009), and, consequently, I believe they offer an appropriate way to frame the study. It is important to view each context as a unique environment, rather than perceiving all second language (L2) classrooms as homogeneous (Walsh, 2006, p. 55). When researching specific classroom contexts, classroom interactions should be considered with their pedagogic purpose in mind, as the discourse can be viewed more objectively in terms of its appropriateness to these aims (Walsh, 2006, p. 55). With this in mind, I completed a genre and register analysis (Martin & Rose, 2008) of the knowledge genres (Rose, 2020) in the relevant units of the course syllabus. This produced a genre and register ‘map’ of the syllabus, reproduced in Appendix 1. I also viewed the stated course objectives when analysing classroom discourse.

The classroom discourse from classroom events represents examples of language use. From an SFL perspective, these instances also permit an investigation of underlying linguistic systems. From this theoretical viewpoint, spoken and written classroom language is a resource used by teachers and learners to achieve particular communicative goals. While the data collected in this study is not large enough to make reasonably reliable generalizations about the system, the observation of instances does allow theoretical generalizations that are valuable to comparable research contexts. This theoretical generalization “depends upon the adequacy of the underlying theory and the whole corpus of related knowledge of which the case study is analysed rather than the particular instance itself” (Mitchell, 1983, p. 203). This second part of the investigation that draws on SFL explores the function of language in the recursive social practices of the classroom through genre, register and discourse analysis.

4.3.1 Context-sensitive classroom research

This classroom-based qualitative study aimed to chart changes in the context dependence of classroom episodes and to understand their pedagogic purpose. Classroom discourse was the primary source of data in order to provide insights into how teaching and learning occurs “in-flight” (Batstone, 2012, p. 466), that is during lessons (see Figure 4.3). The lesson observations were audio recorded, transcribed and analysed in an attempt to understand the role of classroom discourse in learning (Maton, 2014, pp. 106-124; Rose, 2014; Dreyfus et al., 2011; Hammond & Gibbons, 2005).

Methods of data collection primarily involved observing and audio recording lessons and taking notes. Transcribed interactions were then analysed using tools from Legitimation Code Theory and systemic functional linguistics to explore classroom practices. Previous studies of classroom discourse have taken the examination of discourse rather than pedagogy as their main focus (Sinclair & Coulthard, 1975). This study’s contribution lies in examining the relationship between classroom discourse and its pedagogic function. Investigating these pedagogical aspects were achieved by applying the two theoretical models.

The stages of data analysis were as follows: observation and field notes, transcription, immersion in data, development of a translation device (Maton & Chen, 2016), semantic profile analysis, exchange structure analysis and pedagogic register analysis. Further details of these are given below. In addition to these stages, the insights gained at each stage were compared and considered, allowing the data and emerging knowledge to be described and analysed by the various methods and theoretical frameworks in a process of triangulation.

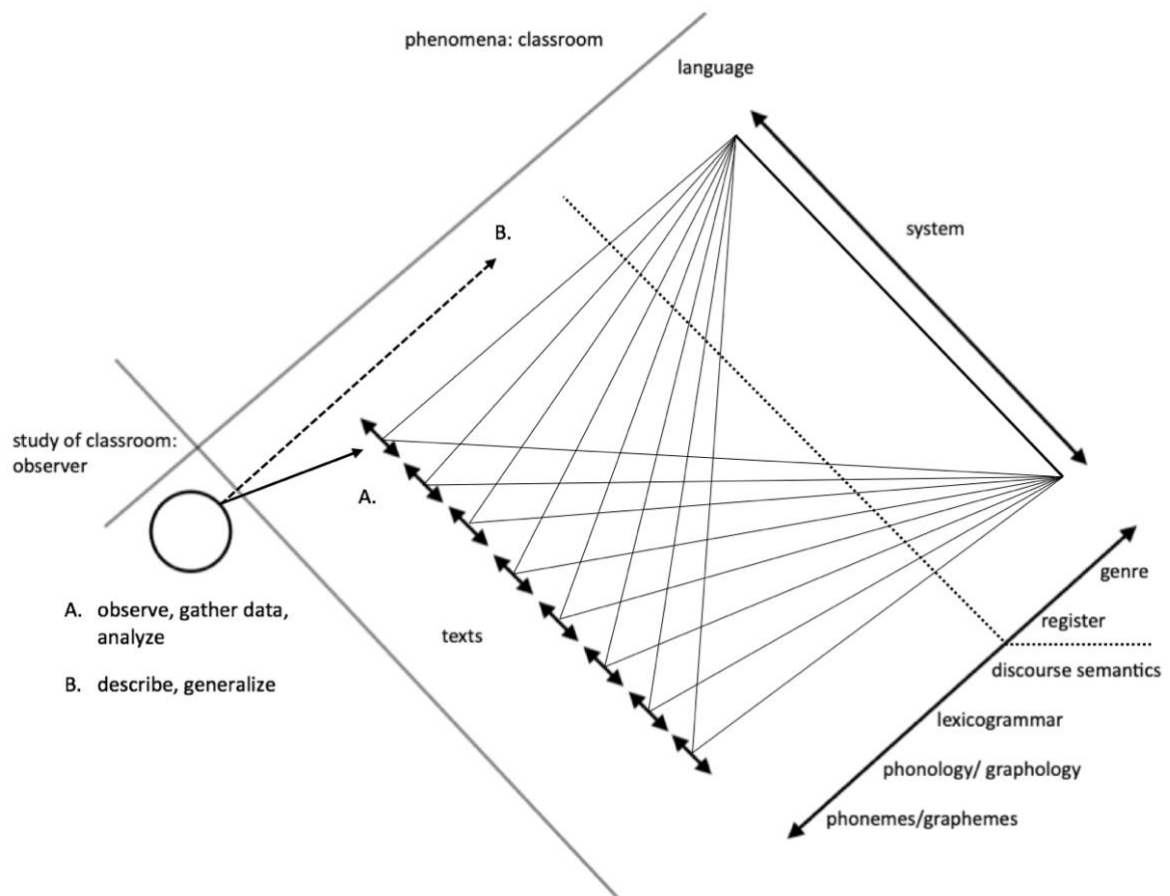


Figure 4.3 Data gathering in the classroom: Researcher observing, gathering data and analysis of data (adapted from Matthiessen et al, 2010, p. 124)

4.4 Data gathering methods

The main study involved gathering data from a total of four teachers and their lessons across four units of work. Data gathering began on Monday 20th January and finished on Tuesday 9th June (20 weeks), unexpectedly extended from the planned ten weeks due to the COVID-19 global pandemic. I collected data from four teachers and their classes including live observations, digital photographs, digital audio recordings and teaching materials. The lessons were from the same four units of work because this allowed for a meaningful comparison of how teachers give feedback on learner writing and work on revisions and editing (see Table 4.1 below). While I collected data on sequences of lessons, the detailed analysis focused on teacher-led feedback on the writing. Choosing the same 'review and extension' lesson taught by four teachers allowed for comparisons and contrasts. The

lessons in the course units built on each other, with each unit preparing students for a final writing task, and each unit building on work completed in previous units in the course.

4.4.1 Observations

The ten-week course syllabus contained weekly writing tasks based around a different topic (see Table 4.1). The reading and listening texts of the course provided ideas for the writing task and one of the reading texts usually provided a model for the writing task. The syllabus also provided vocabulary, grammar and writing preparation activities that were usually completed before students produced their own texts (see Appendix 1). There was some freedom for teachers to adapt or replace these teaching materials. The course timetable recommended a 'review and extension' lesson and this was often when teachers returned written work to students and completed post-writing activities. It was these lessons that I mainly observed, as they were most likely to contain classroom talk around completed student writing.

While observing I kept a record of who participated in teacher-student interactions by drawing a plan of the classroom (see Figure 4.4). Brief descriptions of classroom activities and their timings provided a record of the class. I also asked teachers to audio record their lessons by placing an electronic audio recorder at the front of the class on the teacher's desk. I was also able to video record parts of lessons. The audio recordings of the lesson were transcribed and analysed to understand the role of classroom discourse in the lesson.

Table 4.1 Overview of syllabus unit topics and writing tasks from the course Unlock 4 (Sowton and Kennedy, 2019)

Topic and writing task	Genre
Education Outline the various similarities and differences between studying a language and studying mathematics.	Genre: Argument – discussion (essay)
Medicine 'Preventing lifestyle illnesses is the responsibility of individuals and their families, not governments.' Do you agree or disagree with this opinion? Support your arguments with examples from your own knowledge and experience.	Genre: Argument – exposition (essay)
The environment Discuss the problems associated with ONE of the natural disasters you have looked at during the week and suggest some possible solutions.	Genre: Argument – discussion (problem question) (essay)
Architecture "Location is more important than size when buying a home." To what extent do you agree?	Genre: Argument – exposition (essay)

4.4.1 Triangulation

The term 'triangulation' originates from surveying and involves the measurement of triangles to determine distances and relevant positions of different points within a given area (Fielding & Fielding, 1986, p. 23). In the social sciences, triangulation is a metaphor and not a precise concept (Schwarzenegger, 2017) that refers to the combined application of research strategies. Denzin developed a systematic approach by distinguishing four types of triangulation: data triangulation, investigator triangulation, theory triangulation and methodological triangulation (Wodak & Meyer, 2016, p. 31; Flick, 2018, p. 191; Hammersley, 2008; Fielding & Fielding, 1986, p. 23; Denzin, 1989, p. 237). Proponents of

Field notes classroom observation

Aims	Individual Fdble:	
Time	Activities and comments	
① 4.35 - 4.38		
② 4.38 - 4.40		
③ 4.40 - 4.45		
④ 4.45 - 4.47		
⑤ 4.47 - 4.52		
⑥ 4.52 - 4.54		(T. moves around class, Ss work on rewrites - some Ss spend together)
⑦ 4.54 - 4.54		4.47 "Any questions?" (for number ⑤).
⑧ 4.54 - 5.00		4.50 (T. puts slide previously shown of good topic sentences). ⑥ T. agrees to meet after class).
⑨ 5.00 - 5.03		(4.59 'Tend to versus intend to')
⑩ 5.03 - 5.08		(⑨ 'see me for extra writing') - 5.00 (④) "I've got to move on - sorry"
⑪ 5.08 - 5.12		5.02 "You need to look at a dictionary." (10) 5.07 (11) "This should really be active voice" *
⑫ 5.12 - 5.14		5.10 T. says "English, English" to table/group near computer. (13 after class) + (15)
⑬ 5.14 - 5.16		((17) - Spelling.) (Back to ③) → 5.19 - 5.21 (Back to ⑫) 5.21 - 5.24. (Back to ⑬) - "voice" passive - active) (5.24 - 5.25) (Back to ⑫) 5.25 - 5.26. (Back to ②) 5.26 - 5.27).
⑭ 5.17 - 5.17		5.27 T. speaks to class - "vocabulary" pointing at flimsies on WB Board.
⑮ 5.17 - 5.18		
⑯ 5.18 - 5.19		
Sign		Convention
''	Double quotation marks	Verbatim quotes
'	Single quotation marks	Paraphrases
()	Parentheses	Contextual data or fieldworkers interpretations
< >	Angled brackets	Emic concepts (of the member)
/	Slash	Etic concepts (of the researcher)
	Solid line	Beginning or end of a segment

Figure 4.4 Field notes showing classroom interactions

triangulation argue that when these types are variously combined, they enrich and complete our understanding (Denzin & Lincoln, 2000; Fielding & Fielding, 1986). Recent interpretations also regard it as a means of revealing differences in research outcome (Flick, 2004; Seale, 1999), aiding in the construction of a fuller understanding of the event being investigated (Ma & Norwich, 2007, p. 212)

Triangulation has previously been used in second language writing research (Hyland, 2016, p. 121;). In the present study, data triangulation refers to the different data sources listed in Table 4.3. The different lessons, classrooms, teachers and learners correspond to Denzin's distinction of time, place and persons, and the suggestion to consider these when researching phenomenon. Theory triangulation is apparent in the different perspectives offered by LCT and SFL with both being employed to increase explanatory power and extend the possibilities of knowledge production (Flick, 2018. p. 191). Finally, methodological triangulation can be seen in the use of observation, interviews and text analysis.

4.5 The data gathering process

This section outlines the data gathering process. This began with an exploratory study, Study One. The research project researched writing classrooms in their broader institutional contexts, taking into account the perspectives of various stakeholders from inside and outside the English Language Teaching (ELT) Centre. Study One examined the importance of factors outside the classroom in understanding classroom data. The data gathering process is illustrated heuristically in Figure 4.5 and an inventory of data is given in Appendix 3.

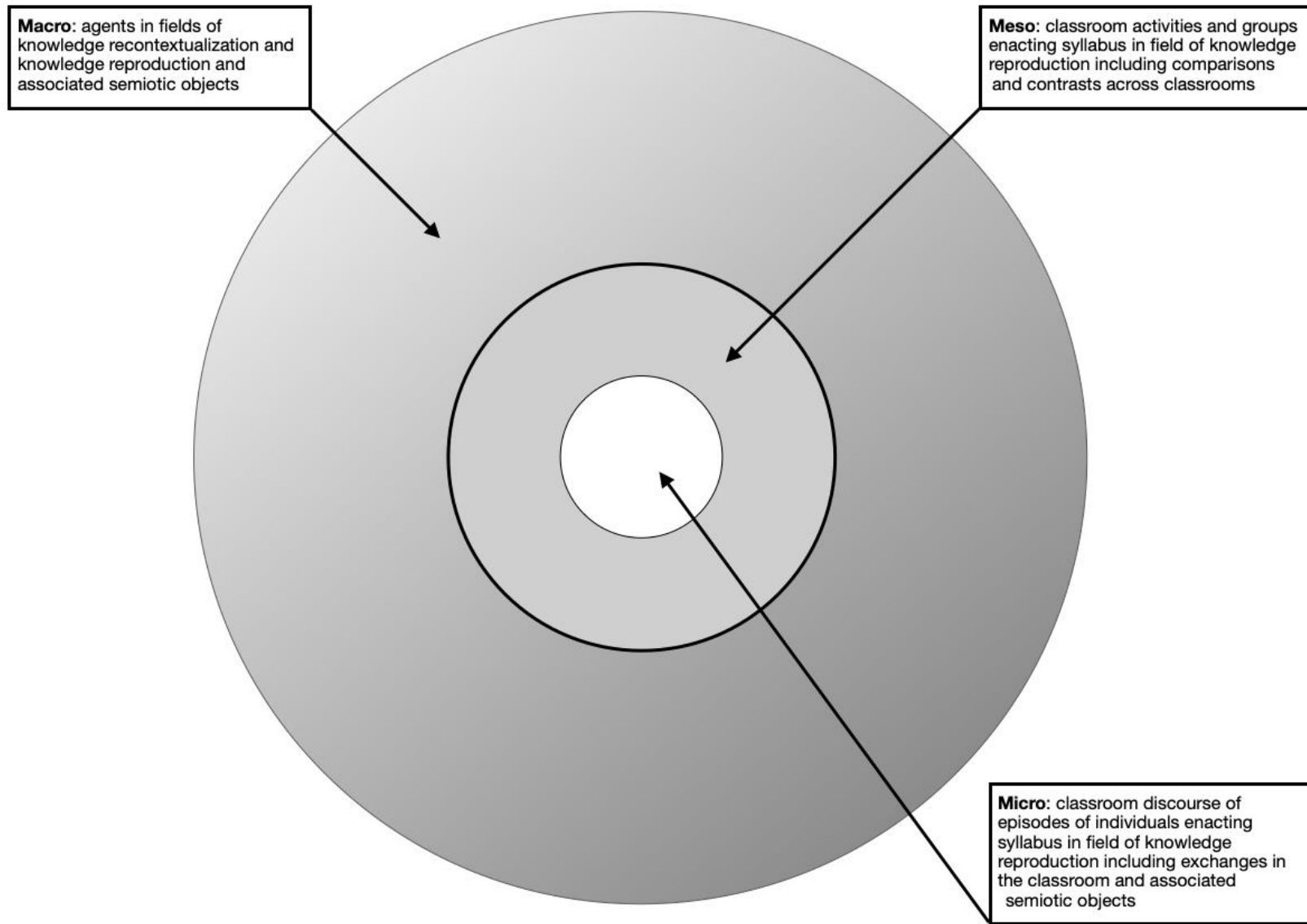


Figure 4.5 Data gathering from macro, meso and micro levels

4.5.1 Study One data gathering

For Study One I gathered data from interviews, observations, artefacts (teaching materials, photographs) and documents to more fully understand classroom phenomena. In addition to classroom and tutorial observations and interviews with teachers and learners, I also interviewed stakeholders with involvement, influence or interest in the pre-session course (see Appendix 3 for an inventory of data). While limitations of space in this thesis preclude the inclusion of Study One in its entirety, the analysis of classroom data played an important role in the development of Study Two and this is reported below. However, it is important to note that my conclusions reported in Chapter 7 do not rest on a single interview or lesson observation, but I have developed from the sum of my observations and interviews during my time in and around pathway courses and classrooms in England and Australia.

I observed and interviewed two teachers in Study One. The smaller-scale classroom study from Study One was conducted based on one lesson. I observed the lesson, took photographs, and made a digital audio recording. I transcribed the classroom discourse and analysed it. First I analysed using LCT's Semantics to map its semantic profile and then I analysed the language for exchange structure. See Appendix 4 'Report on Study One' classroom analysis for a detailed report.

4.5.2 Reflections on Study One and the influence on Study Two

Study One was important for several reasons. These can be categorized as 1) relating to the explanatory frameworks, 2) conducting classroom observations and 3) making meaningful comparisons across classroom data sets. The first implication was that a more detailed translation device would be required to enable a finer-grained analysis. The Study One translation device proved sufficient for its purpose, but I was aware that gathering more classroom data would likely require further refinement through rounds of analysis and refinement. Another implication was that exchange structure analysis provided a necessary but insufficient analysis for answering my research questions and that a further move up in strata in the dimension of abstraction would be required into pedagogic register (Rose, 2020). The study also confirmed that the two theoretical frameworks of LCT's Semantics and the discourse semantics system of NEGOTIATION were complementary and that they yielded interesting and promising results that provided answers to my research questions. A

semantic analysis also proved to be a useful way to start the analysis of such complex classroom phenomenon.

The process of arranging, planning and conducting classroom observations was also extremely useful. During Study One, observations were cancelled as teachers were absent or changes to their teaching plans meant the arranged lesson was no longer focussing on writing. I learnt the importance of both preparation and adaptability, particularly important in a context-sensitive study. I decided to extend Study Two from three teachers to include four teachers in case any should leave the study. While this did not happen, the global pandemic meant I could only gather a full set of classroom data from the first two teachers in Stage One (see Appendix 3, data inventory). Finally, the classroom data from Study One highlighted need to gather comparable data. While both teachers (Sabrina and Tim) planned and taught lessons providing feedback writing, they were different. Tim collected in learners' writing from an extended writing project over several lessons. He planned the lesson around examples of writing in context. This involved showing the paragraph to the class using a data projector, discussing it with the class and asking the writer to comment on their intended meaning. This contrasts with Sabina's lesson, in which learners wrote during the lesson following a speaking activity (see Appendix 4 'Report on Study One' for classroom analysis). These writing lessons were too different to compare. This led to my decision to observe teachers teaching the same lessons from the same syllabus. The narrowed the focus of the study across four classrooms, rather than my original intention to conduct a longitudinal study. These implications from Study One were factored into the plan for Study Two, which was then presented to the Ethics Committee for approval.

4.5.3 Study Two data gathering

The main study involved gathering data from a total of four teachers over a span of twelve four-hour lessons and four units of study from the syllabus. I planned to observe four teachers and their classes. This was achievable because the course has staggered starts, the 'advantage' course starting five weeks before the 'standard' course. This meant I could collect data from two teachers from the 'advantage' course in Stage One of data gathering, and then collect data from the next two teachers in Stage Two of data gathering.

Each teacher taught two four-hour lessons a day, three days a week for five weeks. This is six 'administrative' lessons a week and a total of thirty over five weeks. The 'semantic' lessons where aims are achieved do not necessarily map onto the administrative lessons. For example, one lesson may start in the second half of a two-hour administrative lesson and finish in the next two-hour administrative lesson. Conversely, a single two-hour administrative lesson may contain two 'semantic' lessons. For ease of reference, I have labelled the data according to administrative lessons (see Appendix 3 Data Inventory). All classroom observations were audio recorded (apart from Teacher W's final observed lesson which was, in part, filmed). I also took field notes and photographs. When a lesson was not observed but audio recorded, I listened to the recording and made notes for discussion in the post-lesson teacher interviews. The interviews were conducted as soon as possible after the observation and after I had listened to the audio recordings. For Teacher W this was in the same week and with Teacher X it was the following week. For Teachers Y and Z, the first interview was in the same week as the lesson observation.

However, data gathering was impacted by the global pandemic. COVID-19 led to a period of lockdown in Queensland that curtailed Stage Two of data collection, limiting the number of observations. The impact of the COVID-19 global pandemic led to a stop in teaching and a move to online teaching. I was not able to observe any online lessons and I conducted interviews with Teacher Y six weeks after the first interview and Teacher Z twelve weeks after the first interview. However, data collection continued in all other forms. All the observations, audio recordings and interviews informed the study. Lesson observation 1 of each teacher was analysed for semantic gravity and semantic density (Maton, 2014). Teacher W lesson observation 1 was analysed using systems from pedagogic register analysis (Rose, 2018).

The course timetable recommends a 'review and extension' lesson, which is usually when teachers return written work to students, complete post-writing activities, give feedback on learner writing and work on revisions and editing. It is these lessons that I planned to observe as they were most likely to contain classroom talk around completed student writing. These 'review and extension' lessons for each teacher were from the same units of work and teachers were working with learners' responses to the same writing tasks.

Digital recorders were given to teachers and they were asked to record lessons connected to writing, particularly lessons when feedback on writing was given to learners. I

then listened to these recordings and made notes with brief descriptions of classroom activities and their timings as well as my own notes and questions. These notes provided a written description of the class and they were completed before I interviewed the teachers. I also observed writing feedback lessons, recorded field notes, photographed and also video recorded parts of the lesson from the observer’s desk, which was either at the back or the side of the classroom. This enabled me to keep a written and visual record of the lesson and how resources, such as the whiteboard, were used. When I observed whole lessons, the detailed field notes focused on teacher-led feedback on the writing (see Table 4.2 below). Choosing the same ‘review and extension’ lesson taught by the teachers allowed for comparisons and contrasts.

Table 4.2 Conventions for hand-written field notes

Source: Adapted from Flick (2018, p.542) and adapted from Kirk & Miller (1986, p. 57) and Silverman (1993, p. 147)

Sign	Convention	Use
“ ”	Double quotation marks	Verbatim quotes
‘ ’	Single quotation marks	Paraphrases
()	Parentheses	Contextual data or researcher’s interpretations
< >	Angled brackets	Emic concepts (of the member)
/ /	Slash	Etic concepts (of the researcher)
_____	Solid line	Beginning or end of a segment

I arranged interviews with the teachers as soon as possible after each observed class. In addition to providing audio-visual records of the lesson through the digital recordings and photographs, small sections of audio or video were also played back to teachers and formed a prompt for remembering the lesson. This provided a starting point for discussing the lessons, anchoring our initial discussions around actual classroom events. Once the prompt was completed, I then shifted the focus from the classroom event to the present time of the

claims. The table below (4.3) provides an overview of the main research question, research methods and data.

Table 4.3 Research question, research methods and data sources

Research question	Research methods	Data sources
1) How do teachers work towards achieving course goals while simultaneously developing learners' emerging language and control of written genres during feedback in writing lessons?	Analysis of course documents (e.g. genre & register mapping of course syllabus)	Artefacts such as teaching materials and learner-produced written work
	Classroom observation, taking field notes	The field notes from lesson observation
	Making digital recordings, listening to recordings and taking notes	Video and audio recordings of classroom lessons & notes
	Teacher interviews & learner focus group interviews	Recordings and transcriptions of post-lesson interviews with teachers and learners
	Analyses: LCT Semantic analysis Discourse analysis: NEGOTIATION system Pedagogic register analysis (Rose, 2020)	Transcription of classroom discourse (& references to recordings and notes)

Other artefacts such as teaching materials (see Figure 4.7), learner-produced written texts and photographs of the whiteboard proved useful when analysing classroom discourse. For example, when a teacher was annotating a learner's written work that was projected on the whiteboard in front of the class, the teacher shifted modes between speaking and writing (either on the paper text or on the whiteboard). Reference to the

learner's written work allowed the spoken discourse to be understood more easily. As I was concentrating on classroom discourse around learner writing, I also collected copies of learners' written work and the annotations made by teachers. This was useful as I could then refer to issues or a specific learner's work that the teacher discussed, making it easier to analyse the classroom data. These artefacts allowed for data source triangulation (Flick, 2018, p. 191; Denzin, 1989, p. 237-241; Fielding & Fielding, 1986, p. 23 – 30). This allowed for different sources of information on teacher feedback. This provided a stronger foundation for the study than simply relying on one data source, such as recordings of the classroom. Additional data sources provided more insights, confirmed findings and made it easier to identify inconsistencies in data sets.

4.5.4 Visual records of the lesson with digital photographs and digital video

Photographs, videos and field notes of the lesson were useful to refer to when analysing the transcript. Audio recordings can be difficult to decipher. I listened to recordings before interviews with teachers to identify episodes that required clarification. A recording of the lesson used in conjunction with the explanations from the teacher made the context of each utterance clear. When there were learner participants who did not wish to be part of the study, they were not photographed or filmed and they were kept out of the camera's range.

The observer's paradox was formulated for sociolinguistics by Labov (1970) while he was investigating the vernacular speech style produced when minimum attention is given to speech (Ellis, 2008, p. 119). This paradox is the notion that good data requires systematic observation but the very act of observation contaminates the data. The fact that learners and teachers knew they were being researched might initially have resulted in a more careful speech style. However, as the lesson progressed, the participants' attention soon moved away from the researcher and the recording device as they become engaged in classroom activities. I facilitated this by remaining attentive but unobtrusive and at an appropriate distance, not becoming involved in the lesson, and maintaining a positive and supportive attitude towards the teacher and learners. Too much interest and enthusiasm may have led to me becoming drawn into the lesson while too little interest might have caused me to overlook something significant. The benefits of being in the classroom and

taking field notes to accompany the interactions outweighed any initial disadvantages. I adopted a non-interventionist stance and attempted “*not* to influence the normally occurring patterns of instruction and interactions because [I] wished to describe and understand these processes rather than to test specific hypotheses about cause-and-effect relationships” (emphasis in the original) (Allwright & Bailey, 1991, pp. 41-42) in what is often termed naturalistic enquiry. This also allowed me to draw upon my experiences and understanding of language classrooms from my professional practice as an English language teacher and teacher educator. I was also aware of bias that may arise from this prior knowledge (see Section 4.9 below).

Participants were perhaps even less aware of the research in the digital recordings made by the teachers without me present. I encouraged teachers to record as much of their lessons as they were comfortable with and to pause or stop the recordings whenever they felt it necessary or appropriate. This meant the participants could focus on the business of the classroom, rather than the study. On two occasions, teachers forgot to record lessons, which I took as evidence that they were focussing on their primary purpose of teaching.

4.5.5 Additional artefacts from the classroom

Other artefacts such as teaching materials and learner-produced written texts proved useful when analysing classroom discourse. These artefacts allowed for data source triangulation. This provided a stronger foundation for the study than simply relying on one data source, such as recordings of the classroom. Additional data sources gave more insights, confirmed findings and made it easier to identify inconsistencies in data sets.

conversion

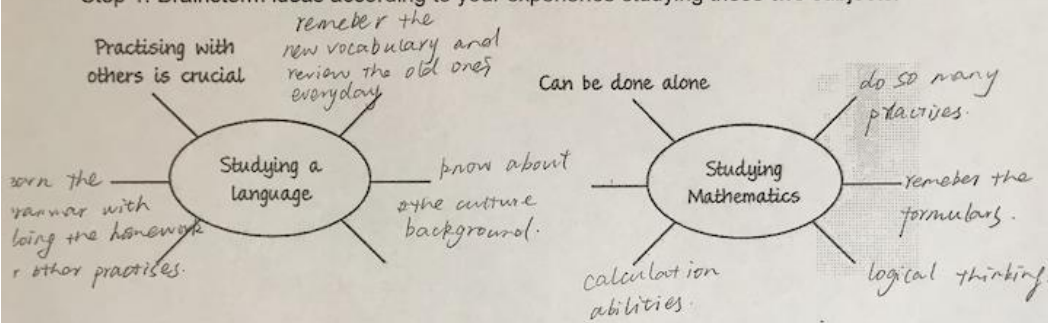
UNLOCK 4, UNIT 2, EDUCATION, WRITING TASK

CORE

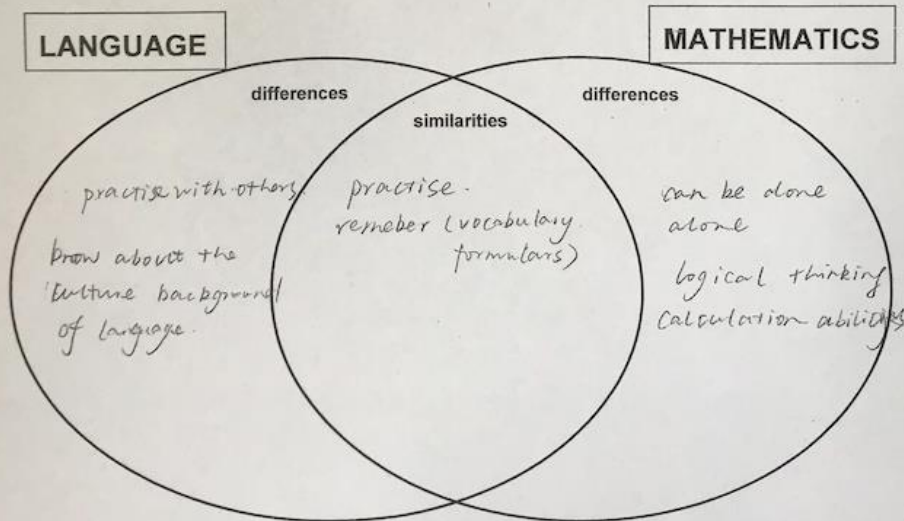
Look at this week's question:

Outline the various ^{*likewise*} similarities and differences between studying a language and studying mathematics.

Step 1: Brainstorm ideas according to your experience studying these two subjects.



Step 2: Now write the ideas from step 1 into the Venn diagram below. Try to get 2-3 ideas in each of the three sections. Then compare your Venn diagram with a partner.



Adapted by A. Sankey from material created by Simon Walkden-Brown ©ICTE-UQ (2019)

Figure 4.8 An example of teaching material used as prompts for discussion in interviews

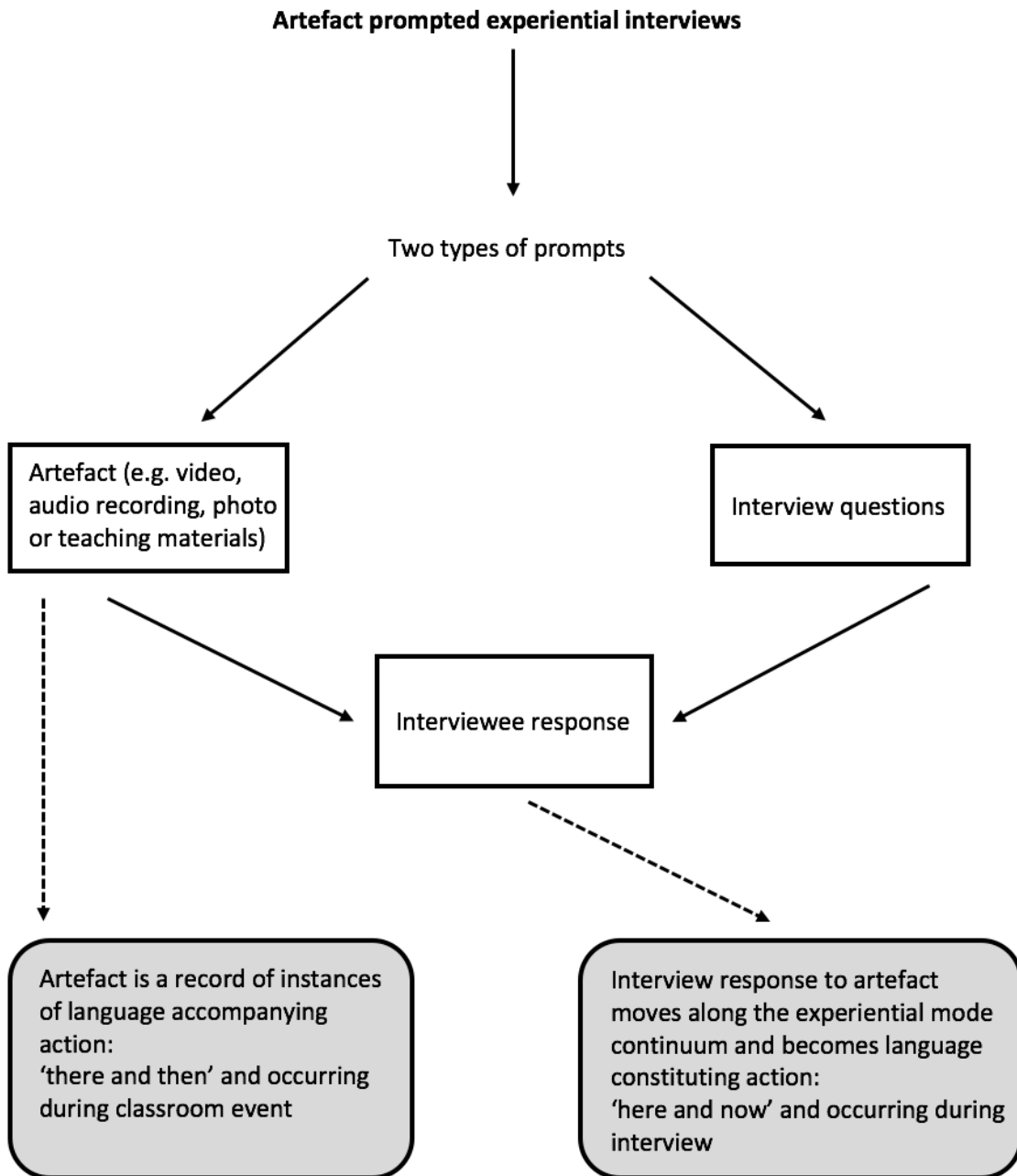


Figure 4.9 Artefact-prompted experiential interview

I selected the digital prompts when preparing for the interviews using the following selection criteria outlined in Table 4.4.

Table 4.4 Selection criteria for digital prompts for the interviews

Criterion i	Episodes when the teacher was discussing writing
Criterion ii	Episodes that contained different degrees of context dependence

Interviews followed classroom observations. I used my field notes from the observations to prepare for each interview. I also listened to audio recordings of lessons used these in my interview preparations. Each interview was carefully prepared, and I prepared questions that arose from the classroom data. In this sense, each interview was different. However, they all followed the general pattern of discussing specific classroom events before moving on to broader questions about the learners and the course. I noted the time of the episode and wrote a short description of it (see Figure 4.10). This allowed me to find it quickly and easily during the interview. This provided a starting point for discussing events that occurred during the lesson. Once this step was completed, I could then shift the focus from the classroom event to the present moment of the interview to allow for reflection and interpretation. One advantage of this two-staged approach is that the prompt draws attention to the lesson, which in turn focuses the interview. Post interview, I compared our discussions with the findings from the semantic gravity profile and pedagogic register analysis to identify areas of interest.

4.5.7 Transcription

Audio recordings of lessons and interviews provided important sources of spoken data. It is important to remember that, as Ochs has noted, “the problems of selective observation are not eliminated with the use of recording equipment. They are simply **delayed** until the moment at which the researcher sits down to transcribe the material from the audio- or videotape” (emphasis in original) (1979, p.44). However, the other sources of data guarded against selective observation and provide a more complete picture. The recordings were transcribed to facilitate greater familiarity with the data and to produce a material representation of the speech in writing, which then enabled me to analyse the classroom discourse and reproduce it in written form. Given the central role of discourse analysis in this study, transcription was “a central tool for the analysis and representation of spoken

language” (Bucholtz, 2007, p.784). The transcription for Study One took a long time. Employing a professional transcription service to carry out the initial transcription for the main study gave me more time to spend on the analyses. However, this still required me to listen extremely carefully to the data and become familiar with it. This is because I was using the transcription as a “noticing device” (ten Have, 2007, p. 95) to facilitate insights and observations. As ten Have points out

Transcriptions do not replace the original recordings. They are selective, ‘theory-laden’ renderings of certain aspects of what the tape has preserved of the original interaction, produced with a particular purpose in mind, by this particular transcriptionist with his or her special abilities or limitations. (2007, p.95)

For this reason, I drew on the other sources of data, particularly my analysis of teaching materials, field notes from observations and the recordings of lessons and interviews when analysing the transcriptions.

29.1.20 Teacher A Interview 2.

Equipment required for the interview

- Laptop
- Digital recorder
- Field notes

(1) Observation: Friday 24.1.20
Take out field notes.

Q. Came - paragraphs - Teacher A full essay.
Why did you decide to do this? Last interview - 'gaps in syllabus' (+ gaps in sk knowledge + proficiency).

Prepared questions

Q. p76 Sentence variety - how do you choose what to give feedback on?

Time 2:22
Min: 0:00

Audio recording timestamps for quick playback

Q. Time (2:41) + 3:57 ^{recording} 2: : 'Brainstorm with your partner some poor lifestyle choices' - purpose here?
Min: (ppt) + 24:46
4:05 T. Fable on brainstorm + some new ideas.

Q. For in class writing - why no phones or books?
4:14.

(2)

Q. Is complete writing for homework. How did they do?
Discuss: { Also submit plan - why?
WCF - code
End of essay comments.

No Observation: Digital recording only - Tuesday 28.1.20 (yesterday)

(3) 1:31pm Review previous work - Q why?
1min Q. - (repeat, review, recycle)

Q. Breakdown and discuss question - how and why?
1:58 min.

Q. How many sentences are there? Is this your class? All BE20? All BE 5?
1:57 min.

Figure 4.10 Interview schedule prepared post-observation or after listening to audio recordings of lessons, detailing equipment required, questions to ask and timings of sections of recordings to play as prompts in the interviews.

4.6 Data analysis, translation devices and data synthesis

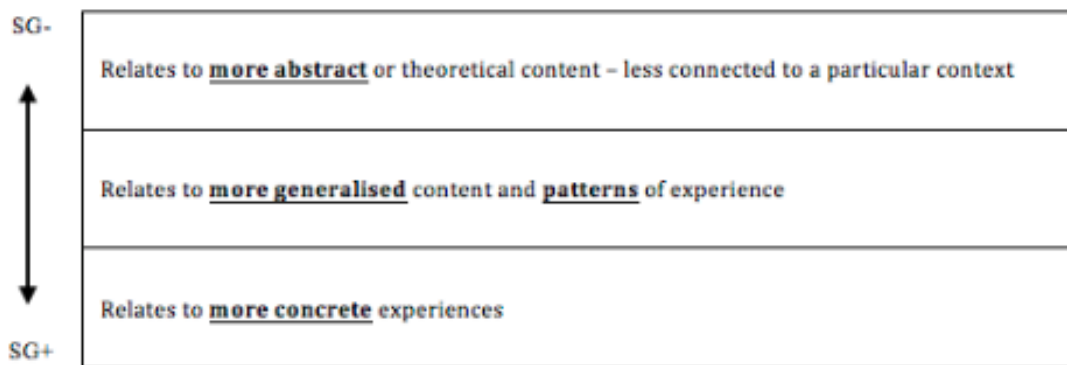
To investigate the role of language in the teaching and learning of writing in an academic English classroom, I adopted a two-step approach to analysis. Firstly, I examined knowledge building (Maton, 2014) in terms of how teachers vary context dependence through classroom discourse using the LCT dimension of Semantics. Secondly, I then examined how teachers supported learners by describing relevant features of language and by relating these to pedagogical purposes. I focused on changes in the context-dependence of knowledge in revision and editing activities in writing lessons and how these unfold linguistically. These were analysed with Martin's discourse semantic system of NEGOTIATION (1992). This allowed for the analysis of classroom discourse as a series of knowledge and action exchanges between participants. These units of analysis allowed me to see how moves are organized and roles adopted and assigned through teacher-led dialogue (Martin, 1992; Martin & Rose, 2007, p. 127). The final classroom data analysis involved pedagogic register analysis, a move into greater abstraction to harness greater explanatory power. The interviews were analysed in the light of insights gained from the previous analyses. Finally, I also interviewed learners in focus groups from each class and the recordings were transcribed.

The first step of the semantic profile analysis involved the development of a translation device. Translation devices are a means of relating theoretical concepts to phenomenon beyond a theoretical framework. These connect to Bernstein's notions of the conceptual language of a theory and how this conceptual language "can describe something other than itself" (2000, p. 132), termed internal and external languages of description (Bernstein 2000, pp. 131-141). They can take either the form of external languages of description, which translate between theory and empirical data within a specific problem-situation, and external languages of enactment, which translate between theory and practice (Maton 2016, p. 243). In addition, there are also mediating languages, which translate between theory and all empirical forms of a phenomenon (i.e. a non-specific external language) (Maton 2016, p. 243). In this study I required an external language of description to translate between the LCT concepts of semantic gravity (SG) and semantic density and the classroom discourse from my case study.

The development of a translation device is described in detail by Maton and Chen (2016). I followed a similar process that involved engagement with relevant literature and on-going discussions with my supervisor. A translation device from Study One was initially used (see Table 4.6) and refined through a process of action and reflection. First, careful transcription of relevant recordings of classroom discourse was followed by several cycles of analytic coding (Maton & Chen, 2016, p. 40), reflection and discussion with my supervisor. This process followed the engagement, immersion and return to theory described by Maton and Chen (p. 33). These movements occurred in a cycle, informed by both discussions with my supervisor and reflection.

One advantage of conducting an exploratory study was the opportunity to experiment with methodological procedures before putting them into widespread use in Study Two. I used the classroom analysis of Study One to test out the process of developing a translation device. The process involved starting with the three-level translation device used in Study One (see Table 4.6 below) and based on Kirk's relevant work (2017, p. 112), reproduced in Table 4.5.

Table 4.5 Heuristic sectioning of the semantic gravity continuum
(Kirk, 2017, p. 112)



The Study One translation device maintained three levels. In the initial round of analysis, I coded the classroom data, first writing and later typing the semantic codes next to the transcribed classroom discourse. I wrote down examples, explanations and marked stretches of classroom talk that I was not immediately able to code for further consideration. I then slowly started to update the translation device following this first round of coding. In the second round of coding, I listened to the digital recording while

reading the transcript. This led to a more detailed understanding of the classroom data. I reviewed my field notes and the photographs I had taken. This led to small adjustments in my analysis and the gradual development and refinement of the translation device. This process continued until I was able to analyse the classroom data with the translation device.

Table 4.6 Translation device for the description of semantic profiles in classroom discourse on writing from Study One

Semantic codes	Form taken by teacher/student	Example quote from classroom data
Theory SG-, SD+ Relates to more abstract or theoretical content; less connected to a particular context; greater complexity and range of meanings	General concepts about language systems (e.g. graphological, lexicogrammatical) that go beyond a particular text and relate to theory.	Setting up the pair editing activity: "Related to yesterday, think about the grammar."
Generalizations Relates to more generalized content and patterns of experience	Concepts about language systems used to discuss particular texts.	Revising & editing a student text: "Do you think that's the topic sentence?"
Examples SG+, SD- Relates to more concrete & specific experiences; a fewer range of meanings; the unpacking or removal of meanings	Reproduces, summarizes or reformulates (by re-wording and/or restructuring the information) examples from a particular text.	Revising & editing a student text: How about this one "... is an ancient Chinese architecture of residence."

Similar steps were taken for Study Two. One difference was that I became more attuned to detecting knowledge practices in the classroom and began to notice changes in semantic gravity and semantic density while observing lessons. I noted down such observations in my field notes for future reference and use during analysis. While the process of reviewing data sources, coding and refining the translation device continued in a similar manner to Study One, there were two main developments. First, I refocused the classroom observations on writing feedback lessons and on teachers teaching the same

material. As with Study One, engaging with data led to refinement of the translation device. To accommodate the practices of four teachers, I found greater distinctions were required and this drove the development of the translation device.

Second, the translation device in Study One placed SG and SD together, with one strengthening and one weakening. This was useful in identifying semantic waves in the data. However, I noticed that SG and SD did not always vary simultaneously. Semantic gravity remained constant while semantic density strengthened or weakened. This is discussed further in Chapter 5. This led me to tease apart SG and SD, develop two translation devices and consider movements across the semantic plane.

I distinguished between stronger and weaker SG by identifying if the classroom discourse was about particular examples of learners' writing or about English language learning. Then, within each of these categories, a further distinction was made between relatively stronger and weaker SG based on how dependent the classroom discourse was to the learners' writing. The four categories derived in this way were then assigned as SG++, SG+, SG-, and SG-- from strongest to weakest, shown in Table 4.7.

When giving feedback on a learner's writing, a teacher may use exact wordings from the learner's work. In such cases understanding the meaning of the discourse is dependent on the context. This is an example of SG++. A teacher may also provide feedback on the learners' written work without quoting from it directly. For example, the teacher may comment on the organisation of the introduction. Here, the meaning is closely related to its context and is an example of SG+. Feedback from teachers may also reference course objectives or assessment criteria. Here, the meaning of the comments is less dependent on the learner's writing, indicating a relative weakening of semantic gravity. This is an example of SG-. Finally, teacher feedback may make use of metalanguage or terms related to writing systems. In such feedback the meaning is not dependent on the learner's writing. This indicates a further weakening of semantic gravity and is an example of SG--.

Table 4.7 Translation device for semantic gravity: the external relations of knowledge practices

Semantic codes	Coding category	Teacher feedback descriptors
SG--	Abstract Meaning is not dependent on its context	Feedback relates to context-independent knowledge practices e.g. feedback relates to language learning, course outcomes and assessment criteria
SG-	General Meaning is less dependent on its context	Feedback in terms of learning outcomes or assessment criteria e.g. Feedback explains decisions, identifying strengths and weaknesses in more general terms
SG+	Specific Meaning is closely related to its context	Feedback in terms of writing task Feedback closely linked to learner's writing
SG++	Concrete Meaning is dependent on its context	Feedback meaning dependent on learners' writing Instances from learner's work: "You write 'Human has developed...' in paragraph one."

I took the same steps to develop a translation device for semantic density (SD). Semantic density conceptualizes the internal relations of knowledge practices as "specialized symbolic structures of explicit knowledge ... linked not by contexts... [but] linked to other structures hierarchically" (Bernstein, 2000, p. 16). I distinguished between stronger and weaker SD by identifying if the classroom discourse was relatively more or less technical. Then, within each of these two categories, a further distinction was made between relatively stronger and weaker SD based on the condensation of meaning. The four categories derived in this way were then assigned as SD++, SD+, SD-, and SD-- from strongest to weakest, shown in Table 4.8.

Table 4.8 Semantic density: the internal relations of knowledge practices

Semantic codes	Coding category	Teacher feedback descriptors
SD++	Technical: higher internal complexity Representation of feedback in technical course practices in most compact way e.g. symbolic: rating, mark or grade	Relatively greater meaning is condensed within symbols. e.g. feedback is compact (rating, mark, grade or overall comment) “Good work”, B+, 15/20
SD+	Technical: lower internal complexity Representation of feedback in technical course practices e.g. identification of strengths and weaknesses in terms of course standards/ assessment criteria beyond the writing task	Relatively more meaning is condensed within symbols e.g. feedback in terms of learning outcomes or assessment criteria “You still need to work on the <i>accuracy</i> of your written English.”
SD–	Non-technical: simpler internal complexity Meaning is from non-technical teacher practices e.g. identification of strengths and weaknesses in terms of the writing task	Relatively less meaning is condensed within symbols e.g. feedback in terms of writing task “Review the work we completed on ‘transport’ vocabulary last Tuesday.”
SD– –	Non-technical: illustrative internal complexity Meaning is from non-technical learner practices e.g. teacher uses/repeats instances from student work	Relatively lesser meaning is condensed within symbols e.g. feedback meaning dependent on learners’ writing “You wrote ‘Nobody travel by train in my hometown’.”

The final stage of this part of the analysis involved taking the semantic profiles from different teachers and comparing them. Points of similarity and difference provided a starting point for closer linguistic analysis. These classroom episodes were then analysed in terms of exchange structure to see how the interaction unfolded linguistically across stretches of classroom discourse. The final part of the data analysis involved pedagogic register analysis (Rose, 2018). Teacher and learner interviews were also transcribed and analysed and matched to the insights gained from the classroom discourse analyses.

4.7 Ethical considerations

As classroom research involves human participants, there were several ethical issues to consider. Participants needed to give informed consent, which involved discussing relevant issues with them and giving them a written record in the form of an information sheet. These issues included explaining to participants what they would be required to do, the purposes for which the data would be used, the extent of confidentiality, the right to withdraw, and assuring them that authorship, evidence, data, findings or conclusions would not be fabricated, falsified or misrepresented. Participants were also made aware that there were no risks or consequences of participating in the study but neither were there any immediate benefits. As the research was to be carried out at an ELT centre, permission from that institution was sought and granted.

As this was an intensive ELT course with high stakes resting on the outcome, the learners were prone to stress and were time poor. Therefore, the research project needed to ensure that it did not exacerbate these pressures by encroaching on course time or placing additional demands that had not been discussed with participants. In addition, teachers often find observations stressful. An open approach that explicitly stated the project aims and participation requirements helped to allay fears. The rights of participants to privacy, anonymity and confidentiality were maintained by the use of pseudonyms and the secure storage of data on a password-protected computer. Lancaster University's Ethics Committee (reference FL19013) approved the study.

4.8 Issues of trustworthiness

The issues of trustworthiness in qualitative research consist of efforts made to ensure data analyses, reports and interpretations are authentic and honest reconstructions of the research and the knowledge that emerged (Burns, 2015, p. 192). I made no attempt to control the research situation because I viewed participants' behaviour as subjective and related closely to context. Indeed, as SFL models language use in context, I aimed to have as little effect on the classroom environment as possible. While it was important to collect data from the classroom, it was also important to understand the classroom from the participants' perspectives. This was achieved through the use of interviews. This was important because their views were a key element in exploring, describing and explaining

the meanings exchanged in the classroom. The criteria for evaluating trustworthiness in this study are discussed below in terms of credibility, dependability, confirmability and transferability (Nassaji, 2020; Lincoln & Guba, 1985). In the following sections, I discuss the implications of these issues raised by the study and outline the strategies I used to strengthen trustworthiness.

4.8.1 Credibility

The criterion of credibility concerns the accuracy and authenticity of the findings from the perspectives of the researcher, participants and reader (Nassaji, 2020, p.428). Among the strategies Lincoln and Guba (1985) suggest for increasing the credibility of qualitative research are prolonged engagement and persistent observation in the field and the triangulation of methods, researchers and data. A further strategy is peer debriefing in the form of regular meetings with people not involved in the study and checking data and interpretations with participants through member checks. Strengthening the credibility of the study became a key component of the research design. The planned study of four teachers over four units of study ensured a period of extended engagement and sustained observation. In addition, the study used triangulation of theory, data and methods as discussed earlier in the chapter (see Section 4.5.2 above). Peer debriefing took the form of regular meetings with my PhD supervisor in which we discussed emerging issues that arose out of the study. It also took the form of discussions with other PhD students, a presentation and discussion at the Legitimation Code Theory Queensland group, a presentation at the Australian Systemic Functional Linguistics Association conference in 2019 and a presentation at the Lancaster University Linguistics and English Language Department's Postgraduate conference in 2021. Finally, I conducted member checks by discussing lessons in interviews and focus groups with participants.

4.8.2 Dependability

The issue of dependability is concerned with whether the findings are consistent with the data collected (Lincoln & Guba, 1985). A key part of this is ensuring the procedures are well documented and coding schemes have been used consistently. The choice of theoretical frameworks had been made in order to answer the research questions and their

effectiveness was tested in Study One. The work in Study Two came out of the earlier study and developed through engagement with the research data. For example, the development of the translation device (Maton & Chen, 2016) involved an extended period of data immersion, through which an external language of description (Bernstein, 2000, pp. 131 – 141) emerged. Episodes that contained changes in context dependence indicated areas that warranted further linguistic investigation. These parts of the classroom discourse were analysed using Rose’s pedagogic register analysis. Examples from the data and analyses are reproduced in Chapter 5 to allow for reader enquiry in a bid to achieve transparency.

4.8.3 Confirmability

This concept refers to findings resulting from the research rather than the subjectivity and biases of the researcher. This can be strengthened by a researcher’s reflexivity and the identification of decisions. I achieved on-going reflection by recording field notes of observations, writing memos throughout the research project and writing reflective progress summaries before meetings with my supervisor. Such strategies create an ‘audit trail’ that explain and record the decisions I made (Nassaji, 2020, p.429) in a manner that may be confirmed by others.

4.8.4 Transferability

This criterion refers to the extent to whether the reader determines the phenomenon under investigation in the context of a study can be moved to another particular context (Lincoln & Guba, 1985). By using concepts from LCT and SFL, the findings of the study can be compared with other studies that have used these theoretical frameworks. While the findings were never planned to be generalizable to a population, they may be compared to similar classroom contexts. In addition, the findings can also be compared with less similar situations that have been investigated using Semantics, for example ballet education (Lambrinos, 2019) or jazz education (Richardson, 2019). Alternatively, the findings could be compared with other studies that employed exchange structure analysis, for example joint construction in a tertiary context (Dreyfus et al., 2011). I also aimed to address this issue by providing a detailed account of the context and participants to enable greater transferability to other contexts.

4.9 The research site and participants

4.9.1 The English language teaching (ELT) centre

This research is site-specific and was conducted at a university English language teaching centre in Australia. The centre was established in the 1980s and specializes in the delivery of English language training across a range of academic and professional disciplines, customized professional training for education, government, corporate and community organizations and teacher training and professional development for both pre-service and in-service teachers, again working with education institutions, government bodies and professional organizations around the world. The centre employs approximately 100 TESOL teachers and enrolls approximately 9000 students per year. In addition to meeting minimum standard industry requirements, the centre seeks to employ teachers who exceed these requirements in terms of qualifications and experience. A well-established ELT centre with experienced teachers makes this a particularly appropriate research-site for describing and seeking to explain classroom discourse in writing lessons.

4.9.2 The pathway course

EAP courses have been viewed as a development of English for Specific Purposes (ESP) courses (Flowerdew & Peacock, 2001, p.11). While in-sessional EAP courses support learners who have already embarked on their studies, pathway and pre-sessional courses are aimed at those preparing to start. The specificity of courses in relation to the discipline to be studied varies from English for General Academic Purposes (Blue, 1988; Jordan, 1997) to English for Specific Academic Purposes (Flowerdew & Peacock, 2001). Although some researchers have called for greater specificity and closer engagement with discipline context and content in these courses (Hyland, 2002; Hyland & Hamp-Lyons, 2002), this is not always practical with mixed discipline pre-sessional cohorts. The classes in this study followed an English for General Academic Purposes (EGAP) course syllabus (Jordan, 1997) with the dual aims of firstly developing the learners' English language proficiency to allow them to progress on to their university studies and secondly familiarizing them with the mode of

academic discourse by, for example, developing their linguistic resources to write short (300 word) argumentative essays.

4.9.3 Participants

The participants were four experienced English language teachers working on an EAP university pathway course and the international cohort of learners in their classes. While some of the learners had been studying at the ELT centre before the start of the ten-week course, the classes were newly formed and new learners joined current learners in these new classes.

4.9.4 Demographic information

Participant profile information is given below and primarily concerns the teachers. I wanted to know their English language teaching histories and experiences both in the ELT centre of the case study and previous relevant experience. This data was collected at the start of the first post-lesson interview. This information was required to provide a detailed background and exemplify the term 'experienced teacher'. In addition to the teachers, I also required less detailed information about the learners in order to understand the class composition. Therefore, the learners' country and first language were also collected. All the learners were assessed with upper-intermediate English language proficiency (CEFR B2) and had a minimum overall IELTS score of 5.5 and a minimum of 5.5 in each of the four skills of reading, writing, listening and speaking. For minimum entry requirements for the course (see Appendix 2).

4.9.5 Teacher participants

The teacher participants are described below using pseudonyms to maximize participant anonymity while maintaining the richness of the interview material. All the teachers were experienced classroom practitioners with practical knowledge of classrooms from a range of contexts. All the teacher participants had between 16 to 20 years of relevant classroom experience. In their first interview, I asked the teachers to describe their qualifications and experience in their own words to provide a description for this study. A summary of their

descriptions is provided below, and salient details are presented in tables 4.9 to 4.12. I ensured there was diversity in the cohort, with two female and two male teachers participating in the study. This contributes to the richness rather than the representativeness of the study.

Table 4.9 Profile of Teacher W

Teaching qualifications	Overall teaching experience	ELT Centre experience
Qualified primary school teacher: 3-year diploma CELTA DELTA Module 1 and 2	Australia: 4 years primary school England: 3 years primary school Japan: 15 years teaching adults business English, conversation & private high school Australia: 5 years teaching English to adults Total ELT experience: 20 years	Experience at current centre: 4 years Experience of pathway program: 4 years

Teacher W (see Table 4.9) is a qualified primary school teacher. He started his teaching career in Australia as a primary school teacher for two years, followed by three years teaching in London and another two years in Brisbane. He then took a job in Japan and stayed there for 15 years, teaching adults business English and conversation and working in a girls' private high school as an oral communication teacher for his final eight years in Japan. He then returned to Brisbane and completed the Cambridge CELTA course, a practical certificate-level ELT qualification. After teaching adults at a private language college in Brisbane, he started work at the university ELT Centre where, for the last four years, he has worked on the pathway program while also working towards completing the Cambridge Delta, a practical diploma-level ELT qualification.

Teacher X (see Table 4.10) is a qualified high school teacher. She started her teaching career in Australia and spent the next 15 years teaching in Australia and the U.K. A qualified Music teacher with a minor in History, she taught a wide variety of subjects during this

period. She then began to teach adults, first in a private English language school for nine months and then teaching migrants in the Australian Migrant English Program for three to four years. She has also worked as a volunteer teacher, teaching children in refugee camps such as Vietnamese refugees in Hong Kong. She started work at the ELT Centre in 2009 and she has extensive experience of teaching on the pathway program.

Table 4.10 Profile of Teacher X

Teaching qualifications	Overall teaching experience	ELT Centre experience
Qualified high school teacher: Music and History Postgraduate Diploma in Education Master of Education (TESOL)	Australia and U.K. 15 years high school Australia: 9 months teaching adults in private language school Australia: Adult Migration Immigration Program: 4 years Volunteer teaching English to children in refugee camps (e.g. Vietnamese refugees in Hong Kong). Australia: 11 years teaching English to adults Total ELT experience: 16+ years	Experience at current centre: 11 years Experience of pathway program: 11 years

Teacher Y (see Table 4.11) is a qualified primary school teacher. She started her teaching career in Australia as a primary school teacher for four years, followed by thirteen years teaching overseas in international schools in Singapore, Egypt, Eritrea, Jordan and Qatar. While in Qatar, she became a specialized English as a Second Language (ESL) teacher. She then returned to Sydney and completed the Cambridge CELTA course, teaching adults at a private language college in Sydney while she finished her master's degree in Applied

Linguistics. She then moved to Brisbane and started work at the university ELT Centre where, for the last four and a half years, she has worked on the pathway program.

Table 4.11 Profile of Teacher Y

Teaching qualifications	Overall teaching experience	ELT Centre experience
Diploma in Early Childhood Education Bachelor of Education Master of Applied Linguistics CELTA	Australia: 5 years primary school Singapore: 4 years Australian International School Egypt: 2 years Eritrea: 1 year Jordan: 1 year Qatar: 5 years Australia: 5+ years teaching English to adults Total ELT experience: 13 years overseas teaching ESL children & last 2 years as a specialist ESL teacher 5+ years teaching English to adults	Experience at current centre: 4+ years Experience of pathway program: 4+ years (60-70% of teaching)

Teacher Z (see Table 4.12) is a qualified English language teacher. On completion of his pre-service training, he started his teaching career in Mexico, where he worked first in private language schools and then in an international high school. He completed his IELTS examiner training in 2012 and he spent a year teaching in the United States of America in an ELT centre connected to a university. The centre provided pathway courses for international

students into the university. In 2015 he moved to Brisbane and started work at the university ELT Centre where he has worked ever since, apart from a few months when he taught adults at a private language college in Brisbane. During this time, he has mainly worked on the pathway program.

Table 4.12 Profile of Teacher Z

Teaching qualifications	Overall teaching experience	ELT Centre experience
CELTA	<p>Mexico: 14 years teaching adults in private language school and international high school</p> <p>The United States: 1 year in private language school connected to a university</p> <p>Australia: 5 years teaching adults in private language school</p> <p>Total ELT experience: 20 years</p>	<p>Experience at current centre: 5 years</p> <p>Experience of pathway program: 4 years</p>

The four teacher participants have knowledge and expertise from their teaching experience in a range of teaching and learning contexts. In addition to their qualifications, they have extensive classroom experience upon which they can draw when planning and teaching their lessons. They also have experience of the university ELT Centre and the pathway course, an important component of this case study. This is important because their classroom practice, observed during the study, has developed through familiarity, experience and the confidence of past successes while teaching on the pathway course. These four cases of experienced practitioners are of interest in themselves. However, taking them together has allowed me to compare and contrast them in order to identify points of similarity and difference. I have then been able to use them as instrumental case studies to gain insight into the issue of teacher feedback practices (Stake, 2005, p, 445), moving from these exemplars to consider my research questions.

4.9.6 Learner participants

There were 57 learner participants in the study. A summary is provided in Table 4.13. There was an approximate split of 60% and 40% between females and males respectively.

Table 4.13 Summary of learner participants in the classroom study

4 Classes	Human geographical region¹¹
N = 57	China (55) Taiwan (1) Colombia (1)

There were eight non-participants in two classes who agreed to the study taking place. The overwhelming majority of learners were from the People's Republic of China. Information on the learners organized by class is given in the Table 4.14.

¹¹ Human geographical region designations report each learner's stated region of origin. The aim is to give the reader an overview of the cohort and each class (also see Table 4.14).

Table 4.14 Learner participants by class

Class W	Human geographical region (HGR)
N = 16 (Full class participation)	China (15) Taiwan (1)
Class X	HGR
N = 11 (7 non-participants agreed to the study occurring, in addition to the N=11)	China (10) Colombia (1)
Class Y	HGR
N = 13 (1 non-participant agreed to the study occurring, in addition to the N=13)	China (13)
Class W	HGR
N = 17 (Full class participation)	China (17)

In addition to the classroom observations and recordings, I conducted four focus groups with 11 learners from the four classes. A summary of these learners is given in Table 4.15 below.

Table 4.15 Summary of learner participants in the focus groups

4 focus groups	Human geographical region
N = 11	China

For three of the classes I spoke with three learners in the focus group interview. For one class, I spoke to two. For all four classes, I spoke to a mix of male and female learners. Information about each focus group is provided in Table 4.16 below.

Table 4.16 Demographic details of learners who participated in the focus groups

Class	Learner
W	N = 3
X	N = 3
Y	N = 2
Z	N = 3

4.10 Chapter summary

This chapter has aimed to provide a succinct overview of the research design and a clear description of the data gathering methods of the study, identifying their methodological foundations and justifying their selection. It has also aimed to explicitly address ethical considerations and issues of trustworthiness, including credibility, dependability, confirmability and transferability. A key influence of the research design was Study One, which developed out of a review of the research into classroom discourse. Study One enabled me to test the data gathering methods and data analysis. This experience was instrumental in enabling me to fine-tune the research design for Study Two in order to ensure the data gathering methods and analytical tools enabled me to answer the research questions despite the disruption caused by a global pandemic. In the field of classroom observation, chance favours only the prepared researcher.

Chapter 5 Three perspectives on the interface of knowledge recontextualization and knowledge reproduction in curriculum enactment

Enculturation may, at first, appear to have little to do with learning. But it is, in fact, what people do learning to speak, read, and write, or becoming school children, office workers, researchers, and so on. From a very early age and throughout their lives, people consciously or unconsciously adopt the behavior and belief systems of new social groups. Given the chance to observe and practice in-situ the behavior of members of a culture, people pick up relevant jargon, imitate behavior and gradually start to act in accordance with its norms. These cultural practices are recondite and extremely complex. Nevertheless, given the opportunity to observe and practice them, people adopt them with great success. [...] The ease and success with which people do this (as opposed to the intricacy of describing what it entails) belie the immense importance of the process and obscures [sic] the fact that what they pick up is a product of the ambient culture rather than of explicit learning.

Brown, Collins & Duguid (1989, p. 34)

5.1 Overview

The main purpose of this study was to understand how teachers work towards achieving course objectives concerning academic writing while simultaneously developing learners' current language and control of written genres. This chapter provides a description of the study's findings followed by a discussion and how they relate to both the theoretical frameworks used and also to classroom practice. I conducted the analysis from three different perspectives. It is important to acknowledge that I always also analyse from my own perspective as a researcher (see Chapter 4, section 4.9 for issues of trustworthiness in data analyses). The first perspective was from an institutional level that considers the course syllabus as it is presented to teachers. The second perspective was of classroom lessons with groups of learners and their teacher. This considers the enactment of the curriculum in class and as a class. The third and final perspective was of individuals, particularly the teacher. This considers individual's enactment of the syllabus.

Building on Bachman’s distinction between macro-evaluation and micro-evaluation (Bachman, 1990, p. 58), analysis at the level of the course syllabus can be termed macro-analysis (see sections 5.2 – 5.5 below), that at the level of a group of learners can be termed meso-analysis (see sections 5.6 – 5.7 below) and that at the level of individuals, either teacher or learner, can be termed micro-analysis (see sections 5.8 – 5.9 below). This model is visually represented in Figure 5.1 below.

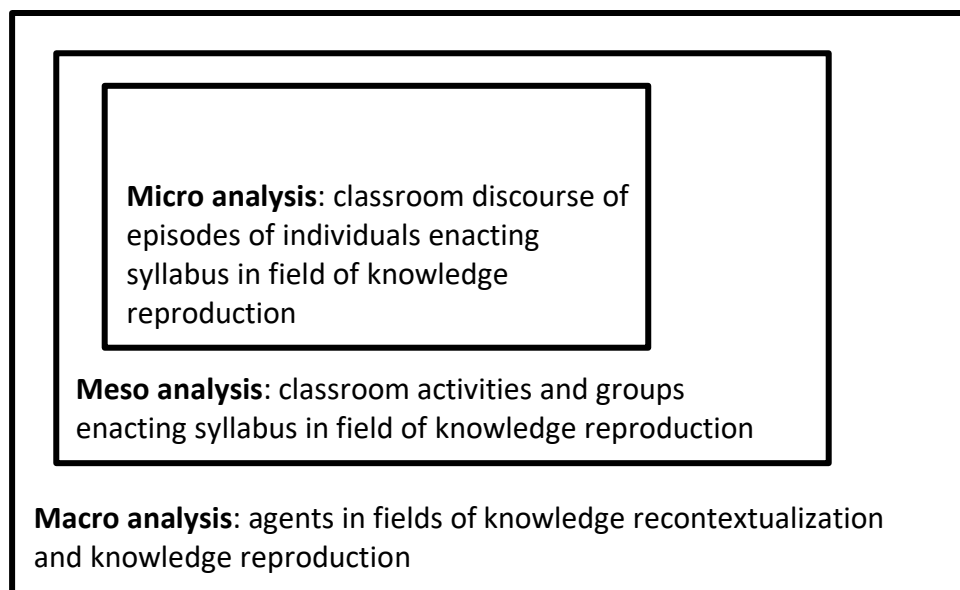


Figure 5.1 Levels and foci of analysis

I begin by presenting my findings from a macro-analysis of the syllabus, reporting on course goals, the published course unit objectives and the ELT centre’s lesson aims and writing task. I then continue with a meso-analysis of classroom activity, outlining and comparing the lessons of each teacher and including quotes that provide insights from the interviews with teachers. Still part of the meso-analysis, I then report on the semantic analysis (Maton, 2014) of the classroom discourse, which draws upon classroom recordings, transcriptions, photographs, field notes and post-lesson interviews. An important finding from the semantic profile analysis is that the experienced teachers in the study strengthen and weaken the context dependence and density of meaning of classroom discourse in classroom episodes. The semantic analysis also highlights classroom episodes that warrant closer examination. I then report on the micro-analysis of these classroom episodes using Rose’s (2018; 2020) pedagogic register analysis. This shows the role language plays in

structuring learning activities, and how the experienced teachers in the study initiated and evaluated these learning activities. The analysis also shows the structure of pedagogic exchanges, the knowledge that is exchanged and how this accumulates over exchanges (Rose, 2014, p. 1).

5.2 Insights from the macro-analysis of the syllabus: course goals, unit learning objectives, writing aims and writing tasks

In order to understand feedback on writing episodes, it is important to understand the role they play in the broader course architecture. The ELT Centre's course was based on a course published by Cambridge University Press called *Unlock*, a six-level "academic light" (Sowton & Kennedy, 2019, p. 8) English course from CEFR Pre-A1 to C1. The overall course goal is to "[b]uild the skills and language students need for their studies [...] [and] develop students' ability to think critically in an academic context" (Sowton & Kennedy, 2019, p. 8). As with most published English language teaching courses, the course syllabus is organized into a series of units of work, which follow a pattern. The teachers and learners in this study were using *Unlock 4* at CEFR B2 level. In addition to the student's book, there is a teacher's manual, interactive whiteboard software and online workbook that were all available to the teachers in the study.

Each unit has a topic (e.g. Unit 2 is education; Unit 3 is medicine) and each unit consists of materials and sequences of activities. These materials and activities are designed to meet stated aims, which in turn relate to the unit learning objectives (see Tables 5.1 and 5.2 below). I see these as 'semantic lessons' as the sequences of activities have an overall meaning to teachers. These contrast with 'administrative lessons', that is the time allocated for teaching and learning in the day, for example between 10am and 12pm. Several semantic lessons may occur in one administrative lesson, or a semantic lesson may bridge two administrative lessons. Several studies have examined how textbooks are adapted for classroom use. In addition to Batstone's in-flight study of teaching materials (2012, p. 466), other studies have evaluated the role of culture in foreign language teaching materials (Skopinskaja, 2003) and identified a number of areas where cultural content is often reshaped (or censored) by teachers (Gray, 2000).

Each unit follows a similar pattern of discussion, video-viewing, readings, language work and a writing task. These activities for Unit 2 are given in Table 5.1 below.

Table 5.1 The semantic lessons of Unlock 4 Unit 2: Education

(Sowton and Kennedy, 2019)

Unit start: Learning objectives Discussion: Unlock your knowledge pp.36-37	Video: Watch and listen pp.38-39	Reading 1: University courses: Business vs. engineering pp.40-43	Reading 2: Distance learning versus Face-to-face learning pp.44-47	Language development: Education vocabulary p.47 Academic words p.47
Writing: Critical thinking p.49	Grammar for writing: Comparison and contrast language p.50-52	Academic writing skills: Avoiding run-on sentences and comma splices Comparison and contrast essays p.53-55	Writing task p.55-56	Objectives review Wordlist p.57

The unit starts with a table identifying the learning objectives, a large image related to the topic and discussion questions on the topic, called 'Unlock your knowledge'. These

are contained in Table 5.2 below. This is followed by a video lesson. The video is on the unit topic and aims to generate interest in the topic and develop listening skills through ‘preparing to watch’, ‘while watching’ and ‘discussion’ activities. The following two lessons present and practise vocabulary required to understand the reading passages and develop reading skills. The second text also provides a model for the writing task. There follows work on language development, critical thinking, grammar for writing and academic writing skills, all in preparation for the writing task. This is then followed by the writing task which has activities for planning, writing, revising and editing the writing task. The unit ends with a review of the unit’s objectives and a wordlist.

Table 5.2 The goal and objectives of Unlock 4 Unit 2: Education

(Sowton and Kennedy, 2019)

<p>Published course goal (Unlock)</p> <p>Build the skills and language students need for their studies [...] [and] develop students’ ability to think critically in an academic context. (Sowton & Kennedy, 2019, p. 8)</p>
<p>Unlock 4, Unit 2 ‘Education’: relevant unit objectives</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • <i>Critical thinking</i>: Analyse similarities and differences; use a Venn diagram to plan a comparison-contrast essay. • <i>Grammar</i>: Use transitions to show comparison and contrast; use adverb clauses of contrast. • <i>Academic writing skills</i>: Avoid run-on sentences and comma splices; write a comparison and contrast essay. • <i>Writing task</i>: Write a comparison and contrast essay. (Teacher’s book, p. 416)
<p>Unlock 4, Unit 2 ‘Education’, writing task learning objectives</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Use a table to plan the content of an essay discussing similarities and differences between studying a language and studying Mathematics • Write a thesis statement for your essay • Draft an essay comparing studying a language and studying Mathematics • Review and revise the content and structure of your essay • Review and revise the use of language in your essay (Teacher’s book, p. 421)
<p>Writing task</p> <p>“Discuss the various differences and similarities between studying a language and mathematics.” (Sowton & Kennedy, 2019, p. 55)</p>

The activities are sequenced into lessons, which in turn make up each unit, which in turn make up the course. Lessons have learning objectives stated in the teacher’s manual, which are detailed specifications of the unit learning objectives, which in turn are detailed specifications of the overall course goal.

In parallel to the published course, the ELT centre has produced a Teacher Handbook (ICTE, 2019) for the course. This document provides teachers with background information about the course, such as the course rationale, overall aim and entry requirements. It also gives information about course assessment, provides a weekly program overview and lists learning outcomes. The ELT Centre course goal specifically addresses the pathway role the course provides for learners. The course goal, writing aims and writing task, while broadly similar, are different from those stated in the published course. These differences will be discussed further in Sections 5.3 and 5.4 below. For now, it is useful to see that, while they align, the ELT Centre has overlain its own goal and aims over those of the published course. These are contained in Table 5.3 below.

Table 5.3 The goal and objectives of ELT Centre’s Handbook Unit 2: Education
(ICTE, 2019)

<p>ELT Centre course goal</p> <p>The overall aim of the program is to improve the students' English language proficiency in all four macro-skills to the level required for the UQ degree program entry selected by the student. (ICTE, p. 4)</p>
<p>ELT Centre handbook Unit 2 writing aims</p> <p>For learners to:</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Write an introduction 2. Write better topic sentences 3. Compare and contrast (and adverb phrases) 4. Outline differences and similarities 5. Answering a question fully (ICTE, p. 11)
<p>ELT Centre writing task</p> <p>“Outline the various differences and similarities between studying a language and mathematics.”</p>

The ELT Centre writing task is a variation on the published task. This requires learners to classify and describe the subjects through comparing and contrasting them, an example of a report genre (Martin & Rose, 2012, p. 130). In this classifying report, learners subclassify two subjects with respect to their similarities and differences having completed work on this in the ‘Critical Thinking’ lesson, in which they completed mind maps on their own experiences of studying these subjects and completed a Venn diagram to analyse similarities and differences. Classifying reports “subclassify members of a general class” (Martin & Rose, 2008, p. 144) and the stages of the genre are Classification followed by Description. These are presented to learners in the planning activity of the writing task as displayed in Table 5.4 below.

Table 5.4 Suggested organization of essay

(Sowton and Kennedy, 2019, p. 55)

Introductory paragraph:	background information, thesis statement
Body paragraph 1:	differences
Body paragraph 2:	similarities
Concluding paragraph:	your opinion

In addition, the ELT Centre includes a Review and Extension lesson strand with two hours a week recommended for giving learners “the opportunity to consolidate and extend the language and macro-skills work” (ICTE, 2019, p. 6). The Handbook suggests a focus on the following three activities. Firstly, it suggests a Writing Workshop in which writing tasks can be completed in class time (or for homework) with learners working “on their writing individually and/or in groups so that face-to-face feedback to individuals, groups and/or the whole class can be given in class time” (ICTE, 2019, p.6) with peer-checking and face-to-face feedback recommended. The second activity is Vocabulary and Grammar Review and Extension to “further consolidate, review and extend upon” (ICTE, 2019, p. 6) the work covered in the course. The final activity is Learning Activity Review which gives teachers time to review and discuss online learning activities on Blackboard that were introduced to learners at the start of the course. It is during this Review and Extension lesson where the teachers in the study provided feedback to their classes on the writing tasks.

The learners' written response to the writing task is the culmination of the work they complete over the unit. All the lessons in the unit work towards preparing learners for the final writing task. Starting with their current knowledge in the initial discussion, generating interest through the video and then building field knowledge through the two readings. Learners plan, write a first draft, revise and edit this. They then give their essay to the teacher for marking. The teachers in the study then read the learners' written work and mark it using correction codes, corrections and comments. These annotated essays and what the teachers learnt through the process of marking them then become the key elements in the writing feedback lessons. Some of the planned activities are directly related to the marked and annotated essays while others are derived from them. The activities and the sequencing are described in the next section.

5.3 Discussion of the macro-analysis of the syllabus

The writing tasks in the course do not resemble the writing learners will be required to do in their university study. At 300 words, they are short, non-discipline specific and do not require in-text or end-text referencing. As mentioned above, they are 'academic light'. They are on topics that relate to disciplines or Bernstein's regions of applied disciplinary knowledge (2000, p. 52) but only to a degree of technicality that a non-expert would be able to write about, such as a school-leaver or learner about to start their studies. It is worth noting that these learners have been offered places on their respective courses but do not meet the minimum language requirements. This pathway can be seen as preparing them for a selection test (Bachman, 1990, p. 58) because the information provided by the test leads to decisions on whether learners are ready and should enter their degree programs based on English language requirements. This can be contrasted with placement tests, which provide information for decisions about appropriate groupings of learners or diagnostic tests that are used to inform discussions about learners' strengths and weaknesses (Bachman, 1990, pp.58-60). Decisions about the selection of learners also contrasts with progress tests used for formative assessment that provide information for decisions about changes in curriculum enactment and pedagogy (Nitko, 1988) and tests based on course content to provide information for decisions about achievement used for the summative evaluation of learner progress at the end of a course of study (Nitko, 1988). The analysis

raises questions concerning the primary purpose of the writing tasks in the syllabus. The main purpose appears to be preparing learners for the writing tasks in the end of course selection test. This may be contrasted with an alternative purpose, namely using the writing lessons during the course to prepare and socialize learners into the social practices of writing in higher education (Duff, 2010). To examine this issue further, a brief discussion of the test is useful.

The term 'test construct' refers to those aspects of the candidate's underlying knowledge or skill that are the target of measurement, or more simply, what is being measured by the test (McNamara, 2000, p.137). The target language use (TLU) domain refers to test-takers future language use, specifically the "situation or context in which the test taker will be using the language outside of the test itself" (Bachman & Palmer, 1996, p. 18). This is important because, in language testing, "our primary purpose is to make inferences about test takers' language ability, and in most cases we are not interested in generalizing to just any, or all language use domains. Rather, we want to make inferences that generalize to those specific domains in which the test takers are likely to need to use language" (Bachman & Palmer, 1996, p. 44). The learners in this study will use language in their writing at the university but first they must meet the writing requirements of the selection test. The test measures the learners' writing through a 300-word essay. While argument genres are common in higher education (Gardner & Nesi, 2013), 300-word non-disciplinary 'mini-essays' are not. They "bear some semblance to the predominant genre of university study – the essay" (Moore & Morton, 1999, p.74) but there are a number of important differences, such as the use of prior knowledge versus using prescribed research processes and the different emphasis placed on 'real world' versus abstract entities (Moore & Morton, 1999, p.74). Both types of writing share the written mode in common but the absence of academic conventions in the writing test (e.g. such as referencing) is another difference. Finally, writing in a non-technical field to a language examiner differs from the discipline specific writing required in higher education. In other words, while there are similarities in genre and mode, the field and tenor of the writing test are notably different.

The main issue here is not if the end of course test is a valid and reliable test of the test's construct. Rather, the issue concerns the TLU domain, which on the one hand is discipline specific writing in higher education (Hyland, 2002) and on the other is writing short, non-disciplinary 'mini-essays'. This raises questions concerning the appropriateness of

the test construct in this context. This also raises questions about the effects of the test on teaching and learning, in what has been termed 'washback' (Wall & Alderson, 1993; Alderson & Wall, 1993) an aspect of impact that is "far more complex and thorny than simply the effect of testing on teaching" (Bachman & Palmer, 1996, p. 31). In this context the syllabus focuses on training learners to respond to writing test prompts rather than, arguably, classroom work on writing at university that would be more relevant and directly applicable to the learners' future studies. Stepping back to consider this issue from a broader perspective, it becomes apparent that other factors are at play that exert powerful influences on these testing considerations, namely the role of language testing in border security and immigration policy (Harding et al., 2020) and the commodification of higher education (Ding & Bruce, 2017, p.30). Measuring English language requirements specified by visa conditions and maintaining an institution's share of the lucrative international student market appears to exercise a greater influence on these considerations than the linguistic and educational needs of learners. These factors have been exerting an ever-greater influence on higher education in recent decades and, as a consequence, "universities are viewed as commercial businesses to be run like commercial businesses with students as consumers, faculty members as employees delivering services to them, and professional managers directing the operation (Croucher & Lacy, 2022, p.292). It is against this backdrop that language teachers and learners must exchange knowledge and values in the classroom.

In summary, these writing lessons and feedback on writing are primarily about developing and measuring language proficiency to meet entry requirements. However, argumentation is a feature of these writing tasks and is relevant to learners' future studies. The point here is that while the writing tasks do not resemble future learning tasks, they still have the potential to be useful to learners in the hands of expert teachers. Familiarity with argument genres, their purpose and organisation in English academic (albeit light) discourse can serve learners well in their studies when explicit links are made between the two. However, completing activities around these genres, such as analysing models and writing their own responses, raises language awareness of features that are required for success in the final selection test and are primarily for this purpose. This relates to established arguments concerning English for General Academic Purposes (Blue, 1988; Jordan, 1997) and English for Specific Academic Purposes (Flowerdew & Peacock, 2001) and the specificity

and discipline engagement in the syllabus (Hyland, 2002; Hyland & Hamp-Lyons, 2002) as discussed in the description of this pathway course in Chapter 4, Section 4.3.4.

A final point to note is that the course goals of the published course and the course goals of the pathway program are different. The published course has weekly formative assessment tests and we might expect the program to end with summative assessment that would evaluate learning. However, this pathway program ends with a Selection test (Bachman, 1990, p.58). The final test has a duality as it may be seen as a summative evaluation of learning on the course *and* as providing information for decisions about learners' readiness for their future degree program. This duality creates a tension between the test purposes in what I term the "summation-selection strain". The final test is a measure of English language proficiency. One way of explaining the difference in these two course goals concerns the difference in purpose. The published course aims to "build the skills and language students need for their studies [...] [and] develop students' ability to think critically in an academic context" (Sowton & Kennedy, 2019, p. 8). The focus here is on learning and language development. The ELT Centre course's overall aim "is to improve the students' English language proficiency in all four macro-skills to the level required for the [university] degree program entry selected by the student" (ICTE, p. 4). The focus here is squarely on the selection at the end of the course and successfully completing this selection test. These seemingly disparate aims are related because language development is necessary for success in the test, just as test success entails language development. The important difference is in what is privileged and foregrounded and how this is achieved (i.e. Through changes to the syllabus). The difference is noteworthy enough, from the ELT Centre's perspective, to warrant a reformulation of the overall course goal.

5.3.1 Discussion of fields of recontextualization and production: multiple agents and sites

The organisation and subsequent reorganizing of the syllabus may be seen as various actors exercising their control over the course and its goals. The relationships and interactions are complex, as are the influences of actors. As discussed in Chapter 3, the ELT Centre may be viewed as a field of knowledge reproduction. This is where pedagogic practice occurs (Maton, 2014, p.47; Bernstein, 1990/2003, p. 200). The social practices of actors in the ELT

Centre represent struggles for the resources and status within this field of practice (Maton, 2014, p. 44). My macro analysis highlights this struggle between the publisher and the ELT Centre, or in Maton's terms, between actors in the field of knowledge recontextualization and knowledge reproduction. This site of teaching and learning is a place where knowledge is contested. Maton's languages of legitimation "conceptualize the practices of actors as strategic stances that proclaim measures of achievement" (Maton, 2014, p. 45) and legitimation codes are their organizing principles. The Legitimation Device, one aspect of which in this thesis is termed the semantic-pedagogic device (or SP device), creates an arena of struggle (Maton, 2014, p. 51) where knowledge is contested.

The relationships between the publisher, ELT Centre managers, teachers and learners can be modelled in the following way, using the notion of the implied author (Booth, 1961) and the implied reader (Booth, 1961) from literary criticism. Here, the implied author may be understood as the author evoked by a text and the implied reader as the recipient imagined by the author that is fixed in the text. Adapting this to a course embodied in a course book, outside of the course we have the real writers, namely the curriculum planners, writers and editors who work for the publisher to produce the book. We also have the real teachers who plan and deliver lessons, using the semiotic resources in the course book, and the learners in the classes. In between these 'real' agents and evoked by the course book, we have the implied writer(s) by whom I mean not the real writer of the course but the 'writer persona' the real writing team wants the teachers and learner to encounter when using the course resources. In addition, instead of an implied reader, we have intended users, namely the vision of teachers and learners the writing team had when writing the course that is fixed in the text. This is illustrated visually in Figure 5.2 below (adapted from Chatman, 1978, p.51).

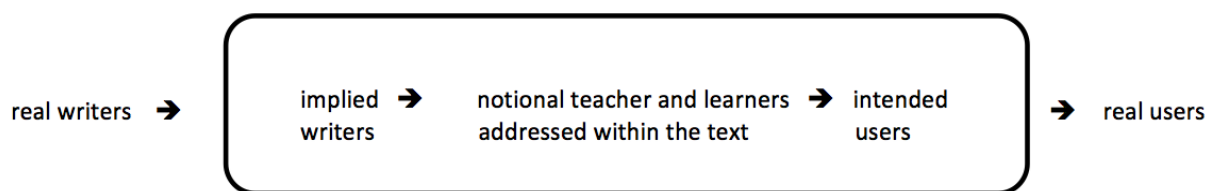


Figure 5.2 Published course book

The intended users are fixed in the text by the instructions and teaching suggestions given in the course book and the teacher’s book. From these instructions and teaching ideas, the users come to know the implied writers. The printed instructions guide users to use the course. They encode the suggested teaching methodology. They provide advice for using the course resources, how to approach reading passages and how to conduct activities. Using genre pedagogy (Rose, 2020; Rose & Martin, 2012; Martin & Rose, 2008), we can take a linguistic perspective of these course resources, reading passage and classroom activities and conceptualize them as genres and registers (see Figure 5.3 below). The knowledge genres of tertiary preparation (i.e. argument genres as reading passages and writing task answers that model the writing genres that the learners are seeking to develop their control over for assessment purposes) and the multimodal curriculum genres of classroom practice (Rose, 2020; Christie, 2002). Curriculum genres consist of two registers, a register of knowledge and values and a pedagogic register of activities, relations and modalities. This is illustrated visually in the diagram below.

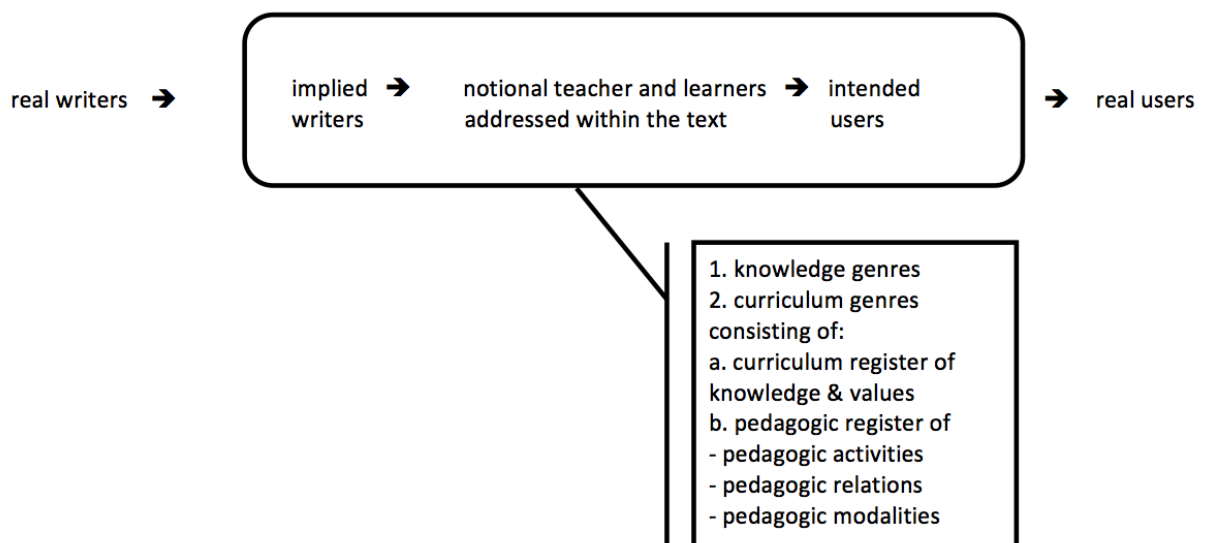


Figure 5.3 Course as genres and registers

(informed by Rose, 2020, p. 239)

The real users engage in these classroom practices but they are couched within the implied writers and intended users of the course book. In their classroom enactment, either agent, that is the teacher or the learners, may be compliant or resistant to the intentions of the original. From the teacher at the planning stage to the learner in the classroom, these agents may choose to incorporate or oppose the curriculum. As Barnes notes, efforts “to develop new curricula may be abortive if curriculum development is taken to exclude examination of the part played by teachers in the curriculum, which is after all not a thing but an activity” (1971, p. 11). This may be cause for concern for the official recontextualizing field or may be cause for hope for individual teachers or learners whose values do not align with those of the curriculum.

The macro analysis has shown that the teachers and learners do not interact with the published course directly. The ELT Centre is an intermediary agent, with characteristics of the official recontextualizing field (ORF) and the pedagogic recontextualizing field (PRF). The teacher and learners came to the published course through the ELT Centre’s recontextualization, which in this case involves changes to the course goals, writing tasks and assessment. This relationship with the ELT Centre as an intermediary recontextualizing field (IRF) is illustrated visually in Figure 5.4 below.

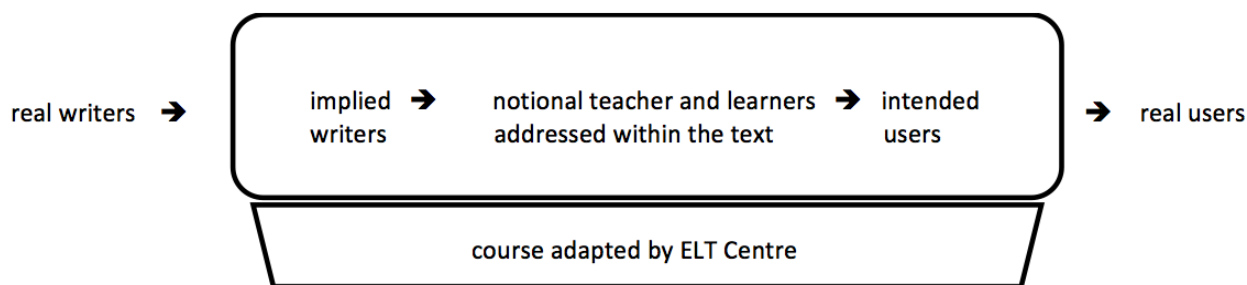


Figure 5.4 Influence of ELT Centre on published course as intermediary recontextualizing field

5.4 Knowledge and recontextualization

This study is an example of an enacted curriculum and therefore provides empirical evidence to ‘talk back’ to theory. This is ‘abductive reasoning’ (Douven, 2021; Wodak & Meyer, 2016, p.14; KhosraviNik & Unger, 2016, p. 216). This macro-level analysis focuses on the field of reproduction and its relationship with the field of recontextualization. That is to say it examines the teaching and learning that occurs on the program in the ELT Centre and the origins of the course from the publisher.

The analysis suggests that the interactions between the fields are complex and all agents across the arena are engaged in a struggle for legitimacy and control of the arena. Before collecting and analysing data, I might have made the assumption that the course publisher was in the field of recontextualization and the ELT Centre, teachers and learners in the field of reproduction. However, the roles and relationships are complex, and each agent appears to be engaged in the process of recontextualization.

In this section I discuss the course goal, the published course’s unit objectives and the ELT Centre’s lesson aims and writing task in terms of the semantic-pedagogic device and recontextualization. The ELT Centre goal strengthens context dependence of the course. The ELT Centre’s recontextualization of the published course more closely aligns it with the educational needs, demands and requirements of the particular university, entry requirements, course, teacher and learners, that is to say the particular and specific educational context. As agents responsible for the program, its curriculum and syllabus, the publisher and the ELT Centre exercise similar spheres of control over the course goal, unit

objectives, lesson objectives and writing tasks. Their spheres of influence extend further to include the activities that are written into the syllabus and their implied learning cycles (Martin & Rose, 2012; Rose, 2014; Rose 2018). While the publisher is writing for a range of teaching and learning contexts, the ELT Centre can reshape the course to its own particular context. This is evident in the case data with the reformulation of the course goal and adaptations to unit objectives and writing tasks.

The spheres of control are indicated in Table 5.5 below. This shows how each agent exercises control over different elements of the curriculum. The publisher's sphere of control covers all the elements in the published course but not activities around the writing task nor the learning cycles of classroom discourse. The ELT Centre recontextualizes knowledge from the published course, selecting and rearranging it in preparation for pedagogic discourse. The ELT Centre's control has been exercised in this case over the course goal, unit objectives and writing tasks. However, the ELT Centre's intentions will not necessarily play out in the classroom as intended because the curriculum has the potential to be rearranged and transformed in lesson planning by teachers and in its enactment in the classroom by teachers and learners. The teacher has control over the lesson objectives, activities around writing task feedback and learning cycles. However, in the case data the teachers had little direct control over the other course elements. Finally, we come to the learners. They have little direct control over the course elements although there are formal and informal mechanisms for them to provide feedback to teachers and the ELT Centre about curriculum elements such as end of course evaluations. The learners' main area of control is in the classroom as participants in the enactment of the curriculum. Should they decide not to participate in learning cycles or resist the enactment of interpersonal roles in the classroom discourse, then the enterprise is compromised, leading to missed objectives and goals.

Table 5.5 Agents' spheres of control over curriculum elements

Curriculum element: Agent:	course goal	unit objectives	lesson objectives	writing task	activities around writing task feedback	learning cycles
Publisher	✓	✓	✓	✓		
ELT Centre	✓	✓		✓		
Teacher			✓		✓	✓
Student					✓	✓

The process of knowledge curricularization and pedagogization involves a complex interplay between fields across the arena of struggle as identified by Maton (2014, p.51). In the case data, this can occur in more formal processes of curriculum development, initiated by the publisher or ELT Centre and involving some or all agents or simply through the process of enacting the curriculum with teachers and learners. The agents and their spheres of influence are heuristically illustrated in Figure 5.5 below by a series of circles, each one representing an agent's sphere of control in the arena of struggle created by the epistemic-pedagogic device. The first circle represents the publisher, the second circle the ELT Centre, the third circle the teacher and the fourth circle the learner.

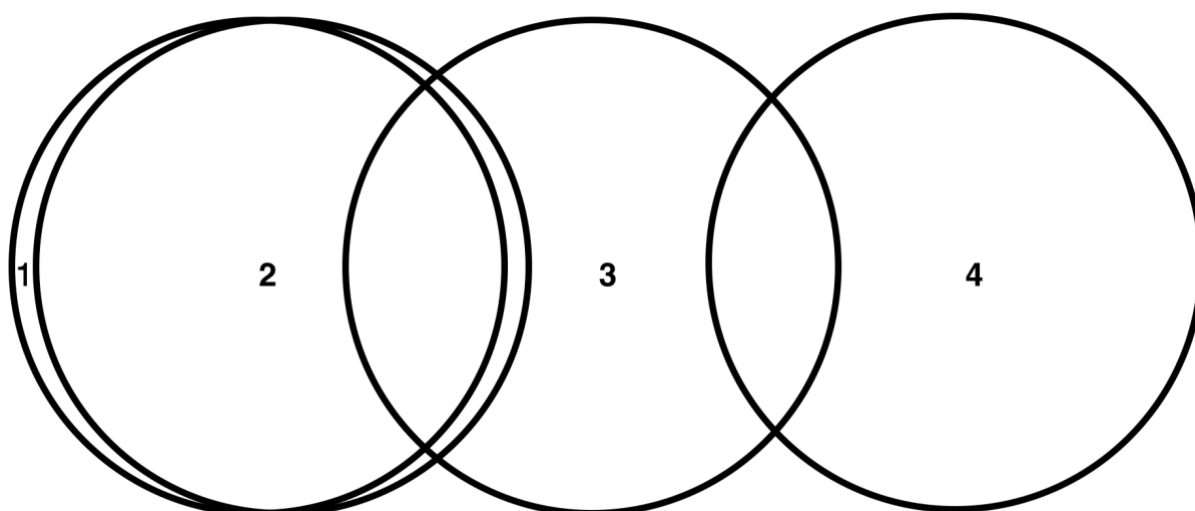


Figure 5.5 Spheres of control

1: Publisher; 2: ELT Centre; 3: Teacher; 4: Learner(s)

The interlocking circles indicate the overlapping spheres of control over the curriculum in the case data. The publisher and ELT Centre are shown on the left and are more closely aligned. On the right, there is the learner who enacts the curriculum with other learners (and the teacher) in the same class. In the centre is the teacher, who links the curriculum developers to the learners. It is the teacher that enacts the curriculum of knowledge and values (with the learners) through pedagogic relations, pedagogic activities and pedagogic modalities (Rose, 2020).

Parts of the curriculum can be more directly controlled by some agents. This is illustrated in Figure 5.6 below. For example, course goals (A), unit objectives (B), lesson objectives (C) and writing tasks (D) are controlled by the publisher and, through further recontextualization, the ELT Centre. A teacher has little control over course goals (A) unit objectives (B) and writing tasks (D). However, the teacher does control the planning and delivery of lessons and therefore exercises control over lesson objectives (C). Classroom activities, particularly feedback activities that are contingent on learners' individual written responses (E: activities around writing class feedback) and the interactions that occur in the classroom involving interpersonal interactions between teacher and learners (F: learning cycles) are in the sphere of control of teacher and learners. This is the sphere in which learners exercise most control.

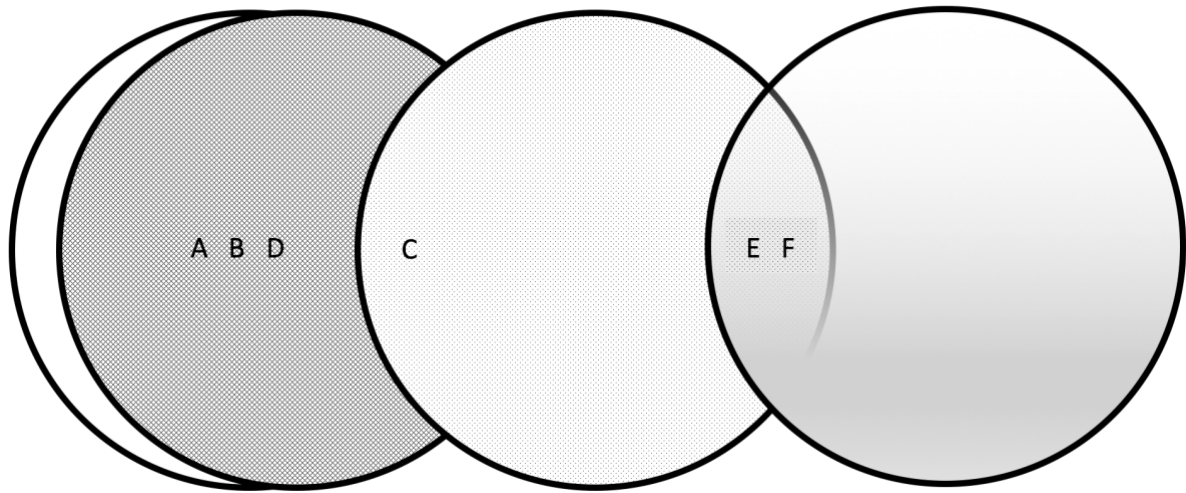


Figure 5.6 Agent control of curriculum elements

A: Course goal; B: Unit objective; C: Lesson objective; D: Writing task; E: Activities around writing class feedback; F: learning cycles

There are two further points to note. Firstly, the influence of each agent extends beyond the sphere of control. For example, publishers influence learning cycles by designing activities onto course materials and include accompanying instructions and perhaps even recommendations for teachers in companion teachers' books that are published alongside the course book. Target learners in general influence the course goals set by publishers and the specific learners in any given teaching and learning context can influence the course goals, as is the case in this study with the ELT Centre's revised course goal. Secondly, as the previous point about learners illustrates, the direction of control and influence is not one way but can occur in both directions and between different agents. For example, a publisher may consult other agents when revising the course for a second edition, meeting with teachers to better understand their views of the course and its material. This occurred in the course book used in this study. The second edition had an advisory panel of 37 ELT professionals from around the world and their "support, expertise and input throughout the development of [the] Second Edition" (Sowton & Kennedy, 2019, p.208) is acknowledged by the publisher. This complex set of relationships is recognized by Maton (2014) in his conceptualization of the epistemic-semantic-pedagogic device.

The course goal (A), unit objectives (B), lesson objectives (C) and writing tasks are controlled by the publisher and, through recontextualization, the ELT Centre. A teacher has little control over these. However, the teacher does control the planning and delivery of lessons and therefore exercises control over lesson objectives (C). Classroom activities, particularly feedback activities that are contingent on learners' individual written responses (E: Activities around writing class feedback) and the interactions that occur in the classroom involving interpersonal interactions between teacher and learners (F: learning cycles) are in the sphere of control of the teacher and the learners. This is the sphere in which learners exercise most control. For clarity, the spheres of control have been separated but their alignment is much closer. Teachers may be employed as course writers by the publishers or consulted in the editing process. The academic managers at the ELT Centre also have a background in teaching. This closer alignment of the spheres of control is illustrated in Figure 5.7 below. The relationships between each agent and field and the processes of knowledge recontextualization and reproduction are extremely complex. The complexities of the field of knowledge reproduction are examined further in the meso and micro analyses.

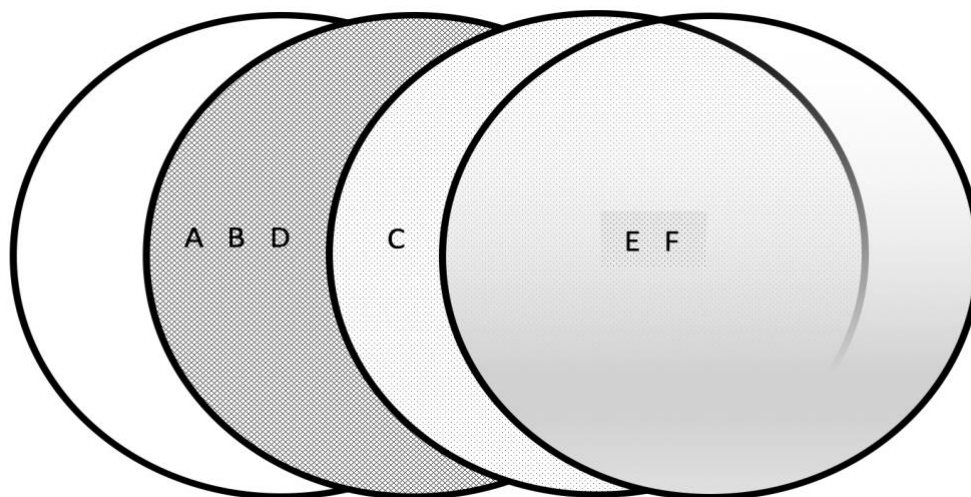


Figure 5.7 Closer alignment of spheres of control over curriculum elements

A: Course goal; B: Unit objective; C: Lesson objective; D: Writing task; E: Activities around writing class feedback; F: learning cycles

Examining who controls what can reveal who has agency over different curriculum elements. In terms of the publisher controlling the course syllabus and course structure,

there are implications for teaching methodology because sequencing activities into lessons and units comes with clear suggestions on what to do and how to do it in the classroom. See Table 5.6 below for the hierarchical organization of pedagogic activity. However, the overall influence of the publisher is over the goals, outcomes, materials and activities. The ELT Centre has similar control (and a veto of published course selection) but not as broad in range. The ELT Centre's control is concerned primarily with adapting the published course's goals, outcomes, materials and activities to the context of the Centre. Moving on to teachers, they have less freedom to adapt or reject at the level of goals and outcomes and more freedom at the level of each lesson, with the ability to adapt or reject materials and activities. However, teachers' view on published course materials can influence the ELT Centre's choice of published materials. Finally, the learners are a participant in classroom discourse and as an integral part of this relationship their compliance is essential. More generally, the learner has a choice as to whether to study at the ELT Centre or not although, again, there are likely to be complex factors at play in their decision to study in English at an Australian university.

Table 5.6 Hierarchical organization of pedagogic activity
(Rose, 2014, p.20)

curriculum macro-genre (composed of distinct genres with their own staging) (Rose, 2014, p. 5)	curriculum genre (realized by a lesson)	lesson stage (consisting of learning activities)	learning activities (consisting of learning cycles)	learning cycles (consisting of moves)
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5.5 Discussion of the macro-analysis of the syllabus: compliant and resistant enactments of the curriculum

The macro-analysis suggests complex relationships involved in knowledge recontextualization and reproduction in the curriculum's process of construction to enactment. The overlaying of goals and objectives as context dependence is increased from

published material for particular 'markets' (i.e. countries and teaching and learning contexts) which is then brought closer to the teaching and learning context through the ELT Centre's handbook (institutional contextualization) which is then recontextualized by particular teachers for particular classes. This raises the question of whether these stakeholders, their values and purposes are aligned. The agents may be compliant and all aligned and, as it were, pulling in the same direction or one or more agent may be resistant and out of alignment.

In the heuristic in Figure 5.8, we can see a compliant enactment of the curriculum. Again, each circle represents an agent in the arena of struggle created by the epistemic-pedagogic device (Maton, 2014). The size of these circles represents the relative power and resources available to each agent. However, this heuristic is an approximation that does not capture the complexity of these relationships (e.g. publishers are to an extent dependent on customers purchasing their textbooks). The largest circle represents the publisher, in this case Cambridge University Press, that employs editors, writers and employs digital corpora to inform the development of its course materials. The second circle represents the ELT Centre with less power and resources than the publisher. By choosing a published course, the centre is aligning itself with the knowledge and values of the published curriculum even though there may be changes as it is adapted to a particular context, as discussed above. The third circle represents the teacher, who here is also aligned with the knowledge and values of the curriculum. Finally, the small circles represent three learners who are compliant in the enactment of the curriculum. In this example, all the agents are aligned and compliant.

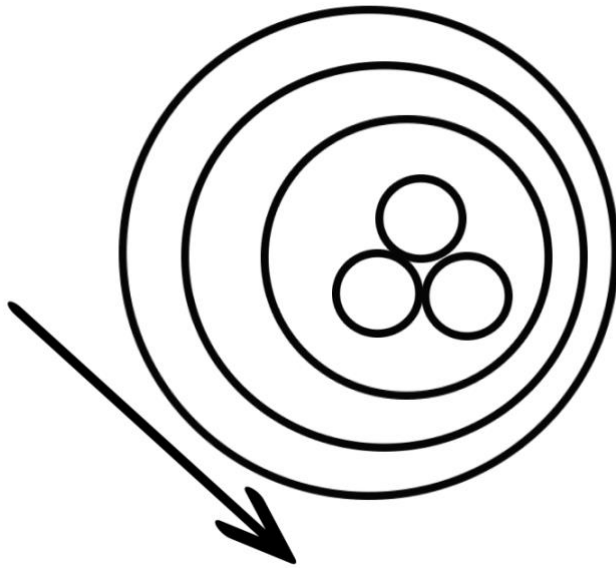


Figure 5.8 Aligned agents in curriculum enactment

In the second heuristic, Figure 5.9 below, the circles also represent the publisher, ELT Centre, teacher and learners. However, in this hypothetical situation the teacher is not fully aligned with the curriculum and the learners are resistant, compromising the curriculum and potentially thwarting objectives and goals. A teacher using the course materials in an oppositional manner could resist course goals and unit objectives with implications for learners. This resistance may be willful or accidental misalignment. Intentional resistance occurs when agents knowingly resist by, for example, changing lesson objectives or activities. Unintentional misalignment might be more likely due to inexperience, ignorance or lack of insight. This could be when less experienced teachers adapt materials or activities that produce unforeseen or unintended consequences for other agents. For example,

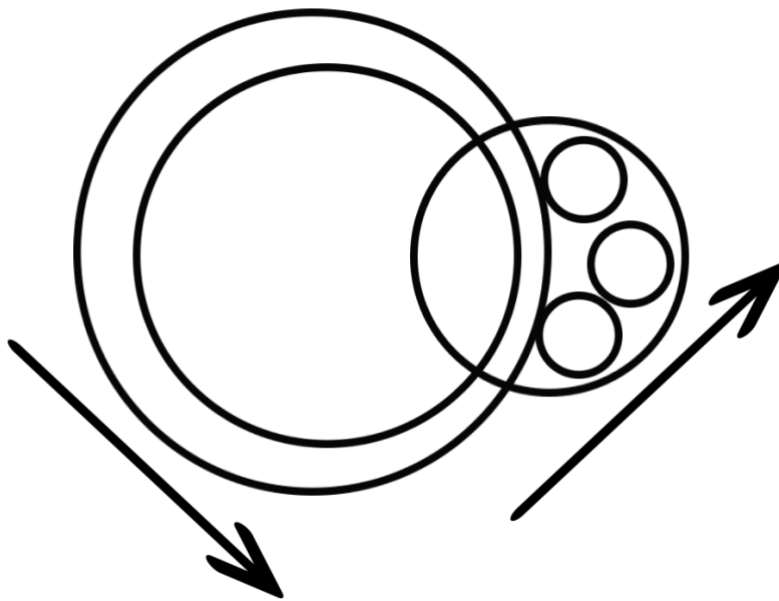


Figure 5.9 Misaligned agents in curriculum enactment

substantial changes to, or even the replacement of, activities are likely to impact the achievement of unit objectives. In addition, assessment tasks are often closely related to the syllabus. While a teacher may have control to change pedagogic activities, they often do not have the same freedom to change assessments, resulting in less successful assessment outcomes for learners.

The difference between the two figures is the difference between a compliant versus a resistant enactment of the syllabus. Hypothetically, any of the agents may be misaligned. Teacher enactment at the planning stage then leads to either a cooperative or oppositional enactment of the course. This relates to lesson aims, classroom activities, suggestions for delivery, instructions and the setting up of classroom activities. As explained in the meso and micro analysis below, this may be understood linguistically as knowledge genres and curriculum genres (Rose, 2020, p.240). The curriculum genres involve two registers: first, a pedagogic register of pedagogic activities, pedagogic modalities and pedagogic relations (Rose, 2020, p. 240). The second register is a curriculum register of knowledge and values. These are “exchanged through the pedagogic register and abducted by learners” (Rose, 2020, p.240). I understand the term abducted to mean inferred, formed and adopted by learners.

The syllabus and course materials presented to teachers for use in the classroom are particular instances of text. As such, they contain meanings afforded by these instances (Martin & Rose, 2007, p.310). These meanings afforded by an instance are open to a range of interpretations. The reading, or in this case the enactment, of a text may be understood as subjectified meaning. This can be understood and modelled in terms of Halliday's cline of instantiation, illustrated in the Table 5.7 below.

Table 5.7 Instantiation from system to reading

(adapted from Martin and Rose, 2007, p. 310)

Cline of instantiation	Meanings
system	generalized meaning potential
register	semantic sub-potential
text type (course books)	generalized actual
text (C.U.P.'s <i>Unlock</i> course)	affording instance
reading (syllabus enactment)	subjectified meaning

This ends in the classroom in learning cycles. These exchanges are co-constructed between teacher and learners. This highlights the learners' role. Each learner may experience this differently. This resonates with a study into learner perspectives of success in an EAP writing course (Basturkmen & Lewis, 2002). The study reports that students attending the same course experienced success differently, with one noting development in terms of expressing ideas in academic writing and another in terms of a greater understanding of academic writing conventions. The findings suggest that the same activity has different meanings for different learners (Basturkmen, 2006, p. 107). Similarly, learners might not comply with course goals and unit objectives. In this case, although they might interact with teachers, they would not develop the knowledge and values of the curriculum. This misalignment might be an unintentional consequence of misunderstanding (e.g. a lack of knowledge and experience in teachers) or a deliberate consequence from an act of defiance and subversion. This may be cause for alarm for agents involved in setting course goals but a cause for hope among teachers and learners who find fault in the curriculum, its

knowledge and values. This is worthy of further investigation but it is beyond the scope of the present study.

The macro-analysis suggests a range of ways in which Semantics can be enacted in the exploration of curriculum and classroom. These include the writing task essay (on the topic of education and studying the subjects mathematics and a language) reified as a pedagogic tool; the first order discourse of the physical classroom and the use of physical resources and setting up activities; the second order discourse of the writing classroom in which the pedagogic tool is used along with classroom discourse that uses metalanguage and writing skills, and third order discourses used to bring examples from other discourses into the classroom discourse. These discourses have different configurations of register variables (see Table 5.8 below) and occur in a complex pattern of shifts in dimensions of variation in tenor, field and mode (Martin & Rose, 2008).

This complex pattern of shifts in dimensions of register variables (Martin & Rose, 2008) highlights the complexity of the role of language in these case data. The tenor is unequal due to the nature of the teacher-student relationship. It is close in classroom use but distant in the writing task. This point of difference between the writing tasks and classroom discourse is also evident between the two in the field with the writing task non-activity structured and the classroom discourse related to the physical classroom usually activity structured. Finally, in the writing task, language constitutes the field whereas it accompanies the field in the classroom discourse related to the physical classroom and the setting up of activities. The discourses of the writing classroom and further explanations display a greater range of register variables depending on the particular pedagogic activity or example. This complexity is investigated further as we now turn to the meso-analysis of the enacted syllabus.

Table 5.8 Dimensions of variation in register

Register variables:	Tenor	Field	Mode
Orders of discourse:			
Writing task essay as pedagogic tool	Unequal/distant	Non-activity structured/ general (and non-technical)	Constituting field Monologue
First order discourse: physical classroom	Unequal/close	Activity structured/specific	Accompanying field Dialogue
Second order discourse: writing classroom	Unequal/close	Non-activity structured/ specific (learner's essay) & general (metalinguage)	Accompanying field (talk around essay) & constituting field (writing development) Dialogue
Third order discourses: additional examples and explanations	Unequal/close	Variable depending on example	Constituting field Dialogue

5.6 Insights from the meso-analysis of the enacted syllabus: The case of one course and four teachers

This chapter has so far described and discussed the macro analysis of the teaching and learning context and the syllabus analysis. These findings are relevant to the study because they provide the educational framework within which teachers plan and teach their lessons. The course goals and unit outcomes provide guidance for teachers in identifying lesson aims, selecting and sequencing classroom activities and evaluating lessons and learners. This section now describes and discusses the meso-analysis of the four classes. It examines how teachers use feedback to achieve course goals while responding to learners as a group and as individuals. It begins by reporting on the main differences in the writing feedback lessons of the participants before identifying the underlying similarities, which lie in the purposes of classroom activities.

5.6.1 Differences in lessons

Initial findings suggest that the experienced teachers plan and deliver writing feedback lessons that are very different. The following overview of what teachers did in feedback lessons shows a variety of different activities. Teacher W started the lesson by reviewing the writing task question, ensuring learners understood it. This was followed by an error correction group work activity based on errors from the learners' essays, with learners working together to correct the sentences and write their answers on small white boards. Teacher W then praised learners, pointing out good topic sentences. The following activities used a model essay, with learners assembling the cut-up model (see Figure 5.10) and then completing a model essay gap fill focusing on linking words.

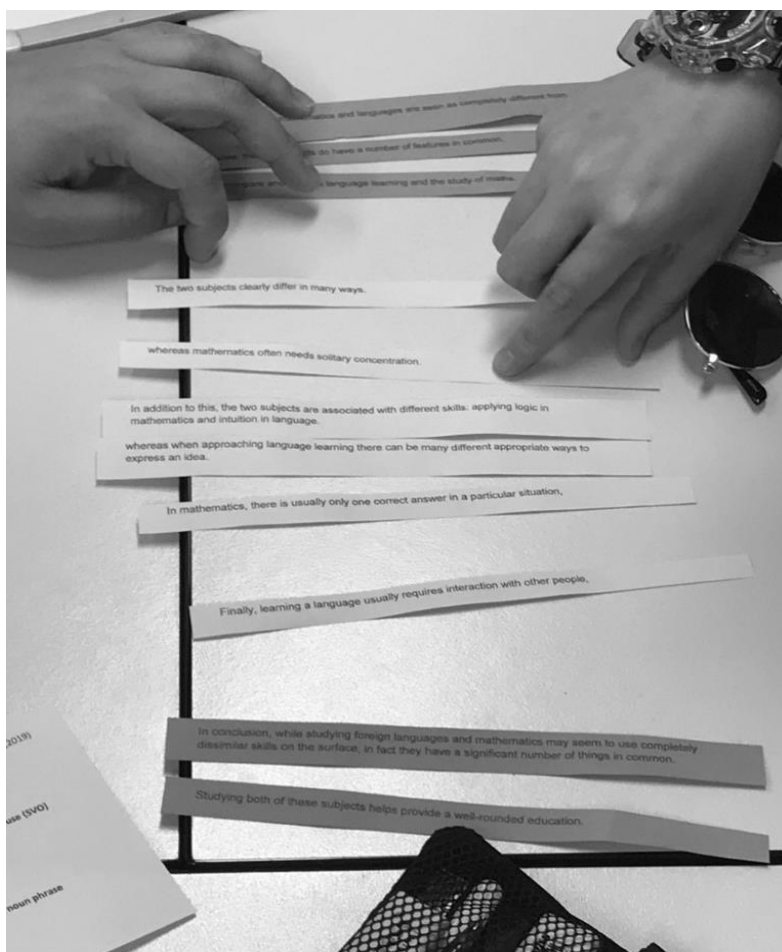


Figure 5.10 Model essay jumble (image: author's own)

The final activity involved Teacher W returning learners' essays, walking around the class and providing one-to-one feedback. An overview of these activities is provided in Table 5.9

below. The numbers in the left table column shows the sequence of the classroom activities (1 – 7) and the right column indicates the activity type by both letters (A-E) and shading. This is explained further in section 5.6.2 below.

Table 5.9 An overview of activities in Teacher W’s Unit 2 writing feedback lesson

Order	Activity type
1	A: Review writing task
2	C: Error correction of sentences in group work with white boards
3	C: Praise: Good topic sentences
4	B: Model essay jumble
5	B: Model essay gap fill
6	D: Return of writing: check & one-to-one feedback
7	E: Homework: rewrite essay

In contrast, Teacher X began the lesson with reviewing work from the previous week with learners moving around the class and questioning each other. The teacher then moved the learners into the corridor for a whole class matching activity focussing on conjunctions. Teacher X then returned learners’ writing and asked them to read and check the teacher comments and complete their analysis tables. Teacher X describes this activity as follows:

I give them a few minutes just to digest my red pen. As you'd be able to see, there's a lot for a lot of them. Especially if they can't read my writing, I like to write naturally as well, not print too much [...] And then after, if any of them have any immediate questions, I make myself available. But then I give a more formal period of silence where they have to transfer their mistakes and corrections onto that analysis table and I encourage them to try to identify the most common errors or the errors of worst impact on their writing, which often they're the worst judges of that, which is why I'm very much running around and trying at that time to help.

Teacher X: first interview (interview 36¹²)

¹² The interview number in brackets refers to the numbered catalogue of interviews listed in the Data Inventory, see Appendix 3.

The rationale for this analysis is to enable learners to improve the accuracy of their writing by identifying and correcting their common errors. Teacher X explains that:

[t]hey will bring all of their writing for the first four weeks next week to an individual consultation where they get a chance to ask me more specifically about those errors. But the end goal is that they can self-edit. And I've also started - this is the first time I've done this actually, you might be interested in this, I'm now - I'm not ticking when I'm happy with something anymore. I'm only ticking when there is a completely perfect sentence.

Teacher X: first interview (interview 36)

During this activity, the teacher was walking around the classroom and talking to individual learners about their writing. An overview of these activities is provided in Table 5.10 below.

Table 5.10 An overview of activities in Teacher X's Unit 2 writing feedback lesson

1	A: Review cards: reviewing and checking language from previous week
2	C: Clause and linking words kinaesthetic matching activity
3	D: Return of writing: check and analysis
4	E: Homework: rewrite essay

Teacher Y started the class with a review of the writing task, a similar start to Teacher W's lesson. However, the next activity focussed on spelling errors from the learners' writing, followed by error correction of sentences from the students' writing. This focus on spelling and grammar is in contrast to Teacher W's focus on grammar and discourse. Teacher Y then returned learners' writing and asked learners to add to their spelling bank (see Figure 5.11 below) and use the correction code and comments to improve their essay.

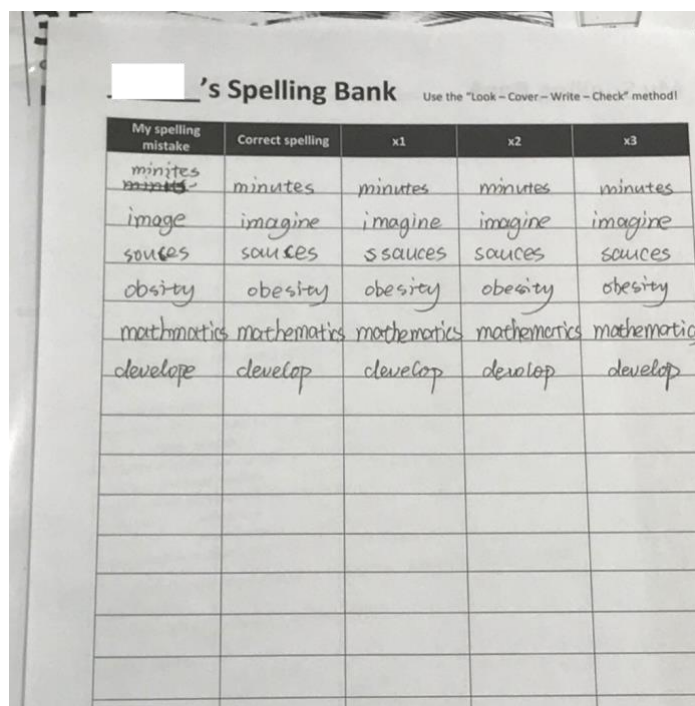


Figure 5.11 Spelling bank (image author's own)

Teacher Y then walked around the class and spoke to learners individually, answering their questions and providing one-to-one feedback. An overview of these activities is provided in Table 5.11 below.

Table 5.11 An overview of activities in Teacher Y's Unit 2 writing feedback lesson

1	A: Review writing task
2	C: Error correction: spelling
3	C: Error correction of sentences
4	D: Return of writing: spelling bank, correction code, comments & one-to-one feedback
5	E: Homework: rewrite essay

Teacher Z started the lesson by addressing the whole class and giving positive feedback to learners on their writing, identifying structure, paragraphing, discourse markers and the learners' use of examples as areas of strength. Teacher Z then reminded learners of work the previous week on argumentative essays and the debate they had just completed to highlight body paragraph organisation.

Last week we did an argumentative essay, okay. So where you get a statement like this, and it asks you to what extent do you agree or disagree. Last week we did our brainstorming in the form of a debate, where you write down your position and then you write down three reasons why you chose that position. [...] Okay, so what we are going to look at now is, I have your essays from last week, and you did very, very well. [...] What we're going to look at now is I've made some corrections and I want you to have a look at the corrections and change them. Then what I'd like you to do, on the other side of the debate page, we're going to do it again. I'd like you to have a look at your essay, the body paragraph of your essay and I just want you to write the topic. [...] Remember last Friday, I gave you one of these, and then you wrote down what you did just then like a debate. What we're going to do now, I just want you to go back and to have a look again at your structure.

Teacher Z: lesson observation 1

Teacher Z then discussed different argument genres, contrasting expositions with discussions (or 'argumentative essays' and 'discursive essays' in the metalanguage of this classroom). The learners' essays were then returned and Teacher Z asked learners to review the structure of their essays and use the correction code to correct their work.

Teachers Z then went around the class, answering questions and providing one-to-one feedback. An overview of these activities is provided in Table 5.12 below.

Table 5.12 An overview of activities in Teacher Z's Unit 2 writing feedback lesson

1	C: Teacher gives praise: structure, paragraphing, discourse markers & examples	
2	B: Body paragraph organisation	A: including review of previous work
3	D: Return of writing: correction code, comments & one-to-one feedback	
4	E: Homework: rewrite essay	

These findings show that the four teachers planned different writing feedback lessons, selecting different activities and sequencing them differently. For example, when I asked Teacher W during our post lesson interview if there was a reason for the order of classroom activities Teacher W replied:

Yeah, I don't know, this is the one that I do every time. I found that focusing on errors and doing the whiteboards [...] somehow I will do the error correction first and it gets them quite active and they are lively before we get into the model essay. I just find it works better like that. I want to talk about the common errors before they see the model essay. So, it gives me a chance to talk about some problems that came up before they see the model basically. Where I can be talking about errors, about topic sentences or structural things or grammar. That's why I do it like that and with the cut-up essays. I do that quite regularly.

Teacher W: first interview (interview 32)

Teacher W plans the lesson, in part, based on previous experience and what has worked well in the past with other learners on previous courses. Teacher W attributes part of this success to effectively engaging learners by looking at common errors and discussing discourse and grammar before looking at the model essay. Rather than working with a model, Teacher X returns learners' work with a correction code, which they then use to analyse and correct their work. When I asked Teacher X for the reasons for this approach, Teacher X replied:

Because the students are possibly for the first time understanding why they did it incorrectly and how to correct it. But if they just rewrite, they can see how to correct it obviously, they're just copying from the teacher's red pen or the teacher's suggestion, but I don't believe they know why. I don't believe they've identified whether they made a grammar mistake or - often this one they do know, just the vocab, or whether it's a sentence construction, coherence between ideas, the meaning. Yeah, so that's why it's called an analysis table, they have to analyse their own output.

Teacher X: first interview (interview 36)

Teacher X provides a clear rationale for this approach. The learners are required to analyse their essays with the aim of understanding the error and how to correct it. These analysis tables are collected in and marked by the teacher. Teacher X indicates errors in learners

written work but tends not to use metalanguage, instead indicating that where an error has occurred.

This contrasts to Teacher Y's use of metalanguage. I asked Teacher Y about planning the error correction activity, the use of metalanguage and how it is planned and introduced to learners. Teacher Y responded:

Well, I start with what they know, so I start with - I think if you start with their sentence, something they can relate to, and then - I mean, I try not to be too jargonish, and sometimes I say, 'We call it this.' But they don't need to remember that word, they just need to know how to recognize these errors. So, they don't necessarily, they don't really need to know it's subject verb agreement, but they do need to know that that verb there has to change depending on the subject. So, the easiest way to tell them is just the little SV or subject verb agreement. So, I think by using the metalanguage, it's like a shared code, or shared language to communicate the problems that exist with their writing. So, I think it helps them to understand.

Teacher Y: first interview (interview 39)

Teacher Y's view is that the metalanguage is only useful so far as it helps learners improve the accuracy of their written work. However, Teacher Y also recognizes another benefit to discussing common errors in the classroom.

That's another reason I kind of like doing the slides, because I think if I just gave them back the writing, they might not necessarily understand what I was talking about. Whereas if we've looked at it on the slide, I hope they can see what I'm talking about a bit better, and see the explanations of the metalanguage, I guess. Things like clauses [...] It's something that's come up in class before and I've said, 'What's a clause?' They know it's got to have the subject and the verb, and sometimes the rest of it - or usually the subject, always the verb, the rest of it. So, we talk about verb groups in terms of clauses. So, I think as language learners, they have a reasonable awareness of the labels for some of these things, the metalanguage.

Teacher Y: first interview (interview 39)

While learning the metalanguage is not a stated learning objective, Teacher Y sees its value in developing learners' language awareness and allows for classroom discussions that provide the opportunity for the teacher to check and clarify learner understanding.

Teacher Z takes another approach, using a debate as a brainstorm activity to develop ideas for the essay while also modelling how to support arguments. Teacher Z explained the reasoning behind planning a debate in a writing lesson as follows:

So, a debate form that I do where they have to write down the position and then they come up with three arguments to support their position. They either agree or disagree. And then we had a discussion over that before they wrote the essay. And I gave it to them again after they wrote their essay and I asked them to write in their three arguments that they used after they'd written the essay. [...] So I was kind of backtracking to planning. So I got them to think about 'Okay, what are the three arguments that I used?' and I need to know these before I write. [...] So what we did is I got them to look at their essay, read their essays, the body paragraphs, and then write in the topic of that argument, and then an explanation and then an example or some evidence on each one, just in note form. [...] And to give each other ideas. Because what I did with the debate is, I tell them what their position is. So that table is 'agree', that table is 'disagree', that table is 'agree'. And then I get them to come up with arguments for their position. Then I get them to think about 'What do you think that table is going to say to you when you have your debate?' So they come up with disagree and then I bring it all back to the brainstorming process.

Teacher Z: first interview (interview 41)

Teacher Z uses the spoken debate format as a model for learners in two senses. Firstly, it models the process of brainstorming ideas at the start of the writing process. Secondly, it models the idea of learners developing arguments that they then develop and support with explanations and examples. Overall, while all the teacher participants provide rationales for their choice of activities and activity sequences in lesson planning, they appear to reflect diverse professional experiences and beliefs. However, there are underlying

similarities in these four lessons when the underlying purposes of activities are analysed. This is the focus of the next section.

5.6.2 Similarities in lessons

An analysis of the underlying aims of these activities shows similarities that are not immediately apparent. The classroom activities can be grouped into five different types: Review activities, group error correction of learners' written work, using a model, returning and discussing individual writing and rewriting. These are listed and colour coded in Table 5.13 below).

Table 5.13 An overview of activity types

Order	Activity type
1	A: Review activities
2	B: Using a model
3	C: Group evaluation: error correction of (or praise for) learners' written work
4	D: Return and discussion of individual writing: check & one-to-one feedback
5	E: Rewriting

These classroom activities can be arranged into activities that prioritise the syllabus (in terms of course goals and lesson objectives) and those that prioritise the learners (in terms of their current and emerging language development). This is displayed below in Figure 5.12. For example, activities that review previous work or the writing task question align with learning objectives. Similarly, the use of a model answer provides a benchmark and aligns to learning objectives. In contrast, error correction activities based on common learner errors is closely related to learner needs as a group, identifying the limits of current language development as relevant to multiple learners in the class. Learners' individual essays with corrective feedback and essay rewrites focus on each individual learner's language development.

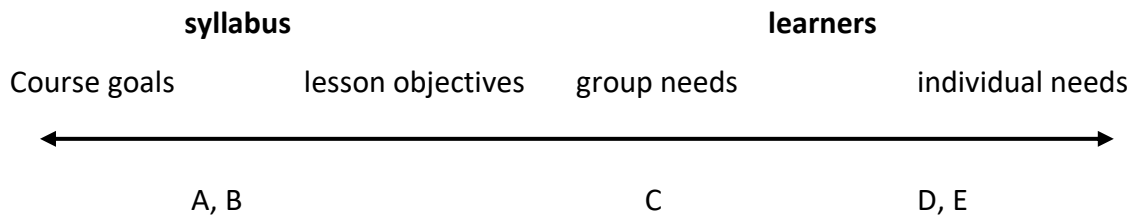


Figure 5.12 The syllabus-learner continuum with activity type order by syllabus priority

A comparison of writing feedback lessons on the same piece of writing shows that teachers plan a different number of activities. These are presented in Table 5.14 in the order they occurred in each lesson. Teacher W included six activities, Teachers X and Y had four activities and Teacher Z has three. However, when the activities are colour-coded according to activity type, a pattern begins to emerge that moves from review, to error correction, to the use of a model and finishing with the return of learners' work and rewriting the essay. This movement reflects a shift from syllabus objectives (review) to group needs (group error correction and praise), from target standards (model essay) to targeting individual learner's language development.

Table 5.14 Teachers writing feedback lessons; activities and activity types

Teacher W:

Order	Activity type
1	A: Review writing task
2	C: Error correction of sentences in group work with white boards
3	C: Praise: Good topic sentences
4	B: Model essay jumble
5	B: Model essay gap fill
6	D: Return of writing: check & one-to-one feedback
7	E: Homework: rewrite essay

Teacher X:

1	A: Review cards: reviewing and checking language from previous week
2	C: Clause and linking words kinaesthetic matching activity
3	D: Return of writing: check and analysis
4	E: Homework: rewrite essay

Teacher Y:

1	A: Review writing task
2	C: Error correction: spelling
3	C: Error correction of sentences
4	D: Return of writing: spelling bank, correction code, comments & one-to-one feedback
5	E: Homework: rewrite essay

Teacher Z:

1	C: Teacher gives praise: structure, paragraphing, discourse markers & examples	
2	B: Body paragraph organisation	A: including review of previous work
3	D: Return of writing: correction code, comments & one-to-one feedback	
4	E: Homework: rewrite essay	

Teachers W, X, and Y all started their feedback lessons with a review activity, with two teachers (W and Y) specifically reviewing the writing task and teacher Z reviewing previous work in activity two. This involved discussing the question and was then followed by learners' describing their responses in terms of content and organisation.

Three of the teachers then conducted activities designed around learners' errors in their writing, focussing on lexicogrammar. Teacher Y started with a spelling activity and then moved on to an error correction activity using sentences. Similar activities were completed by Teachers W and X. These activities involved learners working together to complete the tasks. Teachers W and Z followed these with explicit praise. Teacher W identified good topic sentences while Teacher Z praised essay structure, paragraphing discourse markers and the use of examples. The teachers then made use of models. Teacher W asked learners to assemble a cut-up model essay and then complete a cloze exercise with a focus on conjunctions. Teacher Z used work completed earlier in the lesson and in the previous week to highlight the organisation of body paragraphs.

All four teachers then returned the essay to learners, annotated with a correction code and comments. The teachers then spoke to learners individually about their essays, commenting and asking and answering questions. Teachers X, Y and Z asked learners to complete activities using the marked essay. Teachers X and Z asked learners to analyse the feedback and complete tables that focussed on their errors. Teacher Y asked learners to

complete a similar activity that focussed on spelling. Teacher W asked learners to read the comments and use the correction code to correct and improve the work, spending time in the lesson with each learner in order to discuss their writing and answer their questions. Finally, Teacher X asked learners to rewrite the essays for homework. The use of the correction code encourages learners to review and rewrite their work and this was encouraged by all the teachers. Teachers are asked by the ELT Centre to only mark one piece of writing by each learner a week to ensure all learners receive a similar amount and frequency of feedback. However, Teacher X does collect in the rewritten essays and provide brief feedback to encourage learners to complete the rewrite.

5.7 Discussion of the meso-analysis: movement across the semantic plane

Moving on from the planning and sequencing of activities, we now turn to how the teachers manage knowledge in the classroom. The management of knowledge is seen here as knowledge practices that involve variation in the context-dependence and complexity of meanings in teacher discourse. This section reports on these changes by using the concepts of semantic gravity and semantic density from Legitimation code Theory (LCT), introduced and discussed in Chapter 3 in Section 3.8. The use of Semantics provides an understanding of the different forms that knowledge takes in teacher-led feedback on learners' writing. The initial findings suggest that, while the four teachers' classroom practices and discourse appear very different, these differences are superficial and there are underlying similarities in terms of how these experienced teachers vary context-dependence and the complexity of meaning.

I conducted the semantic analysis using a translation device (Maton & Chen, 2016; Maton & Howard, 2016). This is a tool that developed from both theoretical concepts and my engagement with my data. It provides a connection between real instances of classroom discourse and theoretical concepts. Cycles of analysis led to greater refinement of the translation device. The device also illustrates how I used theory to interpret data. The data was coded according to relative strengths of semantic gravity and semantic density. The translation device identified a total of four strengths (see Tables 4.7 and 4.8 in Section 4.7 of Chapter 4).

The coding categories referred to in the table are explained below. Abstract is the relatively weakest level of semantic gravity and relatively strongest level of semantic density. This includes 1) context-independent feedback where meaning is not dependent on learners' written work e.g. metalanguage, writing skills & systems, course goals and 2) refers to feedback where more meaning is condensed within symbols e.g. Good work, B+, 15/20. The relative strengthening of semantic gravity and weakening of semantic density results in the General coding category. Here, feedback is given in terms of learning outcomes or assessment criteria but it is not writing task specific. The Specific coding category sees relatively stronger semantic gravity and weaker semantic density. Feedback here relates to the writing task and may be usefully thought of as 'talk around the writing task response'. Finally, the Concrete coding category sees the relative strengthening and semantic gravity and weakening of semantic density as the meaning of the classroom discourse is dependent on what the learners have written and includes quoting or reformulating their written response.

5.8 Semantic profiles of four teachers and one lesson

The analysis reported below is for the same lesson thought by the four different teachers. As such it affords the opportunity to make meaningful comparisons and contrasts. The analysis of the lessons initially took a *wide-angle* analysis of the lessons as a whole before zooming to a *telephoto* analysis of specific phenomena (Maton et al., 2016, p. 101). The semantic profiles of the feedback lessons are discussed below.

5.8.1 Semantic waves in feedback lessons

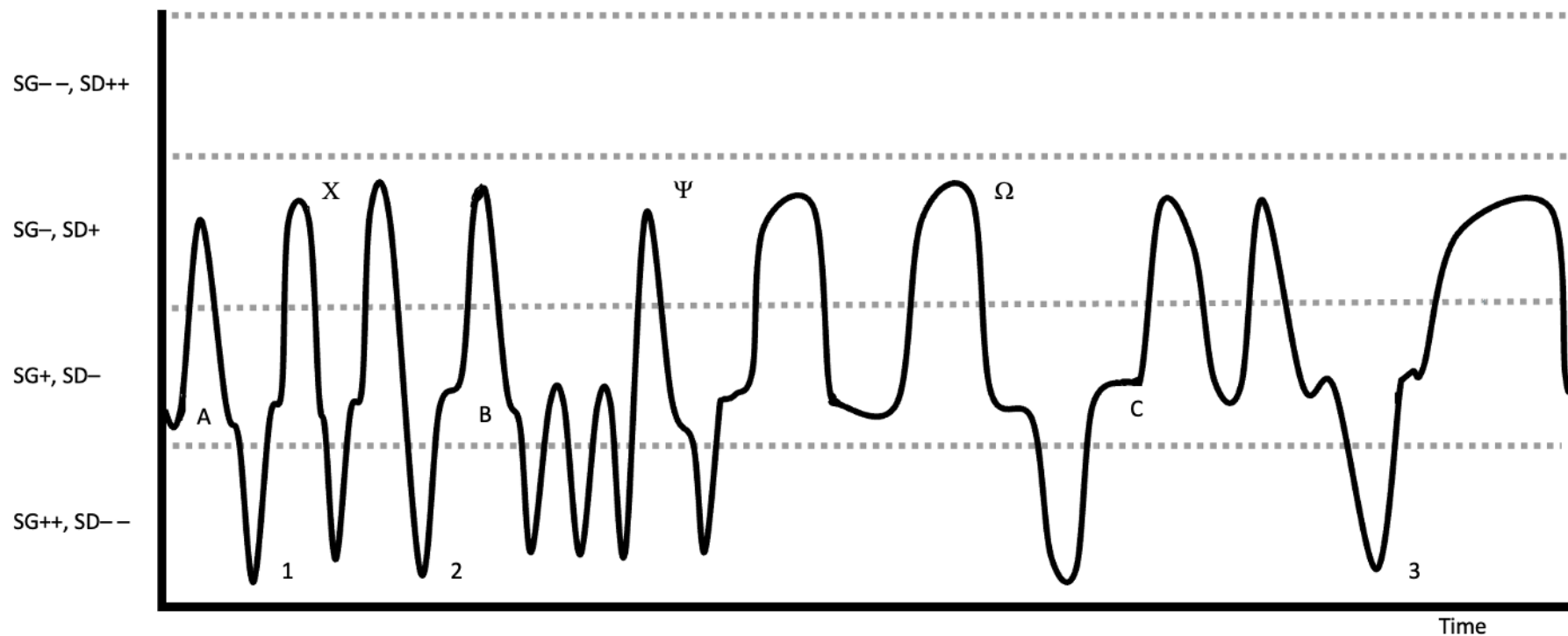
General feedback is in broad terms. For example, it references learning outcomes or assessment criteria but not a specific task or activity. Meaning is less dependent on its context. Examples include "You have used a range of grammatical structures." Specific feedback is in terms of the assessment task and meaning is closely related to its context. Less meaning is condensed within symbol and meaning is from non-technical practices and contexts. For example "You have organized your introduction well." In concrete feedback, meaning is dependent on its context and, therefore, on learners' writing and includes

examples quoted from learners' written work. Meaning is from non-technical practices and contexts, for example, "You write 'Human has developed...' in paragraph 1."

Overall, the feedback lessons have a limited semantic range. The classroom discourse is about the learners' written response and closely related to it with relatively strong semantic gravity and weak semantic density (SG+, SD-). The teacher often gives examples by quoting from learners' essays, strengthening semantic gravity (SG ↑)¹³ and weakening semantic density (SD ↓). Teachers then return to talking about the response (SG+, SD-) that is 'talking around the writing task response'. There is also more general talk, for example about previous work or grammar, which sees a weakening of semantic gravity and a strengthening of semantic density (SG-, SD+). This is usually related to the writing task or learners' responses. The talk then usually returns to talk about the written response, seeing a strengthening of semantic gravity and weakening of semantic density (SG+,SD-).

A semantic profile of Teacher W's first lesson observation is shown in Figure 5.13. The lesson starts with the teacher and learners recalling and discussing the writing task question. The teacher then asks learners in groups to correct sentences taken from learners' writing containing errors common across the class. Here the teacher shifts from talking about learners' writing in general (SG+, SD-), to specific examples from the learners' writing (SG++, SD- -) to then discussing writing and language learning more generally. After the mini-whiteboard activity, Teacher W gives the learners a cut up model essay to reassemble. This is followed by a cloze of the same essay (see Figure 4.7). These activities continue to see semantic shifts in classroom dialogue but the nature of the activities mean the lesson moves at a slower pace than the mini-whiteboard activity and the Teachers' explanations take more time. A semantic profile for this individual lesson with clear coding of different stages of the classroom discourse is shown in Figure 5.13

¹³ In LCT, the convention of using '↑' to mean strengthening and '↓' to mean weakening remains the same across all code concepts. Therefore, 'weakening semantic gravity' is denoted by 'SG ↓', even though weaker semantic gravity (SG-) is typically placed at the top of semantic scales (Maton, 2013, p.11).

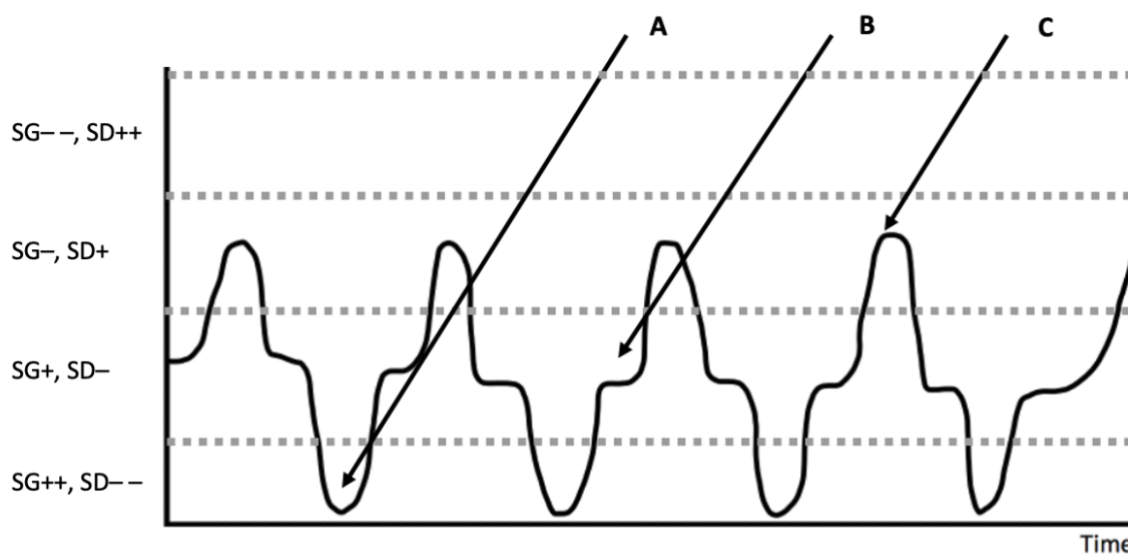


<p>SG-, SD+</p> <p>X "When we use <i>of</i>, we tend to use it with <i>the</i>"</p> <p>Ψ "So, this is singular, <i>lot</i>, <i>a lot of</i>, and <i>lots</i> is plural for <i>lots of</i>"</p> <p>Ω "I don't judge your ideas. I just judge your English [...] Do I agree with this personally? Maybe no. [...] We're more interested about your grammar and being able to express yourself clearly"</p>
<p>SG+, SD-</p> <p>A "We're going to spend some time looking at your writing [...] what are the key words in the question?"</p> <p>B "Yes, hedging language [...] cautious. So, claims [...] need to be more careful, cautious. Are you sure they will acquire new knowledge?"</p> <p>C "Okay, so here's your final paragraph"</p>
<p>SG++, SD--</p> <p>1 "Learning both subject needs a logical thinking."* (from learners' writing)</p> <p>2 "Students who study a language need to learn lots of vocabulary." (from learners' writing)</p> <p>3 "Studying foreign languages and mathematics may seem..." (from learners' writing)</p>

Figure 5.13 Semantic profile of Teacher W lesson observation 1

This 'hovering' above the written response appears to be the default position throughout all four lessons. Teachers talk about the learners' writing (SG+, SD-). They then strengthen semantic gravity and weaken semantic density (SG++, SD--) to quote directly from learners' written work, before returning to talking about the response more generally. There is then movement in the other direction, with a weakening of semantic gravity and a strengthening of semantic gravity (SG-, SD+) as the teacher moves away from the particular instances of learners' work, to discuss grammar and vocabulary in more general terms. Interestingly, there are no examples of a relative further weakening of semantic gravity and strengthening of semantic density (SG--. SD++). This suggests a generic semantic wave of teacher talk about the text (SG+, SD-) that falls when directly quoting from learners' writing before returning to talk about the text (SG+, SD-). The semantic wave then rises to discuss language more generally (SG-, SD+) before returning to talk about the text (SG+, SD-). This semantic wave is represented in Figure 5.14. This pattern was found throughout all four of the writing feedback lessons.

This analysis suggests a generic semantic wave of teacher talk about the learners' written responses (SG+, SD-) that falls when directly quoting from learners' writing before returning to talk about the text (SG+, SD-). The semantic wave then rises to discuss language more generally (SG-, SD+) before returning to talk about the written work (SG+, SD-). Similarities may be drawn with the 'bobbing' identified by Matruglio et al., (2013, p. 10) in History classes. However, the bobbing refers to the teacher reading aloud a source from ancient history and then explaining it in modern, everyday terms. In the data from my study, the teachers do not explain the text. They *evaluate* the text, positively and negatively, illustrating the evaluation with instances from learners' written work. They also evaluate the work in terms of the course of study, referring to previous work on relevant areas e.g. work completed in the previous week's lessons on noun phrases. They look both backwards and forwards, reflecting on the writing process and making suggestions for future improvements.



Key:

- A. *Using examples from learners' writing: meaning dependent on learners' writing.*
- B. *Talking about the learners' writing: feedback dependent on the writing task.*
- C. *Talking about writing and language learning: meaning related to learning outcomes or assessment criteria.*

Figure 5.14 A generic semantic profile from the feedback on writing lessons

This may be interpreted as the teacher linking the individual learners with the course goals. The learners' writing is a proxy for the individual's current meaning making resources. The lesson is the teachers attempt to meet the learners' needs through the selection, planning and delivery of classroom tasks. These tasks are how teachers and learners work towards achieving learning outcomes and course goals. Interestingly, there are no examples of a relative further weakening of semantic gravity and strengthening of semantic density (SG--, SD++). This might be due to several reasons. A greater and more thorough focus on grammar would then change the purpose of the lesson from a writing feedback lesson to a grammar lesson. I speculate that an analysis of grammar lessons presenting grammar in context would contain a greater semantic range that would also include talk about language in context and decontextualized grammar in terms of meaning and form.

5.8.2 Micro-analysis: trips and tours across the semantic plane

This section investigates and charts the knowledge of teacher feedback practices across the semantic plane. As discussed above, the generic semantic wave of a recurrent position talking about learners' writing (SG+, SD-) with relative falls (SG++, SD--) and rises (SG-, SD+) that return to the recurrent position (SG+, SD-) is found throughout the four lessons. However, in addition to these waves, there are episodes in which there are variations in the relative changes in semantic gravity and semantic density that result in different movements across the semantic plane. The semantic plane is a Cartesian plane with four quadrants. However, it is more than a typology as data may be placed anywhere on each cline to give a more detailed analysis.

There are four principal semantic codes: prosaic, rhizomatic, worldly and rarefied. The four principal codes are shown in Figure 5.15, which illustrates the semantic plane. The generic semantic wave identified above can be mapped onto the semantic plane. The talk around the response is in the prosaic code (SG+, SD-) and when the teacher quotes examples from learners' work, there is a move deeper into the quadrant (SG++, SD--), known as a code drift (Maton, 2016, p. 237) as shown by the arrow in the Figure 5.15. A teacher's return to talk about the response sees a return to the starting position (SG+, SD-). This is called a return trip (Maton & Howard, 2018, p. 8) (see figure 5.16).

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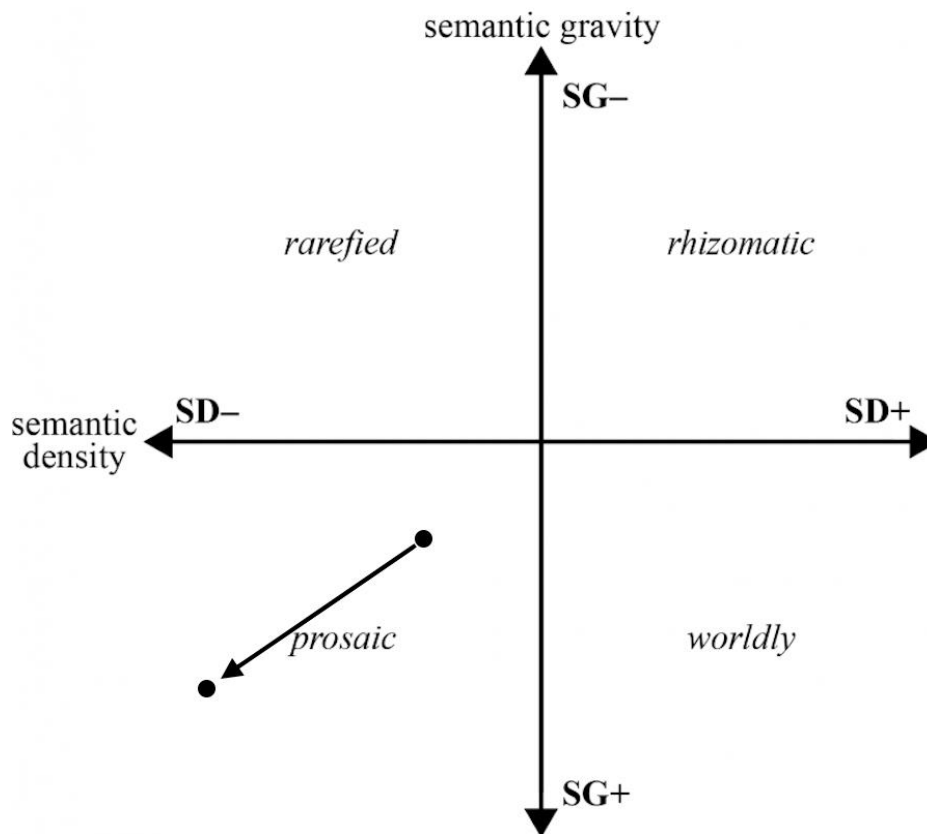


Figure 5.15 A code drift deeper into the prosaic code

There are also episodes in the data when the teacher maintains the relative strength of semantic gravity and also increases the strength of semantic density, resulting in a worldly code. In the following extract at the start of the lesson, the teacher reintroduces the writing task by reproducing the question in a presentation slide with some of the keywords missing. Learners are prompted to give the missing words and the writing task is then analysed and discussed by the teacher, with the learners' attention drawn to 'key words' and the 'task word'. The teacher then evaluates this task in relation to other course tasks before continuing on to the next activity, correcting common mistakes.

Teacher: All right, so, everyone, we're going to spend some time looking at your writing. To start with, I want to look at some common mistakes, okay. We're missing three people, but - Okay, hopefully they'll join us shortly. So, do you remember this one? This is Friday's essay. So, what are the missing words? Outline the various - okay, check with your partner or your group - what are the missing words? This is from Friday's essay. All right, let's check. So, outline the various similarities and

Learner: differences

Teacher: differences between studying a

Learner: language

Teacher: a language and studying

Learner: mathematics

Teacher: mathematics, okay. So, that was our essay. What are the key words in the question?

Learner: Similarities.

Teacher: Yes, similarities and differences. What's the task word? What do you need to do? Give your opinion?

Learner: No. Outline.

Teacher: Outline. So, this was the verb, the 'outline' which tells you what to do. This is unusual. This is not a typical [course] essay topic. There are different kinds of essays in [the course], but this is a special one. So, it's not like a typical [course] essay topic, but there's lots of good language that came up. All right, so, let's look at some little mistakes that also came up.

Teacher W: lesson observation 1

The teacher discusses the writing task, maintaining semantic gravity (SG+) but at points in the evaluation he uses terms that condense greater meanings, such as “different kinds of essays” and “lots of good language”. These terms increase semantic density (SD+) and see a code shift (Maton, 2016, p. 237) from the prosaic code (SG+, SD-) to the worldly code (SG+, SD+). The “different kinds of essays” refers to the other knowledge genres that the learners have studied on the course and the “good language” refers to vocabulary, grammar and work on discourse studied on the course. Episodes such as this often involve the teacher carefully shifting between codes as the context-dependence and complexity of practices is skilfully adjusted.

Teacher W then moves on to focus on error correction. Errors common in the learners’ writing are shown to learners. A sentence containing a common error or errors is displayed on a screen for the whole class to read. In groups they attempt to improve the accuracy of the selected error by discussing it and writing their answer on a small hand-held whiteboard. During the group work, the teacher walks around the class, encouraging learners.

Teacher: All right, as a group, I want you to fix these mistakes. This is the first one: 'Learning both two subject need logic thinking'. I want you to write the correct answer on your whiteboard, the whole sentence. But please help each other, work together.

[Teacher walks around classroom addressing groups]

So, you're the writer for this one, and you have to tell him what to write.

Lots of mistakes. Did you just find one mistake?

Learner: Almost.

Teacher: There's about five mistakes. You're doing very well here - very, very good.

Teacher W: lesson observation 1

The teacher then reads each group's answers aloud to the class and comments on each one, before working on reformulating the original prompt as a class. When setting up each step of the error correction activity, the teacher gives hints and tips. At the end of each step, the teacher discusses learners' answers and offers alternatives. The teacher discusses alternatives and corrects, prompting students using metalanguage.

Teacher: Five, four, three - this word here we've got - two, one. Okay, ready? Put your boards up. Okay, we've got over here - 'Learning both subjects needs a logic thinking'. Good try. 'Learning two subjects need logic thinking'. 'Learning two subjects needs logical thinking'. 'Studying both of two subjects need logical thinking'. Let me show you what I've got, if I can find my clicker. Lost my clicker. 'Both' and 'two' - they're basically the same, it's basically the same. 'Both' means two. Both of us, two of us, both of them, two of them. So, learning both subjects. So, I think everyone found this one - 'subject' should be 'subjects', because it's more than one.

Learner: Needs.

Teacher: Now, why is it... so why did...

Learner: Learning.

Teacher: So, 'subjects' is not the subject. It's actually 'learning both subjects'. So, this is the singular, this is the subject, so, 'learning needs logical thinking'. And 'logic' is the wrong form. Okay, I've got a few other ways. If you want to use 'two', you can say learning the two subjects. And you might say 'requires' or 'needs' - I like more academic words like 'requires logical thinking'. Similar to over here - you used 'of' - both of the subjects - we're being specific. I often see, for example, I often see this one

- 'both of students'. Or 'many of students'. I often see this kind of writing - that's wrong. How about this one? Wrong as well.

Learner: Many students.

Teacher: Yes. So, we either choose 'many students', which is general, or we be specific. Yes, 'the students', for example, 'in this class are from China' - so, 'many of the students in this class are' blah blah blah. But more generally, we don't need 'the' at all. So, my point is, when we use 'of', we tend to use it with 'the'. Not always, but that's a kind of easy rule to remember. And I saw a lot of your essays - people were using 'many of' something. I think later there's going to be one of those, so, see if you can remember that one. Okay, please erase, and new writer. So, please give the pen and board to the next person. We'll all take turns.

Teacher W: lesson observation 1

In this activity, the default teacher discourse is in the prosaic code (SG+, SD-). The teacher talks about the learners' response to the prompt. The teacher then moves deeper into the prosaic code when using the wording from learners' responses and using it in the classroom discourse. When analysing and explaining particular examples, the teacher uses metalanguage, that is language about language, to explain why an answer is acceptable or not. When the teacher does this, he weakens semantic gravity and strengthens semantics density, using metalanguage from pedagogic grammar to discuss language in more general terms but still in relation to the writing task, using more technical language. Examples in the extract above include "subject", "singular" and "form". Here, the teacher moves into the rhizomatic code (SG-, SD+). After talking about learners writing in general, the teacher then returns to the weekly writing task at hand, "And I saw a lot of your essays people were using 'many of' something", strengthening semantic gravity and weakening semantic density (SG+, SD-). This completes a return tour from the prosaic code (SG+, SD-), to the rhizomatic code (SG-, SD+) and then back to the prosaic code (SG+, SD-). This return trip is shown in Figure 5.16.

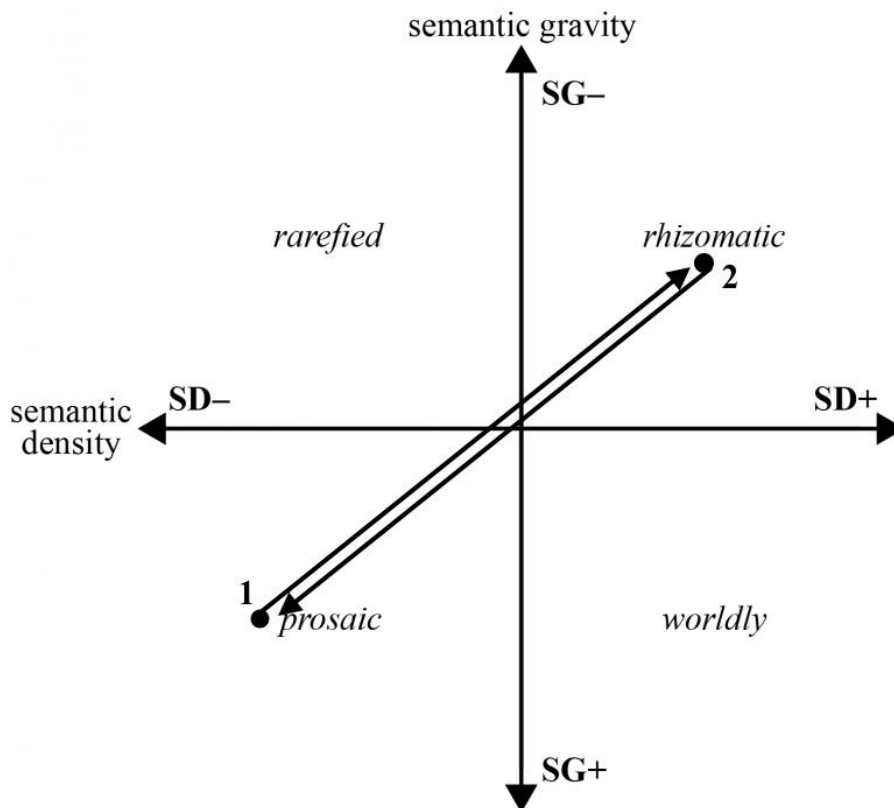


Figure 5.16 A return trip across the semantic plane

The teacher also gives graded definitions of lexical items and grammatical structures, for example “significant” in the extract below (see Table 5.15). The prompt for the learners to correct is 'A quiet place is significant for students to study' and the teacher comments that he saw this in the written work of three learners, while also noting “it's a really common one”. After the learners offer their answers the teacher uses this opportunity to explore the meanings of ‘important’ and significant’.

Table 5.15 Analysis of the teacher-learner dialogue showing shifts in semantic gravity and semantic density as the teacher provides feedback on the learners’ written responses and accumulates meanings to the lexical term ‘significant’ thereby increasing semantic density

Classroom discourse	Semantic codes
<p>Teacher: Okay, I'm going to start with yours. Big voice, please - can you read yours out?</p>	

Learner: “A quiet place is the best for students to study” ¹⁴ .	SG++, SD--
Teacher: “Is the best for students”	
- nice. Over here.	SG+, SD-
Learner: “A quiet place is suitable for students to study”.	SG++, SD--
Teacher: “Is suitable for”	
- nice.	SG+, SD-
Learner: “Studying in a quiet place is essential for students”.	SG++, SD--
Teacher: “Essential”.	
And?	SG+, SD-
Learner: “It is important for students to study in a quiet place”.	SG++, SD--
Teacher: “It's important to”.	
I used the word <i>important</i> .	SG+, SD-
So, “a quiet place is important for students to study”.	SG++, SD--
So, something like that. Why - what's wrong with <i>significant</i> ?	SG+, SD-

¹⁴ Key: “quotation marks” indicate a written quote spoken aloud. *Italics* indicates that the teacher is emphasizing the lexical item to show it is under analysis and discussion

<p>Didn't you learn that <i>significant</i> is the same as <i>important</i>?</p>	<p>SG-, SD-</p>
<p>Learner: No.</p>	
<p>Teacher: Sometimes it is. Sometimes it is.</p>	
<p>In the model essay I will give you, they use <i>significant</i>.</p>	<p>SG+, SD-</p>
<p>But it has an extra meaning. <i>Significant</i> means - it means important and special. That's what I think. I think it has that feeling of - for example, a significant memory is an important memory, but it's also a special memory for me.</p>	<p>SG-, SD-</p>
<p>Or a significant decision - so it's got to be special, something special about it.</p>	<p>SG- -, SD+</p>
<p>So, I think students overuse <i>significant</i>. Be careful how you use it.</p>	<p>SG-, SD+</p>
<p>Another way you could write it is, for example,</p>	<p>SG+, SD-</p>
<p>"it's crucial", "it's essential", "it's important for students to study in a quiet place".</p>	<p>SG++, SD- -</p>
<p>But definitely <i>significant</i> is wrong. It doesn't make sense to me - no, it's not special, it's not significant. So, be careful of significant.</p>	<p>SG+, SD-</p>
<p>Okay, lucky last - please erase.</p>	

Teacher W: lesson observation 1

Here, the teacher discusses the lexical item 'significant' in terms of the writing task and the model essay, an example response to the task. Here we have relatively strong semantic gravity (SG+) and weak semantic density (SD-). Again, the teacher then moves deeper into the prosaic code when using the exact wording from learners' responses in the classroom discourse (SG++,SD- -), shown as 1 in Figure 5.17. There are semantic shifts as the teacher asks learners to read their written answers to the class and the teacher evaluates them (movement between 1 and 2 in figure 5.17). The teacher then starts to examine the use of the lexical term 'significant' that has been used by some learners as a synonym for 'important'. Here, the meaning is less dependent on the terms use in context and the teacher asks about what they learnt in previous lessons. This weakens semantic gravity (SG-) but the teacher's meaning is still non-technical (SD-), moving to 3 in Figure 5.17. The teacher briefly mentions the use of the term in an example essay, strengthening semantic gravity (SG+) before continuing to discuss the general meaning of 'significant' (in a movement from 3 to 2 and back again in Figure 5.17). The explanation is in simple language that learners can understand. Here we have relatively weaker semantic density (SD-). The teacher then explores a further meaning and increases the condensation of meaning (SD+), moving to 4 in Figure 5.16. The teacher then comments that learners overuse the term and advises caution, strengthening semantic gravity (moving from 4 to 5 in figure 5.17). Teacher W then starts to discuss alternatives, strengthening semantic gravity and weakening semantic density (moving from 5 to 6 in Figure 5.17) and then offering specific alternatives to learners (from 6 to 1 and back to 6 in Figure 5.17) as the teacher returns to talking about the text in general and giving illustrative examples from the writing.

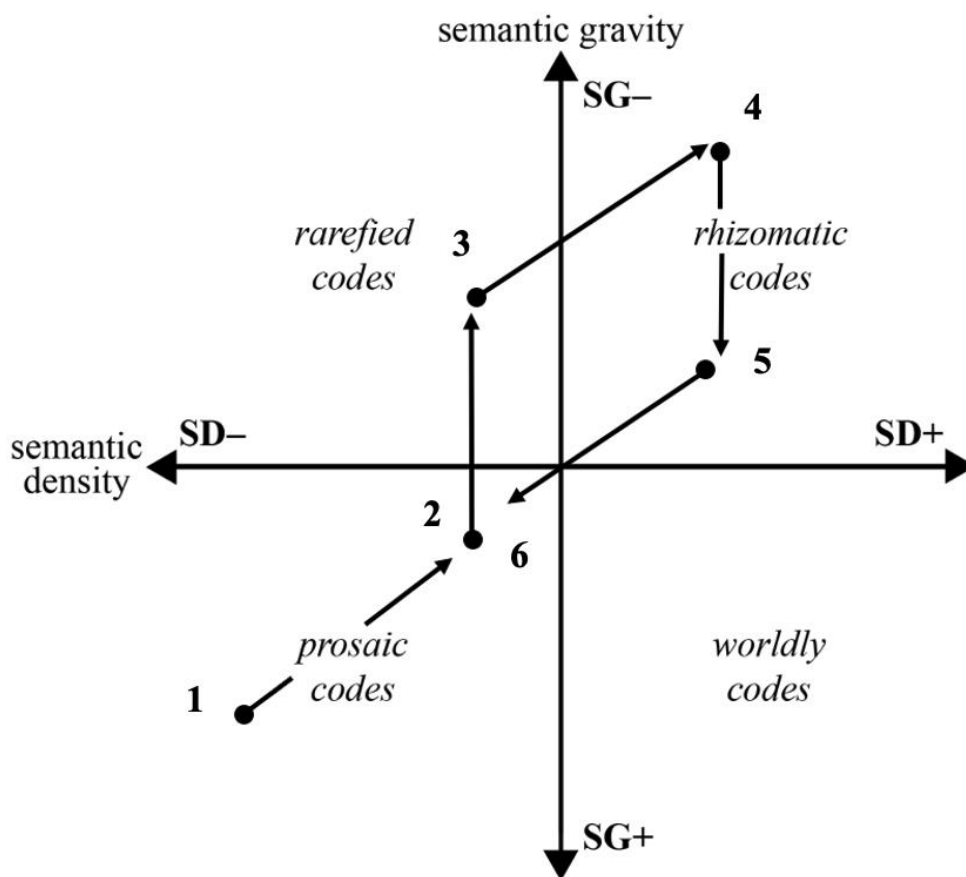


Figure 5.17 A tour across the semantic plane

This skilful unpacking of meaning shows movement across the semantic plane with careful adjustments in the condensation of meaning. The teacher's language is simple in order to ensure all the learners can understand. The meanings are expertly deconstructed to allow the teacher to carefully explain and exemplify them, adding them to learners' understanding of the lexical item and building their knowledge. This intricate movement revealed through this microanalysis cannot be captured by a semantic profile that traces semantic gravity strengthening and semantic density weakening and vice versa. This semantic shifting is a feature of language classrooms where teachers are trained to 'grade' their language in a simple yet coherent and authentic manner, a comprehensible but also appropriate model of language for learners. The teacher's careful use of simplified language, easily understandable to these language learners keeps the meaning non-technical. When an additional meaning is discussed (e.g. "Or a significant decision - so it's got to be special,

something special about it), we see how meanings of the lexical item accumulate, increasing semantic density. This is one example of how lexical meanings accumulate and how knowledge is carefully built in the classroom.

A clearer method of analysing and illustrating this practice is by constellation analysis because it allows us to separate out this complex practice into its parts. Constellations are “groupings (of any socio-cultural practice) that appear to have coherence from a particular point in space and time to actors adopting a particular **cosmology** or worldview” (emphasis in the original) (Maton, 2016, p. 237). This practice defining and exemplifying a lexical item in graded language for language learners is illustrated in Figure 5.18.

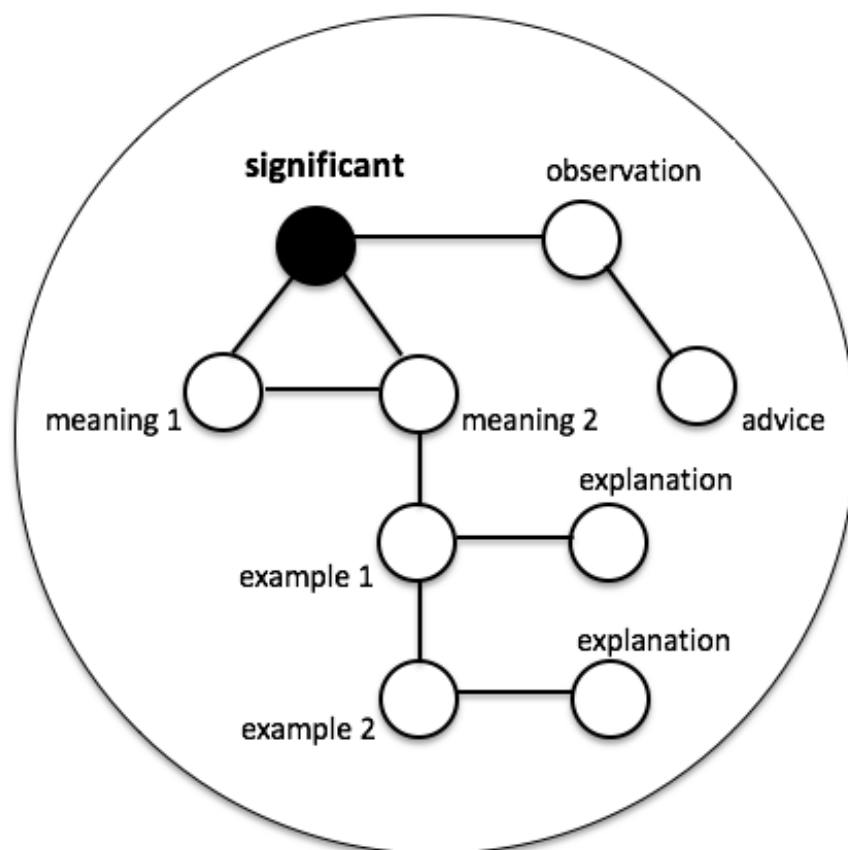


Figure 5.18 Constellating and condensing the lexical item 'significant' in writing feedback

5.9 Analysing the linguistic resources used to manage knowledge for the purposes of teaching and learning: an analysis of pedagogic register

This section builds on the previous sociological analyses using tools from LCT to examine the role played by language. The four teachers interacted with learners (pedagogic relations), organized sequences of lessons (pedagogic activity) and managed modes of communication (pedagogic modalities) in patterns of pedagogic register. Explicitly identifying how experienced teachers bring different areas of knowledge together offers insight into how they manage these linguistic resources to achieve lesson aims in their classrooms. This section takes classroom episodes that the semantic analysis identified as ‘semantically significant’ and examines them more closely using tools from pedagogic register analysis (Rose, 2020; 2018; 2014), a theoretical framework that is grounded in systemic functional linguistics.

While observing lessons, two factors that were clearly driving teachers’ feedback practices, 1) the channel of communication or mode of feedback and 2) class needs versus individual needs. Regarding mode, it is often defined as “the role language is playing in an interaction” (Eggins, 2004, p. 90) and this role involves two concurrent continua that set out two different types of distance that connect language and situation (Martin, 1984). The first continuum is spatial/interpersonal distance. This continuum orders situations as specified by the possibility of immediate feedback afforded to interactants. At one end of the continuum, written feedback to learners outside of the classroom offers no means of immediate feedback. At the other end of the continuum, feedback given to a learner in the classroom, when both learner and teacher are looking at the learner’s writing offers both aural and visual contact. Here, feedback is immediate. Along the continuum we have other types of situations, such as audio-recorded feedback (when there is aural but not visual contact).

The second continuum is of experiential distance. This continuum orders situations as specified by the distance afforded to language and the social process taking place. At one end of the continuum, the learners’ written work is the reified result of the writing process. Here, “language constitutes the social process” (Eggins, 2004, p.92) and language is not enacting experience but rather reflecting it. At the other end of the continuum, we have situations like classroom activities where language accompanies the social activity. We have

the verbal action of the teacher giving instructions, asking questions and the learners responding. Language here has an active role co-existing with the classroom activity. Language is one way in which ongoing action is achieved (Eggins, 2004, p.91)

The continuum of spatial and/or interpersonal distance (Martin, 1984, p. 27; Eggins, 2004, p. 91) can be set against the experiential distance continuum (Martin, 1984, p. 27; Eggins, 2004, p. 91), resulting in the plane, below. Along the vertical axis we have greater spatial/interpersonal distance at the top (ID+) and less spatial/interpersonal distance at the bottom (ID-). Here we can place delayed feedback (ID+) at the top end and immediate feedback (ID-) at the bottom. Along the horizontal axis we have greater experiential distance at the top (ED+) and less experiential distance at the bottom (ED-). Here we have language as reflection (ED+) and language as action (ED-). This is shown in Figure 5.19.

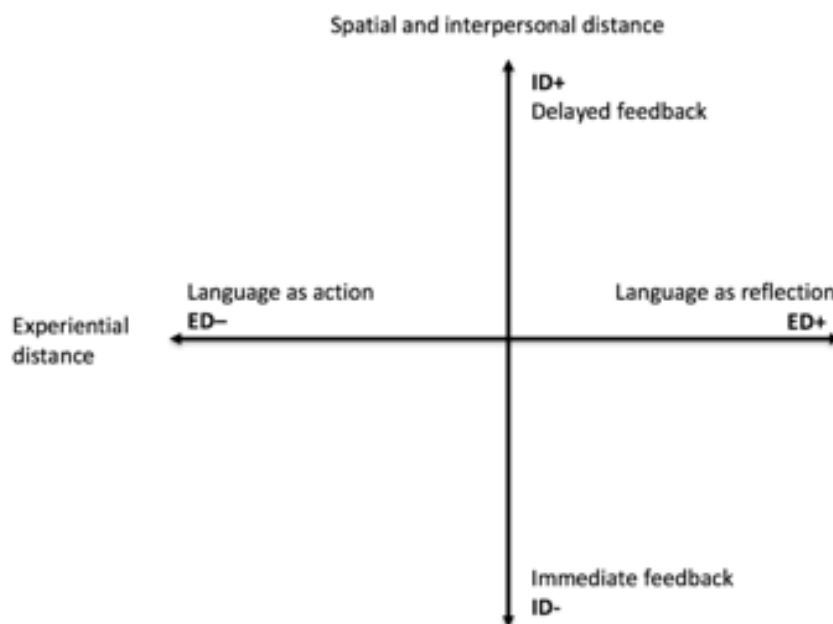


Figure 5.19 Variations in spatial/interpersonal and experiential distance in classroom feedback on writing

We can now use this Cartesian plane to map out the role of mode in the teachers' feedback practices. Learners produce their written texts at home for homework. This is indicated by D on the Cartesian plane. The teacher collects these and marks them, writing comments on the work outside of the classroom (again, indicated by D in Figure 5.20

below). Both of these practices occur with greater spatial/interpersonal distance (ID+) and greater experiential distance (ED+) with language constituting the social process.

In addition to written feedback on the learners' written work, Teacher Y made audio recordings of her feedback. This is indicated by C in Figure 5.20. These recordings involved her discussing the learners' work and her feedback comments. Teacher Y explains the procedure as follows:

Teacher Y: So I have put individual feedback on their work. For this class, I've given the option of audio feedback or written feedback. I gave them all audio feedback the first week, just to see how they would go with it, because they may not have had it in the past, and so they knew what it was. About half of them decided they preferred written. But then the next week, some of them switched over. Because I just go round when I collect their essays and say, 'Do you want audio or written?' They're actually varying it, which I find interesting. There's a few students who always choose written, there's a few students who always choose audio, but it seems to be about 50/50.

Researcher: What's the difference between them? Does the audio have anything written on the essay?

Teacher Y: Yeah. When I give the audio feedback, I mark it up. So when I read through the essays, when I'm doing the feedback, I read through the essays, I sort of read and see what the structure's like, then I try and identify some vocabulary and grammar errors. I basically point out errors using the correction code, and they've got a correction code sheet so they can decipher what the errors are. That's why I think it's important to give them some time in class, because I like them to look at it in class when I give it back to them, with the error correction code, and be able to ask me questions, 'I don't really know what you meant by this, or, I don't know how to fix this.' So I like to give them about 15 minutes to - and I walk around. They often have questions. They don't have that many. I think they're quite familiar with using a correction code. I find that when they do their rewrites, they generally are correcting the errors, so that means that they have understood the correction code.

Anyway, back to the - so the audio feedback has everything marked up on the essay with using the correction code, but I don't write anything. So I don't then go and write, 'Your structure's really good, I like your topic

sentences, your topic sentences are clear, your cohesion's good, you've got good link in words, blah, blah, blah.' I don't write any of that, I just say it. Whereas for the students who want written feedback, after I've done all my corrections, I then need to do my points, like, '1. You've got really good topic sentences. 2. Be careful with subject verb agreement. Remember if you've got the' - so you've got to actually write it.

Researcher: Do you refer back to the correction code, or it's more of an overall comment, on the audio?

Teacher Y: Well, the comment on the audio is about three minutes per student, and I generally number. So I'll go and number through. If it's just a spelling error, it's got SP, I'm not usually going to comment on a spelling error. They know it's a spelling error, they know they've just left a letter out, they can look it up in the dictionary. But if it's an error with like a fragment, or they've started with a conjunction or something like that, then I'll put a number one, and then I'll say, 'Okay, remember what we said about starting sentences with a conjunction. Can you think of another word to use instead of so? If you can't, ask me.'

So I try and - sometimes I give them the answer, but I often - if it's something that we've done fairly explicitly, I'll just say that, and it seems to be enough. Because sometimes they'll ask me and they'll say, 'So, should I be writing therefore?' And I say, 'Yes.' Or if they don't know, they might say - I had a student last week who said, 'I don't really know what word I should use instead of this.' I said, 'Well, what word means the same as and?' They're like, 'So?' And I was like, 'No, it's got to have the same meaning. So it's the same type of word. You don't want a conjunction.' 'Oh, I don't want a conjunction. Oh, furthermore?' 'Yes.' So they sometimes have to talk through it with you.

Teacher Y: first interview (interview 39)

The intention was the learners could play the audio recording through a digital device and hear the teacher discussing their writing as they simultaneously read through the returned work. The aural element sees a lessening of spatial/interpersonal distance (ED-) while language still constitutes the social process (ED+).

Teacher W made video recordings of his feedback. This is indicated by B in Figure 5.20. He video recorded himself discussing the annotated work, talking through his

comments and referring to the learners' written work on the page. This was achieved by filming through a magnifying glass as shown in Figure 5.21 below. The resulting videos showed the written work, the teacher's hands and pen and included the teacher's commentary as he marked the work, as shown in Figure 5.22 below.

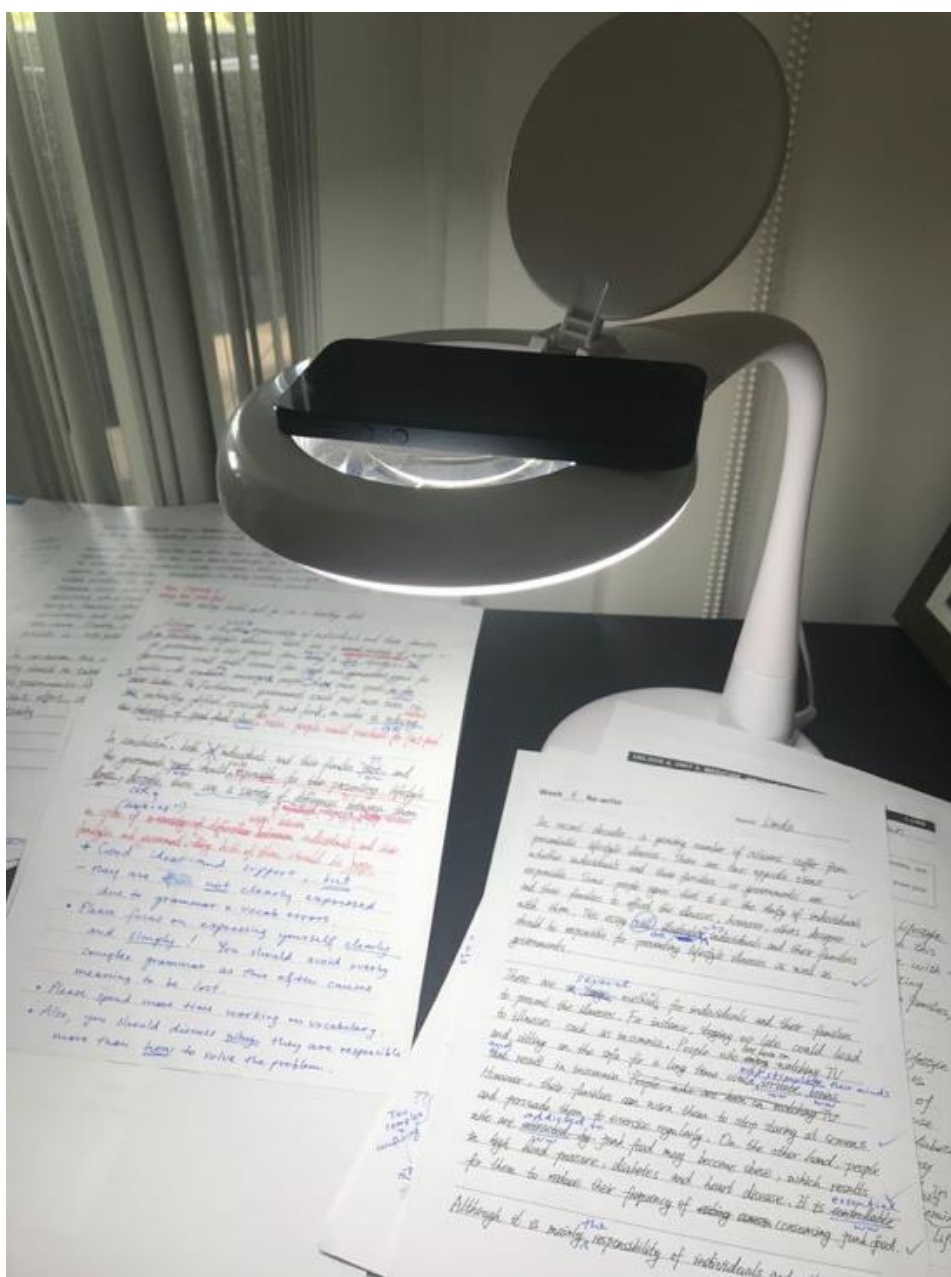


Figure 5.20 Arrangement for recording live feedback on learners' written work using a video camera on a smartphone and a modelling magnifying glass (image author's own)

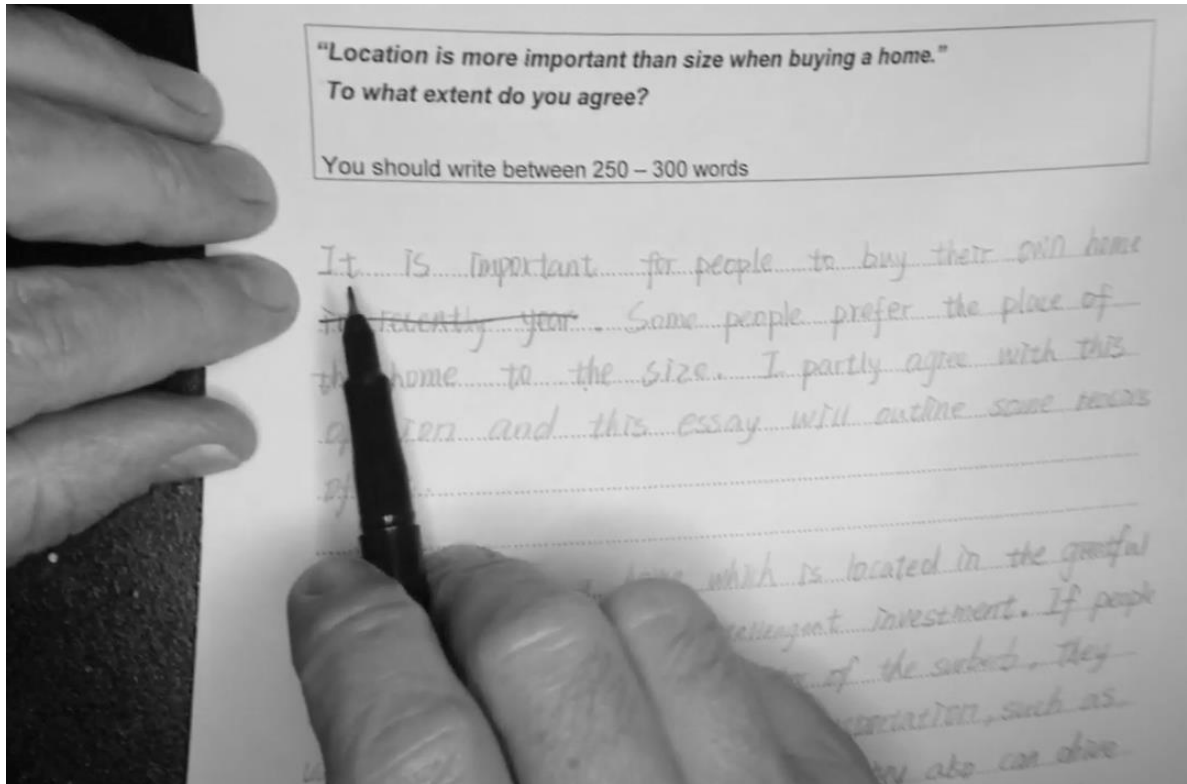


Figure 5.21 Screenshot of Teacher W's feedback video (image author's own)

This mode of feedback was new to Teacher W. A recent professional development event at the ELT centre reported on screen capture software for giving writing feedback (Richards, 2019) and this interested many teachers at the centre. Incidentally, this was also a month before the Queensland pandemic lockdown and the great digital shift to online learning, which led to all teachers using digital tools to give feedback to learners. Teacher W reflects on the exercise as follows:

Although uploading the videos to my computer, then to YouTube and finally putting the links on Padlet was more fiddly and time consuming than I'd hoped, it was actually quite an enjoyable way to give feedback. Certainly a lot more detailed anyway. I will do a SurveyMonkey with the students on Friday to get their views on whether they found the feedback useful and let you know what they say.

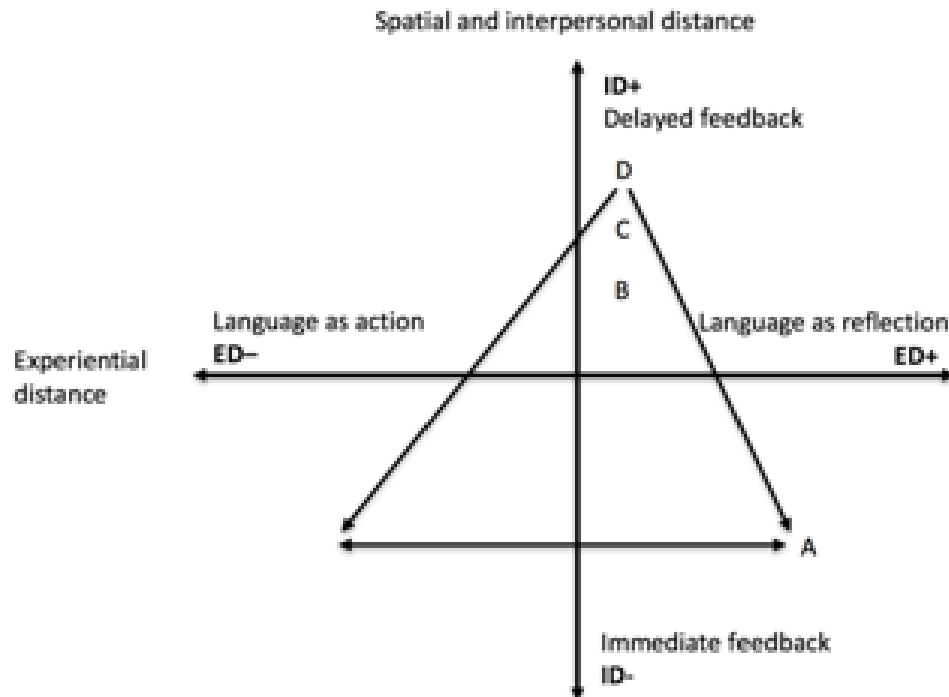
Teacher W: personal correspondence, 2020

In the short survey given to learners by Teacher W, thirteen learners found the feedback very useful (with one finding it quite useful), all the learners understood the feedback

clearly, and thirteen expressed a preference for video feedback (with one preferring written feedback). Here, the intention was for learners to play the video on a digital device and hear the teacher discussing their writing as they simultaneously viewed the returned work on the screen. In terms of mode variables, the aural element sees a lessening of spatial/interpersonal distance (ED-) while language still constitutes the social process (ED+).

These are then returned in class (indicated by an A on the Cartesian plane above). Returning the marked written work in class sees a lessening of spatial/interpersonal distance (ID-) as the teacher and learners are in the classroom together. However, regarding experiential distance, this varies according to the pedagogic activities of the lesson (ED+/-). For example, one pedagogic activity sees the teacher addressing the class as a whole to discuss class needs (ID-, ED-). Another pedagogic activity involves the teacher spending a short amount of time with each student in class to discuss their work and the teacher's written feedback. This leads to greater experiential distance (ID-, ED+). In each case, the teacher is in the classroom with the learners, lessening the spatial/interpersonal distance (ID-), which remains constant in the pedagogic activities. The learners' written work (ID+, ED+), the teacher's written feedback (ID+, ED+) and the classroom work on whole class feedback (ID-, ED-) and individual consultations (ID-, ED+) are illustrated in Figure 5.20.

The spoken feedback in class moves back and forth between written feedback (ID-, ED+) and the spoken feedback activities in the classroom (ID+, ED-). To further understand and establish a more detailed picture of the role of language as action and reflection in these classroom episodes, we can employ pedagogic register analysis (Rose, 2014; 2018; 2020) to explore pedagogic modalities. Specifically, we need to track the sources and sourcing of meaning.



Key

A: Learners’ written work returned with feedback

B: Teacher makes video recordings of feedback

C: Teacher makes audio recording of feedback

D: Teacher writes comments on the learners’ written work, often outside of the classroom

Figure 5.22 Language as action and reflection as written feedback is brought into classroom discourse

The primary options here are sources of meaning from the environment, a record or through speaking. The technical term ‘sources of meaning’ refers to the options available to teachers and include “spoken, written, visual and gestural modes of communication” (Rose, 2020, p.240). These phenomena may be an activity, person(s), thing(s) or place(s) as indicated in Figure 5.23. Sourcing refers to the means of bringing these phenomena into the exchange by either naming or indicating them. The SOURCE system is shown in Figure 5.23.

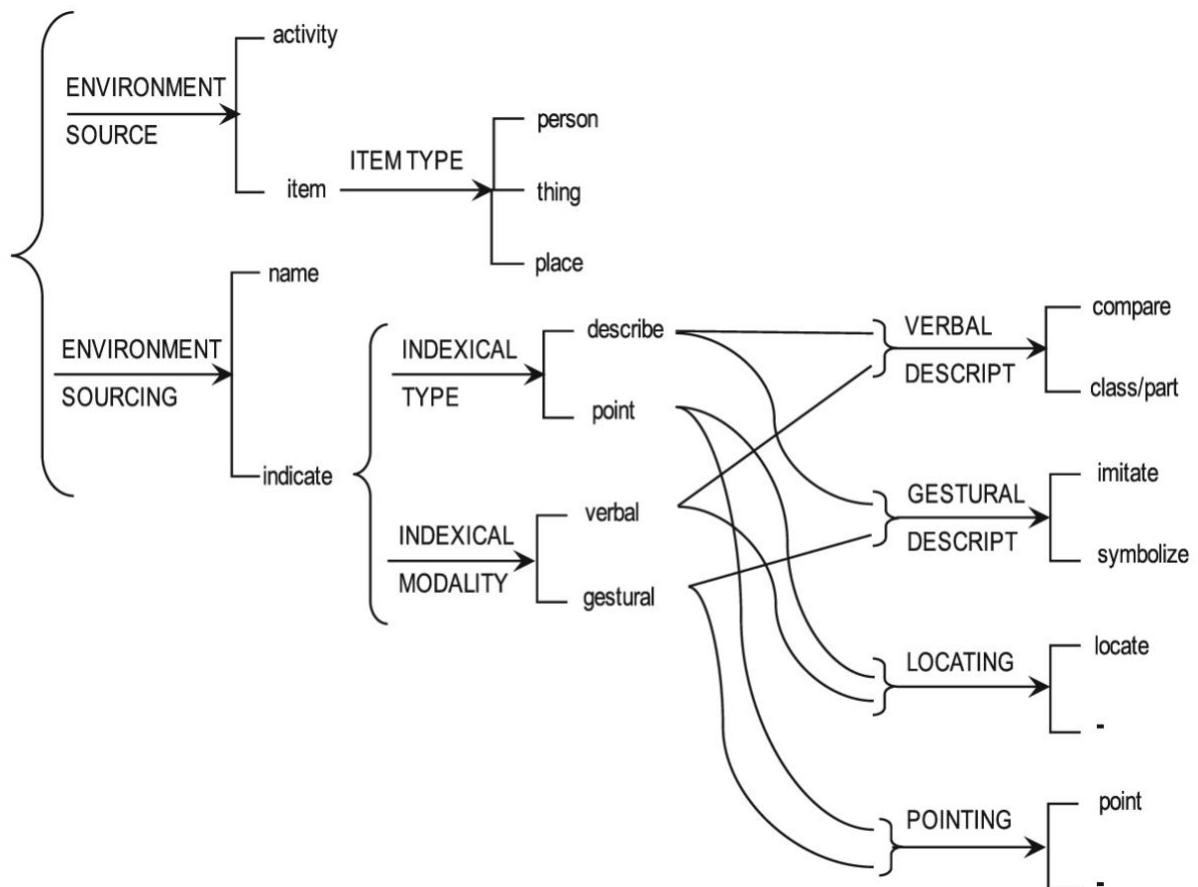


Figure 5.23 System network for pedagogic modalities: environmental sources
(Rose, 2018, p. 13)

5.9.1 Pedagogic register analysis of class feedback episodes

In this section I report on the semiotic choices made by teacher W during feedback episodes. The first analysis reports on pedagogic activities, the second analysis reports on pedagogic relations and the third on pedagogic modalities. Teacher W's lessons is one of the four comparable episodes from each participating teacher. These lessons all provide whole-class feedback on the same writing task and formed the basis of the analysis reported above. For the pedagogic register analysis, I selected Teacher W's first observed lesson. I reviewed the field notes and photographs, listened to the classroom audio recording, reviewed the interview transcription and then started the analysis. I first analysed the classroom discourse in terms of moves and exchanges and I added in relevant non-linguistic information from the audio recording, field notes and teacher interview as appropriate. The next step was to analyse the data in terms of pedagogic relations. I found that colour-coding my analysis helped me to see the choices more clearly (see Figure 5.24), particularly as the

analysis started to show more delicate selections as the teacher choices were mapped to further divisions in the system.

For Teacher W, the classroom episode is of an error correction activity, using small whiteboards and the analysis of this forms the main part of this section. For Teacher X, the classroom episode involves the learners' analysis of their own work once it has been returned to them in class. For Teacher Y, the classroom episode is a 'Find the errors' activity based on sentences from the learners' writing. Finally, the episode from Teacher Z's class involves him addressing the whole class, setting up the classroom work for learners to complete on their returned written work.

Exchange	Teac	Teacher W: mini whiteboards		ped relation		ped modality: environmental sources	ped mod: speaking systems	ped activity			
		Classroom discourse [non-verbal moves in blue]	role	interact	act	sourcing	source	speaking sourcing	speaking source	phase	matter
1	T	All right, so, let's look at some little mistakes that also came up.	K1	direct	conscious: sensing: attention	name	activity	teacher speaking	teacher knowledge	prepare	pedagogic activity describe activity
		You already have an eraser on your board - on your table,		impart	conscious: Thinking: knowledge	name	thing		shared knowledge		step
		I'm going to give you a mini whiteboard for your group.		impart	conscious: Thinking: knowledge	name	thing		teacher knowledge		step
		Do you still have a marker - one marker at least?	dk1	inquire	behaviour	name	thing		learner knowledge	focus guided	step
		[learners respond and show marker pens]	K2	concur	behaviour: accordance	indicate			learner knowledge	task manual	
		Okay	K1	approve	behaviour: teacher evaluation					evaluate affirm	
2	T	One person is first	dk1	inquire	behaviour: accordance	name	person	teacher speaking	teacher knowledge	focus guided	step
	L	[L1]	K2	concur	behaviour: accordance			learner speaking		task manual	
	T	thank you.	K1	approve	behaviour: teacher evaluation			teacher speaking		evaluate affirm	
3	T	And who's first over here?	dk1	inquire	behaviour: accordance	name	person	teacher speaking	teacher knowledge	focus guided	step
	L	[L2]	K2	concur	behaviour: accordance			learner speaking		task manual	
	T	thank you very much.	K1	approve	behaviour: teacher evaluation			teacher speaking		evaluate affirm	
4	T	Okay, [L3's] first?	dk1	inquire	behaviour: accordance	name	person	teacher speaking	teacher knowledge	focus guided	step
	L	[learners nod in agreement]	K2	concur	behaviour: accordance			learner speaking		task manual	
	T	Okay	K1	approve	behaviour: teacher evaluation			teacher speaking		evaluate affirm	
5	T	You're first [L4]	dk1	inquire	behaviour: accordance	name	person	teacher speaking	teacher knowledge	focus guided	step
	L	[learners nod in agreement]	K2	concur	behaviour: accordance			learner speaking		task manual	
	T	All right	K1	approve	behaviour: teacher evaluation			teacher speaking		evaluate affirm	
6	T	As a group, I want you to fix these mistakes.	K1	direct	conscious: sensing: attention	indicate	activity	teacher speaking	teacher knowledge	prepare	describe activity
		This is the first one –	dk1	impart	conscious: Thinking: knowledge	indicate	thing			focus guided	
		Learning both two subject need logic thinking'.		impart	conscious: sensing: attention	indicate	thing		learner knowledge		
		I want you to write the correct answer on your whiteboard, the whole sentence.		direct	behaviour: display	indicate	activity		learner knowledge		
	the text	But please help each other,		direct	behaviour: joint activity	indicate	person		learner knowledge		
	heir knowledge	work together.		direct	behaviour: joint activity	indicate	person				
		[learners complete activity in groups]	K2	impart	conscious: Thinking: knowledge			learner speaking	learner knowledge	task semiotic displaying identify & propose	
		[after imparting knowledge learners need to accord]		accord	behaviour: accordance				shared knowledge		
7	T	So, you're the writer for this one	K1	direct	behaviour	name	person	teacher speaking	shared knowledge	prepare	describe activity
		and you have to tell him what to write.				indicate	activity		shared knowledge		
		[learners complete activity]	K2	impart	conscious: Thinking: knowledge					task semiotic displaying identify & propose	
8		Lots of mistakes.				name	thing	teacher speaking	teacher knowledge	focus guided	pedagogic modality unnamed
		Did you just find one mistake?	dk1	inquire	behaviour	name	thing		learner knowledge		
	L	Almost.	K2	display	behaviour: display				learner knowledge	task semiotic displaying identify	unnamed
	T		K1	ignore	behaviour: teacher evaluation					evaluate reject	
9	T	There's about five mistakes.	dk1	direct	conscious: sensing: attention	name	thing	teacher speaking	teacher knowledge	focus guided	unnamed

Figure 5.24 Screenshot of pedagogic register analysis using colour to indicate system choices

5.9.2 Teacher W: description and analysis of feedback lesson

In the whole-class teacher to learner classroom discourse, we see the exchanges completed by the teacher's evaluation moves and, when giving feedback on the learners' answers, elaboration moves. This pedagogic register consists of the three register variables of pedagogic activities, pedagogic relations and pedagogic modalities. This model of meaning-making is based on choice. Teachers and learners bring meaning-making resources to these classroom interactions and they deploy them, as the interaction develops, in order to achieve their goals. The aim of this analysis is to describe and explain the choices made from systems of possible choices.

My goal in this section is to empirically demonstrate how teaching and learning transpires. Taking these curriculum registers in turn, we can start to see a picture of the choices teachers make. Starting the pedagogic activities, these have been described as a rank scale (Rose, 2014) with lesson as the highest rank, which consists of one or more lesson activities, which in turn consist of one or more learning cycles (introduced in Section 3.10.3). Figure 5.25 showing the orbital structure of learning cycles is represented as a system network in Figure 5.26, showing the options available within the system. Pedagogic activities are 1) the learning tasks in series (the system of CYCLE PHASES) and 2) the focus of these learning cycles (the MATTER SYSTEM) with the choices of curriculum field, pedagogic modality or pedagogic activity (Rose, 2018).

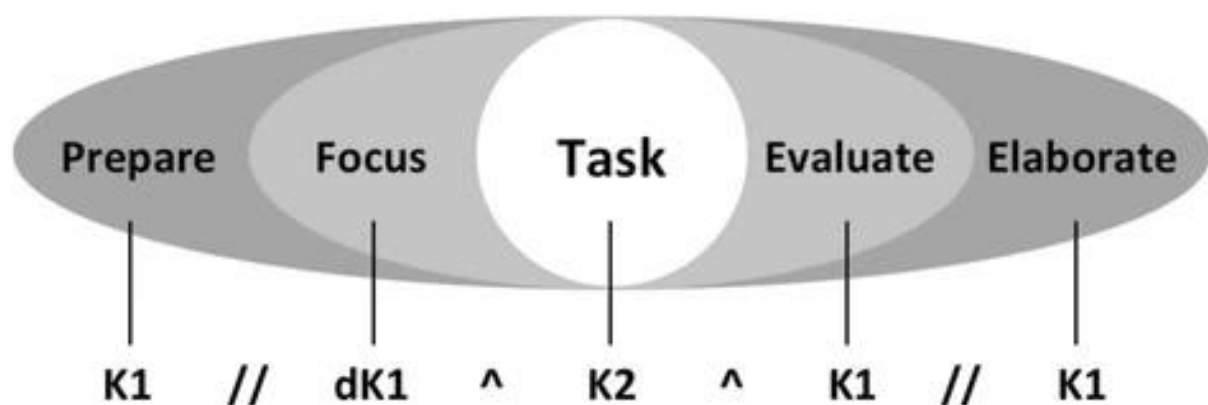


Figure 5.25 Orbital structure of learning cycles, enacted by exchange moves

(Rose, 2014, p. 13)

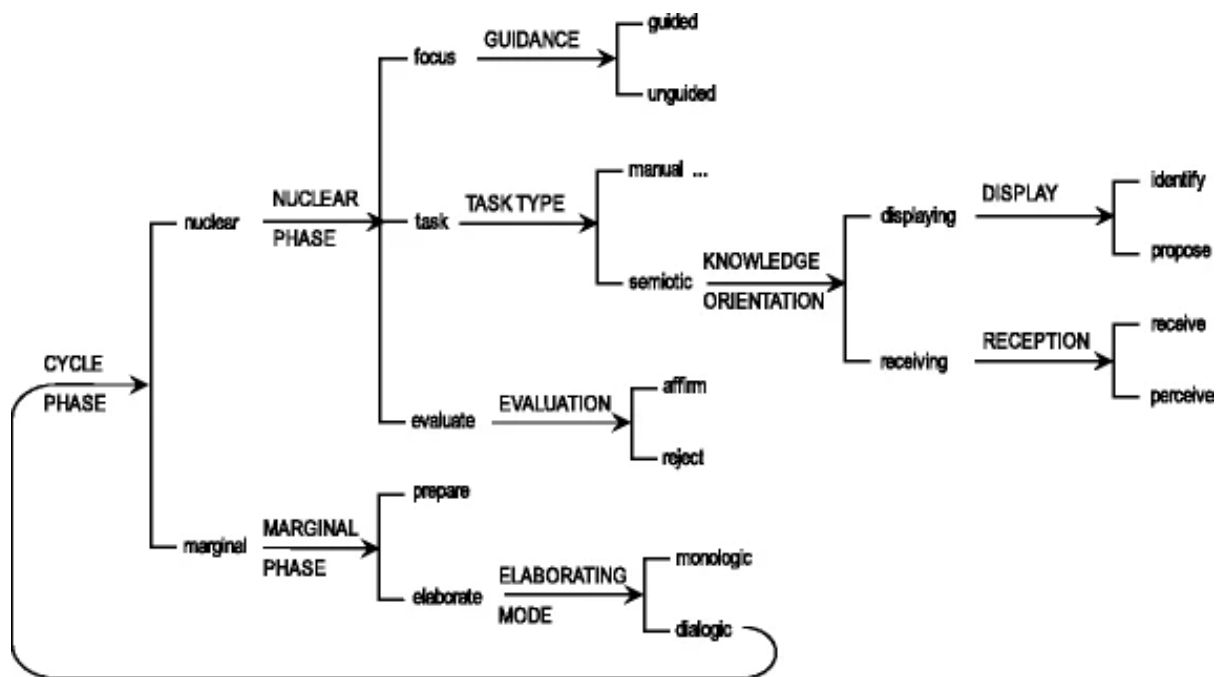


Figure 5.26 System of CYCLE PHASES

(Rose, 2018, p. 23)

5.9.3 Pedagogic activities

The whiteboard error correction activity starts with the learner error *‘Learning both two subject need logic thinking’ (see Figure 5.27, below). The teacher sets up the activity, and the learners work on correcting the sentence in groups. These are then shared with the class and the teacher then discusses a model answer and alternatives. This unfolds over 21 learning cycles that are realized linguistically as exchanges. Once complete, the learners then continue with the next sentence to correct, *‘Studying a language needs to learn many vocabularies’. Our present discussion focuses on the first error correction sentence.

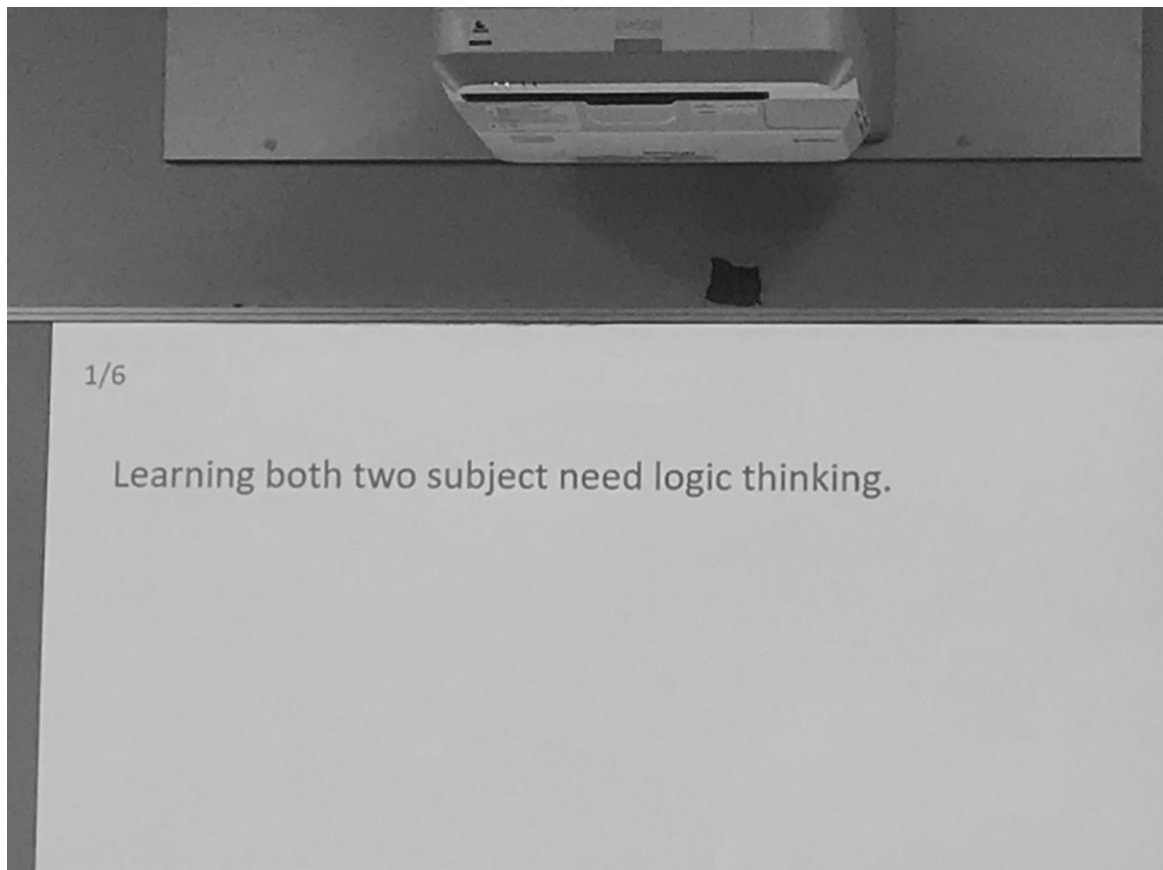


Figure 5.27 The sentence for the learners to discuss and correct in groups (image author's own)

The system of CYCLE PHASES presents the choices open to teachers when planning and teaching lessons. Terms from the system are marked in bold. Learning cycles are orbital structures that contain **pedagogic activity** from the MATTER system (see Figure 5.28) for the first six learning cycles for the activity orientation and specification, shown in Table 5.16 below.

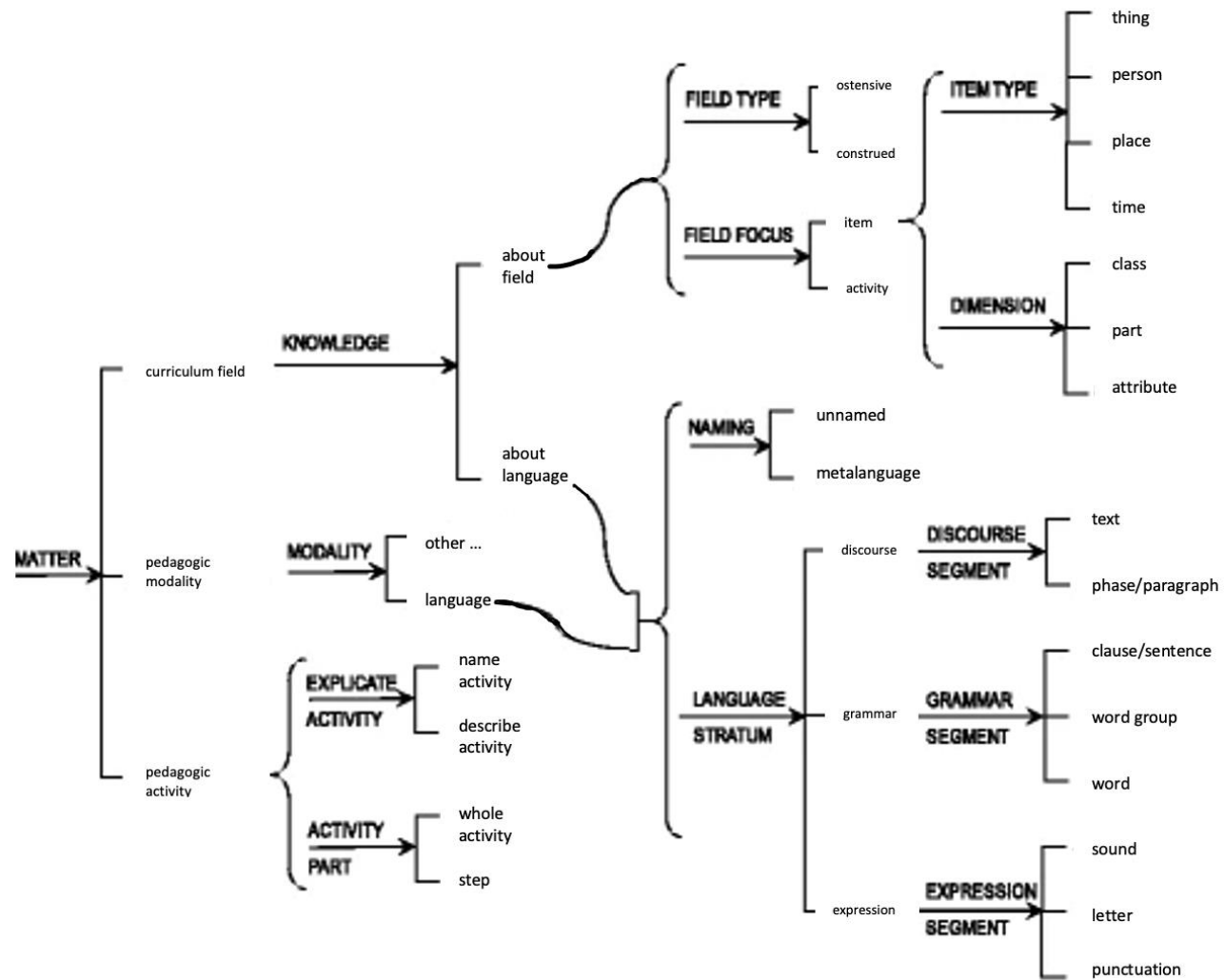


Figure 5.28 MATTER system

(Rose, 2018, p. 24)

Table 5.16 Activity orientation and specification: learning cycles 1 to 6

Exchange	Teacher & Learner(s)	Teacher W: mini whiteboards		Pedagogic activity	
		Classroom discourse [non-verbal moves in square brackets]	role	phase	matter
1	T	All right, so, let's look at some little mistakes that also came up.	K1	prepare	describe activity
		You already have an eraser on your board - on your table			step
		I'm going to give you a mini whiteboard for your group.			step
		Do you still have a marker - one marker at least?	dK1	focus guided	step
		[learners respond and show marker pens]	K2	task manual	
		Okay	K1	evaluate affirm	
2	T	One person is first	dK1	focus guided	step
	L	[L1]	K2	task manual	
	T	thank you.	K1	evaluate affirm	
3		And who's first over here?	dK1	focus guided	step
	L	[L2]	K2	task manual	
	T	thank you very much.	K1	evaluate affirm	
4	T	Okay, [L3's] first?	dK1	focus guided	step

	L	[learners nod in agreement]	K2	task manual	
	T	Okay	K1	evaluate affirm	
5		You're first [L4]	dK1	focus guided	step
	L	[learners nod in agreement]	K2	task manual	
	T	All right	K1	evaluate affirm	
6	T	As a group, I want you to fix these mistakes.	K1	prepare	describe activity
		This is the first one –	dK1	focus guided	
		Learning both two subject need logic thinking'.			
		I want you to write the correct answer on your whiteboard, the whole sentence.			
		But please help each other,			
		work together.			
		[learners complete activity in groups]	K2	task semiotic displaying identify & propose	

Cycles seven to ten see the teacher monitoring groups and using the cycles to ensure they understand what to do and to prompt them. To compliantly complete the activity, learners must make selections in the KNOWLEDGE ORIENTATION system and **display knowledge** to each other.

The first step is to **identify** the errors in the sentence and have these choices **affirmed** by the group. The second choice is to **propose** corrections and, again, have these **affirmed** by the group and written down by the group scribe. By the end of this stage of the activity, each group has completed several learning cycles and the group scribe has written the answer on the whiteboard. An example of a group's answer is shown in Figure 5.29, above. While these have been **evaluated** by the group, the final **evaluation** must come from the teacher, with learner **proposals** either **affirmed** or **rejected**.

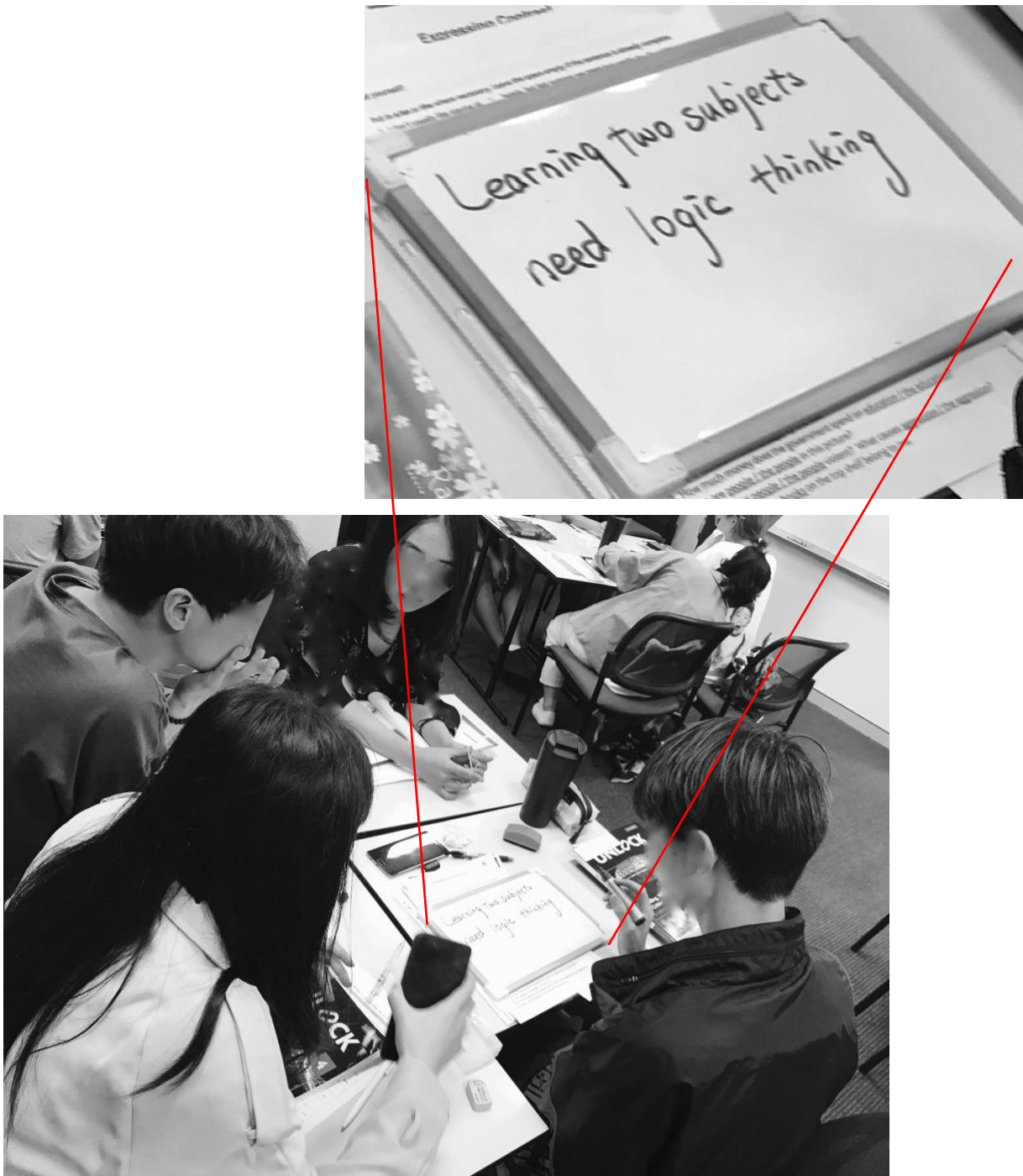


Figure 5.29 Proposed answer from a group (image author's own)

When the teacher monitors the learners working in groups, the teacher chooses **pedagogic modality** from the MATTER system and continues to select this in the **elaboration** phase of the task cycles when providing answers and explanations after the group work. In the activity orientation and specification at the start of the lesson, the teacher chooses **pedagogic activity** but during the group work and when going through the answers later,

the teacher chooses **pedagogic modality**. This shift in choice to **modality** marks the move to a focus on language. During the group work, the teacher **evaluates** learners by choosing to **reject** their choices from the DISPLAY system.

The teacher selects options from the NAMING system but chooses **unnamed** options rather than choosing **metalanguage**. During the activity, the teacher wants to know how the learners are completing the task but does not yet want to affirm them, delaying this to the **elaboration** phases during whole class feedback on this activity.

After the group work stage has finished, the learners hold up their whiteboards and the teacher reads their answers aloud to the class, shown in Figure 5.30 below.

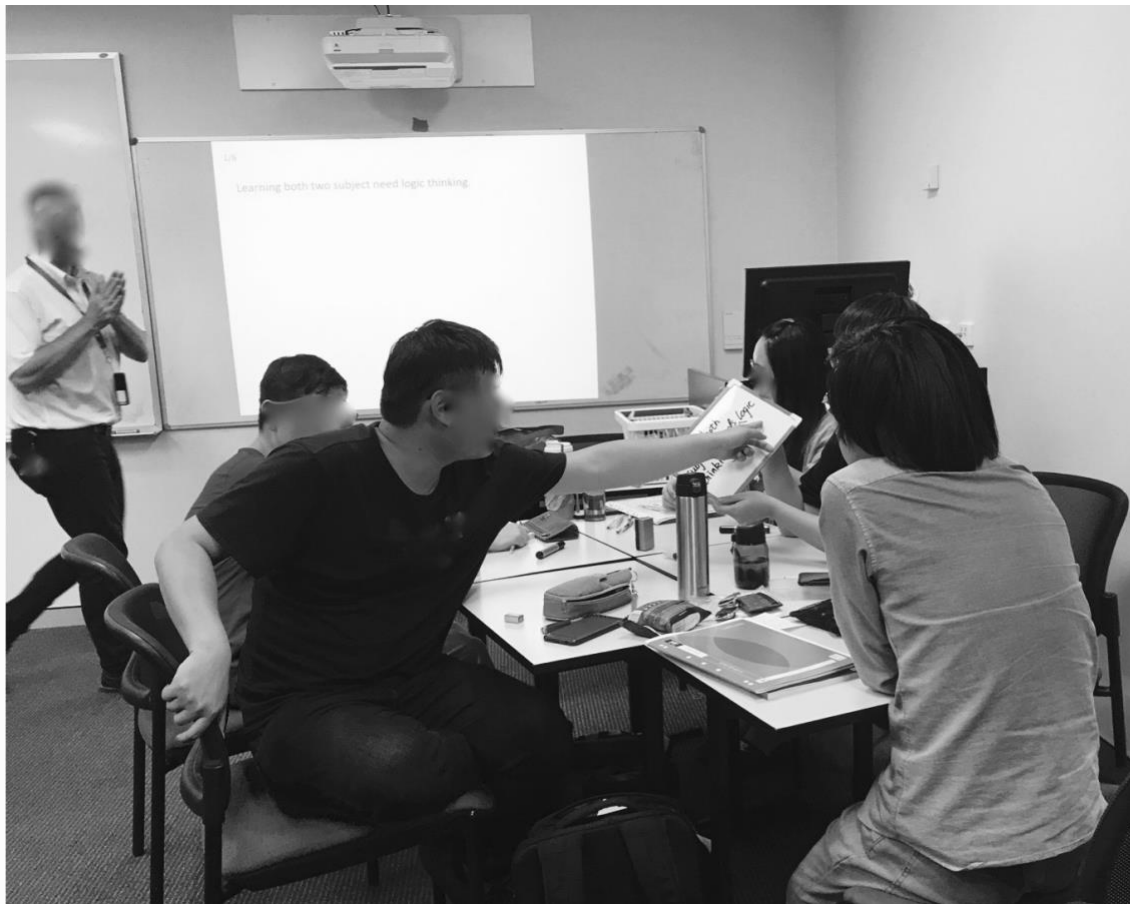


Figure 5.30 Group work (image author's own)

Once again, the teacher chooses to implicitly **reject** their **proposals** by withholding the **evaluation**, praising but **rejecting** (exchange 13) or ignoring (exchange 14) group proposals, as shown in Table 5.17.

In the MATTER system, the teacher selects the **unnamed** option rather than **metalanguage** from the NAMING system. At this point, the teacher chooses tasks that require learners to **receive** and **perceive** the various proposals, but the teacher does not yet **affirm** them. The teacher withholds the evaluation until offering the class his answers as models, as shown in Table 5.18 below.

After the teacher reads the groups' answer aloud, the selections in the MATTER system remain **pedagogic modality** but with an important difference. The teacher now makes simultaneous choices from the NAMING system and the LANGUAGE STRATUM system. It is important to note that the choice or selection is not conscious; as Halliday notes "[l]anguage is unique among cultural processes in the extent to which it remains below the level of consciousness" (2012, p. 78). As Halliday explains, "What this means is that each system – each moment of choice – contributes to the formation of the structure. Of course, there is no suggestion here of conscious choice; the 'moments' are analytic steps in the grammar's construal of meaning (Halliday & Matthiessen, 2014, p. 24). It is in this sense that the teacher selects **metalanguage** (e.g. 'subject' from exchange 14) and selects **grammar** in cycles 16 to 20. From the GRAMMAR SEGMENT system, the teacher selects **word group** most often (12 times), then **word** (10 times) and finally **clause/sentence** (five times) in this feedback episode.

This focus on these choices from the GRAMMAR SEGMENT system is perhaps due to the learners' essays, the teacher's evaluation of these, and the teacher's decision to set up this particular error correction activity. However, it is interesting to note that other options available from the LANGUAGE STRATUM system (i.e. **text** or **phase/paragraph** from the DISCOURSE SEGMENT system and **sound, letter** or **punctuation** from the EXPRESSION SEGMENT system) are not selected. As researchers in WCF have noted (Kregar, 2011, p.3; Heift & Rimrott, 2008; Razeai & Derakshan, 2011; Sheen, 2007), in both ELT and SLA research "the notion of error tends to focus primarily on syntactic and other surface-level errors" (Dreyfus et al., 2016, p. 265). This is the case in these **monologic elaboration** phases that sees the teacher evaluating the group work and also, indirectly through the activity, choices learners made in their writing tasks.

Table 5.17 Receiving and perceiving other learners' answers: learning cycles 13 to 15

Exchange	Teacher & Learner(s)	Teacher W: mini whiteboards		Pedagogic activity	
13	T	We've got over here	dK1	focus guided	step
	Ls	'Learning both subjects needs a logic thinking'.	K2	task semiotic receiving receive (& perceive)	unnamed
		Good try.	K1	evaluate reject	
14	Ls	'Learning two subjects need logic thinking'.	K2	task semiotic receiving receive (& perceive)	unnamed
			K1	evaluate reject	
15	Ls	'Learning two subjects needs logical thinking'.	K2	task semiotic receiving receive (& perceive)	unnamed
		Good try.	K1	evaluate reject	

Table 5.18 Receiving and perceiving the teacher's alternative answer as a model: learning cycles 16 – 18

Exchange	Teacher & Learner(s)	Teacher W: mini whiteboards		Pedagogic activity	
16	Ls	'Studying both of two subjects need logical thinking'.	K2	task semiotic receiving receive (& perceive)	unnamed
			K1	evaluate reject	
	T	Let me show you what I've got,	dK1	elaborate monologic	step
		if I can find my clicker.			
		Lost my clicker.			
		'Both' and 'two'	K1		word
		they're basically the same,			
		it's basically the same.			
		'Both' means two.			
		Both of us, two of, both of them, two of them.			word group
		So, learning both subjects.			word group

		So, I think everyone found this one –			
		'subject' should be 'subjects',			word
		because it's more than one.			
17	L	Needs.	K2	task display propose	word
		[teacher withholds evaluation]	K1	evaluate reject	
18	T	Now, why is it - so why did -	dK1	focus guided	
	L	Learning.	K2	task display propose	word
	T	[teacher withholds evaluation]	K1	evaluate reject	
		So, 'subjects' is not the subject.	K1	elaborate monologic	clause/sentence
		It's actually 'learning both subjects'.			word group
		So, this is the singular,			
		this is the subject,			
		so, 'learning needs logical thinking'.			clause/

					sentence
		And 'logic' is the wrong form.			word
		Okay, I've got a few other ways.			
		If you want to use 'two',			word
		you can say 'learning the two subjects'.			word group
		And you might say 'requires' or 'needs'			word
		I like more academic words like 'requires logical thinking'.			word group
		Similar to over here			
		you used 'of '			word
		both of the subjects we're being specific.			clause/ sentence
		I often see, for example, I often see this one 'both of students'.			word group
		Or 'many of students'.			word group
		I often see this kind of writing			
		that's wrong.			

In summary, this mini-whiteboard activity progresses through a series of choices from the system of CYCLE PHASES and these choices play out in the classroom as learning cycles. The matter of these cycles are initially concerned with setting up the activity and choices are from the EXPLICATE ACTIVITY system and the ACTIVITY PART system as the teacher prepares learners for the activity. During the group work, the teacher makes selections from a different part of the system network, drawing on resources afforded by MODALITY. It is here that the teacher starts to bring language into the exchanges but at this point does not **affirm** learners or **name** language. Bringing the class together to go through possible answers, the teacher makes different choices, selecting the three options described above from the GRAMMAR SEGMENT system.

Analysing the classroom discourse in this way allows us to map the teacher's choices to empirical data. The system of CYCLE PHASES and the MATTER system constitute the pedagogic register of pedagogic activities. The analysis shows the choices the teacher made from each system and how this relates to the classroom and the broader teaching and learning context. This explicitly illustrates the semiotic resources at play as the lesson unfolds, reflecting the choices teachers make in real time as they respond to the changing demands of the classroom and dynamic needs of learners.

5.9.4 Pedagogic relations

Pedagogic relations involve teacher and learner interactions and learner participation. This interpersonal dimension of pedagogic register sees conscious acts (e.g. attention, perception, knowledge) exchanged between teacher and learners (see Figure 5.31). These acts are exchanged by interacts (e.g. inviting perception, approving perception, displaying knowledge) (Rose, 2018). Acts and interacts allow the options and structure of pedagogic relations to be examined more carefully.

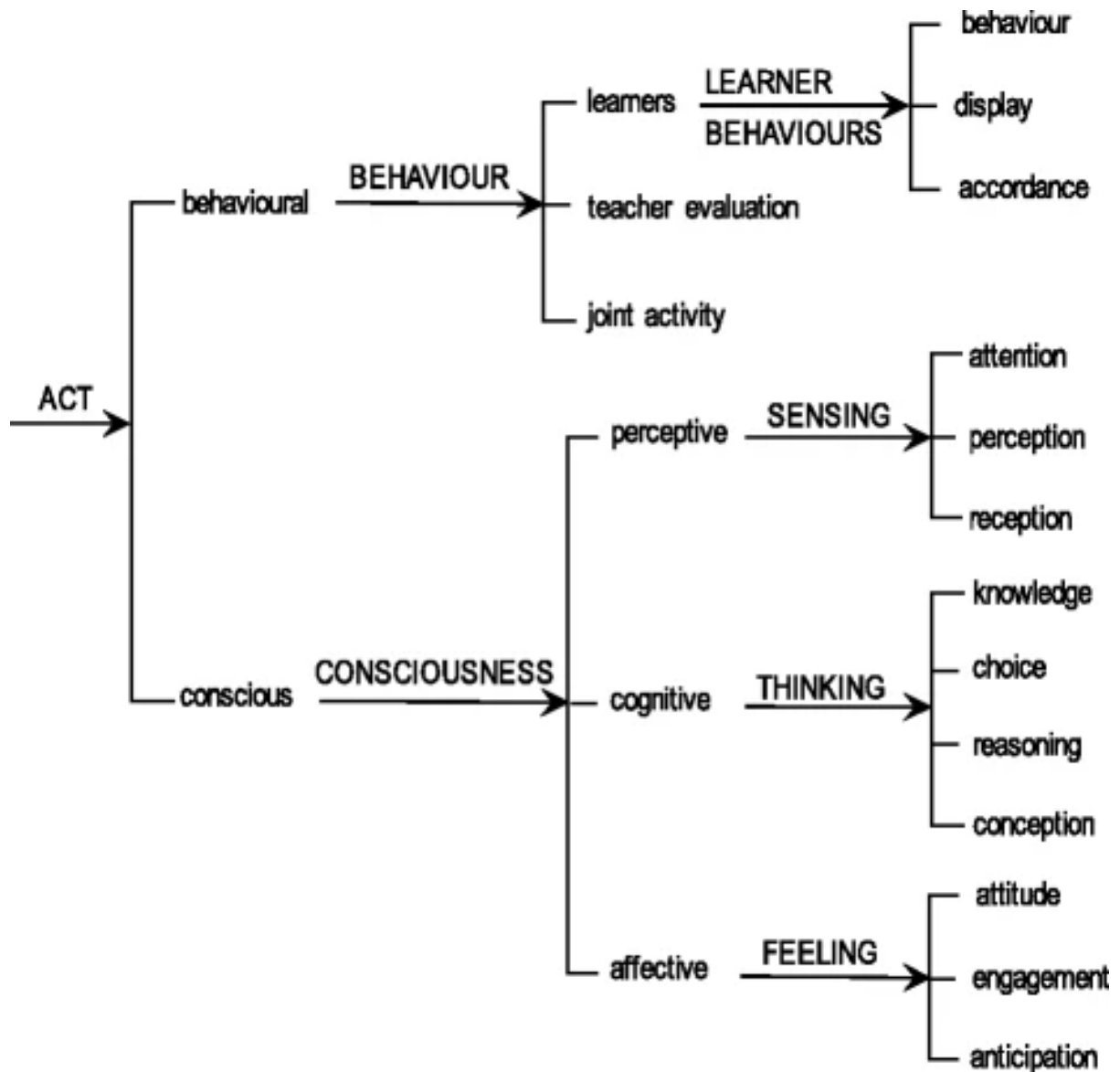


Figure 5.31 ACT system

(Rose, 2018, p. 9)

The classroom had a whiteboard, a data projector that projected images onto another whiteboard to allow for annotation, each group had a mini whiteboard and whiteboard markers. The classroom was well lit with natural light and the tables were arranged into four groups for the group work activity, as shown in Figure 5.32 below.

Again, the analysis reveals certain patterns that correspond with the stage and stage aim of the lesson. The setting up of the activity sees the teacher select a range of interacts as the teacher **directs** learners' **attention** and **behaviour** (choices from the ACT system) at



Figure 5.32 Classroom configuration for group work (image author's own)

the activity orientation, activity specification and activity-stage closure. When checking learners are prepared for the activity, the teacher **inquires** about **behaviour** but when checking answers after the group work, the teacher **inquires** about **knowledge**. When the teacher chooses to **impart** knowledge when teaching, the corresponding choices from the ACT system are either **perceptive** or **cognitive**. That is to say that they are choices from the SENSING system or **attention** (visual and verbal), **perception** (visual) or **reception** (verbal). The teacher often speaks to the learners while also using other semiotic resources, such as text on the data projector or the whiteboard or by the use of gestures, described in more detail below in the pedagogic modalities section. The use of a range of sources foregrounds the teacher's preference for **attention**. From the THINKING system, most choices are **knowledge**, rather than **choice**, **reasoning** or **conception**. In this activity, there are no selections from the FEELING system. This might be explained by the genre and register variables from the target writing task, that is an 'academic' essay comparing and contrasting studying a language and studying mathematics.

5.9.5 Pedagogic modalities

Pedagogic modalities refer to the sources of knowledge and how these are incorporated into the classroom discourse through sourcing. In the elaboration phase of the learning cycle, when the teacher is going through his answers and alternative answers, the teacher is using reified language on prepared presentation slides or written on the whiteboard as sources of knowledge. The teacher is selecting from the ENVIRONMENT SOURCE system (see Figure 5.33 below) to choose either activity or item, and if item, then either person, thing or place. In this data set, the teacher never chooses **place** but either **activity** or, from ITEM TYPE system, **person** (a learner) or **thing** (often an item in the classroom like a pen or reified language displayed by the data projector or on the whiteboard). The teacher brings these sources of knowledge into the classroom discourse by making selections from the ENVIRONMENT SOURCING system, choosing either to name or to indicate the source. The choice of indicating often involves the teacher verbally describing the language, as seen in exchange 18, reproduced in Table 5.18 above. However, the teacher also points and gestures, using not only the VERBAL DESCRIPT system, but also at certain moments of the lesson, the GESTURAL DESCRIPT, LOCATING and POINTING systems as well.

The teacher also makes choices from SPEAKING systems. The SPEAKING SOURCE system (see figure 5.34) provides the choice of **individual knowledge** (either teacher or learner) or **shared knowledge** (either from a prior move or a prior lesson). These sources are simultaneously brought into the classroom discourse by choices in the SPEAKING SOURCING system, with either the **teacher speaking** or the **learner speaking**.

The activity orientation sees the **teacher speaking**, primarily drawing on **teacher knowledge** as the white board activity is set up. **Learner knowledge** and **learner speaking** occurs when the teacher is checking learners are prepared for the group work. The group activity involves **learner speaking** and learners selecting **individual knowledge** while also having the option of choosing **shared knowledge** from a **prior move** or **prior lesson**. After the group work, in the whole class evaluation and elaboration lesson stage, the choices are mainly **teacher knowledge** with a couple of examples of **learner knowledge**. In this stage of the lesson, the teacher is evaluating the learners' knowledge through their answers to the group work activity.

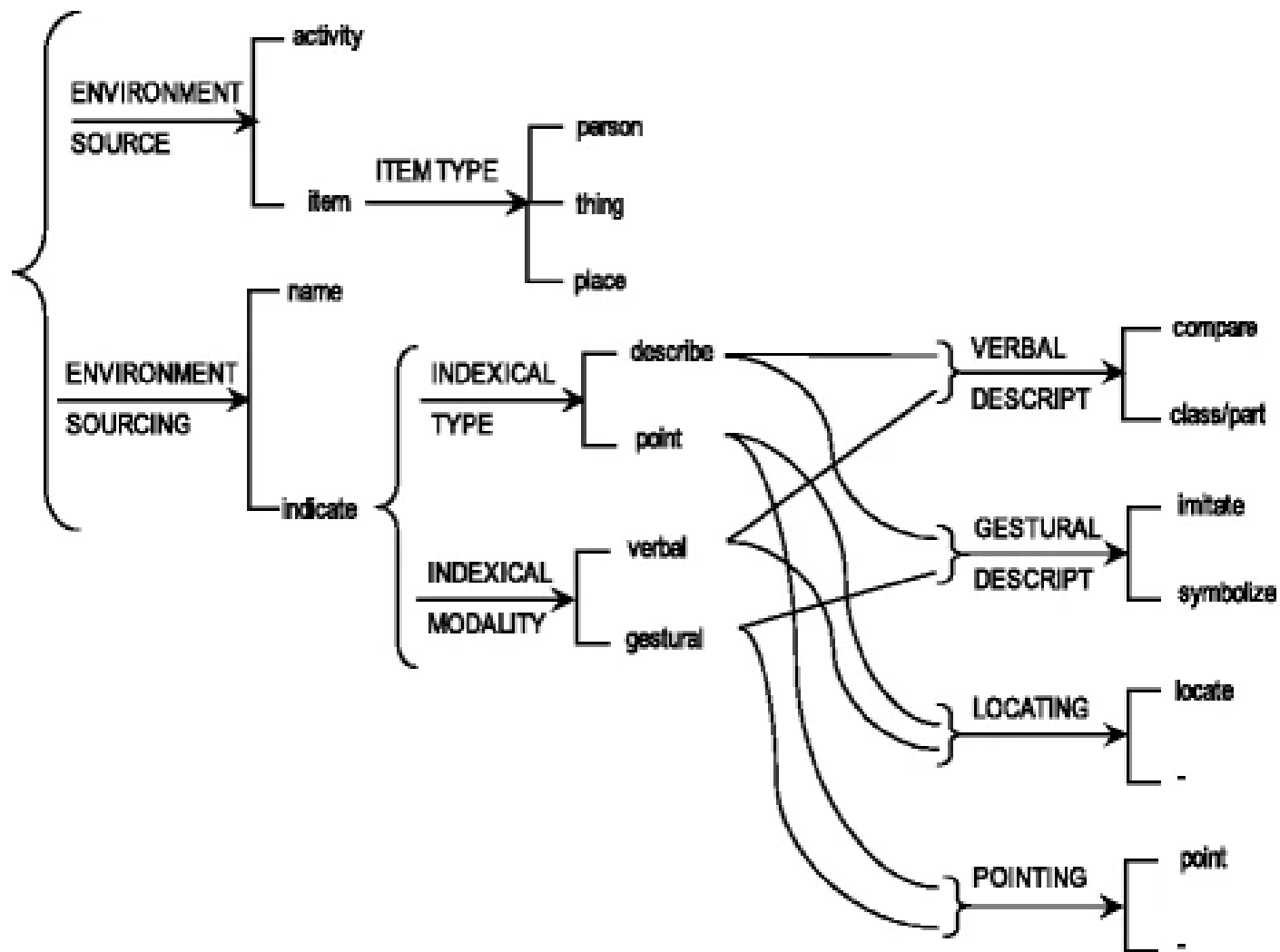


Figure 5.33 Pedagogic modalities: environmental source

(Rose, 2018, p. 13)

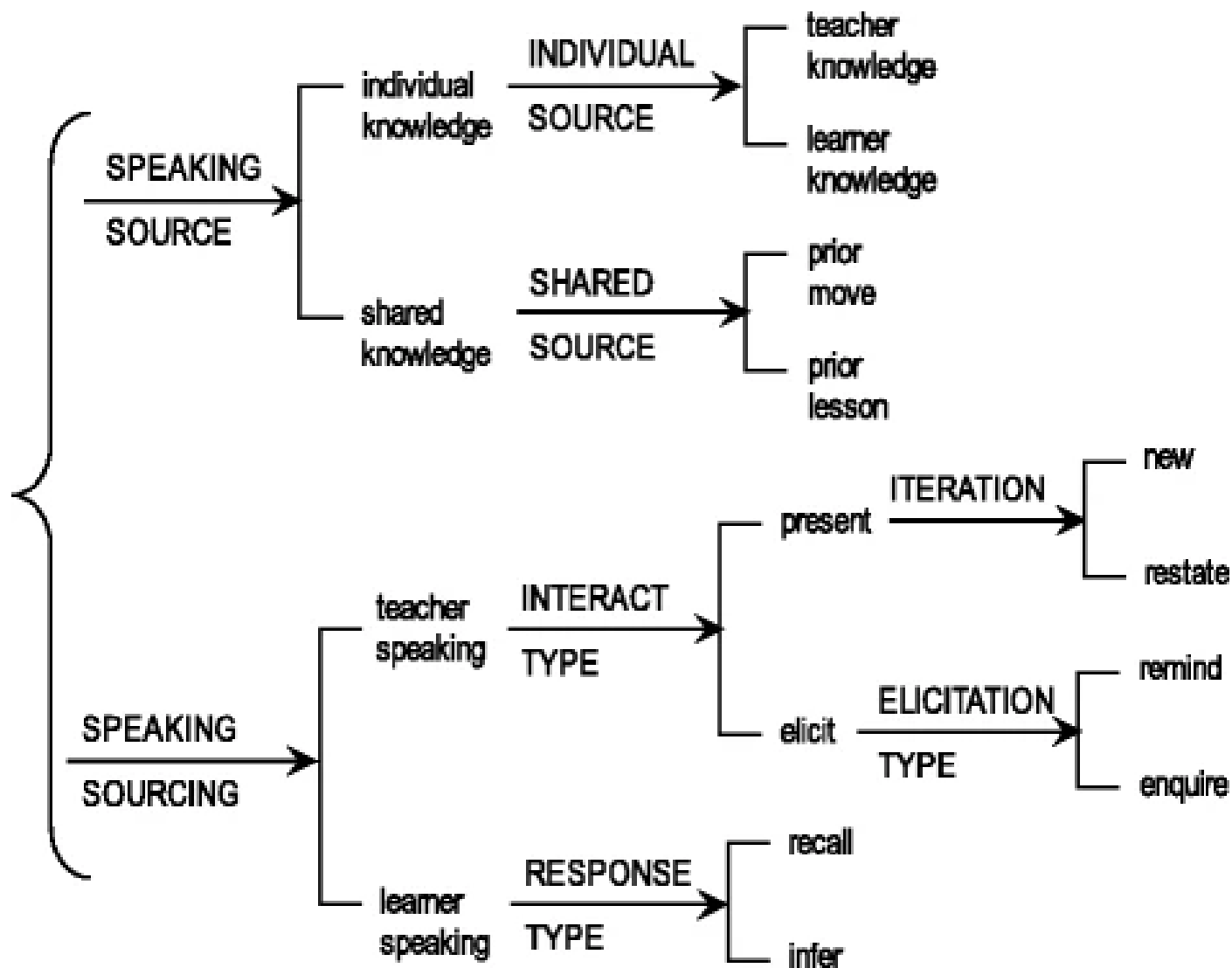


Figure 5.34 Speaking systems

(Rose, 2018, p. 18)

The teacher makes several different choices from the RECORD SOURCES system (see Figure 5.36 below). The teacher chooses both **verbal** and **graphic records**, writing both **verbal text** and symbolic **text** on the whiteboard and using these conventions on the projected presentation slides. From the RECORD ACCESS options from the RECORD SOURCES system, the teacher chooses **shared record** and **display**, with the **verbal** and **graphic record** visible to all at the front of the classroom, as shown in the Figure 5.35 below. Learners read this while listening to the teacher read it aloud and then discuss it, copying it and making notes and even taking photographs.

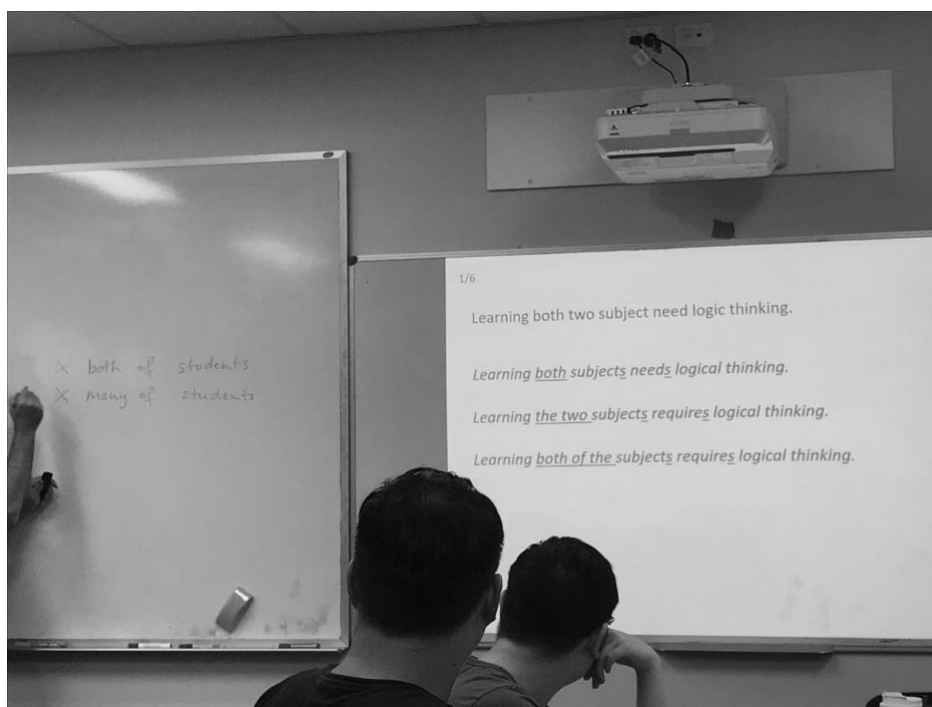


Figure 5.35 Teacher-led feedback using the data projector and whiteboard (image author's own)

This evaluation is done by the teacher and is based on the teacher's knowledge. However, we do see learners offering their ideas, selecting **learner knowledge**. **Shared knowledge**, while certainly an option, has not been chosen in this episode. We can speculate that due to the nature of the activity and this particular error, the teacher has chosen **individual knowledge** as the most effective way of managing knowledge, using the sources of **teacher knowledge** and **learner knowledge** in Evaluate and Elaborate phases to **impart** and **model** language (choices from the INTERACT system) in order to focus learner

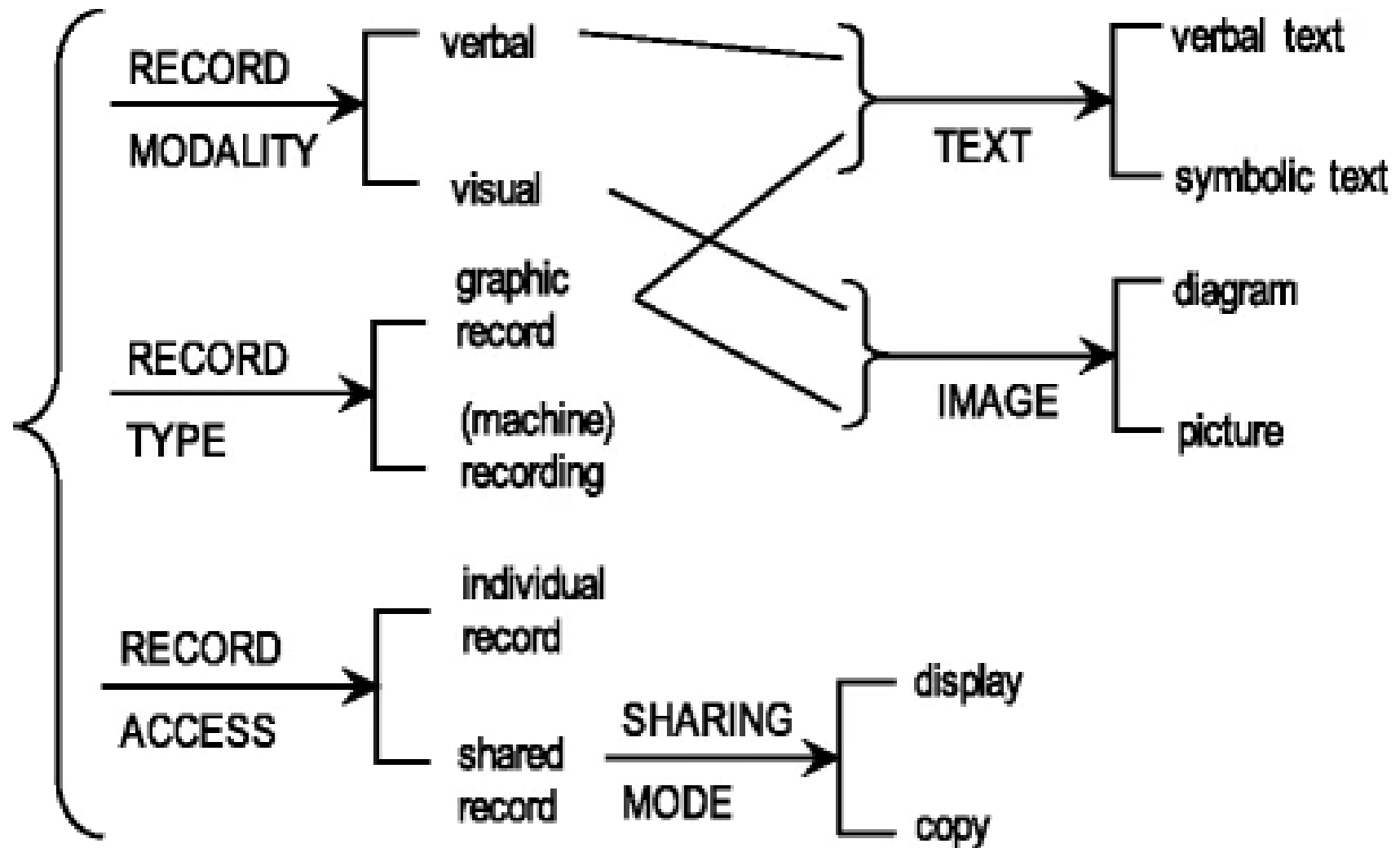


Figure 5.36 Record sources system

(Rose, 2018, p. 15)

attention and then Evaluate their **behaviour** and **display** of knowledge (options from the ACT system).

5.9.6 Comparison of similar activities: identification of similarities and differences

For Teacher W, the error correction activity using small whiteboards saw choices among the pedagogic register systems. This then allows us to account for the choices made from the system of potential options. For Teacher X, the classroom episode involves the learners' analysis of their own work once it has been returned to them in class. As such, this lesson developed differently without group work and the whole class **monologic elaborations** by the teacher. For Teacher Y, the 'Find the errors' activity based on sentences from the learners' writing sees the teacher selecting similar options to Teacher W. This is perhaps unsurprising given the similarities in the two activities. Finally, the episode from Teacher Z's class, the framing and setting up the classroom work for learners to complete on their returned written work, sees the teacher making similar choices to Teacher Y. This raises the question of how these fundamental differences in the selection, sequence and management of pedagogic registers can be accounted for given the similar cohort of learners in each class and the same lesson objectives and course goals. This question is discussed and answered in the next chapter, when feedback on writing is viewed from the dynamic perspective of curriculum genres (Rose, 2014; 2017; 2018; 2020).

In summary, at the level of genre these classroom episodes are part of a curriculum genre (a lesson). There is the configuration of two registers, a curriculum register of knowledge and values and a pedagogic register of activities, modalities and teacher/learner relations. The episodes analysed and discussed above form part of a curriculum genre (a lesson) because each exchange is completed by the teacher's evaluation (pedagogic register) and because the teacher models lexicogrammatical knowledge through examples and model answers. This type of curriculum genre is apparent across the data set and evident in the WCF literature. We can interpret the goals of the genre as in terms of the teacher as presenting language knowledge and in terms of the learners as seeking affirmation for displaying accurate and appropriate language in their writing.

5.10 Chapter conclusions

The micro-analysis on classroom discourse has mapped out the semiotic choices experienced teachers make when giving feedback to learners. Teachers make choices from multiple systems of choices in order to balance group needs with individual learners' needs, and to support individual's language development while simultaneously working towards stated syllabus objectives and course aims.

The meso-analysis has allowed comparisons to be drawn across the lessons of the four teachers. Although each planned and delivered very different lessons in terms of specific activities, the analysis has revealed some underlying commonalities. The first is the generic semantic wave that all the feedback lessons share, with classroom discourse generally discussing learners writing (SG+, SD-), while alternately giving specific examples from the written work (SG++, SD--) and then discussing this in more general terms (SG-, SD+). Similarly, the register analysis revealed common variations in mode, as the teachers took learners' work to mark it with symbols and correct it before bringing it back into the classroom for further work. This pattern of practices can be represented as a constellation, shown in the Figure 5.37 below. The figure illustrates the reconciling of generic learning outcomes with individual learner's writing needs.

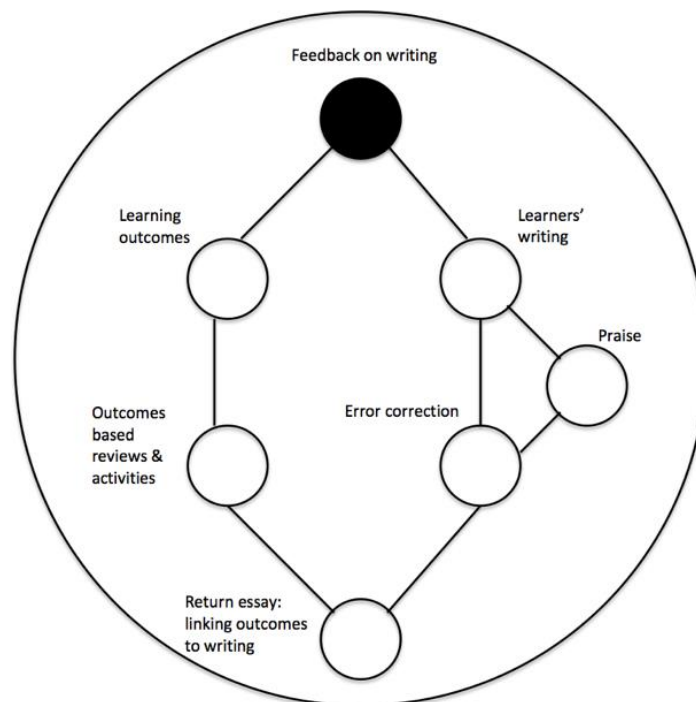


Figure 5.37 Constellating and condensing writing feedback

The constellation shows feedback on writing practices clustering either towards syllabus learning outcomes or towards individual learners writing. Reviews and activities based on learning outcomes figure in all the four classrooms, as does work on the learners' writing. This work on the learners' writing contains praise, but it also contains the identification of areas that require further attention. The two clusters around learning outcomes and learners' writing are then brought together when the written work is returned to learners. This is annotated to highlight areas for further attention, usually contains praise and, often in the final comment, makes reference to the learning outcomes in terms of the written task question, assessment or course goals. Similarly, these practices come together when the teacher speaks to learners individually in class once they have received their written work back. Once again, we can see here the recurring themes clearly driving teachers' feedback practices for all four experienced teachers, 1) the mode of feedback and 2) learning outcomes, class needs and individual needs.

The macro analysis revealed the complex process of curriculum enactment that requires cooperation for all agents to achieve learning outcomes and course goals. The interface between the field of recontextualization and reproduction is complex and involves recontextualizing logics, evaluative logics and distributive logics as knowledge is selected, rearranged and transformed for use as pedagogic discourse (that is to say *pedagogized*) from recontextualization fields to reproduction fields (Maton, 2014 p.51). The logics are accessible to us through codes of legitimation: "The 'logics' constitute the intrinsic grammar of the device; their realizations as practices are analysed using legitimation codes" (Maton, 2016, p. 236). This creates an arena of struggle in which the agents struggle for control, creating the potential for cooperation, tension and resistance. In the following chapter, I answer my research questions using the insights gained from these analyses.

Chapter 6 Crafting a pedagogic tool: a dynamic perspective

Nearly everyone who writes likes – and needs – to talk about his or her writing, preferably to someone who will really listen, who knows how to listen, and knows how to talk about writing too. [...] [someone who will] draw them out, ask them questions they would not think to ask themselves.

North (1984, pp. 439 – 440).

Learning is, above all, a social process [...] Knowledge is transmitted in social context, through relationships, like those of parent and child, or teacher and pupil, or classmates, that are defined in the value systems and ideology of the culture. And the words that are exchanged in these contexts get their meanings from activities in which they are embedded, which again are social activities with social agencies and goals.

Halliday and Hasan (1985, p. 5)

6.1 Overview

This chapter is a continuation of the analysis presented in Chapter 5. It summarizes and synthesizes the main points arising from the previous chapter and further develops the analysis. A perennial problem for teachers is how to achieve course objectives while simultaneously developing the emerging language of the individual learners in the classroom. A curriculum is usually written at a distance from particular classrooms and while it might be written with a general cohort in mind, it is by its very nature generic. The teacher then uses this curriculum to plan and deliver lessons that work towards achieving course goals while also meeting the needs of learners as a group and as individuals.

Classrooms are complex social phenomena (Shulman, 2004). This complexity guided my decisions when designing and conducting the study. Taking a context-sensitive approach involving document analysis, classroom observation, interviews and learner focus groups, I investigated four teachers and their classes working on the same three units of a course over a four-week period. This particular course provides a pathway into an Australian university for international students who have not met the English language proficiency requirements. In order to make meaningful comparisons across the classes, I focussed on how teachers give feedback on the learners' writing. Using analytical tools from

Legitimation Code Theory (Maton, 2014), drawing primarily on the dimension of Semantics, and Pedagogic Register Analysis (Rose, 2017a; 2018; 2020) that draws on the Martinian approach to systemic functional linguistics, I analysed the classroom discourse to understand and explain how teachers achieve course goals while simultaneously developing the emerging language of the individual learners in the classroom. The analyses have been reported in the previous chapter. In this chapter, I outline the key points and then I synthesize these as I respond to each research question.

6.2 Key points and themes

The key points of the study are summarized here. Firstly, feedback on writing is more productively seen from a dynamic perspective, rather than a static perspective that categorizes types of written feedback. Teachers use written feedback as a pedagogic tool that invites further learning cycles for learners to enact and further evaluation from the teacher. The theme here is the crafting of a pedagogic tool as the teacher moves from interpreting written models to evaluating the learners' own writing. Secondly, this pedagogic tool crafted through written feedback is only one way that teachers work towards their triple focus of achieving course objectives, meeting class needs and meeting individual learner needs. The theme here is reconciling language development with course goals for pedagogic consistency. Thirdly, the field of knowledge recontextualization and the field of knowledge reproduction interact in complex ways as knowledge is prepared for pedagogic discourse. Individuals adopt multiple roles across these fields as courses are developed, adapted and enacted by publishers, teaching institutions, teachers and learners. The theme here is curriculum enactment by teachers and learners. These key points and themes are discussed below as I respond to my research questions.

6.3 Discoveries: answering the research questions

Here is the main, overarching research question:

- 1) How do teachers work towards both achieving course goals while simultaneously developing learners' emerging language and control of written genres during feedback in writing lessons?

Classrooms are incredibly complex environments in which complex processes occur and in order to answer this question, I analysed my data from three different perspectives. Firstly, I analysed the curriculum more broadly by examining the course materials and associated documents in a macro-analysis. This revealed the changes that occur during recontextualization, as knowledge is selected, organized and sequenced in preparation for its use in pedagogic discourse. Rather than distinct fields of knowledge recontextualization and knowledge reproduction, my analysis shows the complex relationships between agents in these fields. Teachers work with publishers, producing the course materials. For example, practising teachers may be directly involved in changes to later editions. Published course are then purchased and adapted by ELT Centres to meet the requirements of the centre while also communicating with the publisher, teachers and learners. Teachers also adapt the curriculum when planning their lessons and the final adaptation occurs in curriculum enactment, which involves both teacher and learners in the classroom.

From the second perspective, I focussed on the teachers and their planning and delivery of writing lessons as they give feedback on learners' writing. This is of particular interest because neither the course nor the centre prescribes a particular lesson, method or activity for this type of feedback lesson. This meso-analysis examined the feedback lessons of four teachers giving feedback on the same lessons. While the four lessons were very different in terms of activities and how the teachers planned and delivered their lessons, the analysis revealed some underlying similarities. All four lessons start with whole class or group activities and end with individuals receiving their written work from the teacher, annotated with written corrective feedback. All the lessons start with course goals and end with individual learners' emerging language. All the lessons give learners the opportunity to ask questions and, therefore, receive an evaluation from the teacher.

The third perspective was from episodes in the classroom. Once again, I took the four comparable lessons giving feedback on the same piece of writing and analysed the classroom discourse using pedagogic register analysis (Rose, 2018; 2020). The analysis mapped out the choices teachers made from the meaning potential of system networks. This dynamic perspective sees the feedback lessons unfolding through a series of learning cycles. The learning cycles are initially concerned with the setting up of pedagogic activities and then, through choices in ACT and INTERACT systems (Rose, 2018) in elaboration moves,

the careful directing of learners' attention to relevant points, primarily of the lexicogrammar. To explore and discuss the analyses further, I now respond to the five narrower research questions, listed below, and I reflect on the insights and greater understandings suggested by my research.

- a) How do teachers both achieve lesson objectives and respond to learners' writing?
- b) How do teachers both meet group needs and individual learner's needs?
- c) How do teachers guide and support learners through giving feedback on writing?
- d) What linguistic resources do teachers employ in the classroom to effectuate these ends?
- e) What insights into classroom practice are offered by this analysis and description?

The discoveries I made from the study while seeking answers to these research questions are summarized below. They are organized by the three main themes that have emerged from my analyses, namely *consistency*, *curriculum enactment* and *crafting a pedagogic tool*.

6.4 Theme one: Consistency - reconciling language development with course goals

This first theme concerns how teachers achieve and maintain consistency in lessons over time as they maintain their triple focus and balance course goals with the dynamic needs of the class as a whole and with the dynamic needs of individual learners (research questions A and B, above). The course goals may be conceptualized as an end point or a destination and as such it is useful practice for the teacher to make these clear to learners, as the teachers in the study did. However, only discussing the goals does not necessarily help learners achieve these goals. The reason these learners are on this particular course is because they have been unable to meet minimum language entry requirements. This is the stated goal of this course. What the learners also need, in addition to a clear goal, is the guidance and support to develop their present linguistic repertoires and their meaning-making potential. This refers to what a language learner can mean rather than how many linguistic forms they can produce. Yet these two foci, the course goals on the one hand and the learners'

dynamic needs on the other, need to be aligned in order for the teacher to plan and give consistent lessons and maintain stability.

One useful metaphor is to conceptualize learning as a trajectory (Byrnes, Maxim & Norris, 2010). Trajectories are a way of viewing adult language learning as movement along “gradual pathways towards comfortable, competent and dynamically evolving abilities [as learners] strive to become multicompetent and multicultural language users” (Ortega & Byrnes, 2008, p.18). A trajectory is the path followed by a projectile or an object moving through the air or under the action of given forces. The metaphor works well with the idea of movement towards a target or goal but has other, restricting elements such as presenting learning as a linear, unidirectional process. However, it is a suitable metaphor for current purposes. Viewing learners’ language development as trajectories allows us to visualise how teachers reconcile the two foci by aligning language development towards course goals and in the process aligning the two. The teacher guides the learners carefully through these pathways towards greater linguistic repertoires and meaning-making potential.

In the data analysed for this study, experienced teachers work towards achieving course objectives, in this case concerning academic writing, while simultaneously developing learners’ current and emerging language and control of written genres during feedback in writing lessons by the following three practices:

- 1) planning lessons based on both course goals and learners’ writing
- 2) by varying the amount of teacher direction
- 3) by balancing interpretation (e.g. of model writing) with the evaluation of learners’ writing.

The first of these practices sees experienced teachers carefully planning lessons based on both course goals and learner writing. This is achieved by the selection and sequencing of activities that are primarily concerned with either the stated course goals or the writing of individual learners. The patterns identified in the data see the experienced teachers starting with the ‘destination’ of the learners’ trajectories (i.e. the course goals) and then, through pedagogic activities, moving to address the learners’ current position on their trajectories. In other words, they start the lesson by drawing learners’ attention to the ‘there’ of the goal and then focus on the ‘here’ of their current linguistic repertoires. This

was conceptualized as a cline in Chapter 5, with either activities prioritizing course goals or learner needs.

The second practice involves teachers varying the amount of teacher guidance at different points in lesson sequences. Greater guidance means closer social space between a learner and a teacher. Lesser guidance means further social space (see section 5.9 for an explanation of spatial/interpersonal and experiential distance in classroom feedback on writing). For example, when Teacher W elaborates answers in the small whiteboard error correction activity, discussed in Chapter 5, there is a close social space between teacher and learners. In contrast, when the learners write their full essays to then submit to the teacher, these are completed with lesser guidance from the teacher and greater social space. Even when a teacher gives learners time to complete their extended writing work in the classroom, this is still an example of greater social space. The learners may be in the same physical place but they are working individually and with less guidance from the teacher. This variation in teacher guidance can be conceptualized as an elliptical orbit, illustrated in Figure 6.1 below with the learner closer or further from the teacher in social space. The apsides of this orbit are two: the ‘periodigós’¹⁵, when the learner is closest to the teacher as guide, and the ‘apodigós’ when the learner is furthest. For most of the unit of work,

¹⁵ This is a coinage (just as perihelion and aphelion were coined by Kepler) that is formed by ‘peri’ meaning ‘near’ and ‘odigós’ meaning ‘the guide’. In the same way ‘apo’ means ‘away from’ and ‘odigós’ means the guide.

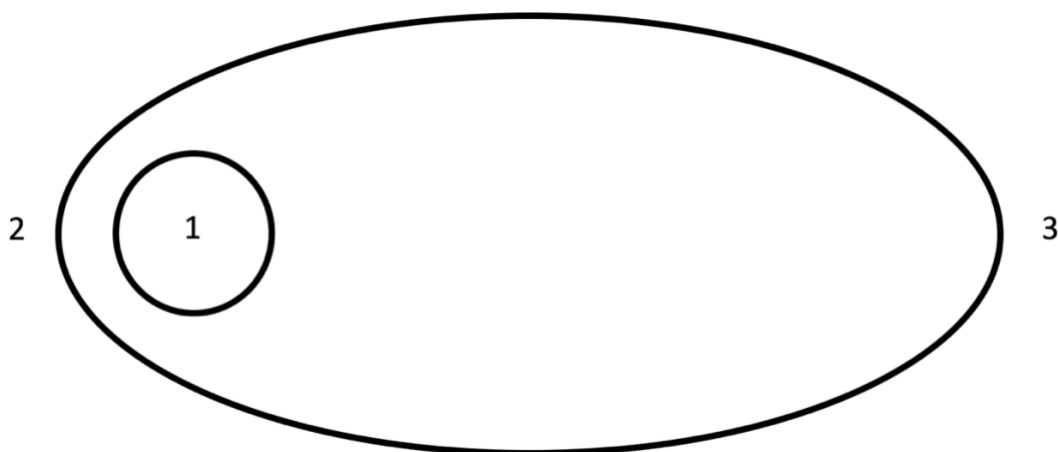


Figure 6.1 Learner proximity to teacher guidance

1. Teacher as guide
2. Periodigós: learner is near to the teacher for more guidance
3. Apodigós: learner is far from the teacher for less guidance

particularly the classroom-based work, the learner is close to the teacher who guides the learner through the various pedagogic activities. The unit of work culminates in the independent writing task, completed at a social distance from the teacher. The teachers in the study do not offer guidance during the writing of this independently produced piece of writing. The piece of writing is then given to the teacher, who annotates it with written feedback and then returns this to the learner. At this point, teacher and learner come together again, with the teacher returning the writing and answering questions and discussing the work with the learner. This practice is discussed further in Section 6.6 below. The careful variation of teacher guidance is another means by which the teacher balances course goals with individual learners' language development.

The third practice is the teacher's careful balancing of interpretation and evaluation through a lesson sequence. The interpretation of model writing, which sees the teacher identifying and highlighting relevant linguistic features to learners, precedes the learners' individual writing. In the case of my data, this is the focus of lessons preparing learners for the individual writing task. Either the reading passages from the course or example essay answers produced by the ELT Centre provide these teachers with knowledge genres (Rose, 2017a; 2018; 2020) for them to analyse and discuss in class. The learners' written work is then evaluated by the teachers. This practice is discussed further in Section 6.5 below. The interpretation of models and the evaluation of learners' writing is the third means by which

the teacher reconciles the twin demands of the course and the individuals in the classroom, the *here and now* of current linguistic resources and the *there and then* of future goals.

These are my responses to the following research question: a) How do teachers achieve both lesson objectives and respond to learners' writing?

6.4.1 How teachers meet group needs and individuals' needs

A related element of consistency and an important issue for practitioners concerns how the experienced teachers in the study endeavour to meet both the dynamic needs of the class as a whole and also the needs of individuals. Once again, this is achieved in this data set by careful planning and the skilful management of classroom discourse. Regarding the planning these experienced teachers select and sequence activities that move from class needs to individual needs. This is clearly shown by the analyses of the same lesson taught by the four teachers discussed in Chapter 5. The teachers identify common errors they believe to be of relevance and use to the whole class and they then plan pedagogic activities around them. Individual learner's needs are met by the written corrective feedback written by the teacher on their work. These bespoke comments and corrections are learner and written work specific. The pattern in the data sees these experienced teachers starting with activities that address the needs of the whole class and then move on to returning the written work to individual learners.

The second notable practice is the skilful management of classroom discourse. As the pedagogic register analyses illustrated in Chapter 5, these teachers manage pedagogic activities, enact pedagogic relationships and bring in complex sources of meaning by managing pedagogic modalities. One specific practice employed by these teachers is withholding their evaluation moves in whole class interactions. This practice allows the teacher to draw all learners' attention to salient points and provides multiple opportunities for learners, in either groups or as individuals, to display knowledge before the teacher offers a final evaluation with either affirmation or rejection. This specific practice, when skilfully executed, sees the teacher building a certain tension in the lesson by withholding the primary knower K1 move. By encouraging other learners to answer before completing the exchange, the teacher accumulates and holds the attention of the class, broadening the benefit of the exchange from one learner to many learners. These are my responses to the

following research question: b) How do teachers meet both group needs and individual learner's needs?

6.5 Theme two: Curriculum enactment

This second theme concerns how teachers translate the curriculum into classroom practice (Byrnes, 2001, p.143). As discussed in Chapter 5, this curriculum enactment involves various agents and each might be more or less compliant or resistant to the knowledge and values of the curriculum. All work on the curriculum prior to teaching may involve recontextualization, as agents select and adapt knowledge for pedagogic discourse (Maton, 2014, p.52). This makes the planning and delivery of lessons the interface between knowledge recontextualization and knowledge reproduction. This suggests the current study, while interesting in its own right, may be of interest and use to others involved in the recontextualization and reproduction of knowledge in other contexts.

In this study, curriculum enactment occurs in the classroom and led to this research question:

c) How do teachers guide and support learners through giving feedback on writing?

My response to this question leads to considerations of the dynamics of exchanging knowledge and values between teachers and learners in adult English language writing classrooms. The analyses of classroom discourse using the dimension of Semantics from LCT suggest that teachers build knowledge in feedback on writing lessons by strengthening and weakening context-dependence and density of meaning in their classroom discourse. These variations in strength create semantic waves that make links between particular instances of language in the learners' writing to less-context dependent knowledge, such as underlying lexicogrammatical systems. This allows the teacher to draw learners' attention to relevant aspects of their writing and elaborate on these by referring to more general or abstract forms of knowledge, such as metalanguage. Learners are able to see more general patterns and principles and move beyond the specifics of a particular example that is locked into a single context.

In my exploratory study, Study One, semantic waves are identified as a means of supporting learners. Noticing that learners were not yet ready to commence a speaking activity with less teacher guidance, the experienced teacher weakened semantic gravity to provide learners with more support and guidance over a series of exchanges. Teacher affirmed the learning tasks in these learning cycles and therefore believed the learners were ready to continue on to the speaking activity. This is only one purpose of semantic waves. In the data set from this study, Study Two, further purposes were found to be used by the teachers. Through the semantic analysis I discovered three patterns. These are best understood as idealised norms “with which stretches of naturally occurring texts can be compared” (Berry, 1981, p.61). This first pattern is an idealised norm, a semantic wave found in feedback on writing lessons in my data set. The second pattern is the set of semantic pathways that teachers take across the semantic plane. The third and final pattern is that of complex practices that are broken down and illuminated by constellation analysis. I will now discuss each pattern in turn.

Semantic waves trace a particular movement across the semantic plane, from prosaic code (SG+, SD-) to rhizomatic code (SG-, SD+) as the teacher discusses learners written work and then weakens semantic gravity and increases semantic density to discuss the language in more general terms. For example, when a teacher elaborates on a point, they may refer to examples in the learners writing in the prosaic code (SG+, SD-) and they may then go on to use metalanguage to discuss this, code shifting to the rhizomatic code (SG-, SD+). The data set revealed other pathways. These are code drifts deeper into the prosaic code (SG++, SD-) when the teacher quotes directly from a learner’s written work. There are also examples of code shift into the worldly code (SG+, SD+) as the teacher discusses particular pieces of written work by using terms with a greater density of meaning such as “lots of good *language*”. In addition to these pathways, there were also complex knowledge practices. Teachers may also make more general points about language development and their experiences teaching language shifting to the rarefied code (SG-, SD+).

However, these teachers are always aware of their learners’ linguistic repertoires and carefully grade their own language to ensure that they are providing a natural linguistic model that is also comprehensible to all the learners in the class. This grading is often achieved by strengthening context-dependence to find common ground with learners. It is

also achieved by reducing the density of meaning or carefully unpacking meaning of semantically dense items, such as the example of the teacher W defining the lexical item 'significant' in Chapter 5. The complexity of these practices is not accurately captured by a semantic wave or as a pathway but rather by constellation analysis. Analysis in these practices as a constellation of connected practices allowed them to be teased apart and understood as separate nodes and in relation to each other as constellations and how they are configured. The complex practices in teacher W's definition of 'significant' that I identified in the micro-analysis and the complex practices of feedback lessons from the meso-analysis are displayed as constellations in Chapter 5.

In summary, the semantic analysis explained how the experienced teachers in this study varied context-dependence and density of meaning to make connections between practice (e.g. writing) and theory (e.g. underlying linguistic systems); between an example of written language in use and the underlying abstract linguistic systems; and between the learners' written work (as a token of their current linguistic repertoire) and course goals. Hovering around the text, linking back to previous lessons and previous knowledge, and from specific examples in learners' writing to the underlying lexicogrammatical systems. From the perspective of LCT's Semantics, this movement from instances of language in use (in the learners' writing) to explanations that use metalanguage and reference pedagogic grammar, sees cumulative knowledge building through the strengthening and weakening of context dependence (SG+/-) and density of meaning (SD+/-) in order to make semantic waves.

6.5.1 Classroom discourse as choice

This leads us on to consider the linguistic resources teachers use in these feedback lessons.

- d) What linguistic resources do teachers employ in the classroom to effectuate these ends?

One way of conceptualising the linguistic resources teachers use during feedback lessons is through the notion of pedagogic register (Rose, 2017a; 2018; 2020), which views meaningful pedagogic practice as options in systems that are selected as lesson unfold (Rose, 2018).

The pedagogic register consists of choices open to teachers and learners and these are represented as system networks. As discussed in Chapter 5, the unconscious choices teachers and learners make are in response to the changing demands of the classroom. For example, when setting up a pedagogic activity, Teacher W selects **pedagogic activity** from the MATTER system for the first six learning cycles for the activity orientation and specification. However, when Teacher W then goes through the answers, there are then selections from **metalinguage** (e.g. subject' from cycle 14) and selects **grammar** in cycles 16 to 20. From the GRAMMAR SEGMENT system, the teacher selects **word group** most often (12 times), then **word** (10 times) and finally **clause/sentence** (five times), as outlined in Chapter 5. Regarding pedagogic relations, acts and interact explores the interpersonal relations between teachers and learners and how the relationship is enacted during elaborations in feedback on writing. In feedback on writing lessons, the teachers in the study choose from the SENSING system or **attention** (visual and verbal), **perception** (visual) or **reception** (verbal). The use of a range of sources of knowledge foregrounds the teacher's preference for **attention**.

With regards to pedagogic modalities, these vary considerably during the feedback process, from written work to annotation and written feedback, to classroom discourse. In the data we see different activities and then different tools used during feedback e.g. presentation slides and white board. Taken together, consideration of these register variables permits a dynamic perspective on feedback practices, which is discussed in more detail below.

It is the cultural function of pedagogic registers "to exchange knowledge and values" (Rose, 2018). This additional dimension is termed a curriculum register of knowledge and values (Rose, 2017a; 2020). Pedagogic register hierarchies "may not have direct realizations in a stretch of classroom discourse, so we need to work on their empirical description (Rose, personal communication, 9th July 2019). Taken together, pedagogic register and curriculum registers are configured as curriculum genres (Rose, 2018). The language used in the classroom is a specialized curriculum genre, which configures these register variations into recognizable patterns.

In addition to the pedagogic discourse, there is also the language of knowledge genres that forms the content of a syllabus. In my data set, this is the various examples of argument genres. For example, a reading passage that is an exposition genre that is

discussed during the curriculum unit and the essay learners have to write independently. There is also the language of the written feedback, produced as the teacher annotates the learners' independent writing. This is also discussed in greater detail below. One striking feature of language use in feedback lessons is the change in mode as the teacher annotates the learners' written work. This process, discussed in detail below, may be seen as a process of the teacher crafting a pedagogic tool from learners' written work to continue the teaching and learning process. Also, insights from the teacher's evaluations of the learners' work are crafted into pedagogic activities.

6.6 Theme three: Crafting a pedagogic tool

This dynamic view of the feedback process has implications for how we perceive feedback. In the meso-analysis in Chapter 5 I identified the implied users of the curriculum, borrowing from the idea of implied reader from literary criticism. At the level of micro-analysis, the written corrective feedback and correction codes that the teachers use when marking learners' writing implies learning tasks in learning cycles. Using the SLATE project's typology of written feedback (Dreyfus et al., 2016, p. 267), variation in explicitness and rationale determine which phase in the learning cycle learners are expected to enact. The choices made by teachers are made on the assumptions they have of a learners' current linguistic knowledge and repertoires. When the comments are explicit, the assumption is this is useful or necessary. When they are not explicit, the assumption is they are either not useful or not necessary. Similarly, the rationale is varied according to the teacher's assumptions. In every case, the learner is expected to use the feedback to 1) complete a learning task by correcting or improving an issue and 2) participate in acts exchanged by interacts as the teacher directs learners' attention and behaviour. Here the teacher is using an opportunity to elaborate on a point or direct learners' attention to something. This feedback is not designed to be read passively but implicates the learner in future action. The codes and comments are the beginning of learning cycles set in motion in response to the learners' writing. The learning cycle tasks require affirmation and this explains why every teacher in the study provided class time to discuss the feedback with learners (and usually making themselves available outside class time, as well). Positive feedback is an example of affirmation.

Stepping back to view the process as a whole, there are two clear principles guiding teachers' work. The first is the principle of interpretation and the second is the principle of evaluation. The classroom work preceding the individual written work concentrates on the teacher guiding learners and interpreting reading passages, grammar and vocabulary exercises and model answers. Here, in Rose's terms (2014; 2017a; 2018; 2020), the teacher is engaged in setting up and directing pedagogic activities, enacting pedagogic relationships and managing pedagogic modalities to source knowledge and then sourcing it into the classroom discourse. The teacher is guiding learners by interpreting knowledge genres and guiding learners through the curriculum by enacting it with them. At the end of the unit of work the learners independently write their piece of extended writing, usually for homework, which they then give to the teacher. At this point the teacher moves from interpreting written models (or knowledge genres) to evaluating the learners' own writing and the principle of evaluation comes to the fore. The teacher's evaluation comes in the form of written corrective feedback that implicates the learners in further learning cycles, as outlined above. The process of evaluation, communicated to learners through the written feedback, may be seen as teachers creating a pedagogic tool from the learners' written work to be used for future learning.

In Figure 6.2, we see a schematic representation of these two guiding principles at play. Central to this process is the learner's written work. The process of writing produces a written text, a reified record of the semiotic process of meaning-making. This is taken by the teacher as a proxy measurement of the learners' current linguistic repertoire. The teacher cannot access the learners' meaning-making potential directly but does this through tasks in learning cycles and through learner participation in pedagogic activities (see Figure 6.3 below). The learners' independent writing is produced after classroom work guided by the principle of interpretation.

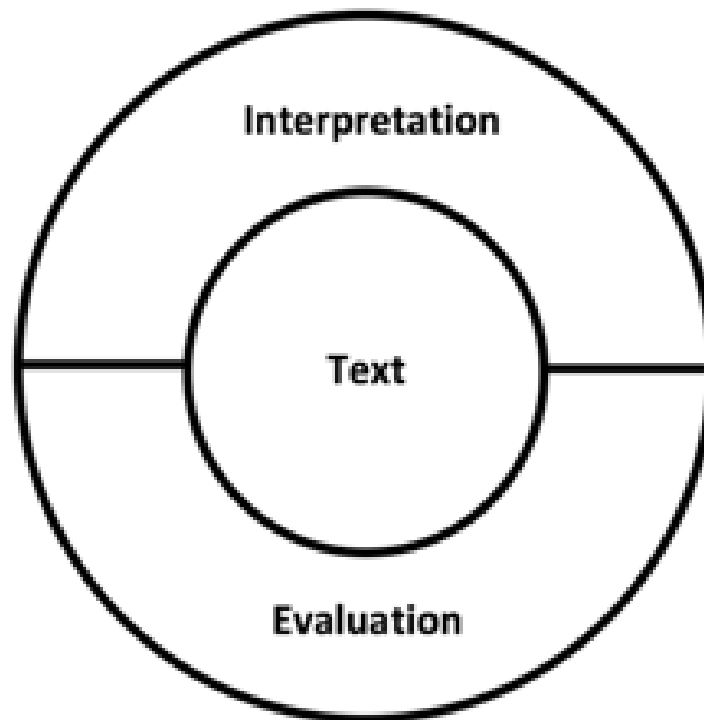


Figure 6.2 Interpretation and evaluation in teaching writing (image author's own)

In my dataset, the reading, vocabulary, grammar and speaking activities of the unit of work allow for the teacher to interpret the curriculum for the learners and, importantly, the negotiation of meaning in order for the teacher to reconcile the course goals with individual learners and vice versa. Once the teacher receives the learners' written work, the teacher is then guided by the principle of evaluation. The teacher evaluates the written work on its own terms, as a measure of current meaning-making, but also in terms of course goals, as future achievement.

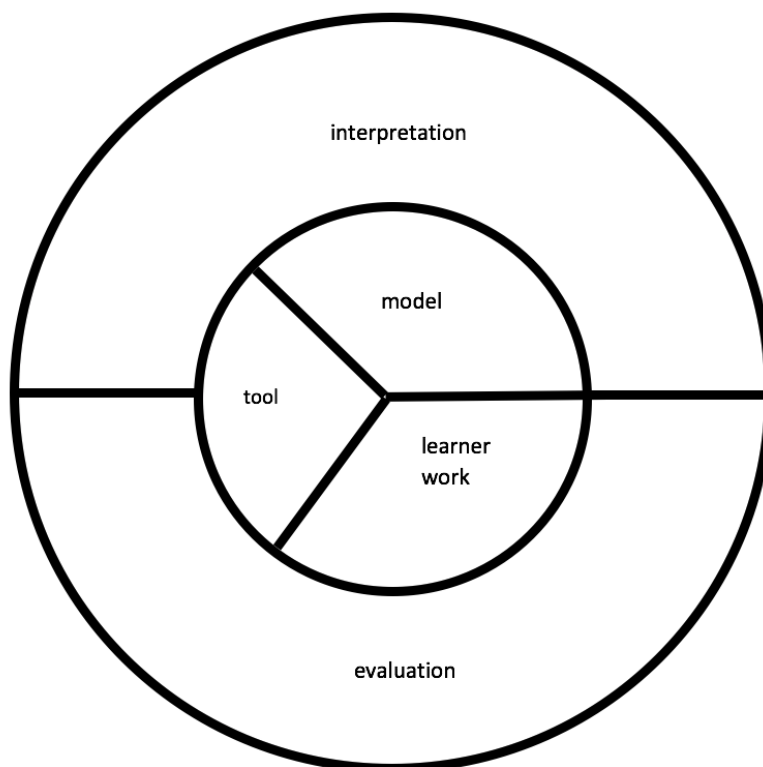


Figure 6.3 Model texts, learners' text and the pedagogic tool (image author's own)

In my research the teachers followed this pattern over the three units of work, starting with interpretation as they worked through the unit and then evaluating the learners' written work. In this sense, the principles work in a cycle, with interpretation followed by evaluation in continuous cycles as teachers and learners enact the syllabus. This enactment plays out in the classroom as learning cycles and in feedback on writing lessons, the learning cycles are determined by the needs of learners, particularly in the prepare phase and the aims of the course in the elaborate phase (Rose, 2017b). It is through learners' participation in these learning cycles that the curriculum is enacted and learners' linguistic resources are expanded and developed, thereby increasing their meaning-making potential.

6.6.1 From interpretation to evaluation: the nature of guidance

These practices suggest a model of ontogenesis that develops through the iteration of learning cycles. This is visually conceptualized in Figure 6.4 below. The learner draws on their current linguistic repertoire (1 in Figure 6.4) to complete independent written work (2

in Figure 6.4), which is both an essay and a linguistic object (3 in Figure 6.4). The teacher takes this as a proxy for the learner's linguistic repertoire, evaluating the text, crafting a pedagogic tool and implicating the learner in incomplete learning cycles (4). When the learner engages in the feedback, they enact the learning cycle, seeking affirmation from the teacher as required (5). These learning cycles are repeated as the learner works their way through the feedback for each piece of writing and their participation on these learning cycles gradually leads to language development (6). The figure aims to illustrate that it is the learner's participation in these learning cycles, set up in the feedback but occurring as part of classroom discourse, that leads to the gradual development of the learner's linguistic resources and meaning-making potential (7). Teaching here may be conceived of as "guidance through interaction in the context of shared experience" (Martin, 1999b, p.126). Teacher feedback on writing, the process of crafting a pedagogic tool is part of a larger teacher and learning process. We now refocus our attention on this process at the level of curriculum unit to chart the stages that learners and teacher complete.

6.6.2 Crafting the tool

The teachers' feedback practices can be viewed as forging a pedagogic tool out of learners' written response to the task. Annotating an essay with a correction code and comments creates a pedagogic tool from the learner's written work. This work has a duality. It is an argument genre in the field of education and it contains concepts related to a specific field. An example of this is the essay on studying mathematics and studying a language, from the field of education. However, for a language teacher the essay is a linguistic object that can be discussed in terms of metalanguage from the field of English language teaching. Therefore, the learner's essay is an ontologically ambiguous object (Tann & Scott, 2021) that exists in both fields.

The teacher now takes this object and evaluates it, identifying its strengths and weaknesses. The evaluation, part of an on-going process of evaluation that occurs with each piece of writing given to the teacher, allows the teacher to make assumptions regarding the learner's current linguistic repertoire. These assumptions then guide the teacher's feedback. This takes the form of annotations on the learner's work as comments and correction codes. It is in this sense that the teacher crafts a pedagogic tool. The tool is for future use with

learners both in and out of the classroom. The precise nature of the tool depends on learning objectives, the individual learner as well as teacher knowledge and preferences.

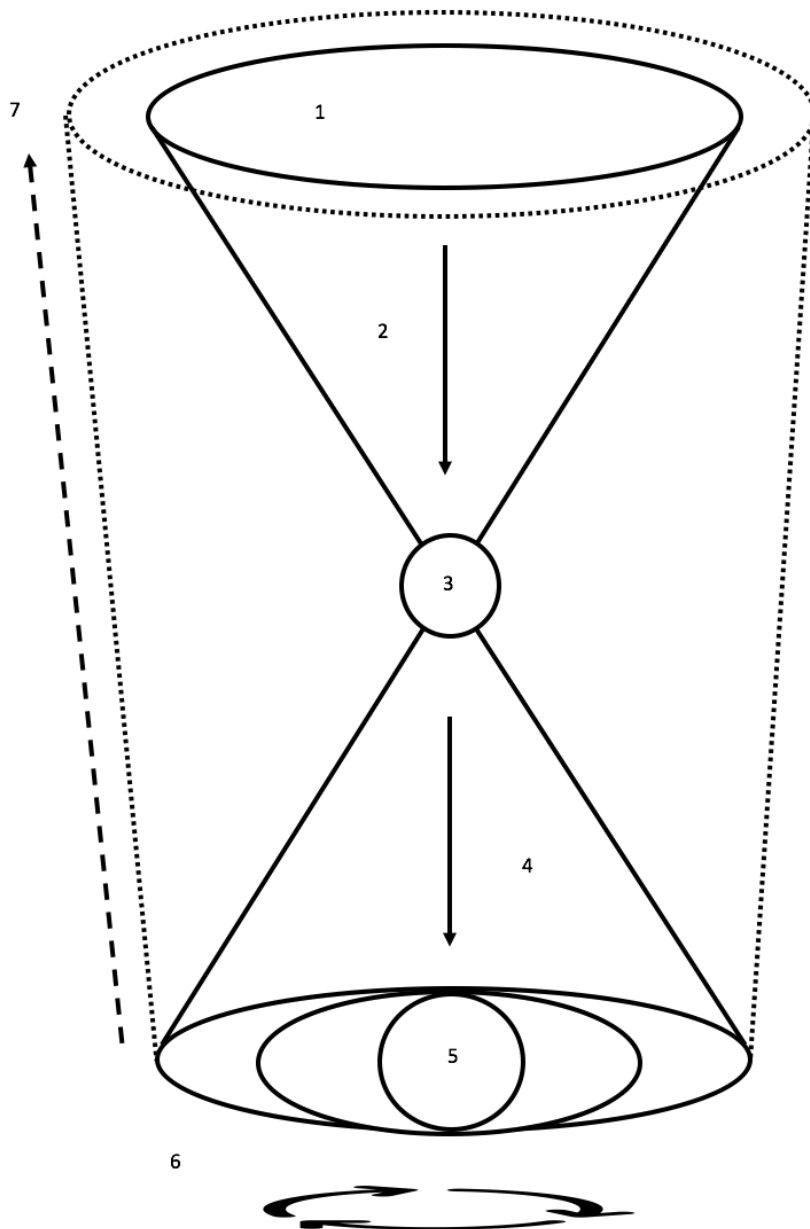


Figure 6.4 The role of feedback in the process of language development

Key

1. Learner's current linguistic repertoire.
2. Learner draws on linguistic resources to complete independent written work e.g. an essay.
3. The essay is ontologically ambiguous as both an essay and a linguistic object. The teacher takes this as proxy for the learners' linguistic repertoire.
4. The teacher evaluates the text and crafts a pedagogic tool, implicating the learner in incomplete learning cycles.
5. The learner enacts the learning cycles, seeking affirmation from the teacher as required.
6. Repeated learning cycles in response to written feedback of learners' writing, occurring at least in part in class, has potential to lead to gradual language development.
7. The dotted arrow is a visual metaphor showing the effect of classroom discourse on the learners' language development. The learners' linguistic resources and meaning-making potential develop gradually through learning cycles in a process of ontogenesis.

6.6.3 A dynamic perspective on written corrective feedback

This perspective of written feedback permits us to view written corrective feedback from a dynamic perspective. The exact nature of the feedback, whether direct, indirect, focussed or unfocussed, the use of metalanguage or the correction codes used become less important than the pedagogic tools used in classroom discourse. All of the teachers in my study returned the work during class time to allow dialogue around the returned work and the teacher's feedback. Similarly, all the teachers expected some future action from the learners. The feedback implicated the learners in some future action. The tool is not used by learners on their own outside of class. The code and comments have particular purposes, setting up sequences of pedagogic activity. There are interpersonal elements (Hyland & Hyland, 2001) but also learning cycle phases such as focus, task and evaluate (Rose, 2014; 2018) and modalities (verbal, symbolic, spoken). These are designed to be used as a tool in social practices and pedagogic activity. Interestingly, this dialogue with teachers about their feedback was most valued by all the learners in the focus group interviews.

6.6.4 Interpretation: an oracular text

The written and spoken texts that make up the course materials are used by teachers to help interpret the language and culture for learners. In this sense they may be seen as oracular texts (van Leeuwen, 2015), a text "used as a source of truth in the context of a particular interpretive practice" (p. 586). In these lessons the teacher's role is that of guide. The teacher interprets language and practices, guiding learners through interaction in the shared experience (Martin, 1999b, p. 286) created by the pedagogic space of the classroom. However, the teacher's work shifts from interpretation when the learner produces their own work independently.

6.6.5 Evaluation: a minoic text

When the learner gives their completed written work to the teacher, the teacher's work moves from interpretation to evaluation. When they read the learner's work, they are evaluating it in several ways. One evaluation is in terms of the writing question and how

well the learner has answered this. Broadening out the evaluation from this, the writing question is part of the unit of work and is intrinsically tied to the unit objectives and, ultimately, the course goals. In addition, the teacher is also evaluating the work in terms of the learner, their current linguistic resources and the teacher's prior knowledge of their language development. The teacher considers previous linguistic performances in other work they have marked. In this sense, the written work is a "*minoic text*"¹⁶, a text used for the purpose of judgment or evaluation, in this case as a measurement of a learner's current linguistic resources. When reading and the learner's work and annotating it with comments and correction code, the teacher's role is that of judge. The teacher evaluates the written work to create a pedagogic tool that can be used for future teaching and learning purposes.

6.7 Insights into practice: feedback and the role of the pedagogic tool

These interpretations of the data now afford us some novel insights into the classroom practices of the teachers in the study.

e) What insights into classroom practice are offered by this analysis and description?

Feedback practices may now be viewed in relation to classroom practices. From this perspective, feedback practices can be more fully understood when their relationship to classroom practices is considered. These classroom practices are guided by the principles of interpretation and evaluation. Through movements across the semantic plane and the activities, relations and modalities of pedagogic discourse, a complex picture of the interplay between interpretation and evaluation begins to emerge.

The diagram below (Figure 6.5) unfolds over time from left to right, as indicated by the arrow. Each circle represents a person, either the teacher or a learner. The small arrows indicate the individuals' interactions with and through the learner's written work. The

¹⁶ Although better known in relation to the Cretan Bull, Minotaur and Labyrinth, in Greek mythology Minos is also known for bringing law and order to Crete and becoming a judge of the underworld, where he determined if the dead would spend eternity in Elysium, Tartarus or the Asphodel Meadows (Roman & Roman, 2010, pp. 333 – 335)

rectangles represent the changing purpose of the text. On the far left, an example or model of the knowledge genre is analysed and discussed by the teacher for the learners. This is an

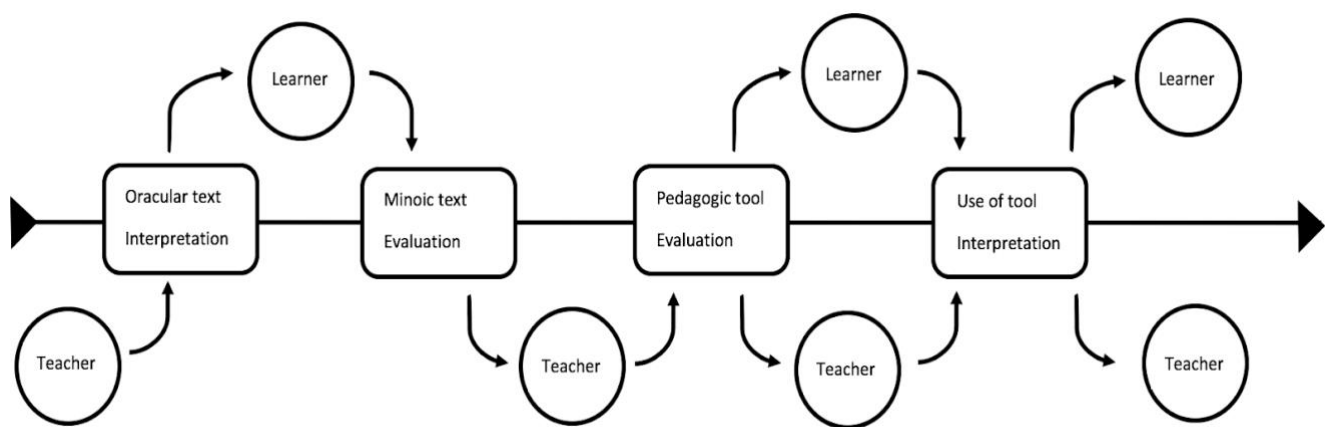


Figure 6.5 Interpretation and evaluation in writing lessons (image author's own)

oracular text (van Leeuwen, 2005) for interpretation. The learner then produces his/her own written work. This is given to the teacher for marking. This is a minoic text for evaluation. The teacher evaluation leads to the teacher annotating the text with comments and correction code as the teacher crafts a pedagogic tool. The tool is pedagogic in the sense that it implies learning cycles and implicates learners in their enactment. When the learner's work is returned with the teacher's annotations, learner and teacher are then engaged in interpreting the tool, completing the learning tasks and, for the teacher, affirming learners.

Through the process there are complex changes in modalities that accompany the changes in purpose. These are displayed in the boxes below the process in the Figure 6.6 below and correspond to numbers 1 to 4 above each purpose of the text. In 1, the mode is spoken and written as the teacher discusses model answers in the classroom, with these usually projected onto the wall. The classroom discourse is accompanying the field and unfolds as dialogue between teachers and learners. In 2, the mode shifts to written and constitutes field as monologue as learners complete their independent written work. In 3 the teacher writes comments but the asterisk indicates that teachers also used symbols and a correction code. Again, this is monologic but, as discussed above, it does imply dialogue through the enactment of learning cycles. Finally, 4 is when the teacher returns the

written work with the annotations to the class. The mode is written and spoken as the written work and comments are read and discussed by learners and teacher. Once again, as

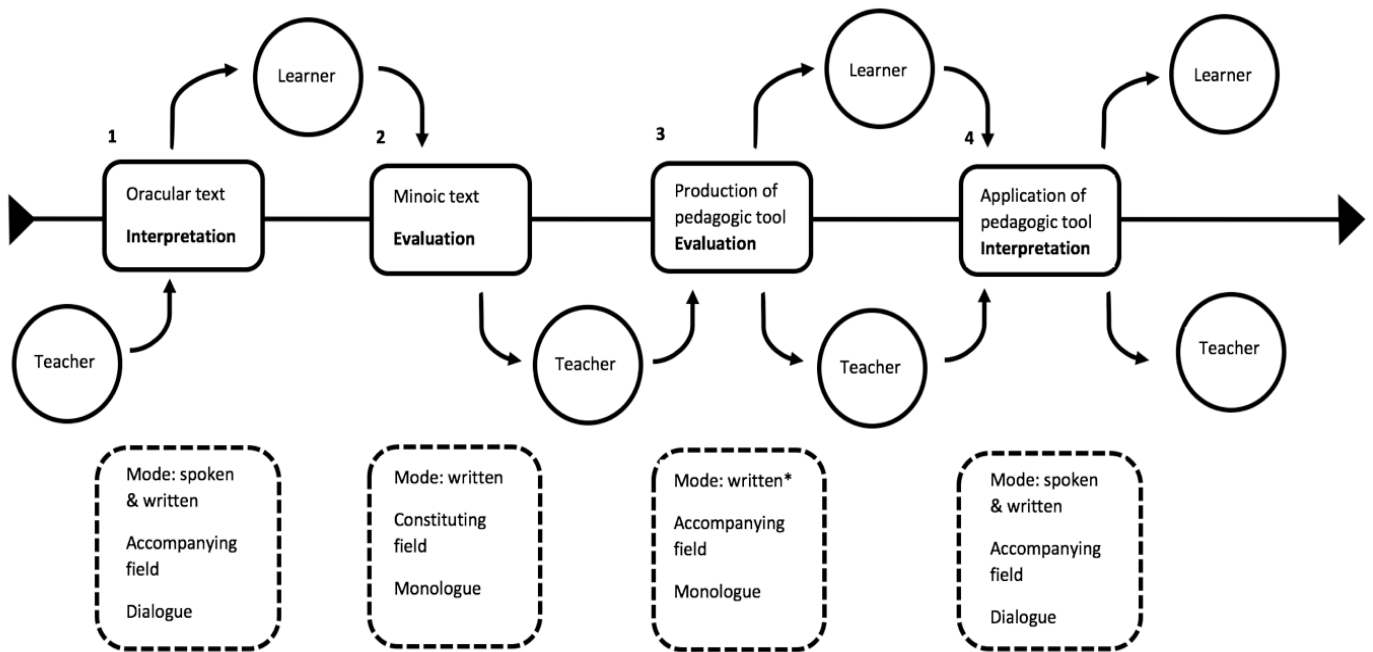


Figure 6.6 Interpretation and evaluation in writing lessons with modalities

*Process may be recorded e.g. an audio commentary or screen-capture: spoken and visual (image author's own)

with 1, the classroom discourse accompanies field and is dialogue, as teachers and learners discuss the learners writing and enact learning cycles. The role of language in this process is complex and the teacher's role as guide, interpreting model writing and interpreting their own evaluations of learners' writing forms the basis of classroom work.

Written feedback may be conceptualized as part of a learning cycle. Teachers can ask questions or set tasks for learners to complete. The written feedback that does not provide learners with the correct form does not affirm learners' acts. Indirect corrective feedback or metalinguistic corrective feedback (Ellis, 2009) sees the teacher in the domain of INSTRUCTION and evaluating learners' writing. However, these prompts and symbols used to prompt learner self-correction are a rejection, whether they are implicit by qualifying the learners' writing or explicit by either negating or admonishing it.

The written feedback may be seen to imply learning cycles. As Dreyfus, et al. (2016, p. 268) have suggested, feedback may vary in explicitness and the amount of rationale. They

go on to identify four categories of feedback on a Cartesian plane, which allows for categorization and the positioning of examples of different strengths and different points on each cline. Each of these implies a phase or phases of a learning cycle or cycles. For example, hand-holding is explicit and provides a rationale. The feedback may therefore be interpreted as containing the following learning cycle phases: evaluate^elaborate with the teacher's evaluation clear and the rationale providing reasons for this. The other types of feedback may also be mapped on to learning cycles. These are displayed in Table 6.1, below. The writing task is taken as a display of the learner's current linguistic resources and the type of feedback depends on the assumptions teachers make following their evaluation.

Table 6.1 Typology of feedback mapped on to learning cycles

(Dreyfus, et al. , 2016, p. 268)

Feedback type	rationale	explicit	Learning cycle phases
Hand-holding	+	+	evaluate[reject]^elaborate^implies task
Carrying	-	+	evaluate[reject]^ implies task (no rationale because assumption learner can successfully complete the task)
Bridging	+	-	implies task (not explicit because assumption learner can successfully complete the task)
Base jumping:	-	-	evaluate[reject]^ implies task (not explicit and no rationale because assumption learner can successfully complete the task without either)

This conception of feedback and indeed most research into written corrective feedback, comes from a static perspective of feedback as comments or symbols written in response to the learners' work. However, when reconceptualized as part of a dynamic process, feedback's role in learning cycles becomes clearer.

The feedback the teacher writes is a choice in the INTERACT system. The teacher may choose the feedback comments to direct or suggest (from the DIRECTION system).

Alternatively, the teacher may choose to present knowledge by imparting or modelling it.

These are choices from the PRESENTATION system. In my data set, the teachers use written

feedback to evaluate learners' writing. They usually give praise, affirming an aspect of the learners' work but the main focus of feedback is on rejection with the teachers often explicitly negating or implicitly qualifying the written work. These last choices from the REJECTION system are of little surprise, given terms for this phenomenon like written corrective feedback and error correction. There is an expectation among teachers and learners that marking learners' work involves correction. This corresponds to choices in the ACT system, with the visual and verbal feedback focussing learners' attention on what the teacher has identified as important.

Implicit in the feedback is that the comments and code will prompt learner behaviour, with learners displaying their knowledge by speaking to the teacher and rewriting the work (choices from the LEARNER BEHAVIOURS system in the ACT system. The implication is that feedback is used by learners to either rewrite the current work and hand it in again to the teacher to be marked again (as happened, for example, in Teacher W's class) or sufficient attention to the feedback leads to changes in future writing tasks. Feedback is, therefore, a continuation of the learning cycles of the classroom. In addition to the *evaluate ^ elaborate* sequence identified earlier in hand-holding feedback, we can add the implied rewrite as another task, that may then be evaluated by the teacher with the possibility of a further elaboration phase, resulting in the pattern in Table 6.2, below.

Table 6.2 Learning cycle phases in teacher feedback and learner rewriting

evaluate//^elaborate	^task	evaluate//^elaborate
Teacher feedback	learner rewrite	teacher feedback

Teachers use feedback to 1) focus learners' attention to important elements in their writing (choices in the ACT system) in order for learners to then use this feedback to influence directly observable behaviour through dialogue with the teacher and future writing. For the teacher, choices in the INTERACT system involve the teachers' roles of instructing and directing, as they use feedback to 1) evaluate, affirm and reject, 2) present knowledge and 3) direct learners to make changes to their writing. The learners' future writing may then be evaluated by the teacher and the cycle continues. This dynamic

perspective illustrates the different choices the teacher is making and pedagogic register analysis (Rose, 2014; 2018; 2020) allows us to map and account for these choices. This dynamic view of written corrective feedback may be taken for all forms of feedback, whether direct, indirect, metalinguistic, focused, unfocused, electronic or reformulation (Ellis, 2009).

Returning to our perspective of the meso-analysis, we begin to see how lessons are sequenced. Seminal work in this area by Christie (2002) views classroom discourse as genres that are sequenced in recognisable patterns as curriculum macrogenres. One such macrogenre includes Curriculum Initiation, Curriculum Negotiation and Curriculum Closure, as shown in Figure 6.7. Each genre unfolds in phases.

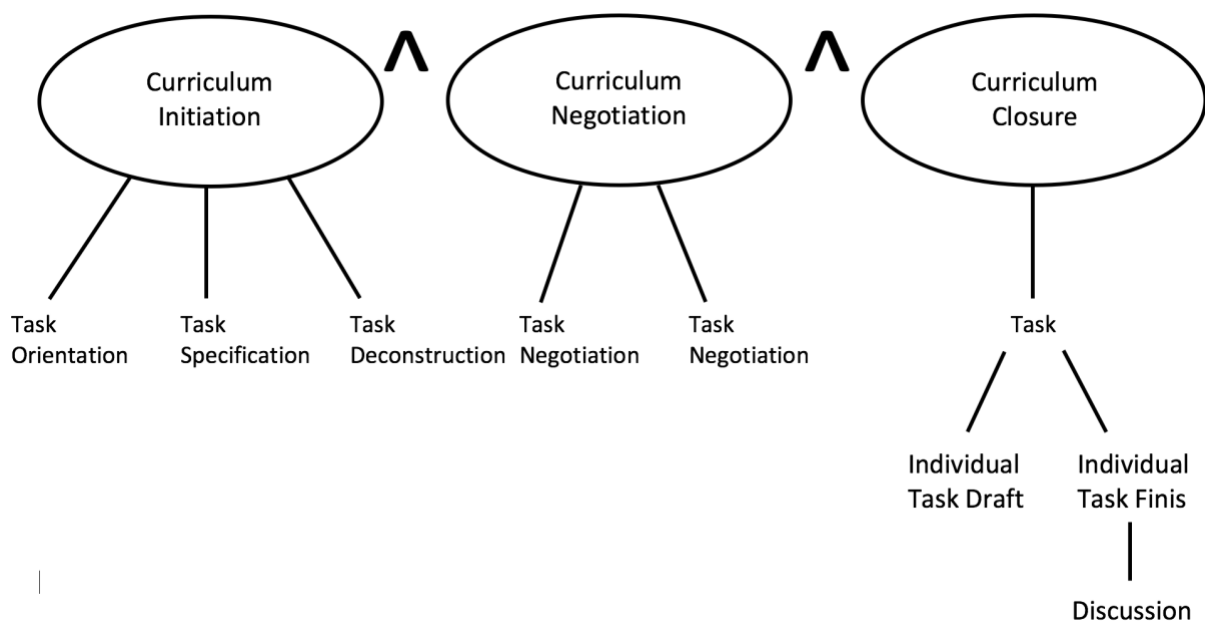


Figure 6.7 Macrogeneric structure

(Christie, 2002, p. 116)

The ELT Centre course units can be mapped onto this macrogeneric structure. The unit of work starts with Curriculum Initiation and the stages Task Orientation ^ Task Specification ^ Task Deconstruction. The implied teacher from the materials completes these stages. The objectives at the start of the Unit of work, the 'Activate your knowledge', are the Curriculum Initiation stage. The materials on developing reading and providing models for the writing task are Task Negotiation Stages form the Curriculum Negotiation

genre. This overarching pattern of the Unit of work may also be seen as unfolding in individual lessons.

While my dataset includes examples from across the three units of work completed by the teachers, my research questions are concerned with Curriculum Closure. The stages here are Individual Task Draft, Individual Task Finis and Discussion. These are displayed in Figure 6.8, below.

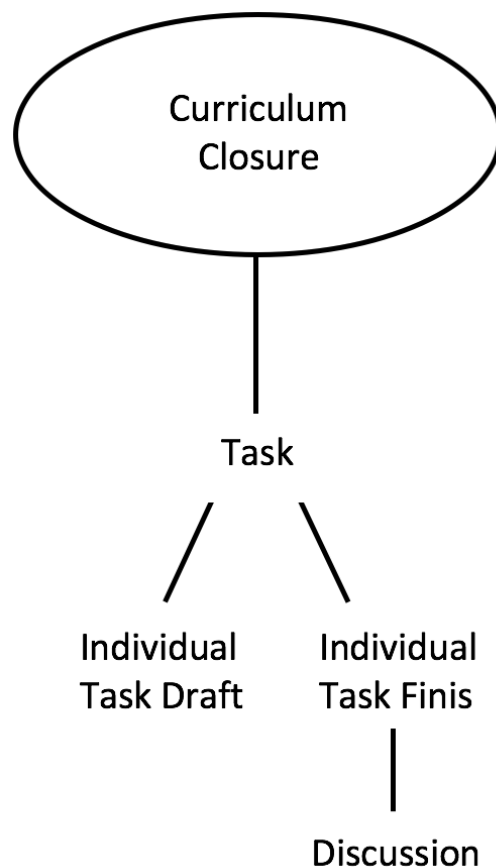


Figure 6.8 Curriculum Closure genre

(Detail from Christie, 2002, p. 116)

The Task is the writing task, written in draft form and then a final form that is given to the teacher for evaluation. The evaluation results in the teacher crafting a pedagogic tool for use in the Discussion stage, when the written work is returned to learners in class.

This genre sees the focus move from teacher direction to teacher/learner negotiation. From my close analysis of Curriculum Closure in my study, this pattern is repeated. The Individual Task Completion is the learner completing the writing tasks on their own. Around this individual work there is teacher/student negotiation because throughout the unit of work,

the stages of the genre (lessons) prepare learners for the writing task and involve dialogue with the teacher. The completed written work is given to the teacher to evaluate. This then allows the teacher to plan a writing feedback lesson, with sequenced activities that will draw learners' attention to particular linguistic features of their writing and direct future behaviour through stated or implied tasks for the learners to complete. These activities are selected and directed by the teacher and based on the dynamic needs of the class as a group and on the dynamic needs of learners. This final genre (lesson) moves in focus from Individual Task Completion to Teacher direction to Teacher/Student negotiation.

The Curriculum Closure may be better understood by considering social space and the learners' proximity to the teacher as guide. This is illustrated in Figure 6.9 below. Viewing this proximity as an elliptical orbit, the Individual Task Draft and Finis are written at a greater social distance from the teacher. The Discussion occurs after the teacher has evaluated the written work, created a pedagogic tool with incomplete learning cycles and planned the feedback lesson. The learning cycles occur at a greater frequency at the periodigós, when the learners are in close social proximity to the teacher. At the apodigós, learners are on their own, far from the teacher and guidance. Considerations of these factors allow for a fully understanding of the social practices that occur on the writing classroom and the role that language plays in these.

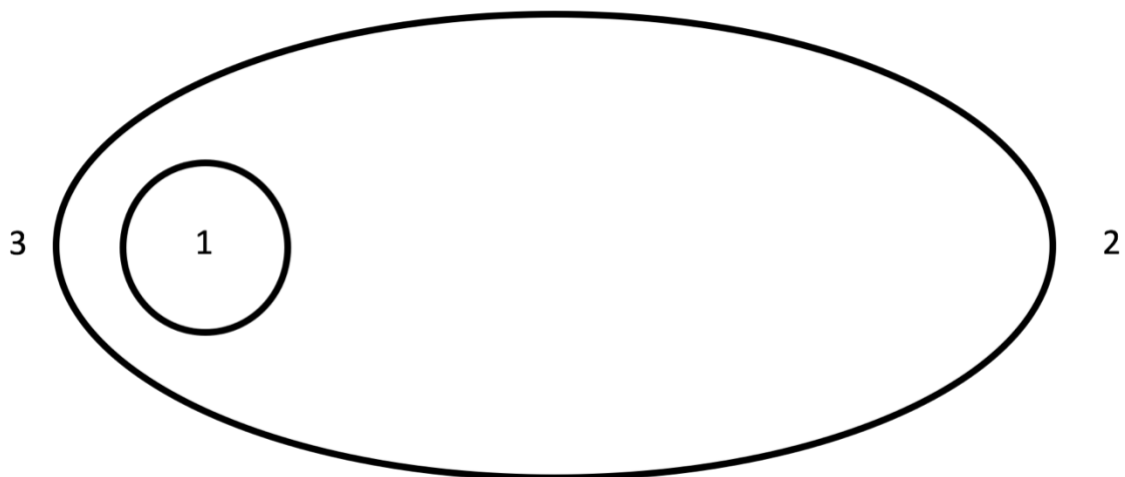


Figure 6.9 Learner proximity in curriculum closure

1. Teacher as guide
2. Apodigós: Individual Task Finis
3. Periodigós: Discussion facilitated by minoic text

6.8 Teacher, learner and minoic text: a triadic frame

Teaching and learning “are in fact two perspectives on the same dialogic process” (Martin & Matthiessen, 2014, p. 157), even though standard English construes them as different processes. In my data, this dialogic process of teaching and learning involves the co-creation of a pedagogic tool that is produced by both teacher and learner. The tool is produced through pedagogic activity, pedagogic relations and pedagogic modalities, features of pedagogic register (Rose, 2020, p. 240). Learners’ written work is evaluated by teachers in what I have termed a minoic text. This, in turn, is returned to learners for interpretation in an ongoing dialogic process with the teacher. In this section, I explain this process by presenting it as a **triadic** frame of teacher, learner and text. The triadic frame enables the teacher to indirectly act upon the learner through symbolic action, namely the manipulation and shaping of each learner’s material text.

McGregor (2019) argues that semiotic interaction through objects is the foundation of interpersonal grammar. McGregor acknowledges the accepted position that objects are important in human interaction, citing Halliday’s claim that “semiotic interaction between the child and other persons in the transitional phase is channelled through objects, often symbolic ones” (1975, p. 83). However, McGregor goes further and argues that objects are not only important in human interaction, but that “interaction with objects is much more fundamental than this, and forms the very basis for the construal of interpersonal grammar. Despite the label, the interpersonal is fundamentally triadic in nature, not dyadic” (2019, p. 131). McGregor argues that the interpersonal function developed as part of a triadic frame, a structure that developed as humans began to live peacefully together. He speculates that “we tamed ourselves in part through acting indirectly on others via things, rather than by direct action on them” (p. 131). I argue that the triadic nature of interpersonal meanings may account for the central role of the minoic text in feedback episodes.

In Section 6.6 above, I suggested that the minoic text develops from the teacher crafting the pedagogic tool and then using it with the learner. McGregor (2019) identifies “two primary ways of acting on linguistic objects: by shaping or ‘manipulating’ them, and by using them. These give rise to two primary modes of expression that are deployed in interpersonal grammar” (p. 121). These are manipulation and usage. The minoic text, through learners’ written language and teacher evaluation, is shaped by the learner and

teacher to create a pedagogic tool. This tool is then used in teaching and learning. The minoic text makes a triadic frame along with the teacher and learner. This enables the teacher to act indirectly on the learner, in order to exchange knowledge and to make opportunities for language development.

The triadic frame permeates education and is evident throughout, from evaluation or feedback moves, to activities, lessons and courses. This presence provides instances of Bernstein's asymmetrical relation concerning the teacher evaluating the learner (1990/2003, p. 63) in "continuous evaluation" (1990/2003, p. 177) and Goffman's "educational imperative" of the teacher evaluating learner's knowledge and understanding "to correct and amplify from that base" (Goffman, 1981, p. 53-54). In my data, the teacher evaluates the learners' written work. The process begins when the teacher sets up and conducts pedagogic activities with the learners, interpreting oracular texts. A writing task is set at the end of the unit of work and this enables the teacher to evaluate the learners' performance and, through this, their language development.

This sequence of pedagogic activities produces a triadic frame, illustrated by Figure 6.10 below. The teacher interacts with the learner through dialogue (the direct line between teacher and learner in the figure) but also communicates indirectly through the text (the apex of the triangle in the figure). The learners' written text enables the teacher to evaluate their written language and then craft a pedagogic tool, a minoic text, that is then interpreted by learner and teacher through dialogue. It then becomes an oracular text.

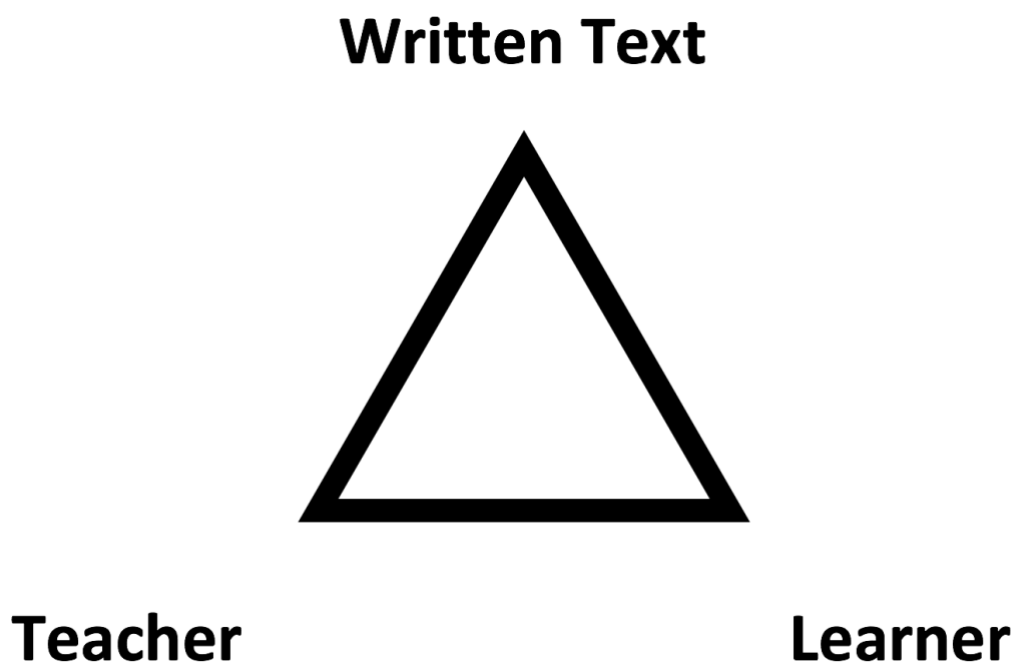


Figure 6.10 A triadic frame of teaching and learning written language

This model accounts for curriculum genres such as Joint Rewriting and Joint Construction (Rose, 2020, p. 250) in which teachers guide learners through dialogue to appropriate and demonstrate what they have learnt by writing a new passage or an appropriate genre, respectively. These curriculum genres are not evident in my data set and the writing activity proceeds slightly differently. During writing task completion, the teacher and learner do not typically communicate directly. The teachers decide not to participate in the task, preferring to observe and prepare for the evaluation that follows. The task provides the learners with an opportunity to display their current knowledge. The task is like a vehicle to enable learners to work towards mastering the future goals of the curriculum. The learner's task performance means the teacher can indirectly work with the learner, evaluating where their knowledge currently is, how it needs to develop to meet curriculum goals and how best to achieve this in proceeding classroom work. This is illustrated in Figure 6.11, below. This work is indirect because it is a pedagogic activity and the teacher does not act directly upon the learner. The dialogue does not occur during the writing activity but after the teacher has evaluated the written work.

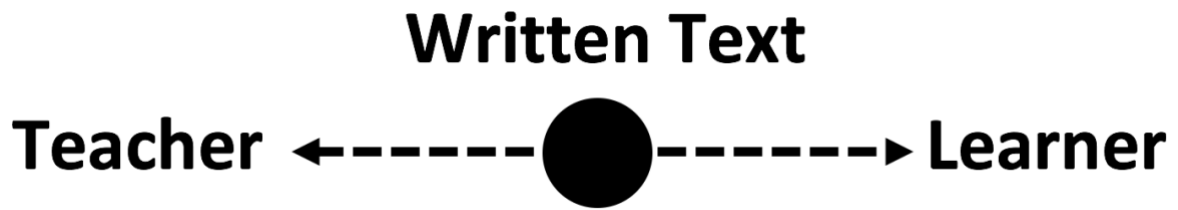


Figure 6.11 Indirect teacher action through text

The task provides a means for interactants to engage in meaning-making activity, in SFL terms to construe meanings, enact relationships and manage information flow (Martin & Zappavigna, 2019, p. 2). This task is encased within the broader curriculum in which interactants construe meanings, enact relationships and manage information flow. Stepping in and out of the writing task but remaining within the curriculum means teachers can evaluate learners and their learning, and learners have the potential to reflect and act upon this information.

As discussed in the previous chapter, pedagogic relations involve teacher and learner interactions and learner participation (see Section 5.9.4). This interpersonal dimension of pedagogic register sees **conscious acts** (e.g. of attention, perception, knowledge) exchanged between teacher and learners by interacts (e.g. inviting perception, approving perception, displaying knowledge) (Rose, 2018). The system of pedagogic relations accounts for the following **conscious acts** of (non-specific) **attention**, (specific, visual) **perception** and (specific aural) **reception**. These pedagogic relations are necessary for the cooperation and joint attention that is essential to the success of classroom practice. McGregor suggests that human styles of interaction, including cooperation and joint attention, shaped the evolution of language (2019, p. 118). These styles of interaction also continue to be a fundamental part of language and a person's social environment. McGregor, citing Deacon (1997), notes that "we are the symbolic species; we are not satisfied with construing just objects as symbols, but extend it to actions and their resulting states as well" (2019, p. 113). Viewing the relationship of minoic texts to oracular texts, to teaching and learning and, more broadly, to their relationship to the curriculum, we see that the writing task and learner's written text provides a semiotic object, a vehicle for language development, for sense-making and meaning-making (semiosis) and, through this, the abduction of knowledge and

values. Here, the learner's writing is both a linguistic object (a text) and a social process that unfolds through stages with a social purpose. We can view it as a genre, a goal-oriented social process that unfolds in stages (Martin, 2009a, p. 15). This process enables teachers to work indirectly on learners and their linguistic development, as language allows us to act indirectly upon other people.

The role of dialogue between teacher and learner is essential to this process. Martin & Matthiessen suggest that:

The reason pre-school language learning is so successful is that parents and children engage with one another in a dyadic teaching/learning process, with more mature language users carefully tuning in to less mature users' repertoires and continually providing scaffolding that bridges smoothly from where children are at to new possibilities. Accordingly we have to be very suspicious of pedagogies that place too much emphasis on one side or the other of the teaching/learning coin. A balanced perspective is crucial if we want to provide all students with an opportunity to access the genre and registers used to measure success in education, and which we would argue provide them with the linguistic resources they need to further expand their use repertoire in later life. Successful apprenticeship depends on a reciprocity of teach/learn. (2014, pp. 157-158)

Guiding learners through oracular and minoic texts in a process of sense-making and meaning-making, involves employing a triadic frame. Over time, this leads to the learner abducting (Rose, 2020, p. 240) the knowledge and values of the curriculum and, by extension, the ambient culture. This is an exchange of knowledge and values through language. Following the guidance of the teacher leads to learning. A useful metaphor is the labyrinth with one path to the centre. However, barriers may appear in this process that turn the labyrinth, and its single path to the centre, into a maze, with dead-ends, blind alleys and cul-de-sacs, unproductive courses of action that lead nowhere, that slow, inhibit and even stop the learning process. These barriers may be due to pedagogies that do not balance the dialogic process (Martin & Matthiessen, 2014, p. 157), or agent misalignment in the curriculum (see Section 5.5 in the previous chapter, above), or factors external to the classroom. To conclude with a final observation, McGregor states that "[e]ven if we are unique in enacting social relations through symbolic action on the material world, all species must act on – in some sense "manipulate" – the material world in order to survive (2019, p.

114). I would add that, in education, teachers and learners must act on the material world, manipulate it and turn it to pedagogic purpose in order to thrive.

6.9 Conclusions

My study offers evidence for written feedback as a pedagogic tool, what I have termed a minoic text, that develops out of teacher evaluation of learners' work and implicates learners in future learning cycles. The study appears to support the argument for changes in conceptualizing and researching feedback practices. The notion that one feedback practice may be more effective than another is like comparing other tools, such as a hammer or screwdriver. The effectiveness of the tool depends on who is using it and for what purpose. Written feedback and feedback practices more generally cannot be understood out of context. They are pedagogic tools and both the tool in use and the users need to be considered. The notion that one form of written corrective feedback may be the most effective is too narrow to accommodate the diversity of uses and users. Studies that have considered the interpersonal resources of feedback (Hyland & Hyland, 2001; 2006; 2019) and the role of spoken language in writing feedback (Weissberg 1994; 2000; 2006) have provided greater breadth and depth to our understanding of this phenomenon. Feedback on writing may take many different forms and the effectiveness of these may vary according to context, i.e. use and users. A tool that is effective with one user may be less effective with another. Therefore, consideration should be taken of the particular teachers and learners. Similarly, an effective tool in one location may be ineffective in another. It is only by understanding the complex classroom practices in which feedback occurs that we begin to understand how teachers work towards achieving course goals while also responding to learners as a group and also as individuals, and the role written feedback plays in this. I have reached these conclusions through the explanatory reasoning of abduction (Douven, 2021) in the tradition of C.S. Peirce. This process has involved the careful observation, analysis and description of four teachers and their learners in a particular teaching and learning context and by then making probable conclusions, seeking the simplest and most likely interpretations based upon the data and the explanatory frameworks of Legitimation Code Theory and systemic functional linguistics (see Chapter 4, Section 4.5). Given my research questions and interest in understanding teaching and learning in these contexts, my use of

abductive reasoning is due to its “implicit or explicit appeal to explanatory considerations” and that “explanatory success is a (not necessarily unfailing) mark of truth” (Douven, 2021). These abductive conclusions cannot be proved but I have reached them on the basis of evidence and reasoning: “Inference to the best explanation” (Douven, 2021).

While previous studies of written feedback have provided important insights into these practices, presenting educators with dichotomies can limit understanding and professional practice. On the face of it, this would suggest that context-sensitive studies have an important part to play in future research. If the conclusions of my study are confirmed by further studies in a greater diversity of contexts, then there will be a case for developing pre-service and in-service teacher education programs to accommodate these perspectives.

6.10 Summary

A concise summary of the principal themes and implications discussed in this chapter is given below. The first theme is *Consistency* and the reconciliation of learners’ language development with the goals of the course. While the course goal is the intended end point of the curriculum, learners’ current linguistic resources are the present point and teachers must work with and develop these. The second theme is *Curriculum enactment* and how teachers and learners comply with or resist the curriculum through their interpersonal interactions in the classroom. These interactions are not only essential for teaching and learning, but they are a critical factor in the cultural function of pedagogic registers (Rose, 2018), namely the exchange of knowledge and values. Classroom interactions determine whether the exchange of knowledge and values align with those intended by those who wrote the curriculum in the field of knowledge recontextualization. The third theme is *Crafting a pedagogic tool* and a dynamic perspective of written feedback is presented that sees this as a process of implied teaching and learning cycles and places it within a pedagogic register (Rose, 2018).

I believe these themes and implications are important because they provide new perspectives that reveal an underlying order that is not immediately apparent to the casual observer. They support broader knowledge and understanding of the research problem because they draw upon established theoretical frameworks, namely Legitimation Code

Theory and pedagogic register analysis in the tradition of Martinian linguistics. This theoretical foundation permits the current study to be understood in relation to these established theories, supporting broader knowledge building through links to other studies. The research problem of how teachers teach writing in my study is illuminated by analyses using these theoretical frameworks, making the study relatable to other studies using the frameworks and accessible to other researchers through their understanding of these theories. The study places written corrective feedback into its classroom environment. While the study is context sensitive, I hope it is not context-bound and those not familiar with this particular context may find value in this dynamic perspective. Recommendations for further research and discussed in Chapter 7 Conclusions, the next and final chapter.

Chapter 7 Conclusions

I am not really a theoretician; I have been interested in theoretical matters only because I had to be, because it was necessary to construct some new theoretical framework in order to accommodate certain aspects of the interpretation I wanted to suggest. But the resources of language are extraordinarily rich, and the ways in which things can be related to each other are of an intricacy that we have hardly yet begun to conceive of. The theory should not restrict the kinds of interpretative statement we can make; it needs to be rich enough to allow for all kinds of elaborations and extensions.

Halliday (1980, p. viii)

7.1 Introduction

In this final chapter I summarize my responses to the research questions, outlining my contribution to knowledge in the following three areas. Firstly, I describe my contribution to knowledge, which is an increased understanding of teacher written feedback as a dynamic process. Secondly, I describe my contribution to methodology, which emphasizes the importance of the observation of social practices in a context-sensitive study of feedback practices. Finally, I describe my modest contribution to theory in which the study informs the two explanatory frameworks through their application and the accumulation of knowledge. I then identify potential limitations to the study before making suggestions for future research.

7.2 Summary of responses to research questions

In this section, I provide a summary of my findings that were introduced and discussed at greater length in chapters 5 and 6. The main, overarching research question is:

- (1) How do teachers work towards both achieving course goals while simultaneously developing learners' emerging language and control of written genres during feedback in writing lessons?

To answer this overarching research question, I divided it into five narrower research questions, listed below:

- a) How do teachers both achieve lesson objectives and respond to learners' writing?
- b) How do teachers both meet group needs and individual learner's needs?
- c) How do teachers guide and support learners through giving feedback on writing?
- d) What linguistic resources do teachers employ in the classroom to effectuate these ends?
- e) What insights into classroom practice are offered by this analysis and description?

These questions are answered in Chapters 5 and 6. Below, I summarize my responses.

The study has found that language teachers manage the demands of meeting the learners' current knowledge and abilities and achieving course goals by carefully varying the context dependence (Maton, 2014, p. 107) and complexity of practices (Maton, 2014, p. 129). In the pre-tertiary English language classrooms of the study, these semantic structures play out as semantic waves and tours across the semantic plane. Teachers use language (e.g. classroom discourse, learner writing and written corrective feedback) alongside other semiotic resources (e.g. written corrective feedback symbols, whiteboard(s), digital light projections of language and images and annotated learners' writing used as a pedagogic tool) to manage these complex variations.

In this context-sensitive approach, I identified both a clear starting point in terms of teaching and learning, by fully understanding the present teaching and learning context, and a clear end point, in terms of course goals as knowledge and values. The theoretical frameworks of Legitimation Code Theory (LCT) and systemic functional linguistics (SFL) possess the explanatory power to achieve both aims, as illustrated by the present study. By *zooming* in and out from the object of study, *refocusing* between more general and more precise conceptualizations and *alternating* between parallel analyses in each explanatory framework (Maton et al, 2016, p. 94), I gained a fuller appreciation and understanding of the relationship between the current classroom phenomena while also clearly envisioning the future phenomena that teachers and learners were working towards. Importantly, the frameworks not only allow us to understand current practices but also shape future

practices. This holds the promise of not only understanding the trajectory, the *from here, to there* of working with learners to develop and achieve course goals but also the means of shaping classroom practices to achieve this aim with more efficacy and with more equitable outcomes for all learners.

7.2.1 Contribution to knowledge: from interpretation to evaluation

My original contribution to knowledge is a greater understanding of teacher feedback practices in pre-tertiary Academic English writing classrooms. Firstly, the study identifies the importance of agent alignment and the extent of curriculum control. The efficacy of a curriculum depends upon agent alignment. However, misalignment may be understood as either non-compliance or resistance, depending upon the agent and their goals. This is a potential source of frustration or liberation, again depending upon the agent, their beliefs and their goals.

The study then identifies how teachers use feedback to meet course objectives while also meeting learners' needs, two targets that are not always in alignment. In my data, the teachers achieve this balance by planning and delivering lessons that start with course goals and progress to meeting individual needs, starting by working with the class as a whole, then through group and pair work to individual work with learners.

One major focus of the thesis is the difference in writing feedback lessons at the level of learning tasks. I have identified underlying patterns and purposes that these tasks share. In this empirical study I have also described experienced teachers' feedback practices in order to systematically document teaching choices in the classroom. These choices show the teacher focusing on pedagogic activities before addressing linguistic matters during feedback and elaboration moves after activity completion.

Finally, the study suggests how to move research into written corrective feedback beyond the current limits of the debate, namely the dichotomy of whether or not to give written corrective feedback (Truscott, 1996; 1999, Ferris, 1999; 2004) and the limitations of research studies that attempt to identify the most effective forms of feedback (Bitchener & Ferris, 2012). My study presents a model that conceptualizes teacher feedback as a pedagogic tool used by the experienced teachers in my study in a dynamic process to move classroom activity back and forth between interpretation and evaluation, from sense-

making to meaning-making. This process involves teachers interpreting oracular texts (van Leeuwen, 2015) and evaluating minoic texts¹⁷.

7.2.2 Contribution to research: observing processes and patterns of classroom life

This context-sensitive study examines curriculum enactment from three perspectives: firstly, that of classroom interactions between teacher and learners; secondly, from that of feedback practices across four different classrooms; and finally from the perspective of the spheres of control of curriculum agents. It is important to consider factors inside and outside of the classroom, namely both the curriculum and the detail of classroom discourse, because an understanding of one requires an understanding of the other. To achieve this I adopted an interdisciplinary approach, drawing on linguistics and sociology and studies from systemic functional linguistics and Legitimation Code Theory. The analyses afforded by these explanatory frameworks revealed patterns that were not immediately obvious in the data. These analyses also complemented each other by providing different interpretations of the data. For example, the semantic wave analysis gave me an overview of lessons and identified areas for closer linguistic examination.

Classrooms are complex. This complexity emerges from the social practices and language uses that have developed in and through education. One entry point into the complexity of classrooms is to examine teacher written feedback practices. From a sociological perspective, the pedagogic relation is asymmetrical due to the continuous evaluation of pedagogic practice (Bernstein, 2000). Studies on teacher feedback in the Second Language Acquisition and TESOL literature have researched types of feedback and identified their importance in language development (Ellis, 2009). However, fewer studies have examined how teacher written feedback is incorporated into classroom discourse, an essential part of both curriculum enactment and the achievement of lesson objectives. Many research studies conducted by educational linguists employing systemic functional

¹⁷ A 'minoic text' is one used for judgment or evaluation, as a measure of current linguistic resources (see Section 6.6.5 for a detailed definition).

linguistics have investigated classrooms (Christie, 2002; Rose & Martin, 2012; Rose 2014; 2018; 2020) and this work provided an anchor for my study.

This study uses a synthesis of explanatory frameworks (Maton, 2014; Rose, 2018; 2020) in order to analyse the knowledge and language of teacher feedback practices using analytical tools from the dimension of Semantics from Legitimation Code Theory (Maton, 2014) and pedagogic register analysis from the Martinian model of systemic functional linguistics (Martin, 1992; Martin & Rose, 2007; Rose, 2014; 2018; 2020). The analyses provide insights into teacher written feedback from the dynamic perspective of semantic waves (Maton, 2014) and learning cycles (Rose & Martin, 2012), which are in contrast to the static, reified perspective of feedback employed in previous studies.

The modest contribution this study makes to these explanatory frameworks is that the synthesis of both Semantics (Maton, 2014) and pedagogic register analysis (Rose, 2018) in my research confirms not only their compatibility but also their complementarity. For example, the multilayered complexity of classrooms contains multiple sources of meaning (Rose, 2018). This provokes questions for the other theory (Maton et al., 2016, p. 94; Martin, 2011; Halliday 2008), in this case for pedagogic register analysis with regards to curriculum genres, pedagogic registers and curriculum registers (Rose, 2018; 2020). My study provides a case study that examines sites of teaching and learning, namely fields of reproduction (Maton, 2014, p. 43) and their relationship with fields of recontextualization that create curriculum (Maton, 2014, p. 43). Both Semantics and pedagogic register analysis have helped me to make sense of my data in “trustworthy and theoretically meaningful ways” (Norris & Ortega, 2009, p. 558). Through conducting this research project, in a small way, the study informs both explanatory frameworks (Maton, 2014, p. 15) in terms of the accumulation of knowledge.

7.2.3 Contribution to practice: implications and possibilities for professional practice

In this study I have sought to understand how teachers work towards both achieving course goals while simultaneously developing learners’ emerging language and control of written genres during feedback in writing lessons. Answering this overarching research question started with observation and description, then analysis leading to a greater understanding.

It is now appropriate to consider implications and possibilities for professional practice. In his personal account of his career in applied linguistics, Allwright identifies a shift in focus from prescription to description and then to understanding (2006, p. 11), suggesting this is

a move from a simplistic way of looking at the world of applied linguistics (for example, thinking, universalistically and causally, that there *ought* to be just one best method for language teaching, for all languages, for all learners, for all teachers, and for all time), towards a recognition of the essential and irreducible complexity of the phenomenon of classroom language learning and teaching. (Allwright, 2006, p. 13) (emphasis in original)

From this new perspective, the focus of classroom research and teacher development should be on understanding, recognizing that this has “value in its own right” (Allwright, 2006, p. 13) and that classroom research is not simply a means of achieving greater teaching skills and efficiencies (Allwright, 2006, p. 13). While recognizing the value of understanding the classroom in its own right, I also tentatively suggest this is a starting point for considering implications for practice. Discussing interventions in language planning, Halliday notes the law of failed first try (FFT), “that states that, when human beings intervene in any evolving system and start to introduce theory-based design, the first attempt always fails” (1993b, p.71). Such interventions can be successful under the right conditions, “[b]ut one absolute precondition is to understand the process one is intervening in” (Halliday, 1993b, p. 71). Observing and analysing patterns of classroom life in my study has led to greater understanding, creating the conditions for the possibility of “introducing design into evolving systems and processes (like language)” (Halliday, 1993b, p. 71).

With such considerations in mind and acknowledging the law of the FFT, I suggest possible contributions of the study to professional practice. One implication for practitioners is the opportunity to move beyond the written corrective feedback (WCF) debate. At present, practitioners choose a side of the debate based on the research results they find most convincing. My study suggests that teachers should recognize that WCF is part of a dynamic process that creates a pedagogic tool to be used by teacher and learner through on-going dialogue and guidance. The value of the tool is in its use, rather than the features and properties of the tool itself. It is these opportunities to engage teacher and

learner in meaningful dialogue about writing (that, in turn, provide further opportunities for writing and dialogue) that hold the value of feedback to learning. Therefore, teachers should employ feedback practices that are most suitable to their own contexts based on teachers', learners' and institutional constraints and opportunities, perhaps informed, but not dictated by, narrow WCF studies.

More broadly, it is important first and foremost for practitioners to gain an understanding of the classroom and their practices. I have found Australian genre pedagogy, informed by SFL, useful for understanding my own practice (Scott & Hafenstein, 2021). Both SFL and LCT have also informed this thesis and helped me to identify processes and patterns that have provided a greater understanding of classroom life. For example, shifts in context dependence and the density of meaning provide insights into how experienced teachers manage classroom discourse to link specific examples of learners' writing to more abstract language systems. The cycles of interactions around oracular texts for interpretation and minoic texts for evaluation also reveal a pattern of guidance that is obscured in studies that only focus on WCF and the construction of the pedagogic tool and not its use. I hope such insights encourage other practitioner-researchers to investigate their own practices and classrooms to deepen their understanding of these complex processes of teaching and learning.

For the practitioner-researcher, I hope this study offers a model of investigating the processes and patterns of classroom life, exploring "the organizing principles of (or 'relations within') different forms of knowledge, [...] and their implications for [...] knowledge building" (Maton, 2014, p. 10). Recognizing that knowledge has both forms and effects (Maton, 2014, p. 2) enables teachers to overcome knowledge-blindness (Maton, 2014, p. 7) and become *knowledge-sighted*. Thus, teachers can perceive, recognize and discern (i.e. separate apart) different forms of knowledge and the implications of these for teaching and learning. This offers great promise for practitioners working to address educational issues such as "social inclusion, student achievement and knowledge building" (Maton, 2014, p. 10). One example of this is research examining how knowledge practices manage the dual foci of management communication and language in a postgraduate course at a business school (Tann & Scott, 2021). This *knowledge-sightedness* enables teachers to understand the curriculum and classroom from a new perspective, and plan, teach, assess, and reflect on teaching and learning in an approach that moves beyond

narrow models of language instruction to a model of language education that empowers teachers as professional practitioners with a broader and deeper understanding of the classroom and the curriculum that enables them to be “self-directing and self-determining” (Kumaravadivelu, 2001, pp. 552-553). This, in turn, offers the potential of greater alignment of the knowledge and values of the curriculum with learners, and other stakeholders.

7.3 Identifying potential limitations

One potential limitation is that I have understood the object of study through the lenses of two explanatory frameworks rather than the object as it is in itself. As Heisenberg notes, “what we observe is not nature itself, but nature exposed to our method of questioning” (Heisenberg, 1958, p.57). A fuller understanding of the object of study might be possible through replication and the accumulation of empirical research and subsequent understanding. In the design and conduct of my research study, I have attempted to mitigate against this limitation by, firstly, developing a context-sensitive study and, secondly, by employing two explanatory frameworks that offer different but complementary understandings of the phenomena. While there will always be limitations to our understanding, acknowledging these limitations gives us an awareness of their presence and a means to keep our claims in check.

From a different perspective, a further limitation is the study’s breadth in its ambition to be context-sensitive. In my view, it is the work of an educational linguist to investigate the relationship between language, knowledge and values in education, a complex phenomenon that requires multiple perspectives to provide adequate description and explanation. A narrower study may have been simpler to plan, conduct and write up, but a narrower study would also have given more limited insights and understanding. To paraphrase Runciman, while narrowly specialized studies, like small fortresses, might be easier to defend, it is the work of educational linguists to provide broader studies that, while harder to defend, may offer readers a richer understanding of the phenomena (Runciman, 1951, p. xiii).

A further limitation was the size of the research sample and the time scale. The decisions around size and time scale were determined by my access to the data and the need for a feasible study. A realistic time frame had to align with the ELT centre’s teaching

timetable. Teachers can change classes every five weeks, so to observe an intact class with the same teacher meant conducting the study within that time frame. As the teachers were following the same syllabus, the key lessons on writing I wanted to observe were scheduled for the same day. While this was manageable for two teachers, it was not for four. I made the decision to study two intact classes for four weeks and then the other two in the following four weeks. This plan was adapted due to the global pandemic Covid-19 (Lupton, 2020), leading to lockdowns, a move to online teaching and extending the data gathering period. This is discussed further below. A longer study with more teachers would have produced a richer data set but threatened the feasibility of the study. The implication of this limitation might concern transferability. However, as discussed in the previous section, I anticipated that the detailed description of the context and participants, together with the use of explanatory frameworks (i.e. LCT and pedagogic register analysis) that are both informed by and shape social ontologies (Maton, 2014, p. 15) would lead to knowledge that could be easily assessed for its relevance and appropriate implementation in other contexts.

As previously mentioned, another limitation was the Covid-19 global pandemic. This had a large impact on the second part of Study Two, Stage Two of data gathering. Teaching at the ELT Centre was paused in preparation for a move to teaching online, increasing the workload of teacher participants, and placing them in an unfamiliar teaching and learning environment. There were two main impacts. Firstly, I did not gather any pedagogic discourse data from online teaching. Secondly, the period of data collection was extended. This was because participants were confined to their accommodation in a period of great uncertainty and isolation (Lupton, 2020). All the participants expressed a preference to continue their participation in the study and I thought it was important to continue as planned. Overall, the effects of the pandemic put some restrictions on data gathering. This limited the pedagogic discourse from the four classes following the same curriculum. However, I had anticipated the potential issue of teacher participants withdrawing from the study and planned data gathering to include more data than I required. In addition, pairing teachers up in Stage One and Stage Two of data collection meant I always had classroom data for comparative analysis. The interviews with teachers and learners I conducted during the pandemic documents how participants responded to the “online shift” and, even if not part of this present study, is interesting in itself and warrants further study.

There are limitations inherent in qualitative research designs and other limitations that are particular to this study. Due to the role of the researcher in qualitative analysis, choices and patterns of thinking can be limited by researcher subjectivity. One limitation of this study is this issue of subjectivity and potential bias due to my involvement in English language teaching over the last twenty years and my employment at the ELT centre. As a teacher at the centre, I knew some of the participants and this led to the related issue of participant reactivity (Maxwell, 2005), with participants' responses in interviews potentially influenced by our prior professional relationship.

When designing the study, I gave careful thought as to how I could minimize the impact of these potential limitations. Keeping a journal and regular discussions with my supervisor helped me reflect on my practice and articulate my subjective assumptions. During data analysis I removed participant names and coded classroom and interview transcripts blind to avoid linking individual participants to data to limit potential bias. This was achieved by placing transcriptions in numbered envelopes and opening these and analysing the transcripts without looking at the numbers.

This issue of participant reactivity was addressed by consciously considering how our professional relationship might affect the data. In addition, I endeavoured to create a safe and open environment for frank and honest dialogue in the interviews. My experience as an interviewer and my prior research experience was put to good use here. As the study was descriptive and explanatory, there was not pressure for teachers to behave in a particular way. However, observation is used for evaluative purposes in ELT teacher training and in the ELT centre and so I had to ensure the aims of the study were clear to teacher participants.

7.4 Suggestions for further research

I see the potential for future research as falling into three broad categories: replication, accumulation and extension (Norris & Ortega, 2009). By the term replication, I mean studies of comparable phenomena in a comparable context that employ the same research design. For example, this might be a study of a pre-tertiary English language course at another Australian University. Meaningful comparisons and contrasts could be made that highlight which factors are particular to a specific case and which are common across cases.

By the term accumulation, I mean the gradual gathering of understandings through studies of comparable phenomena or through studies that employ the same or complementary explanatory frameworks. For example, this might be a study of a pre-tertiary English language course at a German University with English as a Medium of Instruction courses. Again, meaningful comparisons and contrasts could be made that would add to our understanding. Finally, by the term extension, I mean the application of an existing element of this study and its application to a new area. For example, this might be a study of parent and child socialization, using Semantics and pedagogic register analysis. Once again, meaningful comparisons and contrasts could be made, highlighting commonalities and differences across cultural domains.

Firstly, a replication study I would be keen to pursue involves mapping semantic profiles of different types of lessons from similar pre-tertiary courses with similar learning objectives and course goals but different teachers and learners. A study such as this would be informative in itself but it would also mean a comparative analysis could be conducted with my study in order to better understand curriculum enactment in pre-tertiary contexts and provide a greater understanding of knowledge practices in the classroom. Secondly, an accumulation study I would be keen to pursue involves mapping teacher choices using pedagogic register analysis in different types of lessons and courses with different learning objectives and course goals. Again, this would be informative in itself but it would also provide a means of gradually gathering greater understandings of the relationships between language, knowledge and values in pedagogic practice. More studies using pedagogic register analysis would provide more data and analyses and help empirically describe and account for the choices experienced teachers make in writing classroom and achieve the goal of showing “empirically how teaching and learning occurs, to inform teaching as a consciously designed professional practice’ (Rose, 2018, p. 3). Finally, an extension study I would be keen to pursue involves a study of teaching and learning in a forest school. This would see the explanatory frameworks of Semantics and pedagogic register analysis used in the study applied to this new area. Once again, the study would stand independently of this study but it would also provide meaningful comparisons and contrasts, highlighting commonalities and differences across educational programs.

I have used pedagogic register analysis to describe the choices made by the teachers in my study. However, pedagogic register analysis (PRA) could be used to plan classroom

interactions, as Australian genre pedagogy does (e.g. in the Reading to Learn program). Thus it has the dual potential of description and prescription. Future research may look back to past teaching methodologies and view them afresh from a new perspective. For example, lessons using Gettagno's 'The Silent Way' (1962) may be analysed using PRA to show tight control of pedagogic modalities to allow for greater focus in ACT and INTERACT systems, particularly regarding attention. Additionally, communicative language teaching and task-based teaching and learning may be analysed using LCT's Semantics to show that communicative activities and tasks are an effective way of varying context dependence to achieve cumulative knowledge building through semantic waves. Conceptualizing the underlying principles at a greater degree of abstraction allows for a topology of approaches that place them in relation to each other, rather than the more traditional, chronological and linear perspective that presents a 'new' methodology in direct contrast to its predecessors.

Ortega and Byrnes (2008) have identified the need for more longitudinal investigations to obtain a full view of developmental trajectories. Studies employing LCT and following language development trajectories over longer periods of time than the unit of work of my study would enable us to map semantic waves and constellations from particular classrooms to language development in particular contexts. Studies employing pedagogic register analysis and following language development trajectories over longer periods would enable us to map teacher selections of pedagogic register systems and curriculum genres to language development in particular contexts. Such studies would not seek to identify cause and effect relationships amongst variables but rather describe the complex processes involved in the development of the individual. This would involve analysing curriculum genres and their constituent pedagogic registers and curriculum registers (Rose, 2020, p. 240).

As discussed in Chapter 6, this development may be understood through Halliday and Matthiessen's model of social semiotic change (Halliday, 1992; 1993a, 1993b; Halliday and Matthiessen, 1999). Meaning unfolding in texts is termed logogenesis, and language development in the individual is termed ontogenesis (Martin & Rose, 2007 p. 318). The texts of the classroom (logogenesis) provide the semiotic goods for the growth of the individual (ontogenesis); "texts provide the means through which individuals interact to learn the system" (Martin & Rose, 2007, p. 318). Ontogenesis is concerned with "the development of

individual repertoires [and] logogenesis is concerned with what in SFL is referred to as the instantiation of system in text (or 'process' for a more dynamic perspective)" (Martin & Rose, 2007, p. 319). Such a model enables us to conceptualize the development of individual learner's meaning-making resources through unfolding classroom meanings.

7.5 Conclusion: Compliance and resistance, failure and success

Taken together, Legitimation Code Theory and pedagogic register analysis offer the opportunity to describe, understand and then prescribe pedagogy. Their joint application to issues in education gives agents involved in the pedagogic device an understanding of the complex network of relationships involved in sites of knowledge reproduction. Agents can use such understandings to make informed and context-sensitive decisions that are sensitive to the needs of learners and the goals of the curriculum. While researchers continue to work towards such understandings (Martin et al., 2020; Maton et al., 2021), it is individuals that enact curriculums and it is the work of individual teachers, more than any other agent, that holds the key to curricular success or failure. As Barnes notes, "[a]ll the efforts [...] to develop new curricula may be abortive if curriculum development is taken to exclude examination of the part played by teachers in the curriculum, which is after all not a thing but an activity" (Barnes, 1971, p. 11).

Compliance or resistance to any given curriculum is a choice for teachers and learners. A model that sees researchers, curriculum designers and teachers aligned in their practices and beliefs perhaps offers learners the best chance of success in achieving course goals. The questions of who decides the course goals, and who is resistant or compliant, are part of the arena of struggle (Maton 2014 p. 51). What is at stake are learners' access to semiotic resources and their equitable distribution (Rose & Martin, 2012). Here we see the relationship between education and society, of education as either reproducing the status quo or offering the potential for a transformational future for learners. Such far reaching outcomes are not always clear in classroom interactions or on the pages of a coursebook but once this is made explicit, each individual then has their own choices to make. There is the opportunity to work towards a future society that is not predetermined but dependent on our choices, of the relationships we enact, the experiences we construe and how we organize our language in different contexts. Halliday emphasizes that:

Language does not passively “reflect” or “correspond to” some pre-existing reality. Language **constructs** reality; or rather, we, as human beings, construct reality in language. We do this through the metafunctional interplay of action and reflection: language both **enacts** interpersonal relationships and **construes** human experience. Thus the (speaking) subject, the multifaceted personae, the hierarchies and power structures that we call society are all created in language. Ideologies of class, gender, and the like are established and maintained - and also challenged - through the meaning potential of language. (Halliday & Matthiessen, 1999, p. 92) (emphasis in original)

Therefore, it is important to recognize the essential relationship between language, knowledge and values in the classroom. In essence, “learning floats on a sea of talk” (Barnes, 1976) but we might also note the additional multimodal semiotic flotsam that accompanies learners and teachers as they engage in pedagogic activity in contemporary classrooms.

Effective teachers may be seen to guide learners carefully through the pathways that lead to course goals. These pathways through the complexities of the language classroom are like a labyrinth (see Figure 7.1 below) with teachers guiding learners through the complexities towards greater control of confident, competent and dynamically evolving linguistic repertoires and greater meaning making potential (Ortega & Byrnes, 2008, p. 18).



Figure 7.1 The Cretan labyrinth as a visual metaphor of the path of teaching and learning (image author’s own)

My interest and professional experiences in English language teaching in adult classrooms led me to investigate how teachers plan and deliver writing feedback in order to meet both learners’ needs and course aims. This has involved examining knowledge practices of teachers adjusting context-dependence and density of meaning and the role language plays as knowledge and goods are exchanged. Martin’s linguistic model has

enabled me to work above the clause, viewing classroom episodes as curriculum genres that in turn form part of larger curriculum macro-genres (Christie, 2002). Moving down the stratal framework to discourse semantics, I used the system of negotiation to examine classroom discourse with exchanges as the units of analysis to see how moves are organized and roles adopted and assigned through teacher-led dialogue (Martin & Rose, 2007, p. 127). At the end of their introduction to systemic functional grammar, Bloor and Bloor note the terminological and conceptual differences between various systemic functional 'grammars' (2004, p. 259). They note that the differences are small, to be expected and desired before concluding with the following quote from Halliday and Fawcett:

We present our proposals for modelling language to our fellow explorers, orally or in writing, in a discourse in which evidence and counter-evidence is offered and ideas are exchanged, adopted, adapted and occasionally rejected - and there is no reason why this discussion should not be friendly. (Halliday and Fawcett, 1987, p. 20)

To echo Halliday and Fawcett, I present my investigations into English language classrooms to my fellow practitioners and researchers. I hope the models of knowledge practices detailing how teachers adjust context-dependence and density of meaning, and the models of the relationships between language, knowledge and values, are also exchanged, adopted and adapted, but hopefully not rejected, in the light of evidence and counter-evidence in friendly collegial discussion and debate.

Appendices

Appendix 1: Genre and register analysis of Unlock 4 Reading, Writing & Critical Thinking course syllabus: pp. 292 – 296.

Appendix 2: Course entry requirements at 20 weeks & 15 weeks: p. 297.

Appendix 3: Data inventory: pp. 298 – 302.

Appendix 4: Report on Study One classroom analysis: pp. 303 – 320.

Appendix 5: Conventions: pp. 321 – 322.

Appendix 1: Genre and register analysis of Unlock 4 Reading, Writing & Critical Thinking course syllabus

Course: Unlock 4		Genre	Field: topic of social activity	Tenor: e.g. expert, peer	Mode: e.g. letters, blog
Unit 1 Wk 1 of course	Reading 1	R1 Explanation: factorial Multiple causes for one effect Phenomenon: outcome ^Explanation	Unit topic: Globalization R1 Ikea's global success	R1 journalist/blogger	R1 blog
	Reading 2	R2 Explanation: consequential Multiple effects from one cause Phenomenon: cause ^Explanation (Argument: discussion because final paragraph: Restatement and Evaluation)	R2 Changing eating habits in Italy	R2 textbook writer as essayist	R2 essay
			Syllabus content: 1. Discussion: Products, trade and globalization 2. Video: An important transport route (China plans revival of Silk Road routes) 3. Vocabulary: globalization vocabulary 4. Critical thinking: evaluating supporting examples 5. Grammar for writing: noun phrases (e.g. technology companies; a chain which is growing globally) 6. Grammar for writing: time phrases (e.g. In recent years)	Vocabulary: academic alternatives to phrasal verbs (formal language e.g. go on vs. continue, use up vs. exhaust)	Critical thinking: Using tables and diagrams Academic writing skills: Essay structure Academic writing skills: Writing an effective thesis statement
Writing Task	p.26 'explanatory essay' Consequential explanation Multiple effects from one cause Phenomenon: cause ^ Explanation	Unit writing task: How has globalization changed your country? English Language Teaching (ELT) Centre question: How have food and eating habits changed in your country? Note: change in field and genre - Argument	Student to teacher Student to teacher	Essay Essay	

Course: Unlock 4		Genre	Field: topic of social activity	Tenor: e.g. expert, peer	Mode: e.g. letters, blog
Unit 2 Wk 2 of course Data collection begins with feedback on this writing task	Reading 1	R1 Report: classifying report Classifying and describing types of things Classification^ Description	Unit topic: Education R1 University courses: Business vs. engineering	R1 text book writer as essayist	R1 essay
	Reading 2	R2 Report: classifying report (as above)	R2 Distance learning vs. Face-to-face learning	R2 journalist	R2 article
			<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Discussion: exams, changing your education system, technology improving education, vocational training • Video: an app that helps children catch up outside the classroom (Disadvantaged children take part in trial of private tutor app) • Vocabulary: education vocabulary 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Vocabulary: academic words (e.g. alternative, establishment) • Grammar for writing: comparison and contrast language (in academic writing) • Grammar for writing: Adverb clauses of contrast (e.g. While/whereas teacher and parents both have a child's interests...) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Critical thinking: analysing similarities and differences (in academic discourse and with a Venn diagram) • Academic writing skills: avoiding run-on sentences and comma splices) • Academic writing skills: comparison and contrast essays
	Writing Task	Report: classifying report (as above but ends with Restatement and writer's opinion) Suggested plan p. 55: Background info^Thesis statement^ Similarities ^Differences ^Your opinion)	Unit writing task: Discuss the various similarities and differences between studying a language and studying Mathematics English Language Teaching (ELT) Centre's question: Outline the various differences and similarities between studying a language and mathematics. Report: classifying report	Student to teacher Student to teacher	Essay Essay

Course: Unlock 4		Genre	Field: topic of social activity	Tenor: e.g. expert, peer	Mode: e.g. letters, blog
Unit 3 Wk 3	Reading 1	R1 Argument: discussion Discussing two or more points of view Issue ^ Sides ^ Resolution	Unit topic: Medicine R1 The homeopathy debate	R1 journalist and two health professionals	R1 article
	Reading 2	R2 Argument: discussion (as above)	R2 Should healthcare be free?	R2 journalist	R2 article
			Syllabus content: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Discussion: treatments, and alternative medicine • Video: robots used in surgery • Vocabulary: medical vocabulary (e.g. drug dependency) • Critical thinking: brainstorming, evaluating and analysing in preparation for writing task • Grammar for writing: noun phrases (e.g. technology companies; a chain which is growing globally) • & time phrases (e.g. In recent years) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Vocabulary: academic vocabulary (e.g. adverse, professional) • Grammar for writing: articles (accuracy and generalizations in academic writing) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Academic writing skills: avoiding run-on sentences and comma splices) • Grammar for writing: Transitions to show concession (e.g. Even though...) • Academic writing skills: sentence variety (e.g. flow in academic writing)
	Writing Task	p.71 'opinion essay' Discussion (as above) (suggested plan p. 77 Introduction^Argument 1 (supporting evidence/concession/solution) ^Argument 2 (supporting evidence/concession/solution) ^concluding paragraph)	Unit writing task: Is disease prevention the responsibility of individuals and their families, or of the government? English Language Teaching (ELT) Centre's: Avoiding preventable illness is the responsibility of individuals and their families, not governments. To what extent do you agree? Argument: exposition/discussion	Student to teacher Student to teacher	Essay Essay

Course: Unlock 4		Genre	Field: topic of social activity	Tenor: e.g. expert, peer	Mode: e.g. letters, blog
Unit 4 Wk 4/5	Reading 1	R1 Problem question* (Problem-solution) Applying solution) to a problem Context^Problem(s)^Solution(s) ^Evaluation	Unit topic: The Environment R1 Controlling the flow	R1 interviewer & interviewee (disaster- mitigation expert)	R1 interview
	Reading 2	R2 Problem question* (Problem-solution) (as above)	R2 Combatting drought in rural Africa	R2 journalist	R2 article
			Syllabus content: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Discussion: floods and natural disasters • Video: population and water • Vocabulary: natural disaster vocabulary • Critical thinking: analyse, evaluate two natural disaster case studies • Grammar for writing: expressing solutions using 'it' (natural disaster examples) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Vocabulary: academic noun-phrases (e.g. risk analysis project, product manufacturing) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Academic writing skills: developing ideas & parallel structures (e.g. adjective and adjective, clause and clause)
	Writing Task	R2 Problem question* (Problem-solution) (suggested plan p. 99 Description of problem and main purpose of report^Recommended Solution (RS)1^RS2^RS3^Summary^ Evaluation of key points)	Unit writing task: Write an essay which provides both short- and long-term solutions to an environmental problem and takes cost into consideration. Refer to a specific case in your essay. English Language Teaching (ELT) Centre's optional question: Discuss the problems associated with one of the natural disasters you have looked at during the week, and suggest some short-term and long-term solutions. Problem question*	Student to teacher Student to teacher	Essay Essay

Course: Unlock 4		Genre	Field: topic of social activity	Tenor: e.g. expert, peer	Mode: e.g. letters, blog
Unit 5 Wk 6	Reading 1	R1 Argument: exposition (with concession) Arguing for a point of view Thesis^Argument^ Restatement	Unit topic: Architecture R1 We need more green buildings R2 Building design: form vs. function	R1 Journalist R2 Journalist	R1 article R2 essay
	Reading 2	R2 Argument: discussion Discussing two or more points of view Issue ^ Sides ^ Resolution	Syllabus content: - Discussion: houses or apartments, most important room, famous old buildings - Video: government grants for energy-efficient homes - Vocabulary: architecture and planning vocabulary (e.g. amenities, green belt, outskirts)	- Vocabulary: academic word families (e.g. combination, combine, combined)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Critical thinking: creating a persuasive argument (advantages and disadvantages organized on a T chart) • Grammar for writing: register in academic writing (formal, academic written English vs. informal writing) • Academic writing skills: ordering information (e.g. '...size. The number of bedrooms...') • Academic writing skills: prioritizing arguments (e.g. supporting a point of view by following it with specific facts or observations which can persuade the reader)
	Writing Task	Argument: exposition/discussion (suggested plan p. 121 Introduction^ Arguments in favour of location^ Arguments in favour of size^Your position and conclusions)	Which is more important when building or buying a new home: its location or its size? English Language Teaching (ELT) Centre's Location is more important than size when buying or building a home? To what extent do you agree? Argument: exposition/discussion	Student	Essay

Appendix 2: Course entry requirements at 20 weeks & 15 weeks

Course entry requirements at 20 weeks

Test	Overall Band	Listening	Reading	Writing	Speaking
IELTS	5.5	5.5	5.5	5.5	5.5

Course entry requirements at 15 weeks

Test	Overall Band	Listening	Reading	Writing	Speaking
IELTS	6.0	5.5	5.5	5.5	5.5

Appendix 3: Data inventory

Study One

Lesson observations and interviews	Notes
Lesson observation and audio recording: Sobrina’s writing lesson	<i>This lesson formed the basis of the semantic analysis.</i>
Lesson observation and audio recording: Tim’s writing lesson	
Post lessons interviews:	
Sobrina (interview 1)	<i>This interview informed my semantic analysis of the lesson.</i>
Tim (interview 2)	

Tutorial observations and interview
One-to-one tutorials with Sobrina (x6):
Learner A
Learner B
Learner C
Learner D
Learner E
Learner F
Post tutorial interview:
Sobrina (interview 3)

Stakeholder interviews	
End of course individual learner interviews	English Language Centre (ELT) staff interviews
Learner A (interview 4)	Teacher Tim (interview 22)
Learner B (interview 5)	Teacher Pat (interview 23)
Learner C (interview 6)	Course leader (Interview 24)
Learner D (interview 7)	Centre director (interview 25)
Learner E (interview 8)	Center administrator (interview 26)
Learner F (interview 9)	
Learner G (interview 10)	University interviews
Learner H (interview 11)	Business lecturer involved in international recruitment (interview 27)
Learner I (interview 12)	Science lecturer involved in international recruitment (interview 28)
Learner J (interview 13)	Head of admissions (interview 29)
Learner K (interview 14)	Senior university executive (interview 30)
Learner L (interview 15)	Member of the board of governors (interview 31)
Learner M (interview 16)	
Learner N (interview 17)	
Learner O (interview 18)	
Learner P (interview 19)	
Learner Q (interview 20)	
Learner R (interview 21)	

Date inventory for Study Two (main study)

Study Two: Stage One

Teacher W	Teacher X
Lesson observation 1	Lesson observation 1
Lesson observation 2	Lesson observation 2
Lesson observation 3	Lesson observation 3
Lesson observation 4	Lesson observation 4
Lesson observation 5	Lesson observation 5
Lesson observation 6	
Lesson observation 7	
Number of lesson audio recordings: 13	Number of lesson audio recordings: 18
Number of lessons with video recordings: 1	Number of lessons with video recordings: 1
Post observation 1 interview (interview 32)	Post observation 1-2 interview (interview 36)
Post observation 2 interview (interview 33)	Post observation 3-4 interview (interview 37)
Post observation 3-5 interview (interview 34)	Post observation 5 interview (interview 38)
Post observation 6-7 interview (interview 35)	

Study Two: Stage Two

Teacher Y	Teacher Z
Lesson observation 1	Lesson observation 1
Lesson observation 2	
Number of lesson audio recordings: 2	Number of lesson audio recordings: 2
Post observation 1-2 interview (interview 39)	Post observation 1 interview (interview 41)
Post course interview (interview 40)	Post course interview (interview 42)

Learner focus groups	Class
Group 1	Teacher W
Group 2	Teacher X
Group 3	Teacher Y
Group 4	Teacher Z

Notes:

Each teacher taught two four-hour lessons a day, three days a week for five weeks. This is six 'administrative' lessons a week and a total of thirty over five weeks. The 'semantic' lessons where aims are achieved do not necessarily map onto the administrative lessons. For example, one lesson may start in the second half of a two-hour administrative lesson and finish in the next two-hour administrative lesson. Conversely, a single two-hour administrative lesson may contain two 'semantic' lessons. For ease of reference, I have labelled the data according to administrative lessons.

All classroom observations were audio recorded (apart from Teacher W's final observed lesson which was, in part, filmed). I also took field notes and photographs. When a lesson was not observed but audio recorded, I listened to the recording and made notes for discussion in the

post-lesson teacher interviews. The interviews were conducted as soon as possible after the observation and after I had listened to the audio recordings. For Teacher W this was in the same week and with Teacher X it was the following week. For Teachers Y and Z, the first interview was in the same week as the lesson observation.

The impact of the Covid-19 global pandemic led to a stop in teaching and a move to online teaching. I was not able to observe any online lessons and I conducted interviews with Teacher Y six weeks after the first interview and Teacher Z twelve weeks after the first interview. All the observations, audio recordings and interviews informed the study. Lesson observation 1 of each teacher was analysed for semantic gravity and semantic density (Maton, 2014). Teacher W lesson observation 1 was analysed using systems from pedagogic register analysis (Rose, 2018). However, my conclusions reported in Chapter 7 do not rest on a single person or lesson observation but I have based my conclusions on the sum of my observations and interviews during my time in classrooms in England and Australia.

Appendix 4: Report on Study One classroom analysis

Study One took place in a university language centre in South East England. The learners were on a twelve-week pre-session course taught by a diploma qualified and experienced teacher familiar with the course. Successful completion of the course gave learners direct entry into the university without the need to take IELTS to meet the minimum entry requirements. Ethics approval was sought and granted for this project. To maintain participant anonymity, all names are pseudonyms. The data in this report is from the lesson observation and audio recording of Sabrina’s writing lesson, post lesson interview and associated field notes and photographs (see Appendix 3, Data inventory).

Classroom context

The class had 12 learners (see Table 48). In this writing lesson the teacher aimed to develop writing skills through a series of activities.

Table 48 Description of the 12 learners

Human geographical region	First language	Level of study	Faculty
China	Mandarin Chinese	Undergraduate Year 3	Life Sciences & Computing (LS&C)
Thailand	Thai	Postgraduate	Art, Architecture & Design
Iran	Farsi	Postgraduate	LS&C
China	Chinese	Postgraduate	Business & Law
France	French	Undergraduate	Art, Architecture & Design
Japan	Japanese	English language learner	Not applicable

Estonia	Estonian	Undergraduate	Social Sciences & Humanities
Italy	Italian	Undergraduate	Art, Architecture & Design
China	Mandarin Chinese	Undergraduate Year 3	LS&C
China	Mandarin Chinese	Undergraduate Year 3	LS&C
Japan	Japanese	Postgraduate	Business & Law
Russia	Russian	Undergraduate	Business & Law

The first classroom activity involved learners describing to their partner a well-known place from their own country. The partner took notes and from these wrote up a description of the place. The teacher took three finished written learner compositions and projected them onto a screen to allow the whole class to see them. The learners' writing was then discussed by teacher and learners, and the teacher annotated the script.

The lesson was organized to emphasize the process of writing. In the post-observation interview, the teacher discussed the importance of generating and organizing ideas before writing and then reviewing the writing once the first draft was complete. The teacher noted that:

the question was just discuss an attractive place in your country, and just to focus on that. It's a micro example of what to do, but, yeah, I think, obviously there are stages and you can expand on those stages. But fundamentally, I think it was about generating ideas and getting them down into a cohesive whole.

Sabrina, interview 1

In preparation for the writing task, the teacher wrote on the white board with information to support learners' written text organization (see Figure 71). This referred to previous work completed in class.

The learners were sitting around tables organized into one long table (see Figure 72). They paired off for the speaking activity, worked individually for the writing activity and faced the front of the classroom to view the projected written text during the teacher-led peer-correction activity. The lesson started with a productive task, with learners producing spoken language and then moved from spoken to written. In the final part of the lesson, the teacher and learners discussed the learners' written texts and edited them.

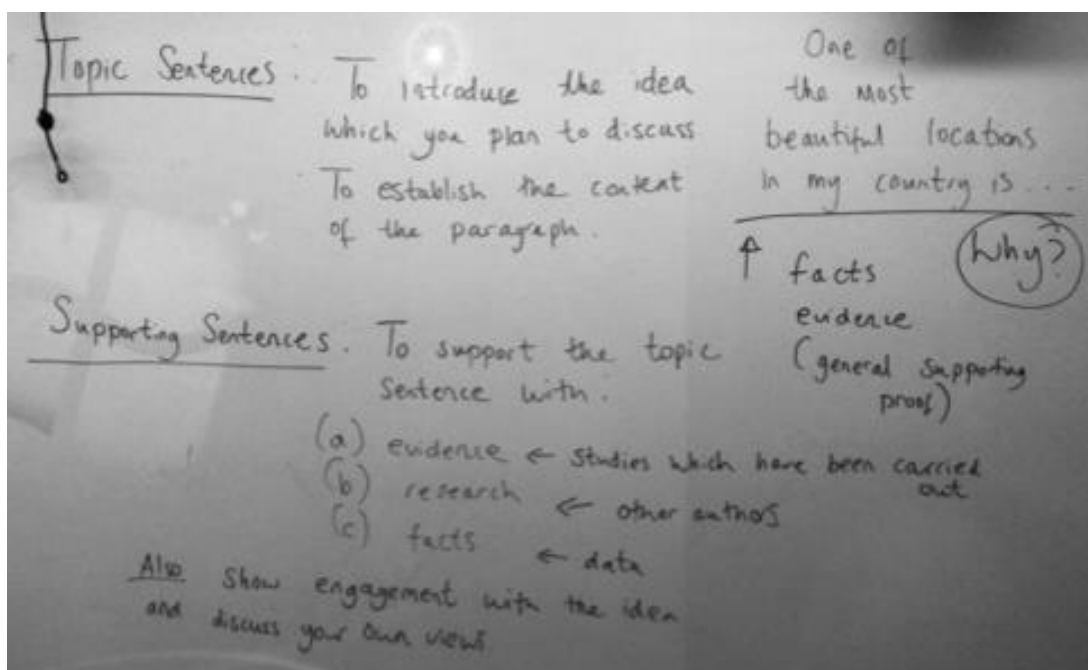


Figure 71 Sources of meaning: whiteboard as a written pedagogic modality

Data analysis

The purpose of this lesson can be seen as consolidating previous classroom work. The two stages are Individual Task followed by Review. The Individual Task stage can be divided into two phases, Individual spoken and Individual written. The Review stage can also be further divided into phases: Reflect and Edit. Reflect involves the teacher asking learners questions about the learners' writing to highlight and reinforce ideas about organization. This is followed by the edit stage, where learners are asked to read the written text and suggest improvements and corrections (see Figure 74). The stages and phases show the steps taken by the teacher and learners to complete the lesson's aim of reviewing organization and accuracy in written texts. The focus of the pilot study is on the Review

stage and its Reflect and Edit phases, as this is where the major work on the teaching and learning of writing is completed.



Figure 72 Sources of meaning: learners' knowledge as a spoken modality

The following analysis examines the Review stage of the first piece of learner writing by the learner 'Carole'. In the Reflect phase, the written text is placed under a document camera and projected onto a screen in the classroom (see Figure 73). After reading through the text individually, the teacher, 'Sobrina', starts to ask the class questions about it. The teacher points to parts of the text when discussing it and annotates it (see Figures 73 and 74).

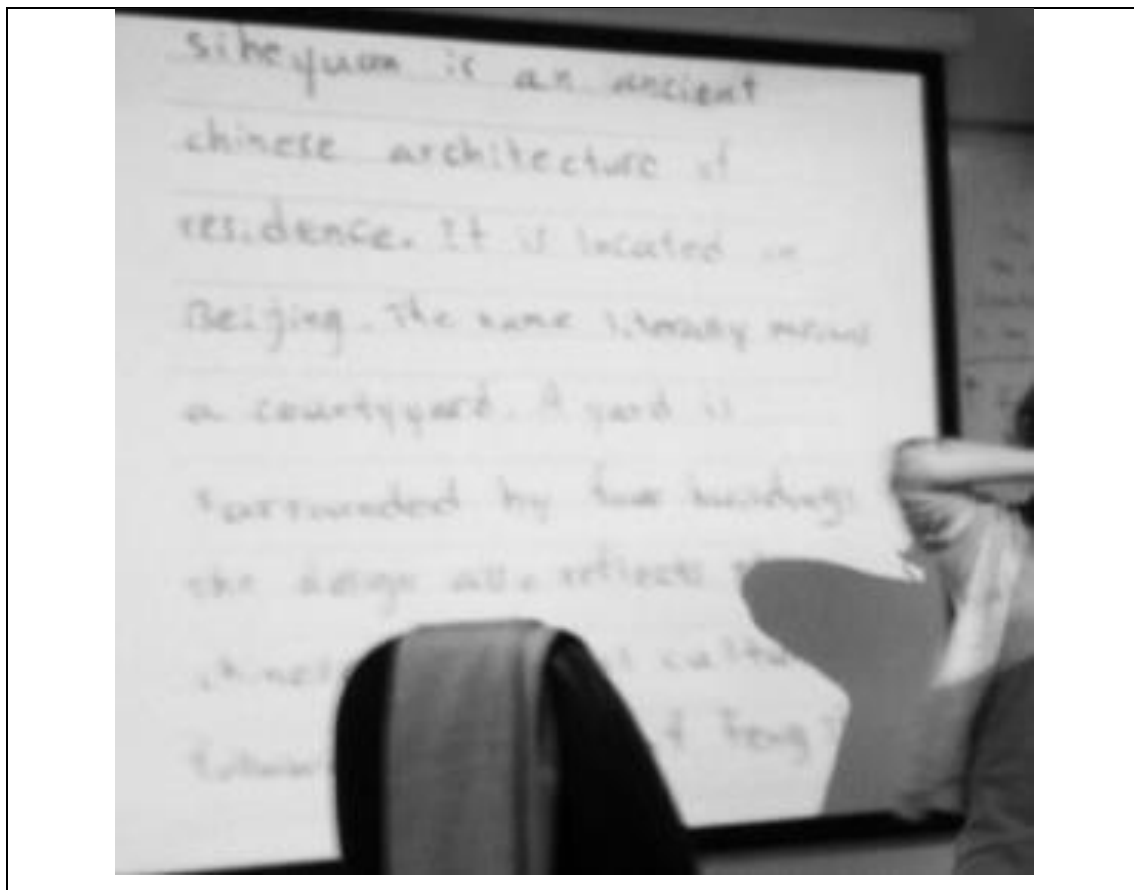


Figure 73 Sources of meaning: projected learner text as a written pedagogic modality

The data analysis involved three steps. In the first step, the lesson transcript of the Review stage was analysed for changes in semantic gravity and semantic density to identify semantic waves. This guided the linguistic analysis of the part of the lesson that contained both a limited and high semantic range. An exchange structure analysis was then completed with knower/actor roles and learning cycle moves added. The exchanges were then aligned with the phases and stages identified above and matched with changes in the semantic profile. Finally, the notion of scaffolding was used to analyse the lesson.

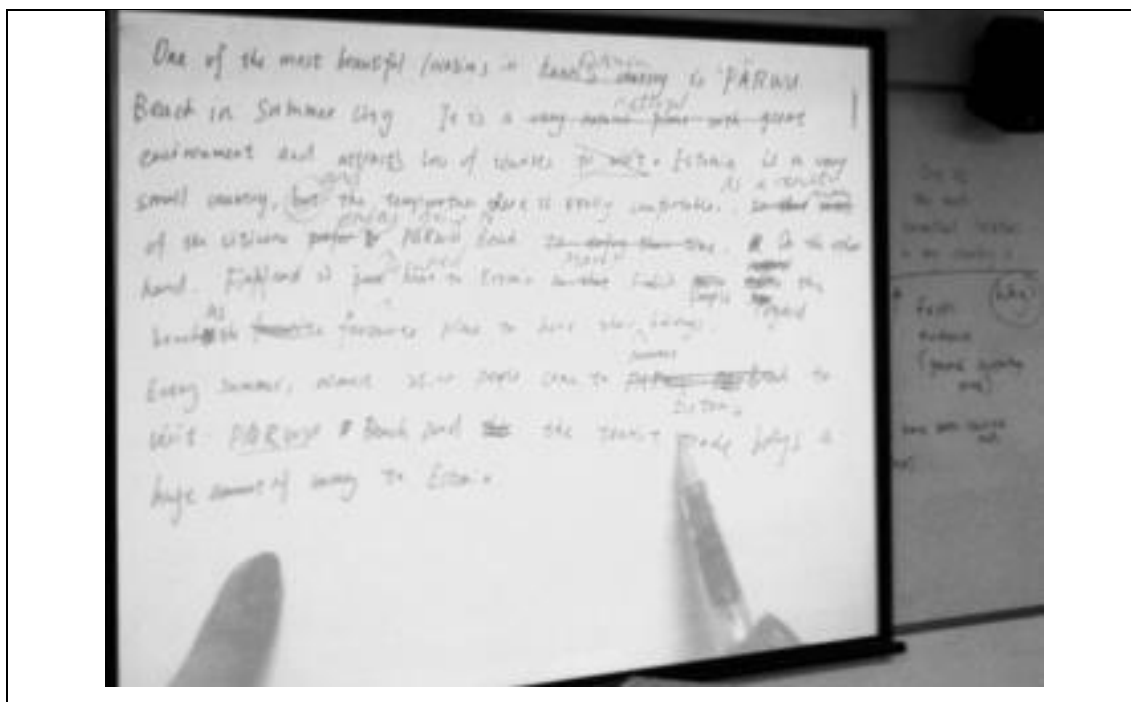


Figure 74 Sources of meaning: projected learner text with teacher annotations as a written pedagogic modality

Semantic profile

In order to explore the classroom data using the concepts from LCT, it is necessary to develop a specific translation device (Table 49). This enables the identification of semantic gravity and semantic density in a particular data set. The translation device is colour-coded and changes in the semantic flow in the transcript are coloured to allow for ease of reference (see Table 53). Semantic gravity and semantic density occur on a continuum, so the division into the three sections shown below is most usefully viewed as a heuristic, sufficient for achieving the goal of identifying strengths of semantic gravity and semantic density in the data.

The Reflect phase begins with the teacher identifying the place described in the learner's written text. This is a traditional type of Chinese residence called a *siheyuan*. From this starting position of relatively strong semantic gravity describing a specific place, the teacher's questions move quickly upwards towards more generalized ideas. Specifically, the teacher uses metalanguage to discuss the learner's written text, employing the terms 'topic sentence', 'grammar' and 'vocabulary' to discuss this particular piece of writing. This limits the semantic range because the terms are not used in abstract terms but still relate to this

particular written text. In terms of semantic density, these terms carry a greater weight of meaning than the words used in the written text to describe a particular place, indicating a strengthening in semantic density. This is the first semantic wave in the data and it has a limited semantic range.

Table 49 Translation device for the description of semantic profiles in classroom discourse on writing

Coding responses	Form taken by teacher/learner	Example quote from classroom data
Theory SG–, SD+ Relates to more abstract or theoretical content; less connected to a particular context; greater complexity and range of meanings	General concepts about language systems (e.g. graphological, lexicogrammatical) that go beyond a particular text and relate to theory.	Setting up the pair editing activity: <i>“Related to yesterday, think about the grammar.”</i>
Generalizations Relates to more generalized content and patterns of experience	Concepts about language systems used to discuss particular texts.	Revising & editing a learner text: <i>“Do you think that’s the topic sentence?”</i>
Examples SG+. SD– Relates to more concrete & specific experiences; a fewer range of meanings; the unpacking or removal of meanings	Reproduces, summarizes or reformulates (by re-wording and/or restructuring the information) examples from a particular text.	Revising & editing a learner text: <i>How about this one “... is an ancient Chinese architecture of residence.”</i>

The teacher then returns to discuss the content of the learner’s written text in more detail, strengthening the semantic gravity. The semantic flow remains constant for the next three exchanges as the teacher asks further questions about how the text is organized. Semantic gravity is weakened in Exchange 5 as the teacher, once again, leaves the details of the text and starts to discuss it in more generalized terms with the question “Does it give you extra information?” without directly quoting the text. After posing this question and learners answering correctly, the teacher then refers to examples in the text, strengthening semantic gravity. This is the second semantic wave, again with a limited semantic range.

There is a greater weakening of semantic gravity in Exchange 6 when the teacher leaves the text completely and introduces theoretical concepts that apply to all texts. This also marks a strengthening in semantic density. Here the teacher discusses grammatical and graphological systems, highlighting these theoretical ideas and then giving examples. The first example concerning punctuation strengthens semantic gravity and brings the written text to the learners' attention. Following this, semantic gravity is again weakened as the teacher makes generalizations about the text (e.g. "Generally, the order is good") before further weakening semantic gravity to refer to an area of grammar, articles, and reminding learners of previous work in this area. Semantic gravity is strengthened as this is related to the text and then learners start to discuss and correct the written text. This is the third semantic wave and it has a greater semantic range. Figure 6.5 shows the lesson modalities and semantic profile. The individual tasks have a low semantic flatline as the learners describe and write about a specific place. The semantic waves occur during the teacher-led Review stage. Most of the semantic waves are limited but the third wave has a greater semantic range.

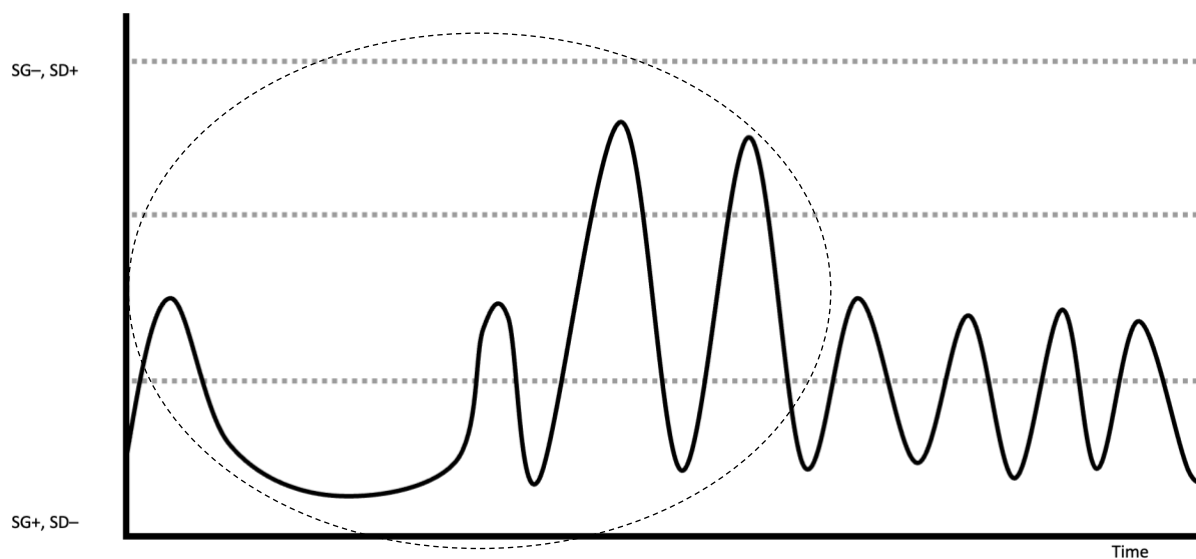


Figure 75 Heuristic overview of the Reflect stage of the lesson (Note: Detailed analysis indicated by dotted oval)

Results and discussion

The following analysis examines the Review stage of the first piece of learner writing by 'Carole'. The Reflect phase is when the text is placed under the document camera and

projected onto a screen in the classroom (see Figure 6.3). The detailed analysis starts at this point and ends during the Edit phase. It includes the initial semantic waves of limited range and also the semantic wave with a greater range (See Figures 75 and 76).

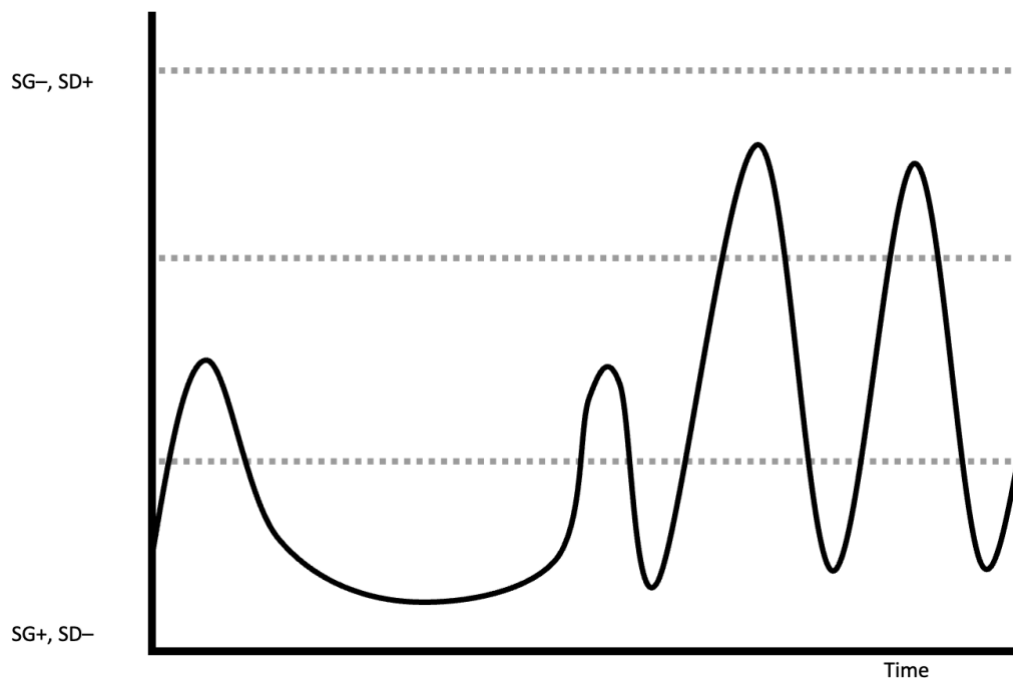


Figure 76 Semantic profile of the analysis

Exchange structure analysis

The analysis contains eight exchanges between the teacher and the class. The first five occur during the Reflect phase and the next three during the Edit phase. The IRF pattern is apparent throughout the data and the participants have been assigned the roles of primary and secondary knower and actor. The additional moves of delayed primary knower (dK1) and secondary knower follow-up (K2f) have also been added. All of the exchanges are knowledge exchanges apart from Exchange 6, which is an action exchange used to set up the collaborative work in the first part of the Edit phase.

Learning cycle moves have also been assigned because these show how this iterative cycle occurs throughout the sample, with the teacher setting a task with a Focus move and then providing further information after its successful completion with an Elaborate move. For example, in Exchange 2, the teacher focuses on the task with the question “Is that good,

supporting ‘It is located in Beijing’?”. The learners correctly answer “Yes” and the teacher affirms their answer with “Yes”. She then uses this opportunity to explain why this is useful supporting information in the Elaborate move (see Table 50).

Table 50 Exchange 2

Stage	Phase	Exchange (1; 2; 3)	Spk T; Ss	Semantic gravity; semantic density SG+; SD-	Exchange	Moves	Learning cycle moves
Review	Reflect	Exec. 2	T Ss T	SG+; SD-	Next part. Is that good supporting 'Is is located in Beijing' Yes Yes. because it would be useful to know the location of where this place is.	dK1 K2 K1 K1f	Focus Propose Affirm Elaborate

Results and discussion

This pattern reveals how information is exchanged in the classroom through the discourse semantics system of NEGOTIATION. The knowledge roles and learning cycle moves show how the classroom discourse facilitates this negotiation of information about the merits of Carole’s written text for the purpose of teaching and learning about writing.

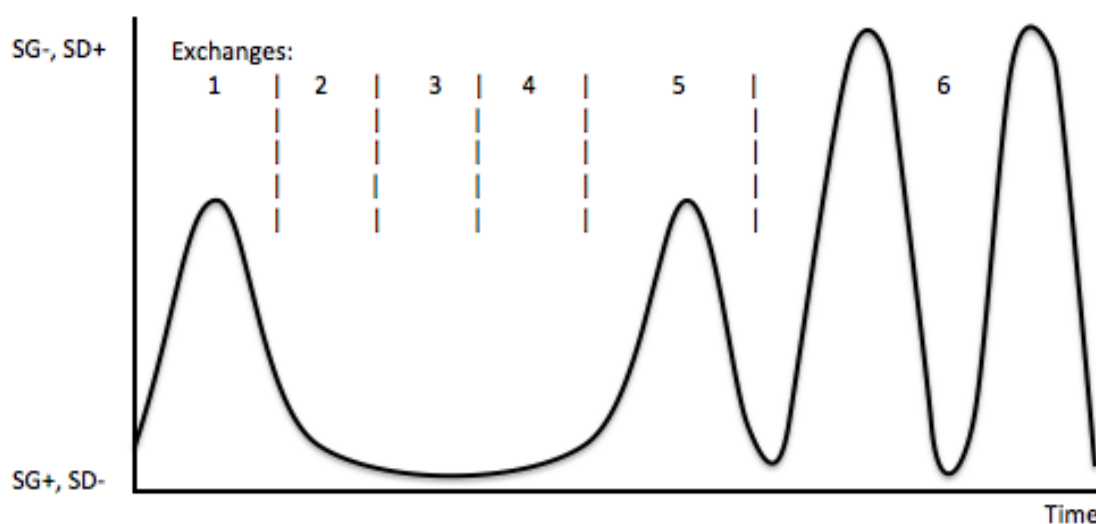


Figure 77 The semantic profile for the classroom discourse over six exchanges

By mapping the semantic profile onto the unfolding exchanges, a pattern emerges over time (see Figure 77). The first five exchanges correspond to the Reflect phase. The beginning and

end of this phase is marked by limited semantic waves and the middle exchanges maintain a semantic flatline. Then, as the teacher transitions into the Edit phase, she prepares learners by discussing previous work using abstract metalanguage. The semantic waves in Exchange 6 have a greater semantic range.

Exchange 6 sees the teacher use abstract terms (highlighted in red in Table 51), such as grammar and vocabulary. She then unpacks the meaning by referring to an example in Carole’s text (highlighted in green). Sabrina then talks about the text in general terms (highlighted in yellow) before referring to previous work on articles and then, once again, making reference to Carole’s text. See Table 53 for the complete analysis.

Table 51 Exchange 6

Stage	Phase	Exchange (1; 2; 3)	Spk T; Ss	Semantic gravity; semantic density	Exchange	Moves	Learning cycle moves
Review	Edit	Exc. 6	T	SG+, SD-	Ok but know what I'd like you to do together, related to yesterday too, think about the grammar for word order	A2	Prepare (for new phase: 'Edit')
			SG-, SD+	Is it the right vocabulary? Does she have the right punctuation? Can there be any improvements made in terms of the grammar vocabulary spelling? I think the spelling is ok but the punctuation?			
				SG+, SD-	For example, this, this little 'c' should be capital, yeah? So that's one example. So now if you could just do this together verbally.		
				SG-, SD+	Just see if you could identify anything that needs improvement. Generally, the order is good. What you've done, the structure in relation to what we saw about topic and supporting sentences, is good but think back to any improvement that you could make. Remember articles. we did articles yesterday as well. cos there's a couple of things with articles here.		
			Ss	SG+, SD-	Ok, so you've got about two minutes together to talk about this and then we'll correct it together. (Student discuss the text)	A1	

Exchange structure analysis is the most appropriate starting point as it enables an examination of meaning across stretches of discourse. While a finer-grained grammatical analysis may be useful on occasion to closely examine an exchange, a close analysis at clause level would make it more difficult to observe patterns of meaning over longer stretches of text. Conversely, considerations of curriculum genres require larger data sets to

accurately identify purposes, stages and phases. However, the ability to broaden our perspective and view classroom episodes in their wider context of situation and culture then allows for the identification of larger patterns of meaning. This is illustrated in the pilot data with identification of the Review stage and the Reflect and Edit phases.

It can be difficult to identify which parts of longer texts warrant closer examination. The value of the semantic profile analysis is that it pinpoints the parts of the text in which there are changes in semantic gravity and semantic density, suggesting areas for closer examination. Using the tools of SFL and associated genre theory in my analysis has shown the relationship between pedagogic purpose, language and knowledge building. For example, when setting up the collaborative editing task, the teacher made explicit reference to theoretical knowledge. In addition, when the teacher did not receive a response from learners, semantic gravity was weakened and the teacher made closer reference to examples in the text. This can be explained with reference to the notion of scaffolding.

Guiding and supporting learning

The three semantic waves discussed above can also be interpreted as the teacher guiding and supporting learners through both lesson planning and responding to learners as the lesson unfolds. The activity itself contains several features of designed-in support, from the speaking and writing task drawing on learners' prior knowledge and experience to the selection and sequencing of the tasks to move from spoken personal opinion to written text based on a peer's speaking task, to speaking about the written text in order to work on developing writing. The written texts also reflect learners' current understanding and ability; the Reflect and Edit phases give the teacher the opportunity to address these directly, working on the edge of learners' current knowledge, allowing the teacher to work within, and build upon, learners' current knowledge.

The first two semantic waves of limited range (in Exchanges 1 and 5) occur during the Reflect phase. When no learners respond in Exchange 1, the teacher provides more support by providing an explanation grounded in the text. The teacher continues to support learners with strong semantic gravity and weak semantic density for Exchanges 2, 3, and 4. However, by Exchange 5 there is a semantic wave of limited range. This suggests the teacher starts to reassess what the learners now know by removing support and making the

discourse and tasks more challenging by leaving the specific text and moving towards generalizations (see Table 52).

Table 52 Exchange 5

Stage	Phase	Exchange (1; 2; 3)	Spk T; Ss	Semantic gravity; semantic density	Exchange	Moves	Learning cycle moves
Review	Reflect	Exc. 5	T	SG+, SD-	<i>The design also reflects Chinese traditional culture following the rules of fengshui.</i>	K1	Prepare
					<i>what do you think generally?</i>	dK1	Focus
			T	SG-, SD+	<i>Does everything she says support this</i>		Focus
					<i>does it give you extra information?</i>		Focus
					<i>If you come away from this idea, do you know more about this location</i>		Focus
			Ss	SG+, SD-	<i>Yeah</i>	K2	Propose
			T		<i>Yeah, you do</i>	K1	Affirm
					<i>You're providing...</i>	K1f	Reframe
					<i>You're not</i>		
			T		<i>She's not talking about another part of China.</i>		Elaborate
		<i>She's not talking about another landmark.</i>					
		<i>Everything she said supports this</i>					
		<i>so it's very good well done.</i>					

The semantic wave in Exchange 6 has a wider range, as the teacher discusses theoretical ideas beyond the concrete examples or generalizations about the learner's written text (see Table 51). At this point in the lesson, the teacher is preparing learners for the Edit phase, reminding them to draw on theory and metalanguage studied in earlier lessons. The teacher supports learning by explaining the terms, referring back to the text for examples. This prepares learners to successfully complete the task.

Table 53 Study One classroom discourse analysis: exchanges 1 to 8

Stage	Phase	Exchange (1; 2; 3)	Spk T; Ss	Semantic gravity; semantic density	Exchange	Moves	Learning cycle moves
Review	Reflect	Exc. 1	T	SG+. SD-	Ok, well, this place.	K1	Prepare
			Ss	SG-, SD+	Do you think that's the topic sentence, the first sentence? Forget about grammar or vocabulary that's maybe not appropriate. Do you think that that's a topic sentence? If you just read that first sentence what do you think? (incomprehensible) Yes, it is.	dK1	Focus
			T	SG+. SD-	Because she's given the name, She's given that's it's ancient, we know that it's in China. and we know that it's some sort of building. Ok.	K2 K1 K1f	Propose Affirm Elaborate

	Reflect	Exec. 2	T	SG+, SD-	Next part.				
						Is that good supporting 'Is is located in Beijing'	dK1	Focus	
			Ss		Yes		K2	Propose	
				Exec. 3	T	SG+, SD-	Yes,	K1	Affirm
							because it would be useful to know the location of where this place is.	K1f	Elaborate
							This part 'The name literally means a courtyard' supporting the idea.	K1	Prepare
							What do your instincts say?	dK1	Focus
							What's your first reaction you think supporting it?		
					Ss		Yes	K2	Propose
					T		Yeah, it is.	K1	Affirm
							It's giving you more extra information that you need to prove why that it's so significant for Carole.	K1f	Elaborate
				Exec. 4	T	SG+, SD-	Ok now here 'the name means courtyard' and here,	K1	Prepare
							What do you think about this, supporting the idea that it's a courtyard?	dK1	Focus
							'the yard is surrounded by four buildings'	K1	Prepare
			Ss			[Incomprehensible]	K2	Propose	
			T			Yes, it's supporting this information you're giving further details.	K1 K1f	Affirm Elaborate	

		Exc. 5	T	SG+, SD-	<p>'The design also reflects Chinese traditional culture following the rules of fengshui'</p> <p>what do you think generally?</p>	K1	Prepare
				SG-, SD+	<p>Does everything she says support this</p> <p>does it give you extra information?</p> <p>If you come away from this idea, do you know more about this location</p>	dK1	Focus
			S	SG+, SD-	<p>Yeah</p>	K2	Propose
			T		<p>Yeah, you do.</p> <p>You're providing..</p> <p>You're not</p> <p>She's not talking about another part of China.</p> <p>She's not talking about another landmark.</p> <p>Everything she said supports this</p> <p>so it's very good well done.</p>	K1 K1f	Affirm Reframe
							Elaborate

	Edit	Exc. 6	T	SG+, SD- SG-, SD+	<p>Ok but know what I'd like you to do together, related to yesterday too, think about the grammar for word order</p> <p>Is it the right vocabulary? Does she have the right punctuation? Can there be any improvements made in terms of the grammar vocabulary spelling? I think the spelling is ok but the punctuation?</p>	A2	Prepare (for new phase: 'Edit')
				SG+, SD-	<p>For example, this, this little 'c' should be capital, yeah?</p> <p>So that's one example.</p> <p>So now if you could just do this together verbally.</p>		
				SG-, SD+	<p>Just see if you could identify anything that needs improvement.</p> <p>Generally, the order is good.</p> <p>What you've done, the structure in relation to what we saw about topic and supporting sentences, is good</p> <p>but think back to any improvement that you could make.</p> <p>Remember articles,</p> <p>we did articles yesterday as well</p> <p>cos there's a couple of things with articles here.</p>		
				SG+, SD-	<p>Ok, so you've got about two minutes together</p> <p>to talk about this</p> <p>and then we'll correct it together.</p>	A1	
			Ss		(Student discuss the text)		

		Exc. 7	T	SG+, SD-	<p>Ok, so let's have a look together.</p> <p>So first error, or area that we need to improve on, we have capital S.</p>	K1	Direct
		Exc. 8	T	SG+, SD-	<p>Ok how about this one?</p> <p><i>is an ancient Chinese architecture of residence?</i></p> <p>So...</p>	K1	Prepare
			S		Is a residence architecture?	K2	Propose
			T		Well, it could be residential.	K1	Reject

Appendix 5: Conventions

Systemic description¹⁸

Capitalization used in systems and realization statements

Capitalization	Convention	Example
lower case, or lower case with single quotes	name of term in system (feature, option)	'indicative'/'imperative'
small capitals	name of system	MOOD, MOOD TYPE, SUBJECT PERSON
initial capitals	name of structural function (element)	Mood, Subject; Theme, Rheme

Operators in system specifications

Operator	Symbol	Example
entry condition leading to terms in system	:	Indicative : declarative/ interrogative
systemic contrast (disjunction)	/	declarative/interrogative; declarative/imperative: tagged/ untagged
systemic combination (conjunction)	&	Intensive & identifying: assigned/ non-assigned

Operators in realization statements

Operator	Symbol	Example
insert	+	Indicative ↘ + Finite
order	^	declarative ↘ Subject ^ Finite
expand	()	Indicative ↘ Mood (Finite, Subject)
preselect	:	Mental ↘ Senser: conscious

¹⁸ Reproduced from Halliday and Matthiessen, 2014, p. ix.

Other conventions

Bold font is used to indicate technical terms in the systems of pedagogic register and genre classification.

Graphic conventions in system networks¹⁹

$a \rightarrow \begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \end{bmatrix}$	there is a system x/y with entry condition a [if a , then either x or y]
$a \left\{ \begin{array}{l} \rightarrow \begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \end{bmatrix} \\ \rightarrow \begin{bmatrix} m \\ n \end{bmatrix} \end{array} \right.$	there are two simultaneous systems x/y and m/n , both having entry condition a [if a , then both either x or y and, independently, either m or n]
$a \rightarrow \begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \end{bmatrix} \rightarrow \begin{bmatrix} m \\ n \end{bmatrix}$	there are two systems x/y and m/n , ordered in dependence such that m/n has entry condition x and x/y has entry condition a [if a then either x or y , and if x , then either m or n]
$\left. \begin{array}{l} a \\ b \end{array} \right\} \rightarrow \begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \end{bmatrix}$	there is a system x/y with compound entry condition, conjunction of a and b [if both a and b , then either x or y]
$\left. \begin{array}{l} a \\ c \end{array} \right\} \rightarrow \begin{bmatrix} m \\ n \end{bmatrix}$	there is a system m/n with two possible entry conditions, disjunction of a and c [if either a or c , or both, then either m or n]

¹⁹ Reproduced from Halliday and Matthiessen, 2014, p. x.

Glossary of terms, abbreviations and conventions

Arena of struggle is created by the epistemic-pedagogic device (EPD) and comprising of production fields, recontextualization fields and reproduction fields; where actors cooperate and struggle for control of the organizing principles of practices, dispositions and contexts (Maton, 2016, p. 236), creating the potential for cooperation, tension and resistance.

Curriculum genre: a specialized genres with particular selections in register (Rose, 2020; Christie, 2002). Curriculum genres involve two registers: first, a pedagogic register and second, a curriculum register of knowledge and values. Curriculum genres are “the multimodal genres of classroom practice, in which knowledge is exchanged between teacher and learners” (Rose, 2020, p. 239).

Curriculum register of knowledge and values. Knowledge and values are “exchanged through the pedagogic register and abducted by learners” (Rose, 2020, p.240). I understand the term abducted to mean inferred, formed and adopted by learners.

Discourse semantics patterns of meaning beyond clauses and across whole texts (Rose & Martin, 2012, p. 236), technically termed discourse semantics (Martin & Rose, 2007, p.74).

EAL The acronym EAL stands for English as an Additional Language. This ‘umbrella’ term describes a diverse and heterogeneous group of learners who speak English as an Additional Language (ACARA, 2014). This includes learners whose first language is a language or dialect other than a Standard English, learners who were previously termed as learning English as a second language (ESL) or as non-English speaking background (NESB).

EAP English for Academic Purposes is a term to describe a specialized branch of English-language teaching (Ding & Bruce, 2017, p. 1) that aims to prepare or support students to study, conduct research or teach in English speaking higher education (Flowerdew & Peacock, 2001, p. 8). Following Bruce and Ding (2017), I also see EAP as a field of professional practice and a field of scholarship associated with this specialized branch of English-language teaching.

ELT: English language teaching.

EPD is the epistemic-pedagogic device: an aspect of the Legitimation Device that creates an arena of struggle. The effects of struggles over the EPD are revealed by analysing the legitimation codes of practices (Maton, 2016, p. 238).

Exchange how speakers adopt and assign roles to each other and how moves are organized and sequenced as exchanges.

Genre is defined as a goal-oriented process that develops through language in stages (Martin, 2009, p. 13).

Human geographic region refers to a broad sub-discipline of geography that interacts with social science disciplines (Johnston, 2020) in order to study communities and cultures in the world with a focus on space and place. I use the term 'region' to describe a cohesive area in terms of a selected defining criterion (Britannica, 2019), namely that of the inhabitants of a physical place identifying themselves as of that place. This notion of 'region' is an intellectual construct created by selecting this criterion and disregarding other features. As such, it avoids the ambiguity of the term 'country', which may variously mean sovereign states, political divisions or native lands. The term 'country' has previously been used in other studies (Lee, 2016, p. 116) published in second language writing, second/foreign language learning and applied linguistics journals. I use the term 'human geographic region' to avoid this ambiguity and simply voice participants' self-identification as from a particular region.

Knowledge genre: a genre specified in a syllabus and selected by materials designers or teachers. Examples of knowledge genres are a procedure from a chemistry syllabus or a chronology from a history lesson.

Legitimation codes: conceptualize the organizing principles of practices, dispositions and contexts. The LCT dimension of Semantics is centred around Semantic codes of legitimation. (Maton, 2016, p. 240).

Legitimation Device: a hypothesized generative mechanism underlying social fields of practice over which actors cooperate and struggle for control (Maton, 2016, p. 240).

LCT: Legitimation Code Theory.

Interpersonal: The interpersonal metafunction of SFL (Halliday and Matthiessen, 2014, p.30) views language as action and the clause as an exchange. Language is seen as enacting our personal and social relationships.

Metafunction: Metafunction refers to the three broad purposes that language serves. These are the ideational, interpersonal and textual.

Mood Made up of Subject and Finite, Mood is the part of the clause that expresses MOOD choices

MOOD The main grammatical system for interpersonal metafunction is that of MOOD, offering the choices of declarative, interrogative or imperative.

Move A ranking clause, including any embedded clauses and any clauses dependent on it

NEGOTIATION: The discourse system that provides speakers with the resources to interact with each other. NEGOTIATION accounts for how dialogue develops through the organization of these roles into moves, which are then sequenced as exchanges (Martin & Rose, 2007, p. 219)

Pedagogic register of pedagogic activities, pedagogic modalities and pedagogic relations (Rose, 2020, p. 240).

Semantics: A dimension of LCT concerned with meaning of practices.

semantic gravity: The degree of context dependence of practices.

semantic density: The degree of meaning of practices.

SFL: systemic functional linguistics.

WCF: Written corrective feedback.

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