# PUBLISHED VERSION

Kate Cadman

**Introducing research rigour in the social sciences: Transcultural strategies for teaching ERPP writing, research design, and resistance to epistemic erasure**
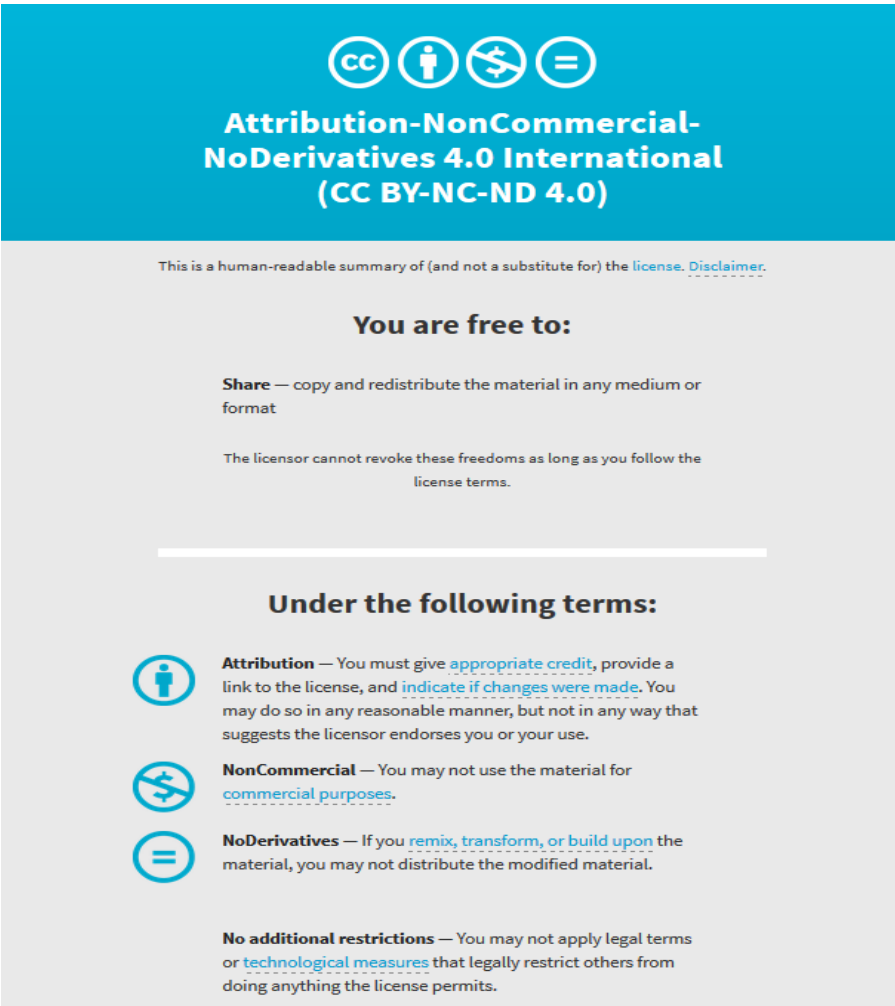
Publishing Research in English as an Additional Language: Practices, Pathways and Potentials., 2017 / Cargill,, M., Burgess, S. (ed./s), Ch.2, pp.33-54

Originally published at: http://dx.doi.org/10.20851/english-pathways-02

http://hdl.handle.net/2440/129033

# 2

# Introducing research rigour in the social sciences:

## Transcultural strategies for teaching ERPP writing, research design, and resistance to epistemic erasure

*Kate Cadman*

## 1. Introduction

A recurring theme of scholarly work in English for Research Publication Purposes [ERPP] has been the potentially causal relationship between the global dominance of English for 'international' publication and the suppression of alternative knowledges. The titles of presentations in the recent PRISEAL conference on international publication reflect support for this view in phrases such as 'English as *the* international language of science' (emphasis in the original), ' … domain loss and the erosion of specialized discourse in non-Anglophone cultures', 'English-monolinguist research policies in Spain', and so on (PRISEAL, 2015, n.p.). The perceived disadvantages experienced by researchers in non-mainstream contexts have been richly analysed (Lillis & Curry, 2010; Clavero, 2010) and contentiously debated (Flowerdew, 2008; Casanave, 2008; Hyland, 2016a). Meanwhile, quantitative studies such as those by Mertkan, Arsan, Cavlan and Aliusta (2016) in educational management have drawn some resonant conclusions about today's academy: '[T]he complexity of knowledge-production … is marked by disproportionate influence of an exceptionally small set of core inner-circle Anglophone and non-inner-circle Anglophone settings' (p. 13; see also Lillis & Curry, 2015).

In parallel to these findings, among Asian scholars too is a belief that 'an obsession with theoretical knowledge from the West reproduces Euro-American intellectual dominance in the global-local knowledge hierarchies' (Qi, 2015, p. 195). Nguyen, Elliott, Terlouw and Pilot (2009, p. 109) draw specific attention to Asian contexts 'where rapid reforms in education may run the risk of "false universalism"' involving the relatively uncritical adoption of various Western approaches. This is seen to open the way for 'mental colonialism to continue and neocolonialism to triumph' (p. 112). From a European perspective, Bennett (2014) also argues that this process 'ultimately represents the colonisation of one culture by another — in this case, the "imposition of new 'mental structures' through English"' (pp. 45-6, citing Phillipson; see also Bennett, 2015). And for me too, despite the obvious diversity of contextual outcomes, the strong form of this argument remains convincing (see Cadman, 2014). It is from this position that I walk into a classroom as a research writing teacher, holding the same view as the Schostaks (Schostak & Schostak, 2013, p. 11) when they say 'rhetoric is more than just ornament since it provides an underlying structuring of the thought processes where data is transformed into evidence … ' For ERPP teachers, employed as often as not by anglophone metropolitan institutions, such a process takes a simple but indomitable form, in that, as Fenton-Smith (2014, p. A29) points out, these institutions 'recommend that instructors assimilate international students into the academic, sociocultural and linguistic norms of the host nation'.

The call for teachers to resist this enforced assimilation process in the context of English for Academic Purposes (EAP) has continued regularly since Pennycook (1997) brought Dewey's concept of 'critical pragmatism' to EAP, and it has recently been taken up by Corcoran and Englander (2016) in ERPP. For Pennycook, a successful and ethical pedagogy

> … seeks to do more than just tolerate difference, but moves towards a more direct engagement with the confrontation between the cultural, educational and linguistic practices of the students and the practices of the academy. (p. 266)

A similar 'engagement with confrontation' has recently been characterised by Qi (2015) as 'staging dissensus' — that is, aiming to deliberately disrupt educational norms that are 'characterised by one epistemology dominating others, thus marginalizing and ruling out dissensus' (p. 198). How to stage dissensus and effect this disruption then becomes the challenge for an ethical ERPP practice.

In this chapter, I will describe how I try to meet this challenge in practical teaching strategies. I will here present a reflexive analysis which involves my researcher's attitudes and approaches, engagement with theory, and with my academic and teaching experience over the last 15 years. Building on the groundbreaking work of Lincoln and Guba in 1985, Smith (1998) demonstrates the reliability of this research approach in education when he endorses the critical pragmatist stance, which, he says, 'rejects the dominant empiricist goal of research as generating knowledge or adding to scientific theorising,

and instead proposes a moral base of reasoning' which 'embraces subjectivity' (p. 6). In this way, Smith establishes 'trustworthiness' as the fundamental criterion for reflexivity: 'The central moral imperative, backed by evidence and argument making the account compelling, is a virtue to be nurtured not a prejudice that distorts' (p. 5).

It is just such a moral imperative that creates the tensions for me in my research writing and teaching (see Cadman, 2014). Particularly in my ERPP role, I am deeply challenged by the question: Am I primarily a part of the neocolonial problem or a contributor to its solution? Working to address this disquiet and implement an effective and ethically acceptable ERPP, I have recognised that for me it is important to engage three distinct yet interacting elements:

- appropriate teaching materials for students' target texts, in order to represent and throw light on today's dominant disciplinary and even journal-sensitive textual practices

- a well-informed, genre-theoretical knowledge base such as those developed by Swales and Feak (2012), Burgess and Cargill (2013) and Paltridge (2014), among others

- a 'transcultural', dialogic pedagogy (see Cadman, 2005) which aims, in the critical pragmatist tradition, to interrupt the notion of education as 'a unidirectional flow' through which 'the ignoramus must receive the benefits of "our culture" … [to] change and become one of "us"' (Malinowski as cited in Cadman & Song, 2012, p. 11).

Importantly, 'engaging with confrontation' in Pennycook's (1997) terms does not mean ignoring or reducing emphasis on the first two of my priorities above — that is, making explicit the currently dominant 'practices of the academy'. For a consciously *trans*cultural and critical-pragmatic pedagogy, it is vital to develop appropriate lesson materials and teacher/student relationships, both in order to fulfil students' thirst for training in anglophone research skills, and to engage their agency in the learning opportunities we offer them.

My aim in this chapter, then, is to propose an original framework and pedagogic approach for teaching research writing in the social sciences, in order to address what I see as a major lacuna in this field today in relation to ERPP teaching materials. In proffering these materials, I want to suggest ways in which exemplars of prevailing genres may be used to open up epistemological dialogues with EAL researchers, thus making our anglophone expectations completely transparent while simultaneously disrupting the process of extinguishing learners' culturally diverse ways of knowing.

## 2. Teaching to methodological rigour

In designing these teaching materials, I have drawn insights from my practice as gatekeeper in the global academy as a teacher-assessor, international journal editor and

reviewer, doctoral supervisor and thesis examiner. This albeit idiosyncratic experience with both first and additional English language users in the social sciences has led me to realise that it has very rarely been a novice scholar's variant English language that has resulted in failure and/or rejection. Recent ERPP studies have been raising similar issues. Lillis and Curry (2015), for example, have expressed a central concern with 'whether English or language figures at all as a significant issue' in a journal's uptake of an article (p. 133). Their Text History data reveal that gatekeepers' critical comments focus on 'concerns about methodology, analytical tools used, and forms of analysis', or on 'epistemological and methodological issues' (p. 140); they finally assess that 'language by itself does not act as a warrant for dismissal or rejection' (p. 147). My own observation is that, even where inappropriate language forms have been seen to impede successful communication, a much more critically significant issue has been whether or not the prevailing criteria for methodological rigour in research design are met. Reflecting on my own international journal reviewing over the last five years, I note over 30 comments related to authors' crucial failure to meet anglophone expectations of research rigour. Fairly typical quotations from my reviews are (and I have noted very consistent agreement with my blind co-reviewers):

> One serious issue for me is the loose tendency to generalise the findings: when the base sample of the study is a very small number of participants, generalising to any group is not possible.

> There is no explanation of what was aimed to be learned from each of these data sets, nor how and why they were selected.

> … data discussion does not convince us of a lack of bias in the data collection and analysis.

> We would need to know much more methodological detail … including what steps were taken in data analysis and what theoretical principles were applied.

> … these claims are much too sweeping to be supported by the data.

> To introduce the results of the study in the introduction, and to present arguments which have not yet been validated by data analysis, compromises our trust in the study's methodology.

For me, these issues are as much about the writing as they are about the methodology. In this respect, it seems I don't share the view of many ERPP scholars, who have touched on the centrality of study design issues for publication writing but have rarely seen them as significant for writing teachers. Several authors refer to Kwan's (2010) study of ERPP courses, in which she states that for a piece of research to be published successfully it must demonstrate 'command of disciplinary academic rigour' (p. 58; see Flowerdew, 2013; Corcoran & Englander, 2016; Hyland 2016b) — yet none of them, including Kwan herself, elaborates on this. She places this competence in an umbrella framework of 'Strategic research conception', which is largely taken to refer to

'the zeitgeist of a research community' (p. 58). Hyland (2016b, p. 190) describes this as 'the practices surrounding the route to … publication' which 'may seem out of place in an ERPP course', in that 'most writing for publication courses focus on rhetorical aspects of the RA'.

As noted above, however, the significance of study design in the publication uptake of international journals is well established. Hyland (2016a, p. 62) elsewhere conducts a substantial analysis of literature on academic publishing, which leads him to state: 'Research shows that a key issue for many novices is the lack of a disciplinary appropriate conceptual framework that allows them to speak with authority'. He cites many specific studies in drawing the conclusion that there is little evidence for the scale-tipping effects of EAL language issues, but rather that 'reviews … tend to focus strongly on aspects of the research itself, rather than its presentation' (p. 65). More specifically, Lillis and Curry's (2006) in-depth analysis of mediation activity separates the work of 'academic professionals' from that of 'language professionals' (p. 14), defining the former group as one which 'orients to knowledge content and claims, [and] discipline-specific discourse' whereas the latter 'tend to focus on sentence level revisions and direct translations' (pp. 15-16); English language specialists and teachers of English fall naturally into the second group. In this 2006 study, they report that 73% of all text brokers were 'academic professionals' and 24% were 'language professionals', again showing the significance of this 'academic' work. They conclude that 'a large amount of brokering is carried out by academic professionals and … although scholars tend to frame these brokers' interventions in terms of language or discourse, in fact they tend to orient to content' (p. 29). The blurred boundaries between the language of research writing and its content are also noted by Hewings (2006, p. 52) in his analysis of journal article reviews. He defines 'comments on language' as opposed to 'comments on content', saying that 'for the most part, this was unproblematic' but he later identifies cases where 'It was not always possible, however, to determine whether a comment was referring to language or content' (p. 53).

This language/content dilemma feeds directly into my own professional question: Is it appropriate for an ERPP teacher to engage with a learner's study design? For teaching social science research writing I believe that it is, basically because I do not have an easy answer to the related question: At what points do epistemological 'credibility', rhetorical logic and language structure diverge? In thinking like this, I find myself transgressing the boundaries of Lillis and Curry's (2006, 2010) mediation categories: as a disciplinary 'academic professional' supervising researchers' drafts and reviewing journal submissions, I often act as a 'language broker' by straying into detailed advice on the logical structures of English, rephrasing subheadings to maintain the focus and scope of subsections, restructuring paragraphs, suggesting topic sentences to improve flow and readability, and so on; conversely, as a 'language professional', I find myself acting as an 'academic' broker in terms of unavoidably straying into questions and comments

relating to research questions and goals, generalisation of findings, data collection and methodological legitimacy. As a result, and most significantly for my ERPP teaching, I have inadvertently conceptualised a refinement of Lillis and Curry's (2006, 2010) 'brokering' model as I work at 'methodology brokering' by taking a self-conscious step to design teaching materials which integrate so-called 'academic' structures into social science learners' language work.

## 3. A Research Writing Matrix

To address these issues directly, I have created a 'Research Writing Matrix' (Figure 2.1) as a tool to generate dialogues with learners around the currently dominant criteria for assessing the reliability or trustworthiness of their social research, and how it might be written.[1] Through this Matrix, it is possible to teach appropriate English language structures through the learner's own research study design and thereby clarify our anglophone expectations of each of the necessary conceptual stages in the research journey. This process requires that every learner is actively engaged in a research project, even if they are just starting out; they work to fill in and update their own Matrix as the course or workshop proceeds. They are asked to provide pre-course information about their project so that I can provide them with suitable published examples of relevant structures and language as exemplars. In this way, they participate in the well-established 'deconstruction' phase of the genre pedagogy cycle (see Clerehan & Moodie, 1997). If they are also required to bring to class an example of an article from their own target journal (as described in Cargill and O'Connor, 2013), they can then actively investigate how authors in their specific field and/or methodology effect each epistemological stage. The Matrix itself structures the teaching/learning process. It basically promotes a focus on the individual elements expected in a conventional social science study, in order gradually to throw light on how they relate to each other.

### *3.1.* WHAT?

The *WHAT?* of the study is driven by the design of a research question [RQ]. In teaching, stimulus activities can begin by playing games with question words, their grammar and their logics, with questions such as: 'If "How?" is the question word used, what form will its answer logically take?' This can then lead to the analysis of a published example RQ specially chosen for its relevance to as many discipline areas as possible (see also Paltridge, 2014). An example I have used, from Huang, Rozelle, Wang and Huang (2009) is: 'What are the main factors that influence the implementation of water management reform in China?' This example can be used to make explicit the following elements:

———————————

1   This Matrix is developed out of an idea put forward for research supervision by Smyth and Maxwell (2010).

| A RESEARCH WRITING MATRIX FOR ANALYSIS OF SOCIAL DATA | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| WHAT? | | | WHY? | HOW? ['WHY of HOW' & 'HOW of 'HOW'] | | ANALYSIS & CLAIMS |
| Research Question (emerging from a social problem) | *Information* from literature needed to answer question | *Type of data* needed to answer question | Key literature/ keywords Research gap? | Methodology – theoretical/ conceptual framework | Methods of (i) data collection (ii) data analysis | Using evidence from data *with theory* to answer question, solve problem or support argument |
| 1. | | | | | | |

Figure 2.1: A Research Writing Matrix for discussing research rigour in the social sciences.

1. '*What* are the *main factors* … ' = the research contribution
   *[Q — What form, logically, would the contribution of this study take?]*

2. ' … that influence' = the defining verb, the condition or action to be analysed
   *[Note the* <u>*tense*</u> *and* <u>*modality*</u> *of the verb.*
   *Q — What is the implication for data collection of this present simple verb form as distinct from alternatives such as 'have influenced' or 'can influence', 'could influence', 'might influence?]*

3. ' … the implementation' = the target of the observation and analysis
   *[Q — How will this concept be captured and understood?]*

4. ' … of water management reform' = the focus of the field topic
   *[Q — How much interest has been shown on this topic in recent publications? Why is it timely?]*

5. ' … in China' = the scoping phrase
   *[Q — What are the content and language implications of alternatives: in Asia? in Northern China? in Beijing?]*

In a further activity, I present learners with a few topics relevant to their disciplines and ask them to come up with interesting questions that could potentially make 'drivers' for research. In this way, the focus and scope of a study can be demonstrated

through language elements within its research question in terms of tense, modality, singulars/plurals, prepositional links, use of the English article to mark countable as distinct from conceptual entities, and so on.

My own genre analysis of articles in many social science disciplines shows that they usually identify early a social or contextual problem that needs to be solved. In the Huang et al. (2009) case, the problem looks like this:

> Increasing demand for China's limited water resources from *rapidly* growing industry, urban populations and agriculture implies *potentially dire* consequences for the sustainability of water resources, especially in Northern China (Zhang, 2001) … *Problems* in the water sector will *no doubt* affect China's future trade position in *key* crops and incomes in the farming sector. (Huang et al., 1999, p. 215, emphases added to show modality)

This kind of authentic example provides material for learners to discuss issues such as: 'Where, and how, is the RQ and/or social problem presented in this article? What modality is used to show how serious the problem is? Is there a clear statement of the information or specific data that are needed to answer this author's question?' Learners can then scan their own chosen example papers for answers to similar questions. Finally, they work with each other and with me to interrogate these rhetorical functions in relation to their own study and its context, so moving from deconstruction to critical co-construction.

At this point, it is extremely important for novice research writers to be able to see the two distinct kinds of information they need to gain for themselves: first, established factual material to inform their understanding of their topic and the context of their social problem; and second, exactly what they will need to learn from primary data in order to answer their research question and arrive at a potential contribution to the solution. In my experience, seeing this distinction has not been easy for learners educated in non-anglophone contexts. Consequently, they have greatly valued being involved in crafting and re-crafting their own RQ and problem statement so that these express exactly and 'reliably', in anglophone terms, the original contribution that they want their study to make.

## 3.2. 'WHY?'

The *WHY?* of a study lies in its scholarly justification. The rhetorical logic of this process was famously established in the 'CARS [Creating a Research Space]' model by Swales in 1990, and is greatly valued by EAL research writers today. The basic elements of this model involve a series of logical 'moves' which have been well explained in genre-based pedagogic literature in the natural and applied sciences (see Weissberg & Buker, 1990; Shehzad, 2008; Swales & Feak, 2012; Cargill & O'Connor, 2013). In the social sciences, learners' investigations into their target journal articles still very often

reveal these 'moves' (Wisker, 2015), though often with the goal of amending previous research outcomes in relation to a different context, or presenting counterarguments by applying diverse sources or theories. Scaffolded analysis of each of Swales's 'moves' opens opportunities for exemplifying the language in which the rhetorical purposes are realised. For example, to clarify 'Move 2: Establishing a niche' — that is, the 'gap' or limitation in existing scholarship — the Huang et al. (2009) example article demonstrates fairly typical expressions: 'In addition to the *limited* number of existing studies, most research focuses on villages that span *narrow* geographic areas. Zhang (2001) studies *only* World Bank project sites … There is *little*, *if any*, nation-wide research …' (p. 216, emphases added). If learners are supported through guided deconstruction to compose the relevant function for their own study — this latter step in co-construction with me and their classmates — then the interactive process effectively provides experience in analysing texts as well as writing them. Significantly, this interaction has also built novice researchers' confidence in sharing hesitant ideas and drafts with colleagues.

It is worth mentioning here that other important focuses can be introduced into teaching at the *WHY?* stage, especially, for example, activities to clarify anglophone concepts of plagiarism, or relevant referencing and citation styles and practices, or the art of writing topic sentences or rhetorical 'maps'. Crucially, however, in terms of research rigour, it is vital for novice social researchers to recognise the difference between their own lack of knowledge about the social problem which drives the research question (that is, the *WHAT?*), and the gap in pertinent, previously published research in the global academy that addresses their research question (that is, the 'niche' established in the *WHY?*). Above all, each set of linguistic 'moves' needs to be conceptualised and related both forwards and backwards to all the elements in the whole research journey being mapped on the Matrix.

### 3.3. 'HOW?'

In my experience, perhaps the most significant element of the Matrix for periphery researchers is located in the *HOW?* of a study, as demanded by anglophone social-scientific traditions. Almost without exception, the most unexpected and challenging aspect of rigour for my ERPP participants has been the way in which an established theoretical lens fundamentally drives analysis of social data and the analytical claims that can eventually be made, not to mention the language in which those claims are expressed. The ontological and epistemological implications of different research paradigms and 'systems of inquiry' are rarely familiar to my EAL learners. It is this which has led me to include teaching to the *WHY of HOW?* in the Matrix.

Initially, I create teaching input, materials and readings through which I can demonstrate how authors have presented, validated and then applied or amended a well-established methodology. This most often first involves diagrammatised information

showing the basic principles of positivist, constructivist, critical and post-structural research paradigms in activities which stimulate probing dialogic discussion amongst the learners. The goal is for them to begin to appreciate that for us a contribution to knowledge in the social sciences requires an established theoretical perspective and/or approach, and that researchers may aim to contribute to theory as distinct from, or as well as, to contextual social knowledge. The ways in which methodologies are written in social sciences are diverse: conceptual frameworks may be presented in figures, diagrams or text; in some disciplinary contexts, paradigms and methodologies can be assumed without specific reference, while in others they need to be named, explained and justified with scholarly support. Significantly, how quantitative and qualitative methodologies are valued is signalled through language choice: 'validity' is not evaluated on the same principles as 'trustworthiness'; research 'subjects' are not discussed in the same language as 'participants'; 'measuring' outcomes based on 'variables' is not to be confused with 'interpreting' people's perceptions and feelings. The boundaries between our conceptual criteria for research rigour and the language of its expression are patently blurred.

My ERPP learners thus analyse their own target journal articles to try to understand the extent to which, and how, the authors have expressed theoretical approaches and goals. My own role in this is not to provide technical or informed theoretical information but rather to question, clarify and facilitate each learner's understanding of their own theoretical framework, or lack of it. Without any attempt to influence a writer's own choice or construction of theoretical approach, I feel it is my business in ERPP to demonstrate the role that theory plays in a globally successful social study. In my view, it is especially significant to address how for us the theoretical lens we adopt influences our choice of qualitative and/or quantitative methodologies, data collection and analysis methods, and even our selection of literature to review. Above all, and specifically for language work, the methodology can affect macro-rhetorical choices: the logical structure of a piece of writing, its inductive or deductive argument logic, the accepted conventions of its argument expression and subheadings. At a more micro-level, it can determine rhetorical style in terms of, for example, first- or third-person authorial construction[2] (such as in a reflexive analytical narrative as distinct from impersonal, author-evacuated prose), vocabulary choice (as in the difference between 'subject' and 'subjectivity'), even singulars and plurals (as in 'literacy' or 'literacies', and 'identity' or mandated 'identities'). My teaching goal is primarily to enhance participants' control over their own writing in direct relation to the 'methodology' that they aim to use.

In this way the *WHY of HOW?* is conceptually and linguistically distinguished from the procedural writing required for research 'methods', named in the Matrix as the *HOW of HOW?* The typical elements of methods' writing such as the site, participants,

---

2    In my view, in contrast to that of Harwood and Hadley (2004), it is more appropriate in the social sciences to base an investigation into the use of first-person/third-person pronouns on a study's methodology rather than on its discipline.

procedures of data collection and analysis, are much more straightforwardly revealed in deconstruction of exemplars, both teacher- and learner-provided. These deconstructions offer opportunities for teaching to specific grammar points, especially subject-verb agreements and active/passive verb forms as appropriate for the methodology involved. The language required for writing the researcher's own project procedures — whether in the future tense for learners at the 'proposal' stage, or in the past tense for those who have already collected and analysed data — is thus made comprehensible and accessible to ERPP participants.

### 3.4. Analysis and claims

The final element in research design as we know it represents what kinds of claims can be made from data analysis, and in what language structures they may occur. These issues can be considered hypothetically and conceptually by learners who have not yet analysed data, and in real terms by those who have. Continuing to follow the deconstruction-to-co-construction process, activities and questions are designed to focus on key aspects of presenting results and expressing analysis or 'discussion' of them:

- Are the results and discussion of data separated or presented together in the example article(s)? And in your own writing?

- In what ways has the analysis clearly fulfilled the research objectives in the *WHAT?* and 'occup[ied] the niche' established earlier in the *WHY?*

- Is it appropriate to present findings in tables or figures?

- How are the analysis assertions grouped and organised? Are subheadings used to name the themes that have been developed for discussion?

- What is the final take-home message of this article? And of your own analysis? To what extent does it directly answer the Research Question(s)? By what explicit statements in 'discussion' has the author shown that the data analysis has led directly to this 'message'?

Two extremely important language features which are able to be examined at this stage are how modality is constructed to represent an appropriate strength of claim supported by the data, and how past and present tenses are used to create parameters of generalisation. Tense change, for example, can indicate a move from reporting 'results' to presenting an author's generalised claims from analysis, and this can be highly significant in building a reliable take-home message and research contribution. In my example article here, in reporting their results, Huang et al. (2009) develop strong assertions with past simple verbs:

> [O]ur data *show* that management under WUAs (Water User Associations) was more transparent. Nearly 40% of WUAs *shared* three types of information … (p. 221, emphases added)

Then, in a section called 'Descriptive analysis', they present extremely hedged claims such as:

> Our data *suggest* that the nature of a village's water resources *may play* an important role in reform …

> Descriptive analyses also *suggest* that the quality or the complexity of the irrigation infrastructure *seem to matter* …

> … the system *seems* more likely …

> … leaders *appear to be* more willing …

> … policy *appears to play* an important role …

> and so on. (pp. 221-2, emphases added)

It is noteworthy that our confidence in these authors' analytical intellect is not weakened by all this hedging because all the main comments are related back to data and so accurately reflect the 'story' that the data are telling. In fact the authors here make a strong, confident claim for the importance of their hedged conclusions: 'The finding that reform *seems to occur* in areas with relatively more available water resources *has important implications*' (p. 223, emphases added). From a methodological perspective, it is particularly interesting that this hedging is predominantly evident in the section on 'Descriptive analysis'; in the subsequent 'Multivariate analysis', unhedged assertions also occur, expressed in simple tenses and immediately tied directly to specific columns in a data table as shown below:

> Villages with relatively more water available in 1995 (*row 1, column 2*) … *were* more likely to form WUAs …

> Similarly, policy also *plays* a positive role in promoting WUAs (*row 6*) …

> The positive and significant coefficient on canal length means that villages with longer canal systems *have* a greater propensity to reform (*row 5*) … (pp. 223-4, emphases added)

Clearly, the different data analysis method employed here allows for generalised assertions requiring different language structures from the previous method.

Blurring the 'language' and 'academic' boundaries in this way has also been carried out by published academic brokers in methodology- or discipline-targeted guides (as in Holliday, 2007). In sociology, Matthews (2005, p. 806), for example, advises would-be publishing authors to 'keep attention focused on the actual data [so] write in the past tense … in order to keep in check the temptation to generalize inappropriately'. She quotes the difference for an article reviewer reading the following sentences:

> S1: Wives *are* critical of husbands who *do not do* their share of the housework.

> S2: The wives *criticized* their husbands for not doing their share of the housework. (emphases added)

She makes the point that:

> It is much easier for a reviewer to doubt the veracity of the first statement, much more difficult to doubt the second because it makes clear that the assertion is based on data provided by the wives included in the study. (p. 806)

Matthews also points to the difference between the discursive structures of aiming to present facts (as in 'John was unfairly treated by his parents') and those reporting perceptions (as in 'John felt strongly that he had been unfairly treated by his parents'), especially when 'analysts are tempted to make causal statements' (p. 806). In my teaching, it is exactly these kinds of methodologically linguistic pointers that inexperienced researchers, of both EAL and English language [EL] backgrounds, have been especially glad to investigate and practise.

Notably, however, when we work with diverse disciplines and methodologies in ERPP, our teaching focus is not on delivering direct academic advice of this kind, but rather on raising questions for training in text analysis and composing. Nevertheless, I have come to feel that for research writing in the social sciences we need to bring a scholarly perspective into our curricula. For successful rigour, knowledge claims must be seen, *in the language of the manuscript*, to fulfill certain criteria. They must

- be clearly supported by a sufficient amount of appropriately collected data
- emerge from an academy-recognised and validated data analysis procedure
- provide specific answer/s to the driving research question/s and/or fulfil stated objectives
- be directly related to established anglophone knowledge bases and theoretical positions.

The vital relationships across and among these criteria are explored and clarified by working dialogically through the columns of the Matrix.

## 4. A critical-pragmatic pedagogy

In this way, the Research Writing Matrix generates a systematic and 'academically' relevant ERPP which comprises the following activities:

1. genre-based descriptive input
2. teacher-led deconstruction of provided materials
3. learner-led deconstruction of self-chosen materials
4. dialogic critical evaluation for learners' own research contexts
5. learner-led joint composition of manuscript sections.

A further stage:

6. independent construction and assessment

is possible where time in a program permits. However, for reciprocal teaching and learning in a *trans*cultural, critical-pragmatic ERPP as described above, it is vital to ensure that time and effort are assigned to integrating activities for item (4).

For me, the primary purpose of using the Matrix is not to imprint or demand adherence to its assumptions and its logic, but rather to learn more about how mutually acceptable social research may be conceptualised and practically carried out in my learner-researchers' own contexts. This means creating a dialogic classroom environment for deliberately generating critical questions about the relevance for the learners of the norms represented by the Matrix, even as they are being clarified. This process is not new for me; I have shaped my EAP teaching in this critical-pragmatic way for many years (see Cadman, 2002, 2005). I now see such an approach to be especially crucial in ERPP today, as recently advocated by Corcoran and Englander (2016), for resisting 'the centripetal pull towards normative writing practices' (p. 4). In doing this myself, my interest has primarily been on ways in which I, as an employed teacher, can best create teacher-learner relationships on a footing that is as authentically open, sincere and 'connecting' as possible. This means that, for developing 'acceptable' research designs, to which my teaching through the Matrix leads, my goal is for us all, teacher and learners, to enjoy learning about how each others' research interests might be fulfilled in our different contexts.

My ways of doing this in my own practice relate to Pennycook's (1997) early arguments against the discourses of 'neutrality' which continue to surround the teaching of English internationally. Recently, in exploring this issue in detail for his own EAP teaching, Fenton-Smith (2014) has cited a range of scholars who believe that 'a position of impartiality with respect to course themes is possible on the part of the instructor' (p. A26). Fenton-Smith himself disagrees, arguing that this so-called 'neutrality' is 'ultimately feigned' (citing Santos, 2001) because it 'underplay[s] the power and influence of teachers over students' (p. A26). When I hear this, I feel I immediately want to say, 'Well, while I totally endorse the non-neutrality of English, my personal neutrality is *not* feigned, and it *does not* fail to interrogate my power as a teacher'. In trying to analyse this response, I draw an explicit distinction for my students between me, the human, embodied, situated and opinionated person in the classroom, and me, the representative of an institution, and spokesperson for a preordained set of intellectual values and a historically determined academic culture.

While I can obviously see some slight overlap in these personae, the distinction is clear to me and I make it quite transparent to my ERPP learners. To do this I bring to life and characterise my *pencil*: if, for example, you ask me to read and evaluate a piece of writing, *I* do not evaluate *you*; my pencil evaluates the document before it exactly as required by the target institution. If you would like, we can work together to address your skill development with extensive time and effort by me, but my 'pencil' represents my best judgement of the prevailing values, whether or not I share them. In practice,

hardly any of my ERPP participants have failed to understand and align themselves with professional imperatives like these. In our discussions, however, I am quite honest and open in expressing my personal opinions about the mores of the global academy (which are by no means necessarily favourable; see Cadman, 2014). Most significantly, my classroom curiosity about how the expectations of an anglophone research study are thought to be appropriate, or not, by novice researchers for their own communities, is entirely authentic. My sincerity in these dialogues derives from my genuine position as a non-believer in the universal superiority of anglophone knowledge making. In an earlier study, I have explained my teaching values in this way (Cadman, 2005, p. 359, emphasis in the original):

> I try to avoid approaching target genres and communication practices as a *believer* in them, converted to their purposes, without offering scope for interrogation of their assumptions or potential critique of their conventional forms. This approach closes off opportunities for the production of alternative, more representative practices. (See Canagarajah, 2001)[3]

For me, this non-believing stance underpins my initiatives with many of the strategies proposed by Corcoran and Englander (2016, p. 6), especially that of presenting all the elements in the Matrix discussed above 'from a critical angle that examines [them] in terms of increasing global English hegemony in knowledge production … ' and notably discussing variability in these elements (p. 5). Questions that have stimulated particular interest for my EAL researchers have been ones such as:

- Is there literature in your own language which throws light on these issues? How do these studies differ from the anglophone ones?

- Will these data sources work in your context? Are there others which are not typical in the dominant literature? Will these data collection procedures cause any interpersonal problems for you with your participants?

- Are there philosophical approaches or beliefs in your culture that would throw light on these issues?

- These tightly interconnected logical criteria, do you feel they constrain or limit you? In what ways?

- How could your research journey be imagined differently? What is missing in your view from the 'story' that your research will tell?

---

3    The potential for education to 'convert' came home to me when one of my children, being particularly interested in comparative religion, was disappointed to learn that his school was only 'allowed' by the relevant Department of Education and Children's Services [DECS] to teach religion for one half-day per semester. On investigating the situation, I was advised that this was an error: in fact, 'Religion Studies' was taught as a full elective subject at several different year levels; the curriculum limitation was imposed only on the teaching of religion by 'a believer in it'. Clearly, the DECS administrators saw 'believers' as the problem, and that was when I started to question the relationship between a teacher's 'beliefs' and their capacity to 'convert'.

My conclusions from the broad range of ERPP courses that I have drawn on for this paper are that in each setting learners, individually and in groups, have actively engaged in vocal interrogation and often well-reasoned rejection of the global academy's required methodological procedures. Particularly probing questions have repeatedly emerged, such as the following:[4]

- Do research processes and outcomes need to be secular, not acknowledging God or any spiritual dimension to knowledge?
- Why can't knowledge be generated by an 'extra-academic' community, one that hasn't had any academic training? (See also Cadman, 2014; Cadman & Song, 2012)
- Does 'scientific' method have to follow abstract principles? Can't it just be practical?
- Does research involve love, of any kind? Can it be mentioned in a research report?
- Why can't doctoral research be collaborative, if publications can?
- Are Aristotelian logics the only way to argue 'empirically'?
- Is there such a thing as 'Standard Academic English'? Does research have to be written in a particular style for a particular methodology? Isn't it enough for it to be clear and communicable?

To me, it has been conclusively demonstrated that this kind of transcultural critical-pragmatic ERPP pedagogy works effectively to engage a learner's situated, intellectual and affective position as a researcher. Using the Matrix in this way not only increases their evidence-based knowledge of the expectations for research rigour we require, but it also raises their doubts, frustrations and resistances, and encourages them to articulate these to each other and to me in trusted dialogic exchanges. Drafting and redrafting their own Matrix stimulates these discussions.

A brief examination of a couple of learners' Matrix drafts reflecting the proposal stage in TESOL shows some of the ways in which design elements have been taken up by learners. The work-in-progress learner ownership of the research ideas in these documents is immediately apparent in deletions, bracketed selections, insertions and self-corrections. Significantly, these participants are beginning to see how the information they have to gain from existing literature in terms of 'definition[s]', 'benefits and limitations' and the 'real situation (context) of teaching', differs from what they need to learn from their data. In Figure 2.2, for example, the researcher has worked out that they need to understand the broad concept of 'co-operative learning' before they narrow its application to a particular activity. For data collection, observations and interviews labelled in words such as 'semi-structured' may not mean that the learner understands

---

4    Please note that, while the focuses of these questions are here related faithfully, the language they are expressed in is mine.

| WHAT? [NB Focus & Scope] | | | WHY? | HOW? ['WHY of HOW' & 'HOW of 'HOW''] | | ANALYSIS & CLAIMS [Focus & Scope] |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Question | Information from literature needed to answer question | Type of data needed to answer question | Key literature/ keywords | Methodology and/or paradigm framework | Methods (1) data collection (2) data analysis | Using evidence from data to answer question, solve problem, or support argument |
| 1. What are the impacts of using Jigsaw as a cooperative learning technique on reading comprehension skills of the first year student who learn English as their second major at HANU? | – Definition of Co-operative learning. – Cooperative learning activities in Reading classes. – Definition and the use of Jigsaw activity in Reading classes. | – Student's opinions from the interviews (transcript from the recording). – Observation notes of teacher. – Journal writing of students. – tests after each Reading lesson using this method. | – Co-operative learning – Reading comprehension skills. – EFL students – EFL student in Vietnam – Jigsaw activity | – Methodology: → Qualitative – Paradigm framework → Constructivist | – Observations (Semi structured) – Semi-structured interviews – Journal Writing (Pick up 3 students on purposes to see the spectrum) | – Observation (Semi structured + Clarification) – I am going to observe students during the lesson using this activity, then I am going to pick up 3 students & to conduct the interviews (from the observation – students who enjoy the lesson, students who in the middle & students who get bored with the lesson). Next, I am going to collect the journal writing of 3 same student entries from the interviews to analyze. |
| 2. What are the students views towards the use of jigsaw as a cooperative learning technique in Reading classes? | – benefits & limitations – EFL students | | | | | |

Figure 2.2: An example draft Research Writing Matrix in TESOL.

| | WHAT? [NB Focus & Scope] | | | WHY? | HOW? ['WHY of HOW' & 'HOW of 'HOW'] | | ANALYSIS & CLAIMS [Focus & Scope] |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Question | Information from literature needed to answer question | Type of data needed to answer question | Key literature/ keywords | Methodology and/or paradigm framework | Methods (1) data collection (2) data analysis | Using evidence from data to answer question, solve problem, or support argument |

Handwritten notes across the matrix:

- 1. Do NTU students (Architecture) have positive attitudes to learning ESP?
- is it still broad? by linguistics
- 2. Can real benefits of presentation skill in learning English, especially ESP, improve NTU students' confidence, vocabulary and memorizing vocabulary of ESP?

Under "Information from literature": Real situation (context) of teaching and learning ESP program at NTU. Definition of ESP. Students' attitudes in terms of ESP.

Under "Type of data": Curriculum. Survey/interview/Affitudes to ESP learning. Answers on questions. Teacher's journal notes, on Students' performance in ESP class.

Under "Key literature/keywords": ESP, Oral presentation. ESP, learning vocab. Teach vocabulary in ESP.

Under "Methodology": Qualitative. Quantitative. — Mixed —

Under "Methods": Teacher's journal notes. Interview / data collection. survey / collection. Descriptive statistics to analyze data.

Figure 2.3: An example draft Research Writing Matrix in TESOL.

how these are carried out or how their outcomes are analysed and written about. Nevertheless, a research design is dawning. Figure 2.3 illustrates the self-questioning that the dialogic process has stimulated, as the writer asks themselves, 'Is it [the RQ] still broad?' The mixed-method study proposed here will clearly need more analysis and language work for both conducting and writing about the different kinds of analysis proposed.

In a learning context like this, 'in theory', as Corcoran and Englander (2016, p. 7) suggest, researchers can make 'informed choices of compliance, resistance or amalgam' (p. 5, citing Benesch, 2001) when they present their draft Matrix as well as their resulting manuscript for assessment. However, despite my own learners' active and critical oral discussions, when it has come to producing written accounts of their thinking, their 'informed choices' have not produced strategic variation from anglophone norms (as evident in Figures 2.2 and 2.3). In writing, participants have universally chosen to approximate prevailing values and processes in order to be found acceptable at the intersection of their own and the global anglophone criteria for epistemological rigour. Perhaps they have followed the trend described by Nguyen et al. (2009, p. 112) in which 'Western theories and practices … are thought to give a competitive edge and are considered to be fashionable and modern'. Alternatively, they may just have had doubt about my personal opinion, or a well-founded mistrust in my subservient 'pencil'. Either way, their written responses may be clearly seen to demonstrate the 'learned colonization' identified by McNiff (2012). Qi (2015, p. 198) offers a piece of challenging advice: 'Critique-based multilingual knowledge co-construction (CMKCC) starts with valuing and soliciting non-Western actors' knowledge, preferably *before* western … educators offer their concept, framework and model' (emphasis in the original). As has often been noted, to make this happen would need new vision and commitment from anglophone institutional policy makers, which in my view we are unlikely to see soon. For ERPP teachers, then, our imperatives are beautifully summarised by the Schostaks (Schostak & Schostak, 2013, p. 9): 'In the end there are no recipes to create public lives in mutual respect, only gestures towards writing'.

## 5. Conclusion

In this chapter, I have argued that in the social sciences it is both relevant and important for ERPP teachers to engage in what I have called 'methodology brokering' in order to facilitate learners' language development in direct relation to the global epistemological expectations of rigorous social research. Negotiating the expectations of a Research Writing Matrix for their own research project can greatly enhance EAL learners' chances of getting their research published in today's anglophone academy. I have shown here how in a transcultural, critical-pragmatic pedagogy, inexperienced research writers can demonstrate their understanding of research rigour by evaluating the relevance of our knowledge-making requirements for their own communities, including data collection, analysis and expected language structures. In my experience, however, while this

evaluation has been convincingly displayed in penetrating oral critique, in submitted written documents I have seen only the operations of what Schostak and Schostak (2013, p. 9) have called 'the real-politic that suppresses, represses, erases voices'.

Nevertheless, I am still confident that using the Research Writing Matrix in this way allows ERPP to fulfil a dual role for periphery novice researchers in the social sciences. First, it structures an in-depth learning of both the epistemological assumptions of anglophone research and the language in which the dominant methodological criteria are realised; second, it simultaneously makes a small but strategic step towards Qi's (2015) 'staging dissensus'. That is, using the Research Writing Matrix offers us the opportunity 'to rise above the unilateral knowledge transfer of western concepts and enable knowledge co-construction that better addresses local needs' (p. 9).

## References

Bennett, K. (2014). Discourses of knowledge: Cultural disjunctions and their implications for language industries. *Ibérica*, *27*, 35-50.

Bennett, K. (2015). Towards an epistemological monoculture: Mechanisms of epistemicide in European research publication. In R. Plo Alastrué, & C. Perez-LLantada (Eds.), *English as a scientific and research language: Debates and discourses* (pp. 9-36). Berlin: De Gruyter Mouton.

Burgess, S., & Cargill, M. (2013). Using genre analysis and corpus linguistics to teach research article writing. In V. Matarese (Ed.), *Supporting research writing: Roles and challenges in multilingual settings* (pp. 55-71). Cambridge: Woodhead.

Cadman, K. (2002). English for academic possibilities: The research proposal as a contested site in postgraduate genre pedagogy. *Journal of English for Academic Purposes*, *1*(2), 85-104.

Cadman, K. (2005). Towards a 'pedagogy of connection' in research education: A 'REAL' Story. *Journal of English for Academic Purposes*, *4*(4), 353-367.

Cadman, K. (2014). Of house and home: Reflections on knowing and writing for a 'southern' postgraduate pedagogy. In L. Thesen, & L. Cooper (Eds.), *Risk in academic writing: Postgraduate students, their teachers and the making of knowledge* (pp. 166-200). Bristol: Multilingual Matters.

Cadman, K., & Song, X. (2012). Embracing transcultural pedagogy: An epistemological perspective. In X. Song, & K. Cadman (Eds.), *Bridging transcultural divides: Asian languages and cultures in global higher education* (pp. 3-26). Adelaide: University of Adelaide Press. DOI: http://dx.doi.org/10.1017/9781922064318.

Cargill, M., & O'Connor, P. (2013). *Writing scientific research articles: Strategy and steps* (2nd ed.). Oxford: Wiley-Blackwell.

Casanave, C.P. (2008). The stigmatizing effect of Goffman's stigma label: A response to John Flowerdew. *Journal of English for Academic Purposes*, *7*(4), 264-267.

Clavero, M. (2010). Awkward phrasing. Rephrase: Linguistic injustice in ecological journals. *Trends in Ecology and Evolution*, *20*, 1-2.

Clerehan R., & Moodie, J. (1997). A systematic approach to the teaching of writing for supervisors of international candidates: Perspectives from genre theory. In R. Murray-Harvey, & H. Silins (Eds.), *Learning and teaching in higher education: Advancing international perspectives — Refereed proceedings of the HERDSA National Conference* (pp. 73-89). Adelaide: Flinders University Press.

Connell, R. (2007). *Southern theory: The global dynamics of knowledge in social science*. Sydney: Allen & Unwin.

Corcoran, J., & Englander, K. (2016). A call for critical pragmatic pedagogical approaches to English for Research Publication Purposes. *Publications*, *4*(6). Retrieved 1 May 2016 from www.mdpi.com/2304-6775/4/1/6/pdf.

Fenton-Smith, B. (2014). The place of Benesch's critical English for academic purposes in the current practice of academic language and learning. *Journal of Academic Language and Learning*, *8*(3), A23-A33.

Flowerdew, J. (2008). Scholarly writers who use English as an additional language: What can Goffman's '*stigma*' tell us? *Journal of English for Academic Purposes*, *7*, 77-86.

Flowerdew, J. (2013). English for Research Publication Purposes. In B. Paltridge, & S. Starfield (Eds.), *The handbook of English for Specific Purposes* (pp. 301-321). London: Wiley & Sons.

Harwood, N., & Hadley, G. (2004). Demystifying institutional practices: Critical pragmatism and the teaching of academic writing. *English for Specific Purposes*, *23*, 355-377.

Hewings, M. (2006, November). English language standards in academic articles: Attitudes of peer reviewers. *Revista Canaria de Estudios Ingleses*, *53*, 47-62.

Holliday, A. (2007). *Doing and writing qualitative research* (2nd ed.). London: Sage.

Huang, Q., Rozelle, S., Wang, J., & Huang, J. (2009). Water management institutional reform: A representative look at Northern China. *Agricultural Water Management*, *96*(2), 215-225.

Hyland, K. (2016a). Academic publishing and the myth of linguistic injustice. *Journal of Second Language Writing*, *31*, 58-69.

Hyland, K. (2016b). *Academic publishing: Issues and challenges in the construction of knowledge*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Kwan, B.S.C. (2010). An investigation of instruction in research publishing offered in doctoral programs: The Hong Kong case. *Higher Education*, *59*, 55-68.

Lillis, T.M., & Curry, M.J. (2006). Professional academic writing by multilingual scholars: Interactions with literacy brokers in the production of English-medium texts. *Written Communication*, *23*(1), 3-35.

Lillis, T., & Curry, M.J. (2010). *Academic writing in a global context: The politics and practices of publishing in English*. London: Routledge.

Lillis, T., & Curry, M.J. (2015). The politics of English, language and uptake: The case of international journal article reviews. *AILA Review*, *28*, 127-150.

Lillis, T., Magyar, A., & Robinson-Pant, A. (2010). An international journal's attempts to address inequalities in academic publishing: Developing a writing for publishing program. *Compare*, *40*(6), 781-800.

Matthews, S. (2005). Crafting qualitative research articles on marriage and families. *Journal of Marriage and Family*, *67*(4), 799-808.

McNiff, J. (2012). Travels around identity: Transforming cultures of learned colonization. *Educational Action Research*, *20*(1), 129-146.

Mertkan S., Arsan, N., Cavlan, G.I., & Aliusta, G.O. (2016). Diversity and equality in academic publishing: The case of educational leadership. *Compare: A Journal of Comparative and International Education*. DOI: http://dx.doi.org/10.1080/03057925.2015.1136924.

Nguyen, P.-M., Elliott, J.G., Terlouw, C., & Pilot, A. (2009). Neocolonialism in education: Cooperative learning in an Asian context. *Comparative Education*, *45*(1), 109-130.

Paltridge, B. (2014). What is a good research project? *Language Education in Asia*, *5*(1), 20-27.

Pennycook, A. (1997). Vulgar pragmatism, critical pragmatism, and EAP. *English for Specific Purposes*, *16*(4), 253-270.

PRISEAL. (2015, October 30-November 1). Conference program. *PRISEAL 3*, *Coimbra 2015*, University of Coimbra, Portugal. Retrieved 6 March 2016 from https://ppriseal.webs.ull.es/Abstracts_and_programme.html.

Qi, J. (2015). *Knowledge hierarchies in transnational education: Staging dissensus*. London: Routledge.

Santos, B.S., Nunes, J.A., & Meneses, M.P. (2007). Introduction: Opening up the canon of knowledge and recognition of difference. In B.S. Santos (Ed.), *Another knowledge is possible: Beyond Northern epistemologies*. London: Verso.

Schostak, J., & Schostak, J.F. (2013). *Writing research critically: Developing the power to make a difference*. London: Routledge.

Shehzad, W. (2008). Move two: Establishing a niche. *Ibérica*, *15*, 25-50.

Smith, B. (1998, September). 'It doesn't count because it's subjective!' (Re)conceptualising the qualitative researcher role as 'validity' embraces subjectivity. Paper presented the *AARE Annual Conference*, Adelaide, Australia. Retrieved 18 April 2016 from www.aare.edu.au/data/publications/1998/smi98278.pdf.

Smyth, R., & Maxwell, T.W. (2010). *The research matrix: An approach to supervision of higher degree research students*. Crawley, WA: HERDSA.

Swales, J.M. (1990). *Genre analysis: English in academic and research settings*. London: Cambridge University Press.

Swales, J.M., & Feak, C.B. (2012). *Academic writing for graduate students: Essential tasks and skills* (3rd ed.). Ann Arbor, MI: University of Michigan Press.

Weissberg, R., & Buker, S. (1990). *Writing up research: Experimental research report writing for students of English*. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice Hall Regents.

Wisker, G. (2015). *Getting published: Academic publishing success*. London: Palgrave Macmillan.