Chapter 6   Voicing values: strategies of stance and alignment

Introduction

In this chapter I build on and extend the analyses and discussion presented in chapter 5. In chapter 5, the focus is on characteristic preferences and patterns in the expression of Attitude in the discourse, in other words on how evaluative stance is construed through the expression of values. In chapter 6, the focus shifts to consider the voicing of values, that is, to the question of who gets to do what kind of evaluating in the texts. The chapter is presented in two sections. In the first section I investigate the notion of *voice* from two perspectives. The first constitutes a more abstract sense of voice and relates to the way in which certain kinds of evaluative expressions characterise particular phases of discourse. I refer to this sense of voice as *voice role*. This discussion of different ways of evaluating builds on the findings from chapter 5, in particular findings to do with the way Attitude varies with field. The identification of voice roles enables a more subtle analysis of the evaluative strategies that writers employ. It also points to the ways in which different kinds of evaluative discourse function to construct different ways of knowing (Halliday 1993, Bernstein 1996, 2000, Maton 2000). The other perspective on voice explored in section one of this chapter relates to the sourcing of propositions and evaluations, that is, to whether an evaluation is attributable to the writer of the text or to another author introduced into the text. To avoid confusion I refer to this sense of voice as source. These two notions of voice come together to address the question of who gets to do what kind of talking. Of particular interest in this discussion is the question of what roles are taken up by the writer of the text, as it is ultimately the writer whose voice functions to orchestrate the meta-argument. It is through the writer's voice that we as readers are encouraged to align with other voices and values in the text in coming to a shared appreciation of the relevance or significance of the writer's own research project.

The issue of aligning the reader with the writer's point of view is specifically addressed in the second section of the chapter. Here I draw on the notion of Engagement within Appraisal theory (White 2003a, White 2003c, Martin and White forthcoming), reconfiguring this network as one of options for positioning as degrees of alignment with or opposition to voices and values in the text. The network provides a way of systematically mapping in texts the dynamic process of positioning by which writers aim ultimately to align readers with an argument for their own research.

As in chapter 5, so in this chapter, analyses of the published texts become a point of reference for analysing the student texts. A comparison with the student texts provides insights into the kinds of choices the student writers are making, the ways in which the published texts might function as pedagogic models for deconstruction with student writers. A discussion of pedagogic implications is taken up in detail in chapter 7.

SECTION 1: Modelling evaluative stance as voice roles.

6.1   Explaining the terminology

The term *voice* is interpreted in a number of ways in the literature, as indicated in chapter 2, and its use in this chapter requires some clarification. An understanding of written text as dialogic and multi-voiced derives from Bakhtin (1981, 1986). Bakhtin used the term 'heteroglossia' to describe the presence of other voices in a text.

> Heteroglossia, (…) is another's speech in another's language, serving to express authorial intentions but in a refracted way (Bakhtin 1981:324).

Working within a theoretical framework of Systemic Functional Linguistics, the heteroglossic nature of texts is explored through an analysis of projection (Halliday 1985, 1994, Halliday and Matthiessen 1999, Thompson 1996, Martin and Rose 2003). The concept of projection is explained in detail in chapter 4 with examples of its realisation in the data. An analysis of projection confirms the very heteroglossic nature of the academic texts in this study. Both published and student writers introduce multiple voices into their texts, with varying degrees of explicitness, for example,

> Winter (1960) reports…
> X has been shown to be…
> This view

and varying degrees of directness in terms of reporting speech, for example,

> "This is not clear to me"
> Sander (…) has indicated that X … .

An analysis of projection identifies both what is projected and who is doing the projecting. In referring to the projecting source of a proposition, I avoid the term 'voice' in favour of 'source', but where possible in explanations and in all cases in analyses, I differentiate between the source as either the *writer*, meaning the one who has composed the text, and an *author* meaning (an)other voice(s) cited or referenced or implied by the writer (following Groom 2000, Thompson and Ye 1991, and Hyland 1999). There is one instance only in

these data where the source is neither the writer nor another author, but a participant in the domain, as underlined in the following:

'What is more direct than <u>a peer</u> saying, "This is not clear to me"?'.

The ways in which other sources, are introduced and referenced in academic discourse has been a topic of considerable research (e.g. Swales 1990, Tadros 1993, Thompson 1996, Hawes and Thomas 1997, Groom 2000, Hyland 2000), and receives attention in most academic literacy support guides (e.g. Atkinson and Curtis 2000, Swales and Feak 2000, Bate and Sharpe 1990, Jordon 1997). However, my initial concern with voicing in this chapter is not with the projecting source, but rather with the notion of voicing as a 'way of talking', that represents a particular configuration of evaluative resources or resources of Appraisal. I refer to such a configuration as a voice role. This concept of voice derives from Bakhtin's notion of *heteroglossia* as languages of different social groups, and relates to Bernstein's (1999) construct of identity as *voice-message relations*, and to Martin and Rose's (2003) notion of *stance*. It is this concept of voice that is also represented in the work of Iedema, Feez and White (1994) in their study of options available to journalists in encoding the authorial self into different kinds of media texts. Iedema et al. identify options in Authorial Voice as different configurations in resources of Appraisal, realised in different kinds of media genres. They distinguish the 'Reporter Voice' of hard news stories, from the 'Correspondent Voice' of news commentary, and the 'Commentator Voice' of the editorial (c.f. other studies of voice options in different registers, in the writing of history, Coffin 2000, and in narrative and literary response texts, Macken-Horarik 2003). While the Authorial Voice options in journalism tend to correspond to different types of text (e.g. news story vs editorial), in the data in this study, voice roles are a feature of different phases of discourse in any single text (Gregory and Malcolm, 1995, Martin 2001[1], Martin and Rose, 2003), where phases are seen as

> stretches of text where there is a significant measure of consistency in what is being selected ideationally, interpersonally and textually. (Gregory and Malcolm, 1995:161)

A shift from one phase to another is recognisable, as Martin and Rose (2003: 201) suggest, as 'a change of gears' in the discourse. In an analysis of shifting voice roles, I focus in the first instance on where there is a 'change in gears' in the texts in an interpersonal sense. These shifts in configurations of interpersonal resources in some cases align with shifts in field.

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[1] (Martin (2001) gives phase a particular interpersonal orientation when he contrasts the ways a text unfolds as phasing, with a more particulate 'partitioning' with headings and numbering, or a more textual staging signaled in a periodicity structure of Hyper Themes and Hyper News.

6.2 Voice roles: Ways of talking in the published texts

I have already established in chapter 5, that Attitude is encoded differently in relation to one or other field (FD or FR). Where the field being projected is that of the domain (FD), the evaluation is more likely to be encoded in inscribed Attitude. The research field (FR) on the other hand, is likely to be construed as a graduated activity where the grading of experiential categories (especially entities and processes) functions to evoke Attitude. This differentiation in ways of configuring Attitude can be taken further with a closer analysis of variations in ways of expressing inscribed Attitude. In the following section I identify a number of distinct configurations in ways writers encode inscribed Attitude in different phases of text.

6.2.1 Differentiating voice roles

Because inscribed Attitude is very strongly associated with evaluating the domain (FD), in analysing variations in inscribed Attitude I focus just on the discourse that is construing this field. When closer attention is paid to just those phases of the text that construe the domain (FD), an analysis of Attitude reveals that some phases are characterised by inscribed Attitude which is either ungraded (eg *difficult*) or, if graded, is amplified non-comparatively, that is amplified in a way that does not express a value in comparison to the value of some other phenomenon or state of being (eg *very explicit*). In contrast, other phases are characterised by inscribed Attitude which expresses a comparative value in relation to the value of some other phenomenon or possible state of being (eg*, more difficult*). It is understood that to some extent all qualitative adjectives establish a relative position, in that they represent an assessment of the quality in relation to some standard held by the speaker (Stillar 1998), and that gradability is in fact one of the identifying features of attitudinal lexis. In that respect *difficult* represents an assessment relative to *very difficult*. But here I make the distinction between Attitude that makes an explicit comparison to some other entity or state of being, in other words that encodes a comparative or superlative meaning.

In the phases of text where Attitude is predominantly non-comparative in nature, the values are represented as claims to do with the intrinsic worth of a phenomenon, that is, they are not made in explicit comparison to anything else. They are not relative in that sense. This is illustrated in the following extract where the inscribed Attitude is in bold, Graduation is in italics, and instances of inscribed Attitude that are non-comparative are underlined.

(a) (i)
   P3
   FD: At higher levels the written language becomes _so_ _varied_ and **complex** that it is
      difficult for even a **conscientious** student to see how _a single_ example might relate
      to others. There is also a decision to be made by the teacher between giving _very_
      explicit directions as to how the error should be corrected or, on the other hand,
      merely making _some_ notation indicating that an error exists. The _first extreme_ makes
      the student's task a _very_ **mechanical** one while the _second_ asks him to correct an
      error that one assumes he would not have made had he known how to proof-read
      and correct. The **_ideal_** is a method of marking papers that gives the student a task
      somewhere between these two. But in practice this is not only **time consuming** but
      requires the teacher to make _almost impossible_ estimates of _precisely_ what the
      student's learning strategies and state of mind are. _Finally_ it has _seemed_ to me that
      conventional correction is **antithetical** to the teaching style **_best_** **suited** to ESL,
      which **stresses** back and forth communication among students and the teacher.
      Notes in the margin, or even cassette recordings, are after all a _very_ _oneway_ and
      inflexible form of communication.

It is important to note that what is being considered here is the dominant characteristic of a

phase of text, which is not necessarily the exclusive characteristic. In other words there are

instances of comparative evaluation in the passage (_the ideal_, _best_) but such instances are

not dominant.

In the following extract from P4 there is a more dynamic shifting back and forth from field as

domain (FD) to field as research (FR). I indicate the shifts from one field to another, but in

order to foreground explicit Attitude,I include only the text that constructs the domain (FD).

The same coding applies as in the extract above.

(a) (ii)

   P4
      FD: The **benefits** of using peer groups
      FR:
      FD: that "peer relationships are the **_key_** to reaching students' hearts" (p.21).
      Peer feedback
      FR:
      FD: to be a **useful** alternative or supplement to end-product teacher-centred
         feedback.
      FR:
      FD: not _all_ of the reasons for the _increased_ **interest** in peer tutoring in recent years
         have been based on _purely_ pedagogical concerns. Economic and political
         interests have played a part, as peer group teaching
      FR:
      FD: a **cheap** means of delivering education in an era of successive recessions and
         governments committed to **tight** public-spending policies" …

As in the previous example (a) (i), so in (a) (ii) there are some comparative evaluations

(_increased interest, the key_), but the dominant form is non-comparative. Predominantly, the

evaluations of aspects of the domain are presented as observations that are not as based on

any systematic investigation of phenomena as data. The dominant voice is that of an

interested '*observer*'[2] rather than a researcher. The evaluative observations in (a) (i) and (ii) above are made in terms of explicit Attitude as Appreciation, and in a number of cases this Appreciation is intensified.

The second pattern identified in the appraisal of the domain (FD) is where phases of text are predominantly characterised by inscribed Attitude which is graded in such a way as to express a comparison with some other phenomenon or state of being (eg *more positive; better*; *the best*). The value is expressed as relative to something else, in other words as the consequence of some process of investigation, analysis, or 'research'. In the examples below, once again only the text that is construing the domain (FD) is included. Here the coding differs from the extracts in (a) in that the underlining now indicates instances of comparative Attitude.

(b) (i)
    P2

      FD: Peer review provides the ***best*** means for writers to turn "writer-based prose" to "reader-based prose"
      FR:
      FD: Peer reviews also provide opportunities for collaborative learning. Students in pairs or small groups can pool ideas, and it is through interacting with others that students learn and develop
      FR:
      FD: Students learn to become *more* **autonomous** writers as they are prepared to write without the help of a teacher
      FR:
        FD: Through collaborative learning, students can *gain* a ***better*** understanding of their peers' **difficulties** in writing, and as a result they may *gain more* **confidence** in themselves
      FR:
      FD: Peer reviews can *boost* **confidence**, make writing a *more* **positive** learning activity, and help students *develop greater* **independence** in writing.

(b) (ii)
    P1

      FD: that those aged twenty-four and over tended to do ***better*** than the eighteen and nineteen-year-old age group.
      FR:
      FD: that the university success rate *fell* until the age of twenty or twenty-one, then from about twenty-two onwards the success rate began to *rise* again.
      FR:
      FD: the academic ***superiority*** of veterans
      FR:
      FD: that ex-service students who entered Liverpool University between 1947 and 1949 were *more* likely to have to spend an extra year or more on their courses and *more* likely to *fail to complete* their course.
      FR:
      FD: that whether mature students fare ***better*** or ***worse*** than younger students depends upon subject being studied.

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[2] I use the term 'observer' here differently from its use in Iedema, et al.(1994) where 'observer' refers to the 'objectified' voice of the reporter that avoids overt evaluation.

The examples in (a) and (b) represent contrasting ways of taking a stance in evaluating aspects of the domain (FD) in the context of research introductions. In the examples in (a) evaluations are expressed in non-comparative terms, while in the examples in (b) they are expressed in comparative or relative terms. The different configurations of ways of evaluating evident in the examples in (a) and (b) constitute what I refer to as different 'voice roles'. The voice role taken up in the examples in (a) evaluates aspects of the domain in terms of some perceived intrinsic values, that is, the evaluation is made in relation to the evaluator's own value system. The observation does not establish a value in comparison to anything else. I refer to this voice role as '*Observer Voice'*. Where the domain is evaluated in comparative terms, as in the second set of examples in (b), the evaluation is arrived at through a process of comparison or measurement. The value is encoded as relative to something else. It represents a voice role in which evaluations construe relative values between phenomena, or potential alternative states of being. It is therefore a voice of 'research' rather than 'observation', encoding meaning of comparative study in some sense. I refer to the configuration illustrated in b) as '*Investigator Voice'*. In the texts in this study, both Observer Voice and Investigator Voice are strongly associated with evaluation of the domain (FD).

While the examples in (b) (i) and (ii) are comparative expressions of inscribed Attitude, comparative evaluations of the domain (FD) are also at times expressed indirectly, evoked through the grading of experiential meanings. In the underlined italicised examples in (b) (iii), resources of Graduation constitute a comparative meaning in terms of amount or fulfilment.

(b) (iii)
  FD: that the university success rate *fell* until the age of twenty or twenty-one, then from about twenty-two onwards the success rate began to *rise* again.
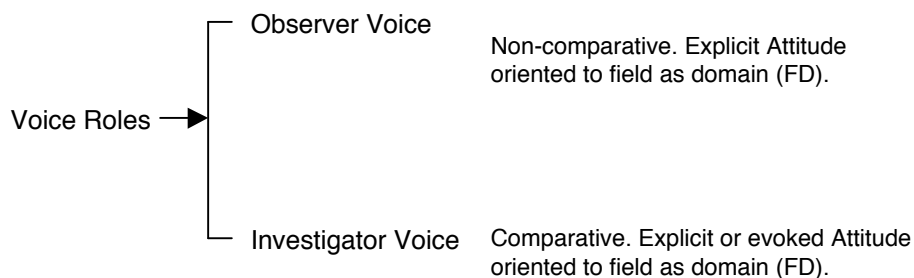 FR:
  FD: the academic **superiority** of veterans
  FR:
  FD: that ex-service students who entered Liverpool University between 1947 and 1949 were *more* likely to have to spend an extra year or more on their courses and *more* likely to *fail to complete* their course.

Such expressions are also considered to represent Investigator Voice. So Investigator Voice is represented in expressions of Attitude that convey comparative or relative meanings. These expressions are predominantly inscribed, but they may also be evoked through the use of Graduation. The contrast between Observer Voice and Investigator Voice is represented in figure 6.1 (a).

Fig. 6.1 (a): Options in a system of voice roles

Voice Roles →

Observer Voice — Non-comparative. Explicit Attitude oriented to field as domain (FD).

Investigator Voice — Comparative. Explicit or evoked Attitude oriented to field as domain (FD).

To this point I have distinguished between two configurations in resources of Appraisal, representing different voice roles. The first, Observer Voice evaluates explicitly in non-comparative terms and is strongly associated with the domain (FD). This contrasts with an alternative voice that evaluates comparatively in either explicit or implicit ways. As such it represents a research voice, and because of its association with the domain (FD) is referred to as Investigator Voice. However, the field of research (FR) is also evaluated comparatively or relatively, as indicated in the extracts in (c) below. As in the examples in (a) and (b) above, in the extract below only the text for the relevant field, that is FR, is included. Examples of explicit Attitude are in bold, and evoked Attitude in italics. All instances of explicit or implied relative evaluation (Graduation) are underlined.

(c) (i)
    P1

    FR: Other studies have *shown*
    FD:
    FR: (*Thomas, Beeby and Oram 1939; Derbyshire Education Committee 1966*).
    Where studies have involved samples containing *large numbers* of older students
        the results have *indicated*
    FD:
    FR: *Philips and Cullen (1955), for instance*, found

 (c) (ii)
P4

    FR: Research finding*s*
    FD:
    FR: have been reported *for at least 30 years, from* the work of *Stiff (1967), Marzano and Arthur (1977) to* findings reported by *Hendrickson (1981), Sommers (1982), Hillocks (1982) and Graham (1983)* in the early 1980s. *Further* studies carried out in the late 1980s and *more recently* (*e.g. Cohen 1987; Robb et al. 1988; Anson 1989; Hyland 1990; Lockhart and Ng, 1993) all* report similar findings. Goodlad and Hirst (1989) found *over 1,000* articles on peer tutoring published between 1975 and 1989.

(c) (iii)
    P3

    FR: A study by *Maize in 1952, for example, attempts* (for native speakers) to compare the effect of outside correction by the teacher with that of in class correction by both peers and teachers.

> FD:
> FR: but here as in _other_ studies _along these lines_ (see _additional related_
> bibliography), the issues are **clouded** _to some extent_, _first_ by the presence of
> certain other variables and _second_ by the _general_ **difficulty** of _precisely_
> measuring. _…_

The dominant voice in evaluating research is implicit in its evaluations, preferring to encode Attitude by indirect means through the grading of experiential meanings (eg _many studies_; _for at least 30 years_; _indicated_). This comparative evaluation of FR also represents a research voice, although this case the research voice is associated with evaluating other research rather than aspects of the domain. For this reason it is referred to as Critic Voice. Where Investigator Voice is the voice of primary research in the domain, Critic Voice is the voice of secondary research, evaluating the field of research activity. In the few instances in the examples in (c) where Attitude is inscribed, the value is encoded as measured, as in 'the issues are **clouded** to some extent' or as a direct comparison to another phenomenon or state of being as in 'the **best** British attempt...' (P1). Where Attitude is evoked, the voice of the critic evaluates some aspect of research by positioning it on a cline of relative experiential meaning. This relative experiential meaning may be in terms of amount, scope, distance, enhancement, specificity or fulfilment (see chapter 4). (There were no instances of grading as Focus:authenticity in relation to FR in this study). Positioning an aspect of research in this way, in relation to other possible positions, implies a measured or relative value, as in '_have been reported for at least 30 years_' or '_studies carried out … more recently_'. The implied evaluations present a critical commentary on other sources and the propositions they project. Critic Voice is positioned in relation to the other voice roles as illustrated in figure 6.1 (b).

Fig. 6.1 (b): Options in a system of voice roles
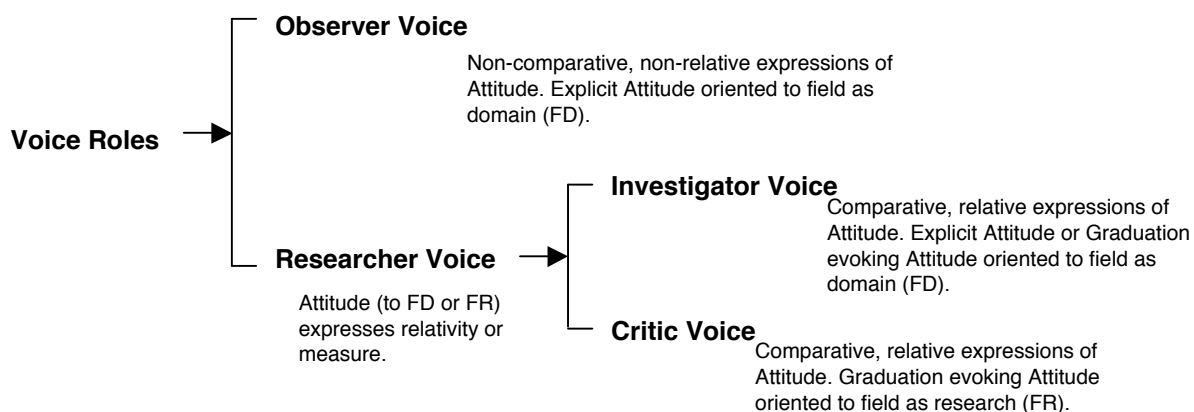
Investigator Voice and Critic Voice both represent research voices, in that evaluations are made in relation to other phenomena, not just in terms of an observer's personal value system. They are differentiated one from the other in terms of i) a dominant preference for

explicit or implicit evaluation, and ii) the field they evaluate. Investigator Voice evaluates aspects of the domain (FD) and Critic Voice evaluates aspects of research activity (FR). In the sense that the distinction here is in terms of configurations of interpersonal (Attitude) and experiential (Field) meaning, this distinction could be referred to as a shift in Mode (Halliday 1994). However, the primary distinction made in this network is that of interpersonal meanings, and the term voice role is used to foreground these interpersonal shifts.

In summary, the discourse of published academic research paper introductions investigated in this study reveals characteristic configurations of kinds of expression of Attitude. Configurations of Attitude in this discourse also associate in some cases with shifts in Field. These configurations are referred to as voice roles. Phases of the published texts are characterised by one or more of these voice roles as represented in figure 6.1 (b) and as summarised below:

1) **Observer Voice**: Evaluation predominantly in terms of inscribed Attitude, mainly Appreciation. Attitude may be amplified, but where this occurs the amplification intensifies but does not imply a comparison between two phenomena or states of being. Observer Voice is associated with evaluation of the domain (FD).

2) **Investigator Voice**: Evaluation predominantly in terms of graded Attitude that expresses a comparison of value between phenomena or states of being. The graded Attitude is predominantly inscribed, but Attitude may also be evoked through grading non-attitudinal resources. Investigator Voice is associated with evaluation of the domain (FD).

3) **Critic Voice**: Evaluation predominantly in terms of evoked Attitude, drawing on resources of Graduation. A reliance on resources of Graduation means evaluations are construed as a position on a cline, in other words as relative to another potential position in terms of quantity, specificity or fulfilment. Critic Voice is associated with the evaluation of research (FR).

6.2.2   The dynamic interaction of voice roles in phases of text

In the discussion above I associate voice roles with phases of text, where phase is used to mean the unfolding of a text 'by adjusting consistent mappings of choice across metafunctions, with more or less abrupt transitions' (Martin 2001, after Gregory and Malcolm 1981). In the texts in this study, however, phases of text are frequently characterised by a dynamic interaction of more than one voice role. In text P1, for example, the opening phase of the text begins in Critic Voice, and is structured predominantly as an interaction of Critic Voice and Investigator Voice, as indicated in the following extract.

P1

Critic voice

Of the *many* who have looked at the relationship between age and performance in universities *none* has as yet *produced* a **definite** *answer* to the apparently **simple** question

Investigator voice

'Do mature students do ***better*** or ***worse*** than younger students?'

Critic voice

Harris (1940) in the United States found evidence to *suggest*

Investigator voice

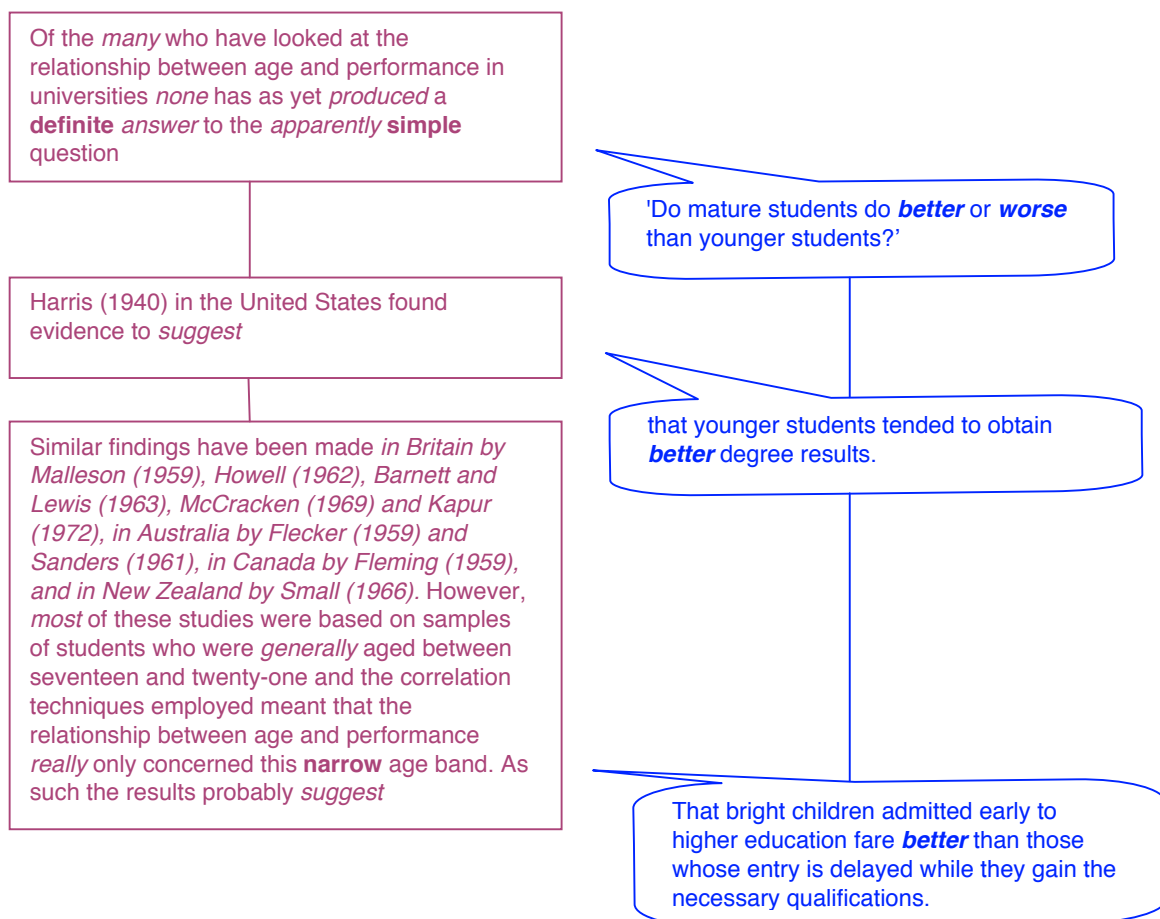that younger students tended to obtain ***better*** degree results.

Critic voice

Similar findings have been made *in Britain by Malleson (1959), Howell (1962), Barnett and Lewis (1963), McCracken (1969) and Kapur (1972), in Australia by Flecker (1959) and Sanders (1961), in Canada by Fleming (1959), and in New Zealand by Small (1966).* However, *most* of these studies were based on samples of students who were *generally* aged between seventeen and twenty-one and the correlation techniques employed meant that the relationship between age and performance *really* only concerned this **narrow** age band. As such the results probably *suggest*

Investigator voice

That bright children admitted early to higher education fare ***better*** than those whose entry is delayed while they gain the necessary qualifications.

This dynamic interplay of voices is better captured in the representation in figure 6.2, where the two fields are colour-coded (pink for Critic and blue of Investigator), and the projection of one voice role by another is represented in the projected speech icon. The text P1 (figure 6.2), opening as it does in Critic Voice, presents itself immediately as a critique of research on a relevant topic. The argument is initially contextualised within a field of research, and the initial orientation to the domain (FD) is in Investigator Voice, construing the domain as a research site.

Fig. 6.2: The voice role structuring of the opening phase of P1

Of the *many* who have looked at the relationship between age and performance in universities *none* has as yet *produced* a **definite** *answer* to the *apparently* **simple** question

'Do mature students do ***better*** or ***worse*** than younger students?'

Harris (1940) in the United States found evidence to *suggest*

that younger students tended to obtain ***better*** degree results.

Similar findings have been made *in Britain by Malleson (1959), Howell (1962), Barnett and Lewis (1963), McCracken (1969) and Kapur (1972), in Australia by Flecker (1959) and Sanders (1961), in Canada by Fleming (1959), and in New Zealand by Small (1966).* However, *most* of these studies were based on samples of students who were *generally* aged between seventeen and twenty-one and the correlation techniques employed meant that the relationship between age and performance *really* only concerned this **narrow** age band. As such the results probably *suggest*

That bright children admitted early to higher education fare ***better*** than those whose entry is delayed while they gain the necessary qualifications.

A contrast is evident in the opening phase of P4 in figure 6.3. The writer opens in Critic Voice (pink), and in this respect the voice structuring resembles that of P1, and immediately situates the argument in the field of research (FR). However, unlike P1, in P4 Critic Voice interacts with Observer Voice (green), rather than Investigator Voice (blue). The evaluations are construed as non-comparative 'observations', rather than as comparative 'research findings'.

Fig. 6.3: The voice role structuring of the opening phase of P4
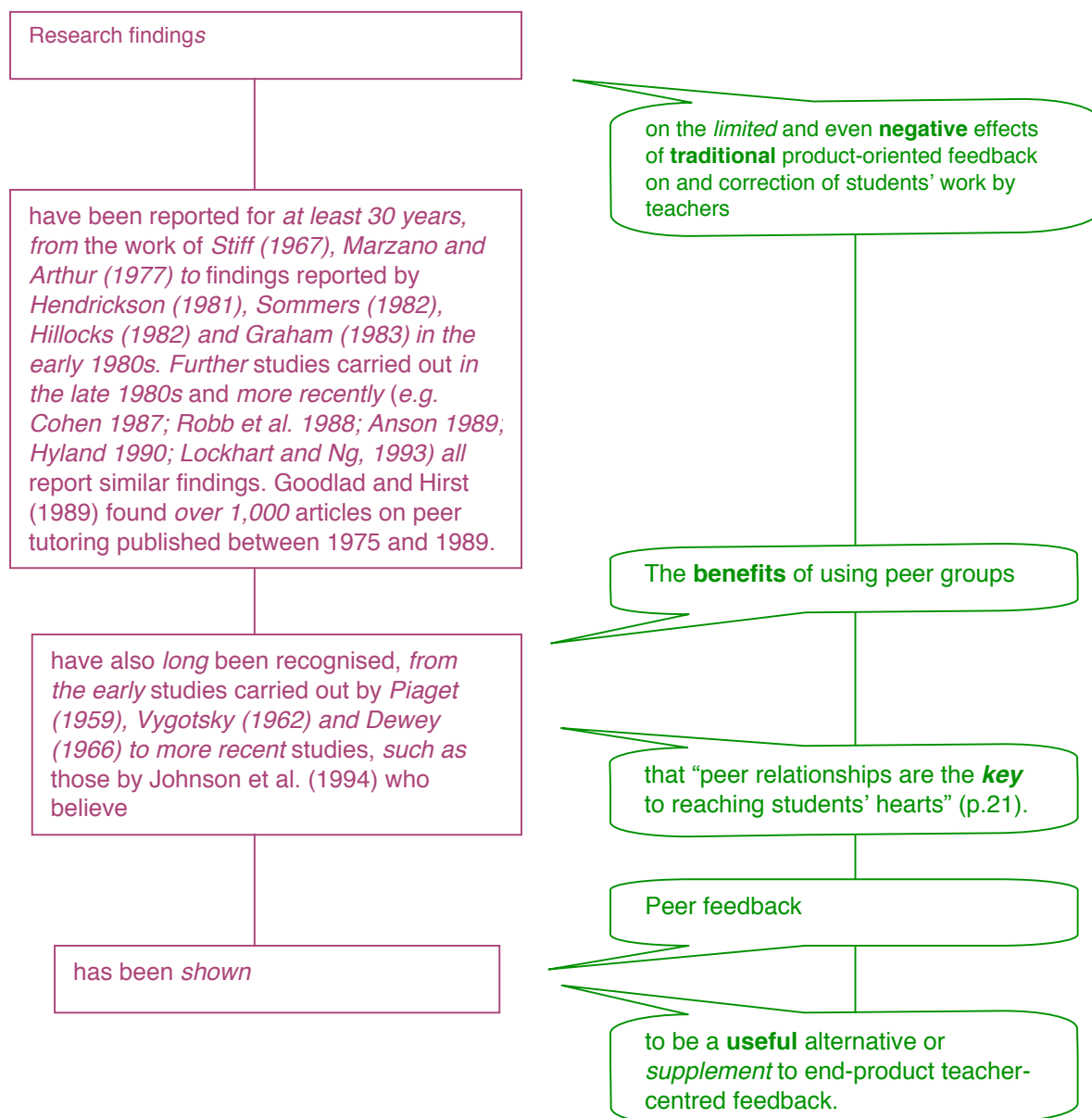
The projected voice role in the opening phase of P4 (green) is ambiguously coded. Projecting processes such as '*shown'* and the nominalised process '*findings'* suggest that the evaluations have been arrived at through a process of research. However, the evaluative coding is not apparently relative, or at least is ambiguously so. The expression '*benefits',* for example, can be read as 'good', or as 'better' than some alternative. And '*useful alternative*' does not code 'useful' as relative to the valuing of the alternative (as in *more useful alternative*). The overall impact is to construe the domain as apparently a research site, but to present claims about the domain as uncontested, or as not negotiable, because they are encoded in non-relative terms. The dynamic, dialogic interaction of voice roles indicated for texts P1 and P4 (figures 6.2 and 6.3) is characteristic of the register of academic research

papers as represented in the texts in this study, and an analysis of the structuring of voice roles provides an effective means for comparing the evaluative strategies employed by different writers.

However, there is one further consideration to add to the analysis, and that is the sourcing of the voice roles. Of particular interest is whether a particular voice role is taken up by the writer of the paper, or by another introduced source. On this basis it is possible to compare who gets to do how much of what kind of talking in the texts. A first step in that discussion is briefly to review analyses of projection explained in chapter 4, with attention to the source of projection.

6.2.3 Identifying sources of voice roles

An analysis of projection in the published texts as exemplified in chapter 4, allows the sources of propositions, and therefore voice roles, to be identified as either the projected by the writer (W>) or another author or authors (A>) as in,

> W> Harris (1940) in the United States found evidence to suggest
> A> that younger students tended to obtain better degree results (P1).

There are also instances where a proposition can be attributed to both the writer and another source. This shared responsibility is achieved through the use of non-integral citation (Swales 1990) that functions to attribute the claim to the writer while indicating support or authorisation from another source, as in,

> W+A> Writing becomes more purposeful and meaningful as it is read by an
> authentic audience (Mittan 1989) (P2).

Finally, there is one instance of self-citation, where the writer is also the author. The source is coded as W=A>, in,

> W=A> Such students tend to be older than average and also to fare worse
> academically (Woodley 1979) (P1).

Once the projecting source is identified it can then be mapped onto projected voice roles to identify who gets to say what and how in the published texts. Analyses of phases of the published texts indicate a range of writer strategies. I focus here in just two areas of variation across the texts. The first is the question of what roles(s) are taken up by the writer and what roles are assigned to sources other than the writer, and the second is the extent to which the role of Critic is taken up by individual writers.

6.2.3.1 Analysing sources and voice roles

Referring back to the discussion of shifting voice roles in P1 and P4 (figures 6.2 and 6.3),the dimension of source can now be overlaid onto this analysis. In P1 (see figure 6.2) the other sources that are introduced into the text by the writer are represented as reporting on research (indicated by a projected speech icon). They exclusively represent Investigator Voice as they value the relative worth of phenomena in comparative terms such as '*better' or 'more successful'.* Where the valuing of the domain is presented in relative terms such as *better*, the evaluation implies at the same time the 'other' that it is relative to. As such the evaluation construes the evaluated field as a contested site, that is, one in which alternative perspectives are entertained. In other words, comparative evaluation of this kind construes the domain as a research site. The writer takes up Critic Voice to evaluate (implicitly through the grading of experiential meanings) the relative contributions attributed to these other sources. The extract featured in figure 6.2 is typical of the structuring of the text P1 as a whole, and the overall rhetorical strategy revealed is that the writer constructs a meta-argument around contesting voices and contested knowledge of the domain. The writer's task as Critic is to navigate us as readers through this contested research site, towards a shared valuing of the writer's own study. At the final transition phase of the text, where the writer makes reference to his own research project, he shifts into Investigator Voice.

In P4, as in P1, the writer takes up Critic Voice throughout the majority of the text (as illustrated in figure 6.3). While the interacting voice is encoded as Observer Voice there is some ambiguity here. First, the projections themselves, as reflected in,
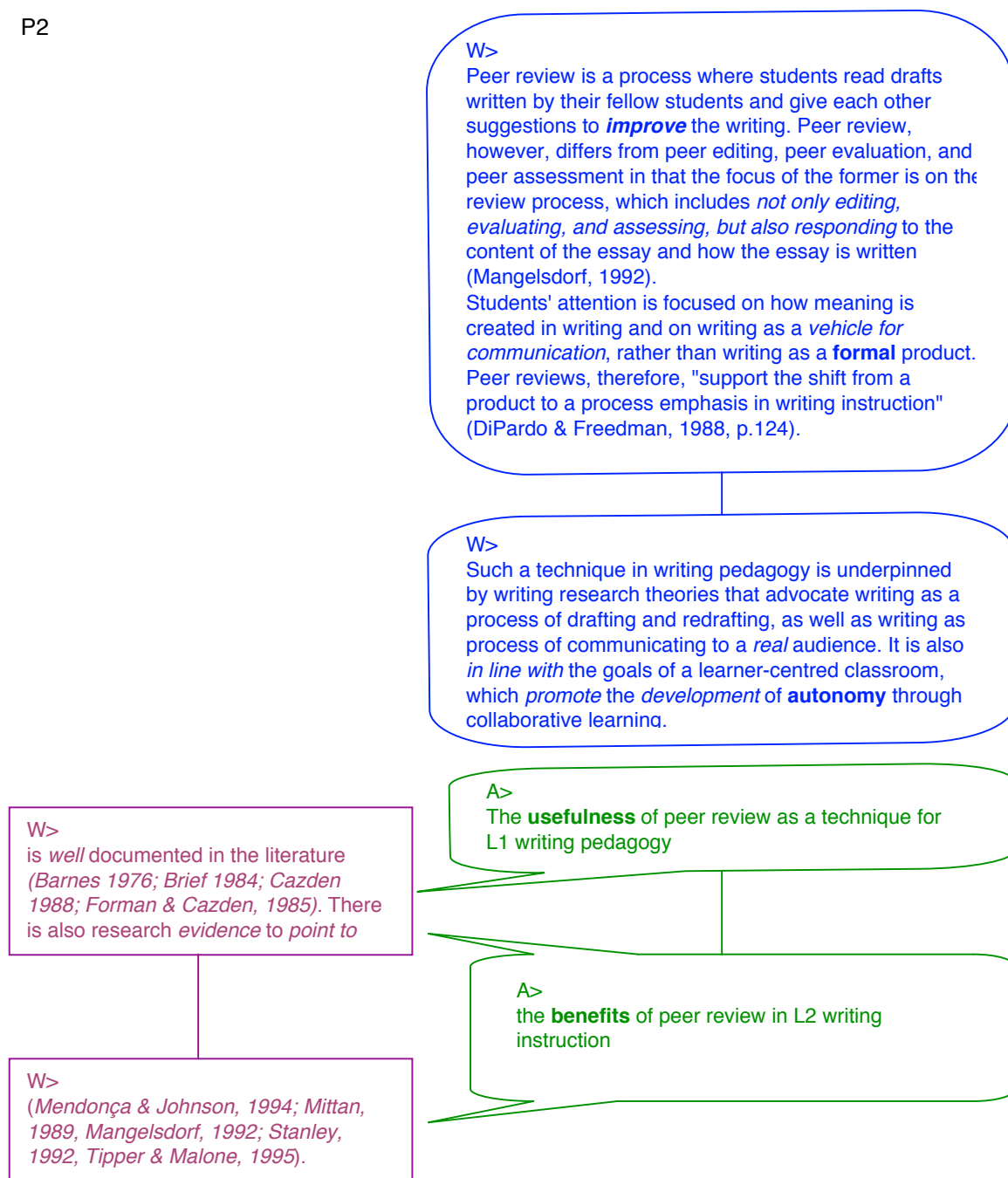
> research *findings* …
> who *believe* …
> has been *shown* …
> Winter (1996) *points out* …

present what is being projected as the outcomes of research, but the evaluations in the propositions are mostly not relative (e.g. '*negative'* rather than 'more negative'*; 'benefits'* rather than 'relative benefits'*; 'useful'* rather than 'more useful', with exceptions being '*key'* as in 'most important', and '*increased interest'*). On the whole, however, the writer of text P4 is constructing the domain in terms of intrinsic rather than relative values. As such the values are projected as uncontested observations from other sources. In P4 the writer's argument functions to construct an uncontested and positive position around a given writing pedagogy, as a point of departure for the writers' own study within this domain.

The structuring and sourcing of voice roles in P2 is more complex and in some ways problematic compared to those indicated above for P1 and P4 (see figures 6.2 and 6.3). The opening phase only for P2 is represented in figure 6.4. Blue represents Investigator Voice, green represents Observer Voice, and pink represents Critic Voice.

Fig. 6.4: The voice role structuring of the opening phase of P2 (with projecting source)

P2

> **W>**
> Peer review is a process where students read drafts written by their fellow students and give each other suggestions to *improve* the writing. Peer review, however, differs from peer editing, peer evaluation, and peer assessment in that the focus of the former is on the review process, which includes *not only editing, evaluating, and assessing, but also responding* to the content of the essay and how the essay is written (Mangelsdorf, 1992).
> Students' attention is focused on how meaning is created in writing and on writing as a *vehicle for communication*, rather than writing as a **formal** product. Peer reviews, therefore, "support the shift from a product to a process emphasis in writing instruction" (DiPardo & Freedman, 1988, p.124).

> **W>**
> Such a technique in writing pedagogy is underpinned by writing research theories that advocate writing as a process of drafting and redrafting, as well as writing as process of communicating to a *real* audience. It is also *in line with* the goals of a learner-centred classroom, which *promote* the *development* of **autonomy** through collaborative learning.

> **A>**
> The **usefulness** of peer review as a technique for L1 writing pedagogy

> **W>**
> is *well* documented in the literature *(Barnes 1976; Brief 1984; Cazden 1988; Forman & Cazden, 1985).* There is also research *evidence* to *point to*

> **A>**
> the **benefits** of peer review in L2 writing instruction

> **W>**
> (*Mendonça & Johnson, 1994; Mittan, 1989, Mangelsdorf, 1992; Stanley, 1992, Tipper & Malone, 1995*).

There is very little Attitude encoded initially (either explicitly or implicitly), and the Attitude that is encoded is suggestive of a comparative meaning (that is Investigator Voice) although ambiguously so. If we consider the writer's reference to '*improve*' to be comparative (unpacked as 'make +better'), and '*promote…development of autonomy*' to refer to 'more autonomy', and the metaphorical '*vehicle for communication*' to imply positive Appreciation in

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contrast to the negative '*formal'*, then it is reasonable to consider this as a comparative representation of values. In that case this is an instance of the writer taking up Investigator Voice in evaluating the domain. Writer as Investigator is problematic, however, at this point in the text. In the first instance it is inconsistent with the function of the text at this stage, that is to survey other knowledge and knowers in the field, and secondly there is no reference to the research that underlies such comparative evaluations. The text then shifts gears into a 'dialogic' phase in which the writer is represented as Critic Voice, and projects other sources into Observer Voice. This second phase then reflects that described above for P4. So in the opening phase of P2, the writer herself is construed as an investigator, and other sources are construed as observers of the domain.

There are a number of instances in the remainder of the text P2, where the role of persuading the reader that the domain is a worthy site for research is taken up by the writer herself with 'authorisation' from other sources Together they share the task of constructing the domain as valued. Examples include the following

> Writing becomes *more* **purposeful** and **meaningful** as it is read by an **authentic** audience (Mittan, 1989).

> Peer review provides the ***best*** means for writers to turn "writer-based prose" to "reader-based prose" (Flower, 1979).

> Students in pairs or small groups can pool ideas, and it is through interacting with others that students learn and develop (Vygotsky, 1978).

> Students learn to become *more* **autonomous** writers as they are prepared to write without the help of a teacher (Jacobs, 1989).

> Through collaborative learning, students can *gain* a ***better*** understanding of their peers' **difficulties** in writing, and as a result they may *gain more* **confidence** in themselves (Mittan, 1989).

In these instances the writer encodes the source as a non-integral citation (Swales 1990). Single source non-integral citations are not considered in this study to evoke Attitude, and so are not identified as Critic Voice. Critic Voice is considered to be encoded where non-integral citations are graded as amount (through multiple references, or where multiple references are implied e.g. *well-documented*), or where the writer uses integral citation and draws on resources of Graduation:fulfilment in the projecting process (e.g. *shows, suggests, fails to show*)[3].

---

[3] In some instances of single source, non-integral citation, where the source is regarded as highly valued in the field, a value may be propagated from intertextual references as referred to in Lemke's 1998, but this intertextual propagation is not considered here.

The following extract is illustrative of a strategy used by the writer of P2 in several phases of text. The phase is characterised by the writer taking up Observer Voice. However, the phase concludes with a comparative encoding of Attitude attributed to another source (Flower), as a final 'investigative' warrant for the writers 'observations'.

> P2
>
> **Writer as Observer**
> …As readers, students read their classmates' drafts **carefully**, make judgments, and *attempt to* put across their messages **clearly** so as to help their peers. As writers, they have to listen to their peers, judge the **usefulness** and **relevance** of their comments, and respond **accordingly**. The process enables the writers to reflect on their own writing, **clarify** their thoughts, and *come to* a ***better*** understanding of the needs and expectations of the readers.
>
> **Writer and Author as Investigators**
> Peer review provides the ***best*** means for writers to turn "writer-based prose" to "reader-based prose" (Flower, 1979).

The overall rhetorical effect of this kind of voice structuring is to reduce the negotiability of the evaluations of the domain. They are not presented as relative and therefore do not encode an implication of an alternative perspective. The domain in P2, that is, the pedagogic process of peer review of student writing, is presented as uncontested and singularly valued, and this position becomes a point of departure of the writer's own study. The writer P2 constructs an argument for one approach to pedagogy, rather than an argument about the relative contribution of research to knowledge of the domain.

While Investigator Voice in P2 is most often taken up by sources other than the writer, the following phase in this text is characterised by joint writer/author take up of Investigator Voice (*more autonomous, better, more confidence),* and culminates in the writer alone construing this role *(boost confidence, more positive, greater independence).*

> P2
>
> Students in pairs or small groups can pool ideas, and it is through interacting with others that students learn and develop (Vygotsky, 1978). Students learn to become *more* **autonomous** writers as they are prepared to write without the help of a teacher (Jacobs, 1989).
> Through collaborative learning, students can *gain* a ***better*** understanding of their peers' **difficulties** in writing, and as a result they may *gain more* **confidence** in themselves (Mittan, 1989). Peer reviews can *boost* **confidence**, make writing a *more* **positive** learning activity, and help students *develop greater* **independence** in writing.

The comparative valuing of a teaching technique by the writer is unexpected in the context of an introductory section of a research paper. The writer, herself, might be expected to take up Observer Voice or Critic Voice but not Investigator Voice, unless specific reference is made to the underlying research generating such an evaluation. The writer in Investigator Voice is appropriate, however, in the final stage of the research paper introduction where a transition is made to the writer's own research.

In summary, it is apparent from the analyses of voice roles and the sourcing of those roles in the published texts that the writers vary in the significance they give to one or other voice role in framing their argument, and that a given voice role may be taken up the writer, or by another source, or by the writer together with another source. It is also apparent that a close analysis of the ways voice roles are employed and sourced provides an effective framework for deconstructing the rhetorical strategies used by the writers.

6.2.3.2 The sourcing of Critic Voice

The second issue that is investigated in a comparative analysis of voice role structuring in the published texts is that of the relative significance of Critic Voice in the texts. When Critic Voice is encoded in the published texts, it is predominantly taken up by the writer, which is not surprising given a key function of the text is to position the writer's own research in relation to other research activity. The ultimate arbitrator in the text is the writer as critic. It is the writer as critic who constructs the meta-argument, orchestrating the alignments and oppositions that ultimately aims to lead the reader to the positive evaluation of the writer's own study. (This issue is further discussed in section 2 of this chapter). There are only a few instances across all the published texts where the writer avoids an opportunity to position him/herself in relation to another introduced voice, and here the writer defers the positioning to another source, who then takes up Critic Voice. The following is one such example:

> Lockhart and Ng (1994b) also refer to *three* studies which "*indicate* that peer response is *as* **effective** as teacher response" (P4).

The writer defers the evaluation of the projected value (*effective*) to another source by using a neutral projecting process in '*refer to*'. The other source then encodes Critic Voice in their grading of the projected value as '*indicated*'.

However, a somewhat surprising finding is the variation in the extent to which the published writers employ the voice of Critic. In P1 and P4, for example, Critic Voice plays a dominant role. These texts represent a kind of interactive dialogue, between Critic and Investigator in P1, and between Critic and Observer in P4. However, in texts P2 and P3 see (appendix 1a), Critic Voice is only minimally evident. Given the considerable emphasis that is placed on students' evaluating other research literature in the contextualisation of their own study, these texts provide interesting examples of published texts that vary considerably in this regard. Clearly disciplinary field, research approach, and publication site are likely to be important variables in determining preferences for rhetorical strategies including the emphasis given to evaluating other research. It is possible, for example, that Observer Voice while not identified as a 'Researcher Voice' in this model, associates with certain research processes that privilege insider participant observation. Nonetheless, the strategies

displayed in the published texts in this study do identify potential options for novice writers, and the framework of voice roles provides a means for explicating and articulating the strategies that are expected of student writing in particular disciplines and in specific research contexts.

6.2.3.3 Summary

Regardless of the extent to which the structuring of voice roles in any one text might represent a valid model for students when introducing their own research, the process of revealing the discourse strategies of published writers, as exemplified in this chapter, functions to open up to scrutiny and discussion the social constructed-ness of academic discourse, and the range of rhetorical strategies and resources employed. The modelling of social constructed-ness in the discourse semantics of texts can function to expand the linguistic resources, and hence meaning potential available to students, and thus extend their own repertoire of evaluative strategies. This issue of variation in writer strategies is discussed further in Section 2 of this chapter, where evaluative stance is considered form the perspective of reader alignment.

The notion of voice structuring provides one perspective from which to examine the construction of evaluative stance in introductions to research papers, and as such a framework for deconstructing the evaluative stance taken in pedagogic contexts. In 6.3, I explore the application of this framework in pedagogic context with an analysis of the set of student texts.

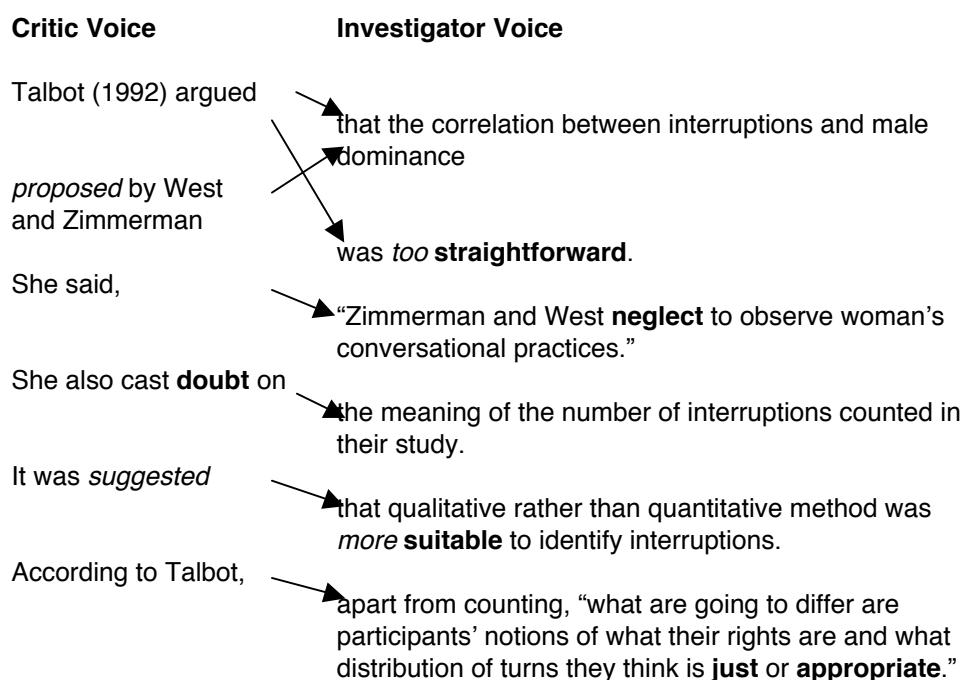## 6.3   Voice roles: ways of talking in the student texts

When student texts are analysed in terms of configurations of attitudinal expressions, the same range of voice roles are evident as in the published texts, that is the student writers make use of Observer Voice, Investigator Voice and Critic Voice. A closer examination of the voice role structuring of the student texts reveals a range of strategies employed. There are both similarities and differences with the strategies employed by the published writers.

Text S2, for example, represents the closest to the prototypical structuring of an introductory section to a research article (Swales 1990), and mirrors the text P1 (presented as a model in a guidebook for novice research writers in Bell, 1993). In S2 the writer opens the text in Observer Voice, briefly evaluating the domain (FD) in explicit Appreciation with some amplification.

> Interaction is ***indispensable*** in our social lives. Whenever a person speaks, he or she is engaging in a **central** social activity. People identify their roles, identities and relationships with others according to the social norms and the cultures they have adapted to. These factors in turn affect the ways in which the participants organize the sequences of the conversations. In this sense, *all* aspects of social actions and interaction can also be examined by looking at the organizations of the conversations.

The text then shifts into an interactive pattern of Critic Voice projecting Investigator Voice, as in figure 6.5.

Fig. 6.5: Critic Voice projects Investigator Voice in Text S2

Critic Voice	Investigator Voice
Talbot (1992) argued	that the correlation between interruptions and male dominance
proposed by West and Zimmerman	was *too* **straightforward**.
She said,	"Zimmerman and West **neglect** to observe woman's conversational practices."
She also cast **doubt** on	the meaning of the number of interruptions counted in their study.
It was *suggested*	that qualitative rather than quantitative method was *more* **suitable** to identify interruptions.
According to Talbot,	apart from counting, "what are going to differ are participants' notions of what their rights are and what distribution of turns they think is **just** or **appropriate**."

The text concludes with the writer shifting into Investigator Voice herself as she introduces her own study.

> Using the previous studies as foundations, this project is going to find out the relationship between power and interruption. This paper will also *try to* have a *more* **thorough** picture of the term "power". Since there is *no unique* definition of "power" in the literatures, its' meaning and *some other* related concepts in this research will be discussed first.
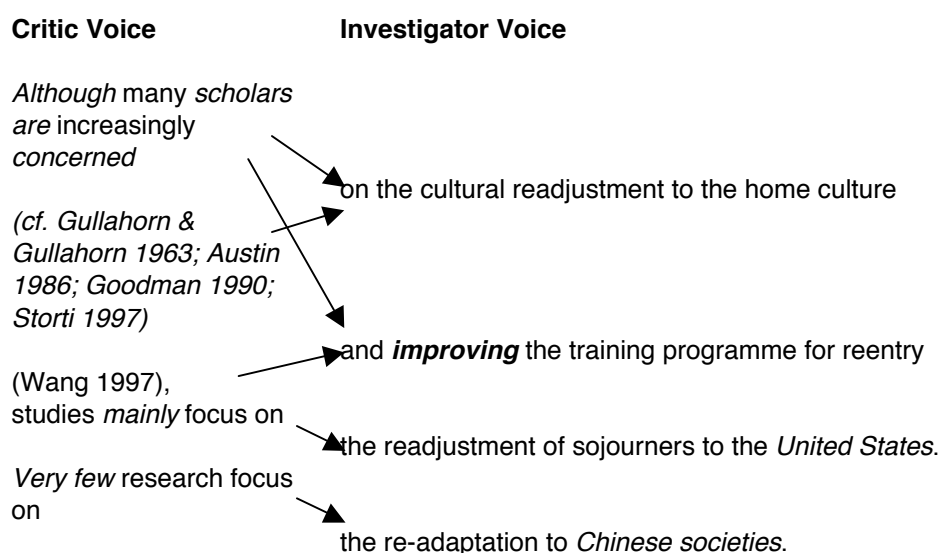
In S3, the writer begins in Observer Voice in an extended first paragraph loaded with explicit Attitude, as in

> The society is ever-changing. When someone has left a **familiar** place for *a certain years* or even just *a month* and then return, he/she will feel **uncomfortable** because of the **strangeness** of the city. So it is not **surprising** that *many* Chinese people who went overseas may **suffer** from **stress** and **disorientation** when they come back to Hong Kong. Even children are usually under **pressure** facing this "**strangeness**". These Chinese returnee children sometimes may have the **unpleasant** experiences in interacting with peers in Hong Kong. *Many* returnee

children cannot be accepted by the peers because of their fluent English. They may also find that they cannot understand each other although they speak in the same language - Cantonese. They find **difficulties** in sharing the values and the subcultures with peers and also they behave in *different* ways. These returnee children cannot build up a *close* relationship with peers in Hong Kong and hence they usually feel **isolated** and **depressed**.

The writer uses little amplification in this stance, but achieves 'force' through the accumulation of multiple expressions of Attitude. There is a brief shift into Critic Voice where the writer engages with others taking a research perspective on the domain, in Investigator Voice. See figure 6.6.

Fig. 6.6: Critic Voice projects Investigator Voice in Text S3

Critic Voice	**Investigator Voice**
Although many *scholars are* increasingly *concerned*	on the cultural readjustment to the home culture
(cf. Gullahorn & Gullahorn 1963; Austin 1986; Goodman 1990; Storti 1997)	
(Wang 1997), studies *mainly* focus on	and ***improving*** the training programme for reentry
	the readjustment of sojourners to the *United States*.
Very few research focus on	the re-adaptation to *Chinese societies*.

There is then a further extended passage in Observer Voice, this time intensified with amplification.

Firstly, children are *more* **susceptible** to cultural influences. As *many* Chinese returnee children went overseas in their childhood, they did not complete their primary socialization in the home (Chinese) culture. They usually acculturate to the host culture when they live abroad. When they come back to the Hong Kong society, to *a certain extent*, the city becomes **unfamiliar** to them. This will *greatly* affect their **effectiveness** of interpersonal communication with peers and teachers. Childhood is a *very* **important** stage for knowledge acquisition. Surely, Chinese returnee children's learning processes will be affected if they have **poor** communication with teachers and classmates.
Secondly, children are the human resources in the future. They play a ***vital*** role in contributing and developing the society. If these Chinese returnee children do not receive **appropriate** guidance to help them to cope with the reverse culture **shock problems**, they may not **want** to continue to live and work in Hong Kong.
Eventually, we will lose these **valuable** human resources with **special** knowledge and skills. The role of communication is *significantly* **important** to the process of adaptation, even in reverse part.

Again the writer shifts into Critic Voice and concludes, as in text S2 taking up Investigator Voice in relation to her own study.

In order to look into the relationship of the communication patterns of Chinese returnee children and their adaptation outcomes in Hong Kong, the following research questions will be *examined*:

The writer S3 relies heavily on a prolonged and compelling observer stance in constructing an argument for her own study. She uses explicit encoding of Affect as well as Appreciation. The Affect functions to align us empathetically, and the Appreciation encourages an alignment of shared values (Martin and White forthcoming). The phase of text constructs an argument for the worthiness of her chosen topic. However, the shifting in and out of Observer Voice represents an aspect of text organisation that needs clarification. A consolidation of the two phases of Observer Voice would strengthen the compelling nature of the writer's appeal for the worthiness of the subject matter. The text would then align closely in voice structure with that of P3.

Text S5 begins in the same way as S2 and S3, with a brief introductory phase in which the writer takes an observer stance in relation to the domain. In Observer Voice the writer constructs a brief compelling argument for the domain through intensified explicit Affect.

> Uniformed groups in Hong Kong refer to the organizations provide youth service and uniform is used to represent the symbol of membership identity. These kind of the organizations are to provide their members with the opportunities for physical, mental, intellectual, social and spiritual ***development*** as well as international understanding, so as to *enhance* them in self- ***development*** and to *foster* members' sense of **belonging** and community **spirit.**

In the remainder of the text the writer positions herself predominantly in Investigator Voice, co-constructed with other sources, as in

> The RCY membership ranked *third among all* uniformed youth organization in Hong Kong (HKRC, 1999). It attached to *primary schools, secondary schools, and community organizations, welfare institutions and youth centres* attached to the RCY Divisional Headquarters in Hong Kong. The objectives of RCY are to involve young people in the Red Cross Movement and its activities as partners in the management, as servers and as beneficiaries (HKRC, 1999).

The writer concludes by directing her Investigator Voice towards her own research, as do other writers. While there are similarities with the structure of P2, this text is unlike any of the published texts in its voice structure in that the writer provides minimal argument for her own study in terms of either the domain (Observer Voice) or in relation to other research (Critic Voice).

A number of issues emerge from the analysis of voice role structuring in the student texts. Firstly, the student writers most often open in Observer Voice. While this is also a strategy used by two of the published writers, the student writers on the whole construct a greater proportion of their texts in this voice role, and this role is taken up by the writers themselves. This is in fact one of the few consistent variations between the two sets of texts. The general

preference among the student writers for more extensive use of Observer Voice may well be a consequence of the variations in text structure. The student writers are constructing longer texts on the whole. As such they are able to devote more time to an introductory phase that is oriented to the research domain, and they may be encouraged to use a range of rhetorical strategies including the construction of an argument on the grounds of the ethical or affective significance of the research topic. It may also be that an appeal on the grounds of the significance of the domain is also a compensatory strategy. In other words writers may use this strategy where they are unable to offer a critique of other research in the field, either because they lack access to relevant research or they lack confidence in critiquing it. Talking up an observer stance requires management of resources for explicitly coding evaluation of aspects of a domain. Such resources may or may not be amplified. They are also construed in the voice of the writer themselves. This could be regarded as a base level of demand in terms of the management of stance in a text in this register, an issue that is taken further in chapter 7 in a discussion of pedagogic issues.

Secondly, in the published texts, even where Observer Voice is dominant in the opening phase (see P3), there is at least one subsequent phase of text where the writer shifts into Critic Voice. However, this is not the case with all the student texts. In S5, the writer does not move out of Observer Voice except in reference to her own study at the end of the text. Moreover, where the published writer P3 relies predominantly on Observer Voice, he is more likely to amplify instances of inscribed Attitude (*extreme* care*; so* varied and complex*; very* explicit*; very* oneway and inflexible) than is the writer in S5. The appeal in P3, while reliant predominantly on observations of the domain, rather than situating the argument in a research context, is none the less made compelling through amplification. This suggests two directions for pedagogic intervention, one is to enhance Observer Voice with more amplified Attitude, and the other is to construe the domain as a research site, by presenting knowledge about the domain as relative and therefore contested. Again this issue is addressed in more detail in chapter 7.

A further issue that emerges from an analysis of voice roles in the student texts relates to the construal of Critic Voice. In projecting another sources, the student writers are more likely to choose projecting verbal processes that are neutral with respect to stance, as in

> In 1983, they modified the definition of interruption. They <u>said</u> that interruption was….(S2)

> Talbot (1992) argued that the correlation … was too straightforward. She <u>said</u> "West and Zimmerman neglect to observe woman's conversational practices" (S2)

> Goldberg (1990) suggested that interruptions had relational significance for the participants themselves. She mentioned that many previous studies also agreed with the definite relationship… (S2)
>
> Bauer (1988) states that written Cantonese is a pervasive phenomenon in Hong Kong. (S4)
>
> Although both these scholars have stated the phenomenon of written Cantonese in Hong Kong, there are not enough empirical evidence for their findings. (S4)
>
> and Johnson (1989) also states that written Cantonese is more colourful …(S4).

A consequence of such choices is that the writers forego opportunities to take a stance in relation to other voices they introduce into their texts They give no indication of writer position in relation to the projected proposition. This is not to suggest that published writers do not also at times employ neutral positioning in a projecting verbal process. In P4, for example, the following instances are noted:

> P4
> Lockhart and Ng (1993) list, under seven categories, more than twenty studies carried out between 1973 and 1989, which describe "the *several* **positive** effects … of students critically reading and commenting on each other's drafts" (p.17). Lockhart and Ng (1994b) also refer to *three* studies which "*indicate* that peer response is as **effective** as teacher response".

The difference in the use of these neutral verbal processes in the published texts is that they project other voices that then project propositions that encode some attitudinal position. The writer remains neutral while the stance (Critic Voice or Investigator Voice) is deferred to another source.

Other problems that arise in the student texts are in the construction of projections of ideas (through mental processes). These may be structural problems, as in,

> Finally he also concerns whether the change in political status of Hong Kong in 1997 discourages the growth in written Cantonese in Hong Kong (S4),

or they may reflect an inappropriate register choice, as in

> it arises my awareness to wonder whether any problems related to communication are found inside the classroom (S7).

In summary then, variations within the sets of student texts and published texts are as significant as variations across the sets. Nonetheless an examination of the student texts in terms of voice role structuring does point to some problematic areas for pedagogic attention.

6.4   A summary of evaluative stance as voice structuring

The data analysed in this study show that within the discourse of written academic argument there are options for writers to encode an evaluative position. An evaluative stance can be taken from the point of view of an Observer, an Investigator, or a Critic. These voice roles are configurations of expressions of Attitude that also implicate field (FD or FR). These voice roles may be sourced to the writer her/himself or may be attributed to another author. The mapping of voice roles in the texts reveals that, while conforming to voice options available within the discourse of academic evaluation, the writers employ a range of rhetorical strategies in arguing for their own research. The extent to which a writer employs Critic Voice as opposed to Observer Voice, for example, will reflect the extent to which the writer chooses to contextualise their research within a field of research activity (FR) as opposed to contextualisation within a topic or domain (FD).

An analysis of the interplay of source and voice role provides a comprehensive framework for comparing rhetorical strategies across texts. The analyses address the question of who does what kind of evaluating in the texts, and this can be represented diagrammatically (e.g. figures 6.2, 6.3) in ways that make apparent the interactive, dialogic construction of evaluative stance. A conceptualisation of evaluative stance as a dynamic interaction of voices and values provides a point of reference for analysing student texts. A comparison of student texts and published texts reveals some potential areas of difficulty for student writers. For example, in this study the data show that student writers are more likely to encode a neutral stance in their projection of other voices, using projecting processes such as *says*, *states*, or *mentions*. In doing so the writers forego opportunities to signal to the reader their own stance in relation to other research and to the propositions projected by the introduced voices.

A comparison of the structuring of sources and voice roles also indicates considerable variation in the strategies used by the published writers. An analysis of the strategies used in the published texts can therefore provide a resource for demonstrating a range of strategies to students, for negotiating preferred strategies, and for making more transparent the linguistic choices on which different kinds or evaluative strategies are based. A deconstruction of the voice role structure of model texts can assist in the demystification of the requirement of student writers to evaluate in positioning their own research in the introductions to their dissertations.

From a broader pedagogic perspective the articulation of different voice roles may also present a possible pathway for apprenticing novice academic writers in developing control of

the representation of values and voices in their academic texts. This issue is taken up in a discussion of pedagogic implications in chapter 7.

In the introductory chapter of this thesis, and again in the introduction to this chapter, I make reference to the issue of different kinds of discourse practices as privileging different ways of knowing (Bernstein 1999, 2000, Maton 2000). I refer in chapter 1 to the fact that pedagogic responses to a changing context of undergraduate tertiary study include calls for reform to, or subversion of current discourse practices. I argue that debates around the privileging of particular discourse practices need to be informed by analyses of the ways in which different discourses function to construct different kinds of knowledge structures. In that sense the debate is not one about different kinds of discourse as different conduits for the same meanings, but as different kinds of meanings. I want to explore this issue at this point in relation to the different kinds of voice roles identified in the academic texts in this study. I argue that what these voice roles represent is not just a set of alternative rhetorical strategies for representing the same kind of knowledge, but that they represent different ways of knowing and hence function to construct different kinds of knowledge. An exploration of the ways in which different voice roles constitute different ways of knowing in the texts in this study becomes an illustrative example at a text level of broader epistemological considerations in discussions of academic literacy practices.

In this discussion I draw in particular on Bernstein's (1995, 1996) concept of *knowledge structures*, which are built upon his code theory (1990) and the constructs of classification and framing. In brief, Maton (2000:84) explains these notions in the following terms:

> Strength of classification refers to the strength of boundaries *between* contexts or categories. Strength of framing refers to the strength of control *within* contexts or categories.

The interaction of classification and framing produce two main educational knowledge codes, namely the *collection code* (+classification, +framing), and the *integrated code* (-classification, - framing) (Bernstein 1996). Each code motivates a particular kind of knowledge structure; the integrated code motivates hierarchical knowledge structures, and the collection code motivates horizontal knowledge structures. Bernstein (2000:161) describes *Hierarchical Knowledge Structures* as the form of knowledge that

> attempts to create very general propositions and themes, which integrate knowledge of lower levels, and in this way shows underlying uniformities across an expanding range of apparently different phenomena.

 In contrast, *Horizontal Knowledge Structures*

> Consist of a series of specialized language with specialized modes of interrogation and criteria for the construction and circulation of texts.

These different kinds of knowledge structures are associated with different kinds of discourses or as Maton (2000) refers to them different 'languages of legitimation', or 'knowledge modes'.

Bernstein's concept of *Horizontal discourse* (1996, 2000) reflects a collection mode of knowledge construction, where knowledge is the serialised accumulation of localised perspectives, or in Maton's terms, 'standpoint epistemology' (2000:83). This way of knowing privileges the subjective over the objective, and the 'knower' over 'knowledge'. Maton refers to this 'language of legitimisation' as the 'knower mode'. *Vertical discourse* (Bernstein 1996, 2000), in contrast, reflects an integrated mode of knowledge construction, where knowledge is constructed through a process of integration, generalisation, or theorisation. This way of knowing privileges the 'objective' stance and 'knowledge' over the 'knower'. Maton refers to this language of legitimation as 'knowledge mode'. Maton (2000:89) argues that

> [t]hese modes represent ever-present and competing principles of legitimation; their empirical realizations are thus a function of the context. The degree to which any features of these modes becomes salient within a particular language of legitimation is dependent upon the structuring conditions of power and control inhering within empirical contexts; these enabling and evoking conditions set the parameters within which these features may be voiced.

I argue here that this theoretical model of pedagogic discourse as privileging different ways of knowing (as integrated code or as collection code), or as privileging knowledge or knowers, provides a means for interpreting the different voice roles in the discourse in this study, and the ways in which they construct different kinds of knowledge.

I argue that Observer Voice represents a realisation of *Horizontal discourse*, privileging the knower in the sense that evaluative claims are made only in relation to the knower's personal value system. They are contextually specific and non-theorising ways of knowing. The knower has 'privileged and unique insight', and 'relatively little explicit theoretical articulation of procedure of proof' is required (Maton 2000:88). The knowledge is legitimised by reference to the privileged 'gaze' (Bernstein 2000) of the knower upon the field of the domain. Investigator Voice on the other hand, exhibits 'knowledge' mode. In evaluating in comparative terms, the writer is making claims on the basis of some 'objective' process of enquiry and the evaluative claims are legitimised by reference (explicitly or implicitly) to legitimated sources (published authors). There is an orientation to generalisation or theorisation.

Critic Voice is also 'knowledge' privileging rather than 'knower' privileging. What are being evaluated are generalised claims and theoretical positions. In Critic Voice, claims are made as relative 'oppositions between theories (…) played out in attempts to refute positions

where possible, or to incorporate them in more general propositions' (Bernstein 2000:162). Evaluative claims are legitimised through 'objective' argument.

An appreciation of different representations of voice roles in the texts analysed in this study, has implications then, for effective pedagogic interventions in academic literacy contexts, as well as for informing the debate on changing discourse practices. One contribution of this thesis, in terms of the identification of voice roles, is therefore that it provides concrete examples of the ways in which shifts in evaluative positions construct different kinds of academic knowledge.

In Section 2 of this chapter I focus on the ways in which the writer ultimately attempts to align their reader(s), with the argument for their own research, by navigating a pathway through the values and voices encoded in the text. The focus thus shifts to the writer/reader interface.

SECTION 2: Modelling evaluative stance as strategies of alignment

Introduction

The discussion above points to the dynamic complexity of evaluative stance, when both values and the voices that project those values are taken into account. Attitude (inscribed or evoked) can be encoded in layers of projection attributed to a variety of sources, which are themselves evaluated. In extract (i), for example, a proposition voiced by another author in Investigator Voice encodes positive Appreciation graded as a comparative (*better*).

(i)   ***Writer as Critic***
         Harris (1940) in the United States found evidence to *suggest* [T.App:val-]
         Author as Investigator
         that younger students tended to obtain **better** [App: val+] degree results (P1)

Here, the evaluation, '*better',* is encoded in a projected proposition, and the projecting process '*suggest*' is graded in terms of fulfilment. The evoked positive Appreciation (T= token) is therefore modified. The dynamic relationship between the value encoded in the projecting clause, and the value encoded in the projected clause, sets up a tension. The reader is likely to anticipate that the tension will be resolved in subsequent text, that is, that the author's projected proposition is eventually to be countered. This expectation is in fact

realised with the occurrence of the counter-expectancy marker, '*However*', as shown boxed below.

> ***Writer as Critic***
> Harris (1940) in the United States found evidence to *suggest* [T App:val-]
> ***Author as Investigator***
> that younger students tended to obtain **better** [App: val+] degree results. (…)
> However, most of these studies…(P1)

In extract (ii) the writer takes a neutral stance (*cites*) in relation to a source (*Eaton*) that positively evaluates other sources (*nine*) that align (*confirm*) with a proposition that positively evaluates a phenomenon (*superiority*).

(ii)   ***Writer as Critic***
        Eaton (1980) cites
        Author as Critic
        nine [T App:val+] American studies which confirm
        Author as Investigator
        the academic **superiority** [App:val+] of veterans (P1)

It is evident from this example that not all propositions encode Attitude. However, in choosing the option of withholding evaluation, in '*Eaton (1980) cites*', the writer makes an evaluative choice, that is, to withhold an encoded stance. The implication is that an evaluation is pending.

In (iii) the writer makes a claim that expresses positive Appreciation (*more direct* and *relevant*). The proposition introduces another voice (Participant) that itself projects a proposition that expresses Attitude as negative Appreciation *(not clear)*.

(iii)   ***Writer as Investigator***
        What is *more direct* [T: App:val+] and **relevant** [App:val+]than a peer saying
        Participant as Observer
        "This sentence is **not clear** [App:compl-]to me," (P2)

The negative Attitude expressed by the Participant is in this instance evidence of the positive value attached to the Participant expressing a point of view.

It is clear from these few examples, that in analysing the construal of evaluative stance across a text, it is necessary to take a dynamic perspective that accounts for how the writer positions the reader in relation to multiple voices and values that interrelate with each other. It is through the dynamic process of managing voices and values that the writer ultimately aligns the reader with his/her own meta-evaluation that further research (namely the writer's own project) is warranted. The dynamic management of voices is addressed in the following section.

6.5   Managing space for other voices

In this section, I consider the resources that are used to signal degrees of alignment with, or opposition to, other positions encoded in the text. I draw here on analyses of Attitude and Graduation from chapters 4 and 5, especially the recognition that different ways of expressing Attitude construe different kinds of solidarity relationships (see 5.2.3), and integrate this with recent work on Engagement within Appraisal theory (White 2003a, 2003b, 2003c, Martin and White forthcoming). I incorporate the resources of Attitude and Graduation to reconfigure the Engagement network as one of *Alignment*. This Alignment network is then applied to an analysis of the ways in which published writers and student writers navigate readers through the multiple values and voices in their texts in such a way as to encourage the conclusion that their research study is warranted. The first step in this process is to review briefly the dimension of Engagement in Appraisal theory and to consider the resources that are implicated.

White (2003c) explains Engagement as accounting for 'the way texts can be seen to negotiate meanings with actual and potential audiences'. He explains that Engagement models this negotiation 'in social rather than individualised terms, and will not give priority to ideational content and its associated truth value'. Taking a 'Bakhtinian perspective', White 2003c) emphasises

> the role of language in positioning speakers and their texts within the heterogeneity of social positions and world views which operate in any culture. All texts reflect a particular social reality or ideological position and therefore enter into relationships of greater or lesser alignment with a set of more or less convergent / divergent social positions put at risk by the current social context. Thus every meaning within a text occurs in a social context where a number of alternative or contrary meanings could have been made, and derives its social meaning and significance from the relationships of divergence and convergence into which it enters with those alternative meanings.

This way of theorising the relationships between different voices in a text presents an alternative model, therefore to the more 'individualistic model' that accommodates an individual's epistemological stance in relation to the truth-value of, or commitment to, a proposition (as represented in, for example, accounts of 'hedging', e.g. Hyland 1998, Salager-Meyer 1997). White argues that

> Modals of probability may function to enable speakers to avoid indicating a firm preference for one heteroglossic position, not because they entertain genuine epistemological doubt over the issue or because they wish to show deference to alternative positions, but because they choose, for whatever interpersonal reasons, to resist being positioned this way (White 2003c).

The Engagement network represents options for bringing other voices into texts, and for positioning those voices in relation to each other. The network presents a basic distinction

between resources for opening up or expanding heteroglossic space, that is the space for other voices, and contracting that space. The model of Engagement from Martin and White (forthcoming; c.f. White 2003a) is represented in figure 6.7 below. The figure also includes examples of realisations of options (boxed).

Fig. 6.7: Network of options for negotiating heteroglossic space from Martin and White (forthcoming) (c.f. White 2003a)
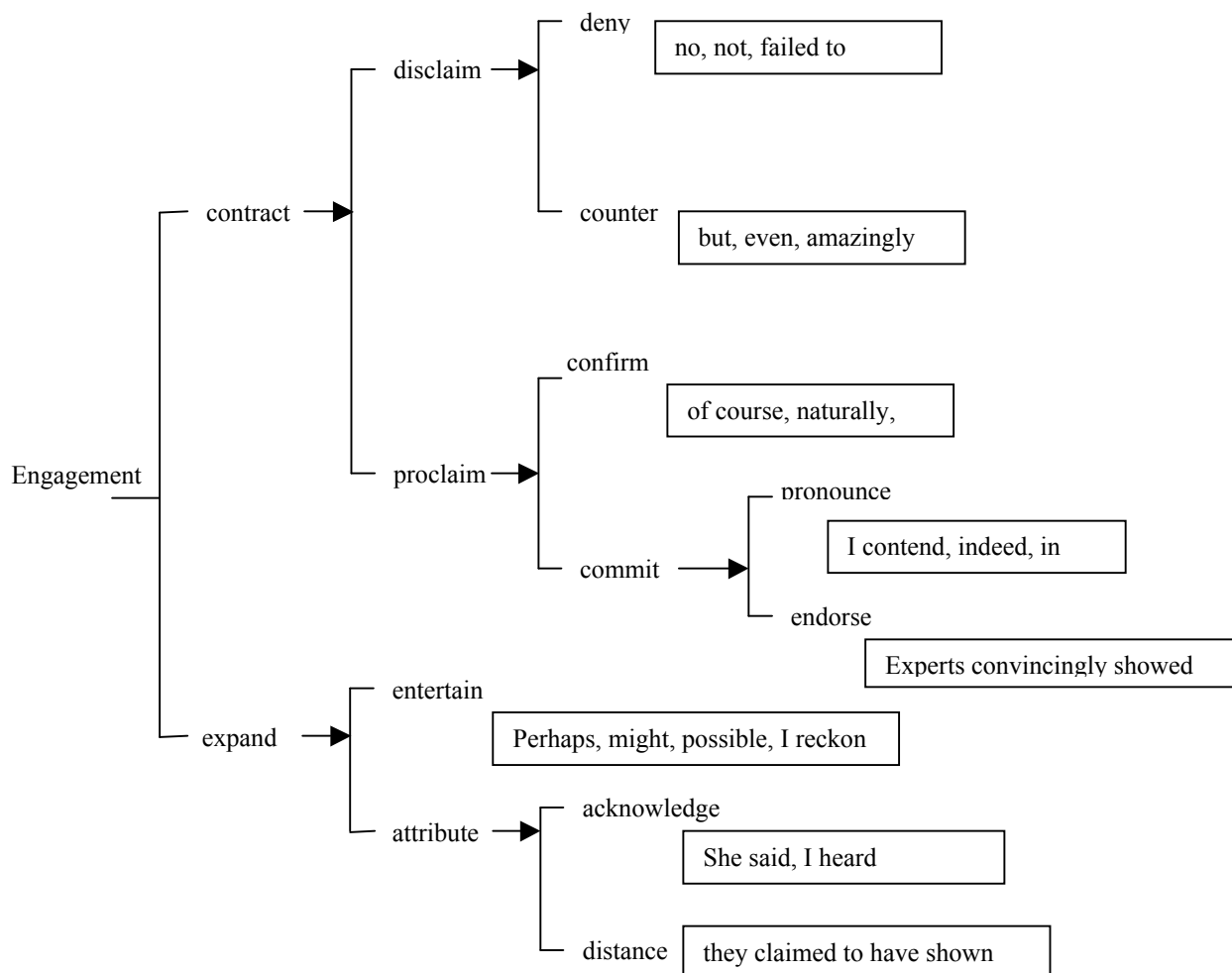
6.5.1 Resources for managing heteroglossic space

The boxed instantiations of options in Engagement in figure 6.7 indicate a range of linguistic resources implicated in managing heteroglossic space. Martin and Rose (2003) identify resources for introducing and negotiating with other voices as including those of projection, modality and negation, and counter expectancy. The ways in which these resources are encoded in the published and student texts are briefly summarised in this section.

6.5.1.1 Projection

The range of resources employed by the writers to project other voices into the text is discussed and exemplified in chapter 3. Grammatically, resources of projection include a range of mental and verbal processes (Halliday 1985, 1994). However, from a semantic perspective, projection can be realised in a variety of grammatical structures, including bracketed non-integral citations, or nominalised processes such as 'belief' or 'view'. (See chapter 3 for the range of resources used to encode projection). Resources of projection introduce other voices into a text, and in this sense they function to expand heteroglossic space. They are identified in the Engagement network as encoding attribution, and the choice of projecting verb can signal a degree of acknowledgement or distancing from the introduced voice.

6.5.1.2 Modality

Resources of modality, in addition to those of projection, function to expand voices in the text, either as *entertaining* a possibility, or as noted above, as infused in verbal or mental processes that *attribute* propositions to other sources. Martin and Rose (2003: 50) explain the heteroglossic function of modality as

> acknowledging alternative voices around a suggestion or claim (…) it opens up a space for negotiation, in which different points of view can circulate around an issue.

As with projection, modality also functions to introduce other voices into a text. In that sense it also opens up space, entertaining other possibilities. Modality is also realised in both the published texts and the student texts in congruent forms, as modals in the verbal group or as modal adjuncts, as in

> ESL teachers <u>must</u> be given the opportunity to learn…(P4)
> the results <u>probably</u> suggest that … (P1)
> they <u>may</u> also find that (S3)
> results were <u>always</u> the same (S2),

and metaphorically as nominalisations, as in

> I have always been <u>sceptical</u> … (P3)
> the <u>standard</u> procedure for dealing with (P3)
> to find <u>possible</u> answers (S7)
> children's <u>willingness</u> to stay in Hong Kong (S3),

and infused in the lexical verb , as in

> the results probably <u>suggest</u> (P1)
> Li (1992) <u>claims</u> (P4).

These projecting processes that are infused with modality have already been identified as located in a Graduation network, in terms of Focus:fulfilment. The graded meaning they encode can therefore be viewed from the point of view of modality but also of the degree of completion of the process. Modality represents a cline of meaning, and as such we can draw

readily on resources of Graduation to shift meaning by degree. In the examples below the probability is adjusted by degree with resources of Graduation, as in

> are *more* <u>likely</u> to transmit information (S7)
> *almost* <u>impossible</u> estimates (P3).

Alternatively resources of Graduation can themselves be modified through co-articulation with modality. In the example below, focus:fulfilment is modified in terms of frequency,

> <u>never</u> *quite* justify (P3).

As Halliday (1994:355) argues, 'speakers have indefinitely many ways of expressing their opinions – or rather, perhaps, of dissimulating the fact that they are expressing their opinions'. Metaphorical realisations of modality in projecting mental or verbal processes are a common feature and an important resource for encoding modality in academic discourse, representing as they do, an ideationalising of modality. As such their use is part of a syndrome of means by which the interpersonal is 'objectified' in the register. It is not surprising to find these processes the specific focus of research in the field (Thompson and Ye 1991, Hyland 1999) as well as a feature in the extensive research literature related to hedging (Salager-Meyer 1997, Myers 1996, Hyland 1994, 1998).

6.5.1.3 Negation

Martin and Rose (2003) draw on Fuller's (1998) work in arguing that the heteroglossic functioning of modality extends to the negative polarity, that is that negation also implies another voice. However, while modality provides a degree of space to other possible voices or positions, that of negation closes down potential alternative voices. Negation, like modality, can be encoded in a range of structures, including the verbal group, as in

> The correction of an error…does <u>not</u> … lead to …(P3)
> It is <u>not</u> surprising (S3),

or nominal group structures, as in

> <u>no</u> unique definition (S2)
> this <u>lack</u> of faith in conventional correction techniques (P3)
> a process approach…is also '<u>nothing</u> new' (P4)
> becomes <u>un</u>familiar to them (S3).

6.5.1.4   Counter-expectancy

A further resource for implying heteroglossia in texts is that of counter-expectancy. Counter-expectancy includes a range of rhetorical resources for shifting the value of voices at different points in the text. Resources of counter-expectancy imply heteroglossia in that a counter-expectancy is established implies an 'expectancy', in other words another position or 'voice' on the matter. Martin and Rose (2003) describe resources of counter-expectancy as including concessive conjunction, for example, *however*, *although, but* (c.f. Thompson and Zhou 2000, Nwogu 1997). Alongside the frequently observed functioning of concessive

conjunction, Martin and Rose (2003) also include continuatives, such as *yet, still, only, just, even* on the grounds that these resources function to imply that some phenomenon is more or less than might be expected. Counter-expectancy can also include contrastive conjunctions such as *rather than*.

6.5.2 Ways of engaging with other voices

The option of 'expand' in the Engagement network (figure 6.7) refers to choices in introducing other positions, or other voices into the text. The option of 'contract → disclaim' refers to contracting space for a proposition. The option of 'disclaim→ deny' closes down a given proposition. The option of 'disclaim→ counter' closes down an expected proposition, substituting the expected with a 'counter-expected' proposition. Contracting space for other voices can also be achieved by *proclaiming* a certain position. The option of 'contract → proclaim' refers to the contracting of all other potential propositions, either by *commitment* to a given proposition or to the *confirmation* of a proposition. The contraction of space for any given or expected proposition at the same time opens up space for alternative propositions, either realised or potential. The contraction of space for alternative propositions at the same time opens up space for the given proposition. The process is therefore a dynamic one shifting alignments in relation to more than one realised or potential proposition.

6.5.2.1 Emphasising degrees of Engagement

The system of Engagement encompasses the notion of degrees or clines of meaning in terms of a vertical dimension in the network in figure 6.7. The option of contraction represents a cline from *denying* space at one extreme to *endorsing* a proposition at another. The option of expansion also represents a cline from *entertain* to *distance*. The categorical representation of options (figure 6.10) none the less encourages a particulate reading, and to some extent the significance of meaning by degree is backgrounded.

Some of the options represented in the Engagement network have been discussed in this study as resources of Graduation (see chapter 4 and 5). This applies, for example, to degrees of modality fused into verbal and mental processes, as in *suggest*, *indicate*, or *show*. These instances are seen as realising phase:reality in grammatical terms, and function to grade the realisation of a particular propositional meaning. They have been coded in Graduation as Focus: fulfilment. I have added this dimension to the Engagement network in figure 6.8 as a cline of rhetorical space indicated in the lower red diagonal from *distance* to *endorsement*.

In chapters 4 and 5, I also indicate that degrees of fulfilment of a process can be realised through grammatical resources of connation. One extreme, the failure of completion, is represented in the network as *deny* (e.g. *failed to*…). I have added a cline of degree of fulfilment to the network of options for negotiating heteroglossic space, as represented in the upper red diagonal in figure 6.8. This cline extends from the position of '*deny'* to that of'*endorsed'*, exemplified as '*Experts… showed*'. Other instantiations along this cline of connation could include, for example, '*tried to …', 'attempts to...', 'managed to…', or 'achieved'*. The representation of clines of relative *fulfilment* provides an important prosodic dimension to the Engagement network as it is represented in figure 6.7.

Fig. 6.8: Network of heteroglossic space with clines of realisation, adapted from Martin and White (forthcoming).
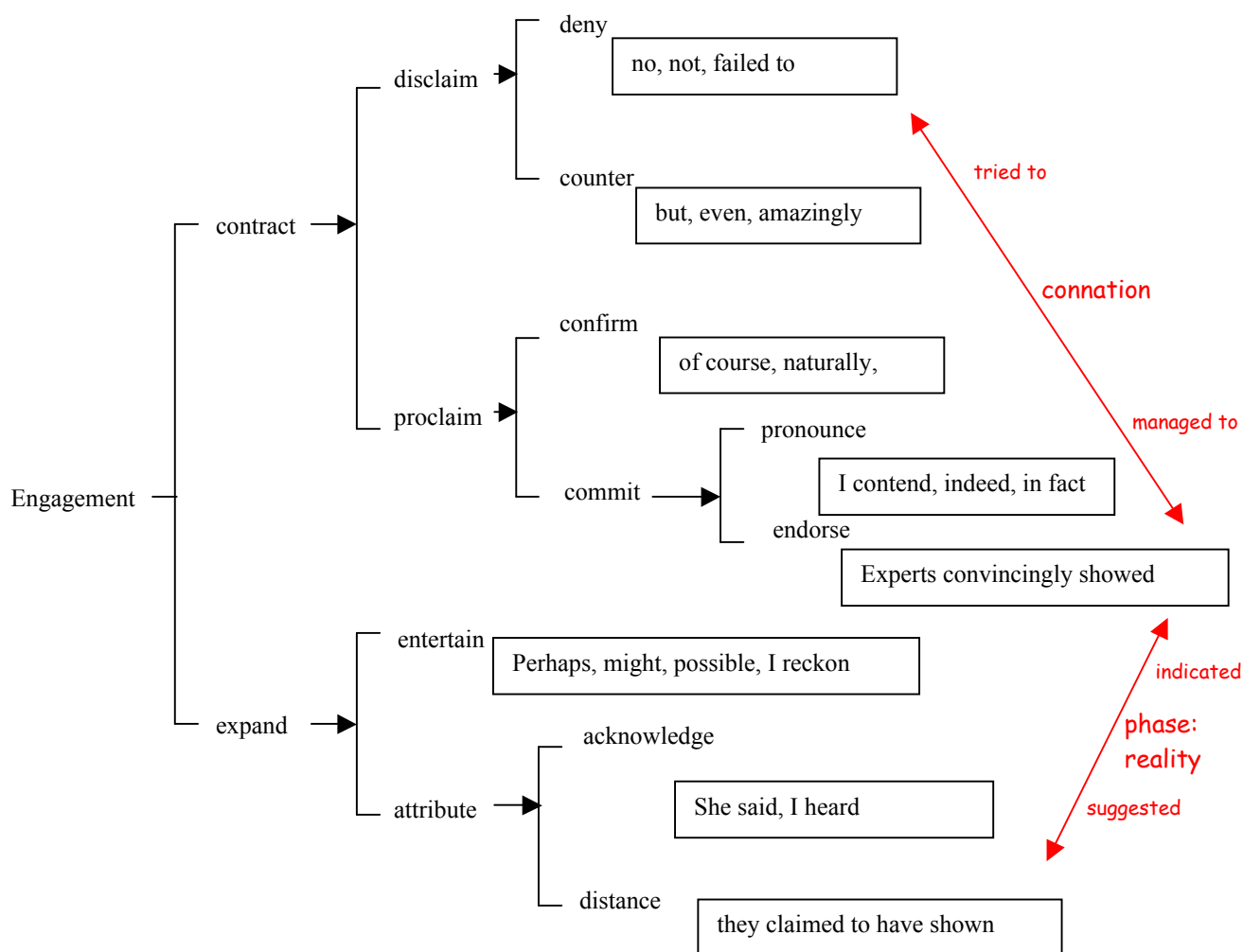
In some cases the instantiations (boxed) in figure 6.7 / 6.8 include resources of Graduation, and as such these expressions can be interpreted both as evoking attitudinal meaning (see figure 4.2 (h)) and as construing heteroglossic space. This suggests that in an Appraisal analysis, Graduation when viewed from the perspective of Attitude functions to evoke

positive or negative Attitude, and Graduation when viewed from the perspective of Engagement, functions to grade heteroglossic space. Other examples of Graduation that can also be viewed from this dual perspective are multiple references cited in support of a proposition, as in

> Similar findings have been made in Britain <u>by Malleson (1959), Howell (1962), Barnett and Lewis (1963), McCracken (1969) and Kapur (1972)</u>, in Australia <u>by Flecker (1959) and Sanders (1961)</u>, in Canada <u>by Fleming (1959), and</u> in New Zealand <u>by Small (1966).</u> (P1)

This is seen from the perspective of Attitude as evoking positive Appreciation:valuation on the grounds of the extent of the support. From the perspective of Engagement this represents a heightening of the level of *endorsement*.

The network in figure 6.8 presents resources for the dynamic management of rhetorical space for voices and propositions in multi-voiced texts such as those in this study. In the following section I will investigate its application as a framework for the analysis of texts, in a study of the construction of stance.

6.6 Navigating a reading path through voices and values in the published texts
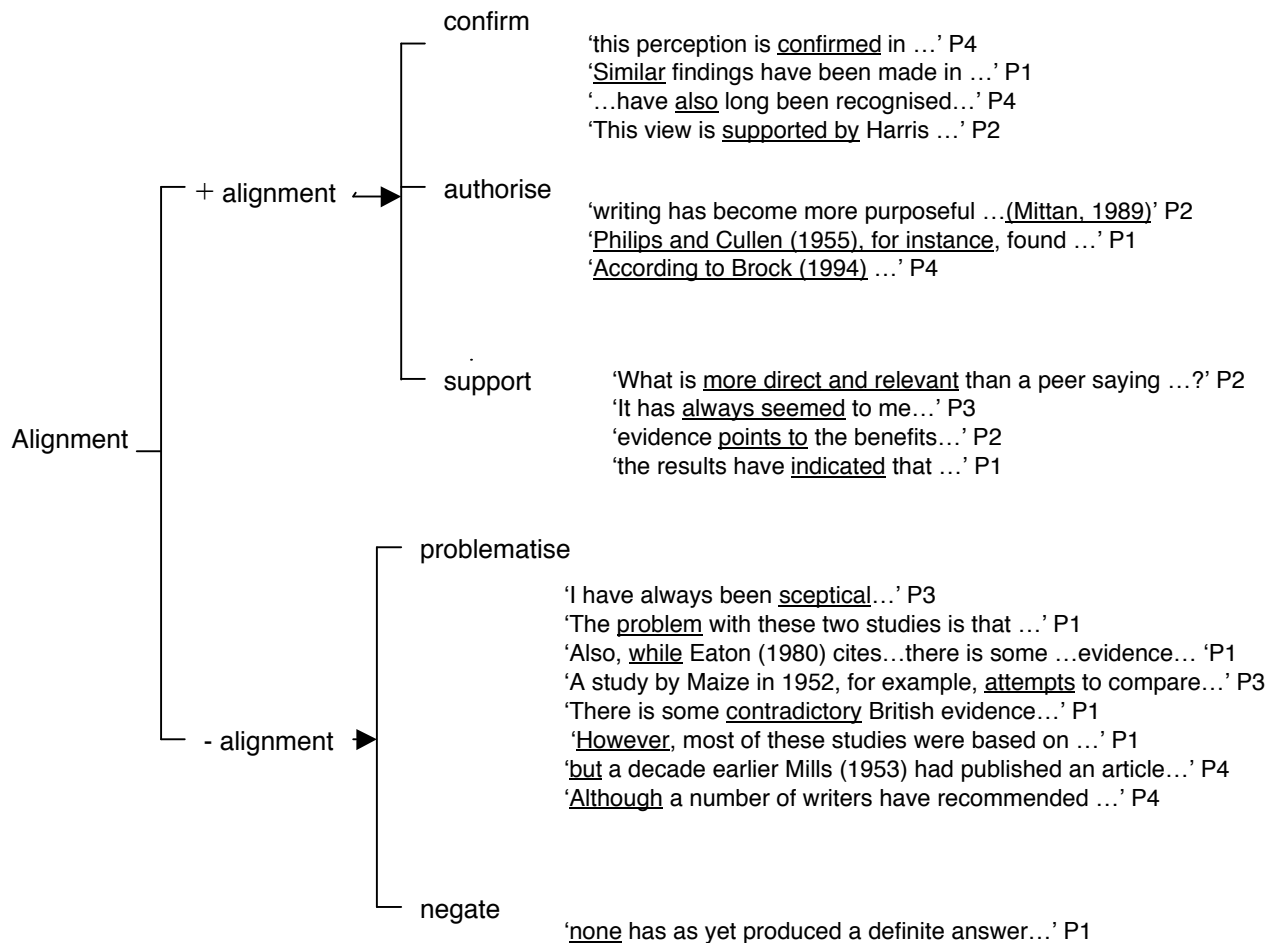
The system of Engagement noted above, provides one perspective on the dynamics of managing heteroglossic space in a text. An alternative perspective is to consider the writer's options for positioning themselves (and by implication the 'naturalised' reader) in terms of alignment and opposition to projected propositions.

6.6.1 Ways of aligning and opposing voices and values

The two perspectives of Engagement and Alignment are related in that when space is opened up to a proposition, this signals a degree of alignment with the proposition, and when space is closed down for a proposition, this signals a degree of opposition on the part of the writer. However in any one instance the perspective is bi-directional. So, for example, in denying proposition X, the writer is contracting space for that proposition. A negation of X would signal a strong degree of opposition to X, and encourage the reader to dis-align. In strongly endorsing X, the writer also uses resources for contracting space. However, in this case the contraction signals alignment with X. In other words resources for contracting heteroglossic space can function to encourage either alignment or dis-alignment in relation to a given proposition. The options of *endorsing* or *confirming* function to encourage the

reader to align with the proposition. *Denying* or *countering* propositions function to dissuade the reader from aligning with the denied or countered proposition. A simplified network of options for positioning, with examples from the data is presented in figure 6.9. The options themselves represent degrees of alignment or opposition, but each option should also be seen as gradable.

Fig. 6.9: Alignment network: options for alignment and dis-alignment

confirm

'this perception is <u>confirmed</u> in …' P4
'<u>Similar</u> findings have been made in …' P1
'…have <u>also</u> long been recognised…' P4
'This view is <u>supported by</u> Harris …' P2

+ alignment

authorise

'writing has become more purposeful …<u>(Mittan, 1989)</u>' P2
'<u>Philips and Cullen (1955), for instance</u>, found …' P1
'<u>According to Brock (1994)</u> …' P4

support

'What is <u>more direct and relevant</u> than a peer saying …?' P2
'It has <u>always seemed</u> to me…' P3
'evidence <u>points to</u> the benefits…' P2
'the results have <u>indicated</u> that …' P1

Alignment

problematise

'I have always been <u>sceptical</u>…' P3
'The <u>problem</u> with these two studies is that …' P1
'Also, <u>while</u> Eaton (1980) cites…there is some …evidence… 'P1
'A study by Maize in 1952, for example, <u>attempts</u> to compare…' P3
'There is some <u>contradictory</u> British evidence…' P1
'<u>However</u>, most of these studies were based on …' P1
'<u>but</u> a decade earlier Mills (1953) had published an article…' P4
'<u>Although</u> a number of writers have recommended …' P4

- alignment

negate

'<u>none</u> has as yet produced a definite answer…' P1

The network options are realised through choices in systems of Attitude and Graduation as well as Engagement resources of projection, modality, negation and counter-expectancy. In the sample instantiations for the different options in this Alignment network (see the underlined expressions), the following associations of resources and options for aligning or opposing are evident:

confirm:	resources of reiteration, as additive conjunction or fused in lexis
authorise:	projected source other than writer
support:	positive Attitude; Focus:fulfilment (phase:realis) as token for +Appreciation

> problematise: negative Attitude; Focus:fulfilment (conation) as token for negative Appreciation; contrastive markers as concessive conjunction or fused in lexis
>
> negate: negation

These positions can be graded by degree in terms of Force or Focus (as outlined in chapter 4), or through grading modality. So for example, the degree of Alignment in terms of 'authorisation' can be manipulated by the number of references included, or by grading the projecting process through resources of Focus; the degree of 'support' can be manipulated by resources of Force associated with the encoding of Attitude. It is also apparent that the examples above are complex in that they may encode more than one kind of positioning. So, for example, in '*none has as yet produced a definite answer*', there is negation (*none*) which is followed by the 'problematising' of that negation (*as yet*).

6.6.2 Mapping processes of alignment and opposition in the published texts

The dynamic process of shifting positions of alignment or dis-alignment throughout a text is best explained through an illustrative analysis. In figure 6.10, shifts in alignment are mapped alongside a phase of text P3.

Fig. 6.10: Mapping a dynamic process of Alignment in P3

P3

Peer correction as a *solution* to these **problems** has been the subject of *some minimal amount of* research.	**Authorise X conditionally** (low level of authorisation in minimal reference to general research)
A study by *Maize in 1952, for example, attempts* (*for native speakers*) to compare the effect of outside correction by the teacher with that of in class correction by both peers and teachers.	**Authorise X** Sustaining authorisation with specific reference and implication of more (*for example*) **Problematise X** Implying lack of fulfilment (*attempts),* and limited scope (*for native speakers*)
Students undergoing the latter procedure did **improve** to *a significantly greater extent* than those in the control group,	**Confirm X** Encoded as explicit past finite (*did*)
but here as in *other* studies *along these lines* (see *additional* related bibliography), the issues are **clouded** *to some extent*,	**Problematise X** Counter-expectancy (*but*) sets up an alternative position, which receives some support (*other, additional*). Low level of opposition to X is modified in '*to some extent*'
first by the presence of certain other variables and *second* by the *general* **difficulty** of *precisely* measuring composition **improvement**.	**Support problematisation of X** Support as evidence encoding inscribed and evoked Appreciation - *first, second, general difficulty, precisely, improvement*)

(Thus) <<even though I believe that the *general* thrust of researchers' conclusions is towards this *sort of* approach>>,	**Problematise support for confirmation of X** In <<…>>, counter-expectancy (*even though*) problematises support (*believe*) for confirmation of X (*towards*). Support is unspecified (*general, sort of*)
Thus.<<..>>I do not *claim* **formal** support for my *suggestions* here.	**Confirm problematised support for X** (*Thus*)
The following assumed **advantages**, however, are what I have thought might be reasonable to expect from an *extensive* use of peer correction.	**Problematise problematised support for X** (*however*) **Support X conditionally** Tentative support encoded in modality (*assumed, I have thought, might, reasonable to expect*) and in specifications of scope (extensive)

In figure 6.10, the phase of text begins and ends in statements of alignment with the general proposition that peer correction is a good thing. However, oppositions to this proposition are introduced in the intervening text, and the writer then positions himself in response to those oppositions. The text is characterised by a dynamic shifting back and forth in position. The resultant rhetorical effect is that, while the proposition is construed as contested, alignment is ultimately encouraged. Of note in this analysis is the role of resources of Graduation and of modality in managing degrees of + or - Alignment.

The texts are compositions of different voices making claims. Yet it is the writer who introduces all these other voices into the text, and the writer does so for the purposes of favourably positioning their own work. The voices themselves must therefore be evaluated by the writer in such a way as to construct alignments with and oppositions to the claims made by those other voices. The implication is that alignment with another voice implies a positive stance towards that research and its findings. And conversely, a positive evaluation of research or findings implies writer alignment with that position. The reconfiguration of Engagement from the perspective of Alignment provides a further contribution to a comprehensive model of what it means to take an evaluative stance. In particular, the development of a network of options for Alignment, as an alternative perspective on Engagement (White 2003a), provides a means by which the dynamic process of meta-positioning by the writer can be mapped onto texts. Analyses of the meta-positioning by writers can further facilitate discussions in pedagogic contexts of how writers manage to construct an evaluative stance in highly heteroglossic texts.

6.7 Navigating a reading path through voices and values in the student texts

As in previous sections of this thesis, frameworks for explaining aspects of evaluative stance are developed on the basis of analyses of the published texts. These frameworks then become a point of reference in the analysis of the students' texts, to identify areas of similarity or difference, or to identify issues in the students' writing. In text S2 below I have identified several phases of the text, each of which presents some difficulty for the reader in tracking the writer's stance. The writer's choices in encoding heteroglossia, and in expanding or contracting heteroglossic space are analysed in these phases to determine their contribution to problems in signaling alignment. Alternative strategies can then be proposed. The following extract (figure 6.11 (a)) presents a problem in identifying the writer's position in relation to the propositions presented.

Fig. 6.11 (a): Analysis of dynamic shifts in alignment in S2 (1)

Text	Comment
Roger, Bull and Smith (1988) studied interruption in another angle. They formed the Interruption Coding System (ICS) for the classifications of interruptions.	A position in relation to the proposition is not encoded
The subjects chosen for their *two* experiments were instructed to interrupt as often as possible and to monopolize the conversation as long as possible. Based on the results, Roger, Bull and Smith organized the coding system into a flow chart. They divided interruptions into single and complex ones according to the number of interruption attempts. For more than one attempt, the interruption was regarded as complex. If the interruptor could prevent the other from completing and ultimately completed his own utterance, the interruption was **successful**. Otherwise it was <u>**unsuccessful**</u>. If the interruption followed a **clear** offer of the floor by the interruptor, it was called snatch-back. The completion of an utterance by the interruptors and the occurrence of overlapping were also considered in the whole system.	The detail of description of methods and findings suggests a sustaining of support for the contribution from this source, but no initial position encoded to support.

In figure 6.11 (a) the amount of text devoted to a description of the study is substantial. Yet, to this point in the phase of text there is no indication of a position of +/- alignment to be taken up in respect of this source. The lack of signals could be addressed from both the perspective of Attitude and from the perspective of Engagement. An attitudinal solution,

suggested in the discussion of Attitude and periodicity in 5.4, is to explicitly encode

Appreciation:valuation in the Hyper-Theme, as in,

> Roger, Bull and Smith (1988) studied interruption in another angle, providing a **detailed** classification of interruptions in a Interruption Coding System (ICS).

From the perspective of Engagement, the writer's alignment could also be signalled by expanding heteroglossic space for the findings. These might be combined as

> Roger, Bull and Smith (1988) *suggested* a *very* **detailed** classification of interruptions in their Interruption Coding System (ICS).

Once a position of Alignment is established the subsequent text can function as a consolidation of that position.

An analysis of positioning in the following extract (figure 6.11 b) reveals issues of sequencing that contribute to a lack of coherence in the writer's argument.

Fig. 6.11 (b): Analysis of dynamic shifts in alignment in S2 (2)

Text	Comment
Interaction is *indispensable* in our social lives.	**Support X1** Strong support is encoded through amplified Appreciation
Whenever a person speaks, he or she is engaging in a *central* social activity.	**Support X2** Strong support encoded in high modality (*whenever*) and amplified Attitude (*central*)
People identify their roles, identities and relationships with others according to the social norms and the cultures they have adapted to.	**Support Y** Encoded through lack of modality in verbal group
These factors in turn affect the ways in which the participants organize the sequences of the conversations.	**Support X3** Encoded through lack of modality in verbal group
In this sense, *all* aspects of social actions and interaction can also be examined by looking at the organizations of the conversations. (Heritage, 1989)	**Support X4** Strong support encoded in Graduation (*all*) is modified in restricted scope (*in this sense*) and in modality (*can*) **Authorise X4** But single source only
In analyzing interaction, it is **not surprising** that conversation is *closely* related to the issues of social life.	**Confirm X1, X2, X3, X4** Summary confirmation relating back to previous propositions
The speakers' orientation to particular orders of interaction is the manifestation of the inherent theories of the society.	**Support X3** Encoded in lack of modality in verbal group

An analysis of writer positioning in figure 6.11 (b) highlights a number of issues in coherence. The first relates to the sequencing of propositions. If X is taken to represent, at a very

general level, that there is a relationship between interactions and social life, then X1, X2, X3 and X4 are all related propositions in that each addresses the two concepts in some way. Proposition Y lacks any specific reference to interaction or conversation and so creates a disjunction at this point in the text. This could be resolved by rewording proposition X3 to subsume Y, as in

> The ways in which the participants organize the sequences of the conversations are affected by their socially and culturally adapted roles, identities and relationships with others.

A second issue apparent from the analysis in 6.11 (b) is one of sequencing. The final proposition seems misplaced, reiterating as it does a previous proposition (X3). If it were placed immediately following the first presentation of X3, this would also leave the confirmation of X1, X2, X3, and X4 appropriately in final position in the phase. The rewording could then be as follows,

> S2 reworded
> Interaction is *indispensable* in our social lives. Whenever a person speaks, he or she is engaging in a *central* social activity. The ways in which the participants organize the sequences of the conversations are affected by their socially and culturally adapted roles, identities and relationships with others. The speakers' orientation to particular orders of interaction is the manifestation of the inherent theories of the society. *In this sense*, *all* aspects of social actions and interaction can also be examined by looking at the organizations of the conversations. (Heritage, 1989). In analyzing interaction, it is not surprising that conversation is *closely* related to the issues of social life.

The following extract (figure 6.11 c) demonstrates the need to manage the dynamic nature of alignments, within and across phases of text, so that the reader is guided at each stage towards a concluding alignment with the writer's own research focus. There are several instances in this extract where the flow of argument is interrupted for the reader, owing either to a lack of clues to alignment or apparent disjunctions in alignment signals.

Fig. 6.11 (c): Analysis of dynamic shifts in alignment n S2 (3)

Text	Comment
….Compared with the work of West and Zimmerman, Roger, Bull and Smith did *not* relate interruptions with *any* social issue.	**Negate propositions of R,B,&S** Negation of propositions encoded in negation in verbal group (*not*) and negative quantity (*any*). **Support propositions of W&Z** Support implied in contrast to R, B&S (*compared*)
Paragraph break	
Goldberg (1990) *suggested* that interruptions had relational significance for the participants themselves.	**Authorise support for X** Authorisation (*Goldberg*) for modified support (*suggest*) for proposition X

She mentioned that *many* previous studies also agreed with the **definite** relationship between power and interruption.	**Confirm authorised support for X (or Y?) and support it** Minimal support (*mentioned*) for confirmation (*also agreed*) of strong authorisation (*many*) of proposition X (or Y?)
Goldberg cast **doubt** on this point	**Problematise X (or Y?)** Problematising as negative judgement/low modality (*doubt*) of proposition X or Y?
and *tried to* distinguished power from non-power interruptions.	**Problematise Y** Problematising (*tried to*) an interpretation of ambiguous coding above as Y (not X)

The paragraph break indicated on the text represents a shift in focus from one source to another. The preceding paragraph concludes with a comparative evaluation of two previously discussed sources,

> Compared with the work of West of Zimmerman, Roger, Bull and Smith did <u>not</u> relate interruptions with any social issue.

The writer opposes the contribution from *Roger, Bull and Smith* by contracting heteroglossic space through negation in verbal group (*not*) and in negative Graduation (*any*), and by implication aligns with *West and Zimmerman*'s contribution. However, the Hyper-Theme of the new paragraph gives no clear indication of a relationship of the new source (*Goldberg*) to either of the previously referenced sources, other than a weak experiential link between the reference to '*participants themselves*' and to '*social*' concerns. The reader has insufficient clues to interpret the writer's intended alignment with Goldberg. A more overt experiential link (if a link were intended) would then imply a transferral of the implied positive alignment with 'West and Zimmerman' over to 'Goldberg'. Such an intended interpretation could be more overtly coded as,

> This social relationship is further explored in the work of Goldberg (1990).

A further problem that arises in extract 6.11(c) is that proposition X introduced with modified support (*Goldberg*), is then apparently confirmed by other sources according to the alignment clues (*also agreed*). It is not explicit at this point that '*relational significance*' is oppositional to '*definite relationship between power and interruption*'. A disjunction then occurs as Goldberg rejects (*cast doubt on*) her supported proposition X, without the use of a counter-expectancy signal (such as *however*). The confusion is not resolved until the final statement in which it is made clear that an opposition was being set up between X and Y.

Within the phase of text that relates to Goldberg's work, the writer encodes a stance of tentative alignment, introducing this author with the projecting process '*suggested*'. In all

instances in the published texts where a new source is introduced with a projecting process that encodes a tentative alignment, such as *suggest, claim* or *indicate*, the projecting process functions to prepare the reader for a shift to negative alignment. The projected propositions are eventually countered, as in

P1:

Harris (1940) in the United States found evidence to <u>*suggest*</u> that younger students tended to obtain better degree results. Similar findings have been made in Britain by Malleson (1959), Howell (1962), Barnett and Lewis (1963), McCracken (1969) and Kapur (1972(…) <u>However</u>, most of these studies were based on samples of students who were generally …

P4:

The last part of the line form the Hong Kong Education Department document referred to above, (…) <u>*may indicate*</u> a more effective and efficient way to proceed. (….) <u>However</u>, for this to occur, the student teachers would need …

'…which Li (1992) <u>*claims*</u> can be traced back to the 1870s. (<u>However</u>) North (1987) identified a shift in product to process starting'

In S2 the tentative encoding of support in '*Goldberg (1990) suggested'* is followed by a suggestion of pending opposition in '*tried to distinguish'*. However, this phase of text culminates not in a shift into opposition, but in a strong alignment in '*Goldberg had a <u>new picture'</u>* and '*She <u>broadened</u> the understanding*'. There is disjunction therefore in the kind of alignment that is predicted in the Hyper-Theme and that which is 'reinforced' in Hyper-New.

An analysis of choices for encoding +/- Alignment, as exemplified above, completes the model of evaluative stance developed in this thesis, with a consideration of the process of meta-positioning by the writer in relation to other voices and projected propositions and values. The analyses of positioning in the published texts and the student texts identify the complex dynamics of aligning and opposing. From the point of view of the writer, the analyses identify some of the challenges that face novice academic writers in constructing an evaluative stance. From the perspective of the reader, the analyses indicate the complex and intricate processes by which writers encourage a particular reading position.

6.8   Conclusion

The research outlined in this chapter builds on and completes the explanations of evaluative stance begun in chapter 5. A comprehensive explanation of evaluative stance in the context of the introductory sections of research articles and dissertations is sequentially developed over these two chapters. The explanation addresses the ways in which Attitude is expressed, the patterning of attitudinal choices in experiential distribution, interpersonal prosodies, and textual points of prominence, the configurations of ways of evaluating as

voice roles and their attribution to the writer or to other sources, and finally the meta-evaluating role of the writer in positioning him/herself, and in the process the naturalised reader, on clines of alignment with or opposition to other sources and the values they project.

In this chapter, I have represented the construction of evaluative stance in the introductory sections of research articles and dissertations as a layered and dynamic heteroglossic process (Bahktin 1981, 1986). In explaining this process, I focus in particular on notions of voice both in terms of the source of a proposition or value, and as voice roles or ways of evaluating. Voice roles are identified as characteristic configurations of evaluative resources in the data, that associate with particular fields being evaluated. The configurations distinguished in this register include those of Observer, Investigator and Critic. Observer Voice comments evaluatively in non-comparative terms on the domain. Both Investigator and Critic evaluate comparatively, the former commenting on aspects of the domain, and the latter commenting on other voices and the propositions they project, in other words on research activity.

While the range of voice roles is evident to some extent in all the texts in the data, the dominance of one or other voice role and the patterns of interaction in the discourse vary from text to text. In both the published texts and the student texts, there is variation in the extent of reliance on Observer Voice, Investigator Voice or Critic Voice. Evaluations in Observer Voice are associated with the domain (FD), and are non-comparative. They are therefore represented as arrived at through reference to the evaluator's own value system, without reference to an external standard or alternative 'measure'. It is for this reason that I refer to Observer Voice as a non-research voice. Evaluations in Investigator Voice are also directed to the domain (FD) but encode a comparative meaning, that is, the value is represented in relation to the value of some other phenomenon, and therefore implies a measurement of some kind. For this reason it is referred to as a 'Research Voice'. Evaluation in Critic Voice is directed to the field of research activity, evaluating sources and the processes of research and propositions they project.

Where writers predominantly take up Observer Voice, they are positioning their research within a personally valued domain. The fundamental argument is that the writer values the domain in some respect, and that their own research in this domain is warranted on those grounds. In contrast, where writers predominantly take up Critic Voice, they are positioning their own study within a field of research, and arguing on research grounds for its value. It is interesting to note that among the published texts there is considerable variation in the extent to which the writer engages critically with other sources in arguing for their own

research, that is, the extent to which they take up Critic Voice. Given the importance that is often placed on this aspect of the writing task when it is presented to student writers, especially in writing the literature review component of the introduction to a research paper, it is important to note that a number of other strategies may be acceptable in particular contexts of research or publication.

Modelling the dynamic structuring of voice roles in academic texts has immediate pedagogic applications in the form of teaching resources. Models provide accessible means by which teachers and students can explore variations in writer strategies in published texts, and in their own texts. However, an analysis of voice roles also make a contribution to tertiary literacy pedagogy at a more general epistemological level, in particular to debates and discussions about discourse and the privileging or marginalisation of groups of students in tertiary contexts. Much has been written about issues of access and exclusion in relation to the 'elite' discourses of the academy (Geisler 1994, Pennycook 1994, Ivanic 1998, Benesch 1999). One response to the recognition of the unequal distribution of linguistic resources in relation to 'official' pedagogic discourses, is to advocate or promote shifts into more localised discourses of the communities from which students come. Bernstein (1990, 1996, 1999, 2000) argues that underlying much of this discussion is the assumption that pedagogic discourse is just a conduit, or 'a voice through which others speak' (Bernstein 1990:166), or a 'neutral relay for external power relations' (Maton 2000:79). Thus insufficient attention is given to the intrinsic features of the specialised discourse of education. In his sociological theorising of education, Bernstein models different pedagogic practices as maintaining different kinds of knowledge structures through different kinds of discourse modes. In this chapter I adopt Bernstein's model as a means for considering the implications in the writing in one or other of the voice roles identified in this study. I argue that Observer Voice is illustrative of Horizontal discourse in that it is a subjective voice of observation, localised in its perspective. It is a voice supporting Horizontal Knowledge Structures or collection modes of knowledge construction. Knowledge is constructed as a collection or accumulation of localised subjective observations. As such, although identified in this study as a 'non-research' voice, it might be expected to associate with particular kinds of ethnographic research practices that privilege a subjective, insider perspective. In other words practices that privilege the 'knower' (Maton 2000).

In contrast, I argue that Investigator Voice is illustrative of Vertical discourse. Evaluations are made relative to other phenomena and this represents a stage in a process of generalisation in the construction of knowledge. The kind of knowledge that is construed is legitimated not in reference to the personal value system of the observer, but through some empirical process that offers a 'procedure of proof' (Maton 2000:88). This kind of discourse

foregrounds knowledge over the knower. Critic Voice, too, is illustrative of Vertical discourse, at a greater level of decontextualisation than Investigator Voice. The valuing is of the perspectives or theoretical positions of others, which are incorporated into a more general argument.

This theorisation of the epistemological functioning of voice roles provides an illustration, at a grounded level in the texts of published and student writers, of the ways in which different kinds of discourse construct different ways of knowing or different kinds of knowledge. As such it provides a contribution to discussions about changing discourse practices in academic contexts, and alerts us to the need to consider the nature of educational discourses in epistemological terms, and not simply as conduits for external relations of power.

In the second section of the chapter, I shift perspective to consider the writer/reader interface, and a final contribution of this chapter is in relation to the role of the writer as the ultimate adjudicator in the construction of an argument for their own research. All the texts in this study are, not surprisingly, shown to be overtly heteroglossic to some extent, as the writers refer to other contributions to the construction of knowledge within their chosen field of research. Other voices are projected into the texts as sources for evaluation of the domain and/or other research undertaken in relation to that domain. As the writers introduce other voices into their texts, they position themselves in relation to those other voices and their projected propositions. In so doing they encourage the reader correspondingly to align or dis-align by degree. The writer is in this sense the meta-evaluator in the argument. The Engagement network (White 2003a and Martin and White forthcoming) within Appraisal theory is reinterpreted as a network of options for +/- Alignment by degree.

Analysis of what it means to take an evaluative stance in the introductions to research articles and dissertations, has been approached at each step by a process of analysis of published texts, together with consideration of the ways in which the student writers employ similar or different resources and strategies. Implications for pedagogy have been tagged at relevant points in the discussion. In the final chapter I summarise the linguistic contributions of the thesis and discuss in more detail the pedagogic implications.