

Under Review: Source Use and Speech Representation in the Critical Review Essay

by

Stephanie Bell

A thesis  
presented to the University of Waterloo  
in fulfilment of the  
thesis requirement for the degree of  
Doctor of Philosophy  
in  
English

Waterloo, Ontario, Canada, 2012

© Stephanie Bell 2012

I hereby declare that I am the sole author of this thesis. This is a true copy of the thesis, including any required final revisions, as accepted by my examiners.

I understand that my thesis may be made electronically available to the public.

## Abstract

This thesis features a qualitative study of student source use and speech representation in two corpora of review essays that acknowledges the complexity of classroom writing contexts and the rhetorical nature of school genres. It asks how students engage with the texts they review, for what reasons, and in response to what aspects of the writing context. When considered as a distinct genre of student assignment, review essays make for a particularly interesting study of source engagement because they challenge students to maintain an authoritative voice as novices evaluating the work of an expert. In addition, citation issues in the review assignment might not be as obvious to students or their instructors as they would be, for instance, in a research paper for which multiple sources are consulted and synthesized. The review essays interrogated in this study were collected with appropriate ethics clearance from two undergraduate history courses. The analysis is extended to a small corpus of published reviews assigned as model texts in one of these courses. The study features a robust method that combined applied linguistics and discourse analysis to tease out connections between the grammatical structures of speech reports and their argumentative roles. This method involved a recursive process of classifying speech reports using Swales' (1990) concepts of integral and non-integral citation, Thompson and Yiyun's (1991) classifications of speech act verbs, and Vološinov (1929/1973) and Semino and Short's (2004) models of speech reporting forms. In addition, the analysis considered the influence of the writing context on the students' citation practices and took into account theories of rhetorical genre and student identity. The results show connections between assignment instructions and the effective and problematic ways students engaged with the texts they reviewed, such as a correlation between a directive to reduce redundancy and the absence of in-text attributions. Most notably, this study offers a fluid set of descriptors of the forms and functions of speech reports in student coursework that can be used by students, educators, plagiarism adjudicators, as well as scholars of rhetoric and composition, to illuminate some of the methods and motives of student source use.

## Acknowledgements

I have made my way through this dissertation project with guidance and support from an army of patient, supportive, and encouraging friends, family, colleagues, and supervisors and with financial support from Ontario Graduate Scholarships and a SSHRC Doctoral Fellowship.

Many thanks to profs Catherine Schryer, Neil Randall, Andrew McMurry, and Jay Dolmage as well as the University of Waterloo's Department of English for providing a supportive and flexible learning environment. I am particularly indebted to my esteemed advisor, Dr. Catherine Schryer, whose reliability was reassuring at each turn. Dr. Schryer, thank you for gracefully providing the guidance that lent structure and purpose to my research interests. I would also like to extend special thanks to Dr. Neil Randall, who was always able to tell me why my insights were interesting and exciting.

My research for this dissertation was made possible by the course instructors who allowed me access to their classrooms and by the many student writers who bravely volunteered their essays for such close analysis.

For introducing me to this rich and important field of study and arming me with the analytical skills to partake in it, I thank the staff at Wilfrid Laurier University's Writing Centre. The teaching and training experiences I received as an undergraduate tutor and graduate writing advisor at the Writing Centre informed my foundational claim in this project: that student writing is dynamic, representing a complex of interests, concerns, anxieties, and needs.

Finally, I would have long given up on this degree without the continuing support and patience of my family. Thank you, mom, for teaching me to write. Thank you, dad, for your encouragement – I'll always know that you believed in me. Thank you, Melanie, for your spirited conversations. And thank you to my fiancé, David, for tolerating so graciously these years of stress. No thanks to the cats, on whom I blame any typos in this manuscript.

For dad



Among Things that Grow

Dad's blood grew in bone  
sprouted from tubers a genealogy of fields  
His veins weren't rivers,  
vestiges of [eye roll] primordial seas  
At best he'd breathe lake breezes  
on two weeks of rented beach  
Canoeing out for panoramas of tree-clad hills  
setting his catches free, swimming wearing shoes  
But he'd drive home counting bales  
And looking through barns, remembering  
His blood runs like grain  
Smooth through spread fingers

# Table of Contents

List of Figures	vii
List of Tables	viii
List of Abbreviations	ix
<b>Part 1: Introduction</b>	
1. Introduction to a study of “speech reporting practices”	2
2. Review of literature: Research on reported speech and theories of authorship	18
3. Methods: Data collection and analysis	51
<b>Part 2: Case Studies</b>	
4. OMIT NEEDLESS WORDS: The absence of integral attribution in the History Methods’ corpus of student review essays	78
5. Model features: The use of reported speech in published reviews	112
6. Mirror mirror on the wall... The novice’s relationship with model texts	153
7. Source use and misuse in the American History corpus of student review essays	188
<b>Part 3: Conclusions</b>	
8. Conclusions	218
References	244
Appendices	265
i. Example of coding	
ii. Semino and Short’s (2004) model of speech, writing, and thought representation	
iii. Descriptors of speech reporting forms present in the present study corpora	
iv. Assignment Descriptions	
v. Speech act verb comparison between the History Methods student review essays and the corpus of published reviews that they used as genre models	

# List of Figures

Figure 1: The presence of FFIR and FFIR+ in corpus of History Methods' student reviews

Figure 2: The presence of direct speech reporting forms in the corpus of published reviews

Figure 3: The presence of indirect speech reporting forms in the corpus of published reviews

Figure 4: The frequency of direct speech instances in the student review essays and published reviews

Figure 5: Comparison of the consistency of the use and identification of FFIR in the student review essays and published reviews

Figure 6: Speech act verbs per page (250 words) in corpora of student and published reviews

Figure 7: Comparison of speech act verbs between the History Methods student review essays and the published reviews

Figure 8: American History student writers' treatment of the text-under-review

# List of Tables

Table 1: Evaluative categories of speech act verbs (SAV) modified from Thompson & Yiyun (1991)

Table 2: Semino and Short's (2004) model of thought, speech, and writing representation

Table 3: Corpus of student book reviews written for an American History course

Table 4: Corpus of student book reviews written for a History Methods course

Table 5: Corpus of published reviews referenced in the corpus of History Methods' student book reviews

Table 6: Categorization of the corpus of published book reviews

Table 7: Unattributed reported speech in Greg's review essay

Table 8: Key findings in the corpus of History Methods student review essays

Table 9: Key findings in the corpus of published reviews

Table 10: Key findings in the corpus of American History student review essays



## List of Abbreviations

CDR	Classic direct representation of reported speech
FDR	Free direct representation of reported speech
SUM	Summary
ICP	Indirect content paraphrase
ICP+	Indirect content paraphrase mixed with direct speech slips
FFIR	Framed free indirect representation of reported speech
FFIR+	Framed free indirect representation of reported speech mixed with direct speech slips
IERS	Indirect representation of embedded reported speech
IERS+	Indirect representation of embedded reported speech mixed with direct representations of embedded reported speech
BR	Brief recommendations
SAR	Standard academic reviews
TC	Thorough Considerations
NE	Narrated encounters

# Part 1

## Introduction

## Chapter 1

### Introduction to a study of “speech reporting practices”

The irony inherent in the issue of student plagiarism is that higher education is largely about mimesis. Undergraduate education is, in part, a process of learning to internalize through imitation the languages, argumentative styles, and structures of the texts produced within fields of study and practice. Instructors want student assignments to look and read like texts that have been produced by field researchers, bank branch managers, philosophers, or clinical psychologists—anyone but undergraduate students. As Bartholomae (1985/2003) aptly observes:

Every time a student sits down to write for us, he has to invent the university for the occasion—invent the university, that is, or a branch of it, like history or anthropology or economics or English. The student has to learn to speak our language, to speak as we do, to try on the peculiar ways of knowing, selecting, evaluating, reporting, concluding, and arguing that define the discourse of our community. (p. 623)

## *1. Introduction*

Many students may not be able to “use their own words” with a great degree of success, nor can they feel a great deal of affinity for the foreign ways of speaking about and investigating the world that they are expected to adopt and use with ease in their written academic work. While warnings against intentional and unintentional plagiarism often suggest that students endeavour to construct original texts written in their “own voice,” the reality is that students are expected to construct imitations—to conform by finding ways to perform the identity, style, and methods of a discourse participant. However, within the classroom, writers are first and foremost students in degree-granting programs. They are assigned written work for the purpose of achieving levels of facility with established learning objectives (represented by grades). In this context, students have few opportunities for actual participation in the learning/knowledge/professional communities of practice and are expected to imitate their written (and spoken) discourses from a position on the sidelines.

Recent research on the ways student writers engage with sources acknowledges this imitative mode of adopting a new or foreign disciplinary language and encourages a multifaceted approach to addressing the “problem of plagiarism.” Rebecca Moore Howard's extensive body of research (starting in 1993) is, perhaps, most encompassing. Her research develops from the argument that patchwriting—“copying from a source text and then deleting some words, altering grammatical structures, or plugging in one-for-one synonym substitutes” (1993, p. 233)—should not be punished as a transgression of an academic “law.” Patchwriting is, she contends, positive evidence of students’ attempts to gain entrance into the new community’s discourse and, therefore, should be treated as an opportunity to teach students how to move towards more effective methods of source engagement (1993; 1995).

## 1. Introduction

She (2000) eventually calls for the academy to abandon the term *plagiarism* altogether in favour of “fraud” “citation” and “repetition” (three distinct categories).

Most recently, Howard and Jamieson have undertaken The Citation Project in an effort to move beyond anecdotal accounts of problematic student source use, which far from suggesting widespread moral decay indicate that “we are...in the midst of a revolution in literacy, and teachers’ responses must be more complex” (Howard, 2003, p. 789). The goal of this project is to provide a reliable set of findings about college writers’ source use—reliable because of the large number of study participants and the method of citation content analysis that they use to interrogate the study corpus. Because this method involves time-consuming close discourse analysis (e.g., Fairclough, 2003) to carefully delineate the relationship between the citing and cited works, it is not often employed in the analysis of larger study corpora. It is more typical to use software to, for instance, code for speech reporting verbs (e.g., “*said*,” “*reported*,” “*claimed*”) (i.e., Hyland, 2002a; Diani, 2009). Howard and Jamieson’s Citation Project promises to illuminate the *choices* students make when deciding how to report source material (see <http://citationproject.net> for more information).

The value in Howard and Jamieson’s efforts is clearly evidenced by Giltrow's (2001) fruitful rhetorical approach to understanding her students’ use of summary. By analyzing her students’ summaries within the context of the rhetorical situation (Bitzer, 1968)—the exigencies, audiences, and constraints that influence the construction of a text—Giltrow finds that “[s]tudents’ ideas of summary are indices of the ideological atmosphere which surrounds language education and institutional uses of language” (p. 100). She observes, for example,

## *1. Introduction*

that students overlook the evaluative potential of summary because of a perceived need to judiciously attribute and maintain the integrity of source material:

Student writers' anxieties about citation—the insecurity of one's 'own opinion,' the immanent penalty for appropriation—suggest that they may experience summary as only *one* move, to the cited position, from which they disappear unless tracked down by the law and charged with plagiarism. (p. 100)

Giltrow's approach shows consideration for students as intelligent, tactical writers working within a complex of constraints. As such, she moves beyond simply complaining about problematic student source use and comes to a better understanding of why students make the discursive choices that they do.

The movement toward a rhetorical understanding of student source use might be interpreted as a repetition of the theoretical turn made over four decades ago in reaction to the tradition of complaining about the ostensible continual deterioration of student writing (Greenbaum, 1969). Just as in the past, the composition scholar's response to the institutional anxiety over an apparent ever-increasing amount of student plagiarism threatening the legitimacy and value of university-granted degrees needs to be research that demonstrates the ways student source use is a functional, rhetorical component of the action-oriented discourse of the student paper. As Giltrow's (2001) analysis demonstrates, this kind of approach has the potential to illuminate the forces shaping student engagement with sources and, thus, to support a more informed pedagogy. In this study, I seek to contribute to this research through a rhetorical analysis of the discursive features that serve to represent conscious, explicit, and marked interactions with source material in two case studies of critical review assignments written for undergraduate history courses in a Canadian university. My objectives involve

## *1. Introduction*

both coming to a better understanding of the “whys” and “hows” of student source use as well as developing a reliable and productive method of analysis that can account for these practices. This study is guided by three primary contentions:

1. The ways students use sources and represent reported speech are directly connected to the assignments, audiences, course environments, and institutional contexts in which they are used. Since the most immediate context for student writing involves the assignment instructions, genre models and/or any additional writing guidance provided for the assigned writing task, the instructor/grader as a primary audience, and the classroom environment, it makes sense to investigate student source use as part of thoughtful responses to this context and specifically to assignment instructions.
2. Source use that seems to transgress institutional policy or typical genre conventions can be an intentional, even strategic response to an assignment task and yet not have been an intentionally transgressive act; and, save for instances of fraud (e.g., submitting an assignment that has been authored by someone else entirely), is generally not worthy of a kind of response different from, for instance, how a weak thesis statement would be addressed.
3. Citation and source use should be considered branches of reported speech, which involves a variety of speech reporting forms, citation styles, and attribution practices.

This last contention is crucial. I propose that the nomenclature of “speech reporting practices” is better able to account for the ways students use sources than the commonplace language of citation. “Citation” connotes the need to identify the source of a speech report

## *1. Introduction*

and to do so according to the formalized style rules set out in disciplinary manuals of style (e.g., APA, MLA, or CS). These are, perhaps, the most conspicuous or tangible aspects of source use because the absence of citation or an error in the application of a particular style are easily identifiable. But source use is more subtle and complex, involving largely tacit community-, genre-, and context-specific practices. Research from a variety of disciplines, for instance, has shown that source use varies across fields of study (Hyland, 1999, 2002a), cultures (Belcher, 1994; Bloch & Chi, 1995), and over time (Bazerman, 1988; Salager-Meyer, 2000); that the grammatical structure of speech reports can convey the writer's opinion of a source and its author (Vološinov, 1929/1973; Fludernik, 1993; Semino & Short, 2004); that speech reporting practices involve issues of voice, stance and source demarcation (Dong, 1996; Borg, 2000; Groom, 2000); that representations of reported speech can involve the strategic placement of attribution information (Swales, 1986, 1990) and the use of speech act verbs (Thompson & Yiyun, 1991); and that attribution tactics are connected to issues of responsibility for an assertion (Tadros, 1993) and the truth-status of information (Latour & Woolgar, 1979; Scollon, 1994).

Using the nomenclature of speech reporting practices, I theorize three interrelated groups of speech reporting practices, including (1) citation, or the stylized representation of source information, which is typically a disciplinary or publication conversation; (2) attribution, or the location of source information within a text and the syntactic role it plays; and (3) speech reporting forms, involving the conventional discourse patterns used to present reported speech in a community (or corpus) of writers, such as summary, paraphrase and other forms of indirect speech as well as forms of directly quoted speech. Focusing on attribution and speech reporting forms in my analysis of student writing, I demonstrate that



## *1. Introduction*

this conceptualization of speech reporting practices can be used to build a fluid set of descriptors of the forms of speech reports and their functions in student writing.

Before I explain these categories of speech reporting practices in detail, it is useful to clarify my use of the term “reported speech.” This choice in terminology reflects a basic distinction between implicit and explicit instances of “intertextuality” (Kristeva, 1969/1980), which might be said to exist on a continuum of expressions of textual relations. As Bakhtin’s (1981; 1984; 1986) theory of the utterance reminded the West, discourse is not monologic but dialogic, polyphonic, and addressive; it “lies on the borderline between oneself and the other” and can be said to be “half someone else’s” (1981, p. 293). Indeed, there is a great deal of implicit intertextuality in discourse, in which a writer consciously or unconsciously invokes former utterances and their sources. For example, within this category of implicit intertextuality I would locate biblical, topical, personal, imitative, and structural allusions to other persons, texts and narratives as well as events. The reader must be informed in order to recognize this kind of allusion and writers have to understand how and when it is appropriate to use implicit or unmarked intertextuality.

Reported speech is a more tangible intertextuality in which the connection between texts is made explicit in a way that could be revealing of, for instance, the writer’s reception of the reported speech, the relationship of the reported speech to its new discursive context, and the writer’s professional allegiances. I am using the term “speech” to refer to oral and written utterances. I prefer this term despite the fact that “reported discourse” or “reported text” could easily be used to refer to the same set of phenomena in a more broadly theoretical manner; both “discourse” and “text” invoke the ideological nature of linguistic expressions and position them as things to be studied. The term “speech,” though, seems to posit more

## 1. Introduction

clearly linguistic expressions as actions, evoking an image of a speaker dictating, rattling on, whispering, explicating, ranting, et cetera. For this reason, “speech” is well suited for use within a rhetorical study of utterances as instances of social participation and action. However, despite the speaker image that “speech” conjures, I do not intend to either privilege or equate oral and written discourse, which I see as both different and equally worthy modes of discourse. It is possibly for the above reasons that “reported speech” is commonly used in research on source use in a variety of fields such as linguistics, poetics, psychology, philosophy of language, and composition theory in studies of conversational and written utterances.

In this study, I contend that reported speech can be analyzed from three different albeit overlapping angles as a means of capturing the variety of social acts to which speech reporting practices can contribute: citation, attribution, and form. Consider, for example, the functioning of these elements of reported speech in the following excerpt from Robin’s (2004) discussion of academic wrongdoing.<sup>1</sup> The excerpt comes from Robin’s explication of what has come to be known as “the Yanomami controversy,” a case of academic misconduct against journalist Patrick Tierney’s account of the measles epidemic among the Yanomami (the indigenous people of the Amazon River basin) in *Darkness in El Dorado*.<sup>2</sup> *Darkness* was condemned by the American Anthropological Association shortly after its publication for

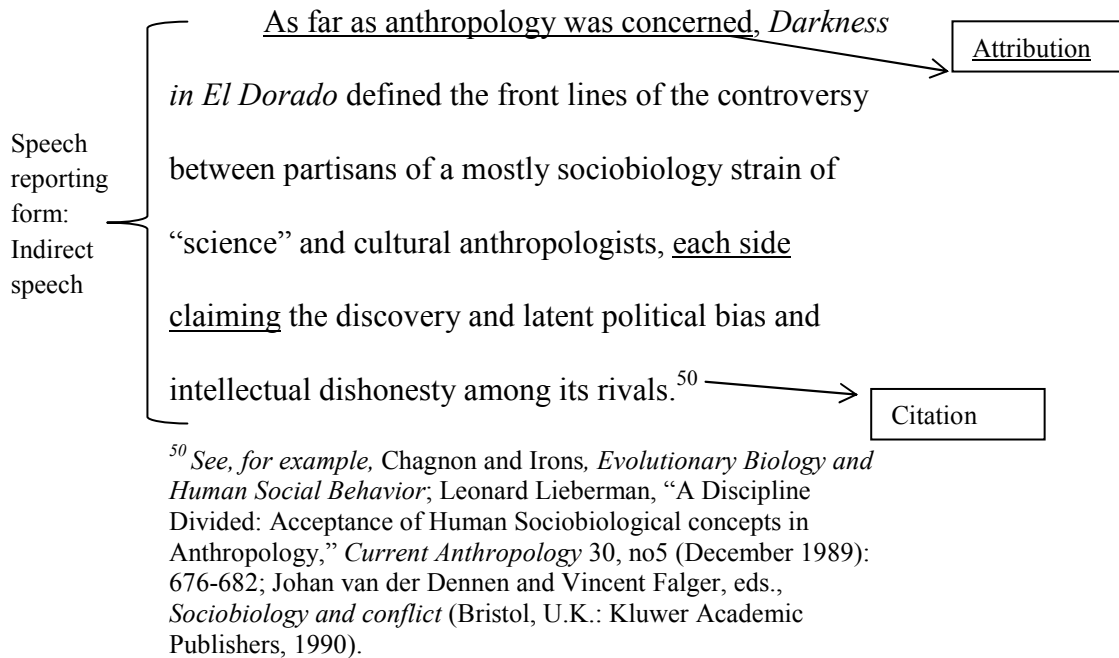
---

<sup>1</sup> I offer this brief analysis as a means of introducing the three aspects of reported speech that I theorize. A more comprehensive rhetorical analysis of the speech reporting practices in this excerpt that takes into account the writing context and disciplinary conventions would be required for a more reliable and insightful understanding of the three aspects of reported speech.

<sup>2</sup> Robin explains that in this instance, anthropologists took issue with Tierney’s accusation in *Darkness* that the Yanomami were subject to medical experimentation under the guise of treatment that resulted in an epidemic of the measles rather than a containment of the disease (p. 139). Tierney’s argument was inflammatory, condemning the geneticist on the case and the American government of an imperialist attitude that cast the Yanomami as worthy medical subjects on which to test the theory of selective adaptation.

1. Introduction

being largely unoriginal and “seriously flawed: ill-informed, deliberately sensationalist, and offering an unconvincing conspiracy thesis” (p. 155). The complicated case of misconduct involved a number of different players, whose views Robin reported with ease. Consider the ways in which he uses citation, attribution, and form in the following excerpt:



*Citation style* is the stylized attribution of another's utterance for the purposes of communicating pertinent information about the source text. Issues of citation range from the choice of a suitable style (e.g., APA, MLA, or CS) for a discursive task—which depends, for instance, on the importance of each piece of source information to the discussion or the extent to which a conversation about the source's roots and archival history is relevant—to the consistent implementation of that style throughout a text. An analysis of citation in the above excerpt would consider the use of endnotes to offer an extended list of sources that exemplify the argumentative division the author describes in the text. The endnote style offers Robin the ability to provide supplementary information about sources without

## *1. Introduction*

inhibiting the flow and momentum of his main discussion. However, removing the citation information from the main discussion, in this case to a later “Notes” section, does downplay the importance of the source material, indicating to the reader that it is supplementary.

Because discussions about citation style typically occur amongst the editorial boards of journals as a decision pertaining to whole disciplinary and discursive communities, I have chosen not to explore it in my corpus of student texts. Instead, I focus on the ways students find to syntactically integrate attribution information into the body of their arguments.

*Attribution practices* involve the placement of source information as a means of communicating the source's relevance to the subject of discussion or argument being put forward. Issues of attribution practices range from textually integrated or “integral” attributions (Swales, 1990)—involving, for instance, the strategic uses of speech act verbs (Hyland, 2002a; Thomas and Hawes, 1994; Thompson and Ye, 1991)—and non-integral (Swales, 1990) attributions wherein source information is removed from the main discussion to a marginal note.

In the above example, reported speech is attributed to two sub-groups of anthropologists. In the first instance of integral attribution, the academic field is personified as an entity which has spoken about a problematic publication (“As far as anthropology was concerned...”) in a manner that serves to depict the field as a dynamic hub of activity. In addition, this attribution strategy allows Robin to invite the reader to rely on his authority, which does not require a performance of proof for his claim about the divisions within the field through a lengthy list of individual sources. Instead, we find this information in an endnote where it is provided for inquisitive readers to discover more about the issue. The second instance of integral attribution (“each side claiming”) serves to introduce an overview

## 1. Introduction

of the controversy using a relatively neutral speech reporting verb (“claiming”) that implies extensive argumentation to uphold a certain version of truth. Through this attribution strategy, Robin maintains his own neutrality on the matter and does not allow his discussion to diverge into an in-depth consideration of either side of the argument.

*Speech reporting forms* are the methods of representing speech that have “crystallized” (Vološinov, 1929/1973, p. 117) as typical or conventional linguistic methods of representing, reporting, and attributing source material. Many taxonomies have been constructed to classify and identify these forms, mostly ranging from forms of direct representations of reported speech, which involve reporting the utterance unchanged (in academic circles, direct speech is commonly referred to as “quotation” after the punctuation marks that are typically required to demarcate unaltered reported speech) to forms of indirect representations of reported speech, which involve representations of speech acts that do not feature direct excerpts. Like other elements of reported speech, these forms are rhetorical devices involved in the construction of argument and the writer’s articulation or implication of his or her stance on the reported speech. They can be used independently or in combination and exist in both single and sustained instances. For example, Robin’s statement above offers an overview of a controversy without relaying the words of the reported speakers or providing the details about specific arguments and their structures of evidence. As such, he avoids a distracting and unnecessarily detailed discussion that is not pertinent to his argument. This speech reporting form is summary, a form of indirect speech that offers a general, non-specific overview of the topics or themes of a speech report.

In the present study, I draw on the models of speech reporting forms formulated by Vološinov (1929/1973), Fludernik (1993), and Semino and Short (2004) through a process of

## *1. Introduction*

identifying and defining the speech reporting forms present in my study corpus. I draw on these models to facilitate my analysis of speech reporting forms but I am careful to create classifications and descriptors that reflect the speech reporting practices in my specific study corpora. Indeed, these theorists offer their models of speech reporting forms as fluid sets of descriptors. Vološinov (1929/1973) was an early proponent of flexible taxonomies, arguing that “static and inert” taxonomies result from “the fundamental error of virtually divorcing the reported speech from the reporting context”—an error that can be avoided by investigating the “dynamic interrelationship” between the reporting context and the reported speech (p. 119). This is what I hope to achieve as I consider student speech reporting practices in light of the rhetorical context for which they were crafted. In order to gather an understanding of these rhetorical contexts, I designed a methodology that not only included analysis of assignment instructions and course syllabi but also involved opportunities to observe the course lectures and consult with the course instructors about their approach to teaching “citation” and source use. These interviews were also designed as opportunities to learn more about the disciplinary conventions for using sources and representing reported speech.

I maintain that as a richly rhetorical, complex, functional, and situated set of discourse features, reported speech can only ever be studied in relation to context as “genred” conventions tied to “stabilized-for-now” (Schryer, 1993) speech genres. Rhetorical genre theory founded on Miller's (1984) reconceptualization of genres as diachronic forms shaped by their use for social action is a useful framework for understanding the variations in conventional speech reporting practices between texts. In this study, I draw on rhetorical genre theory to help understand that reported speech is a feature of genred discourse as an

## *1. Introduction*

aspect of the “constellations of regulated, improvisational strategies” (Schryer, 2002, p. 74) that comprise genres. While one of the central uses of rhetorical genre theory is to discover, identify, and illuminate genres (and their various sets and systems) I do not seek to achieve such lofty aims. My corpus of student book reviews is too small to make generalizations about genre. I do, however, consider features of the review genre as part of the rhetorical context within which I analyze speech reporting practices. The review genre, for example, is a diverse set of sub-genres ranging from online forums where consumers can offer feedback on products to book-jacket blurbs, review essays in newspapers and academic journals, and shorter reviews in periodicals intended to guide librarians and book purchasers. In academic contexts, review genres are actually fairly contentious as their scholarly contributions are limited by a variety of factors such as the pressures reviewers feel to be diplomatic given that the reviewed subject is often not only an audience member but also a fellow colleague for whom a negative review can impact career advancement. In addition, the reputation of the review genre is hindered by the space constraints that limit the detail and complexity of a review’s argument, the fact that reviews are not considered publications worthy of note in hiring and tenure decisions, and the practice of publishers contracting reviews to boost sales.

The genre of the review assignment makes for a particularly interesting study of speech reporting practices because the central, most often only, source is foregrounded as the subject of the essay. In fact, because the review assignment involves engagement with just one source and offers the opportunity for students to practise important skills like reading comprehension, summary, evaluation, and argument, some instructors might consider it to be an ideal introductory task in advance of the research essay. However, this might not be the case. The need to engage in depth with a single source whose publication details are provided

## *1. Introduction*

up front as part of the title might actually pose some uniquely challenging speech reporting issues for student writers. For instance, students must find strategies that allow them to summarize the text-under-review without repeating source information too often and yet clarifying that they are not appropriating the source's arguments. Repeated in-text attributions do not just pose stylistic problems but also threaten to undermine the student writer's authority as he or she constantly defers to the expert voice. The review also requires that students find discursive strategies for demarcating between their commentary as critical reviewers and the source material they are discussing—if they recognize the opportunity to combine evaluation and summary. The need to summarize and evaluate without providing redundant attribution information complicates the typical citation advice or rules and threatens to run students afoul of plagiarism. Throughout the writing process students must make careful decisions about when to provide (or not) attribution information and how to do so in appropriate yet creative ways.

The review assignment also challenges students to become conscious of their relationship with published academic research. While many undergraduate students see books as neutral purveyors of information and facts, the review requires a sophisticated understanding of the tenuous nature of historical knowledge involving recognition that reconstructions of the past are limited by research questions, hinged on methods, and contingent on evidence. The kind of relationship that a reviewer needs to have with the text-under-review is reliant on this conception of historical research. The review also challenges students to don an authoritative position in relation to the reviewed work. This has the potential to be challenging for students who might feel that their authority as a critical reviewer is undermined by their experience with the genre of assignment, their familiarity



## *1. Introduction*

with the subject of discussion, their writing location outside of the “discourse community” (Bizzell, 1992), and their restrictions as students within institutions of higher education (Giltrow [2001], for instance, points to the influence of plagiarism policy on student reluctance to write evaluative summaries). The review assignment allows me to study the attribution practices and speech reporting forms students use within this challenging and complex writing context and to develop a method to capture student source use as strategic, rhetorical moves.

There are also some limitations to the review assignment as a means of studying student speech reporting practices. Unlike other assignment types such as the research essay or the historiography paper, the review does not conventionally require students to conduct research or synthesize material from multiple sources. The review does not promise to demonstrate a student’s ability to find sources or to judge their credibility and relevance to the assignment. Neither will the review show how students find ways to orchestrate information from multiple sources in an effort to construct an interpretation of the past. A study of student source use in the review assignment will, therefore, not be entirely comprehensive. It promises to illuminate the speech reporting practices students use in response to the exigencies of an argument focused on a single text.

This study is organized into three parts: introductory materials, case studies, and conclusions. The introductory materials offer a review of theories of originality, authorship, and language, as well as research on issues of source use ranging from the fields of applied linguistics, information science, journalism, and composition, showing that “citation” is a rich set of discursive features at the heart of academic and professional writing that requires a greater amount of understanding from its teachers and rule-makers. The methods chapter of

## *1. Introduction*

this introductory section describes the data collection and analysis processes. In this chapter, I make an argument for an approach to analyzing student speech reporting practices involving three recursive analysis phases: (1) identifying and defining attribution tactics and speech reporting forms, (2) interpreting each use of these tactics and forms within the rhetorical writing context, and (3) coding these interpretation notes to look for patterns across the data set. The second section boasts two case studies of review assignments, one given in a History Methods course and the other in a survey course of American history. In these chapters, I present the results of using the three-stage method for analyzing student source use that I delineate in Chapter 3, showing how student discourse practices are strategic uptakes of assignment instructions. I invest three full chapters on the corpus of student reviews written in the History Methods course, the first to explain the speech reporting practices the students use in their review essays, the second to explain the speech reporting practices present in the published reviews that these students considered in their essays as per the assignment instructions, and a third to compare both sets of findings in an effort to determine the relationship between the student writers and the published genre models. In the conclusions section, I summarize the insights of these case studies as they pertain to assignment design, genre theory, plagiarism adjudication practices, and future studies of student source use.

## Chapter 2

### Review of literature: Research on reported speech and theories of authorship

#### **Models of Speech Reporting Practices**

My approach to illuminating the ways students navigate the speech reporting demands of their review assignments involves a theorization of “speech reporting practices”—the dialogical, rhetorical, action-oriented representations of another’s speech. I use this nomenclature as a means of capturing the complexity of source engagement, which Giltrow et al. emphasize in their introduction to academic writing for undergraduate students:

Equally intricate are the systems that direct writers to quote a lot, or not much, or quote directly, or to paraphrase, or to put other writers’ names in the reporting sentence, or to put them in parentheses, or even to leave some speakers unidentified.

(Giltrow et al., 2005, p. 242)

The best way to understand the intricate ways writers report speech, according to Vološinov (1929/1973), is to consider the relationship between the reported and reporting speakers. As

## 2. Review of Literature

Vološinov points out, reported speech is “*speech about speech*” (p. 115; emphasis original) that can be studied as a document of a speaker’s relationship to that which another has said. The speech report as a document of a relationship can be illuminated through analysis of two aspects of the speech reporting practice: attribution strategies and speech reporting forms.

### **Attribution Strategies**

Research on attribution strategies involves issues such as clear demarcations between sources as well as the writer’s own voice (e.g., Groom, 2000), communicating a stance toward the reported speech or speaker (e.g., Thompson & Yiyun, 1991), and common knowledge (e.g., Latour & Woolgar, 1979; Leatherman, 1999; Lunsford & Ede, 1994). Important to this project are Swales’ (1986, 1990) consideration of the placement of attribution information and Thompson & Yiyun’s (1991) model of speech act verbs. Swales points out that writers make a choice to syntactically integrate attribution information in “integral citations” or to segregate attribution information by placing it outside of the body of an argument in parentheticals or footnotes/endnotes in “non-integral citations.” His discussion accounts for the ways attribution information plays different roles in the argument at hand.<sup>3</sup> For example, non-integral attribution subordinates the original author of a speech report and his or her construction, discovery, or illumination of the information. Consider the following example taken from the entry on Hippocrates in *Wikipedia*.<sup>4</sup>

Hippocrates of Cos was an ancient Greek physician of the Age of Pericles (Classical Athens), and is considered one of the most outstanding figures in the history of medicine.<sup>2</sup>

---

<sup>3</sup> For an expansion of Swales’ theory of integral and non-integral attribution see Thompson & Tribble (2001).

<sup>4</sup> Hippocrates. (n.d.). In *Wikipedia*. Retrieved on 16 September 2011 from <http://en.wikipedia.org>

## 2. Review of Literature

<sup>2</sup> Hippocrates. Microsoft Encarta Online Encyclopedia 2006. Microsoft Corporation. Archived. 2009-10-31.

Here, the focus of the speech report is on the information about its content, which provides an explanation of who Hippocrates was and why he is a significant historical figure. The source of the speech report is relegated to an endnote, sending the message that it is unimportant. In contrast, integral attributions place an emphasis on the source of the speech report. Consider the following examples from the same Wikipedia article.

(a) Hippocrates was credited by the disciples of Pythagoras of allying philosophy and medicine.

(b) Shakespeare famously alludes to Hippocrates' description of clubbed fingers when writing of Falstaff's death in Act II, Scene iii of Henry V.

These examples show that integral attributions can take many forms as they are used to highlight different aspects of the source of a speech report. For example, in (a) above attribution information serves to complete a narrative about Hippocrates' role in the medical community, in which Pythagoras also played an important role (which is, perhaps, why he was worth featuring in an integral attribution). Similarly, (b) features Shakespeare's reference to Hippocrates in a manner that underscores Hippocrates' reputation. This example also demonstrates the way that integral attributions are sometimes double (or "embedded"), as writers explain another author's use of reported speech. These two examples also raise the issue of speech act verbs ("*credited*," "*alludes to*," and "*description*" in above) in integral attributions.

Thompson and Yiyun (1991) elucidate the great potential that speech act verbs have for communicating the writer's (the speech reporter's) stance toward the speech he or she is

## 2. Review of Literature

reporting as well as the writer's representation of the author's (the reported speaker's) stance toward his or her own utterance. The authors refer to these verbs as "speech reporting actions" in their taxonomy, which accounts for the variety of ways these verbs can express aspects of the writer's opinion or attitude towards the sourced material (Thompson and Yiyun use the terms *writer* and *author* to refer to the speech reporter and the reported speaker respectively). In particular, Thompson and Yiyun outline several categories of speech act verbs that denote the process(es) that the speech reporting verbs convey and that express the writer's evaluation of the reported material. They outline three kinds of "author acts" that speech act verbs can denote:

1. *Textual author acts* in which verbs like "state," "write," and "point out" indicate the author's verbal expression of the reported material.

Example: Political scientist Julian E. Zelizer suggested there were four main congressional eras, with considerable overlap, and included the *formulative era* (1780s-1820s), the *partisan era* (1830s-1900s), the *committee era* (1910-1960s), and the *contemporary era* (1970s-today).<sup>5</sup>

2. *Research author acts*, in which verbs like "measure," "find," and "examine" indicate the author's method and/or work involved in the reported material.

Example: Political scientist Julian E. Zelizer found that there were four main congressional eras, with considerable overlap, and included the *formulative era* (1780s-1820s), the *partisan era* (1830s-1900s), the *committee era* (1910-1960s), and the *contemporary era* (1970s-today).

---

<sup>5</sup> United States Congress. (n.d.). In *Wikipedia*. Retrieved on 15 September 2011 from <http://en.wikipedia.org>

## 2. Review of Literature

3. *Mental author acts*, in which verbs like “*believe*,” “*think*,” and “*consider*” indicate the author’s mental process regarding the reported material.

Example: Political scientist Julian E. Zelizer believed that there were four main congressional eras, with considerable overlap, and included the *formulative era* (1780s-1820s), the *partisan era* (1830s-1900s), the *committee era* (1910-1960s), and the *contemporary era* (1970s-today).

Thompson and Yiyun find that speech act verbs can also denote two kinds of “writer acts” (i.e., the speech reporter’s use of the reported speech in his or her writing context):

1. *Comparative writer acts*, in which verbs such as “*correspond to*,” and “*accord with*” indicate the writer’s placement of the reported speech within a (comparative) perspective.

Example: Julian E. Zelizer’s suggestion that there were four main congressional eras accords with the need to better understand the heterogeneity of institutional histories.

2. *Theorizing writer acts*, in which verbs such as “*explain*,” “*support*,” and “*establish*” indicate the writer’s use of the reported speech.

Example: Julian E. Zelizer’s suggestion that there were four main congressional eras supports the need to better understand the heterogeneity of institutional histories.

Thompson and Yiyun also demonstrate that speech act verbs can convey three aspects of the *writer’s* attitude or opinion of the reported speech: (1) the writer’s interpretation of the author’s stance on the truth-value of the reported speech; (2) the writer’s own stance on the truth-status of the reported speech; and (3) the writer’s interpretation of the way the reported information functions in its original or new context. I provide an overview of these three categories in Table 1.

Table 1: Evaluative categories of speech act verbs (SAV) modified from Thompson & Yiyun (1991)

<b>1. The writer's interpretation of the author's stance on the reported speech</b>		
<b>Positive</b>		
	The SAV indicates that the author presents the information as true.	- show - establish
	<i>Political scientist Julian E. Zelizer <u>demonstrated</u> that there were four main congressional eras.</i>	- note - point out
<b>Negative</b>		
	The SAV indicates that the author presents the information as incorrect.	- criticize - dispute
	<i>Political scientist Julian E. Zelizer <u>disputed</u> the idea that congressional history is heterogeneous.</i>	- reject
<b>Neutral</b>		
	The SAV does not indicate whether the author has yet determined the truth-status of the information.	- focus on - pose
	<i>Political scientist Julian E. Zelizer <u>focused on</u> four main congressional eras.</i>	- quote - delve into
<b>2. The writer's stance on the reported speech</b>		
<b>Factive</b>		
	The SAV indicates that the writer believes the author is presenting true information.	- show - bring out
	<i>Political scientist Julian E. Zelizer <u>demonstrated</u> that there were four main congressional eras.</i>	- demonstrate
<b>Counter-factive</b>		
	The SAV indicates that the writer believes the author is presenting false information.	- confuse - disregard
	<i>Political scientist Julian E. Zelizer <u>assumed</u> that there were four main congressional eras.</i>	- ignore



<b>Non-factive</b>	
<p>The SAV does not indicate whether the writer has an opinion as to the truth-status of the information.</p> <p><i>Political scientist Julian E. Zelizer <u>proposed</u> that there were four main congressional eras.</i></p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- claim</li> <li>- argue</li> </ul>
<p><b>3. The writer’s interpretation of the functions of the reported speech in its original or new context</b></p>	
<b>Author discourse interpretation</b>	
<p>The SAV describes how the information fits into the author’s text.</p> <p><i>Political scientist Julian E. Zelizer <u>outlined</u> four main congressional eras.</i></p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- note</li> <li>- mention</li> <li>- comment</li> </ul>
<b>Author behaviour interpretation</b>	
<p>The SAV conveys the author’s attitude or purpose in giving the information.</p> <p><i>Political scientist Julian E. Zelizer <u>championed</u> four main congressional eras.</i></p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- admit</li> <li>- favour</li> <li>- assert</li> </ul>
<b>Status interpretation</b>	
<p>The SAV indicates the functional status within the writer’s own framework.</p> <p><i>Political scientist Julian E. Zelizer <u>demonstrated</u> that there were four main congressional eras.</i></p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- show</li> <li>- establish</li> <li>- prove</li> </ul>
<b>Non-interpretation</b>	
<p>The SAV presents the speech report as objective.</p> <p><i>Political scientist Julian E. Zelizer <u>outlined</u> four main congressional eras.</i></p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- say</li> <li>- see</li> <li>- use</li> <li>- write</li> </ul>

Thompson and Yiyun note that these classifications are not watertight. Some evaluative speech act verbs will naturally fit into different categories (see, for example, the repetitions of “*demonstrated*,” and “*outlined*” in Table 1), while some denotative speech act verbs will fit into different categories based on the context in which they are used. They offer “analyze” as an example of a speech act verb that can denote a research or mental act

## 2. Review of Literature

depending on the context in which it is used. The authors also articulate the limitation of speech act verb analysis for capturing the writer's evaluation of a speech act or its author. They explain that because evaluation is complex—given that it is rarely expressed in just one way and is often implicit, inferred, mitigated, and hedged—it “is best seen as working at the discourse level of text rather than at the grammatical level of the clause...” (p. 367). As an example, they offer the fact that “the evaluative charge of other elements in the context” can “neutralize” the “inherent evaluative potential” of a speech act verb (p. 372). This criticism has particular relevance for studies of large corpora in which close discourse analysis is impractical (e.g., Hyland, 1999; Diani, 2009).

### **Speech reporting forms**

The placement of attribution information is closely connected to speech reporting forms, in some cases even functioning as a form's defining feature. Vološinov (1929/1973) describes these forms as “crystallized” (p. 117) linguistic methods of representing, reporting, and attributing source material, including various sub-types of indirect and direct speech. Taxonomies of these forms have a long history, ranging from stabilizing classifications of forms to dynamic scales on which forms might be placed on a case by case basis.<sup>6</sup> The concepts of direct and indirect speech, for example, can be traced back in classical rhetoric as *oratio recta* and *oratio obliqua*, respectively. Contemporary models of these forms are marked by an emphasis on variety and the need for taxonomies to be fluid so as not to obscure this variety. Vološinov was an early proponent of flexible taxonomies of speech

---

<sup>6</sup> See in particular McHale's brief but comprehensive history in “Speech Representation,” *The living handbook of narratology*, which is available online at [http://hup.sub.uni-hamburg.de/lhn/index.php/Speech\\_Representation](http://hup.sub.uni-hamburg.de/lhn/index.php/Speech_Representation).

## 2. Review of Literature

reporting forms, moving beyond catch-all categories like indirect and direct speech. In his study of speech reporting forms in Russian fiction he argues that “static and inert” taxonomies resulted from “the fundamental error of virtually divorcing the reported speech from the reporting context” and could be corrected by investigating the “dynamic interrelationship” between the reporting context and the reported speech (1929/1973, p. 119). His descriptions of reporting forms reflect these ideals; he attempts to note each variant form that he observes through a series of modifications to the classifications he identifies. In addition, he considers the rhetorical work done by each speech reporting form. For example, he identifies a “texture-analyzing modification” of indirect speech, in which the expressive phrasing or “texture” of a speech report are incorporated into indirect speech sometimes using direct speech “slips.” Consider the following example of the texture-analyzing modification from a news report of a recent Brad Pitt interview:

Pitt made some candid admissions during an interview with Parade Magazine that his life was “far less interesting” while he was married to Aniston, in fact, he describes how he felt increasingly “pathetic” during the 1990s, before his infamous on-set meeting with Jolie.<sup>7</sup>

The incorporation of Pitt’s expressive statements (“far less interesting” and “increasingly ‘pathetic’”) characterizes him as regretful about past decisions and seemingly without concern for Aniston’s feelings. The incorporation of Pitt’s utterances into the writer’s news report highlight them for consideration, as they are “‘made strange’... precisely in the

---

<sup>7</sup> Frost, C. (16 September 2011). “Brad Pitt Laments ‘Pathetic, Uninteresting Existence’ Before He Met Angelina Jolie.” In *Huffington Post UK*. Retrieved from [www.huffingtonpost.co.uk](http://www.huffingtonpost.co.uk)

## 2. Review of Literature

direction that suits the author's needs" (p. 131), as the reporter uses them to assist in the construction of controversy.

The emergence of Vološinov's work in the West in the 1970s spurred the development of contemporary models of speech reporting forms, which posit gradational scales on which forms and their variations are placed according to their potential for approximating mimesis (McHale, 1978; Fludernik, 1993; Semino & Short, 2004). These models have developed as attempts to capture the variations of representations of both speech and consciousness mostly in literary narratives (e.g., Leech & Short, 1981; Cohn, 1978), and, as such, they have offered increasingly nuanced formulations of speech reporting forms. Working on the basis that the full integrity of the original utterance will inevitably be compromised in the new context, these scale models, posit a continuum with forms of indirect speech generally falling further from the mimetic pole than forms of direct speech. Semino and Short's (2004) model of speech reporting forms in both fiction and non-fiction narrative contexts provides the most comprehensive account of currently accepted forms. I provide Table 2 as an overview of their model with categories listed from least to most potential for approximating mimesis.<sup>8</sup>

*Table 2: Semino and Short's (2004) model of thought, speech, and writing representation*

### **Narrator's representation of thought, speech, writing**

*thought*     **She put to herself a series of questions.**  
(Virginia Woolf, *Night and Day*, p. 272)

---

<sup>8</sup> I gathered the examples of forms of writing representation from Chapter 5, in which the authors discuss examples of these forms from their study corpus. The other examples are the authors' creations as presented on pages 10 and 14-15.

## 2. Review of Literature

- speech*    **We spoke to vice madam Michaela Hamilton from Bullwell, Notts**, who arranged girls for a Hudson orgy at the Sanam curry house in Stoke. ('Hudson fixed sex orgies as his charity fund collapsed', *News of the World*, 4 December 1994)
- writing*    I know he suspected that I ate the wrong food for while I was convalescent in the country **he wrote to me frequently**; I still have his letters. (Muriel Spark, *Curriculum Vitae*, p. 204)

### Narrative report of thought, speech, and writing acts

- thought*    He looked straight at her and **thought about his imminent return**. She remained unaware of his plan until the following day.
- speech*    He looked straight at her and **told her about his imminent return**. She was pleased.
- writing*    **Leonard dedicated a poem to him** [...]. (L.S. Dorman and C.L. Rawlins, *Leonard Cohen: Prophet of the Heart*, p. 60)

### Indirect representation of thought, speech writing

- thought*    He looked straight at her and **decided that he would definitely return the following day**. She remained unaware of his plan until the following day.
- speech*    He looked straight at her and **told her that he would definitely return the following day**. She was pleased.
- writing*    But because of Helsinki, I was down as the favourite, according to the British press. They said **I had a good chance of winning gold**. (Fatima Whitbread, *Fatima*, p. 155).

### Free indirect representation of thought, speech, writing

- thought*    He looked straight at her. **He would definitely come back tomorrow!** She remained unaware of his plan until the following day.
- speech*    He looked straight at her. **He would definitely come back.**
- writing*    Back came a charming letter. **A book of stories would be very acceptable. Was I interested?** (Muriel Spark, *Curriculum Vitae*, pp. 205-6)

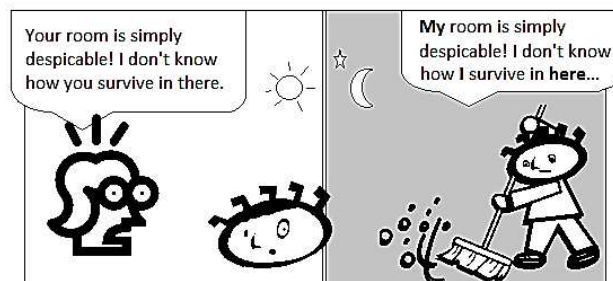
**Direct representation of thought, speech, writing**

- thought* He looked straight at her and decided ‘**I’ll definitely come back tomorrow!**’. She remained unaware of his plan until the following day.
- speech* He looked straight at her and said ‘**I’ll definitely come back tomorrow!**’.
- writing* Greene wrote to his mother, ‘**I have little news in this dim and distance spot**’, and their isolation clearly troubled him.  
(Norman Sherry, *The Life of Graham Greene*, p. 389)

**Free direct representation of thought, speech, writing**

- thought* He looked straight at her. **I’ll definitely come back tomorrow.** She remained unaware of his plan until the following day.
- speech* He looked straight at her. ‘**I’ll definitely come back tomorrow!**’ She was pleased.
- writing* I stood at the bar with the *Morning Line*, **WITCH WHO LIED FOR DR SEX. IT’S ONLY ... PUPPY LOVE. I BACK IRA RED KEITH. MY SECRET LOVE BY TV’S MIDGE: SEE CENTRE PAGES.**  
(Martin Amis, *Money*, p. 91)

Free indirect representation of speech, thought, and writing in particular has been studied in-depth in both narrative fiction and journalistic discourse. Vološinov calls this form “quasi-direct discourse” and finds that in Russian literature it is a “*phonetic embodiment of reported speech displayed by the author’s context*” (p. 156; emphasis original). Vološinov emphasizes the fact that this speech reporting form often has an ironic effect. I offer the cartoon below as an example of the ironic capacity of quasi-direct discourse. Here we see a young boy mocking his mother by “putting on” or “embodying” her speech:



## 2. Review of Literature

In the embodiment of another's speech in quasi-direct discourse, the perspective is shifted to reflect the new speaker's reality. When comparing the mother's original speech act and the boy's quasi-direct discourse in this cartoon, we see that references to people and places have changed (e.g., "Your room..." becomes "My room..." and "...how you survive in there" becomes "...how I survive in here"). The linguistic term for words that describe a speaker's relation to an object and indicate perspective is *deixis*. Fludernik (1993) contends that the shift in deictics is a central feature of "free indirect discourse" in her extended study of the speech reporting form. She points out that there are a great variety of free indirect speech forms in fictional narratives, some ironic like the cartoon above and others more forthright. We see a more forthright example in the illustration of free indirect speech that Semino and Short (2004) offer in their taxonomy of representations of speech, thought, and writing in both fiction and non-fiction discourse:

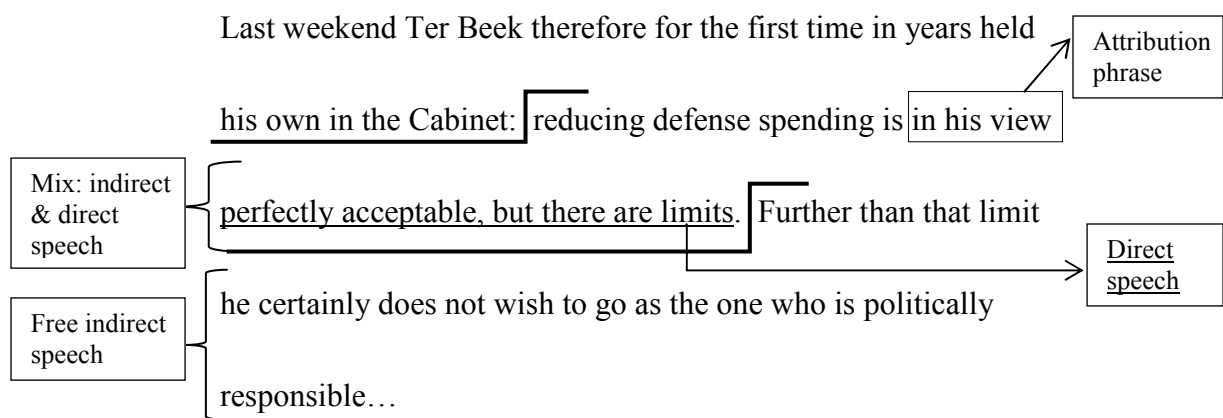
He looked straight at her. He would definitely come back.

This example is much closer to indirect speech than Vološinov's description of quasi-direct discourse, demonstrated in the cartoon above. Here the reported speech seems to reflect some of the original expression, such as the word "definitely," but is less clearly a full "embodiment" of that expression. The example, rather, seems to fit a category of "free" indirect speech because of the absence of a speech reporting verb as in "He said that he would definitely come back."

Notably, Redeker (1996) finds a variant of free indirect discourse in her study of journalistic texts, which is surprising because the reporting of speech is highly rule-bound in news discourse. Just a year before the publication of Redeker's study, Waugh (1995) contends that the absence of free indirect discourse in her study of *Le Monde* is likely

## 2. Review of Literature

contributable to the encouragement of strict demarcations between direct and indirect speech in journalistic discourse (p. 151). However, Redeker (1996) finds that free indirect discourse of a sort is present in a Dutch newspaper, occurring in sentences that are not marked as reported speech but in which some embodiment (to borrow Vološinov's term) of the words of a quoted speaker occurs. She offers the following example (p. 227), which I have marked up to identify the presence of free indirect discourse:



In this example, the free indirect discourse features a mingling of the journalist and reported speaker's voices. The effect is that both the content of the speech report and its expressive quality are represented. This results in a depiction of the speaker's character, which in this case seems to be that of the ever cautious politician.

Redeker's findings offer two interesting observations of free indirect discourse in non-fiction contexts. The first is the fact that the free indirect discourse in her corpus is identifiable as reported speech by implication. She explains that, as is the case in the example above, instances of this form in the Dutch newspaper often occur directly before or after indirect or direct speech, "yielding a strong suggestion that the sentence in question presented material from the same speech event" (p. 229). As such, a more descriptive name for this



## *2. Review of Literature*

variant of free indirect discourse might be “framed free indirect representation of reported speech.” Redeker’s second noteworthy contribution is the observation that the free indirect discourse she finds “tends to suggest an implicit endorsement” (p. 232). We can see this implicit endorsement—what I like to call free indirect discourse’s “endorsement effect”—occurring in the example above as the journalist seems to assert “he certainly does not wish to go as the one who is politically responsible...” in his own voice, without deferring responsibility for the utterance in a manner that implies agreement or support. Contemporary studies of speech reporting forms, therefore, have found multiple variations of free indirect discourse, ranging from Vološinov’s description of quasi-direct discourse to Redeker’s discovery of “framed” free indirect discourse.

The mimetic scale on which contemporary models of forms of speech, thought, and writing representation are constructed can be a useful way of conceptualizing reported speech. For example, it provides the opportunity to discuss why an instance of reported speech does or does not make use of the speech reporting form’s mimetic potential. However, the mimetic scale has historically been a site of controversy and contemporary taxonomies of speech reporting forms continue to complicate the limitations and potentials of any one form to approximate mimesis. A more straightforward and relevant scale for analyzing student writing in particular might be based on the type of detail that speech reporting forms provide about the source text, ranging from specific to general. For example, while forms of direct speech can be used to convey a reported speaker’s specific phrases, descriptions, and statements, forms of indirect speech can be used to provide a synopsis of a particular line of argument (paraphrase) or the general themes or topics of a speech act (summary). A review of writing manuals shows that what seems to be important in academic

## 2. Review of Literature

writing contexts is whether speech reporting forms allow a student writer to be as general or as specific about the speech report as the writing context demands. For example, the most recent handbook published by Norton, *The Little Seagull*, offers this overview to students:

**QUOTE** texts when the wording is worth repeating, when you want to cite the exact words of a known authority on your topic, when his or her opinions challenge or disagree with those of others, or when the source is one you want to emphasize.

**PARAPHRASE** sources that are not worth quoting but contain details you need to include. **SUMMARIZE** longer passages whose main points are important but whose details are not. (Bullock & Weinberg, 2011, p. 82)

This explanation places an emphasis on how specific or general students want to be in a speech report—whether details or general topics are important. Using specificity as the scale on which to posit speech reporting forms seems to be a more straightforward way of conceptualizing a model of speech reporting forms and better-suited to discussions of academic discourse.

### **Redefining Invention, Authorship, and Text**

Such complex theories of speech reporting practices have been enabled largely by Bakhtin's (1981, 1984, 1986) theory of the utterance, which emphasizes the social nature of language and written texts. As mentioned earlier, Bakhtin posits that language can only be studied in instances of use because the structures, forms, and tones of language only exist in "living utterance[s]" (1981, p. 276). His theories of dialogism and addressivity (1981, 1986) account for the utterance's responsive and response-provoking nature, respectively, as the utterance forms part of an ongoing dialogue—a link in a chain of speech acts. He argues that

## 2. Review of Literature

in the sense that the utterance is dialogic and addressive, it “lies on the borderline between oneself and the other” and can be said to be “half someone else's” (1981, p. 293). Kristeva (1969/1980) coins the term “intertextuality” to describe Bakhtin’s theory of language. She appreciates his diversion from the strictures of the linguistic approach to textual analysis, noting that

...what appears as a lack of rigour is in fact an insight first introduced into literary theory by Bakhtin: any text is constructed as a mosaic of quotations; any text is the absorption and transformation of another. The notion of *intertextuality* replaces that of intersubjectivity, and poetic language is read as at least *double*. (p. 37, emphasis original)

Kristeva’s engagement with Bakhtin, one of the first in the West, is an acknowledgement of the need to analyze the discursive structures of texts as authorial choices shaped by the socio-political, historical, and economic context.

The social view of discourse stretches back to Aristotle,<sup>9</sup> who placed audience at the heart of the argumentation process (Lefevre, 1987). In his *On Rhetoric*, Aristotle develops a theory of invention in which the intended (imagined/constructed/anticipated) audience serves as a guide for the rhetor’s choice of *topoi*—topics of invention that, arguably, function as theoretical perspectives or positions from which to approach the subject. He establishes three broad contexts in which rhetors would address audiences for different ends: deliberative (political) contexts in which rhetors might illustrate a possible a future in order to warn and instigate change; forensic (legal) contexts in which rhetors discuss past actions in the process

---

<sup>9</sup> While the social view of discourse stretches back to ancient myth and Greek theatre, Aristotle is a convenient starting place for the purposes of my discussion.

## 2. Review of Literature

of determining the difference between justice and injustice; and epideictic (ceremonial) contexts in which rhetors illuminate the present, pointing out the praiseworthy or dishonourable (see Aristotle's *Rhetoric*, Chapter 3, sec. 1358b-1359a). Aristotle's concepts of ethos, pathos, and logos also offer a social understanding of discourse as he directs the rhetor's attention to his or her relationship with the audience, in order to consider how to gain the audience's trust, elicit the audience's concern for the subject matter, and secure the audience's support for a particular mode of reasoning.

These aspects of Aristotle's theory of rhetoric feature prominently in contemporary composition theory and pedagogy precisely because of their concern with audience and the recognition therein that discourse is a form of social communication not just personal expression. Composition theory endorses (and explores) the insights gained about discourse when it is viewed as inherently social. This approach, for instance, led to Miller's (1984) landmark reconceptualization of genre in which she debunks the container metaphor for conceiving of genres as writing types and posits instead that genres are "typified rhetorical actions based in recurrent situations" (p. 159). Conceiving of genre as social action means accepting the ways genre both achieves and is achieved by action. In this sense, genres are used to bring about desired actions and are shaped by that process as well. It is because the need for the same social action recurs that genres develop into typified, "stabilized-enough" (Schryer, 1993) forms. Russell (1997) uses the metaphor of the routine to describe this stability, explaining that "[a] routine is, etymologically, a path cut through the woods to make the next trip easier" (p. 515).

Rhetorical genre theory provides a way of accounting for the different speech reporting practices of particular "discourse communities" (Bizzell, 1992) as well as for the

## 2. Review of Literature

inevitable socialization process that outsiders undergo in becoming effective users of the community's genres. The notion of discourse community is used in many studies of writing (e.g., Beaufort, 1997) as a means of demarcating the boundaries of a given community, which typically occur where social knowledge, including norms, practices, perceptions, and attitudes are no longer shared. Schryer (2002) finds in Bourdieu's concept of "field" a useful, fully theorized alternative to the concept of discourse community. Fields, Wacquant explains, are Bourdieu's replacement for the "vacuous notion of 'society'" (Bourdieu & Wacquant, 1992, p. 16). He uses the concept to capture the heterogeneous, autonomous yet overlapping "spheres of play" (p. 17) in which we (inter)act. Bourdieu sometimes uses the analogy of the game to describe fields, although his comparison is cautious. He delimits that "...a field is not the product of a deliberate act of creation, and it follows rules or, better, regularities, that are not explicit and codified... players are taken in by the game...only to the extent that they concur in their belief (*doxa*) in the game and its stakes..." (p. 98). We might classify an academic discipline as well as an educational institution and classroom as overlapping fields because they work together to position administrators, teachers, and students in specific ways towards objects and ideas, demanding particular points of view and methods of construing the world. When agents with "field experience" enter a classroom or begin to engage in a disciplinary conversation, they default to an appropriate language, mode of reasoning, and set of discursive conventions. Schryer theorizes that it is the "interaction between individual socialization or 'habitus' (Bourdieu & Wacquant, 1992, p. 139), and an organization or "field" (Bourdieu & Wacquant, 1992, p. 7)" that "triggers" a writer to draw on specific "constellations of regulated, improvisational strategies" such as, I contend, speech reporting practices (2000, p. 450; 2002, p. 74).

## 2. *Review of Literature*

Schryer's theory of the "trigger" that causes writers to draw on communicative strategies appropriate within particular fields, raises another question that features prominently in research on teaching genre: how do instructors offer students the "field experience" necessary for them to know how and when to use discursive conventions, let alone how to use them strategically to achieve rhetorical ends? This question represents the "post-process" pedagogical approach in composition theory, which—in response to the ostensible death of "process pedagogy"—called for a "return" of content in the writing classroom by introducing real-world discourses and focusing on rhetorical contexts (Tobin, 2001, pp. 13-14). Tobin (2001) argues that post-process pedagogy threatens to "throw the baby out with the bath water" (although he did not articulate the issue in such clichéd terms) by positioning itself as a counterpoint to process pedagogy. He reasons that the fundamental principle of treating student writing as process rather than product remains integral to post-process pedagogy, and that some of the "positivist notions" in which process pedagogies were rooted are still valuable to the college student who can benefit from believing "at certain moments and stages of the process that she actually has agency, authority, an authentic voice, and a unified self" (p. 15). In fact, Tobin contends that the move toward categorizing each development in composition theory—from early process pedagogy and its focus on writing processes, to the proliferation of process-based variants such as expressivists, cognitivists, social constructionists, and Marxists, through to late process pedagogy's unfortunate systemization of the writing process, and on to post-process pedagogy's reclamation of rhetoric and valorization of "real-world" or "situated" learning opportunities—creates often misleading divisions and homogenizes diverse bodies of theory (p. 15-16).

## *2. Review of Literature*

Notably, the shift in pedagogical approaches that developed in response to the recognition that student writing should be treated as “unfinished” (Murray, 1972/2003) challenged the notion that student writing should necessarily be done entirely independently. The focus on process led to the student-teacher conference model of draft production and revision, in-class collaborative brainstorming, peer-editing, and even group writing projects in light of “real-world” team-based report and case writing contexts. Bruffee (1984/2003) demonstrates the educational value of collaborative learning, in which students discuss readings and tasks in groups, by drawing on Oakeshott’s (1962) assertion that human conversation, which is inherited and ongoing, is distinct among animals; Vygotsky’s (1978) theory of reflective thought as internalized public conversation; Geertz’s (1971) assertion that thinking is public and social in origins, functions, form and applications; as well as Kuhn’s (1970) exploration of the indeterminacy of knowledge and the connection he draws between the development of scientific thought and the organization of the scientific community and Rorty’s (1979) theorization of the social justification of belief (pp. 419-422). Bruffee explains that pedagogy needs to take into account the fact that writing is never socially isolated and that it is out of ongoing conversations that writing emerges purposeful. Students will benefit from being engaged in conversation that “is similar in as many ways as possible to the way we would like them eventually to read and write” (p. 422) as such conversation will help them to know not only what needs to be written about but also audience-appropriate ways to write.

With this theory of collaborative learning, Bruffee demonstrates the challenge to the “hierarchy and individualism” of the North American university classroom that some traditional process pedagogies pose, asserting that “[h]owever much we may explore its

## *2. Review of Literature*

conceptual ramifications, we must acknowledge the fact that people have always learned from their peers and doggedly persist in doing so whether we professional teachers and educators take a hand in it or not” (p. 428). Bruffee’s research on the social nature of thought and the connection between writing and conversation supports a shift toward collaborative styles of learning and teaching that reflects the reconceptualization of the concept of authorship that occurred in light of postmodernist revelations about the social nature of texts pointed out, for instance, by Aristotle and Bakhtin. We see this reconceptualization playing out most prominently in Foucault’s (1984) assertion that “the author constitutes the privileged moment of individualization in the history of ideas, knowledge, literatures, philosophy, and the sciences” (p. 101). He points out that we cannot accept a view of texts as being knitted into social life as responses, imitations, and anticipations and retain a vision of the author as an individual responsible for bringing a text into being. The author as solitary figure communicating private insights gained through personal meditation has been exposed as a fiction—a mere “function,” Foucault argues, for organizing and characterizing texts (p. 107).

The problems with the romantic concept of the author have also been taken up in other fields that struggle with a seemingly anachronistic concept of originality. Buelow (1990), for example, traces the development of the romantic concept of the author and the authorial ideal of originality as they relate to music composition. He finds that these concepts emerged in eighteenth-century England as a response to growing concerns about excessively servile imitations—imitation having a long history as a method of invention and writer development stretching back to Aristotle, Cicero, and Quintilian (p. 119). Buelow points to Young’s (1759) “declaration of freedom” (p. 123) as the “root cause” of the force with which



## 2. *Review of Literature*

the concept of originality overtook the public imagination. Buelow quotes from Young's essay to illustrate the way he defines genius:

Learning we thank, Genius we revere; That gives us pleasure, This gives us rapture;  
That informs, This inspires; and is itself inspired; for Genius is from Heaven,  
Learning from man. ... Learning is borrowed knowlege [sic]; Genius is knowlege  
innate, and quite our own. Therefore, as Bacon observes, it may take a nobler name,  
and be called Wisdom; in which sense of wisdom, some are born wise. (p. 124)

This kind of division between learning and genius, which encapsulates the romantic concept of the author, was seriously challenged in Western education when institutions of higher education opened their doors to non-traditional students throughout the post-war period in a move that forced a pedagogy that posited learning as both achievable and worthwhile (as opposed to the cultivation of innate genius) (see Berlin [1984] for a history). However, the language of originality has persisted, facilitated in the last two decades by the fear of plagiarism that has increased in light of the emergence of digital avenues for sharing information.

Many literary and composition scholars have attempted to redefine authorship in an effort to quash the metaphor of originality. Bloom (1973/1997), for instance, develops a theory of poetry based on an understanding of authorship as a more collaborative process than the romantic conception betrays. His work on the “intra-poetic relationships” (p. 5) between texts demonstrates the fiction and function of authorship that Foucault points out. Bloom's theory, however, also speaks to the ways the authorial role has been re-imagined in contemporary scholarship because it involves several ways authors overcome the “anxiety of influence” (p. 11) and move beyond imitative servitude to “clear imaginative space” (p.5).

## 2. Review of Literature

These include, briefly: correcting, completing, breaking, generalizing, and reviving.

Indeed, in research on composition such methods for clearing imaginative space have been postulated as ways of reclaiming the notion of textual ownership or “authorship,” if you will. As early as the 1950s, scholars were looking beyond the concept of originality for better ways of communicating expectations of academic work. Lindey (1952), for instance, asserts that “absolute, quintessential originality” does not exist (p. 14) and that to author is to do something with borrowed material using “the gift of viewing life through the prism of his [sic] sensibility, his own way of reacting to experience and expressing that reaction” (p. 20). Similarly, St Onge (1988) asserts that “originality cannot be a prime objective” (p. 26) because writers can only create works that are “original to a limited degree” (p. 28). Like Bloom, St Onge presents several ways a writer can achieve a limited measure of originality ranging from reformulating and extrapolating on earlier texts to creating new ways of articulating an idea. However, he is ultimately quite pessimistic about the extent to which these measures can help a writer overcome what he sees as the derivative nature of all ideas (p. 28).

Many theorists, though, seem to be more optimistic about the writer’s opportunities to create something innovative and worthwhile. Stearns (1999), for instance, accepts the impossibility of original work but finds a convenient metaphor in Locke’s property law to reclaim the idea of authorship (pp. 6-7). Locke, she points out, locates an individual’s ownership over property based on the extent to which “he hath mixed his *Labour* with, and joined to it something that is his own” (qtd. in Stearns, p. 7). Stearns clarifies that plagiarism is currently used to describe “a failure of the creative process through the author’s failure either to transform the original material or to identify its source” (p. 7). Drawing on property

## *2. Review of Literature*

law as a convenient metaphor for what constitutes textual appropriation versus ownership, Stearns locates the possibility of authoring a text and avoiding plagiarism. Giltrow (2002a) suggests that writing instructors should frame “originality” as an aspect of writing that is dependent on style (p. 9), which she defines as “socio-cognitive action” (p. 10). Academic work can be “original” to the extent that its authors work from a specific style—a perspective with its own language and methods of conceptualizing the world and the potential for producing knowledge. Bawarshi (2008) offers a similar way of understanding originality, referring to the same process of working from an individualized position but using the concept of uptake (Freadman, 1994). He argues that there is potential for invention in imitation, reasoning that “imitation always involves an uptake, a learned (and genred) recognition of opportunity that informs what we take up, why, and how” (p. 88). It would seem that the anxiety of influence (Bloom, 1973/1997) in a postmodern reality in which it is recognized that we are all “drawing on a common core of ideas” (St Onge, p. 28) can be resolved by a postmodern focus on localized prisms of perception. It is true that originality is an imperfect metaphor for the construction of a text, but that does not preclude the possibilities of authorship.

### **Lessons from previous studies of reported speech in academic and professional discourses**

Reclamations of the social nature of texts have supported studies of the relations between texts in a variety of disciplines, forming a body of research that together constructs a nuanced picture of reported speech as a rich feature of discourse. Reported speech seems to have taken off as an object of study in the 1960s in the field of information science, wherein Garfield recognized that the mechanisms of reporting speech are useful tools for historians of

## *2. Review of Literature*

science because they are regularized ways of expressing the relationships between documents and ideas. In 1960, Garfield founded the Institute for Scientific Information and published the Science Citation Index (SCI), which is still used as a bibliometric tool for historians of science to investigate the origins and development of ideas (Davis, 2009, p. 5). While Garfield discouraged many of the purposes for which the SCI was appropriated—it has come to be used as a tool for evaluating journal collections (Swales, 1988), a science indicator to mark the output and influence of countries (Garfield, Malin, & Small, 1978; King, 2004), and a database for co-citation analysis to identify core documents in various fields of study (Price, 1965; Small, 1973)—it has contributed to the study of citation as a textual feature of science genres.

A large number of information scientists (White [2004] provides a thorough overview) have used the SCI to build typologies of citation functions through context or content analysis (analysis of the text surrounding the citation) (Cronin, 1984; McCain & Turner, 1989) and citer motivations (Brooks, 1985, 1986; Vinkler, 1987; Cano, 1989; Bonzi & Snyder, 1991; Liu, 1993; Shadish et al., 1995; Case & Higgins, 2000). Taken together, these studies demonstrate the complexity of citation as a discursive feature and cast doubt on the possibility of determining a citation's central function or a citer's motivations. In his historical overview of the study of citation in information science, Davis (2009) elucidates this point by referring to Brooks' (1985, 1986) interviews with academics, which found that while persuasion was the most frequently cited motivation, "authors attributed more than one motive to more than 70% of their references" (Davis, 2009, p. 9). Studies of motivations for not citing reference materials (see Bornmann & Daniel [2006a] for an overview) further reveal that the practice of citation is not as rule-bound as contemporary manuals of style

## *2. Review of Literature*

seem to assume. These studies find significant variance between academics' non-citation practices, showing that attribution is, in fact, a contestable issue.

Research on reported speech in applied linguistics has led to the development of a number of speech reporting form taxonomies. These taxonomies seem to agree upon definitions of “direct discourse,” “indirect discourse,” and “free indirect discourse,” but their approaches vary between functional and structural, and their subjects vary between oral or written, group or individual dialogue (Marnette, 2003; De Vries, 2008; Myers, 1999; Thompson, 1996). Swales (1986), however, questions the possibility of producing a taxonomy of speech reporting forms that is universally applicable. While he asserts that studies of reported speech should take advantage of linguistic means of classifying discourse features as convenient ways of recognizing recurrent speech reporting forms and consistencies in their functions, he emphasizes the importance of also using “textual analysis techniques” (p. 54) in an effort to gain a richer understanding of the discourse context.

Notably, studies on reported speech in applied linguistics have found that speech reporting practices vary across disciplines (Hyland, 1999, 2002a), cultures (Belcher, 1994; Bloch & Chi, 1995), and time (Bazerman, 1988; Salager-Meyer, 1999), revealing that speech reporting practices are historically derived and contextually bound. Hyland's (1999) work on citation in eight disciplines, including philosophy, sociology, marketing, applied linguistics, electronic engineering, physics, biology, and mechanical engineering, offers a set of generalizations about citation practices in hard and soft sciences. In addition, Hyland (2005) casts reported speech as a metadiscoursal strategy in his reconceptualization of “metadiscourse” as textual features that reveal “the writer's awareness of the reader and his or her need for elaboration, clarification, guidance and interaction” (p. 17). He casts

## *2. Review of Literature*

attribution as an “interactive” metadiscoursal “resource” under the category of “evidentials” (pp. 51-52), and recognizes the potential for speech act verbs to convey the writer’s stance toward the reported speech. Taken together, research on reported speech in applied linguistics underscores the fact that form and content are one and the same.

The approach is quite different in the sociology of science where research on reported speech typically occurs in the context of studies on the social construction of knowledge. Findings that pertain to reported speech in these studies seem to concern the roles attribution plays in the social construction of knowledge and how those roles shape the style and manner in which scientists represent reported speech. Latour and Woolgar’s (1979) ethnographic study of the laboratory as a place where facts are made and unmade finds that attribution is related to the “facticity” level of a piece of information—when a fact can be stated without an explanation of its original context, for instance, Latour and Woolgar contend that it has greater facticity than a fact that requires explanation and substantiation in order to be deemed credible. Taking a different approach, Myers (1985) identifies reported speech as a textual feature involved in the negotiation of a knowledge claim’s status within a scientific community. Arguing that “the writing process is social from the beginning” (p. 595), Myers observes that the claims made in his corpus must be simultaneously new and relevant to existing work in order to be deemed acceptable. Research in this field, then, provides a way of understanding the incrementalization of research in the scientific fields (see Bazerman, 1988).

Research on reported speech in journalistic texts also explores how speech reporting strategies contribute to the construction of knowledge with particular emphasis on the tension between ethical requirements and editorial demands. This field of research is highly

## 2. Review of Literature

interdisciplinary, drawing on theories of reported speech from linguistic and narrative disciplines, and has involved studies in a variety of national journalistic discourses, including Finnish (Makkonen-Craig, 1999), Dutch (Redeker, 1996), French (Waugh, 1995), British (Slembrouck, 1986; Smirnova, 2009), Greek (Politis & Kakavoulia, 2006), and Spanish (Calsamiglia & Ferrero, 2003). While this research is diverse, it coalesces around similar results regarding the causal relationship between discourse strategies and the discursive context and the need to modify traditional speech reporting form typologies for analysis of journalistic discourse.

The context-based analysis of the use of reported speech in journalistic discourse has resulted in a number of interesting findings. For example, Slembrouck (1986) speculates that the style of speech reports can be related to a news outlet's branding efforts as she finds a connection between speech reporting practices and the maintenance of a paper's editorial "house-style" (p. 83). Waugh (1995) also points this out. Her study of French journalistic discourse shows an acceptance for altering speech in an environment where style and rhetoric can set papers apart from each other (p. 149). She reminds us that "journalists are expected, even asked, to clean up what was originally said" (p. 155). In addition to the economic value of maintaining a specific house style, Waugh adds that journalists must weigh the value of accurate transcription against the need to provide reported speech in well-formed sentences. Anterior speech, she clarifies, is often fragmentary and disorganized (Waugh, 1995, p. 146). Makkonen-Craig's (1999) study of Finnish journalistic discourse draws a similar conclusion—"too much realism (of true *impromptu* speech) does not necessarily work in the written medium" (p. 140).

## *2. Review of Literature*

The body of research on reported speech in journalistic discourse also highlights the argumentative role that speech reporting forms can play within texts. Smirnova (2009), for instance, provides evidence that journalists sometimes use direct speech as a strategy to obscure bias. She points to this occurring in the use of direct speech in the thesis or argument position of the text, which has the effect of supporting the argument “at the very stage of its proclamation” (p. 90). Smirnova's discovery reveals the complex nature of source use in journalistic discourse, wherein it is often idealized as a transparent reporting technique.

Current research in composition studies also suggests that reported speech is a rich discursive practice shaped by the discursive context, which might be theorized as involving the exigencies, audiences, and constraints that influence the construction of a text – the “rhetorical situation” (Bitzer, 1968). Composition scholars have looked at the various functions of citation as a feature of disciplinary genres (Swales & Najjar, 1987; Booth, Colomb, & Williams, 2003; Hunt, 2005; Overman Smith, 1997; Sullivan, 1996). Taken together, this research has found that reported speech is often used, albeit in different ways in each discipline, to create a research space, buttress arguments, evoke a present or previous debate, demonstrate familiarity with a field and particular allegiances within that field, as well as to uphold community values like clear communication, reliable research practices, comprehensive perspectives, and moral soundness. In her study of student speech reporting practices, Petrić (2007) provides an overview of research on the difficulties students encounter with citation, listing Campbell's (1990) focus on summary and paraphrase; Angelil-Carter (2000), Howard (1999), and Pecorari's (2002, 2003, 2006) focus on plagiarism; and Borg (2000), Dong (1996), and Groom's (2000) focus on voice, stance, and source demarcation (pp. 238-239). Petrić's (2007) own study is perhaps one of the only ones



## *2. Review of Literature*

to investigate effective student speech reporting practices. She finds that students who achieve high grades use reported speech, like academics, for a variety of rhetorical functions while students who achieve lower grades use reported speech primarily for attribution in the lesser valued “knowledge-telling” mode of writing (p. 251). Hyland’s (2010) study of student speech reporting practices finds that a diversity of practices reflects the diversity of the student writers. She contends that descriptions of student speech reporting practices need to be fluid so they can account for this diversity.

Some composition scholars (Howard, 1993, 1995, 1999, 2000, 2001, 2003, 2007; Price, 2002; Robillard, 2007) have focused on how university policies of misconduct and official definitions of plagiarism as well as citation style guides overlook the rhetorical complexity and socially situated nature of speech reporting practices, promoting instead a limited textual understanding of reported speech among students, scholars, and teachers alike, which justifies a punitive (as opposed to pedagogical) approach to addressing improper practices. They emphasize the need to change the way reported speech is taught. Giltrow’s series of textbooks on academic writing and reading (2002a; 2005; 2009) reflect this effort, using rhetorical genre theory to frame academic writing for students. Reported speech figures centrally in her textbooks, as she features academic conversation and the importance of engaging with what others have said in order to find purpose and context for each writing task. She explains attribution conventions as routinized ways a community of writers has developed to communicate not only the need for research (by identifying a “knowledge deficit” [2005, p. 254]) but also to orchestrate the voices of others within the conversation.

Research in professional communication and education, however, demonstrates that teaching speech reporting practices outside of the actual professional context is quite

## *2. Review of Literature*

difficult. Studies in this field have found that understandings of text creation, ownership, and authorship are often distinctly different in professional fields, with correspondingly different, often more liberal, textual borrowing practices than is permissible in the school context (LeClercq, 1999; Freedman & Adam, 2000; Devitt, 1991). Working with theories of rhetorical genre and activity, these studies attribute the differences between textual features to the variances between the environments in which the texts are produced. In fact, much of the research on professional writing suggests that the school context does not (perhaps, cannot) effectively prepare students for the writing they will have to do in professional contexts (Anson & Forsberg, 1990; Dias et al., 1999; Freedman, Adam, & Smart, 1994; Freedman & Adam, 1996; Beaufort, 1997; Angour & Harwood, 2008). Through various analyses of the salient features of student writing, this research finds that the characteristics of student writing correlate to the school context whether or not the assignment was designed to simulate a workplace genre. Beaufort (1997) proposes teaching students how to discern appropriate and standardized discursive strategies from descriptions of rhetorical contexts as a potential way of addressing the issue.

Despite the fact that reported speech is often tied up in anachronistic understandings of originality and authorship, this body of research demonstrates that reported speech is a rich and complex discursive feature that can be illuminated by a combination of linguistic and discourse analysis within a framework of rhetorical theory. It is clear that because reported speech is connected to individual and disciplinary style (Giltrow, 2002; Hyland, 1999) and is shaped by features of the discursive context as a symptom of the utterances dialogism (Bakhtin, 1981, 1986; Vološinov, 1929/1973), it is used differently for an indeterminate number of purposes. For this reason, no fixed universal taxonomy of speech

## *2. Review of Literature*

reporting forms and functions or citer motivations can be established (Swales, 1985; Hyland, 2010). In this study, I seek to develop a reliable and productive method for illuminating student source use in a way that produces a fluid set of descriptors that reveal many of their speech reporting practices. This study offers a deeper understanding not just of how students succeed and fail in their uses of reported speech, but why they choose to attribute and represent source material in the ways that they do. The method that I construct combines applied linguistics, discourse analysis, and rhetorical genre theory to tease out connections between the grammatical structures of speech reports and the argumentative role they play as aspects of student discourse.

## Chapter 3

### Methods: Data collection and analysis

#### **Data Collection**

##### **Recruitment of Study Participants**

I investigate student speech reporting practices through two case studies. Each case consists of several students' uptake of a review assignment given in a second-year undergraduate history course that was offered at a Canadian university in the fall semester of 2009. Full ethics clearance was granted by the participating institution for this study. I selected these two courses for inclusion in this study because they met the following criteria.

- i. The weight and type of assignment

Each course required that students write at least one essay that was worth at least 20% of their final grade. I judged the weight of the assignment to be important because it served as a useful indicator of the students' attitude and investment of effort and I wanted to study written work that students had thought carefully about. Each course asked students to write

### *3. Methods*

the same ‘type’ of assignment. Restricting my study to one general type of assignment (e.g., critical review, research paper, historiography, annotated bibliography, etc.) served as a useful constraint for narrowing the focus of my study.

#### ii. Distinct rhetorical contexts

The two courses fit different course ‘types,’ and, thus, had distinct expectations for students and varying classroom cultures. While one was a methods course (“History Methods”) that offered students an opportunity to focus on the goals of historical research and the historian’s modes of question asking and interrogating the past, the other was a content course offering a survey of events and issues arising in American history through to the twentieth century (“American History”).

#### iii. Number of volunteers

My recruitment efforts in each course successfully secured the full participation of the course instructor and between 5 and 10 students enrolled in the class. Full participation of course instructors means that they both gave two interviews, volunteered course documents (e.g., syllabus, assignment guidelines, and other relevant hand-outs), and allowed me to observe a course meeting. Full participation of student volunteers involved the donation of an electronic copy of the version of their assignment that they submitted to the instructor for evaluation. I invited (but did not require) student participants to volunteer their assignment’s grade as well as to participate in two interviews, one before and one after writing the assignment. I designated these additional levels of participation voluntary in an effort to attract the number of volunteers I wanted. The study did not necessarily need this additional information, which was used to construct a deeper understanding of the writing contexts.

### *3. Methods*

Grades reflect, for instance, the instructor's expectations in written work, while interviews with writers can reveal their expectations and interpretations of the writing context but have less potential to illuminate the writers' rationale for particular discursive choices, which tend to be made intuitively (Freedman, 1993; Elton, 2010).

#### **Study Corpora**

The recruitment process resulted in the construction of three corpora of book reviews: 6 American History student book reviews from six students, 8 History Methods book reviews from six students (two students submitted two assignments), and 11 published book reviews chosen because they were referenced by one or more students in the History Methods' corpus of student book reviews.

The six students in American History study corpus responded to the following assignment instructions which the instructor provided to students in a class hand-out:

#### **American History: Paper Assignment**

(Worth 25% of final grade)

Your paper assignment for this course is to review a recent scholarly journal article and to explain how this article contributes to your broader understanding of the main themes and topics covered in [this course]. Beyond this main task, your essay should: identify the article's primary argument; summarize the article's key points; and evaluate the author's perspective (i.e. point of view, bias, relation to the subject-matter, etc...). In addition to the article you are reviewing, you should also reference course readings and lectures. You are not allowed to reference any other sources without explicit prior approval from me.

### 3. Methods

Selecting Your Article: You are free to select any journal article written in the past ten years, as long as it meets the following criteria: 1) You must choose your article from the historical journals listed below [I have not reproduced this list here]; 2) the focus of your chosen article must be colonial American or U.S. history prior to 1877; 3) your chosen article must be at least 15 pages (most articles will be 20-35 pages); 4) You are not allowed to choose book reviews.

Paper Guidelines: The expected length of your essay is 5 full pages. It should be in 12 point font, double spaced, with standard margins. Below your title, and before your first paragraph, you are directed to list the author(s), article title (in quotes), journal title (italicized), volume number, date and page numbers. Furthermore, your citation method must follow the Chicago Manual of Style for the Humanities. You can access the Chicago Manual of Style on the university's Library webpage.

Table 3 below offers an overview of this study corpus, involving the pseudonym assigned to the student participant, which I gave at random to protect the students' identities, the journal article they reviewed in their assignment, the grade they received on their assignment, and whether or not they participated in an interview.

*Table 3: Corpus of student book reviews written for an American History course*

<b>Student</b>	<b>Reviewed Work</b>	<b>Grade</b>	<b>Interview</b>
Kate	Cain, M.C. (2008). The art and politics of looking white: Beauty practice among white women in Antebellum America. <i>Winterthur Portfolio</i> , 42(1), 27-54.	A	declined
John	Schwartz, M. (2007). The great divergence reconsidered: Hamilton, Madison and U.S-British relations, 1783-89. <i>Journal of the Early Republic</i> 27(3): 407-436.	B	yes

### 3. Methods

Robert	Knott, S. (2004). Sensibility and the American War for Independence. <i>The American Historical Review</i> 109: 19-40.	A-	declined
Alice	McGarry, M. (2000). Spectral sexualities: Nineteenth-century spiritualism, moral panics, and the making of U.W. Obscenity Law. <i>Journal of Women's History</i> 12(2): 8-29.	B-	declined
David	Wood, K.E. (2001). Broken reeds and competent farmers: Slaveholding widows in the southeastern United States, 1786-1861. <i>Journal of Women's History</i> 13(2): 34-57.	B+	declined
Ashley	Storey, M.M. (2003). Civil War Unionists and the political culture of loyalty in Alabama, 1860-1861. <i>The Journal of Southern History</i> 69(1): 71-106.	B-	declined
A+ (90-100%)    A (85-90%)    A- (80-84%)    B+ (78-79%)    B (75-77%)    B- (70-74%)			

The other corpus of texts written by study participants in the History Methods course consists of eight book reviews that responded to the following assignment instructions provided on the course syllabus:

#### **History Methods: Book Review Assignments**

(2 worth 20% each of the final grade)

Choose a book of historical non-fiction that is interesting to you. We have a selected list of choices below from which you may choose [I have not reproduced this list here]. You may select a book beyond the list, but please check if you are choosing a book that is not listed. Your book should be written by an academic historian, contain references and be at least 200 pages in length. The book cannot be on the subject of a written assignment in another course.

A good book review should do two things: offer an overview of the book's main arguments and then offer a focused assessment of some of the work's merits and/or



### 3. *Methods*

weaknesses. In other words, what is the book about, and how well does it argue its case? A few points to consider in your review:

Who is the author? When is the author writing? Are older works written without considering “new” evidence?

What are the author’s main arguments? Read the introduction carefully here.

How is the argument organized? Examine the table of contents carefully here.

What kind of evidence is the author using? Are they looking at archival sources; memoirs; oral interviews; newspapers; government documents?

What is the writing style like?

Is there a good use of maps and illustrations?

Did you like the book? If so, why?

A book review is not simply a quick answer to these questions in order, for a review needs a thesis around which you’re organizing your argument. You need also to find a review of this book, and include it in your bibliographical page at the end of the text.

How have other historians/academic considered this work? Do you agree with the reviewers’ assessments?

Table 4 below offers an overview of the corpus of student texts written in response to this assignment:

### 3. Methods

Table 4: Corpus of student book reviews written for a History Methods course

Student	Reviewed Work	Grade	Interview
James	Gellately, R. (2001). <i>Backing Hitler: Consent and coercion in Nazi Germany</i> . Oxford: Oxford University Press.	B	yes
Maria	Gellately, R. (2001). <i>Backing Hitler: Consent and coercion in Nazi Germany</i> . Oxford: Oxford University Press.	B	yes
Lisa(a)	Keegan, J. (1976). <i>The Face of Battle</i> . London: Lowe and Brydone Printers Ltd.	A-	yes
Lisa(b)	Gellately, R. (2001). <i>Backing Hitler: Consent and coercion in Nazi Germany</i> . Oxford: Oxford University Press.	A-	
Laura	Keegan, J. (1976). <i>The Face of Battle: A study of Agincourt</i> . London: Lowe and Brydone Printers Ltd.	B	declined
Greg	Gellately, R. (2001). <i>Backing Hitler: Consent and coercion in Nazi Germany</i> . Oxford: Oxford University Press.	Declined	declined
Diana(a)	Herman, A. (2009). <i>Gandhi and Churchill: The epic rivalry that destroyed an empire and forged our age</i> . New York: Bantam Dell.	Declined	declined
Diana(b)	Lukacs, J. (1999). <i>Five days in London: May 1940</i> . New Haven: Yale University Press.		
A+ (90-100%)    A (85-90%)    A- (80-84%)    B+ (78-79%)    B (75-77%)    B- (70-74%)			

I also analyzed the speech reporting practices in a small corpus of published book reviews, which I selected on the basis that they were referenced in one or more of the History Method student reviews in Table 4. The History Methods assignment required that students find a review of the book they chose to review in order to answer two questions: “How have other historians/academics considered this work? Do you agree with the reviewers’ assessments?” (History Methods course syllabus). I compared the speech reporting practices in the History Methods’ student book reviews with those in the published reviews that they

### 3. Methods

considered while writing that assignment. The corpus of these published reviews is presented in Table 5.

*Table 5: Corpus of published reviews referenced in the corpus of History Methods' student book reviews*

<b>Author</b>	<b>Publication Information</b>	<b>Referenced by</b>
Herbert	(2003). Review of <i>Backing Hitler</i> , by Robert Gellately. <i>American Historical Review</i> , 108(1), 276-277.	James
Anonymous	(2001). Review of <i>Backing Hitler</i> , by Robert Gellately. <i>Contemporary Review</i> , 278(1625), 379.	Maria
Goda	(2004). Review of <i>Backing Hitler</i> , by Robert Gellately. <i>The Historian</i> , 66(1), 187-188.	Maria, Lisa(b)
Krome	(2001). Review of <i>Backing Hitler</i> , by Robert Gellately. <i>Library Journal</i> , 126(2), 85.	Maria
Rotella, et al.	(2001). Review of <i>Backing Hitler</i> , by Robert Gellately. <i>Publishers Weekly</i> , 248(8), 68.	Maria
Stephenson	(2002). Review of <i>Backing Hitler</i> , by Robert Gellately. <i>The English Historical Review</i> , 117(474), 1382-83.	Maria
Howkins	(1984). Review of <i>The Face of Battle</i> , by John Keegan. <i>History Workshop</i> , 17, 185-187.	Lisa(a)
Grill	(1992). Review of <i>The Gestapo and German Society</i> , by Robert Gellately. <i>American Historical Review</i> , 97(2), 575-576.	Greg
Wilde	(n.d.). Review of <i>The Face of Battle</i> , by John Keegan. <i>About.com</i> , retrieved 29 November 2009 from <a href="http://europeanhistory.about.com/library/prodrev/aafprfaceofbattle.htm">http://europeanhistory.about.com/library/prodrev/aafprfaceofbattle.htm</a>	Laura
Ganguly	(2008). Review of <i>Gandhi and Churchill</i> , by Arthur Herman. <i>Current History</i> , 107, 395-396.	Diana(a)
Overy	(2000). Review of <i>Five Days in London</i> , by John Lukacs. <i>The Journal of Military History</i> , 64(2), 577-578.	Diana(b)

### Observation and Interview Protocols

I attended one meeting in each course with the aim of gathering information about the writing context that might help illuminate the discursive choices students made in their

### *3. Methods*

written work for the course. With each instructor's permission, I chose to attend course meetings that would involve some discussion of source use and/or the assignment. I set out to observe:

- What kinds of problems/tasks are given to the students?
- What opportunities are there for students to reflect on, discuss, and/or practice attribution?
- Was attribution addressed in the class?
- How was it addressed? (i.e., implicitly, explicitly, via question periods, lecture content, group work, etc.)

The interviews with instructors and students involved initial and exit interviews. The initial interviews took place before the students had submitted the course assignment about a month into the semester. I used a variety of terms to refer to speech reporting practices in these interviews (such as citation, source use, and reported speech) to both indicate the variety of issues involved in my study but also avoid a full explanation of speech reporting practices, which might have guided the interview answers to a greater extent.

The initial instructor interviews were designed to gather information about their rationales for the assignment design, disciplinary understandings of reported speech, and their typical or preferred methods of teaching reported speech. These interviews were guided by the following questions:

1. What are your expectations for this assignment? What concerns guided its design?
2. What have you read on the subject of citation or reported speech?

### *3. Methods*

3. When you are serving as a peer reviewer, what do you look for in terms of citation and source use?
4. What are some of the functions of source use in genres of history?
5. Do you typically teach aspects of source use in the classroom? Which aspects? How?
6. What do you find most challenging about teaching source use?

In the initial interview with students I sought out their thoughts on reported speech, as well as some of their personal educational background and future goals.

1. Why have you chosen to take this course? How does it fit into your goals as a study of History?
2. How would you define “citation”? “Reported speech”?
3. What have you read on the subjects of citation, source use and engagement?
4. What are your concerns about citation, source use?
5. Can you explain why you might refer to what another person has said/written in an assignment for a history course?
6. What makes a source worth using? What makes a quote worth quoting?
7. How would you explain what plagiarism is? Is it a real issue?

I conducted the exit interviews after the students had received the instructor’s feedback and grade on their assignment. I waited at least one week after the papers were returned to avoid emotion-filled responses that grades can sometimes provoke. In these second interviews, I focused on the assignment. With instructors, I asked about how students generally fared on the assignment and whether they would approach it the same way in the

### 3. *Methods*

future. In addition, I asked them to provide me with their take on an example of source use and speech representation in two passages—one from published scholarship and one from student work—found in Brundage’s (2002) guide to using sources in history. This activity was intended to provide insight into how historians understand, view, and recognize citation:

1. In your view, how did students fare on this assignment?
2. Did your students encounter problems citing, using, or engaging with sources this term or on this assignment in particular? Can you describe them? How did you address them?
3. Did you suspect any instances of plagiarism this term? Can you describe them?
4. Will you teach citation/source use the same way in the future?
5. I would like to get your take on the citation in the following two passages—one has been excerpted from a published article and one from a student text. I will let you know which comes from which after you have had a look at them. The purpose of this activity is to help me better understand how historians understand citation. When considering the reported speech in these passages, please:
  - a. Identify the instances of citation.
  - b. Indicate the purposes that the citation seems to fulfil (i.e., provides evidence, credibility, etc.).
  - c. Explain whether you consider it a successful, conventional, or effective example of citation in historical research.
  - d. Try to guess whether it appeared in a published article or student essay.

### 3. Methods

- i. “The author writes about the medical practices of Lewis and Clark and credits them with considerable success in the treatment of the expedition’s members. Dr. Chuinard believes that although the captains were not physicians by occupation, “they were truly great physicians in native ability and devotion” (Chuinard, 31).”
- ii. “Besides increasing allowances for destitute mothers, the only real advances that 20 years of CCF government brought for women was the passing of legislation securing “equal pay for equal work irrespective of sex” for women working in the civil service, and allowing women to drink in bars. It should be noted, however, that the moderate progress made by the CCF on women’s issues was better than the record of the preceding provincial Liberal government in Saskatchewan from 1934 to 1944, which had completely ignored women’s issues and not elected a single woman (Smith 1975).”

With students, I asked about the process of writing the assignment as well as their rationale for specific instances of speech reporting practices in their essays:

1. In your opinion, what did this assignment ask you to do?
2. Did you encounter any problems with citation or source use in this paper? Did you encounter any other problems not necessarily related to source use?
3. I would like to hear your take on a couple of instances of source use in your paper. [At this point the student is asked to explain his or her rationale for reporting speech in a few instances of source use in his paper, providing

### 3. *Methods*

insight on his or her process of selection, integration, and representation of source material]

I intended for this before-and-after interview process to reveal the interviewee's more general opinions regarding aspects and issues of source use as well as their specific concerns and opinions in relation to the assignment.

#### **Data Analysis**

I analyzed the speech reporting practices in the student papers in three thoroughly recursive stages: identification and classification of speech reporting instances, direct interpretation of speech reporting practices, and categorical aggregation of interpretation notes (see Appendix 1 for a fully coded example).

#### **Analysis stage 1: Identifying, classifying, and coding reported speech**

In the first stage of analysis, I identified, classified, and coded instances of reported speech, focusing on attribution practices and speech reporting forms. This process of identification and classification was recursive, as my initial classifications grew narrower and more specific throughout my analysis of similar strategies.

My analysis of the students' attribution practices involved two considerations: (1) when and how did students use integral and non-integral attribution? And (2) which speech act verbs did they use? For this classification process, I drew on Swales' (1990) concepts of integral and non-integral attributions and Thompson & Yiyun's (1991) model of speech act verbs. I identified integral attributions when speech reporting phrases were integrated into the syntax of the speech report. As noted in Chapter 2, integral attributions can be quite diverse,



### 3. Methods

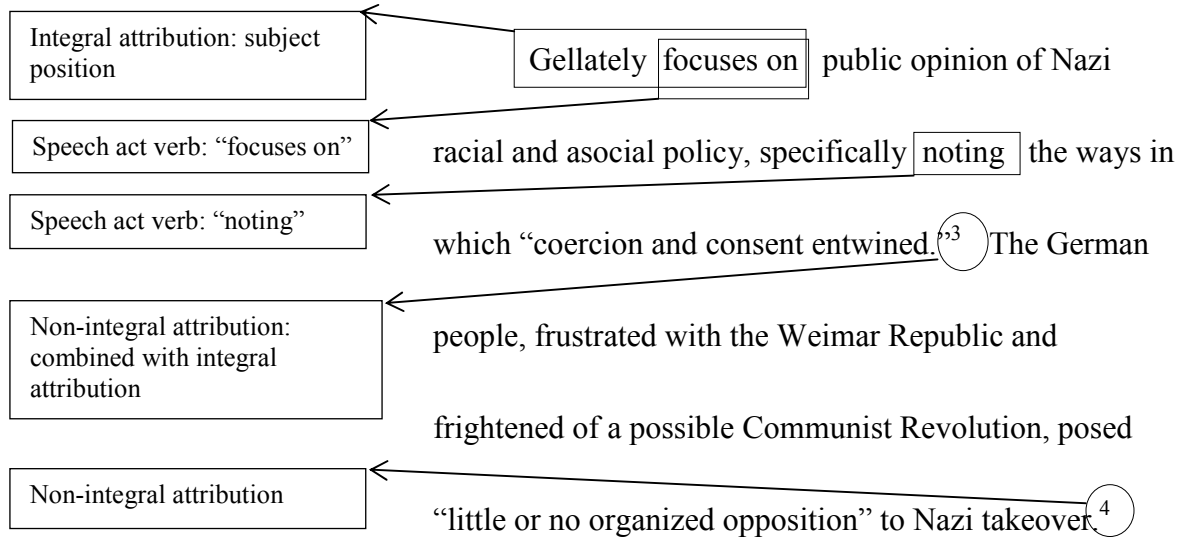
involving attributions to an individual author (e.g., *Gellately writes that...*), a community (e.g., *Historians agree that...*), an object (e.g., *The book argues that...*), or without reference to the author in passive constructions (e.g., *It is argued that...*). In addition, integral attributions can be located in different grammatical “slots” in the sentence. For example, they can occupy the subject position (e.g., *Jane argues that the sky is not blue per se.*), the subject position after an introductory phrase (e.g., *Debunking a common assumption, Jane argues that the sky is not blue per se.*), and the object position (e.g., *Tim discusses Jane’s argument on the colour of the sky.*). Integral attribution can also be “distributed” in instances where the reported speaker is described as doing two or more actions (e.g., *In her essay “Deconstructing the Sky,” Jane draws on science and methods to argue that the sky is not necessarily blue.*)

In addition, I coded for the presence of speech act verbs in integral attributions (e.g., *She argues/rejects/illuminates...*) across the data sets, creating a list of speech act verbs. I assigned these verbs evaluative and denotative implications by drawing on Thompson & Yiyun’s (1991) model. For example, I coded the verb “*account*” as in “*He accounts for...*” as:

- A positive author stance, indicating that the reported speaker believes in the facticity of his or her utterance
- A factive writer stance, indicating that the writer or speech reporter also believes in the facticity of the reported utterance
- A status interpretation, indicating that the reported information has a function within the new argumentative context
- A theorizing writer act, indicating the writer’s use of the reported speech

### 3. Methods

This speech act verb coding process made available the number and types of speech act verbs in each paper in each study corpus. The excerpt from Lisa(b)'s paper below offers an example of this coding.<sup>10</sup>



<sup>3</sup> Ibid., 8.

<sup>4</sup> Ibid., 13.

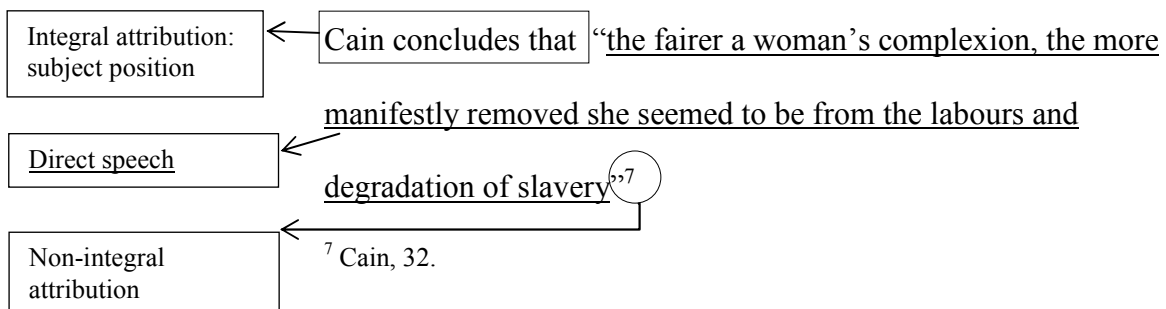
The process of analyzing speech reporting forms was also recursive. In light of criticisms that taxonomies of speech reporting forms are not universally applicable (Hyland, 2010; Swales, 1986), I wanted to use current models of speech reporting forms (e.g., Semino & Short, 2004) only as guides to identifying and creating descriptors for the forms that are present in my study corpora. Through this process, I found and created descriptors for eight speech reporting forms: (1) classic direct representations of reported speech, (2) free direct representations of reported speech, (3) summary, (4) indirect content paraphrase, (5) indirect content paraphrase mixed with direct speech slips, (6) framed free indirect representations of

<sup>10</sup> Except where otherwise noted, excerpts from student texts are unaltered; grammatical, stylistic, typological, and formatting idiosyncrasies are present in the student papers.

### 3. Methods

reported speech, (7) framed free indirect representations of reported speech mixed with direct speech slips, and (8) indirect and direct representations of embedded reported speech.

(1) *Classic direct representations of reported speech* (CDR) occurred in speech reports that presented the words of an utterance using an attribution phrase and quotation marks. The following is an example of CDR from Kate's book review.



CDR does not involve more authorial commentary about the reported speech than that given in the speech act verb such as “concludes” in the above example.

CDR is distinct from *direct speech slips*. When directly reported speech was introduced with more than a straightforward attribution phrase (e.g., *He argues extensively and bitterly that <<direct speech>>...*; or *She provides several examples of the ways in which <<direct speech>>...*) it was classified as a direct speech “slip” in either indirect content paraphrase or framed free indirect representation of reported speech with direct speech slips (see definitions 5 and 6 below for examples).

(2) *Free direct representations of reported speech* (FDR) differed from classic direct representations of reported speech in that they did not include introductory information. The following example is from Diana(a)'s book review.

3. Methods

Herman argues that this is not the whole story of these two men. “Gandhi and Churchill both died as heroes to their fellow countrymen and as icons to the rest of the world. But what they are celebrated for achieving is not what they had set out to do.”<sup>1</sup>

FDR

<sup>1</sup> Arthur Herman. *Gandhi & Churchill: The Epic Rivalry That Destroyed an Empire and Forged our Age* (New York, NY: Bantam Dell, 2009) 606.

Even though these instances of directly represented speech were typically integrated into the reporting context through preceding explanations, I labeled them “free” direct representations of reported speech to reflect the absence of authorial commentary within the same sentence.

(3) *Summary* occurred in speech reports that provided a relatively undetailed synopsis of a speech action and/or its topics. The following is an example of summary from Ashley’s book review.

Integral attribution: to an object; distributed

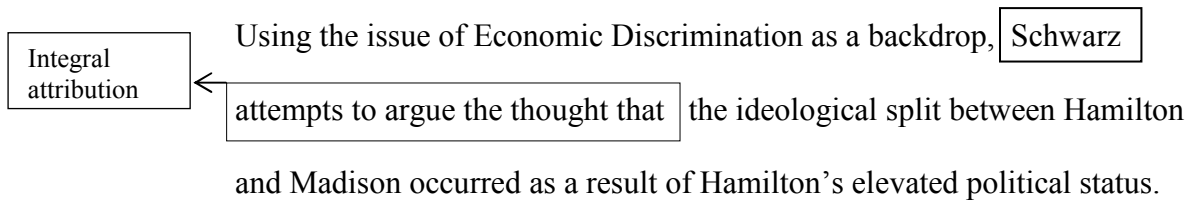
← Margaret M. Storey’s essay on the “Civil War Unionists and the Political Culture of Loyalty in Alabama” takes a cross-section of a place that most historians glaze over as being a secessionist state, and paints a picture with the details of the everyday life of those who had the courage to stand for their beliefs on the Loyalist side of the conflict.

This was classified as summary because it did not provide the details about the speech act that it introduced, which for instance would have involved what specifically Storey says about the everyday life of the Loyalists. Had Ashley included such information here, this

### 3. Methods

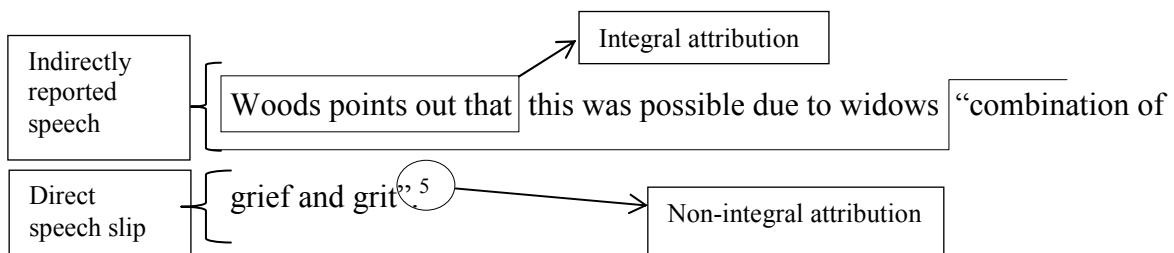
instance of reported speech would have been coded as indirect content paraphrase.

(4) *Indirect content paraphrase* (ICP) is similar to summary in that the content of a speech report is presented in the writer's own voice and perspective but it differs in that it offers a greater amount of specificity about a speech report. The following example of ICP from John's book review illustrates this:



Notably, ICP always involves integral attribution. I specify that this form of indirect speech is a paraphrase of the informational content of a speech report without much emphasis on its expressive or emotive content because other taxonomies make this distinction (e.g., McHale, 1978; Fludernik, 1993) in contrast to an illustrative form of indirectly reported speech, which I did not find in these corpora of critical reviews.

(5) *Indirect content paraphrase with direct speech slips* (ICP+) occurred when indirect content paraphrase was mixed with directly quoted speech to make a full clause. For example, consider the following excerpt from David's review:



<sup>5</sup> Wood, *Broken Reeds and Competent Farmers*, 35.

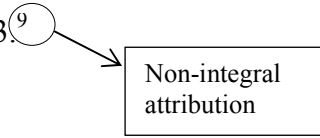
### 3. Methods

In ICP+ in the study corpora, the direct speech slips were always punctuated with quotation marks, occurred in a variety of places or “sentence slots” in the indirectly represented reported speech, and could be as short as one phrase or as long as a few sentences.

(6) *Framed free indirect representations of reported speech* (FFIR) differed from indirect content paraphrase and summary in the study corpora only in the absence of integral attribution. FFIR involved an indirect report of speech featuring the writer’s voice and perspective that, being “free” from integral attribution, was identifiable as indirectly reported speech because the discursive context framed it as such and/or because of non-integral attribution. The following instance of FFIR from Alice’s review is framed by non-integral attribution:

The Comstock Law was passed 1 March 1873.<sup>9</sup>

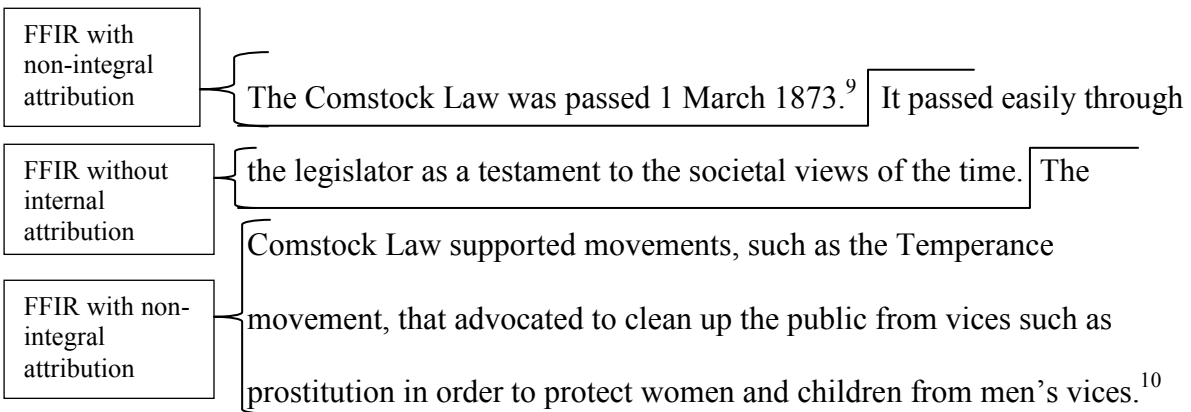
<sup>9</sup>McGarry. “Spectral Sexualities”, Page 9.



The diagram consists of a rectangular box on the right containing the text "Non-integral attribution". An arrow points from the top-left corner of this box to a small circle containing the superscripted number "9", which is positioned above the end of the sentence "The Comstock Law was passed 1 March 1873." in the text above.

When we look at the context in which this instance of FFIR with a non-integral frame, though, we see that it helps to frame a subsequent instance of FFIR without any internal attribution features:

### 3. Methods



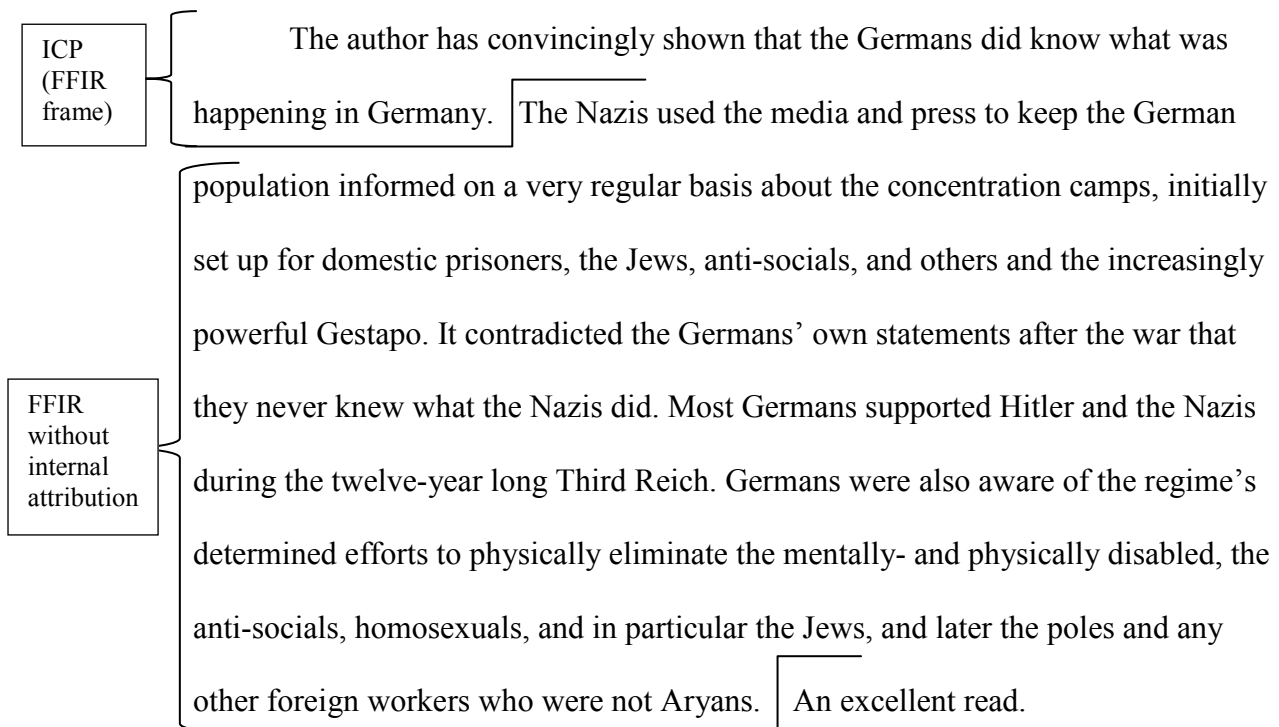
<sup>9</sup> McGarry. “Spectral Sexualities”, Page 9.

<sup>10</sup> McGarry. “Spectral Sexualities”, Page 19.

In this context, the reader can safely assume that the sentence between the two instances of FFIR with non-integral attributions—“It passed easily through the legislator as a testament to the societal views of the time”—is also indirect speech report from McGarry’s text because it continues the same subject of discussion and does not show evidence of a shift to the student writer’s commentary. That said, no matter how much the context implies that unattributed material is a continuation of a speech report there is no definitive way to tell that it is, in fact, FFIR without internal attribution.

FFIR (with and without non-integral attribution) was also often “framed” by a preceding instance of reported speech in the study corpora. The following excerpt from Maria’s review is an example of FFIR without internal attribution that was framed by a preceding instance of reported speech.

### 3. Methods



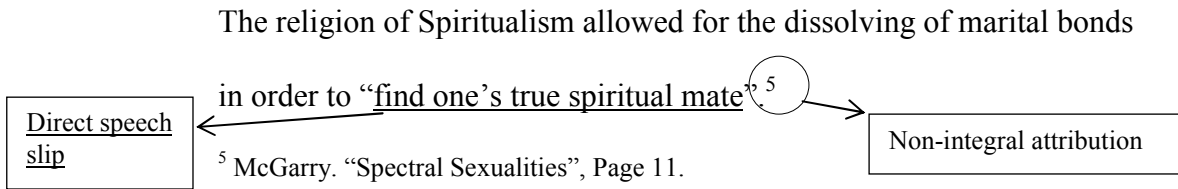
Here, the preceding instance of indirect content paraphrase—“The author has convincingly shown that the Germans did know what was happening in Germany”—serves as a frame for the following un-attributed sentences, implying that they are also indirect speech reports.

Notably, while the use of free indirect speech and quasi-direct discourse to create irony has long been documented in literary works of fiction (e.g., Fludernik, 1993; Vološinov, 1929/1973), framed free indirect representations of reported speech in the academic texts in this study does not seem to be used for ironic effect.

(7) *Framed free indirect representations of reported speech with direct speech slips* (FFIR+) occurred when instances of directly reported speech punctuated with quotation marks were used in combination with framed free indirect representations of reported speech. This combination of direct speech and FFIR is present in the following excerpt from Alice’s review:

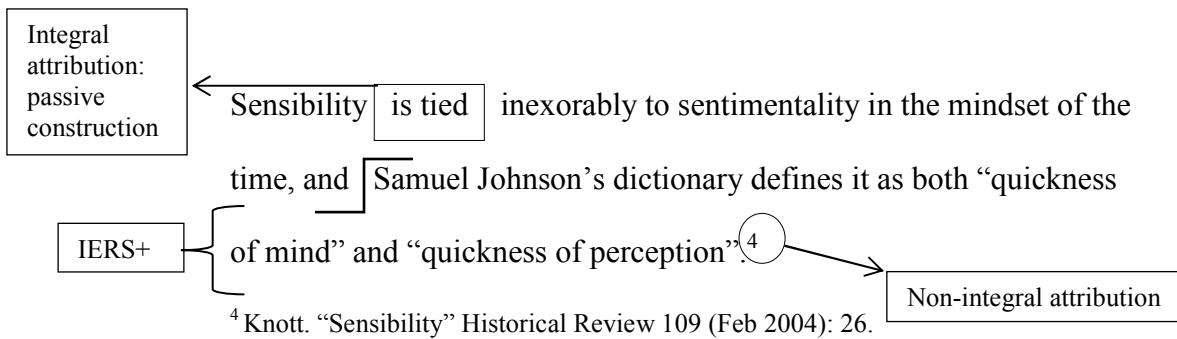


3. Methods



As in the case of ICP+, direct speech and indirect speech are combined in FFIR+ to make a full clause. Notably, direct speech slips in FFIR function as framing devices, helping to identify the un-attributed indirect speech as reported speech.

(8) *Indirect representations of embedded reported speech (IERS/IERS+)* occurred in the study corpora when writers reiterated a direct or indirect speech report made by the author of the text they were reviewing using either indirect speech (IERS) or indirect speech with direct speech slips (IERS+). The following excerpt from Robert’s paper is an example of IERS+:



Semino and Short identify representation of embedded reported speech as “discourse presentation” that itself contains “discourse presentation” with or without “clausal grammatical embeddings” (an attribution phrase within the attributed speech report) (2004,

### 3. Methods

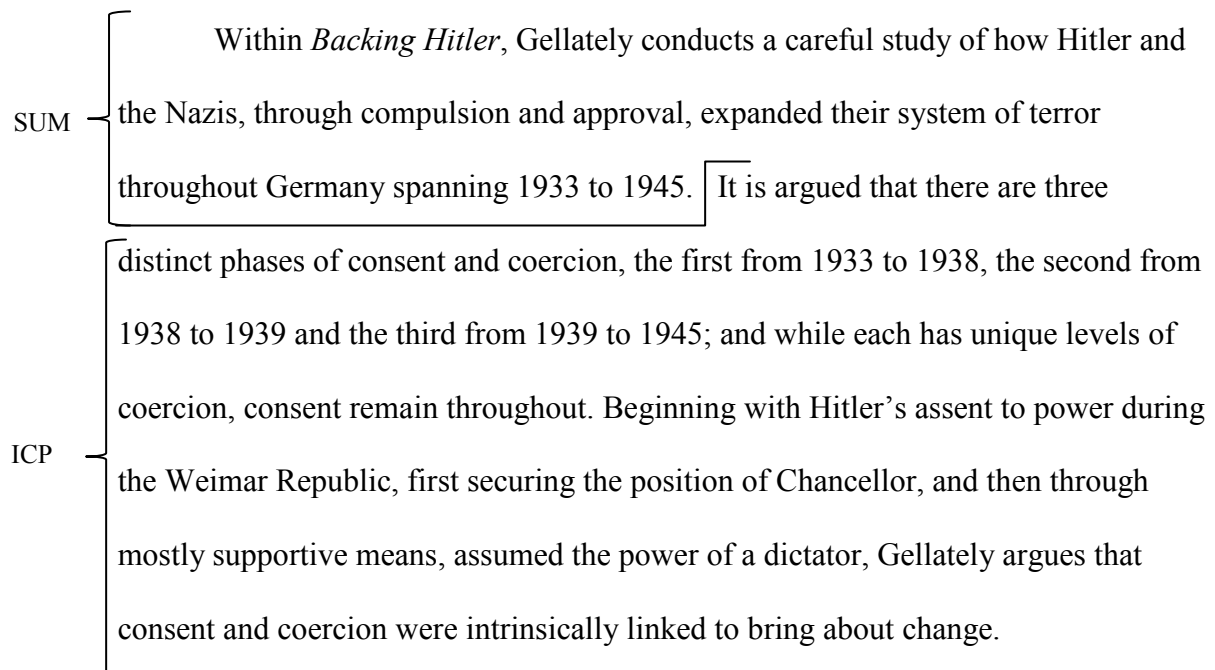
pp. 33-34). The above example from Robert's text did involve a "clausal embedding" as it included a second attribution phrase to the embedded source—"Samuel Johnson's dictionary defines it as..."

The speech reporting forms that I have described here generally align with traditional understandings of indirect and direct speech. CDR, FDR, IERS, and ICP with and without direct speech slips can all be found in other taxonomies of speech reporting forms under different names (e.g., Fludernik, 1993; Semino & Short, 2004; Politis & Kakavoulia, 2006). My description of summary varies slightly from traditional taxonomies, serving as a catch-all category for (a) references to the mere occurrence of speech acts (e.g., *He spoke for what seemed to be hours.*)—what Semino and Short (2004) call the "narrator's representation" of speech/thought/writing—which seldom occur in the study corpus, and (b) descriptions of the topics of speech acts (e.g., *He spoke about cars for what seemed to be hours.*)—what Semino and Short refer to as the "narrator's report" of speech/thought/writing. The biggest divergence in my set of descriptors from the established classifications of speech reporting forms is framed free indirect representation of reported speech. The FFIR present in this study corpus, as illustrated above, was closest to the example of "free indirect speech" in Semino and Short's (2004) taxonomy: "He looked straight at her. He would definitely come back." This is because the FFIR that I found seems to be closer to a form of indirect speech than the "quasi-direct discourse" that Vološinov describes or the variant of "free indirect discourse" that Redeker discovers (1996) in a Dutch newspaper. Redeker's description of free indirect discourse, however, does share some similarities to what I describe as framed free indirect representation of reported speech here: both forms are identifiable as reported

### 3. Methods

speech by implication and both seem to suggest an “implicit endorsement” of the reported speech.

Swales (1990) used the terms “short” and “extensive” to describe occurrences of reported speech that are confined to a single sentence and those that span across sentences. Since the texts in my study corpus featured long stretches of reported speech that could be varied and interspersed with authorial commentary, I found it most useful to speak of instances of specific speech reporting forms, which may occur in isolation or in a string of forms. When one speech reporting form extended across sentences, I referred to it as a “sustained instance.” For example, in the excerpt from David’s review below, the *instance* of summary is followed by a *sustained instance* of indirect content paraphrase.



This terminology allows me to discuss the speech reporting forms that comprised “extensive” occurrences of reported speech in the study corpora.

**Analysis Stage 2: Direct interpretation of these speech reporting practices**

My purpose in this study of reported speech was not primarily to identify the speech reporting forms present in the study corpora but rather to determine how students used reported speech and whether those tactics could be related to elements of the context in which they were writing. In order to determine what the coding in the first stage of analysis says about the speech reporting practices that the students used, I followed it with a second stage of analysis featuring in-depth analysis of each student paper and each instance of reported speech therein. This process involved close consultation of observation notes and interview transcripts and was loosely guided by the following set of questions:

- i. In what argumentative context does the instance of reported speech occur?
- ii. Can I identify a connection between the instance of reported speech and the point the student writer was making?
- iii. Did the student use strategies to mix or separate his or her own commentary and the speech report?
- iv. What stylistic, disciplinary, cultural conventions did students seem to be following?
- v. Is there evidence in the instance of reported speech that the student was deferring to the source?
- vi. What does the instance of reported speech reveal about the manner in which the student was using the source?
- vii. Can I make a connection between the nature of the speech report and the assignment, the course, or the institutional contexts?

This process produced a set of analysis notes for each student paper that could then be compared and contrasted in a search for patterns.

### **Analysis Stage 3: Categorical aggregation of interpretation notes**

In the third stage of analysis, categorical aggregation, I compiled the written notes that resulted from the process of discourse analysis and used Nvivo coding software to look for similarities, patterns, and distinctive speech reporting practices. This coding process was recursive, involving stages of grouping and defining the speech reporting practices I was observing. In addition, this process benefitted from consideration of a variety of research, such as Freadman's (1994, 2002) theory of uptake, Bourdieu's concepts of agent, habitus, and field (Bourdieu & Wacquant, 1992), Ivanič's (1998) theorization of identity and positioning in student writing, and Chandrasoma, Thompson, & Pennycook's (2004) model of transgressive and non-transgressive intertextuality.

I discuss the noteworthy results of this process of identifying, creating descriptors for, and analyzing the speech representation tactics in the study corpora in the next section. In the following chapters, I represent the results of this analysis on the basis that they were discovered by a composition researcher and not by a disciplinary insider, who would bring a much deeper understanding of typical writing contexts, conventions, and pedagogical approaches in the field. In an effort to gain an understanding of the writing contexts and conventions as they pertained to the student texts in these case studies, I conducted analysis of the study corpora with careful consideration of the interview transcripts, course observation notes, course syllabi, and assignment instructions.

Part 2

Case Studies

## Chapter 4

### OMIT NEEDLESS WORDS: The absence of integral attribution in the History Methods' review essays

In this chapter, I explore the speech reporting practices that the student participants in the History Methods case study used in response to their critical book review assignment (see Appendix 4). In this assignment, students considered an example of historical research in detail in a course about the nature of historical research that featured framing questions like “how do we conceive a historical question? What kinds of evidence should we consider? How can we question our evidence? How do we create an argument? How do we avoid historical pitfalls? And finally, how do we think and write like historians?” (Syllabus, Course Description). The critical review assignment offered students an opportunity to demonstrate this kind of developing “historical consciousness” prioritized in the course. The assignment instructions, though, seem to have focused less on the nature of historical research and more on the conventions of the review genre. They instructed students on what “a good book review should do...” and also directed them to find and consider a model published review of the same subject text. In fact, the assignment seems to reflect a varied approach to helping

#### *4. Integral attribution in the History Methods' student review essays*

students to move from outside of the disciplinary community to a position inside with insider knowledge about historical research and, in particular, the book review by blending four pedagogical tactics: (1) asking guiding questions, (2) providing a paragraph-by-paragraph template for the assignment, (3) pointing to published models of reviews, and (4) situating the assignment in a course context that focused on developing a “historical consciousness.”

In this case study, I outline this pedagogical approach in more detail and explore the impact that it seems to have had on the speech reporting practices that students used in their review assignments. In this chapter specifically, I draw on Freedman’s (1994, 2002) concept of “uptake” to theorize the relationship between the discursive context and the student assignments. I provide a detailed consideration of the discursive context to inform my analysis of the student speech reporting practices, including an examination of the course environment, the assignment instructions, various supplements provided in addition to the official assignment instructions, and the instructor’s lesson on referencing and source use. The questions that guided my analysis of the student papers included:

- Is there a discernible connection between the discursive context and the speech reporting practices that students used?
- Is there any similarity in the ways students used speech reporting practices to fulfil the assignment requirements?
- Do any of the assignment instructions seem to stand out as having been particularly influential?
- Do any aspects of the discursive context seem to have been particularly challenging for students to navigate using speech reporting practices?



#### *4. Integral attribution in the History Methods' student review essays*

- Can better practices for teaching speech reporting practices in the book review assignment be discerned from this analysis?

I have organized my discussion of this case study into three chapters to address fully the pedagogical tactics that the instructor used in this assignment. In this chapter, I focus on the connections between the course context and the students' review essays, particularly in regard to the discursive choices that the students made in their responses. In the following two chapters, I explore the model book reviews that the students accessed and investigate (a) whether they influenced the students' speech reporting practices and (b) how students engaged with them in their own review essays.

### **Theoretical Framework**

#### **Theorizing the Student Response to Writing Prompts**

A productive approach to analyzing student writing requires an acknowledgement that even problematic aspects of student work might represent thoughtful choices students have made in response to the exigencies of the writing context. Freedman's (1994, 2002) concept of uptake is a useful tool to theorize this connection between the discursive features of student work and aspects of the assignment instructions, the course context, and the surrounding institutional environment. Using the analogy of the game, Freedman explains that discursive "uptakes" are akin to return "serves" in a game of tennis. This analogy works to elucidate the various constraints and opportunities that writer's encounter as the game is a regulated, structured space in which skilled players use strategy to compete; while the previous shot might force a player to a specific area of the court, it can also provide an opportunity for cunning and strategy—topspin, placement, depth, and power. In this way,

Freadman's tennis analogy accounts for the dichotomy between the "rules" of an assignment and the constraints of the discursive context and the student writers' freedom to innovate.

Freadman clarifies that each shot is enabled and constrained by three factors: the formal rules of the game, the skill of the players, and the nature of the shot to which it is a response (1994, pp. 44-45). In the case of student writing, the formal rules of the game include explicit stipulations like the assignment deadline and, more broadly, the decorum of the classroom and the teacher-student relationship. The preceding shot is typically the immediate assignment instructions, which explicitly demand the return shot and delineate its character, although student writers could potentially perceive other aspects of the course as part of the preceding shot. For instance, students might construct an assignment that responds not only to the assignment instructions but also to the course description, a previous class lecture, or a particular remark the instructor might have made. Of course, the skill of the player refers to the student writer's ability to successfully fulfil the assignment instructions and demonstrate competence in the intended learning objectives. However, this "skill" also includes the ability to interpret the assignment instructions, which are often laden with tacit instructions that instructors likely experience as natural, normal, or common sense (Clark, 2005), as well as the ability to intuit an appropriate tone and effective approach to the response. Indeed, there are opportunities for student writers to "play" strategically if they have the skills needed to do so appropriately and effectively. Presumably, instructors look forward to student uptakes of their assignment guidelines that are particularly astute, having taken advantage of the fluidity of the conventions and rules of the game to construct a genred rejoinder that is engaging. Freadman's theory of uptake accounts for this kind of fluidity of conventions, explaining genres' susceptibility to change as writers innovate through strategic

play. This regularized but fluid nature of genres is well recognized by genre theorists among whom there is agreement that genres respond to specific contexts and are only ever “stabilized-for-now” (Schryer, 1994, p. 107).

Freadman’s analogy also accounts for the power relations in a discursive exchange, as users of a genre are positioned by the language in use, the esteem of their fellow players, and the social dynamics of the institutional or cultural context (Paré, 2002). For student writers, the power relations of discursive acts are complex and high-stakes. For students, “playing the game” requires temporarily setting aside part of themselves as they try on/perform/“ventriloquate” (Dias et al., 1999, p. 60) a disciplinary language that might be foreign to them and also might discount the value of their personal, familial, and cultural languages. In addition, the written work undergraduates produce is generally prompted by and provided for a fellow player whose role in the game is actually more akin to referee. The audience, typically an instructor, is a moderator and evaluator of the students’ written work, and within this context the real subject of a student essay is the student writer him or herself; the content of the written work is tangential to what it reveals about the student writer’s knowledge and skill. Miller (1998/2003) reminds composition scholars that despite pedagogical approaches aimed to democratize writing instruction—the expressivist personal essay, collaborative projects, and simulated case studies come to mind—students

never forget where they are, no matter how carefully we arrange the desks in the classroom, how casually we dress, how open we are to disagreement, how politely we respond to their journal entries, their papers, their portfolios. They don’t forget; we often do. (p. 664)

Invariably, the need to demonstrate skill, knowledge, and effort informs student uptakes of

assigned writing prompts.

Composition research into the limitations and problems with the institutional learning context has offered a variety of pedagogical approaches—some intended to counter the disempowering effect of the academic writing context, such as “code-switching” (Bernstein, 1966) and individually-driven, expressive assignments (Elbow, 1987), and others intended to democratize the process of learning disciplinary languages and genres for students of all backgrounds, such as process-based assignments (e.g., Murray, 1972/2003; Emig, 1977/2003; Breuch, 2002/2003), analysis of model texts (Swales, 1984; Flowerdew, 2000), and the elucidation of textual features using linguistic analysis (Sydney school) (see Hyon, 1996; Hyland, 2003). Janks (2000) explains the paradox between the need to provide students with access to academic language but also to avoid disempowering especially non-traditional students:

If we provide students with access to dominant forms, this contributes to maintaining their dominance. If, on the other hand, we deny students access, we perpetuate their marginalisation in a society that continues to recognise the value and importance of these forms. (p. 176)

Freadman’s theory of uptake seems to bridge this conflict. On the one hand, Freadman’s game analogy suggests that it is important to teach the “rules” of the game to new players, seemingly supporting approaches to teaching genre in which genre rules and conventions are laid bare or demystified, while on the other hand it seems to support approaches that present genres as fluid structures that can be used strategically to achieve specific goals within particular discursive contexts. In this way, Freadman’s theory of uptake challenges educators to face the more difficult task of fostering in students a kind of intuition for the strategic use

of genres, a use that acknowledges that genres are social action. In fact, the History Methods' book review assignment seems to have taken this dual tact as it blended a focus on developing in students a kind of historical consciousness and encouraging them to think of themselves as historians through teaching the conventions of the review genre.

### **Context Analysis**

#### **The course**

This methods course was not a composition course that taught “nuts and bolts” issues of writing. Rather, the course description in the syllabus depicted a course about history that engaged students in discussions about what makes historical research disciplinary specific, the advantages and limitations of historical research, as well as the “rules” of finding and using evidence in historical research and discourse conventions such as the need to “OMIT NEEDLESS WORDS” (course syllabus). The course seems to have had one central goal—to think and write like a historian, to develop a historical consciousness—which is reflected in the course's written assignments. The three written assignments comprised 60% of the students' grades and included: (1) the two review essays that I study here as well as (2) an analysis of an academic journal and (3) a personal journal. These assignments required that students reflect on why and how history is and should be studied and how its study is organized into discursive communities. In particular, for the purposes of this case study, the book review assignments promised to contribute to the goal of developing a historical consciousness by asking students to focus on an example of historical research, to identify and evaluate the questions asked therein and the methods used to answer them.

### **The assignment instructions**

The assignment guidelines for the required book reviews, however, went beyond the goal of developing a kind of historical consciousness because they also clearly sought to teach students about the conventions of the disciplinary genre. The instructions for these assignments began with a description of what a book review does: “A good book review should do two things: offer an overview of the book’s main arguments and then offer a focused assessment of some of the work’s merits and/or weaknesses...” Subsequently, the instructions posed several questions for students to ask of the books they were to review in order to help facilitate the reviewing process. However, the instructions were careful to caution students not to answer these questions in order (which is a phenomenon in student writing that Lillis [1999] demonstrates is often related to strategic attempts to break through the “institutional practice of mystery” [p. 128] and that Dias et al. [1999] recognize as a common strategy in undergraduate student writing [pp. 72-73]). The instructions stressed the importance of using the answers to the writing prompts to construct an argument that supports a thesis statement: “A book review is not simply a quick answer to these questions in order, for a review needs a thesis around which you’re organizing your argument.” The emphasis on the students’ ownership of their book review through the repetition of the addressive “you” is striking in this instruction. It underscores the instructor’s goal to situate students in the role of the historian.

The assignment instructions also directed students to find a published review of their subject text to include in their essay as a means of considering how historians/academics have considered the work. The assignment guidelines did not identify this published review as a model of the genre. However, according to Lisa, the instructor did suggest that students

look to these published reviews to see how the reviewer critiqued the work and used referencing. Lisa explained: “At the beginning he [the instructor] told us to go and look [in academic journals] at the way other people did book reviews.” It is reasonable to assume that students did look to these published reviews (of the same subject text) as official models of “good” book reviews.

### **Additional instructions for completing the assignment**

During interviews with student participants, it also came to my attention that the instructor provided a supplementary set of instructions for the assignment that was more prescriptive about the way students were to structure the review essay. Maria speculated that the instructor created these instructions in response to the questions about the assignment that she asked during the instructor’s office hours. James described the supplementary handout as a paragraph-by-paragraph outline of the assignment that assigned to each paragraph a specific task, such as summarize, evaluate, and discuss a published review of the text:

...the outline for how to do it was you had your introduction which introduced the book and then you had a summary drawn from the introduction [of the text-under-review], and then a couple of paragraphs drawn from the chapters of the book and then a section about how you feel the book was written/done, and then a section about the book review from a journal article...

This supplementary handout seems to have offered a much more prescriptive approach to teaching genre than the official assignment question, which seemed to provide students with the freedom to craft their own review essay while also giving them writing prompts to help

guide that process. It is possible that the instructor provided this supplementary handout in an effort to help ease student anxieties about the assignment.

### **A course lecture on referencing and source use**

Data from both my interview with the instructor and my observation of a class lecture found that the instructor's discussions of reported speech related more to using and discussing sources as an important feature of the historian's work rather than to the speech reporting practices that historians use to construct arguments. Indeed, in the interview the instructor explained that he does not care to focus too much on the mechanics of referencing sources in his classes. He provided students with resources for formatting but did not give citation style much weight in terms of grades. Speaking in general, he explained:

Out of 25, I'll, say, give five marks for referencing—not mechanics—just referencing. I have to pick my battles. Generally, if the kids got the referencing [wrong] they got the paper wrong. I can't say if there was a direct correlation, but they're tied together—if you don't get [understand] the referencing, you don't get [understand] the assignment.

The interview transcript suggests that the instructor tended to view students' inappropriate use of sources or improper documentation of reference materials as a lack of understanding of the assignment. In addition, the instructor noted that instead of focusing on the mechanics of referencing he emphasized the importance of using sources to provide evidence:

I go on about evidence with my students—we try to understand the past through the critical use of evidence. Evidence matters and we have to be very clear about where it's coming from—footnoting allows us to develop parallel discussions about



*4. Integral attribution in the History Methods' student review essays*

historiography and the nature of the source without cluttering up the main part of my essay.

The instructor explained that he concentrated on evidence with his students, helping them to understand the historian's reliance on a critical use of evidence as well as the importance of the nature of a piece of evidence, its origins, discoverers, sceptics, and archival history, which he connected to the practice of footnoting. The instructor's focus on footnoting as an opportunity for parallel discussions about sources and evidence during the interview did not move into advice regarding when it is helpful to integrate attribution material syntactically as a component of an argument.

In the lecture that I observed, the instructor did, indeed, teach citation with an emphasis on evidence and the functional importance of footnoting. The following is an excerpt from his lecture:

Historical questions are a way of organizing the material—so too is our evidence and our references. The reference needs to take you to the source—the path—no matter whether it's primary or secondary. That's the obligation of any historical inquiry and is based on the notion that evidence, however tainted or incomplete, is the basis of it. Even if you get the stylistic details wrong, your main concern should be specificity of the path.

It is evident that the course instructor did not place the mechanics of citing in a prominent position for students. While he referred students to web resources for Chicago Style, he spent the majority of his lecture on the various forms and functions of evidence and the opportunities for discussing the origins, archival history, and other historiographical details afforded by the footnoting style. In relation to what kind of information requires attribution,

*4. Integral attribution in the History Methods' student review essays*

he explained that referencing is not needed for “common knowledge,” which he defined as established knowledge in more than three sources or as information that is not an individual’s assertion or opinion. This explanation seemed to imply that material offered by a historian as a result of his or her extensive research efforts—that material offered with a collection of evidence gathered to corroborate its factuality—requires attribution to indicate the historian’s ownership.

In this lecture, the instructor encouraged students to use non-integral attribution, specifically footnoting. When attribution is necessary, he explained, footnoting is proper. In addition, the instructor advised students to avoid integral attribution as part of his advice to “omit needless words.” James clarified this instruction for me during our interview:

[The instructor] is really big on omitting excess or needless words and so at least the way we've been approaching it ... is once you've said the book and the author's name everyone knows that this paper is specifically about the book and that author so there is no need to repeat the name over and over.

The instructor followed the discussion of what information requires attribution with a lesson about problematic instances of reported speech. This lesson involved an activity sheet with exercises in identifying appropriate and effective/purposeful paraphrases. This activity underscored the need to both make reported material one’s own by reworking it to fit the new context and argument and to adhere to referencing rules for indicating the presence of and the form of reported speech.

This lesson on attribution, footnoting, and paraphrasing as well as the assignment instructions on the course syllabus and the supplementary handout comprised much of the context in which the review essays in this study corpus were constructed. The theory of

#### *4. Integral attribution in the History Methods' student review essays*

uptake predicts a correlation between the student writer's discursive choices and these requirements—including the need to paraphrase appropriately and for a purpose, to omit needless words, to footnote when attribution is necessary, to pay careful attention to evidence (in the immediate context and in the subject text's), to follow the outline provided in the supplementary handout, to use the writing prompts to shape the essay's content, to consider how a model review uses attribution, to write a “good” review that both summarizes and evaluates a subject text, and to demonstrate a kind of historical consciousness.

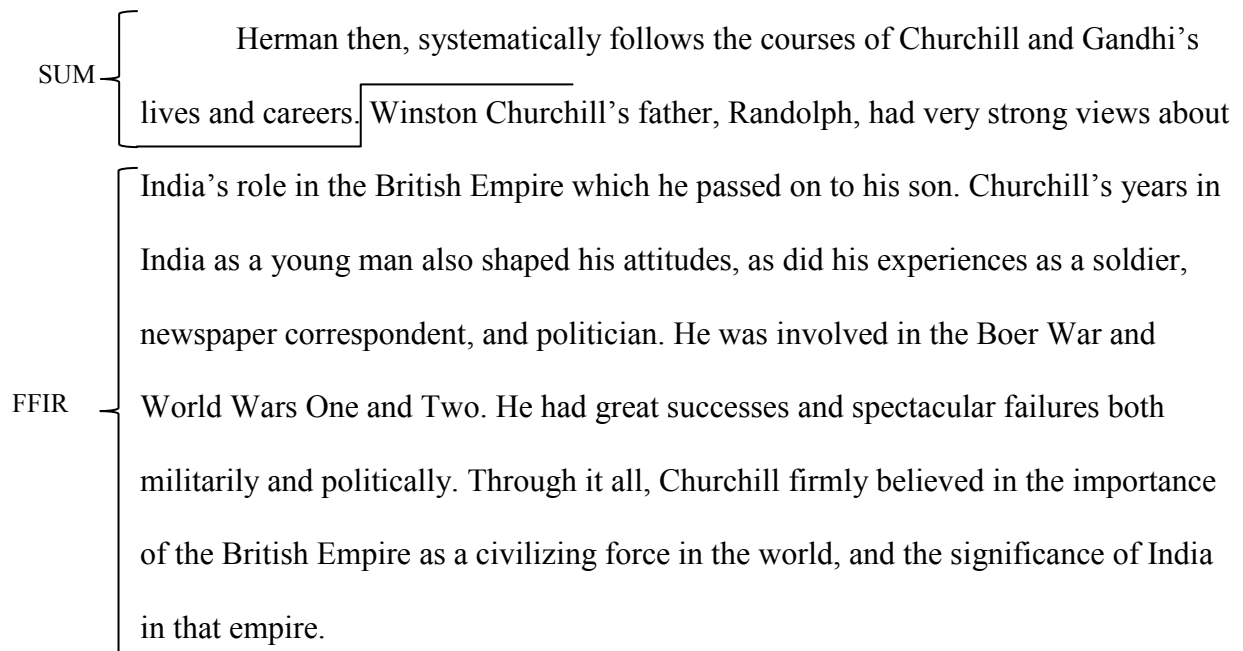
### **Findings and Discussion**

The use and placement of attribution seems to have played the largest role in the students' uptake of this writing context. As Figure 1 shows, this is most evident in the frequency and amount of reported speech in the study corpus that occurred without integral attribution and often also without non-integral attribution in a speech reporting form I have labelled “framed free indirect representation of reported speech” (FFIR), which sometimes occurs with direct speech slips (FFIR+). The following excerpt offers an example of FFIR from Diana(a)'s review essay.<sup>11</sup>

---

<sup>11</sup> A review of the descriptors for the speech reporting forms found in the two case studies provided in Appendix 3 will help illuminate this analysis.

4. Integral attribution in the *History Methods*' student review essays



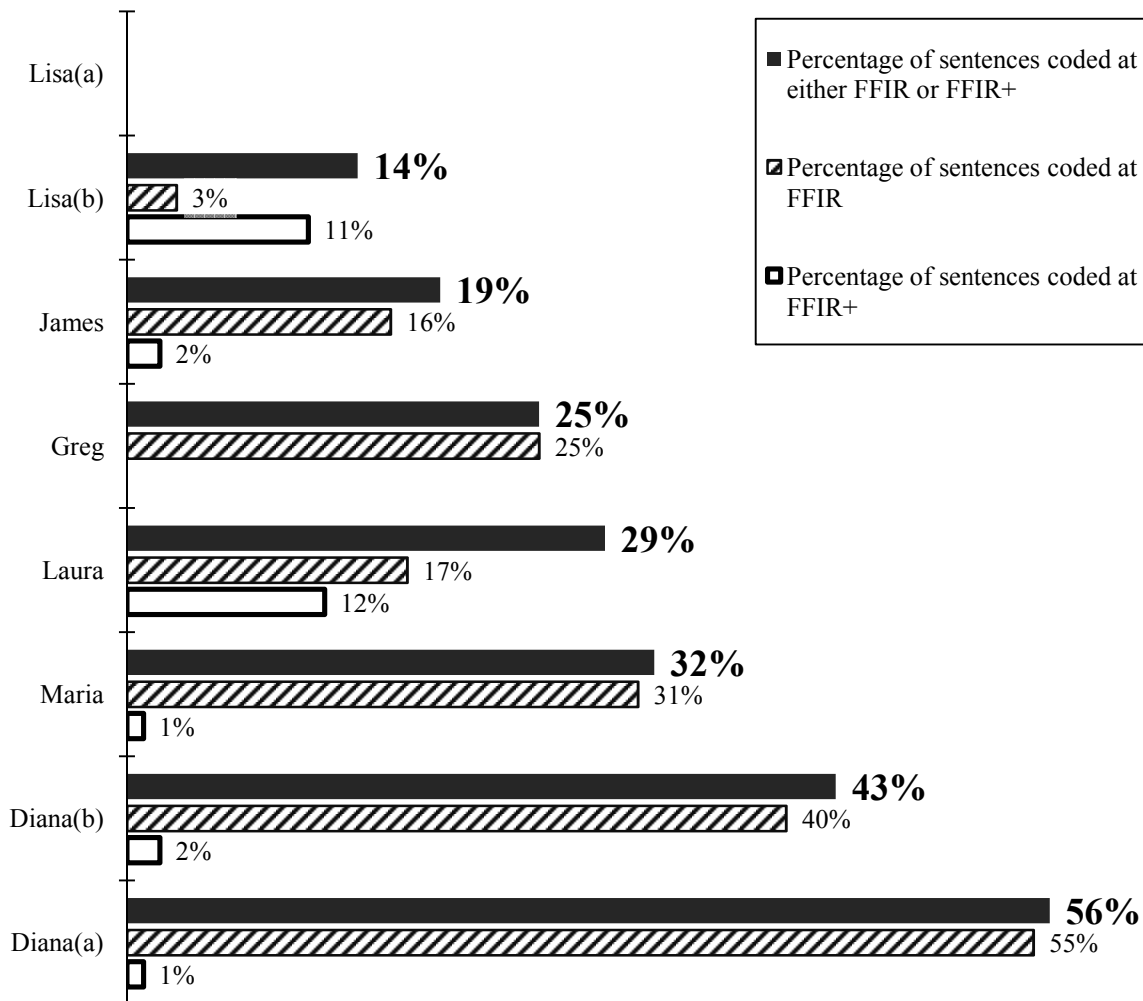
As this example demonstrates, the FFIR present in the study corpus involved an indirect report of speech featuring the student writer's voice and perspective that, being "free" from integral attribution, was identifiable as indirect speech because the discursive context framed it as such and/or because of non-integral attribution.

While the amount of FFIR/FFIR+ in this corpus of student papers did vary, the extent of its use across the study corpus is surprising given the fairly strict guidelines in academic discourse for the clear attribution and designation of reported speech as well as the pressures of the current institutional concern over academic misconduct involving the misuse of sources in written work. Figure 1 demonstrates that FFIR/FFIR+ comprised a quarter or more of five out of the eight student papers. Notably, it did not occur at all in Lisa(a)'s review paper likely because her negative review (the only negative review in the corpus of *History Methods* student reviews) did not feature any endorsement of the text-under-review, which is the primary effect of FFIR. Figure 1 depicts the percentage of sentences at which FFIR and

4. Integral attribution in the History Methods' student review essays

FFIR+ were coded in each student paper—the sentence (a clause or phrase punctuated by a period or closing expletive) being an easy unit to count and more telling of the speech reporting form's presence than a tally of its instances, which were often sustained over long stretches of text as in the example from Diana(a)'s review above.<sup>12</sup>

Figure 1: The presence of FFIR and FFIR+ in corpus of History Methods' student reviews



<sup>12</sup> I calculated these percentages of sentences coded at FFIR and FFIR+ in each student paper by dividing the number of coded sentences by the total number of sentences in the student paper and then multiplying the result by 100 and rounding to the nearest whole number. For instance, in the case of Lisa(b)'s paper the calculations were as follows:

the percentage of sentences coded at FFIR

$$(2/65)*100\%=3\%$$

the percentage of sentences coded at FFIR+

$$(9/65)*100\%=13.8\% \text{ or } 14\%$$

the percentage of sentences coded at either FFIR or FFIR+

$$[(2+9)/65]*100\%=16.9\% \text{ or } 17\%$$

#### 4. Integral attribution in the History Methods' student review essays

The prevalence of FFIR/FFIR+ in the study corpus suggests that students did not often use explicit voice demarcation or evaluation in their discussion of the text-under-review since FFIR does not include integral attribution (with a speech act verb) but is rather an indirect paraphrase that is framed as a speech report by the reporting context. This is not to say, however, that instances of reported speech with integral attribution always entailed explicit evaluation in the study corpus. There were many instances of non-evaluative attribution phrases in the student papers, such as “*Gellately lays out*” in the instance of summary from Greg’s review essay below and “*The Publishers Weekly (p. 68) review writes*” in the instance of indirect content paraphrase from Maria’s review essay below:

Attribution phrase ← **Gellately lays out** his arguments and objectives before beginning with the group’s origins, which is quite convenient and straight to the point.

Attribution phrase ← **The *Publishers Weekly* (p. 68) review writes** that the Nazis openly ill-treated misfits and other undesirables on their list, and therefore Germans knew what was happening.

These attribution phrases were neutral because they did not use highly evaluative speech act verbs or any modifiers; “*writes*” denotes simply the author’s expression of the reported material<sup>13</sup> and “*lays out*” is a neutral description of how the reported speech fits into the source text.<sup>14</sup> In addition, neither “*lays out*” nor “*writes*” indicate the reported author or the reporting student writer’s stance on the factuality of the reported speech.

The prevalence of FFIR, however, did not necessarily indicate that the students abstained from evaluation altogether. Students used the speech reporting form to endorse

<sup>13</sup> “textual author act” in Thompson & Yiyun (1991)

<sup>14</sup> “author discourse interpretation” in Thompson & Yiyun (1991)

4. Integral attribution in the *History Methods*' student review essays

speech reports and sometimes also to offer substantiations for their own claims about the text-under-review. Consider, for example, the following use of FFIR from Greg's review essay:

ICP { Gellately **shows** how the Germans wanted to 'cleans' the races they felt superior to.

FFIR { They put to work the conquered people, enforcing strict rules and regulations. They condemned any sexual relations with Germans, and forced them to work longer hours.

In this example of the use of FFIR, we actually see the orchestration of two speech reporting forms to construct an endorsement of the text-under-review. The indirect content paraphrase (ICP) worked to frame the FFIR that follows not only as a speech report but also as a positive rendition of the reported speech and the FFIR did indeed deliver an endorsement of the reported speech and also presented source material that confirms the veracity of the speech reported in the preceding ICP. Broken down, this orchestration worked to construct a positive evaluation of the text-under-review for three main reasons: (1) the content of the two speech reporting forms was connected (in this case, the ICP reported a claim made by the author and the FFIR reported evidence that the author put forward to substantiate that claim), (2) the ICP featured a speech act verb (*shows*) that suggested that both the student writer and the author-under-review perceive the speech to be factual, and (3) the FFIR had an endorsement effect<sup>15</sup> on the reported speech.

The FFIR here both recounted and endorsed evidence that the author-under-review put forward for his claim that the Jewish genocide in WWII had a measure of popular

---

<sup>15</sup> See the Review of Literature for my discussion of the form of free indirect discourse that Redeker (1996) discovered creates an endorsement of reported speech in journalistic discourse [here](#).

consent within Germany, which is paraphrased in the framing instance of ICP. This endorsement was foregrounded by the speech act verb *shows*, which indicated not only that the author-under-review believed in the factuality of his claim<sup>16</sup> but also that the student writer is in agreement with him.<sup>17</sup> In fact, this verb signalled the student writer's endorsement of the author-under-review's claim,<sup>18</sup> which the student writer accomplished through the use of the FFIR speech reporting form. Because FFIR does not involve integral attribution, the student writer did not defer responsibility for the reported speech to the source but instead took partial ownership over it. For this reason, the student writer seems to have spoken almost on behalf of the author-under-review in the instance of FFIR, endorsing the evidence for the author's claim. In this manner, the free indirect speech reporting form allowed the student writer to endorse the reported speech by simply reiterating it. Despite appearing to be a credible and confident evaluation of the text-under-review, the evaluation was merely an endorsement by means of repetition and not a reasoned, cogent explanation of *why* the author's evidence proved his claim.

This example serves to illustrate the potential value of FFIR/FFIR+ to the students in this study corpus. In summary, FFIR offered students the opportunity...

- To cut down on the number of times they made reference to the author or text-under-review, helping them both to follow the instruction to "OMIT NEEDLESS WORDS" (which, as James explained in his interview, extended to repetitions of attribution information) and to develop an assertive voice that did not defer to the author of the reported speech.

---

<sup>16</sup> "positive author stance" in Thompson & Yiyun (1991)

<sup>17</sup> "factual writer stance" in Thompson & Yiyun (1991)

<sup>18</sup> "status interpretation" in Thompson & Yiyun (1991)



#### 4. Integral attribution in the History Methods' student review essays

- To evaluate the text-under-review by means of the endorsement effect that occurs when source material is asserted on behalf of the author-under-review. Moreover, without requiring explicit statements of endorsement (e.g., *The author effectively demonstrates that...*), FFIR allowed students to express evaluation of the text-under-review largely without the burden of proof. This was likely opportune for student writers who, because of a lack of experience, probably did not have many resources at their disposal with which to launch complex arguments about the text-under-review. This is not to argue that students avoided articulating evaluations of the text-under-review altogether, just that their evaluations did not involve reported speech.
- To validate the accuracy of their preceding claims about the text-under-review in a manner that would have confirmed the reliability of their indirect speech (e.g., <ICP> The author proves that X is B. </ICP> <FFIR> X is B because... </FFIR>).
- To demonstrate their mastery of the text-under-review to the course instructor, potentially mollifying any concerns with the simplicity of the endorsement effect as a critical evaluation of the text-under-review.

Not all of the students in the study corpus, however, made full or best use of the opportunity to use FFIR/FFIR+ to achieve these ends. While the majority of FFIR in the study corpus<sup>19</sup> function like the above example from Greg's review, there is quite a bit of variation in the ways some students use it. I discuss these innovations in three groupings: innovative uses of FFIR/FFIR+ that seem to have (1) been rhetorically effective, (2) had limited rhetorical

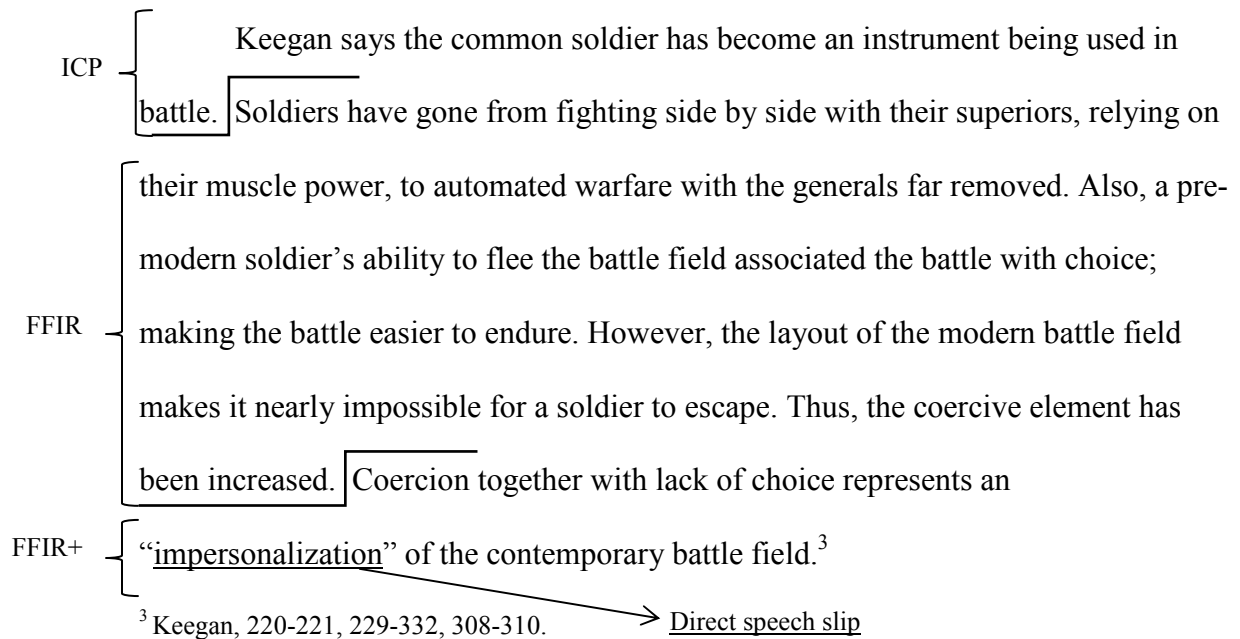
---

<sup>19</sup> Approximately 65% of the number of sentences coded at FFIR in the study corpus featured the orchestration of ICP or summary and FFIR to construct a positive evaluation of the text-under-review because: (1) the content of the ICP/SUM was related to the subsequent FFIR, (2) the ICP/SUM established a positive critique using a speech act verb and/or an explicit statement of agreement, (3) the FFIR had an endorsement effect on the reported speech.

success, and (3) served a problematic purpose.

### **Innovative uses of FFIR/FFIR+ that were rhetorically effective**

In one particular instance of FFIR/FFIR+, a short direct speech slip seems to make for a particularly persuasive endorsement effect. This occurred in Laura's review essay:



In this example of the use of direct speech slips in free indirect speech (FFIR+), Laura set off and highlighted the author-under-review's phrasing in a manner that underscored its value.

The implicit argument here (whether or not Laura intended it) was that the author's description of the contemporary battlefield is apt and therefore a noteworthy contribution to the status of historical knowledge. This direct speech slip, therefore, affirmed the endorsement effect that the FFIR has, clarifying the student writer's positive opinion of the reported speech.

There also seems to be something effective about the use of direct speech to relate the author-under-review's most contentious claim. Laura used FFIR to (re)construct the author's

#### 4. Integral attribution in the History Methods' student review essays

argument building from its most straightforward claim (that the battlefield has changed with new technologies) and then switched to FFIR+ to relate the author's most contentious claim (that modern technology has caused the battlefield to become impersonal). In this way, Laura not only secured the reader's support for the author's conclusion but also emphasized his achievement by deferring to his voice when it came to reiterating the *product* of his research—the product that resulted from “mixing his labour” with common knowledge to create something over which he can claim ownership (Stearns, 1999). In addition, this deferral avoided any objections to a student writer asserting such a strong claim without using at least integral attribution to clarify its rightful author.

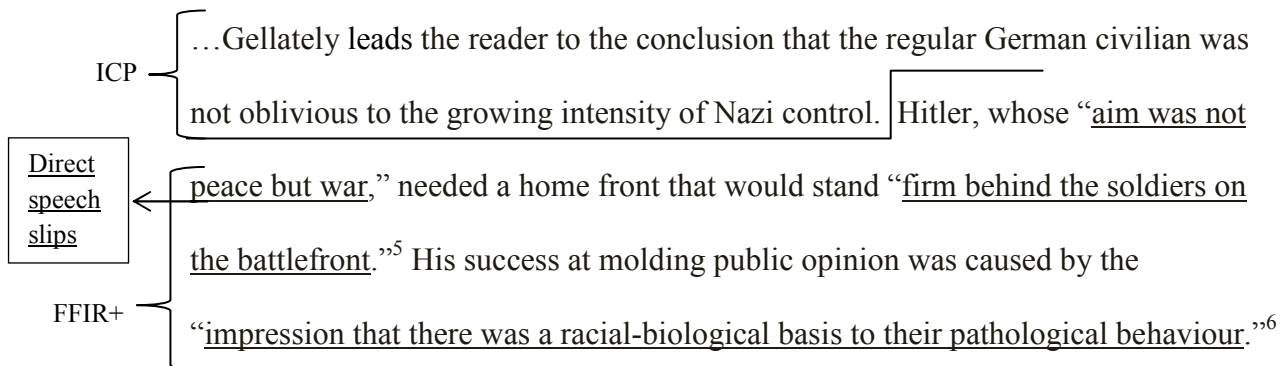
#### **Innovative uses of FFIR/FFIR+ that were of limited success**

Several instances of innovative uses of FFIR/FFIR+ that had more limited rhetorical success occurred, including: Lisa(b)'s frequent use of direct speech slips, Laura's use of inaccurate speech act verbs to frame FFIR, and Diana(a)'s use of FFIR when integral attribution was needed for coherence as well as her rather lengthy instances of FFIR, Diana(b)'s use of FFIR in an unconventional discussion of the emergent themes in the text-under-review, and James' use of FFIR for somewhat questionable purposes.

#### **Lisa(b)'s frequent use of direct speech slips:**

Lisa(b)'s use of FFIR+ was less effective than the above example of FFIR+ from Laura's review essay primarily because of the frequency with which she used direct speech slips. Consider the number of direct speech slips in the following excerpt from Lisa(b)'s review essay.

4. Integral attribution in the *History Methods*' student review essays



<sup>5</sup> Robert Gellately. *Backing Hitler, coercion and consent in Nazi Germany* (New York: Oxford University Press, 2001), 70.

<sup>6</sup> *Ibid.*, 56.

In this instance of FFIR+, Lisa(b) did not achieve an assertive voice because she presented the content of the speech report primarily using direct speech slips. The direct speech served to defer responsibility for the assertion to the source author and indicated that the student writer did not feel able to assert the information on the author’s behalf. By continually deferring to the author-under-review, Lisa(b) took a subordinate authorial position.

This example is representative of the FFIR/FFIR+ in Lisa(b)’s paper, which Figure 1 reveals to be predominantly FFIR+ (3% FFIR versus 11% FFIR+). In her interview, Lisa explained that she generally chooses to include many direct speech slips in her work because that is the way she has been trained to write in her major field of study, English literature. From her explanation, we might conclude that this discursive choice was a stylistic preference and not necessarily a reaction to the exigencies of the writing context. However, because direct speech slips function somewhat like integral attributions in that they clarify the author of the speech report, they did resolve one of the chief concerns with the assignment that Lisa expressed during the interview—the instruction to avoid redundant references to the source text. She explained:

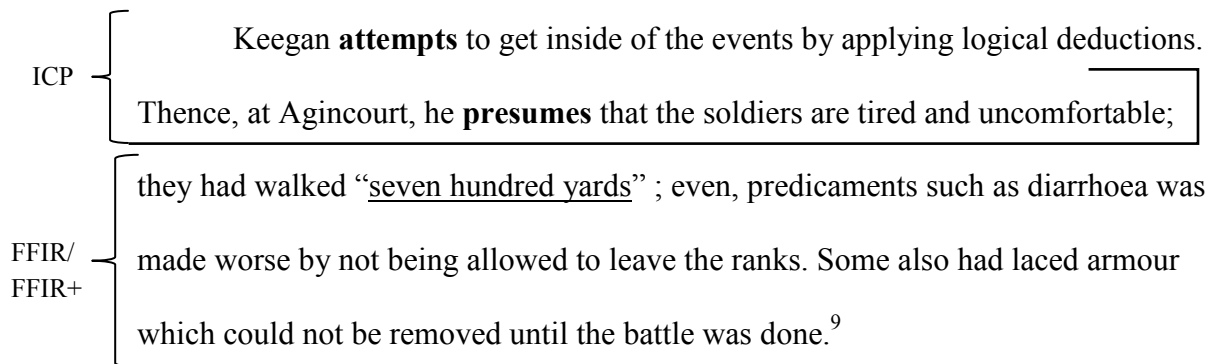
*4. Integral attribution in the History Methods' student review essays*

At the beginning he [the instructor] told us to go and look [in academic journals] at the way other people did book reviews. The ones that I looked at didn't have any quotes at all or references ... I was pretty much only putting in page numbers when I could put in the actual page number instead of just my summary of the book itself. I wasn't sure if he wanted page numbers at all. It was very unclear because he told us to look at others that didn't have any. (Exit interview transcript, Lisa)

Lisa's explanation seems to indicate that her use of direct speech helped her to solve the conflict that she felt between the instructor's advice to follow the referencing patterns in published book reviews on the one hand and institutional policies of academic integrity on the other. What Lisa seems to have encountered is a discrepancy between the strict referencing policies in the school context and the perhaps more liberal referencing practices in the corresponding professional context, which has also been discovered in other disciplines (e.g., LeClercq, 1999; Freedman & Adam, 2000; Devitt, 1991).

**Laura's use of inaccurate speech act verbs to frame FFIR:**

The endorsement effect that FFIR/FFIR+ can have was also impeded in one of the instances of FFIR/FFIR+ in Laura's paper. In this instance, the endorsement effect was limited because of the speech act verbs that Laura used in the ICP frame set up a negative critique of the source text. Consider the use of "attempts" and "presumes" in the following excerpt.



<sup>9</sup> Keegan, 89-90.

Both of these speech act verbs conveyed a negative interpretation of the author-under-review's actions.<sup>20</sup> While “*attempts*” is more neutral than “*presumes*,” which indicated that Laura believed the author-under-review to be mistaken,<sup>21</sup> it did imply that the author's work is somehow incomplete or inadequate. Unlike “*shows*” in the example of FFIR in Greg's review essay, which signalled Greg's endorsement of the reported speech in the subsequent instance of FFIR, these verbs foreground a negative critique. As a result, the FFIR/FFIR+ that follows was confusing because it failed to deliver an explanation of how the author's goals are unfulfilled or what he has mistakenly presumed. The endorsement effect still functioned in this FFIR/FFIR+, as Laura asserted the speech report on behalf of the author, but it served primarily as a corrective. It helped the reader to understand that the previous speech act verbs were, perhaps, used in error.

**Diana(a)'s use of FFIR when integral attribution is needed for coherence:**

Diana(a)'s uses of FFIR were problematic for a few different reasons. One of these involved her use of FFIR when negatively critiquing the published review (by Ganguly) of the text-under-review. In the following excerpt, Diana critiqued Ganguly's review, arguing

<sup>20</sup> “Author behaviour interpretation” in Thompson & Yiyun (1991)

<sup>21</sup> “Counter-factive writer stance” in Thompson & Yiyun (1991)

4. Integral attribution in the *History Methods*' student review essays

that he does not do a good enough job of explaining that the author-under-review (Herman) does not idealize Gandhi or Churchill in his text. As illustrated in the excerpt below, she used FFIR/FFIR+ throughout this explanation, choosing to leave out integral attributions despite the fact that she was orchestrating three layers of speech reports: (1) Ganguly's report of (2) Herman's report of (3) Churchill and Gandhi's objectionable positions.

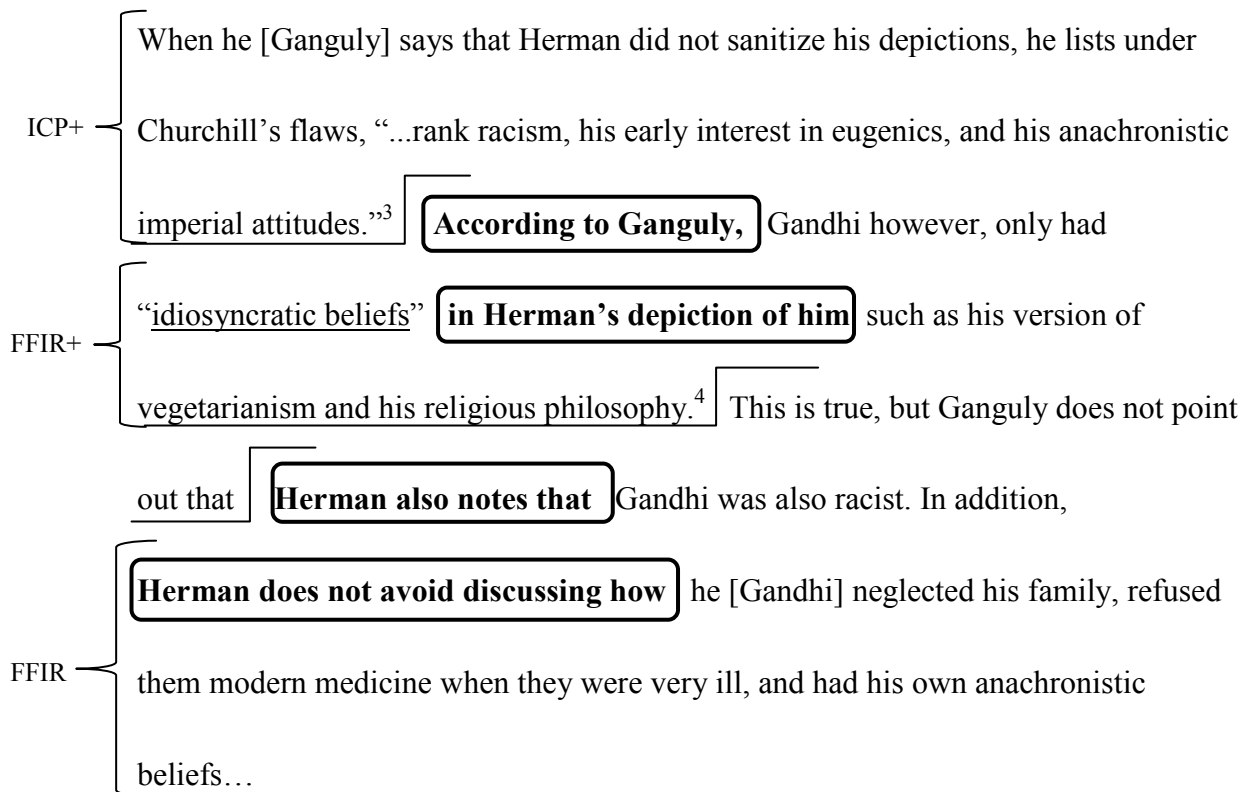
ICP+ { When he [Ganguly] says that Herman did not sanitize his depictions, he lists under Churchill's flaws, "...rank racism, his early interest in eugenics, and his anachronistic imperial attitudes."<sup>3</sup> Gandhi however, only had "idiosyncratic beliefs" such as his  
FFIR+ { version of vegetarianism and his religious philosophy.<sup>4</sup> This is true, but Ganguly does not point out that Gandhi was also racist. In addition, he neglected his family, refused  
FFIR { them modern medicine when they were very ill, and had his own anachronistic beliefs...

<sup>3</sup> Sumit Ganguly. "Heroes Entwined: Gandhi and Churchill" *Current History* 107 (2008): 395.

<sup>4</sup> Ibid., 395.

To demonstrate where this passage is missing integral attributions, I have inserted them into the passage below:

4. Integral attribution in the History Methods' student review essays



Diana's argument in this passage is difficult to follow because she did not use integral attribution to demarcate between voices. She clearly sided with Herman, as is evidenced by her use of FFIR/FFIR+ to speak on behalf of him, but her use of FFIR obscured the coherence of her argument here. The parenthetical insertions of the implied attributions represent my interpretation of Diana(a)'s intended meaning throughout this passage and demonstrate the clarity that integral attribution might have contributed to this explanation.

The lack of coherence that resulted from the use of FFIR instead of, for instance, ICP in this passage speaks to the difficulties involved in orchestrating multiple voices in the context of this book review assignment. Here Diana struggled to discuss Ganguly's discussion of Herbert's discussion of Gandhi and Churchill. It is easy to see how this reporting context might have been difficult for her to manage. However, the case might be



#### *4. Integral attribution in the History Methods' student review essays*

that Diana was writing on the assumption that the course instructor would be able understand the implied attribution throughout this passage because of his familiarity with the assignment and the texts with which she was engaging. In fact, it is possible that the insider-status of the audience to which students write—as the readers of student texts are often instructors who are familiar with the students' sources and writing context—allows for a certain amount of “writer-based prose” (Flower, 1979). In certain contexts, student writers can assume that their audience does have some access to their internal process.

#### **Diana's lengthy instances of FFIR:**

In addition, Diana used large stretches of FFIR in both of her review assignments in a manner that seems to have underscored the fact that the endorsement effect of the free indirect speech reporting form offers repetition of a speech report as a substitute for a more detailed explanation of its value. Figure 1 indicates that FFIR/FFIR+ covered approximately half (56% and 43%) of her papers, suggesting the absence of her own voice and authorial commentary. For instance, consider the last two paragraphs from Diana(b)'s assignment:

Over the course of five days, Churchill, "inspired...by a kind of historical consciousness...."<sup>14</sup> was able to convince the other members of the cabinet that to negotiate with Germany, directly or indirectly, would mean intolerable terms. Britain would be disarmed and lose territory. A guarantee of independence would be threatened by a Europe under Nazi domination (not to mention Hitler's record of breaking his word). The effect of negotiations on morale would be disastrous. Even if Britain should break off negotiations, morale would be so low that Britain would not be able to go on fighting. Churchill understood this.<sup>15</sup> If Britain gave up now, she would not get any better terms than if she kept fighting and was beaten in the future.<sup>16</sup>

FFIR/  
FFIR+

As far as terms went, nothing would be lost by continuing to fight, and much could be gained should Britain prevail.

Churchill knew that "...nations which went down fighting rose again, but those which surrendered tamely were finished."<sup>17</sup> Had Britain stopped fighting in 1940, Hitler would have held sway over almost all of Europe. Perhaps the United States would still have declared war on Germany, but the Atlantic Ocean is a much greater gulf to fight over than the English Channel. Perhaps the Russians could have beaten Germany, but then more of Europe would have become Communist. Britain and much of Europe were saved because of Churchill's resolution. Those five days in May made a huge impact on the outcome of the war.

<sup>14</sup> Lukacs, *Five Days in London*, 217.

<sup>15</sup> *Ibid.*, 109, 114, 116, 127.

<sup>16</sup> *Ibid.*, 182.

<sup>17</sup> *Ibid.*, 182-183.

4. Integral attribution in the History Methods' student review essays

This excerpt illustrates the fact that the last two paragraphs of Diana(b)'s review consisted entirely of FFIR/FFIR+ as Diana(b) reiterated the author-under-review's discussion in his stead. As a conclusion to a critical review, these paragraphs do not work well. Ironically, because FFIR/FFIR+ typically offered students the opportunity to establish an assertive voice, the sustained FFIR/FFIR+ here underscored Diana's lack of engagement with the text-under-review and undermined her assertiveness.

**Innovative uses of FFIR/FFIR+ that served a questionable need**

James seems to have used the free indirect speech reporting form for somewhat questionable purposes on two occasions. James used FFIR to report information from the published review outside of his discussion of that review and before he has introduced it. This use of the source is akin to the way a source might be treated in a research paper. These two instances read as follows:

FFIR+ { ... Gellately was able to make use of the recent influx of academic study of "relevant historical inquiry" in the 15 years previous to *Backing Hitler's* publication in 2001<sup>3</sup>

<sup>3</sup> Ulrich Herbert, "Review of *Backing Hitler, Consent and Coercion in Nazi Germany*," in *The American Historical Review*, Vol. 108, No. 1 (American Historical Association, 2003), 276.

FFIR { ... Although sections of content related directly to his previous book<sup>4</sup> (The Gestapo and German Society,) Gellately takes great pains to ensure that the reader is familiarized with the content, and does not assume prior knowledge or study.

<sup>4</sup> Herbert, Review, 276.

#### *4. Integral attribution in the History Methods' student review essays*

In these two excerpts, James used non-integral attribution in a manner that downplayed the fact that the source of the reported speech is Herbert's review, which James introduced and discussed at a later point in his essay. It is possible that James used Herbert's text in this manner because he was caught up in the differentiation between the sections of the assignment that the instructor outlined in the supplementary handout that he provided to the class. These two instances of FFIR occurred in a section that was supposed to be devoted to James' critique of the text-under-review. It is possible that he used non-integral attribution to downplay his use of Herbert's review as a research source to obscure the fact that this use of Herbert did not correspond with the assignment instructions. When I asked James about these instances during our interview, he was surprised that he had cited Herbert outside of the review section and before he had introduced Herbert's review. He considered the two instances mistakes and speculated that he made them because he was both in a rush while writing the paper and slightly confused about how to shift between summary and critique:

I didn't fully grasp how to shift between summary of the book then [to] my own opinion. And a professional book review wouldn't refer to another book review, so that just threw off how to write it. It was a challenge altogether... I wrote this paper in a big hurry. I shouldn't have done that. I probably was flipping between the two [sources].

James' comments are interesting in light of Macbeth's (2006) description of the uptake process her own students took when writing assignments. She explains that her students "began with whatever understanding they could find to enable a practical course of action that would produce a text to turn in on time" (p. 197). It would seem that in his hurry and confusion regarding the instructions, James fell back on familiar discursive strategies based

on his experience with the research genre where multiple sources can be referenced non-integrally because the focus is on the information rather than on the source of it.

In fact, it seems as though James missed an opportunity to explore a critique of Herbert's review. Had James included these points in the section dedicated to a consideration of Herbert's review, he may have framed them in a more evaluative manner. For example, James could have enriched his discussion of Herbert's review by re-framing the two references as summary and evaluation of Herbert's arguments. James' disagreement with Herbert's assertion that text-under-review is redundant is especially suited to this kind of treatment. Moving this point to the section devoted to reviewing Herbert would look something like this:

*Herbert points out that sections of Gellately's work relate directly to his previous book (The Gestapo and German Society); however Gellately takes great pains to ensure that the reader is familiar with the content, and does not assume prior knowledge or study.*

Rather than intentional transgression, what seems to have occurred in these two instances was confusion about how to critique Gellately and Herbert in the same space.

### **Conclusions**

These results indicate that there were clearly discernible connections between the discursive context and the speech reporting practices that students used. The prominence of framed free indirect representation of reported speech in the study corpus suggests that students used this speech reporting form to respond strategically to the instructor's emphasis on footnoting when attribution is necessary, avoiding redundant repetitions of attribution

#### *4. Integral attribution in the History Methods' student review essays*

material, following what seems to be more liberal referencing practices in the corresponding professional genres, evaluating the text-under-review, and demonstrating a developing historical consciousness. The use of the free indirect speech reporting form suggests that students responded to these exigencies of the writing context because it offered them the opportunity to take a stance on the speech they were reporting without having to demarcate between their voice and the reported speaker's and, interestingly, largely without having to substantiate that stance with evidence. It also enabled them to assume an assertive voice, creating the impression that they were in control of their review, had mastery over the text-under-review, and were able to act like a historian.

While the free indirect speech reporting form seemed to solve so many of the challenges facing students in this writing task, it also revealed some possible shortcomings related to this assignment about the genre of the book review. The use of FFIR's endorsement effect to create the impression of critical evaluation points to a potential shortcoming of the methods course itself. As a methods course, which focused on teaching *how* and *why* to conduct historical research instead of the content of historical research, the course might have offered students more resources for taking the text-under-review apart to see how it works as an example of historical research than for analyzing the veracity of its content. However, it might be idealistic to expect that any one course can really prepare undergraduate students to evaluate published research, and perhaps the critical book review assignment will always be limited by the dynamics of a novice-expert dichotomy.

Another potential limitation of this assignment has to do with the emphasis on omitting needless words, such as attribution information, and relying on footnoting. While the papers in this study corpus indicate that students generally found in FFIR/FFIR+ an

#### *4. Integral attribution in the History Methods' student review essays*

appropriate way around this advice, they do reveal some scenarios in which it might have inadvertently caused problems. We see this, for example, in Diana(a)'s use of FFIR/FFIR+ to point out a shortcoming in the reviewer's discussion of the author-under-review's treatment of the historical subject. In this instance of a tri-layered speech report (as Diana was critiquing what the reviewer said about what the author-under-review said about what the historical subject said) integral attribution was necessary to demarcate between voices. Of course, it is also possible that the instructor's advice had little to do with Diana's error here since tri-layered speech reports are likely just plain difficult for students to manage. The instructor's focus on footnoting as a useful tool that historians use for elevated discussions of sources did, though, overlook the immediate attribution demands of the review assignment at hand.

These findings do not clearly indicate what, if any, impact the requirement to discuss a review of the same subject texts in their review essay had on the ways students used speech reporting practices. We do see some indication from Lisa and James that this requirement was challenging. Lisa explained that she found the more liberal referencing practices in the published review to be in conflict with her idea of academic integrity. She seems to have found a resolution to the conflict by using many direct speech slips in FFIR+ as opportunities to provide reference information. In James' case, the issue seems to have been one of source use as he used the published review as a research source in the section of his essay devoted to his own critique of the text-under-review, using FFIR to downplay the fact that this use of the published review went against the assignment instructions. James explained that his haste and confusion about this unconventional task contributed to this source use error. The supplementary assignment outline that the instructor provided to the class might have also

*4. Integral attribution in the History Methods' student review essays*

impacted James' choice to use the published review in this manner as it allegedly asked students to construct reviews with distinct sections from summary to critique to discussion of a published review. The next chapters explore further what kinds of speech reporting practices that the published reviews modeled for this corpus of History Methods students and the impact that this requirement had on the students' discursive choices.



## Chapter 5

### Model Features: The use of reported speech in published reviews

A richer understanding of the writing context for the History Methods students requires an account of their interaction with the published book review(s) that they consulted as a matter of fulfilling the assignment requirements, which instructed them as follows:

...You need also to find a review of this book, and include it in your bibliographical page at the end of the text. How have other historians/academics considered this work? Do you agree with the reviewers' assessments?

This requirement formally extends the students' writing context to the corresponding professional review genre(s). The dynamic of the relationship between the student book review and the published reviews is interesting because they were authored by individuals in different roles who were writing for a variety of purposes and audiences and amidst a number of possible interrelated genres. In essence, they belong to distinct discourse communities

(Swales, 1990) with unique social activities that are structured by sequences (Yates & Orlikowski, 2002), systems (Bazerman, 1994), and sets (Devitt, 2004) of genres.

Allow me to unpack this claim. In the school context, many of the discourse community's goals have to do with granting accredited degrees (although much debate goes on within disciplines about the purposes of degrees and education programs). Members are selected from among a pool of degree-holding and experienced academics as well as from a qualified group of applicants. The dynamics of the relationships between these members are, in part, regulated by the process of earning and granting degrees. That process is structured by sets of genres, which often appear in a typified sequences: the academic calendar, the course description, the registration form, the schedule, the course syllabus, the lecture, the assignment instructions, the course assignments, the grading rubric/feedback, the transcript, the teacher evaluation, et cetera. Student book reviews in this genre set exist in a peripheral position subordinate to the transcript—a record of achievement that could eventually qualify candidates for graduation—and are shaped and constrained by the assignment instructions that ask students to craft them. Dias et al. (1999) point out that the design of such assignment instructions is ultimately controlled by “the teaching goal” (p. 71). They explain that “[f]or the instructor, writing is a means of ensuring and confirming that prescribed readings and analyses have been carried out and that certain theoretical concepts are employed as useful analytical tools...” (p. 78). Instructors move back and forth between the classroom and their academic research negotiating the realities of the classroom writing context and the conventions of their professional discipline (p. 66). To describe the modifications instructors make to writing tasks in an effort to make them manageable for students and suitable to the teaching goals, Dias et al. draw on Engeström's (1991) phrase “encapsulated reality” (p. 71);

##### *5. Speech reporting practices in the corpus of published reviews*

the encapsulated reality of the classroom is guided by three interrelated principal tensions: the activities of teaching and “studenting,” the need to teach and guide students within the limits of the school context, and the need to grade economically (p. 66). These pressures complicate the task of teaching disciplinary genre conventions.

In contrast, published book reviews are crafted in response to a variety of different contexts and purposes. Indeed, book reviewing has a long history in knowledge communities, stemming back to 140BC (Miranda, 1996) and arising organically out of a need to interrogate and share findings and methods. As such, published book reviews have an archival life, where they go on to reveal much about the course of inquiry over time and serve new audiences and purposes. As a result, the genre sequences and sets to which published reviews belong are less predictable and more varied than is the case for the student review assignment. Book reviews exist within a multifarious genre set ranging from requests for reviews, calls for papers, journal articles, books, acknowledgements, forewords, blurbs, conference programs, scholarly presentations, curriculum vitae, biographical summaries, and teaching dossiers. Indeed, book reviews are written for a number of reasons in one of many possible sequences: following a request for a review from a publication, in advance of a notable text’s anniversary, in preparation for job applications, or in the course of one’s job as staff reviewer for a periodical. They are often followed by letters of acceptance, the print version of the review within the publication, and in some cases published responses from peers.

It is clear even with this cursory glance at the locations of the two instantiations of the genre that the published book review lives a much different life than the student review

*5. Speech reporting practices in the corpus of published reviews*

assignment. This scenario raises some interesting questions about the relationship between the History Methods book reviews and the published reviews reported on within them:

1. What kind of a review did each student access? For whom and what purposes was it written?
2. How does it model engagement with the text-under-review using speech reporting forms and strategies?
3. Is there evidence that consulting these reviews had an impact on the decisions students made about how to write their book review, specifically regarding how to use speech reporting forms?
4. How did students engage with these reviews in their review essay?

These questions outline two lines of inquiry, one that involves analysis of the published reviews' discursive contexts and uses of speech reporting forms and another that involves a comparison of the published reviews with the student review assignments in order to consider the dynamic of the relationship between the two texts. To give both of these subjects fair consideration, I have treated them in separate chapters. What follows here is an analysis of the published reviews that the History Methods students accessed. This process of analysis involves an investigation into the discursive context of the reviews by grouping them according to four aspects (word count, audiences, purposes, and publication context) as well as an attempt to use this contextual analysis to consider the reasons for their uses of speech reporting forms.

## **Theoretical Framework**

### **Teaching with Model Texts**

Whether or not the course instructor intended for students to use the book review he instructed them to retrieve as a model of the genre that they should emulate is unclear. The assignment does not seem to suggest that this is the case. It frames the task of finding a published review as a research venture to discover how the wider academic community has received the text-under-review. However, despite the instructor's intentions we might consider the extent to which students consider a published text not only in the same genre but also on the same subject (in this case, the same text-under-review) as a model to be emulated when they are asked to summarize and agree/disagree with it in the course of their assignment. The power dynamic between novice writer and published text makes it all too likely that the History Methods students would have considered both the published book review(s) they accessed and the assignment guidelines as instructive for constructing their book reviews.

There is some debate within rhetorical genre research about the potential value of using models to teach genre. The research (e.g., Marshall, 1991; Flowerdew, 1993; Dudley-Evans, 1997; Gavioli, 2002) seems to point to the necessity of being conscientious and careful when using genre models in the classroom. Introducing model texts to teach genre can, in fact, serve to further confuse and intimidate students (Dudley-Evans, 1997). For instance, students will face conflicting advice in the event that the assignment instructions and the model text do not altogether correspond with one another. In addition, using genre models can serve to depict genres as homogeneous and conceal their fluidity, variation, and dynamism from students, especially if a variety of examples are neither provided nor

##### *5. Speech reporting practices in the corpus of published reviews*

discussed (Marshall, 1991, p. 5). Hewings and Hewings (2001) go so far as to conclude from research that shows a great deal of variation within genres that it is necessary “to move away not only from academic writing as a homogeneous entity, but also from homogeneous genres” (p. 75). Moving too far away from the notion of genre categories, however, might serve to mystify further academic and professional forms of communication for students. What seems to be important is finding effective ways to teach an understanding of the dynamism of genre while also providing descriptions or exemplary texts to make the genre accessible to novice writers.

Swales’ (1981, 1984, 1990, 2004) rhetorical move templates for academic research article introductions, for instance, have been found to be useful teaching tools that balance genre dynamism and description. Swales (1981) pioneered “move analysis” (Bawarshi & Reiff, 2010, p. 182) in a corpus study of the rhetorical moves common within academic research articles. He identified four common moves within introductions and provided them in the form of a model:

1. Establishing the field
2. Summarizing previous research
3. Preparing for present research
4. Introducing present research

Although created for advanced, professional genre users, Swales’ straightforward rendition of the components of the research introduction was readily received as a useful heuristic for teaching the genre of the research article from a rhetorical perspective (Bawarshi & Reiff, 2010). Indeed, it spawned a number of modified versions as teachers applied the moves model in their classrooms (e.g., Flowerdew, 2000; Graff, Birkenstein & Durst, 2008; Sutton, 2000). Its potential as a heuristic device also encouraged many studies seeking to reveal the

5. *Speech reporting practices in the corpus of published reviews*

‘moves’ of various sections of academic texts (e.g., Dudley-Evans, 1994; Holmes, 1997; Crookes, 1986). In recognition of the usefulness of the moves model, Swales (1990, 2004) revised his initial model in an effort to clarify the distinctions between the moves (especially moves one and two) and broaden its scope so that it can account for longer introductions and a greater variety of communicative purposes. The result is the CARS or “creating a research space” model, which is evidently much more encompassing:

Move 1: Establishing a territory

Step 1: Claiming centrality, and/or

Step 2: Making topic generalization(s), and/or

Step 3: Reviewing items of previous research

Move 2: Establishing a niche

Step 1A: Counter-claiming, or

Step 1B: Indicating a gap, or

Step 1C: Question raising, or

Step 1D: Continuing a tradition

Move 3: Occupying the niche

Step 1A: Outlining purposes, or

Step 1B: Announcing present research

Step 2: Announcing principal findings

Step 3: Indicating research article structure (Swales, 1990, p. 141)

Despite this acclaim, however, some scholars suggest that the moves model can lead to prescriptive teaching and might not seem to be applicable to student writing, as, for instance, students are not always expected to survey the literature in order to create a research space (i.e., Bazerman, 1988; Myers, 1990). The process of discovering rhetorical moves by doing “moves analysis” has been offered as a potentially more valuable teaching method. Many genre scholars (e.g., Brookes and Grundy, 1990; Swales, 1984; Marshall, 1991;

##### *5. Speech reporting practices in the corpus of published reviews*

Crookes, 1986; Flowerdew, 1993; Dudley-Evans, 1997; Gavioli, 2002) suggest that an effective way of using genre models in the classroom is to have students conduct genre analysis, wherein they consider the structures and rhetorical moves of a genre within the context of their production (i.e., the audience(s) and purpose(s) for which they were composed and relevant details about the community(ies) in which they were produced). Gavioli (2002) and Flowerdew (1993) point out that when students analyze a corpus of texts in the same genre they quickly see how difficult it is to actually generalize about a genre, and, I contend, they become more familiar with the ways the genre is used. According to Flowerdew (1993), it is important to “make learners aware of how genres differ one from another and within each other” and to teach them how to “go about discovering these differences” (p. 309). The presumption here is that teaching students to see genres as flexible communicative structures that can accommodate shifts in “contextual parameters” (Flowerdew, 1993) will help students to work more strategically within genres.

The acknowledgement of the variation not only between but also within genres is a relevant point in the case of the History Methods book review assignment because research indicates that despite some regularity the book review genre is heterogeneous (Miranda, 1996). Since the History Methods students were instructed to find any review of their chosen text in a credible publication, the reviews they accessed could be quite different from each other as well as individually dissimilar from the book review expected from them. Indeed, book reviews published in periodicals are written for a variety of purposes and audiences, include differing amounts of detail about the text-under-review, and are organized into a variety of formats.



### **The Contexts and Controversies of Published Book Reviews**

Historically, diversity in the review genre has grown in response to the proliferation of publications and the economic interests of publishers. Miranda (1996) outlines the long and rich history of the review's development from the first review periodical in 1665 when "comprehensive reviewing was the order of the day" (§7) and reviews were understood to be objective encyclopaedic instalments through to the more selective nature of review sections in the nineteenth century and the increasingly evaluative nature of reviews over the last century (§4-10). Today book reviews are commonplace and range from the descriptive "landscape" style (Miranda, §12) seen in short summaries of texts with few evaluative statements to more extensive and detailed review essays in which a text is evaluated in light of other texts on the subject in a manner that gives weight to the reviewer's claims of superiority or inferiority. Miranda notes that academic reviews appear in a variety of formats, such as integrated formats that are included in a journal as a separate set of readings on a particular theme, multidisciplinary formats in which a book's significance is considered by reviewers from different disciplines, special issue formats in which reviews complement the issue's theme, and rejoinders in which the author responds to a review of his or her work (§28-32).

In addition to accessing any one of the formats of review written/published in any writing community (although it is likely that they would have stuck to English publications), the History Methods students also likely encountered reviews that reflect or respond to the contentious context of book reviewing in the academic community. Academic reviews are at once applauded for their potential not only to identify notable publications but also to facilitate ongoing debates and lines of inquiry as well as castigated for falling short of the

##### *5. Speech reporting practices in the corpus of published reviews*

standards of academic scholarship. Di Leo (2009) notes that the book review “holds a difficult position as one of the most powerful and, at the same time, one of the least respected types of contemporary scholarly writing” (p. 167). He explains that book reviews can influence what is read in a field, how widely distributed it is, and also how well its author(s) fare in hiring and tenure decisions, but that that same power undermines the legitimacy of the review because honesty might be overruled by the need to maintain collegiality, protect a peer’s reputation, or sell books.

Tobin (2003) explains that “reviewers are guests at a banquet prepared by an author, and as such they must observe the rules of (literary) commensality” and that “reviewing, like ingestion, has to do with ethics” (p. 47). This is also the conclusion of both Salager-Meyer et al. (2007) and Moreno and Suárez’s (2008) comparative studies of reviews in different language and cultural writing communities. The interpersonal nature of the genre, which involves “direct, personal, public and often critical encounter with a particular text, hence, with its author” (Salager & Meyer et al., p. 177), is reflected in the absence, placement, and/or hedging of negative critiques in reviews. Moreno and Suárez’s findings suggest that the impact of collegiality on the ability for reviewers to speak frankly about a text’s shortcomings is greater in smaller academic communities where reviewers and reviewees are more likely to know each other (p. 24). The researchers also point out that the meaning of reviews “cannot be dissociated from culture and social interaction” (p. 24). Indeed, only “insiders” who are familiar with the social and economic context of reviewing will grasp the full meaning of academic book reviews. It is in light of this reality, for instance, that Hartley (2006) includes in his cross-disciplinary study of book reviews a table that provides some of

5. *Speech reporting practices in the corpus of published reviews*

the ‘hidden’ meanings in typical statements found in book reviews. Some examples of which are:

“This is a surprising book” = This is better than expected

“A mixed bag” = Not much in this but one or two chapters worth thinking about

“The discussion is somewhat obtuse” = I did not understand much of this (p. 1195).

With such a range of implicit meanings, the academic book review would be a difficult genre to model for students who are removed from the contentions of the various contexts that shape the form and content of these texts.

The evaluative potential of book reviews is also curbed by their space limitations—often less than 250 words. Donovan (2006), editor of *Scripta Geologica*, regrets that book reviews can be “little more than a quick way for an editor to fill part of a blank page” (p. 37). It is difficult to substantiate arguments with evidence when working within such a limited word count. This, in fact, might also contribute to the use of hedges in reviews (see Hyland, 2004). Not only can a hedged statement such as “*This research has potential, but the debate is far from over*” avoid offending the author-under-review, it also circumvents a complex orchestration of evidence. Length also limits the reviewers’ ability to compare the text-under-review with other leading texts on the subject, which Miranda (1996, ¶15) argues is integral to substantiating claims about the text-under-review’s contribution to the field. Contributing to the lack of respect for the genre is the fact that it is reportedly difficult to attract reviewers of high academic standing because the genre is not generally recognized as scholarly work. The call for book reviews, then, is often an opportunity for novice academics to put in their

##### 5. *Speech reporting practices in the corpus of published reviews*

oar in either an attempt to “pad” or build a C.V. or to gain attention by using the venue as a platform to display their intellectual prowess.

Di Leo (2009, p. 171) points to the recommendations for improving the book review that were put forward in an MLA task force report available in *Profession 2007*. The report touts the potential of the book review to play a larger role in helping to “direct, alter, and sustain ongoing conversations in the field” (p. 55) by shifting to more critical and evaluative reviews written by established scholars in a related field. However, as Di Leo notes, such a move would be complicated by the established etiquette of book reviewing, the lack of recognition for book reviewing activities in hiring and promotion decisions, and the economic implications for publications of accommodating larger book review sections. Book review reform cannot be simply mandated because the genre is at the nexus of what Di Leo describes as “a complex series of relations among economic, scholarly, and personal interests” (p. 168).

Considering the extent to which published book reviews seem to be shaped by the social and economic contexts in which they are written, it is difficult to imagine how useful they would be as models of the kinds of book reviews expected from students in undergraduate writing contexts. In the case of the History Methods review assignment, the question of the impact of the model review looms large. What kind of published reviews did the students access and consider? How do those reviews use speech reporting practices to engage with the text-under-review? Is there evidence that these models impacted the discursive choices that students made in their own attempts at reviewing?

## **Methods**

My efforts to gather the published book reviews used by the corpus of History Methods students in this study and to determine the nature of those reviews and their speech reporting practices involved three steps. The first step involved gathering the published reviews. While I recognize that a number of these students likely accessed and considered more than one review for their assignment (not only does Maria discuss five reviews in her book review assignment, but also Lisa noted in her interviews that she chose a review from among the few that she accessed), I can only be sure that students considered with care the published reviews that they referenced in their assignments. For this reason, I only gathered the book reviews students included in their assignments' list of references.

Once I gathered the book reviews, I sorted them into groups according to their word count, intended audience, ostensible purpose, and publication context. I chose these four aspects because they frame the context that guided the reviewers' discursive choices. The word length, for instance, stipulates the extent of a review's detail, while the intended audience impacts the type of information summarized as well as the perspective and rigour of the discussion. I gathered an idea of the reviewers' purposes from their central conclusions, which in many cases are quite explicit: "recommended for all libraries" and "essential work for students of all dictatorships," for instance. Finally, the publication context of the reviews offers further insight into the reviews' intended audiences, purposes, and word count restrictions.

Sorting the reviews into groups provided a helpful understanding of their various discursive contexts. However, these groupings are not intended to be generalized across the

book review genre. The groupings reflect the four features I have selected by which to classify the reviews. As Devitt (2004) points out,

Groupings of complex items like texts are more like metaphors than equations: how texts are grouped depends on which features the classifier has selected to observe—common prosody, organization, tone, aim, or effect on the reader, for example. ... An article in the New York Times Book Review can be classified as a review, an essay, a review essay, a magazine article, or journalism. (pp. 6-7)

The third process I used for understanding what speech reporting practices the student writers might have seen in the published book reviews they accessed involved analyzing the speech reporting practices in the published reviews. To do this I used the process for identifying and interpreting the use of speech reporting forms outlined in Chapter Three.

### **Findings and Discussion**

I gathered a total of eleven published book reviews from the students' lists of references. Analysis of the published reviews' word counts, audiences, purposes, and publication contexts found that they could be sorted, more or less, into four groups:

1. *Brief Recommendations* (BR): These reviews were between 180 and 280 words and concluded with a recommendation for librarians, book purchasers, or general consumers. They provided a general overview of the text-under-review, noting in particular what it offers in comparison to one or two canonical texts on the subject, presumably in order to establish a reason for librarians to replace out-of-date materials.

5. *Speech reporting practices in the corpus of published reviews*

2. *Standard Academic Reviews (SAR)*: Slightly longer than the brief recommendations, spanning between 480 and 680 words, these reviews provided a general overview of the text-under-review as well as a brief discussion of its successes and failures in an argument about its contribution to scholarship or usefulness as a teaching resource.
3. *Thorough Considerations (TC)*: Differentiated from the standard academic reviews in the detail of their summary and critique of the text-under-review, these reviews were approximately 1000 words. They seem to have been special review contributions to academic journals offered in an effort to bring attention to a text that is especially deserving of consideration from scholars for one reason or another.
4. *Narrated encounters (NE)*: These reviews were written in a more informal tone, as they detailed the reviewer's experience of reading and considering the text-under-review. Their publication contexts were more diverse, including an innovative journal with the mandate to provide more personal, creative accounts of studying history and a comprehensive website dedicated to providing users with "solutions to a wide range of daily needs" (About.com "Who We Are").

Table 6 provides an overview of the book reviews that comprised these groupings. Beyond noting their publication details, audiences, and purposes, I indicated the reviewers' evaluative stances, which ranged from forcefully positive to forcefully negative. I have made these evaluations on the following bases:

- Forcefully negative and positive reviews included two or more explicit and strongly-stated evaluations of the text-under-review:
  - o "Yet there can be no doubt: such overdrawn and catchy theses tend to do more harm than good to directions in historical inquiry..." (Herbert)

5. Speech reporting practices in the corpus of published reviews

- “In truth, Gellately’s work is what Goldhagen’s book could have been, but wasn’t; that is, a closely reasoned and tightly constructed analysis” (Rotella et al.)
- Positive and negative reviews offered clearly stated but not overstated evaluations that were sometimes hedged:
  - “Recommended for all libraries” (Krome)
  - “Gellately’s detailed and riveting evidence notwithstanding, the answer remains equivocal” (Stephenson)

Table 6: Categorization of the corpus of published book reviews

Author	Publication	Word Count	Audience	Purpose	Evaluation
<b>Brief Recommendations</b>					
Anonymous	<i>Contemporary Review</i> (Comprehensive review publication)	241	International, government, education, librarians	Draw attention to the book’s subject	Positive
Krome	<i>Library Journal</i> (Interdisciplinary periodical and website)	187	Librarians	Sell book	Positive
Rotella et al.	<i>Publishers Weekly</i> (Industry periodical)	276	Book purchasers	Sell book	Forcefully positive
<b>Standard Academic Reviews</b>					
Goda	<i>The Historian</i> (Disciplinary journal)	518	Academics	Evaluate book’s contribution	Positive
Grill	<i>American Historical Review</i> (Official disciplinary publication)	556	Academics	Evaluate book’s contribution	Positive
Overy	<i>Journal of Military History</i> (Niche disciplinary journal)	641	Academics	Evaluate book’s contribution	Negative
Stephenson	<i>The English Historical Review</i> (Disciplinary publication)	498	Academics	Evaluate book’s contribution	Negative



5. *Speech reporting practices in the corpus of published reviews*

<b>Thorough Considerations</b>					
Ganguly	<i>Current History</i> (Analysis of international affairs)	1054	Academics, enthusiasts, journalists	Evaluate book's contribution	Positive
Herbert	<i>American Historical Review</i> (Official disciplinary publication)	1013	Academics	Guide research strategies of field	Forcefully negative
<b>Narrated Encounters</b>					
Howkins	<i>History Workshop Journal</i> (Disciplinary journal)	1593	Academics and enthusiasts	Explain personal impact of book	Positive
Wilde	About.com (Website)	914	General	Summarize book	Positive

The differences within this corpus of published reviews suggests that the History Methods students, at least those who volunteered their papers for this study, each accessed and considered a unique model text. The following discussion of the ways that direct and indirect speech reporting forms were used within this heterogeneous corpus of published reviews is provided as a means of understanding exactly what speech reporting practices students witnessed as they prepared their own review assignments.

**The Presence and Use of Direct Speech**

The speech reporting forms classified as directly reported speech that occurred within this study corpus include indirect content paraphrase with direct speech slips (ICP+), framed free indirect representations of reported speech with direct speech slips (FFIR+), and classic direct representations of reported speech (CDR) (see Appendix 3). As Figure 2 below demonstrates, the presence of these speech reporting forms was inconsistent throughout the study corpus as well as within the four categorizations of professional book reviews. Figure 2 depicts the percentage of sentences at which these speech reporting forms were coded in each

5. *Speech reporting practices in the corpus of published reviews*

professional review—the sentence (a clause or phrase punctuated by a period or closing expletive) being an easy unit to count and more telling of the speech reporting form’s presence than a tally of its instances, which were often sustained over long stretches of text.<sup>22</sup>

Figure 2: *The presence of direct speech reporting forms in the corpus of published reviews*

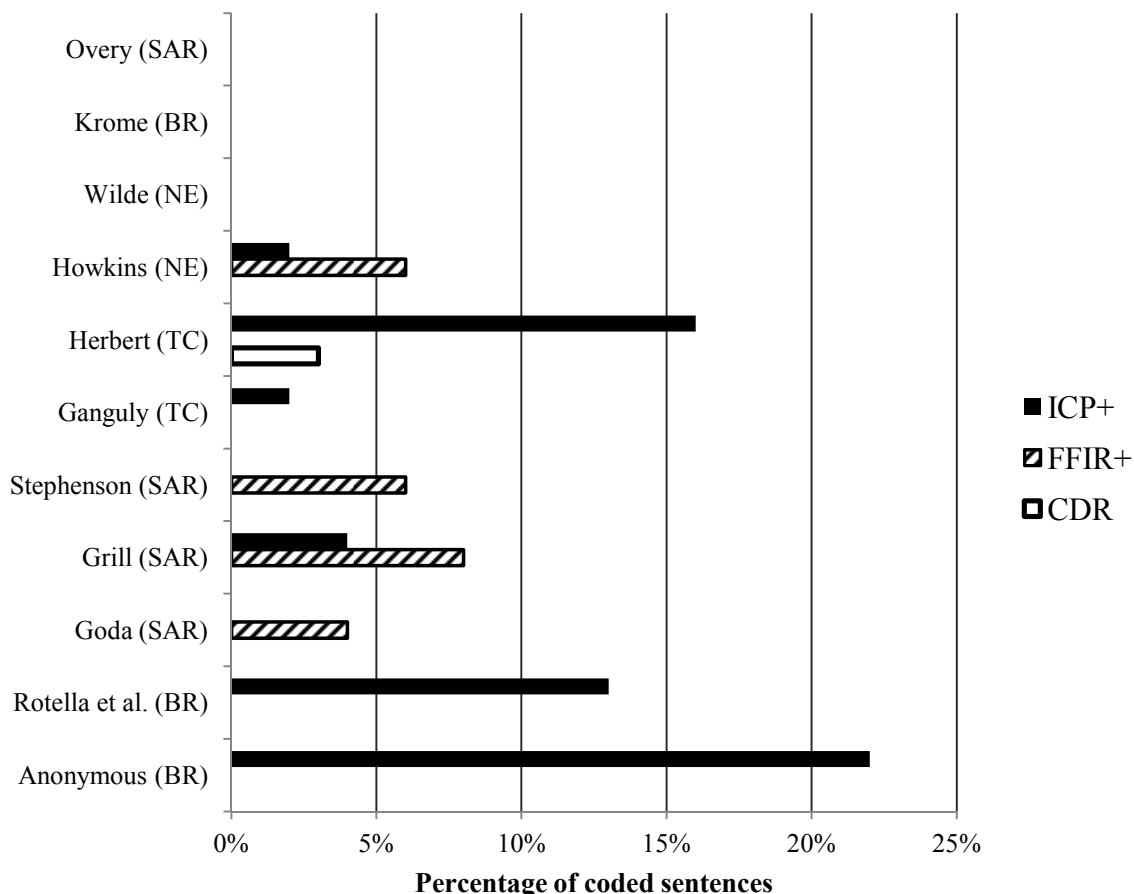


Figure 2 reveals just one discernible trend in the use—or, more accurately, non-use—of direct speech within the professional reviews. That is the general absence and seeming

<sup>22</sup> I calculated these percentages by dividing the number of sentences in which the speech reporting form is coded by the total number of sentences in the review and then multiplying the result by 100 and rounding to the nearest whole number. For instance, in the case of Grill’s review the calculations were as follows:  
the percentage of sentences coded at ICP+                   (1/25) \* 100% = 4%  
the percentage of sentences coded at FFIR+               (2/25) \* 100%= 8%  
the percentage of sentences coded at CDR                 (0/25) \* 100%= 0

5. *Speech reporting practices in the corpus of published reviews*

avoidance of CDR, which only appeared in Herbert’s review where it had a minimal presence. Figure 2 suggests a preference for direct speech that emerges out of indirect speech (ICP+ and FFIR+), but does not show this practice to be a consistent preference for all reviewers in even this small representation of published reviews. The variation in these findings suggests that the reviewers used direct speech to achieve the specific ends of their arguments, which requires a more detailed analysis of the uses of the speech reporting forms in context.

**The use of direct speech in the brief recommendations:**

Direct speech does not seem to have played a major role in the construction of the brief recommendations. Rotella et. al and Anonymous each used one instance of direct speech, both to present the text-under-review’s central argument. Since the two uses of direct speech are so similar, I discuss the instance in Rotella et al.’s review as a representative example:

ICP+ { Although Hitler and the National Socialists had never garnered an outright majority in elections before 1933, the author convincingly shows that “the great majority of the German people soon became devoted to Hitler and they supported him to the bitter end in 1945.” Direct speech slip

The argumentative purpose of this instance of direct speech does not seem to have had much to do with the importance of the speech report’s content, as it does not feature a particularly remarkable description or apt phrase. Rather, the direct speech slip might have had more to do with an impulse to show deference to the author-under-review and to place responsibility for the claim on him. While the reviewers took full authority for the less

##### *5. Speech reporting practices in the corpus of published reviews*

contentious information in the first part of the sentence, they presented the text-under-review's central conclusion as an excerpt in lieu of reiterating it in their own (collective) voice. Instead, they articulated their agreement through the positively modified speech act verb "convincingly shows" as well as through the subordinated sentence structure, which placed emphasis on the author-under-review's conclusion.

This practice of presenting an excerpt of the text-under-reviews' central argument using direct speech might also have had to do with the limitations of making an argument in under 300 words. The direct speech slip essentially provided a glimpse into the text-under-review, allowing the reader to feel closer to the reviewed text and, perhaps, more inclined to purchase it as a result. Indeed, these uses of direct speech might represent innovative tactics for contending with the space confines of the reviews. It is difficult to generalize, however, not only because of the sample size but because only two out of the three brief recommendations use direct speech.

##### **The use of direct speech in the standard academic reviews:**

Direct speech is conspicuously absent from the four standard academic reviews where there seemed to be more of an expectation of a scholarly argument and space to orchestrate one. Direct speech slips only occurred in three of the four reviews in this group, and typically in just one short instance each. All of these instances of direct speech look like the following example from Stephenson's review except for the instance of direct speech in Grill's review, which I have also provided here.

5. *Speech reporting practices in the corpus of published reviews*

FFIR+ { With the ‘tradition of the nightwatchman state ... dead’ (p. 41), the two main branches of the coercive police, the Gestapo and the Kripo, became proactive in identifying potential non-conformists and imposing ‘preventive detention’.  
(Stephenson)

ICP+ { In contrast to Mann and Gordon, he is not interested in demonstrating German opposition to Nazi racial and political policies; rather, he explores the “interaction between the Gestapo, German society, and the enforcing of racial policy” (p. 7).  
(Grill)

Like the direct speech in the brief recommendations, these instances of direct speech slips do not seem to play an important role in the arguments at hand. Stephenson uses direct speech to retain the author-under-review’s unique phrasing and to defer responsibility for the fairly contentious claim regarding the death of the “nightwatchman state” perhaps so that she does not have to provide evidence to substantiate it. At most, the direct speech slip allowed Stephenson to streamline this part of her review. This is more than can be said for the direct speech slip in Grill’s review, which does not seem to capture particularly unique or effective phrasing or defer responsibility for a contentious claim. There does not seem to be any particular reason for Grill’s use of direct speech. The role of direct speech in the three (of four) standard academic reviews was therefore quite minimal.

**The use of direct speech in the thorough considerations:**

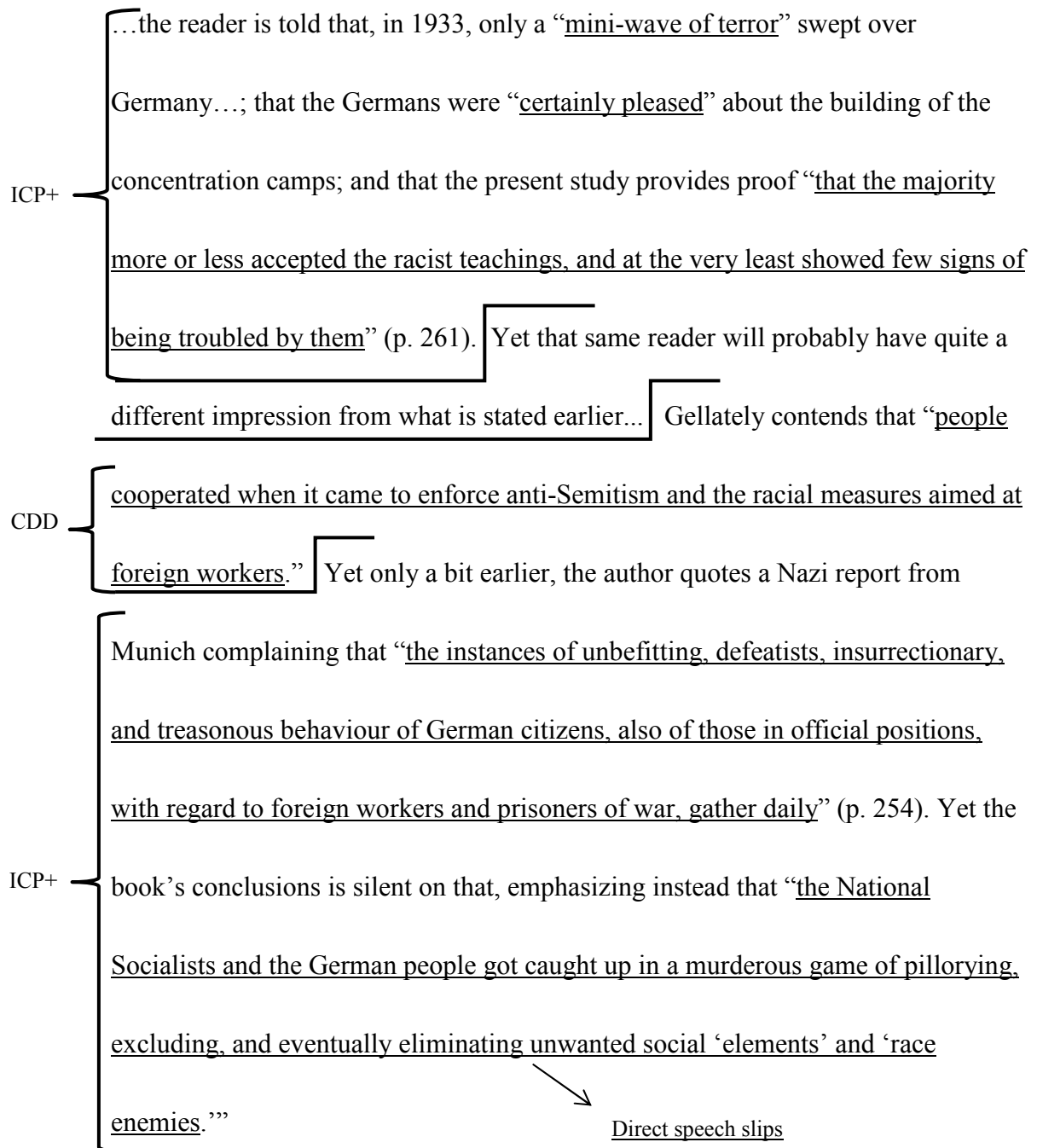
Only Herbert’s thorough consideration featured the use of direct speech. Although both reviews in this category are detailed, they were geared toward different audiences and

*5. Speech reporting practices in the corpus of published reviews*

had different styles and tones. Herbert's academic audience would have appreciated his careful orchestration of evidence using direct speech in his rather unforgiving critique of the text-under-review, while Ganguly's general audience would have appreciated the amount of background information he provided as well as his detailed paraphrase of the text-under-review's discussion. The two reviewers, therefore, used much different speech reporting forms. While Ganguly used indirect speech reporting forms, Herbert made particularly strategic use of direct speech.

Despite being limited to less than a third of the length of a typical academic article, the thorough considerations here had the space to make the kind of arguments that need substantiation. As noted below, Herbert used ICP+ and CDR in a careful coordination of textual evidence of the sort not seen elsewhere among the published reviews in this study corpus. He did this to contend that the text-under-review's "overdrawn and catchy" thesis is the result of the influence of a publisher looking for sales. Consider the six instances of direct speech in the following excerpt:

5. Speech reporting practices in the corpus of published reviews



This excerpt illustrates the way in which Herbert used ICP+ and CDR to contrast contradictory statements in the text-under-review as a means of demonstrating that the publisher pushed for an introduction with a more attractive argument than is actually made in

##### *5. Speech reporting practices in the corpus of published reviews*

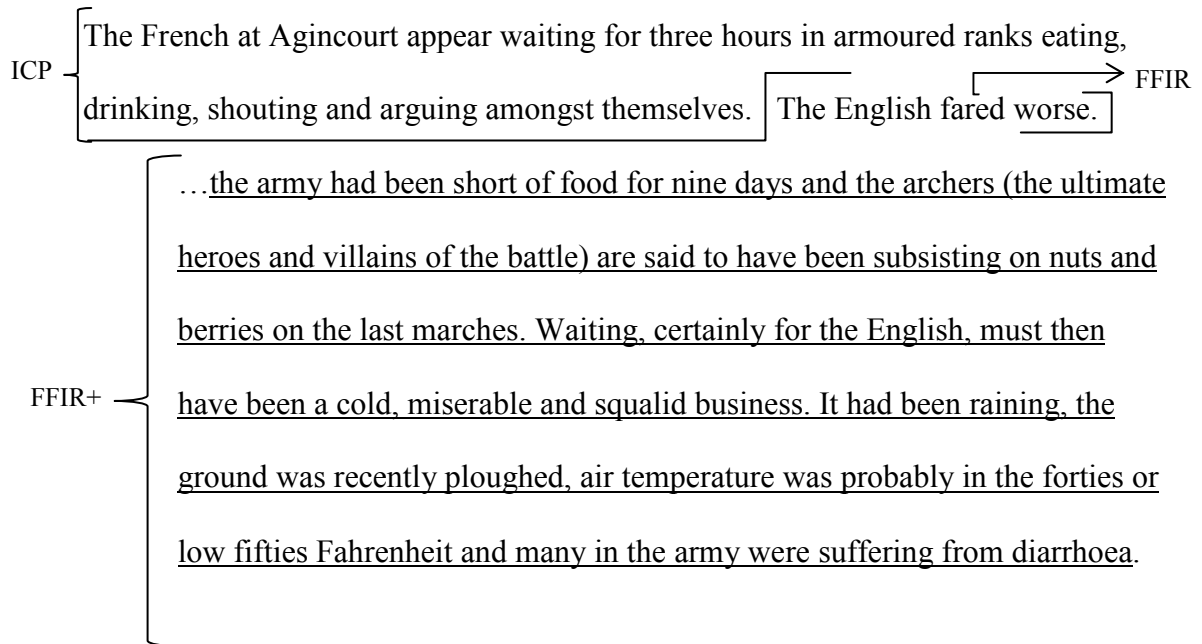
the book. The use of direct speech to orchestrate such a careful argument was unique in this corpus of published reviews and underscored the interpersonal context of book reviewing, where the subject of scrutiny is also an audience member and fellow colleague. Herbert's use of direct speech to orchestrate a complex argument demonstrated the lengths to which a reviewer must go if he or she is to make a forcefully negative evaluation of the text-under-review.

#### **The use of direct speech in the narrated encounters:**

Direct speech was also only used by one of the narrated encounters. Howkins' discussion of the text-under-review made an argument that, like Herbert's, required textual evidence. However, Howkins' review is unique. It reflected the *History Workshop Journal's* mission to offer living accounts of history where personal experience meets scholarship. Howkins provided his thesis, for instance, after several passages about his personal connection to the subject and the path that led him to read the book, and his thesis very much reflected the personal-encounter theme that runs through the journal. Indeed, this thesis was that the text-under-review succeeds because of its intimate depictions of war that effectively provide the reader with an empathetic experience of the war. As demonstrated in the excerpt below, Howkins used sustained instances of direct speech to illustrate the effectiveness of the book's descriptions of the war experience.



5. Speech reporting practices in the corpus of published reviews



The use of direct speech to highlight the consistency of the author-under-review’s descriptive style in this passage reflects Howkins’ goal of demonstrating the effectiveness of the author’s approach to military history. However, there is more to the functioning of this sustained instance of direct speech than the straightforward excerption of unique phrasing. Indeed, Howkins presented this direct speech without using an attribution phrase, thereby remaining close to the quoted material in an endorsement of it. While there seems to be a contradiction between long passages of unbroken direct speech and the blending of voices that happens in FFIR, Howkins made the endorsement effect work by gradually mixing his voice with the reported speaker’s in the preceding instances of reported speech. For example, the instance of ICP shown above involves a quasi-attribution indicator—as Howkins notes that “The French at Agincourt appear [in the book] waiting...”—which did not distance the reported speech as much as a typical attribution phrase might have (i.e., “*The author depicts the French at Agincourt waiting...*”). The subsequent sentence was entirely free of attribution material as

##### 5. *Speech reporting practices in the corpus of published reviews*

an instance of FFIR in which the two voices were blended. This progression away from explicit attribution suggests that the mixture of voices continued at least in spirit throughout the direct speech. The unique manner in which Howkins used direct speech to highlight the personal impact of the author-under-review's style and approach to military history correlates to the *History Workshop Journal's* focus on personal encounters with history and historical research.

### **The Presence and Use of Indirect Speech**

The uses of indirect speech reporting forms in the study corpus were also quite varied. The speech reporting forms classified as indirect speech that occurred within this study corpus include indirect content paraphrase (ICP), framed free indirect representation of reported speech (FFIR), and summary (SUM) (see Appendix 3). As Figure 3 below demonstrates, the presence of these speech reporting forms is inconsistent throughout the study corpus. Like Figure 2, Figure 3 depicts the percentage of sentences at which these speech reporting forms were coded in each professional review—the sentence (a clause or phrase punctuated by a period or closing expletive) being an easy unit to count and more telling of the speech reporting form's presence than a tally of its instances, which were often sustained over long stretches of text.<sup>23</sup>

---

<sup>23</sup> I calculated these percentages by dividing the number of sentences in which the speech reporting form is coded by the total number of sentences in the review and then multiplying the result by 100 and rounding to the nearest whole number. For instance, in the case of Grill's review the calculations were as follows:

the percentage of sentences coded at ICP	$(4/25) * 100\% = 16\%$
the percentage of sentences coded at FFIR	$(8/25) * 100\% = 32\%$
the percentage of sentences coded at SUM	$(3/25) * 100\% = 12\%$

5. Speech reporting practices in the corpus of published reviews

Figure 3: The presence of indirect speech reporting forms in the corpus of published reviews

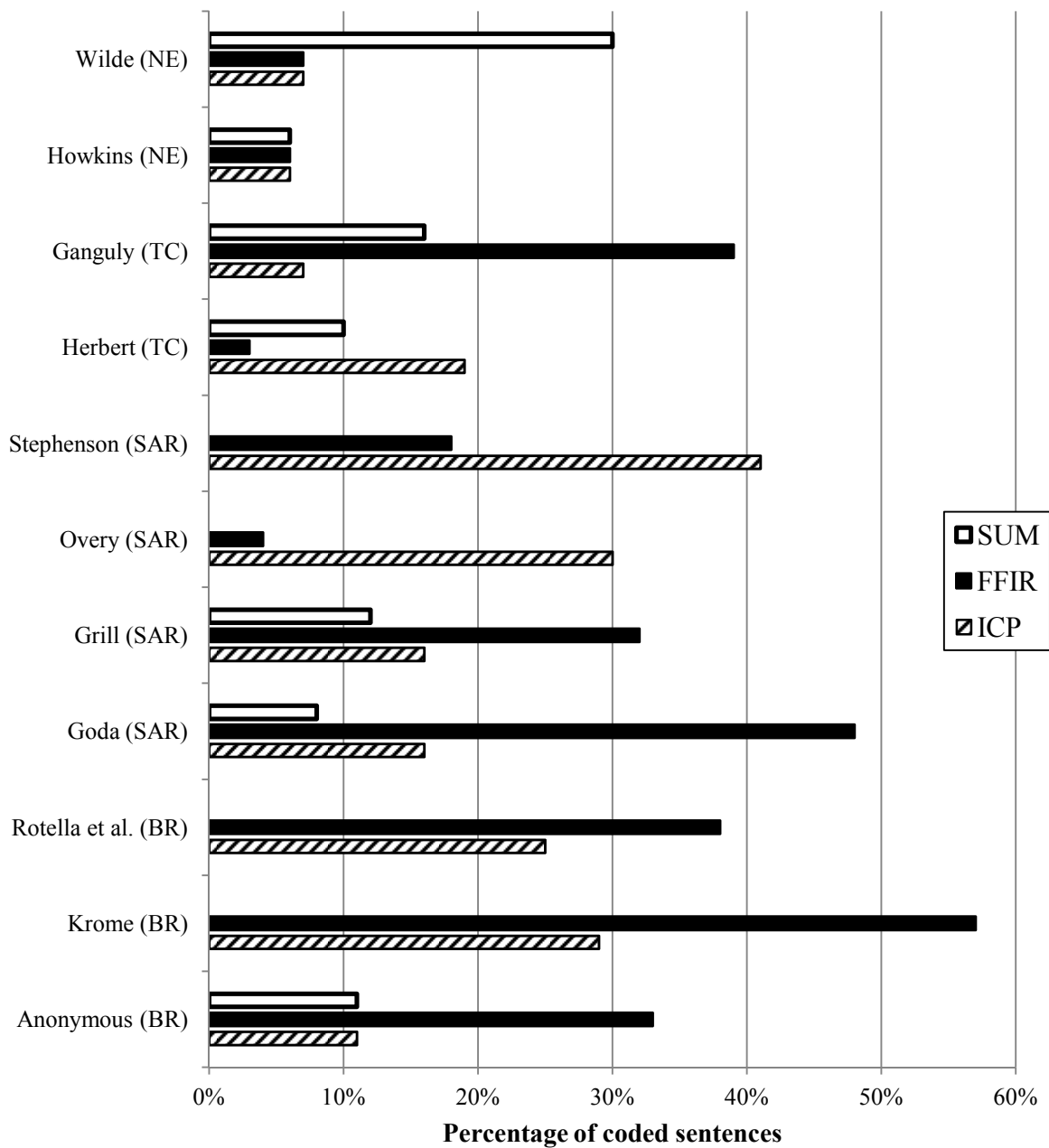


Figure 3 reveals a general preference for ICP and FFIR over summary in all reviews save for Wilde's, in which summary was the predominant indirect speech reporting form.

However, there does not seem to be much consistency in the extent to which the reviewers

##### *5. Speech reporting practices in the corpus of published reviews*

used ICP or FFIR. For example, while FFIR comprised at least 30% of six of the 11 reviews—perhaps a notable trend—it comprised just over 30% in two of those reviews, closer to 40% in another two, closer to 50% in one of them, and nearly 60% in another. Moreover, the strength of this trend is undermined by the fact that an argument for the opposite can be made, as FFIR comprised less than 18% of five out of the 11 reviews (and less than 10% in four of them). As was the case in my analysis of the presence of direct speech in the study corpus, the inconsistency in the coding results points to different practices that must be considered case by case.

#### **The use of indirect speech in the narrated encounters:**

As I noted in the discussion of direct speech, the narrated encounters were distinct from other reviews in the study corpus. In the case of Howkins' review, this was perhaps most evident in the use of "block quotations" in FFIR. At times, Howkins' use of indirect speech reporting forms also reflect his intention to convey the author-under-review's success in making the reader feel and hear the war. In these two instances of ICP, Howkins prioritized this same goal by (1) using the quasi-attribution marker "appears" in "The French at Agincourt appear [in the book] wearing..." to elicit an image for the reader and (2) using an interruptive phrase to subordinate attribution information in "At Waterloo, Keegan tells us, the smoke..." in order to locate the reader in the midst of the battle. By using these strategies to make the reader experience the war in the same manner used by the author-under-review, Howkins conveyed the effectiveness of the author's approach to military history.

##### *5. Speech reporting practices in the corpus of published reviews*

In contrast to the clear sense of audience and purpose evident in Howkins' choices of speech reporting strategies, Wilde's narrated encounter addressed one audience directly but seems to have been written for another. Published on About.com, an online forum that offers itself as a solver of all types of problems—"About.com is a valuable resource for content that helps you to solve the large and small needs of everyday life" ([www.about.com](http://www.about.com))—it is most likely that Wilde's review primarily served students looking for information about the text-under-review or the subject in order to complete an assignment. However, Wilde did not indicate that his audience is comprised of students. In fact, he directly addressed those pursuing or with a career in history and he suggested that the author-under-review revise and update the book, both actions that indicate that he was imagining an academic or professional audience. Yet, despite having had the space to offer the detailed consideration of the text-under-review that an academic audience commands, Wilde remained general and vague in his assessments. He consistently stopped short of substantiating and legitimizing his claims. For example, he argued without further explanation that the author-under-review's "exploration of the troops who stayed to fight after six hours of constant bombardment is good." This lack of detail or evidence for his claims indicates that Wilde's actual reader is not academic.

In fact, Wilde's use of indirect speech reporting forms also indicates this. As illustrated in the following excerpt, Wilde primarily used summary to provide a general overview of the text-under-review's subjects, without much evaluation.

SUM { Three examinations follow, of Agincourt, Waterloo and the Somme. In each  
Keegan begins by analysing the traditional outlines of events and considering from  
which sources these have been derived. Keegan then moves through the main phase  
of each battle, attempting to make sense of the major events...

This kind of overview would certainly benefit students looking for a description of the text-under-review in order to complete a course assignment. It is possible that this use of summary betrays Wilde's real audience: students who have come to About.com seeking a solution to a problem.

**The use of indirect speech in the thorough considerations:**

In contrast, the thorough considerations offered highly detailed arguments of the texts they reviewed for more traditional academic audiences. However, they used indirect speech reporting forms differently. Perhaps the most striking difference is the use of FFIR. Herbert used FFIR just once in his lengthy review, and he does so as a means of transitioning from paraphrasing the author-under-review's argument to commenting on it:

5. *Speech reporting practices in the corpus of published reviews*

ICP { Gellately argues that these numbers were relatively small in comparison to the massive abuses of the Bolshevik October Revolution...; but for him to contend

ICP+ { that the upheaval in Germany was thus "harmonious" is doubtless an exaggeration.

FFIR { Nonetheless, it is certainly accurate to note that the Nazis—who enjoyed the backing of some forty percent of the electorate before their seizure of power, and whose bitterest foes were within the ranks of the organized working class and among Roman Catholics—succeeded in expanding their base of support during the first four or five years of their rule. The main underlying factors were their evident successes in economic and employment policy and in the realm of foreign affairs, areas not explored [here]...

In this excerpt, Herbert's severe tone is evident. He offered this reported speech in order to correct it and he did so by gradually moving from speech report to his own assertions. Note the beginning of this movement in the instance of ICP+ as Herbert commented on the author-under-review's contention "that the upheaval in Germany was thus 'harmonious'." He then moved into FFIR, where he maintained authorial control by patronizingly crediting the author with one point of accuracy. Finally, Herbert offered his own assertion about the subject. In this crafty orchestration of reported speech using a variety of forms, Herbert maintained command of the delivery of content and distance from the author-under-review.

In contrast, Ganguly made extensive use of FFIR in order to mix his voice with the author-under-review's. Indeed, Ganguly used the endorsement effect that FFIR can have in two sustained instances. In one instance in particular, it is easy to forget that Ganguly was in fact reporting on the text-under-review. This section of FFIR spanned over 250 words and

featured Ganguly's interpretation of emergent themes in the text-under-review. The following excerpt illustrates the general style of this section:

FFIR { First, it is both ironic and fascinating that these individuals of vastly different mien and belief shared a similar conception of manhood. For both of them, it was vitally important to affirm one's masculinity. For Churchill this meant a willingness to throw oneself, regardless of physical danger, into battle. Though undoubtedly obsessed with personal glory, he nonetheless evinced astonishing courage on many occasions, whether in the Boer War or in the trenches of the First World War. Gandhi likewise believed in the vital importance of physical courage, cultivating a stoic willingness to suffer oppressive violence without responding in kind...

Ganguly's discussion of these emergent themes mixed reported speech and his own assertions to such an extent that demarcating between the two voices is impossible. Without attribution for the paraphrased material and markers that distinguished the reviewer's commentary, it is pointless to attempt to separate the voices.

The use of summary in the two thorough considerations is also noteworthy because it is distinct in the study corpus for being both general and evaluative. For example, Herbert used summary as a means of dismissing large swaths of the text-under-review without hesitation:



5. *Speech reporting practices in the corpus of published reviews*

Overall, these particular chapters remain the most instructive and interesting compared with other sections of the book. Those on foreign forced workers are basically a rehash of material from Gellately's first book, limited here solely to Polish civilian workers. The chapters on the extermination of Jewish prisoners as slave laborers fall short of the current state of historical knowledge.

SUM

In this instance of summary, Herbert did not provide evidence to support his condemnations of the text-under-review. Rather, he used summary to avoid getting into the details of the author-under-review's arguments, implying that he does not believe them to be worth considering.

Ganguly used summary in a similarly evaluative manner, but for the opposite purpose. Instead of devoting space to discussion of every aspect of the text-under-review, Ganguly offered summaries as evidence for his claims about the text-under-review's virtues:

Herman narrates the confluence of Churchill and Gandhi's professional lives with authority, knowledge, and verve. He demonstrates a supple command of historical detail, whether discussing Churchill's significant role in the military disaster at Gallipoli or Gandhi's extraordinary role during the horrific communal riots that accompanied the partition of India.

SUM

These evaluative and strategic uses of summary seem to reflect the reviewers' argumentative ends. The two thorough reviews worked to build the most comprehensive discussion of the text-under-review's significance possible within the stipulated space constraints.

**The use of indirect speech in the standard academic reviews:**

Unlike the narrated encounters and thorough considerations, the standard academic reviews shared the same audience of academics and purpose (to evaluate the book's scholarly contribution) (see Table 6). As such, we might expect to get a sense of emergent patterns in the use of speech reporting forms. However, my analysis shows that while there was, indeed, some overlap in their uses of summary to provide neutral overviews of topics in the text-under-review, their uses of ICP and FFIR were quite varied. ICP, for example, was used by Grill to demarcate between voices when comparing the text-under-review to other studies—

ICP { In contrast to Mann and Gordon, he is not interested in demonstrating German opposition to Nazi racial and political policies; rather, he explores...

by Stephenson to create distance from the reported argument as a means of foregrounding her oppositional argument—

ICP { For Gellately, this was not mere passive acquiescence but positive engagement: after all, the 'secret police' were now openly acknowledged and their exploits publicized, with many (how many?) citizens expressing approval of them. Yet if perhaps 150

FFIR { ordinary people reported to the police instances of 'racial defilement' in lower Franconia in 1933-45 (p. 134), that amounted to very much less than one per cent of the population over twelve years.

and by Overy to subordinate the reported speech to his own assertion—

ICP { The critical thing, as Lukacs rightly points out, is that Chamberlain supported Churchill solidly...

5. *Speech reporting practices in the corpus of published reviews*

Overy's subordination of the author-under-review's arguments using ICP is notable because it represents the typical style of Overy's review. Overy devoted most of his review to overturning the author-under-review's argument in order to present his own version of history. In fact, his review might fall into Di Leo's (2009) category of reviews that are used as a launching pad to present the reviewer's own informed opinion on a subject.

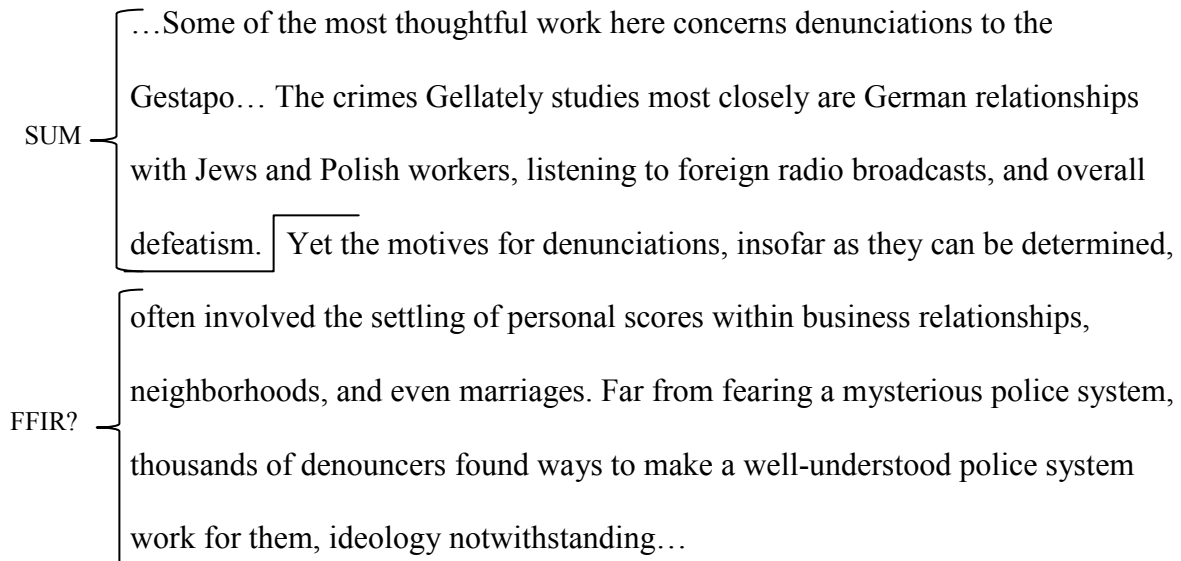
The example of ICP from Stephenson's review above is also noteworthy because of the way ICP and FFIR were used to orchestrate a negative critique. In this instance of FFIR, Stephenson iterated the author-under-review's claim that "150 ordinary people reported to the police instances of 'racial defilement' in lower Franconia in 1933-45 (p. 134)" not to endorse it but rather to cast doubt upon it. This use of FFIR to explicitly undermine the reported speech, however, was fairly rare in the study corpus, only occurring with certainty in two other instances. More typically, FFIR was used in this group of reviews for the endorsement effect it can have. Consider, for example, the following use of FFIR by Grill:

The author's arguments are clear and convincing. The Gestapo was crucial in implementing a system of terror in the Third Reich. Due to its limited personnel, however, which was recruited largely from the traditional political police, racial policies could only be enforced with the help of public denunciations...

Here, the frame for the FFIR is so clear that a colon (:) could punctuate it. It is clear that Grill supports the speech being reported and the absence of attribution makes it seem as though the information is factual.

Not all of the FFIR in these reviews, however, was so clearly identifiable as reported speech. There are two instances in Goda's review that are more ambiguous. The following

example illustrates that these instances might feature the reviewer's commentary (even his subtle critique of the text-under-review) or be an instance of FFIR.



Here the ambiguity regarding the status of the FFIR as reported speech is primarily attributable to the use of “Yet” to introduce a counter point, although one that still seemed to support the author-under-review’s argument. While it seems as though Goda was going to praise the author-under-review’s “thoughtful” treatment of denunciations, his use of “yet” confused the matter. This could be a writing foible or a way this reviewer found to subtly critique the text using ambiguity to maintain book reviewing etiquette.

**The use of indirect speech in the brief recommendations:**

Interestingly, it is in the brief recommendations, the reviews with the strictest space restrictions, that we see the most similarity in the use of speech reporting forms, most notably with ICP. Each of these three reviews used ICP in two ways. First, they used ICP to introduce the text-under-review and its central argument, as is evident in the following example from Krome’s review:

5. *Speech reporting practices in the corpus of published reviews*

ICP { Gellately...analyzes the role of “ordinary” Germans in the Nazi persecution of those deemed social and political outsiders.

Second, these reviewers used ICP again nearer to the end of their reviews to reiterate their findings about the text. As the following example from Krome’s review shows, these instances of ICP were complex sentences with compound or subordinating structures.

ICP { By effectively overturning the belief that Hitler and the Nazi party imposed their ideology upon the German people and maintained control through massed police terror, Gellately’s book forces us to consider the role of the ordinary citizen in the maintenance of the Nazi dictatorship.

In this example, Krome used subordination to emphasize the text-under-review’s achievement, noting that by doing one thing the author accomplished something great. This kind of grammatical construction of ICP was likely shaped by space constraints as it served as an efficient way of communicating the reviews’ central arguments.

Each of the brief recommendations also used FFIR in a seemingly formulaic manner. They used it to succinctly paraphrase and create the sense that the information is accurate using the endorsement effect. However, there is some ambiguity as to what material was, in fact, reported speech and what material was the reviewers’ commentary. One of the primary factors contributing to this ambiguity is the status of the reviewer as a professional with specialized knowledge. Unlike student reviewers, whose knowledge of historical subjects can safely be assumed to be lesser than that of the author whose work they are considering, the published reviewers are experts with the ability to provide informed commentary on the text-under-review’s arguments. As such, the reader cannot simply presume at the appearance of

5. *Speech reporting practices in the corpus of published reviews*

detailed information about the subject at hand that the reviewer was reporting speech. This confusion is evident in Rotella et al.'s initial use of FFIR. Consider the following excerpt:

ICP+	{	...the author convincingly shows that “the great majority of the German people soon became devoted to Hitler and they supported him to the bitter end in 1945.”
FFIR?	{	The Nazis achieved this political miracle by “consensus.” The Italian Marxist Antonio Gramsci argued that political regimes could hardly expect to use unlimited terror against their subjects—a technique combining the threat of terror and coercion would be more effective.

While the first sentence of the FFIR—“The Nazis achieved this political miracle by ‘consensus’”—continued the subject discussed in the ICP and was therefore a clear instance of FFIR, the second sentence introduced Gramscian theory as a new point and therefore seems, on first encounter, to have been supplementary information supplied by Rotella et al. to help the reader understand how the author-under-review’s argument could be true. The quotation marks around the term “consensus” also lends to this ambiguity, as it seems as though the quotation of such a mundane word was intended to communicate scepticism. If the reader interprets “consensus” as being in scare quotes, it is likely that he or she would assume that the introduction of Gramsci’s argument was made as a counter point. It is only when the reader encounters the subsequent sentence, which reads “Using Gramscian theory is hardly new in an analysis of Nazi Germany, but Gellately does make a provocative claim...,” that it becomes clear that Rotella et al. have summarized Gramsci’s argument here as a part of the overview of the reviewed work.

### **Summary of Findings**

- The three brief recommendations seem to be the most formulaic as they each used ICP at the beginning of the review to paraphrase the book's topic and argument and again at the end of the review to emphasize the importance of the book's contribution. Their uses of FFIR, while sometimes ambiguous, were typically endorsements of the text-under-review. Two of the three seem to have included an instance of direct speech to provide the reader with a glimpse inside the text-under-review.
- The four standard academic reviews did not use speech reporting forms similarly despite the fact that they are the only group of reviews in this study corpus with the same audience and purpose. In these reviews, direct speech did not feature prominently, being used most often to highlight apt phrasing. ICP was used to demarcate between voices, to create distance from the speech report, and to subordinate the speech report to one's own argument. FFIR was used to both undermine the reported speech and endorse it, and, as with the FFIR in the brief recommendations, there was some ambiguity in its classification as reported speech.
- The two thorough considerations are quite different from each other. While Herbert's forcefully negative review featured a careful orchestration of incriminating evidence using direct speech, Ganguly's positive review featured a blend of voices using FFIR that is impossible to separate. One point of comparison is their evaluative uses of summary, which are unique in the study corpus.
- The two narrated encounters are also difficult to compare. While Howkins used ICP and direct speech to illustrate the effectiveness of the author-under-review's unique

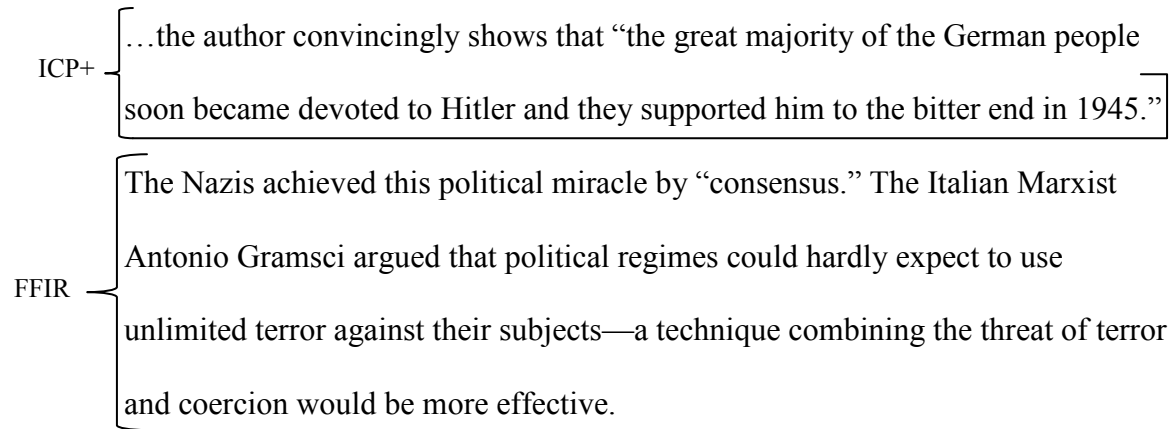
approach to writing military history, Wilde used summary to provide a general and undetailed overview of the text-under-review seemingly for an audience of students.

### **Conclusions**

These findings demonstrate that each History Methods student accessed a relatively unique published review that used an array of speech reporting forms in response to the exigencies of a writing context that is highly interpersonal, space restricted, and relegated to the margins of scholarly work. It is clear that the History Methods review assignment conflicts with the variety of writing contexts represented by these eleven published reviews. Were students to have drawn on these published reviews as models for constructing a book review, many of the speech reporting strategies that they exhibit would have required explanation or justification. For instance, according to the assignment students need to ensure that reported speech is clearly marked and attributed and not just to avoid plagiarism charges, either. It is in the students' interest to create distinct, recognizable spaces for their own opinion and analysis to stand out. In addition, students need to be careful when blending their voice with the author-under-review's because they cannot lay claim to the same level of knowledge. Crossing the line between what a student can reasonably assert in tandem with the author-under-review and what is unreasonable for a student to co-assert could work to emphasize the student's novice status. Consider, for instance, the suspicion that would be aroused if the following excerpt from Rotella et al.'s review had been authored by a student:



5. *Speech reporting practices in the corpus of published reviews*



A student could not get away as easily with the introduction of an unattributed and yet un-introduced theory. The reader (presumably a grader) immediately, although perhaps unconsciously, might ask herself from where the student has taken the information. In the context of the published review the confusion occurs in reverse order. At first the reader assumes that the reviewer is introducing a theory that we will find useful in understanding the text-under-review, but then in the subsequent sentence, the reader discovers that the reviewer is, in fact, paraphrasing the text-under-review’s method of analysis.

Without doubt, the published reviews that the History Methods students accessed and considered in the process of writing their review assignment feature speech reporting strategies that are specific to their writing contexts. Whether the History Methods’ students chose to emulate those speech reporting practices is the subject of the next chapter, which offers a comparative summary of the speech reporting strategies used by the students and published reviewers as well as some additional observations of student writing choices that are relevant to their relationship with the published review(s) they accessed.

## Chapter 6

### Mirror mirror on the wall... The novice's relationship with model texts

The nature of the relationship between the History Methods student writers and the published reviews they considered while crafting their review essays is especially interesting in light of the conspicuous power discrepancy between them. Indeed, there are some clear indications in the study corpus that a few students felt intimidated by the published review they accessed. In the following excerpt, for instance, James carefully navigated the power differential between himself and the published reviewer while attempting a convincing performance of the reviewer identity:

After reading Herbert's review, I came to agree with some of his viewpoints, and recognized the argumentative flaws he points out. However, as an academic with no prior knowledge in the area of consent and coercion during Nazi Germany, I found Gellately's book to be a worthwhile read that presents a basic, yet insightful grounding for those interested.

## *6. The influence of model texts on student speech reporting practices*

Here James situated himself as an academic to win favour with the instructor and yet one without specialized knowledge on this particular topic, which allowed him to concede the superiority of the published reviewer's arguments. Hedging his position in light of the published reviewer's authority, James cautiously presented his conclusions about the text-under-review. Indeed, this excerpt speaks to the complex relationship between the novice writer and model texts.

This chapter explores the nature of the relationship between the History Methods student writers and the published reviews that they accessed in an effort to consider whether the interaction played a meaningful role in shaping the students' use of speech reporting forms. After a brief discussion of the research on student confidence and authorial identity, I compare and contrast the speech reporting strategies used in the student review essays and the published reviews discussed in chapters 4 and 5. Subsequently, I consider some interesting approaches taken by a few specific students to using and engaging with the published review. A closer look at this interaction will produce a more complete understanding of the students' complex rhetorical situation and may possibly produce insights on student identity, the use of professional model texts to teach genre, and plagiarism.

### **Theoretical Framework**

In order to account for the students' ability to negotiate carefully their position as an author in respect to the two published authors with whom they engaged in their review essays, I adopt the understanding of identity developed by Ivanič (1998). Ivanič draws on social constructionist theories of language and learning to describe identity as a socially

6. *The influence of model texts on student speech reporting practices*

constructed “complex of interweaving positionings” (p. 10) that are “open to contestation and change” (p. 12). She chooses the term “identity” amongst a plethora of synonyms because it can be pluralized (“identities”) and used as a verb (“identify”), which can be nominalized (“identification”); therefore the term adequately reflects the “processes whereby individuals align themselves with groups, communities, and/or sets of interests, values, beliefs and practices” (p. 11). By “positionings” Ivanič accounts for both the freedom that individuals have to use discursive resources in order to seem to be a certain type of person as well as the more deterministic reality of being “given a particular identity, or aspect of identity” (p. 11).

Theorizing the writer's identity, Ivanič outlines three interdependent aspects of the self: the autobiographical self, the discursal self, and the self as author. The autobiographical self is an individual’s “social and discursal history” (p. 24). This self is in constant flux in relation to an individual’s continual experience of the world. The discursal self is the impression an individual creates of him or herself through textual characteristics. Ivanič is careful to specify that this impression can be created consciously or unconsciously and is “often multiple, sometimes contradictory” (p. 25). The self as author is related to the discursal self but is concerned more with the writer’s position as expressed through “voice.” Ivanič explains that “The self as author is particularly significant when discussing academic writing, since writers differ considerably in how far they claim authority, and in how far they establish an authorial presence in their writing” (p. 26). These three aspects of the writer’s identity are interdependent and inseparable. They function together, each informing the other recursively and contributing to the writer’s developing sense of who he or she can be.

In her theory of identity, Ivanič recognizes that, as is commonly recognized in fictional texts, representations of the self in non-fiction texts cannot necessarily be conflated

## *6. The influence of model texts on student speech reporting practices*

with the author as person. She adopts Goffman's (1969) dramaturgical metaphor of the performer and the character to elucidate this contention. Ivanič explains that the performer, according to Goffman, is a “harried fabricator of impressions involved in the all-too-human task of staging a performance” while the character is a “figure, typically a fine one, whose spirit, strength, and other sterling qualities the performance was designed to evoke” (as cited in Ivanič, p.21). Goffman postulates that what we encounter in written texts is a social position—“a pattern of appropriate conduct, coherent, embellished, and well articulated”—that is “enacted,” “portrayed,” “possessed,” and “realized” with or without awareness, ease, or good faith (as cited in Ivanič, p. 21). We might conjecture that in assignments which ask students to don the official academic voice, they enact this social position by performing it as best as they can.

Bartholomae (1985/2003) also draws on a dramaturgical metaphor to explain the manner in which students step into the role of the academic. In his review of 500 language proficiency essays, he finds that students construct elaborate fictions that “dramatize” their experience (p. 625). Bartholomae casts this performance as a “bluff” (p. 624) that requires the students to become skilful at imagining that they are writing from a position of privilege in order to “transform the political and social relationship between students and teachers” (p. 628). The implication of this game of pretend, he suggests, is that “learning, at least as it is defined in the liberal arts curriculum, becomes more a matter of imitation or parody than a matter of invention and discovery” (p. 632). This concern, however, seems to discount the role that imitation can play as an earnest means of learning. When students want to become a part of academic “discourse communities” (Bizzell, 1992), how else are they to begin establishing a position within them other than by imitating the modes of discussing, question-

6. *The influence of model texts on student speech reporting practices*

asking, and researching modelled by insiders?

Bartholomae's theory of the student imitator has been criticized by Boyd (1991), who points out the "double bind" in the argument that instructors want students to do academic language but not to imitate it so well that the instructor loses the position of superiority (p. 341). Boyd explains that Bartholomae's image of the teacher as a model is misguided because: "To establish the teacher as a model is not a politically neutral act; rather, it is, as Girard suggests and Bartholomae unintentionally demonstrates, always an inherently authoritarian act" (p. 339). Moreover, Boyd points out that students do not necessarily seek to acquire the academic voice and that instructors should not necessarily seek to impose it upon them; he suggests that academic ways of speaking and arguing might not be the best discursive tactics to promote as they are increasingly marginalized as aggressive, insular, and inaccessible to outsiders (pp. 336-337). He recommends that discussions about "the nature of the imitative desire" (p. 343) be introduced in the writing classroom to help students navigate the challenges of establishing their own academic voice.

This process of crafting an academic voice as students undergo an "academic adolescence" might be better understood by means of Bourdieu's theory of "fields" and "habitus," which reminds us that behaviour—our gestures, vocabulary, and other actions—shifts in different social contexts in order to take advantage (through adherence or resistance) of what is considered to be appropriate in each context. Bourdieu posits that we exist within a complex of autonomous, interacting, and overlapping "fields" or "socially structured spaces" of action and struggle, which, as Wacquant clarifies, replace the "vacuous notion of 'society'" (Bourdieu & Wacquant, 1992, pp. 16-17). The limits of a field, Bourdieu explains, are evident when its effects stop (p. 100). For example, imagine a medium-sized

6. *The influence of model texts on student speech reporting practices*

undergraduate classroom in which students are working in groups of three to determine Abraham Lincoln's position on slavery. The instructor is circling the room and listening in on their discussions when he overhears a student with whom he was most impressed on the last essay saying: "OMG. Lincoln was the biggest hypocrite for marrying that Mary chick." Amused, the instructor calls on the student to clarify the point for the benefit of the class. The student wisely chooses to rephrase when addressing the instructor: "Well, sir, at first Lincoln was strongly opposed to slavery but then he married a girl whose family owned many slaves, and that seems to undermine the reliability of his anti-slave position." This hypothetical situation reveals the presence of two overlapping fields by exposing their limits: (1) the students' social field, in which contemporary slang is an effective emphatic tool, and (2) the classroom as a professional field, in which the use of contemporary slang has a more comedic effect. Wacquant uses the metaphor of the magnetic field to explain the way fields are held together, describing their cohesion as a "*relational configuration endowed with a specific gravity* which imposes on all the objects and agents which enter in it" (emphasis original, p. 17). We might classify an academic discipline as well as an educational institution and classroom as fields because they position agents in specific ways towards objects and ideas, demanding particular points of view and methods of construing the world. When agents with experience in these fields enter a classroom or begin to engage in a disciplinary conversation, they default to the language, modes of reasoning, and discursive conventions that will allow them to exercise power in the field.

The power that enables an agent to participate in a field comes from having competence in using forms of capital that have value within the field. Bourdieu delineates many categories and subcategories of capital, which he also refers to as "species of power"

6. *The influence of model texts on student speech reporting practices*

(Bourdieu & Wacquant, 1992, p. 97). To have capital within an academic field an agent would have skill in the vocabulary, grammar, methods of inquiry and action that are most valued by actors within the field. The hypothetical student above who switches from describing Lincoln's wife as "that Mary chick" to "a girl whose family owned many slaves" when moving between informal and academic fields demonstrates intuitive knowledge of the vocabulary that is valued in two different fields, and employs this knowledge to gain social credence with friends and subsequently with the course instructor. Bourdieu contends that one means of discovering the boundaries of a field is by identifying its active species of capital and testing their limits (p. 98). To know and wield forms of capital is to have the power to be heard and to bear influence; in short, to exist in the field. Meaningful participation in a field also means to have influence on the field itself, to be a force on its structures and regularities. In this way, agents are both structured by fields and structuring agents within them (p. 98).

The experience that allows agents to participate in a field using its legitimate forms of power Bourdieu calls *habitus*—"a socialized subjectivity" (Bourdieu & Wacquant, 1992, p. 126). It is a matter of unconscious conditioning that occurs through experience in a field to the extent that "when habitus encounters a social world of which it is the product, it is like a 'fish in water' ..." (p. 127). Habitus, then, is a set of dispositions, values, and practices that are produced in relation to a field. Agents with good sense of the game are able to play as sanctioned participants: "People are at once founded and legitimized to enter the field by their possessing a definite configuration of properties" (pp. 108-109). Those with a developed habitus in a field know how to function in it, recognizing its forms of capital, and have the legitimacy needed to do so with force.



## 6. *The influence of model texts on student speech reporting practices*

What happens when an inexperienced agent attempts to participate in a field? Bourdieu describes the effect as being “out of sync” or acting “inopportunistly” (Bourdieu & Wacquant, 1992, p. 130). While Bourdieu does not extensively discuss the processes of developing a habitus, referring to it as a function of socialization, he does acknowledge that the school institution functions as a place where individuals can develop a habitus, learning to employ forms of capital in various fields, through deliberate, explicit inculcation (Bourdieu, 1991, p. 61). Indeed, the classroom is a safe place where novices are protected from rejection and are instead offered support for their progress in developing a habitus. What Bartholomae interprets as imitation or parody would seem to be the “fish *out of water*” experience that makes outsiders so conspicuous in a field. We might look at this process of “bluffing” or “enacting” a social role that is not one's own as a valuable process of developing a habitus—a labour of discovering forms of capital in unfamiliar fields. In the context of the History Methods course, students had the opportunity to imitate the discourse of their classroom as well as the discourse of the published reviewers whose work they were tasked with considering. The following discussion explores whether students emulated the professional reviewers’ discourse.

### **Findings and Discussion**

The results of my analysis of the source engagement strategies present in the corpus of student review essays and the corpus of published reviews are divided here into two distinct sections: a discussion of the major difference between the speech reporting practices used by these student and published reviewers followed by a discussion of the ways students used and engaged with the published reviews in their own review essays.

### **Comparison of speech reporting practices**

A comparison of the direct and indirect speech reporting practices in the student and published reviews suggests one trend: that speech reports were generally more clearly identifiable (as reported speech) and more clearly attributable to a particular source in this corpus of student review essays than in this corpus of published reviews. As the following discussion shows, this result is indicated by three particular findings:

1. The frequency of direct speech in the student review essays
2. The consistency with which framed free indirect representation of reported speech (FFIR) was used and identified by the student writers
3. The frequency of speech act verbs in the student texts

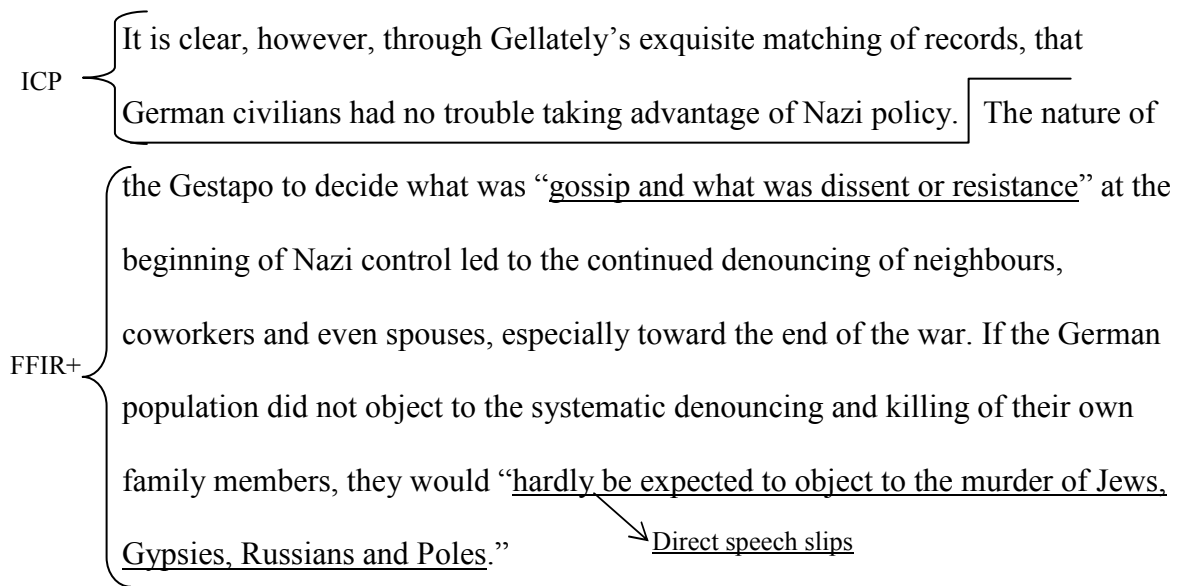
#### **The frequency of direct speech in the student review essays**

The frequency of direct speech suggests clarity of attribution because direct speech repeats the reported speaker's exact utterance. For instance, when direct speech occurred in FFIR<sup>24</sup> it reminded the reader of the source under discussion and thus reaffirmed the nature of the reported speech. Consider, for example, the way in which the two direct speech slips underlined in the following excerpt from Lisa(b)'s paper shifted responsibility for the assertions from the student writer to the reported speaker:

---

<sup>24</sup> A form of indirect speech whose status as reported speech is implied by the reporting context (see Appendix 3).

6. The influence of model texts on student speech reporting practices



In this excerpt, the direct speech slips acted almost as attribution phrases as they reminded the reader that the student writer was paraphrasing the text-under-review.

The process of comparing the use of direct speech between the student review essays and the published reviews was not straightforward because of the variable lengths in this corpus of published reviews. For instance, the three shortest reviews, which I call “brief recommendations” in Chapter 5 (see Table 6) averaged just 235 words while the longest reviews or “narrated encounters” averaged 1,254 words. In addition, this corpus of published reviews could be further divided into two other distinct groups: four “standard academic reviews” that averaged 553 words and two “thorough considerations” that averaged 1,034 words. A fair comparison of the number of direct speech instances can only be made by taking these groupings into account. A per-page ratio based on the standard MLA word length for an average type written page (250 words) works best to get a sense of how frequently direct speech appears in these groups of reviews.<sup>25</sup> However, the per-page ratio is

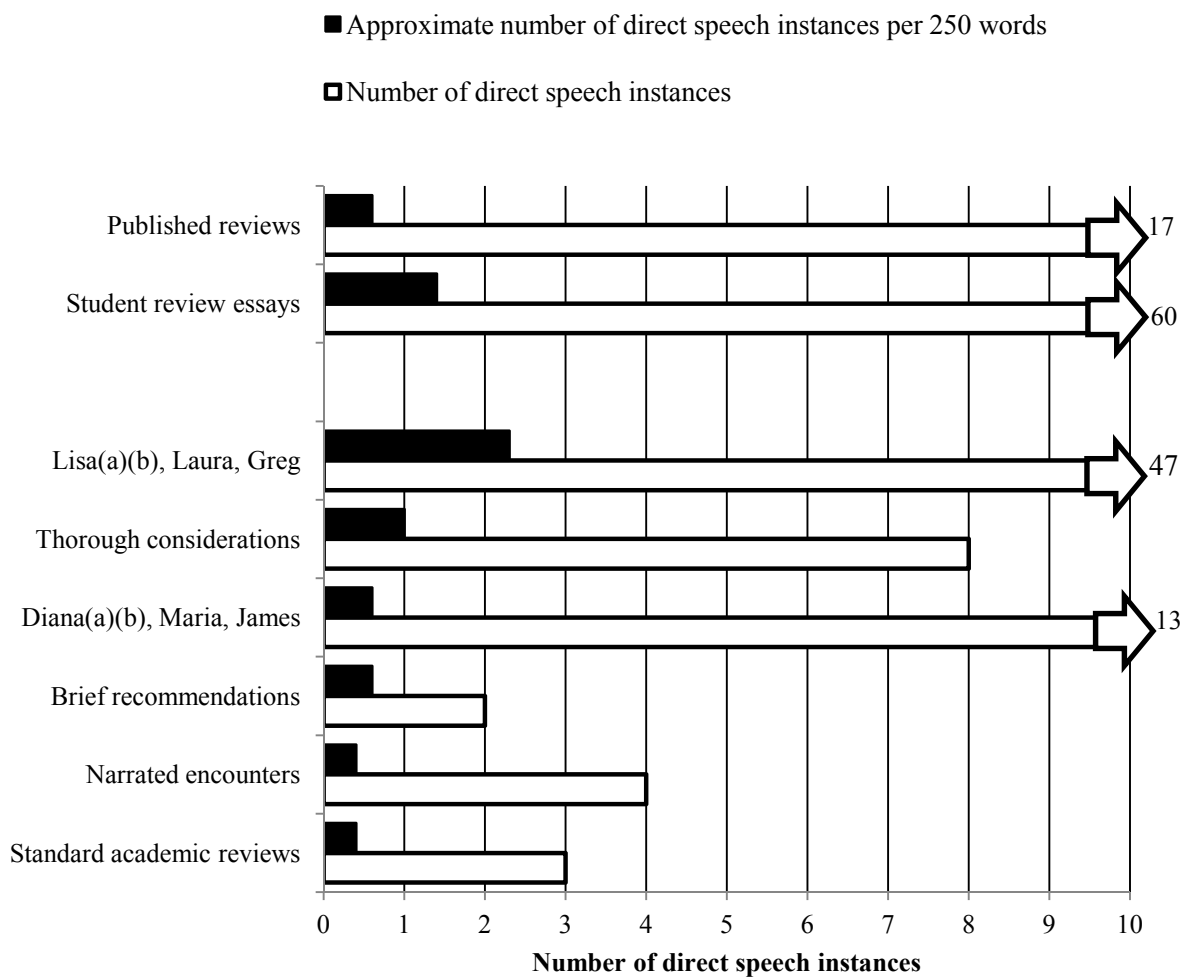
<sup>25</sup> To calculate the number of pages in each review, I used the MLA standard word length for an average type-

6. The influence of model texts on student speech reporting practices

not intended to depict the actual number of direct speech instances that occur on each page (in many cases, direct speech occurred several times on one page and none on another).

Notably, as Figure 4 suggests, this analysis discovered that half of the student review essays contained much more direct speech than the others.

Figure 4: The frequency of direct speech instances in the student review essays and published reviews



---

written page (double spaced with 12pt. font and 1" margins): 250 words/page.

6. *The influence of model texts on student speech reporting practices*

Figure 4 indicates that the per-page (250 words) frequency of direct speech instances can be equated to 1.4 times in the student review essays (sometimes twice per page) but only 0.6 times in the published reviews (often once per page). However, a closer look at the variations within the two study corpora reveals that the highest per-page (250 words) frequency occurred in four student review essays where it can be equated to 2.25 times. In the other student review essays, the per-page frequency of direct speech instances can be equated to 0.6 times or “often once,” which is the same frequency as the brief recommendations. The per-page frequency of direct speech instances was the lowest for the standard academic reviews and narrated encounters, where it can be equated to 0.4 times or “sometimes once.”

The variation evident in the student review essays in Figure 4 reflects the fact that the students took different styles and approaches to resolving the assignment tasks. Lisa, for instance, used many direct speech slips throughout both of her review assignments because, she explained, writing in her English literature courses taught her the value of selecting and highlighting the exact words used by a source. It is also noteworthy that Lisa(a)’s review featured many direct speech instances that were used as a means of substantiating negative critiques of the text-under-review—hers was the only student review in this corpus to offer a negative thesis. Greg’s use of direct speech also seemed to be for personal preference or style, as he often used the speech reporting form when there was no apparent need for textual evidence. Consider, for example, the instance of direct speech that is underlined in this excerpt from Greg’s review:

CDR { Gellately shows that the ‘participation, compliance, or accommodation of ordinary citizens plays such an important role in the creation of a police state’ ...

6. *The influence of model texts on student speech reporting practices*

This instance of direct speech did not feature particularly apt phrasing or work to substantiate a claim made by the student reviewer—in terms of argumentative function, this instance of direct speech did not play a large role. In contrast, Laura used direct speech much more explicitly and purposefully. In addition to using direct speech to highlight phrasing and set off the names of military troops and battles, Laura used the speech reporting form in many instances to report embedded speech, as she followed the author-under-review’s lead by quoting directly the words and expressions of historical figures:

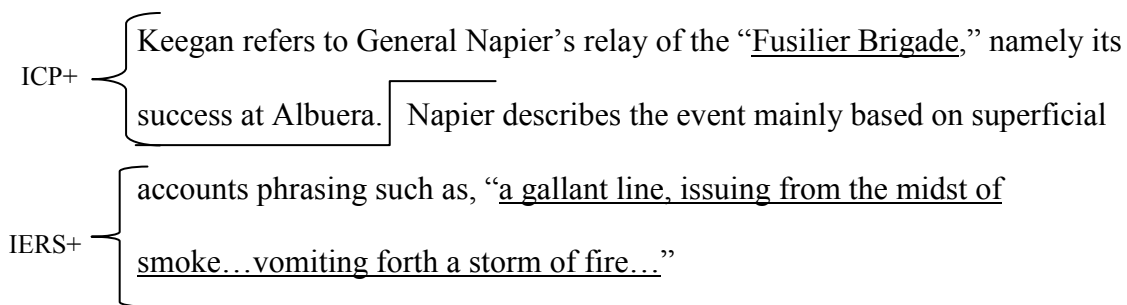


Figure 4, then, suggests that students seem on average to use direct speech more frequently than the published reviewers, but with some inconsistency. This variation might indicate that these students found their own ways to respond to the assigned task.

There is also some variation in the way direct speech was used in a couple of the longer published reviews. The variation in this group of texts, however, corresponded to their differing writing contexts. For instance, Herbert used direct speech in a careful illustration of the apparent contradictions in the text-under-review in order to substantiate his accusation that the author-under-review bowed to the whims of the publisher. In contrast, Howkins used direct speech to illustrate the effectiveness of the author-under-review’s intimate portrayal of military history. Notably, the use of direct speech was only consistent in the brief

6. *The influence of model texts on student speech reporting practices*

recommendations and standard academic reviews, which seem to represent standardized review genres.

There are a few reasons why students might have been tempted to use direct speech more frequently than the published reviewers did. Perhaps the strongest incentive in the student context is the need for students to demonstrate that they invested an appropriate amount of work into their assignments, that the work was clearly their own, and that they were able to identify specific pieces of evidence from source texts. During the interview, James' explanation for using direct speech spoke to these reasons for using direct speech:

I like to add a couple of direct quotes in. For me personally as an undergrad I feel that it shows that I've actually read the book instead of writing my review off of another synopsis. And I mean, I find professors generally want a couple of direct quotes. I find profs are usually receptive to one or two quotes whether it's for that means or for just showing that I can connect my ideas to an actual chapter or issue in the book. I tend to throw a couple, two or three, just trying to connect my paper to the book so that the audience as well can see that what I'm stating is from the book is from the book.

James' explanation suggests that the ruling influence on his use of direct speech was the opinion of his instructor. Indeed, the need to impress the instructor is a clear incentive in the classroom writing context or "field" in which it is important for students to provide evidence of a good work ethic, comprehension, and critical thinking skills, and academic integrity. James seems to have thought that direct speech would provide this evidence and gain him some power to influence the instructor's opinion of his work. Conversely, for the published reviewers, the reception of the book review by the general community of academics and the

6. *The influence of model texts on student speech reporting practices*

author-under-review seems to have informed when and how direct speech was used. This is best demonstrated in this study corpus by Herbert's careful orchestration of textual evidence in his highly critical review.

**The consistency with which FFIR was used and identified by the student writers**

The use of FFIR in the two corpora of reviews also indicates a trend toward clearer attribution practices in the student texts. FFIR, you will recall, is a form of indirect speech that is free of integral attribution. It is identifiable as reported speech through implication by an element of the context such as a preceding frame or a non-integral attribution. In the student reviews, this implication is generally clearer and more predictable. As Figure 5 below suggests, this clarity is due to the way FFIR was framed in the student review essays—often by both a clear preceding frame and non-integral attribution—as well as the consistency of the rhetorical ends for which they used FFIR. Figure 5 depicts the percentage of sentences coded as FFIR that fit into five categories:

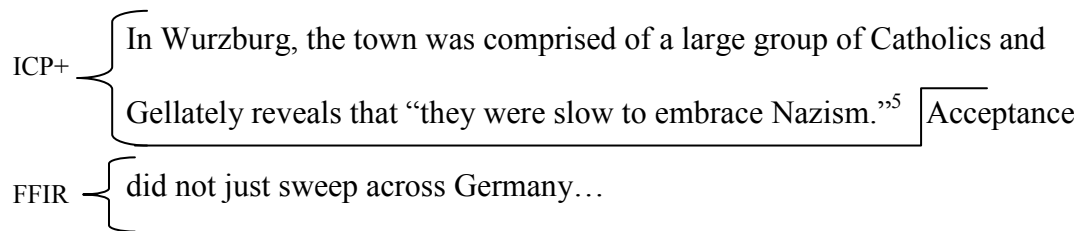
1. FFIR that was used when the reviewer was stating a point of disagreement with the text-under-review. These instances look more or less like the following excerpt from Stephenson's review:

FFIR { Yet if perhaps [150 ordinary people reported to the police instances of 'racial defilement' in Lower Franconia in 1933–45 (p. 134),] that amounted to very much less than one per cent of the population over twelve years.

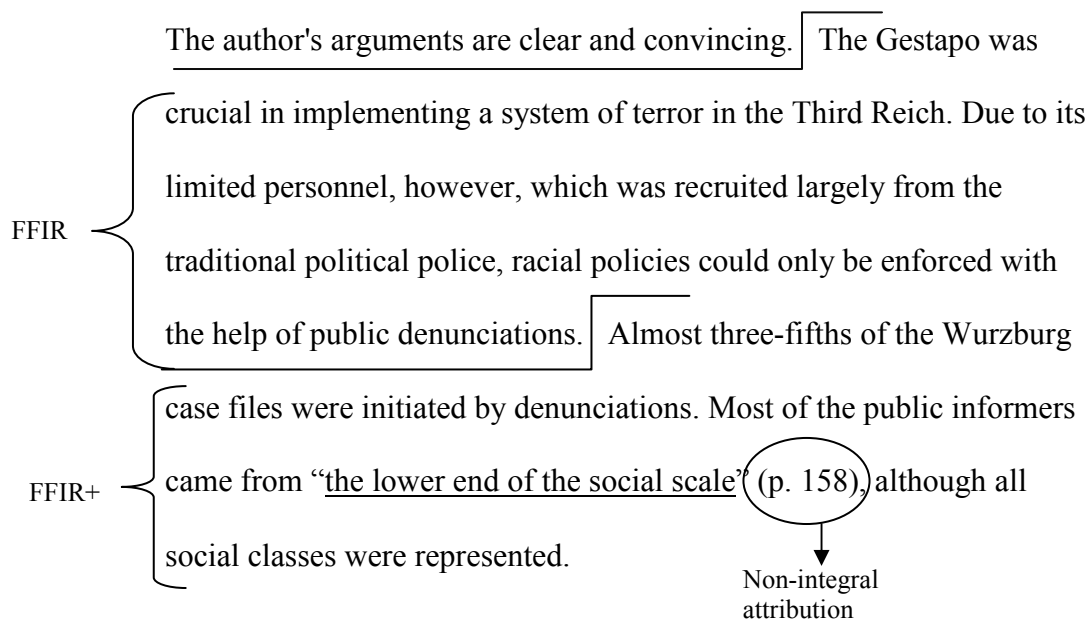
2. FFIR that was used by the reviewer to endorse the reported speech. These instances look much like the following example from Greg's review essay:



6. *The influence of model texts on student speech reporting practices*



3. FFIR that had a clear contextual frame, which I defined by the presence of non-integral attribution or a clear set-up for the FFIR, both of which are evident in the following example from Grill’s review:



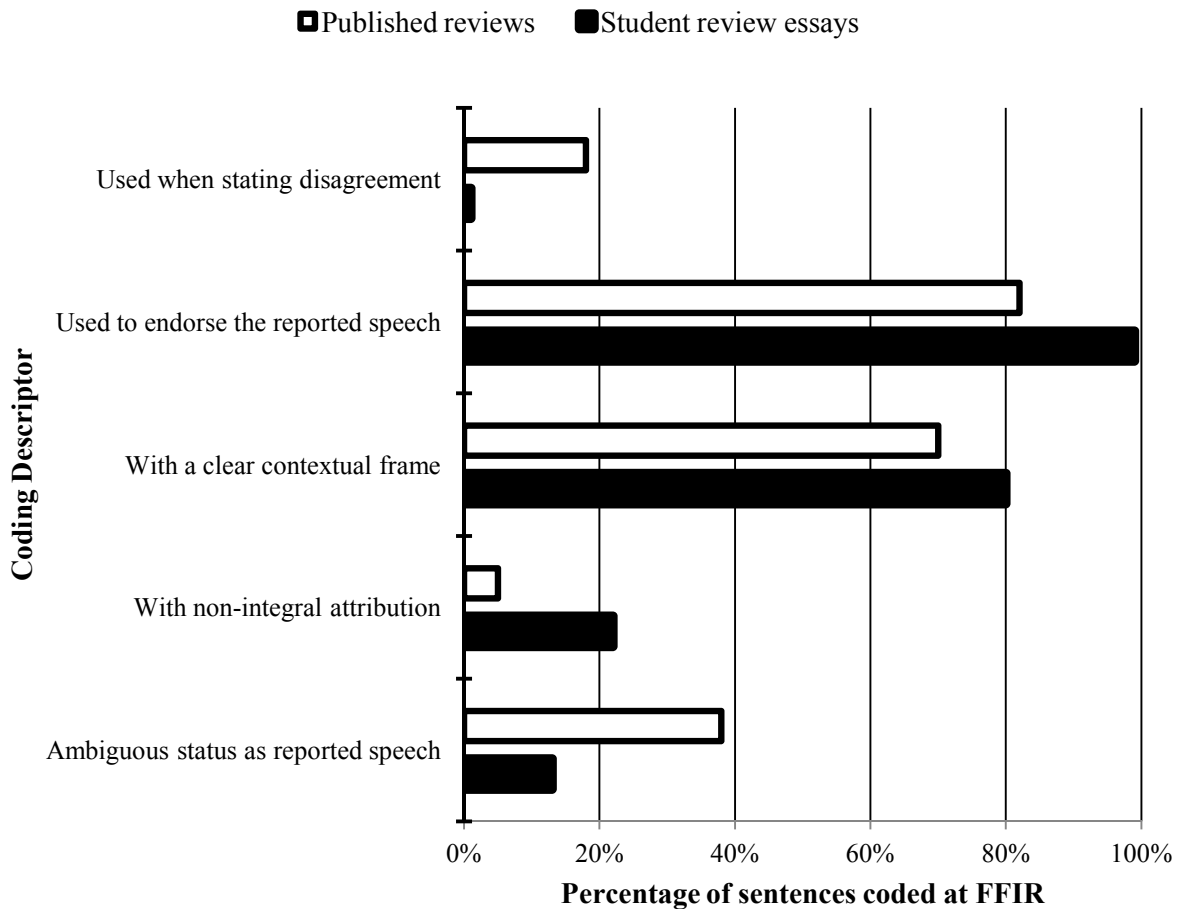
4. FFIR coded in sentences that also included non-integral attribution, as exhibited in the above example of FFIR+ in Grill’s review.
5. FFIR whose status as reported speech was somewhat ambiguous either because the reviewer’s and the author-under-review’s voices were blended beyond demarcation or because it is unclear whether the passage offered the reviewer’s commentary on or paraphrase of the text-under-review. The latter is present in the following example from Goda’s review:

6. The influence of model texts on student speech reporting practices

...Some of the most thoughtful work here concerns denunciations to the Gestapo... The crimes Gellately studies most closely are German relationships with Jews and Polish workers, listening to foreign radio broadcasts, and overall defeatism. Yet the motives for denunciations, insofar as they can be determined, often involved the settling of personal scores within business relationships, neighborhoods, and even marriages...

FFIR? {

Figure 5: Comparison of the consistency of the use and identification of FFIR in the student review essays and published reviews



## 6. *The influence of model texts on student speech reporting practices*

Figure 5 indicates that the FFIR in the student review essays was more consistently used and framed than the FFIR in this corpus of published reviews. The student reviewers nearly always used FFIR to endorse the reported speech and in reporting contexts that made the status of the FFIR as reported speech clear. As such, the FFIR in the student review essays had a similar style and argumentative function, which made it easy to recognize the FFIR throughout the study corpus. There were just two instances where the status of FFIR was ambiguous in the student review essays: the FFIR that followed Laura's mistaken use of negative speech act verbs (see Chapter 4) and the intertextuality in Diana(a)'s discussion of themes in the text-under-review, which I discuss in later in this chapter. The FFIR in the corpus of published reviews was less consistent. In this corpus of published reviews, the FFIR was more variable in form as it was used in both endorsements and disagreements with the reported speech. In addition, it rarely occurred with non-integral attribution, which was likely due to the stylistic rules and space constraints of their publishing contexts, and was less frequently presented in a contextual frame that clarified the FFIR's status as reported speech.

### **The frequency of speech act verbs in the corpus of student review essays**

Further supporting this evidence that the student review essays featured reported speech that was more clearly identifiable is the fact that while the student and published reviewers used comparable amounts of the speech act verb types (see Appendix 5) identified by Thompson and Yiyun (1991),<sup>26</sup> the student writers used speech act verbs approximately twice as frequently as the published reviewers. This information is important because it indicates that students used in-text attribution phrases with speech act verbs to demarcate

---

<sup>26</sup> Thompson and Yiyun's speech act verb categories are outlined in the Review of Literature.

6. *The influence of model texts on student speech reporting practices*

between their voice and the speech they were reporting approximately twice as frequently as the published reviewers. Consider, for example, the four boxed attribution phrases with speech act verbs in the following excerpt from Lisa(b)'s review essay:

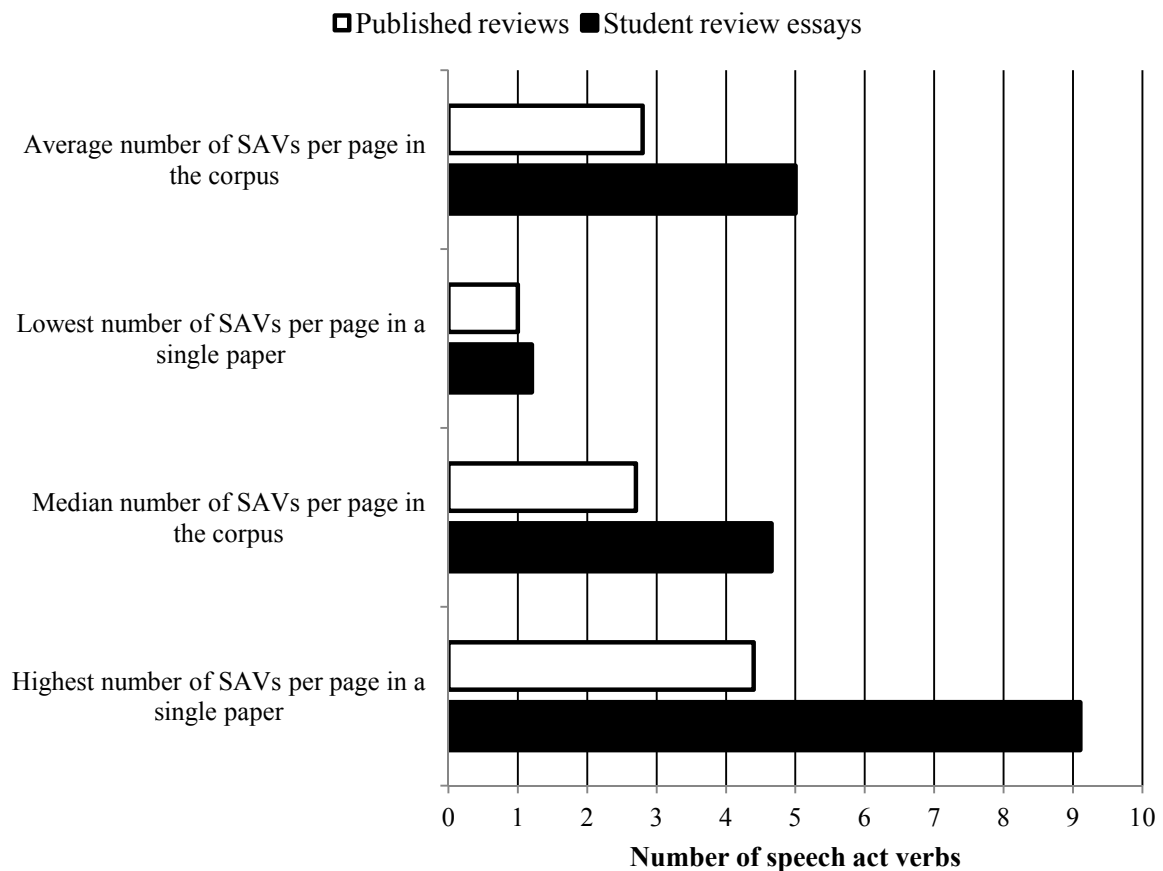
Gellately frequently mentions the work of his peers. He recognizes the weaknesses and holes in their arguments in an attempt to correct them but also credits them for their emphasis on important issues... Gellately draws attention to the tendency of historians to ignore the number of women already working in Germany before the war when assessing the mobilization rate of women working during the war. In this way, he is able to critically analyze the gaps in previous research and thereby avoid them himself.

As is this excerpt illustrates, attribution can be quite frequent in the student review essays, even unnecessarily so and despite the instructor's advice to "OMIT NEEDLESS WORDS" (course description, syllabus) such as redundant attribution information.

The numbers look like this: in 11,098 words the students used 229 speech act verbs, which is about 2% of the corpus, while in 7,491 words the published reviewers used 79 speech act verbs, about 1% of the corpus. Another way of conceptualizing this data is by representing the number of speech act verbs on a per-page basis. Figure 6 demonstrates that the average per-page frequency of speech act verbs can be equated to 5 in the student review essays but more like 3 in the published reviews.

## 6. The influence of model texts on student speech reporting practices

Figure 6: Speech act verbs per page (250 words) in corpora of student and published reviews



The per page (250 words) data show that the difference between the frequency of speech act verbs in the two corpora can be conceptualized as roughly two more per page in the student essays.

### Summary of findings

In summary, we have seen that this corpus of student writers used more speech act verbs and integral attributions to identify reported speech, more instances of direct speech to foreground the author-under-review's ownership of phrases and assertions, and more

6. *The influence of model texts on student speech reporting practices*

instances of clearly identifiable FFIR. These findings demonstrate that these students did more attribution work than these published reviewers, which is not altogether surprising. In light of complaints about student plagiarism and poor citation style, students are under a lot of pressure to reference their sources clearly and often. Instructions that seem to conflict with the stern warnings about not citing work appropriately and properly, such as the History Methods' instructor's request that students "OMIT NEEDLESS WORDS," while well-meaning, are understandably difficult for students to follow. Both Lisa and James spoke to this issue in their interviews. As I discussed in Chapter 4, Lisa used frequent direct speech slips to solve the conflict that she felt between the instructor's advice to follow the referencing patterns in published book reviews on the one hand and institutional policies of academic integrity on the other. She explained:

At the beginning he [the instructor] told us to go and look [in academic journals] at the way other people did book reviews. The ones that I looked at didn't have any quotes at all or references ... I was pretty much only putting in page numbers when I could put in the actual page number instead of just my summary of the book itself. I wasn't sure if he wanted page numbers at all. It was very unclear because he told us to look at others that didn't have any.

Direct speech helped her to solve this problem because it offered her opportunities to cite specific page numbers frequently. James also spoke of his struggle to follow the instructor's stipulations on repeating attribution in our interview. After I had circled the integral references in one of his paragraphs, he reflected:

...That's something I've struggled with especially in his classes is omitting needless words. Especially in a book review where you're only focusing on one author, one

6. *The influence of model texts on student speech reporting practices*

topic... Now that they're all underlined I probably have more "he's" and "Gellatelys" than I should have. The second look at it [his review assignment] after you've already had it marked, I would edit some of them out...

James understood why the references to the author-under-review seem to be unnecessary in a review, and yet was unable to avoid including what he, in hindsight, considered to be too many references to the author-under-review. Unlike Lisa's solution in direct speech, which offered her the ability to include frequent non-integral attributions, to shift responsibility for assertions to the author-under-review, and to show the instructor that she was able to extract specific pieces of evidence from the text-under-review, James' solution to the issue was problematic. He relied on the passive voice and complex introductory phrases to avoid or move around integral attributions. The following example of one of these complex introductory phrases illustrates the manner in which this particular strategy undermined the coherence of his discussion:

Beginning with Hitler's ascent to power during the Weimar Republic, first securing the position of Chancellor, and then through mostly supportive means, assumed the power of a dictator, Gellately argues that consent and coercion were intrinsically linked to bring about change.

In this excerpt, the interruptive phrase "first securing the position of Chancellor, and then through mostly supportive means, assumed the power of a dictator" obscured the coherence of the explanation that "Beginning with Hitler's ascent to power during the Weimar Republic, Gellately argues that consent and coercion were intrinsically linked to bring about change." These findings suggest that some students in the study corpus sought out strategies

## 6. *The influence of model texts on student speech reporting practices*

to get around what seems to have been more liberal referencing practices displayed in the published reviews and sometimes those strategies worked and sometimes they did not.

### **Strategies that the student writers used to interact with the published reviews**

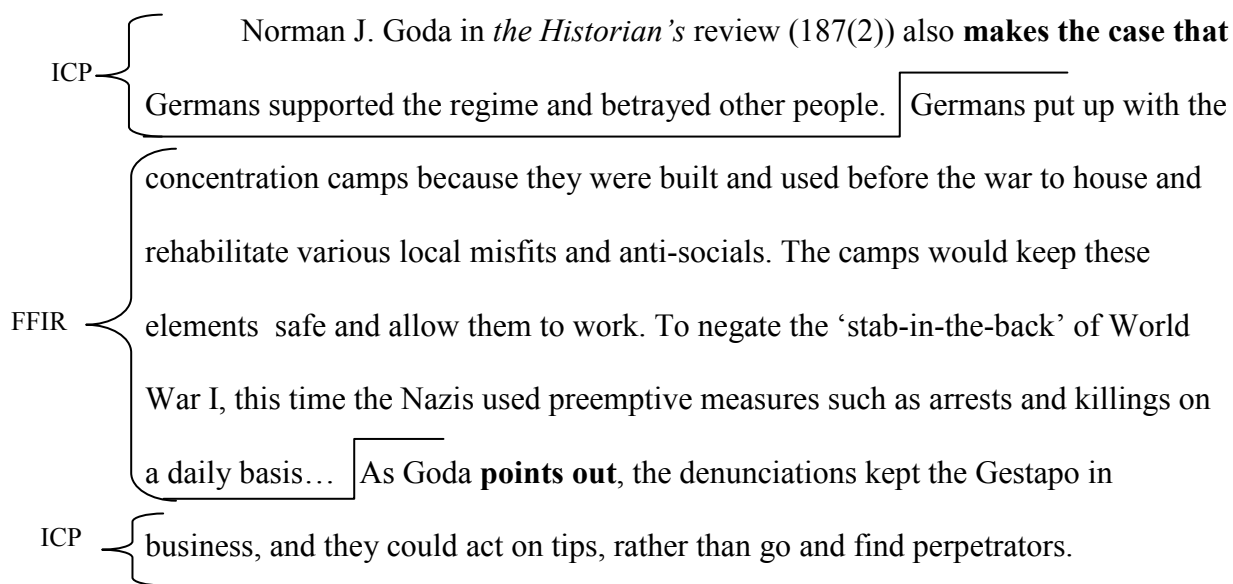
The students' interactions with the published reviews were fairly consistent. The majority of students reserved their introduction of the published review and discussion of it to the latter part of their review where they offered a summary and a sentence or two explaining whether or not they agreed with the published review. This approach was in line with the instructions provided by the instructor in a supplementary handout, which James described as asking students to write a paragraph summarizing the text-under-review's thesis followed by a discussion of the structure of the argument and the evidence provided and then a critique of the text-under-review's strengths and weaknesses followed by a paragraph devoted to a summary and consideration of the published review and, finally, a conclusion. There were, however, a few instances in the student reviews where the use of or interaction with the published review was particularly noteworthy. These instances, which I discuss below, include: Maria's misrepresentation of the published reviews, James' use of the published review as a research source, Greg and Laura's unattributed reported speech, and Diana's co-option of the published reviewer's argument.

#### **Maria's misrepresentation of the published reviews**

Maria, for instance, misrepresented the published reviews she consulted, using speech act verbs such as "*brings out*," "*argues*," and "*shows*" that suggested that the reviewers' texts were research studies instead of reviews. Consider, for example, the two speech act verb phrases bolded in the following excerpt:



6. The influence of model texts on student speech reporting practices



The two speech act verb phrases in this paragraph—“*makes the case that*” and “*points out*”—clearly represent the reported text as a research essay that uses evidence to make arguments about the past. In actuality, however, Goda’s text offered a critique of a different book that made the arguments he paraphrased in his review. More accurate attribution phrases would clarify the fact that Goda offered this information in his review as a paraphrase and evaluation of another source.

Maria’s misrepresentation of the published reviews reveals a lack of fluency with speech reporting verbs and a “fish out of water” experience (see Bourdieu & Wacquant, 1992, pp. 127, 130). During the interview, Maria noted that she had been confused about the task of evaluating a review of another review because that was not something she saw professional reviewers doing. It is possible that in her confusion, she relied on familiar speech act verbs that were more akin to reporting on research studies. Maria's experience of confusion might be illuminated by Lillis (1999, 2001) theory of essayist literacy amongst non-traditional students. Indeed, Maria fits Lillis’ (2001) description of non-traditional

6. *The influence of model texts on student speech reporting practices*

students who confront the “institutional practice of mystery” (pp. 74-76) as she is both an immigrant for whom English is a second language and a mature student who has returned to school 15 years after having graduated with a Bachelor of Arts. Lillis explains that essayist literacy is “so ideologically inscribed in that it works against those least familiar with the conventions surrounding academic writing” so that confusion is an “all-pervasive” experience (p. 76). Maria’s account of her seeming inability to get clear answer from the course instructor about how to cite sources speaks to Lillis’ findings. She said: “To be honest I’m not sure of citations... explanations given in class are ambiguous. I go to profs’ office hours, but they go off on tangents....”

**James’ use of the published review as a research source**

James’ engagement with the published review he accessed is also noteworthy. As I discussed in Chapter 4, James drew on the published review in two instances to substantiate his own arguments about the text-under-review. The following excerpts depict these instances, in which James used the published review as though it were a research source:

FFIR+ { ...Gellately was able to make use of the recent influx of academic study of “relevant historical inquiry” in the 15 years previous to *Backing Hitler*’s publication in 2001.<sup>3</sup>

<sup>3</sup>Ulrich Herbert, “Review of *Backing Hitler, Consent and Coercion in Nazi Germany*,” in *The American Historical Review*, Vol. 108, No. 1 (American Historical Association, 2003), 276.

FFIR { ... Although sections of content related directly to his previous book,<sup>4</sup> (The Gestapo and German Society,) Gellately takes great pains to ensure that the reader is familiarized with the content, and does not assume prior knowledge or study.

<sup>4</sup>Herbert, Review, 276.

6. *The influence of model texts on student speech reporting practices*

These references to the published review are interesting because they reflect a conflict between the need to cite material that come from a source on the one hand and the assignment instructions for when and how to engage with the published review on the other. What James seems to have done is switch to using non-integral attribution as a means of clearly indicating the source of his information but also as a way of avoiding drawing attention to that source. James' explanation of these two instances of reported speech during the interview did, in fact, suggest that his intention was good. After initially expressing surprise that he used the published review in this way, James speculated that he probably did so because the information was both relevant and it helped him to form an opinion of the text-under-review.

**Greg and Laura's unattributed reported speech**

In contrast, Greg and Laura seem to have avoided attributing information that they took from the published review they accessed. Greg included the published review he located in his list of works cited (as was directed in the assignment guidelines), but he attributed no material in his essay to show where he used the source. Table 7 offers a comparison of three instances in Greg's review essay that seem to have been influenced by the published reviewer but that are not attributed to him.

*Table 7: Unattributed reported speech in Greg's review essay*

<b>Greg's Statement</b>	<b>Grill's Statement</b>
The author's work is forced to focus upon the limited Gestapo case files from	The author relies primarily on Gestapo case files from Wurzburg, Lower Franconia, and,

6. *The influence of model texts on student speech reporting practices*

Dusseldorf and Wurzburg, material from the latter is examined in greater detail...	to a lesser extent, Dusseldorf
The theme and main argument throughout 'Gestapo and German society', which he refers to almost too frequently,' is...	Minor irritants include the constant repetition of the thesis in every chapter...
Supporting Reinhard Mann's unfinished work, it is obvious that his book is a great contribution to Gestapo relations with the German people. The only problem that one may find is the lack of upper class society.	One major limitation with using these Gestapo case files is that one learns little about the reaction of nobles and other elites to official racial policies.
	In general, however, this is a valuable contribution not only to the literature on the Gestapo but also to the study of public accommodation and cooperation in the Third Reich.

This comparison clearly indicates that Greg used and engaged with the published review, but did not indicate where he did so in his essay. While the examples in Table 7 might be interpreted as questionable attempts to claim ownership over the published reviewer's arguments, I cannot say for certain what Greg's motivations were for not using attribution as he did not opt to be interviewed. Considering the lack of explanation provided in the assignment instructions for interacting with the published book review as well as the particularly strongly worded warning to avoid redundant attribution information, it is

6. *The influence of model texts on student speech reporting practices*

possible that Greg did not know an appropriate way of using the published review or recognizing where he was interacting with it.

The lack of attribution in Laura's review essay was less extensive. While she explicitly engaged with the published reviewer in other areas of her book review, she failed to attribute one instance where she seems to have reported the reviewer's speech. This instance occurred in Laura's description of the author-under-review's method, where her choice of phrasing stands out as odd:

Keegan attempts to get inside of the events by applying logical deductions.

Unsurprisingly, the phrasing "*by applying logical deductions*" was an unattributed paraphrase of Wilde's published review, in which Wilde stated:

In looking for human motives while *applying logic, deductive battlefield knowledge* and, above all, common sense, Keegan produces some fascinating new assessments.

Unfortunately, Laura declined to be interviewed for this study. However, because Laura engages with and cites the published review in other parts of her essays, this minor instance of "plagiarism" was most likely an oversight.

What makes the instances of "plagiarism" in Laura and Greg's review essays particularly ineffective reporting strategies was the fact that the instructor asked for students to engage with the published reviews, indicating that he would be looking to see where and how the students did so when grading their review essays. It was in the students' interest to note where they were reporting the reviewer's speech. One possible motivation for not clarifying where the published review influenced them is the chance that they wanted to claim ownership over the reported material in a display of authority and critical thinking

6. *The influence of model texts on student speech reporting practices*

skills. Indeed, it is possible that Greg and Laura excluded attribution information because they felt unable to offer their own critiques of the text.

**Diana's co-option of the published reviewer's argument**

Diana(a)'s co-option of the published reviewer's argument suggests that a feeling of inferiority and a need to establish authority was a major incentive for not including attribution information. Instead of a paragraph dedicated to summarizing the published review, Diana(a) claimed to have discovered the emergent themes in the text-under-review that, in actuality, the published reviewer discusses. However, she did so without attributing the information to the reviewer. Consider, for instance, the similarities between her discussion of the theme of manliness and the reviewer's discussion of the theme of manhood in the comparison below (I have bolded similar topics and phrasings):

6. The influence of model texts on student speech reporting practices

**Diana(a) wrote:**

Out of the wealth of detail, description and analysis, three main themes emerge. The first is the striking similarities and differences between the two men. One of the most interesting similarities is that of their **concepts of manliness.**

**Churchill** was a man of war. As such, **personal courage** and strength of will was essential. What is so interesting is that **Gandhi**, who espoused non-violence, had a similar view. He believed that it took great physical **courage** to stand up for one's convictions **without returning violence in kind. ...**

**Ganguly wrote:**

First, it is both ironic and fascinating that these individuals of vastly different mien and belief shared a similar **conception of manhood**. For both of them, it was vitally important to affirm one's masculinity. For **Churchill** this meant a willingness to throw oneself, regardless of physical danger, into battle. Though undoubtedly obsessed with personal glory, he nonetheless evinced astonishing **courage** on many occasions, whether in the Boer War or in the trenches of the First World War. **Gandhi** likewise believed in the vital importance of physical courage, cultivating a stoic willingness to **suffer oppressive violence without responding in kind. ...**

This comparison shows that Diana borrowed heavily from Ganguly's discussion of this theme. However, it is evident that although her discussion of the theme provided the same information in approximately the same order as it appeared in the published review, she did change the wording. For example, the published reviewer's discussion of "manhood" and "masculinity" became Diana's discussion of "manliness." In addition, Diana emphasized

6. *The influence of model texts on student speech reporting practices*

Churchill's "personal courage and strength of will" while Ganguly discussed his "astonishing courage" and "willingness" to face danger in order to attain "personal glory." Her discussion of Gandhi's "manliness" was perhaps the closest to the published review's phrasing as Diana offered as evidence his "courage to stand up for one's convictions without returning violence in kind" which reads quite similar to the published reviewer's explanation that Gandhi suffered "oppressive violence without responding in kind." It is possible that Diana felt as though these changes to the reviewer's phrasing meant that she did not have to attribute the information to the reviewer. However, the way in which Diana discusses the published reviewer does not seem to support a theory that her omission of attribution information in the above excerpt was out of ignorance.

It is fairly obvious that Diana(a)'s co-option of the reviewer's discussion of emergent themes was a means (intentional or not) of gaining authority over the published review. This is particularly evident in the following excerpt in which Diana took issue with the reviewer's discussion of the emergent themes in the text-under-review, describing its inadequacy:

...In his review of Herman's book, Samut Ganguly also states that this concept of manliness is one of the themes.<sup>2</sup> However, what he does not point out is that Gandhi went so far as to encourage others to join the military (although he would not himself) because he believed that military discipline was good for character development.

Indians of good and strong character were needed to lead a free India.

<sup>2</sup> Sumit Ganguly. "Heroes Entwined: Gandhi and Churchill" *Current History* 107 (2008): 396.

Here, Diana(a) asserted authority over the published reviewer by criticizing an inadequacy in his discussion of the emergent themes in the text-under-review. So, not only did Diana claim to have noted the themes independent from the published reviewer—"Ganguly also states



## 6. *The influence of model texts on student speech reporting practices*

that this concept of manliness is one of the themes...”—but she also asserted the superiority of her observation of these themes by pointing out the inadequacy of the reviewer’s discussion of them. A more appropriate interaction would have involved first presenting Ganguly’s argument about the theme and then taking issue with it using supporting evidence from the text-under-review, which might look more like: *In his discussion of the theme of manliness in Herman’s text, Ganguly neglects to mention that Herman points out that Gandhi went so far as to encourage others to join the military... This oversight is good/bad because...*

### **Summary of findings**

These five students—Maria, James, Greg, Laura, and Diana(a)—interacted with the published review they consulted in interesting and somewhat problematic ways. It seems as though the more problematic interactions, especially those in Greg and Diana(a)’s texts, reflected a lack of confidence or a sense of inferiority to the published reviewer. Their approaches to interacting with the published review seem to have been attempts to “position” (Ivanič, 1998, p. 10) themselves as experts with an authorial identity capable of claiming authority. In fact, what we might see in these instances, especially in the approach Diana(a) took, are what Bartholomae (1985, 2003) calls “bluffs.” Indeed, Greg and Diana took ownership over the reviewers’ critiques of the text-under-review to demonstrate that in being able to evaluate the text independently they belong to the “field” (Bourdieu, 1991) of professional historical research. Ironically, while prioritizing a show of independent thinking, which has value in the school context, these two students crossed the line from emulation of the published reviewers’ academic voices to appropriation of their arguments.

## **Conclusions**

This chapter has been guided by two questions: (1) is there evidence that students used the published review(s) they included in their assignment as a model text to be emulated? And (2) what seems to be the nature of the students' interaction with this published review(s)? The comparative analysis of speech reporting forms and strategies suggests that these students did not emulate the published reviews' speech reporting practices as they found ways to attribute reported speech more frequently and more clearly. In addition, this analysis indicates that the incentives for including or omitting attribution (such as speech reporting forms with integral attribution or direct speech slips) were different for the student writers and published reviewers. For example, the published reviewers often omitted integral attribution and offered discussions whose status as authorial commentary or reported speech was ambiguous for a few possible reasons, among them the need to downplay or couch negative critiques in light of the etiquette of book reviewing. In contrast, the student writers seem to have found ways to work around the instructor's advice to use the published reviews as examples of how to attribute reported speech in a book review in order to remain in line with institutional policies of academic integrity and the need to highlight the presence of their own voice, for which the instructor would have been looking. Indeed, "social capital" (Bourdieu and Wacquant, 1992) in the school writing context consists of the ability to achieve top grades by, for instance, being able to underscore demonstrations of insight, effort, and skill.

In addition, the manner in which Greg and Diana(a) in particular interacted with the published reviews they accessed does not indicate that they used the reviews as model texts. Their appropriation of the published reviewers' arguments suggests a more complex

6. *The influence of model texts on student speech reporting practices*

relationship than just mentor-student. The published reviewer and student writers' relationship seems to have been complicated by the classroom writing context in which the goal was not to participate in an ongoing conversation but rather to prove intellectual prowess and authorial identity worthy of top marks. Greg and Diana(a) technically plagiarized the published reviews they consulted seemingly as a means of showing that they had just as much authority to review the text as the published reviewers' had. Greg and Diana(a) seem to match Goffman's description of the "harried fabricator of impressions involved in the all-too-human task of staging a performance" (as cited in Ivanič, 1998, p. 21) in their attempts to overcome the way sharing the same platform as a published review "positioned" (Ivanič, p. 10) them as novices.

These findings indicate that the classroom writing context had more of an impact on the strategies students used to report speech and to interact with the published review they were tasked with considering. While there is no evidence that the students emulated the published reviews, there is some evidence that they struggled to understand why published reviewer's more liberal reporting practices were acceptable. In addition, there is evidence that they found it challenging to maintain their own authority as reviewers while reporting the published reviewers' critiques of the same text. These findings correspond with Dudley-Evans' (1997) warning that introducing model texts to teach genre can serve to further confuse and intimidate students. This study supports research (e.g., Gavioli, 2002; Marshall, 1991; Flowerdew, 1993) that any use of published texts as genre models in the classroom should be done carefully. In the case of this assignment, some students seem to have floundered as they attempted to engage with the published reviews they accessed, which

*6. The influence of model texts on student speech reporting practices*

featured varying speech reporting practices that were clearly connected to specific writing contexts.

## Chapter 7

### Source use and misuse in the American History corpus of student review essays

Although the written assignment assigned in the American History course was also of the review genre, it was very different from the History Methods' review assignment. While the History Methods' assignment seems to have been designed as an opportunity for students to become familiar with the review genre, the design of the American History assignment prioritized teaching course content. Consider, for instance, the directive for students to use the text-under-review to reflect on course content in the assignment instructions provided below:

Your paper assignment for this course is to review a recent scholarly journal article and to explain how this article contributes to your broader understanding of the main themes and topics covered in [this course]. Beyond this main task, your essay should: identify the article's key points; and evaluate the author's perspective (i.e., point of view, bias, relation to the subject-matter, etc...). In addition to the article you are

## 7. *Source (mis)use in the American History corpus of student review essays*

reviewing, you should also reference course readings and lectures. You are not allowed to reference any other sources without explicit prior approval from me. These instructions indicate that the instructor wanted students to think deeply about course themes and materials through the lens of a published article in the field. The assignment design promises to have students engage in research to find a suitable article as well as to practice summarizing and evaluating that article as a “text-under-review” *and* to use that article to make connections with and draw new insights from course readings and lectures. Evidently, this assignment asked students to create a text that was distinct from a typical or straightforward review. In fact, its dual tasks—(1) to review a published article and (2) to use that article to reflect on course content—might represent a “bending” of the review genre, for which the student writers would have had to find innovative resolutions.

Like all university assignments, this one reflected course and disciplinary constraints. It asked students to traverse between academic genres to construct a course-specific genre that accommodated a specific set of disciplinary teaching goals. In this chapter, I explore how students used speech reporting practices to navigate the unique challenges of the American History review assignment. I begin this analysis with a detailed look at the context of the course in which the students wrote these review essays, drawing on the interview transcripts to identify the learning objectives and pedagogical principles that informed the assignment’s design.

### **Context Analysis**

#### **The course**

This assignment was given to students in a survey course covering American history to 1877. The course’s subjects ranged from European colonization and independence,

### *7. Source (mis)use in the American History corpus of student review essays*

expansion and growth, to the civil war and reconstruction. In contrast to the writing-intensive History Methods course discussed in the previous three chapters, in which writing assignments comprised 70% of the students' grades, this course asked students to complete one essay assignment worth 25% of their final grade. The rest of their grade would come from two exams (both with paragraph and essay-style questions) worth a total of 55% and discussion participation worth 20%. This grade breakdown indicates that explicit writing instruction did not play a significant role in this American history course. Indeed, the syllabus identified a primary learning objective that did not include facility with written genres of History or other communication skills: "Our main task shall be to come to appreciate how this history is the product of human agency (including elites and 'ordinary' people) as well as broader structural transformations in terms of economy, geography, and ideology." The instructor likely dealt with issues of writing implicitly or through feedback on assignments.

#### **The assignment instructions**

The review assignment reflected this emphasis on comprehension of the political, cultural, and social themes apparent in America's eventful emergence and growth from colony to expanding country. Although the instructions primarily tasked students with a review of a scholarly article, they also asked that students consider how the article contributed to their understanding of course themes (see Appendix 4). According to the course instructor, the course-specific assignment design works to prevent plagiarism in light of the availability of other reviews on the Internet and in print journals. He explained that a

review/personal reflection specific to the content of this course would be difficult to find: “I rarely ask for just a book review because they are all over the place.”

During the interview, the instructor discussed how students performed on the assignment, suggesting that the majority of them struggled to find appropriate and effective ways of using and relating to the journal article when considering how it contributed to their “broader understanding of the main themes and topics covered in [this course].” He explained:

Even though I think the assignment was very clear and I repeated this over and over again: what they were supposed to do was to assess an article written by a historian in light of our course themes and our course materials... I got a good number of papers that really just did the first part, assess the article. Some did, though, so it wasn't like it was complete failure. But... some of them did it but did it really awkwardly... they made awkward, forced connections or had bifurcated papers where they just did one thing in one part of the paper and one thing in the other part of the paper...

This explanation indicated that many students focused on the task of reviewing the article and that those who attempted the additional task of considering how the article contributed to their understanding of course themes did so unsuccessfully. This outcome is not altogether unpredictable. It makes sense that students would have had an easier time reviewing the article, as it was the more conventional of the assignment's tasks. Indeed, the assignment's two tasks seem to have offered students at least four ways of using and relating to the article-under-review, including using it as:

- A text-under-review that is the focus of the discussion and often in the subject-slot within sentences:



7. Source (mis)use in the American History corpus of student review essays

E.g., *Smith contends that “X” and “Y” happened in 18<sup>th</sup> century America...*

- A text-under-review whose contributions are to be evaluated in light of how they contribute to the students’ understanding of course content:

E.g., *Smith’s contention that “X” and “Y” happened is especially noteworthy because of the way it illuminates “Z,” an apparent trend in 18<sup>th</sup> century America (course lecture notes).*

- A source of information about American history:

E.g., *“X” and “Y” happened (Smith).*

- A source of information that supports or undermines a claim made in the course materials:

E.g., *The fact that “Z” was a trend in 18<sup>th</sup> century America (course lecture notes) is supported by Smith’s demonstration that “X” and “Y” happened.*

**Additional instructions provided for completing the review essay**

The instructor’s explanation of how he clarified the assignment task for students during his in-class discussions of the assignment reveals another potential source of confusion for students. He clarified during our interview that he “repeated this over and over again: what they were supposed to do was to assess an article written by a historian in light of our course themes and our course materials...” This instruction, however, varies slightly from the written assignment instructions, which stated that students were to consider the article’s contribution to their personal understanding of course themes. While the difference in these two instructions is subtle, it could have sent students mixed messages about how to engage

7. Source (mis)use in the American History corpus of student review essays

with the article-under-review. For example, consider the differences between the following hypothetical responses to these instructions:

<p><b>In-class explanation of the assignment:</b> Assess an article written by a historian in light of our course themes and our course materials.</p>	<p><b>“Official” assignment instructions (as per the course syllabus):</b> Explain how this article contributes to your broader understanding of the main themes and topics covered in [this course].</p>
<p><i>Smith’s demonstration that “X” and “Y” happened is interesting because it can be used as evidence to support the observation that “Z” is an observable trend in 18<sup>th</sup> century America (course lecture notes)...</i></p>	<p><i>Smith’s article helped me to better understand the trend of “Z” that we discussed during class lectures. This is because I considered his demonstrations of “X” and “Y” to be examples of this trend...</i></p>

The primary difference here seems to be that the instructor’s in-class explanation of the assignment set up a conventional book review in which the article would be maintained as the subject of summary and evaluation except the students would draw on course materials in order to launch the review. In contrast, the “official” assignment instructions set up a two-part assignment in which students were to switch from reviewing the article to discussing course themes.

**Course observation**

My observation of a course tutorial found that the instructor approached teaching source engagement and speech representation implicitly through activities seemingly unrelated to issues of “citation.” In this tutorial, the instructor asked students to work in pairs

### *7. Source (mis)use in the American History corpus of student review essays*

using primary readings to answer questions such as “What was Lincoln’s position on slavery?” Students were given 10 minutes to refer to the course readings in order to find evidence for their answers, which they were then asked to share with the class. In this group discussion, the instructor continuously asked students to refer to specific places in the primary texts to provide evidence for their answers. The instructor focused on the need to point to specific sources of evidence when making arguments about the past, which he had found to be a prominent issue on the course midterm. In this tutorial, the instructor did not mention conventional strategies for integrating evidence in written arguments nor did he mention plagiarism or citation styles.

During our interview, the instructor explained this was fairly typical of his method of teaching source use. He noted that “Beyond the question of formatting [references]...I certainly think that lots of times we're trying to get students to see what a historian sees when reading sources. [It is] hard to get students to look at a source in context.” He explained that while students will often engage in a discussion of the subject, they refer implicitly to lecture material and even content from the text but do not go so far as to use explicit in-text references to the primary texts in the course readings when making their arguments. His solution to this issue seems to be in-class activities in which he has students practice locating evidence to support their contentions about the past.

### **Wider Academic Context**

As the instructor explained during our interview, plagiarism prevention was a major contributing factor to his design of this review assignment. Careful assignment design is indeed a commonly advocated opportunity for plagiarism prevention. It has been featured in

7. *Source (mis)use in the American History corpus of student review essays*

older texts on plagiarism such as Martin (1971) and in contemporary literature, including, for instance, the Council of Writing Program Administrators' (WPA) lists of plagiarism causes and teacher responsibilities (see <http://www.wpacouncil.org/node/9>).

Designing an assignment that tasks students with unique projects will not only eliminate the students' ability to "borrow" a peer's essay from a previous semester, but will reduce the students' ability to find online essays that seem to be appropriate responses to the assigned tasks. It is unclear, however, the extent to which customizing an assignment to make it course-specific will prevent the kinds of "source misuse" that can occur as students attempt to compile evidence-based essays. The WPA's statement on best practices for defining and avoiding plagiarism<sup>27</sup> serves as a reminder that "plagiarism is a multifaceted and ethically complex problem" (WPA, 2003, p. 1). The WPA makes a case for distinguishing between issues of "plagiarism," which the Council defines as the deliberate use of "someone else's language, ideas, or other original (non common-knowledge) material without acknowledging its source" (p. 1) and "source misuse," which it sees occurring when "ethical writers make every effort to acknowledge sources fully and appropriately in accordance with the contexts and genres of their writing" but who "[misuse] a specific citation format or incorrectly [use] quotation marks or other forms of identifying material taken from other sources" (p. 2). The Council outlines several potential causes of "source misuse" that range from a lack of familiarity with strategies for integrating source material to poor note-taking habits and particularly challenging assignments for using sources. In light of

---

<sup>27</sup> The Council of Writing Program Administrators describes itself as "a national association of writing professionals with interests in developing and directing writing programs." Its statement on plagiarism was created in response to concerns about plagiarism as a means of helping students *and* instructors and administrators to "work together more effectively in support of excellence in teaching and learning" (see "Defining and Avoiding Plagiarism").

the complexity of learning how to use sources, the WPA not only suggests avoiding “highly generic and not classroom-specific” assignments but also assignments that offer students “opportunities for genuine and rigorous inquiry and learning” (p. 3). The theory behind this second suggestion is that students will be interested in (and therefore committed to) working on assignments that challenge them to produce something unique and interesting to them.

The WPA’s statement reflects the recommended shift in the manner in which “citation” is taught and conceptualized within higher education that has been advocated by many writing researchers on the basis that the term “plagiarism,” and the act of “kidnapping” that it connotes,<sup>28</sup> not only does not adequately account for complexity of source use and speech representation practices but also has a detrimental effect on how “citation” is addressed in the classroom and adjudicated within student writing (e.g., Howard, 1993, 1995, 2000; Price, 2002; Robillard, 2007; Chandrasoma, Thompson, & Pennycook, 2004). One of the contributions that studies involving critical discourse analysis of student “citation” can offer is evidence demonstrating the complexity of student source use and speech representation practices and their “dialectical relationship” (Fairclough, 2003) to the wider social context—that of the classroom, the teacher-student relationship, as well as the demands of the assignment and institutional policy. Fairclough (2003) underscores the importance of linking studies involving critical discourse analysis of texts to broader social issues on the basis that such studies should be “a resource for social analysis and research” (p. 3) that work toward a “better understanding of how societies work and produce both

---

<sup>28</sup> The term “plagiarism” stems from the Latin term “plagiarius,” meaning kidnapper, which, according to Skandalakis and Mirilas (2004), was used metaphorically to refer to kidnapping of intellectual property first in Martial’s epigrams (*M. Valerii Marialis Epigrammaton Liber Primus* 1<sup>st</sup> book) and second by Lorenzo Valla (*Elegantiae*, preface of Book 2) (p. 1022).

beneficial and detrimental effects, and of how the detrimental effects can be mitigated if not eliminated” (pp. 202-203).

The American History assignment is an interesting case study in which to consider the functioning of recommended practices for teaching “citation” for avoiding any “detrimental effects” that might be caused by a simplistic conceptualization of plagiarism. Indeed, the American History review assignment seems to have implemented both of the WPA’s recommendations mentioned above; it is classroom specific and designed to be interesting to the students’ by inviting them to use their own experience of the course as a critical framework for reviewing the article. However, the assignment does seem to be fairly challenging, especially since the unique blend of review and discussion/reflection tasks does not seem to offer a clear template for students to follow. The following discussion provides insights into how students used speech reporting practices to resolve the dual and sometimes conflicting instructions to which they were responding.

### **Findings and Discussion**

My analysis of the speech reporting practices in the student papers indicates that each student used the journal article they accessed (1) as an object of study at times and (2) as a source of information at other times. Because I saw a correlation between the students’ speech reporting practices and these two ways of using the article, I divide my findings accordingly, with one section on the treatment of the article as a text-under-review (in what I call the “reviewing action”) followed by another section on the treatment of the article as a source of information (in what I call the “researching action”).

*7. Source (mis)use in the American History corpus of student review essays*

I found that the six student papers can be divided into two equal groups with the reviewing action predominant in three student papers and the researching action predominant in the other three. I observed that while many students flipped back and forth between modes of using the source, they were fairly consistent about which task they performed within individual paragraphs. This allowed me to label paragraphs as representing either the “reviewing” or “researching” activities according to whether the article was treated as an object of study or a source of information. For example, paragraphs that were dedicated to the reviewing task took the article as a subject, featuring integral attributions that established the article as the topic of discussion. This is evident in the following paragraph from John’s paper, which has nine integral and two non-integral references to the article:

**Integral attributions** ← **Within the context of Schwarz’s essay**, Great Britain was the target of Economic Discrimination. The thinking was that this practice would bring about a relaxation of British Mercantilist restrictions placed upon the United States and British colonies in the Caribbean.<sup>viii</sup> It is through this discussion of Economic Discrimination that **Schwarz establishes** the beginning of the ideological divide between Hamilton and Madison. **Schwarz depicts** Madison as the primary supporter of Economic Discrimination, thus reinforcing his anti-British attitudes toward economics.<sup>ix</sup> On the other hand, **he describes** Hamilton, now a nominee for Treasury Secretary, as being a critic of Economic Discrimination. **This claim** not only represents the fact that Hamilton now contradicted his argument in paper 11, but it also put him at ideological ends with Madison.

**Non-integral attributions** ←

viii Michael Schwarrz, “ The Great Divergence Reconsidered: Hamilton, Madison and U.S-British Relations, 1783-89”  
ix Michael Schwarrz, “ The Great Divergence Reconsidered: Hamilton, Madison and U.S-British Relations, 1783-89”

Here John made an argument about the author’s interpretation of historical events and provided information about the article’s content to substantiate his claims. In contrast, information from the article is used to support the student’s assertion about a historical issue or event in the researching activity. The researching activity is demonstrated in the following excerpt from David’s paper. This paragraph has just one integral attribution to the article.



7. Source (mis)use in the American History corpus of student review essays

The process of inheritance was significantly altered by widows continued presence in the public sphere. The issue was critical because widows favoured their female kin or daughters more than their sons or male kin.<sup>17</sup>

Inheritance gave women more power over their land and their domestic lives which significantly impacted the social norms at the time. **Wood provides** examples of widows giving their daughters the rights to their land. Two of the most striking examples of this are the county of Rowan in North Carolina, “where 53% of female who owned land bequeathed some or all too female heirs (usually daughters), while only 26 percent of landholding male testators in the same county gave land to their daughters.”<sup>18</sup> The second example of this trend is Catherine Berger whom stipulated that her son in law would have no power over the estate which she gave to her daughter.<sup>19</sup>

Non-integral attributions

Integral attribution

<sup>17</sup> Wood, *Broken Reeds and Competent Farmers*, 38.

<sup>18</sup> Wood, *Broken Reeds and Competent Farmers*, 41.

<sup>19</sup> Kristen E. Wood, *Broken Reeds and Competent Farmers: Slaveholding Widows in the Southeastern United States, 1783–1861* (Journal of Women’s History, Vol. 13. No. 2), 41.

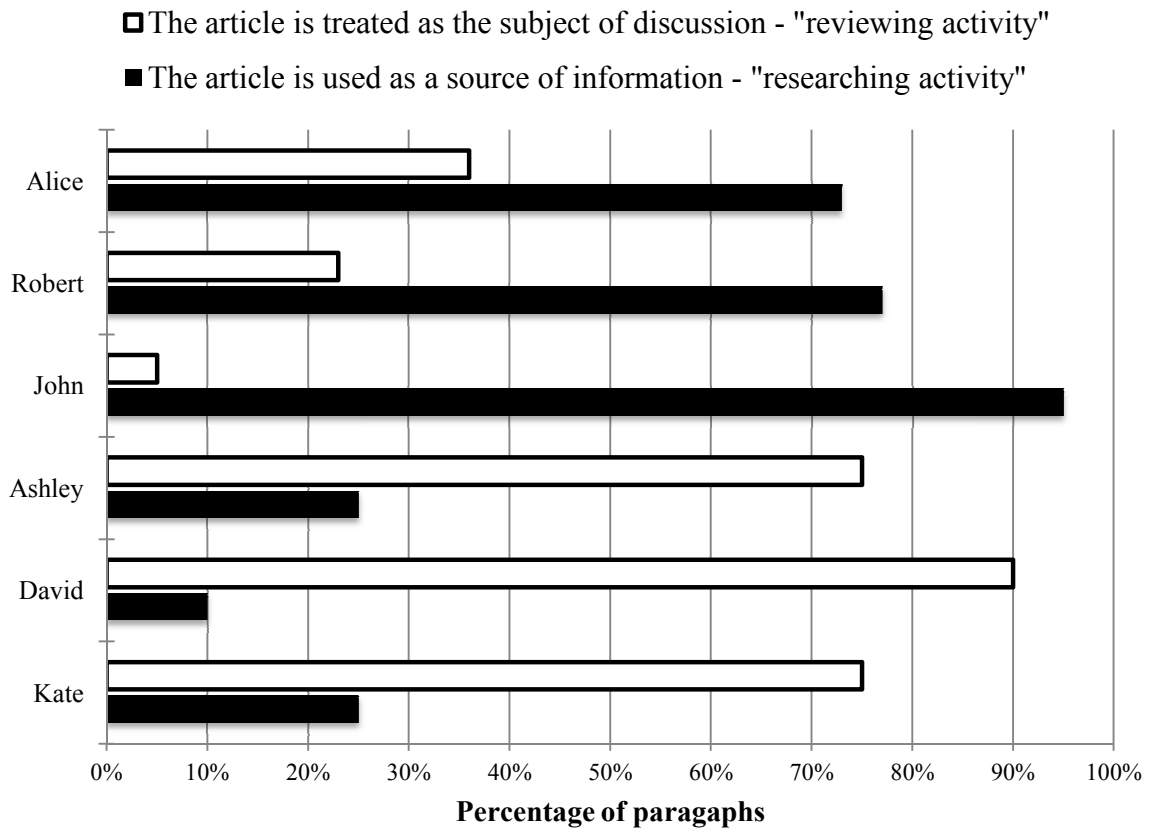
In this paragraph, David used the article as a source of information to discuss inheritance laws and the changing traditions for women at the turn of the 19<sup>th</sup> century. This treatment of the article is especially evident in the way David presented the two examples he took from Wood; he used non-integral attribution with the effect of representing them as standard or typical examples.

When each paragraph in the six student papers is identified as either performing a

7. Source (mis)use in the American History corpus of student review essays

reviewing or researching activity it is evident that John, Robert, and Alice focused on reviewing the article they accessed and David, Kate, and Ashley focused on a historical subject drawing on the article they accessed as a source of information. Figure 8 illustrates this division, showing the percentage of paragraphs in each student paper that can be classified as participating in the reviewing or researching activities.

Figure 8: American History student writers' treatment of the text-under-review



These groupings allow me to focus on the similarities and variations in speech reporting practices within the two groups of student texts. What follows here are two

discussions: the first on how students used speech reporting practices to review the article and the second on how students used them to discuss a historical subject.

### **Speech reporting practices used in the ‘reviewing activity’**

#### **John, Alice, and Robert’s “review” essays.**

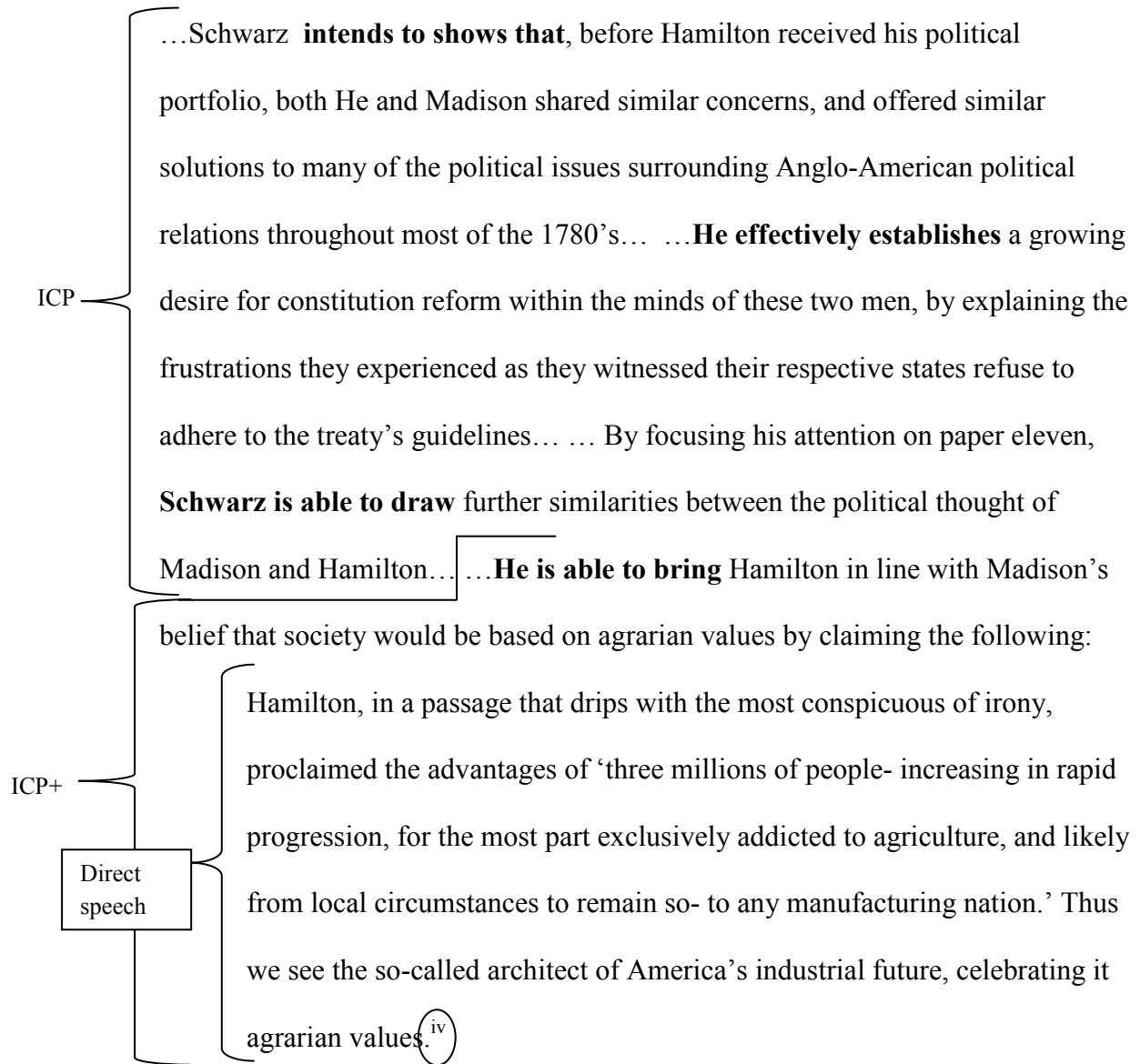
John, Alice, and Robert all primarily treated the article as a text-under-review. Each student, however, used speech reporting practices in a unique way to accomplish the reviewing activity. This is indicated by the speech reporting form coding results (“Analysis stage 1,” see Chapter 3), which show that the three student papers drew on different forms. While John seems to have relied on indirect content paraphrase (ICP) and sustained instances of direct speech (“block quotation” in classroom parlance), Alice relied on framed free indirect representation of reported speech (FFIR), and Robert on a combination of ICP and summary.<sup>29</sup> My second pass of coding (“Analysis stages 2 and 3”) illuminated some potential reasons underlying these choices.

John used ICP and sustained direct speech as a means of finding an authoritative position from which to critique the article. Without the ethos necessary to have stated that the author’s demonstration of a controversial point is effective (or not) and restricted from referencing additional sources to help make the argument, John used close reading strategies to draw on the article itself to gather evidence for his argument. This translated into the use of direct speech, as John pointed to specific utterances in the source text that illustrated his argument, as well as particularly innovative uses of integral attributions in ICP. John relied on modifiers within attribution phrases such as “*effectively*” and “*was able to*” to make a case

---

<sup>29</sup> Appendix 3 offers descriptors for these speech reporting forms that will illuminate this discussion.

that the author-under-review achieved his goals. His review followed a pattern in which he explained what the author intended to do and then demonstrated how he was able to fulfill that intention. In truncated form, John's argument reads as follows:



<sup>iv</sup>Michael Schwarz, "The Great Divergence Reconsidered: Hamilton, Madison and U.S-British Relations, 1783-89"

John found the authority to review the article by dissembling its argument, laying out all the pieces and showing how they fit together. The use of "*intends to*" in the above excerpt and

7. Source (mis)use in the American History corpus of student review essays

“attempts to” in the repetition of this pattern in the subsequent section of John’s review are misleading because they implied that a corrective was to follow in which John would demonstrate that the author failed to fulfill his end goals. John, however, used these verb phrases in an innovative manner to enhance the author’s achievements and as a means by which to gain the authority necessary to critique the article.

In contrast to the way John used ICP and integral attributions to conduct an argumentative close reading of the article, Robert used ICP and summary to provide a seemingly neutral overview of the article. However, his integral attributions also reveal a connection to the exigencies of the assignment. Consider the following excerpt:

Passive constructions ← The initial point made regards Captain John André, a British officer convicted of espionage and executed in 1780.<sup>1</sup> He is described in the text as being the quintessential gentleman, and is also noted to have been much admired and respected by both sides, despite the fact that he was a sworn enemy of the American revolutionaries. His popularity is ascribed to his sensibility<sup>2</sup>...

Personification ← The following point seeks to define sensibility, and the view of it in the British and American societies of the time.

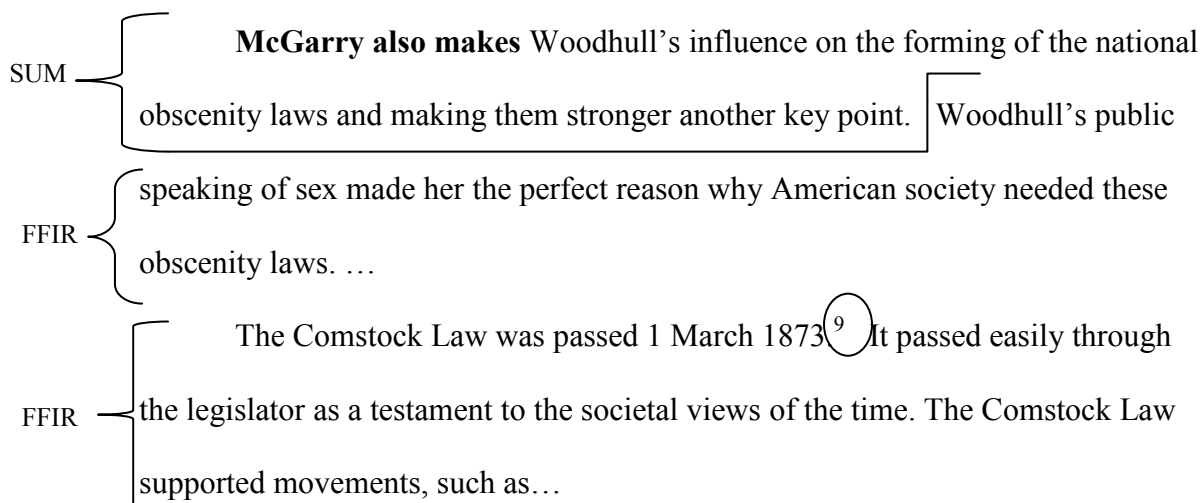
<sup>1</sup> Susan Knott. “Sensibility and the American War for Independence” *The American Historical Review* 109 (February 2004): 21.

<sup>2</sup> Knott. “Sensibility” *Historical Review* 109 (Feb 2004): 23.

This excerpt demonstrates Robert’s use of the passive construction and personification when he attributed information to the article. As this approach removes the author-under-review from the discussion while still attributing the speech reports, it seems to have helped Robert strike a balance between discussing the article as a subject of review and considering its

historical subject, thereby resolving the dual assignment tasks.

Alice's use of FFIR also seems to have worked as a means of striking a balance between discussing the article and its content. The five paragraphs that comprised her discussion of the article as part of the reviewing activity all followed a pattern of ICP followed by FFIR. The difference between Alice's review and her discussion of the historical subject matter was as subtle as the switch from integral to non-integral attribution:



<sup>9</sup> McGarry. "Spectral Sexualities", Page 9.

Had Alice referred to the Comstock Law by name earlier in her discussion, this shift to a focus on the historical subject rather than on the article might have been more fluid.

However, her transition from reviewing the article to discussing the historical subject did benefit from the amount of FFIR she used in the review section since FFIR places a greater focus on the content of a speech report by virtue of excluding attribution information. In fact, because Alice did not articulate a strong, explicit evaluation of the article with clear statements regarding its successes or failures—we know only that she did not strongly oppose it because of FFIR's endorsement effect—her primary focus seems to have been on

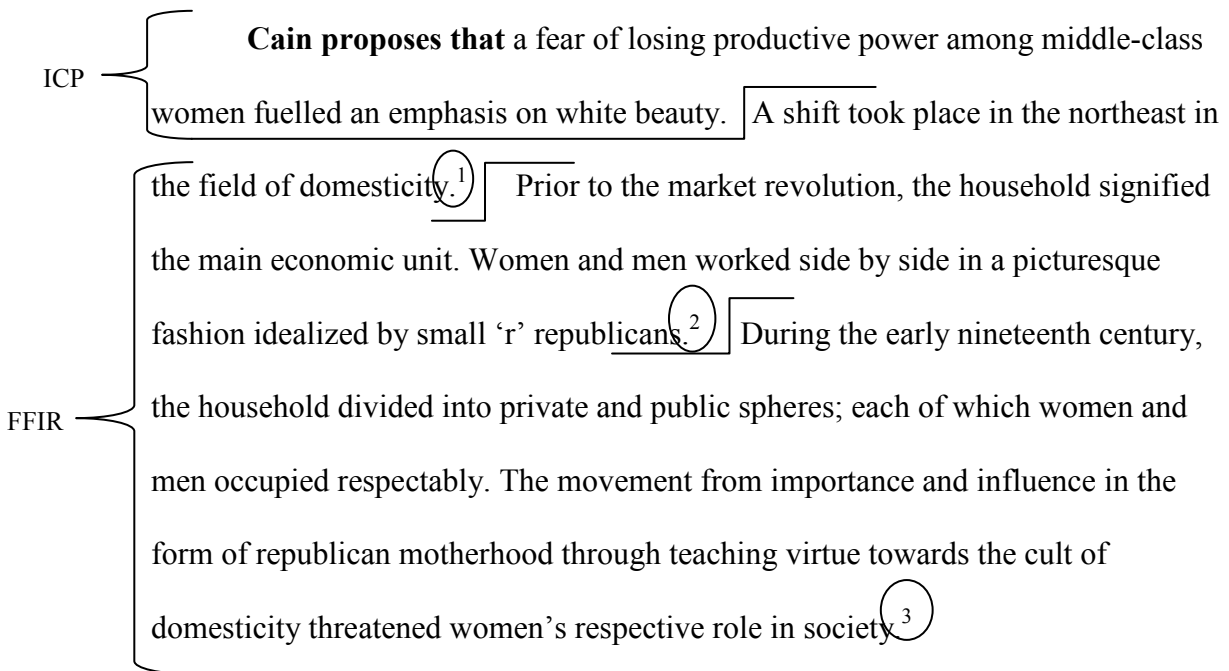
recounting the article's content in a process of summarizing rather than critically reviewing.

**Ashley, Kate, and David's "research" essays.**

Ashley, Kate, and David's essays read more like research papers that used the article as a source of information rather than as a subject to be reviewed, but they did include some elements of the review activity to greater and lesser extents. David's limited treatment of the article as a text-under-review, however, is barely worth mentioning. It interrupted his discussion of the historical subject as a brief statement of the article's bias. Kate and Ashley's reviews sections are more noteworthy. They feature some fairly substantial coherence issues not present in John, Alice, or Robert's "review" essays.

Kate, for instance, used non-integral attribution in FFIR in a manner that misrepresented the article:

7. Source (mis)use in the American History corpus of student review essays



<sup>1</sup> Mary Cathryn Cain, "The Art and Politics of Looking White: Beauty Practice among White Women in Antebellum America", *Winterthur portfolio*, vol 42, issue 1 (2008): 28.

<sup>2</sup> Course lecture notes, November 9.

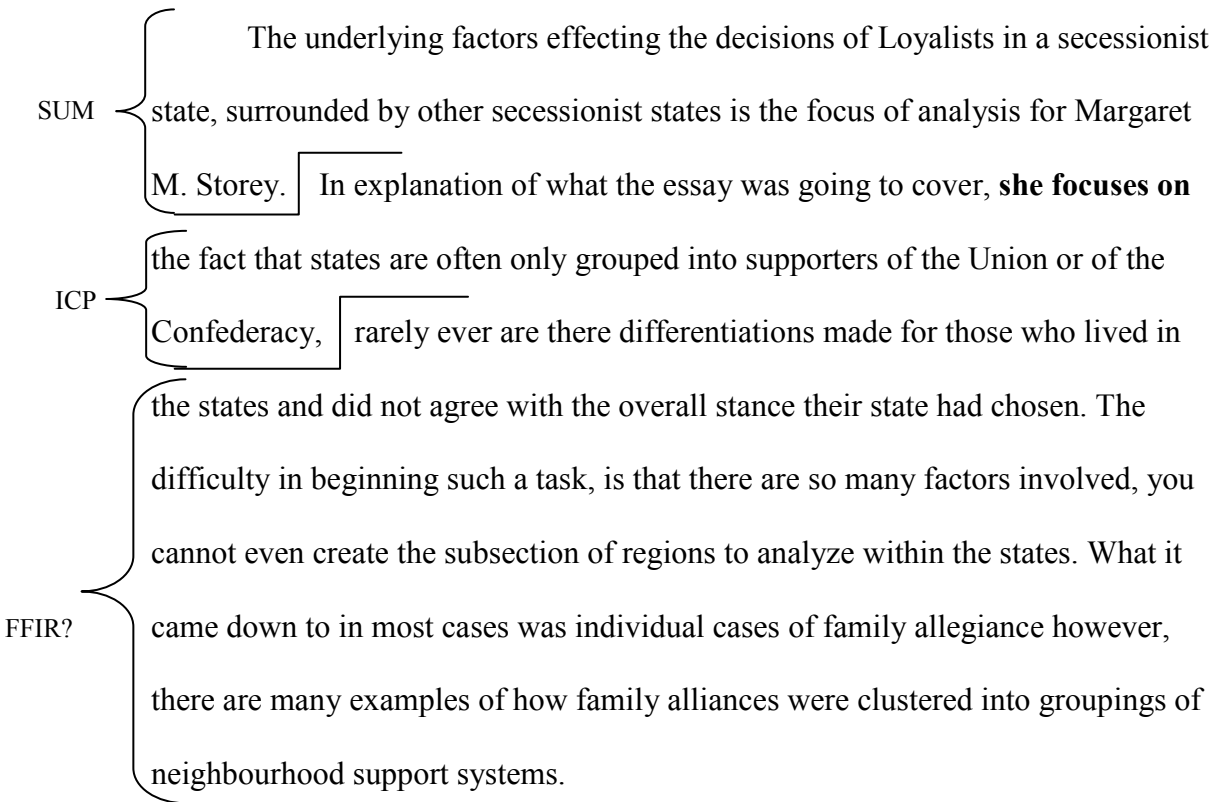
<sup>3</sup> Eric Foner, *Give me Liberty! An American History, Vol 1, 2<sup>nd</sup> ed.*, (United States of America: W.W Norton & Company Inc, 2009), 332.

Despite the fact that this paragraph established the author as a subject under review in the topic sentence, reading like a review essay, the subject switched to a historical event—the shift in domestic roles—in the second sentence. Subsequently, two additional sources were used to discuss this event. Because Kate used non-integral attribution in this discussion the switch in subject is obscured, making the paragraph seem like a continuous paraphrase of the article. Kate seems to have mixed the reviewing and researching activities in this paragraph with implications for coherence.

The manner in which Ashley used FFIR in the review section of her “research” essay was also problematic. It is difficult to distinguish between FFIR in these sections and Ashley’s own commentary, as she seems to have written in the voice and vein of the



researcher:

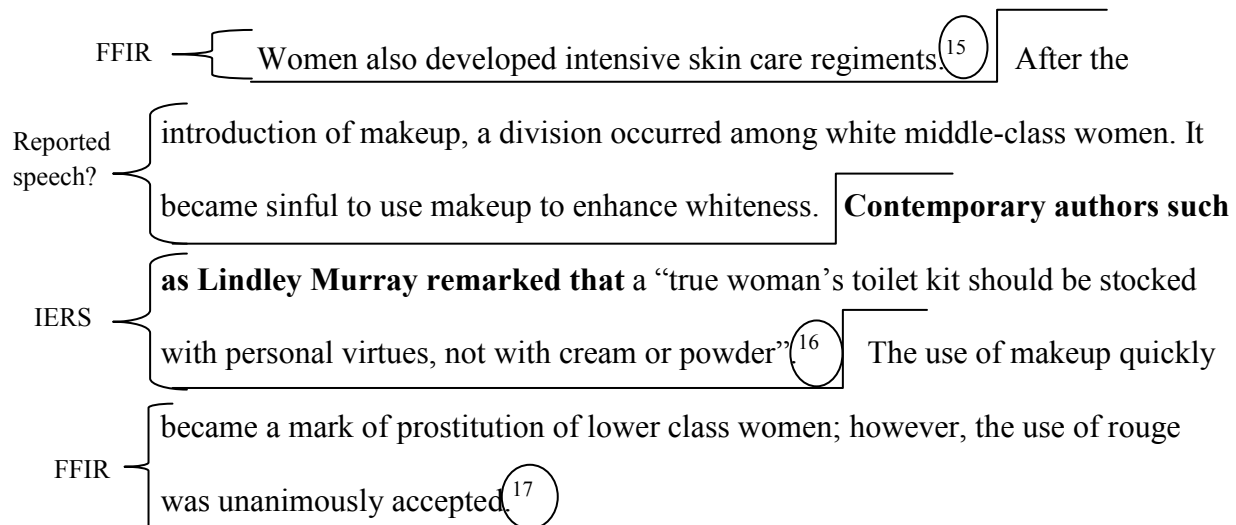


Even though Ashley clearly designated this paragraph as a space where the article was to be the subject and focus of discussion, she seems to have transitioned from reviewing to discussing the historical subject mid-way through the second sentence, as indicated above by a switch from ICP to “FFIR?” It is unclear whether the latter part of this sentence is reported speech or indeed Ashley’s own voice, and the ambiguity continues throughout the rest of Ashley’s review section (not presented here). These coherence problems seem to have resulted from the fact that both Ashley and Kate primarily used the article as a source of information.

### Speech reporting practices used in the ‘Researching Activity’

#### Ashley, Kate, and David’s “research” essays.

There seems to be more continuity in the speech reporting practices that Ashley, Kate, and David used to conduct the researching activity. They predominantly used FFIR with non-integral attributions to keep the focus of their discussions on the content of the article. They did sometimes use ICP (with integral attribution), but mostly in the midst of a paragraph and in an effort to substantiate a point about the historical subject. The following excerpt from Kate’s paper illustrates how these students engaged with and made use of the article:



<sup>15</sup> Cain, 39.

<sup>16</sup> Cain, 43.

<sup>17</sup> Cain, 44-45.

Here Kate used the article as a research source to substantiate her claims about the oppositional attitudes among white women regarding make-up. This example represents the approach that these three students took towards the assignment. The primary subject of their discussions was the historical subject of the article, and they used indirect, direct, and even embedded speech from the article to offer support for their assertions about this subject.

7. *Source (mis)use in the American History corpus of student review essays*

There is something awry in this treatment of the article as a research source that I find difficult to ignore. That is that these students essentially re-wrote the article as a means of summarizing it. Using non-integral attribution, these students treated the article as a research source in order to make the same argument relying on the same evidence. In essence, they commandeered the article's content in a manner that can only be described as appropriation. The easiest aspect of their mistreatment of the article to isolate is their use of embedded speech (illustrated in the excerpt from Kate's paper above) because it transgressed a clear citation guideline—that embedded speech is generally to be avoided because “authors are expected to have examined the works they cite” (Chicago Manual of Style 15<sup>th</sup> ed, 17.274). It makes sense that these students did not follow this guideline not just because as novices they might not have been aware of this nuance in style manuals, but also because they were not writing a research essay. The students were not writing under the same expectations of a research study, but were rather instructed to conform to the book review genre and to refrain from accessing sources additional to the article and course materials.

For Ashley, the idiosyncrasies of this assignment blurred the need to attribute indirect speech. Ashley's discussion of the historical subject was particularly problematic because she did not use non-integral attribution to indicate that her assertions about the historical subject were taken from the article. Consider the difference between Ashley and David's statements below:

7. Source (mis)use in the American History corpus of student review essays

**Ashley wrote:**

It no longer seemed to be a case of deciding your personal affiliation, but being brought up into a tradition about which you had little say. A fairly accurate generalization in the case of family ties is that opposition served to only solidify a family's entrenched opinions, and served to add to the feelings of moral obligation to the cause.

**David wrote:**

This would allow her to maintain the possession of her property as other male family members could possibly challenge her claim to the land/real estate under the grounds of mismanagement.<sup>9</sup>

<sup>9</sup> Wood, *Broken Reeds and Competent Farmers*, 36.

While both students appropriate the points made in the article here, David used non-integral attribution to show where he retrieved the information. Ashley, on the other hand, only used non-integral attribution in instances of direct speech, leaving everything else unattributed. This makes for a disconcerting read as Ashley made claims that a novice—without having done extensive research in this subject—cannot reasonably make, such as the claim in the excerpt above regarding what constitutes a “fair generalization” about family ties in this historical time and place. Ashley’s choice to exempt non-integral attributions was likely connected to the review task identified in the assignment instructions. It is likely that Ashley presumed that her introduction of the article in the introductory paragraph made non-integral attribution redundant. In a sense, she might have been right. The course instructor would have been able to distinguish which material had come from the article and which from course materials. Interestingly, though, all of the other students in this data set, including the

7. *Source (mis)use in the American History corpus of student review essays*

students whose papers were mostly reviews of the article, used non-integral attributions frequently and often even when integral attribution was also used to indicate the source of information. I am tempted to attribute this to caution on the students' part—as a response to plagiarism warnings—as well as to the unconventional assignment instructions which may have complicated attribution conventions for traditional review essays.

**John, Robert, and Alice's "review" essays.**

John, Robert and Alice's "review" essays, tended to be more explicit about their discussion of how the article related to course themes. John and Robert, for instance, both explicitly mark the transition from reviewing to discussing with an introduction of the new task. John approached this discussion as an evaluation of the article, continuing the reviewing activity. I have bolded his references to the article in the following excerpt:

One must ponder, how does **this article** contribute to the overall understanding of American history? First and foremost **it provides** a further understanding of how the first American party system emerged. Of course **the article** does not touch upon every issue of this topic, **but the comparative analysis of Hamilton's and Madison's political thought allows** one to understand some of the issues that shaped the ideology of the Federalists and the Democratic Republicans. Furthermore, **it provides** insight to the prevailing political attitudes of the American public of post revolutionary America...

This excerpt illustrates John's effort to maintain consistency within the review genre while conducting an unconventional task for a review. His solution to the instructor's question about "how this article contributes to your broader understanding of the main themes and

7. Source (mis)use in the American History corpus of student review essays

topics covered in [this course],” was to evaluate the article based on its contributions to history. This is a particularly clever solution considering that the primary purpose for many academic review genres is to consider the article’s contribution to an ongoing disciplinary discussion.

Despite the fact that Robert also clearly demarcated between the two tasks in his paper, he used the article as a research source (the researching activity) to discuss how it related to course themes. For example, he wrote:

There is a rigidly enforced class ideology with respects to many things in the early days of the United States, and sensibility is not least among them. This is simply one element of the new class system that was inherent in the society of colonial America, as expressed by those who question the revolutionary aspect of the American Revolution. This separation is best demonstrated in the Continental Army, in the differences apparently inherent between the officers and the common soldiery. The elite and burgeoning middle classes made up the vast majority of the officer corps, and they were the ones viewed, therefore, as sensible beings<sup>13</sup>

<sup>13</sup> Knott. “Sensibility” *Historical Review* 109 (Feb 2004):30.

Here Robert commandeered the historical subject of the article in much the same way as Kate, Ashley and David did in their “research” essays. This is a marked shift for Robert as the first few pages of his assignment read like a review, with frequent integral attributions that maintained the article as the subject under discussion. Robert seems to have taken the reflection task in the assignment instructions as a cue to use the article as though it were a source of information for a research paper.

Alice's transition into the discussion of the article in relation to the course material is less discrete and more varied. She discussed the article in relation to course themes in two different paragraphs that were separated by her review of the article. In each of these paragraphs she took a different approach to discussing the article in relation to course themes. In one, she took the approach that Robert did, using the article as a research source in an implicit discussion of course content. In the other, she took the approach that John did, explaining the value of the article's contributions by relating them to course content. Indeed, Alice seems to have responded to all three instructions provided in the written assignment guidelines and the instructor's in-class explanation of them: she (a) reviewed the article, (b) discussed how it contributed to her understanding of course themes, and (c) evaluated the article in light of course content.

### **Conclusions**

Students took a variety of approaches to using attribution and speech reporting forms as they navigated the challenges of the unconventional writing assignment. This is especially evident in the strategies students used to review the article. While John found the authority to review by using sustained instances of direct speech ("block quotations") and integral attributions to deconstruct the article in an explanation of how the author achieved what he set out to, Robert and Alice each found ways to accommodate the dual assignment tasks by minimizing integral references to the article in their reviews by using passive construction and framed free indirect representation of reported speech respectively.

The approaches students took to perform the reflection task in the assignment were somewhat more consistent. Five of the six students in this corpus used non-integral

7. *Source (mis)use in the American History corpus of student review essays*

attribution in framed free indirect representation of reported speech to use the article as though it were a source of information for their own discussion of a historical event or issue. They used direct, indirect, and embedded speech from the article to substantiate what they represented as their own claims about the historical subject in an approach to using the article that was tantamount to appropriation. John avoided this use of the article in his reflection section by pretending as though he was considering the article's contributions to the community's knowledge of American history— maintaining the conventions of the review genre.

These speech reporting practices demonstrate that students found creative ways of both reviewing an article and discuss how the information it provides contributed to their understandings of the course. Evident in each approach—from John's deconstruction of the article to the other students' appropriation of the article—is the need to establish an authorial identity (Ivanič, 1998) with the authority to make judgements about a published work and their instructor's course. This appropriation seems to fall squarely into the WPA's definition of "source misuse" as ethical writers' somewhat clumsy attempts to use and acknowledge sources.

The students' "source misuse" was not addressed by the instructor, who noted that he did not find plagiarism or misconduct in this assignment. The student grades are further evidence that these problems did not factor into the instructor's consideration of the student assignments. The grade range in this sample was from B- to A, and there seems to have been no correspondence between the grades and the innovative speech reporting practices students used. This finding is interesting and, perhaps, a bit worrisome. It is important for instructors to recognize and address inappropriate methods of source use and engagement so that



7. *Source (mis)use in the American History corpus of student review essays*

students are not practicing methods of source use for which they might be reprimanded in another writing context. It is possible that the instructor did not recognize the issues with source use that I have because he was “in the know”; being familiar with the course content on which students were drawing, the instructor would have easily been able to see where students were using which source. It is also possible that the instructor noted the students’ source use troubles but did not address them because he understood that students were not attempting to transgress the rules of his classroom or institutional policy.

Ironically, the instructor explained that the design of the assignment was partially influenced by a concern for preventing plagiarism. He reasoned that course-specific assignment design would work to prevent plagiarism in light of the availability of other reviews on the Internet and in print journals—a review/personal reflection specific to the content of this course would be difficult to find. Indeed, careful assignment design is a commonly advocated opportunity for plagiarism prevention, featured in older texts on plagiarism such as Martin (1971) and in contemporary guidance on plagiarism prevention, including, for instance, the Council of Writing Program Administrators’ lists of plagiarism causes and teacher responsibilities (see [wpacouncil.org](http://wpacouncil.org)). Designing an assignment that tasks students with unique projects will surely reduce their ability to “borrow” a peer’s essay from a previous semester or find an appropriate text online. However, careful assignment design must also take into account the manner in which it positions students, provides them with opportunities to establish authorial identities, and offers them access to discourse strategies and methods that seem familiar if not conventional.

Part 3

Conclusions

## Chapter 8

### Conclusions

This chapter provides a summation of the major contributions, findings, and implications of this study and offers some directions for future research. The contributions include a productive method of analysis for illuminating the forms and functions of student source use and speech representation as well as a fluid set of descriptors for the forms of speech reports in these study corpora. The summary of findings pinpoints central insights into the student review essays and published reviews, noting specifically the variety of speech reporting practices between and even within the study corpora and the contextual elements that likely caused such variations. Subsequently, the implications section extends those findings to insights into teaching practices. I conclude this dissertation with recommendations for future studies of speech reporting practices in student coursework.

### **Central Contributions**

The method of identifying and analyzing the speech reporting practices using close discourse analysis that I developed in this study demonstrates the potential value of studying reported speech in small corpora. Indeed, the process of analyzing each student's treatment of sources and representation of reported speech in light of their specific writing contexts produced a nuanced understanding of the speech reporting forms and attribution practices that I identified and coded in the study corpora. It also allowed me to discover the fluidity of these forms and practices in the study corpora as they were used for different purposes and in response to different discursive exigencies. Of particular note, this method of analysis reflects a dynamic rather than a transactional view of language. It considers discursive features to be representative of discursive choices (conscious or not) that were made in response to a particular nexus of discursive exigencies. The descriptors of speech reporting forms identified in this study cannot, however, be extracted and uncritically applied to other texts. Indeed, the worst that could happen to a set of descriptors like the one produced in this study would be its isolation and use as a coding tool by citation software such as Turnitin, which would invariably produce inaccurate if coherent results because it would not be able to account for the fluidity of language and the agency of writers as they respond to distinct writing contexts.

In summary, in this study I constructed a fluid set of descriptors of the forms and functions of speech reports in student writing by analyzing student source use using a recursive three-stage process of analysis. In the first of these analysis stages, I identified, classified and coded for the presence of reported speech, the type of attribution (i.e., integral or non-integral), the use of speech act verbs (i.e., "*argued*"), and the "form" of the speech

## 8. Conclusions

report (i.e., direct or indirect). In this process, I drew on Swales' (1990) distinction between integral and non-integral attribution, Thompson and Yiyun's (1991) taxonomy of evaluative and denotative speech act verbs, and Semino and Short's (2004) model of typical forms of speech, thought, and writing representation. I constructed descriptors for eight speech reporting forms in the study corpora (see Appendix 3) including forms of direct speech, indirect speech, and a combination of the two.

These descriptors on their own, however, were not very revealing of the full speech reporting *practices* in the corpus texts. While they suggested certain trends such as the frequency of attribution and a seeming reliance on particular speech reporting forms within specific review essays, more research was necessary to discover reasons for their uses. In the second analysis stage, I considered each corpus text individually and each instance of reported speech therein. In this process, I considered the argumentative context in which the speech reports occurred, the extent to which the speech report featured a mixture or separation of voices, whether the student seemed to be deferring to the author of the reported speech, and possible connections between the nature of the speech report and the assignment instructions or institutional writing context. This process allowed me to consider the speech reporting practices used by each individual writer in the data set. I was able to draw on interview transcripts from several of the student writers and from both of the course instructors to illuminate personal writing styles as well as the context in which the students wrote these review essays.

While this process of direct interpretation and close discourse analysis of the speech reporting forms and attribution practices was illuminating, it did not allow me to draw conclusions about the data set as a whole. In the third stage of analysis, I brought the direct

## 8. *Conclusions*

interpretation notes together for another round of coding. I compared and contrasted my analysis notes for each review, coding for repeated speech reporting strategies, such as the use of FFIR to agree with or “endorse” the reported speech, a practice which occurred frequently in the History Methods student review essays but less consistently in the American History student review essays. Only after this third analysis stage could I draw conclusions about the speech reporting practices in each set of reviews in this study.

### **Key Findings**

This robust method of analysis illuminated the forms and functions of the many speech reporting practices in each study corpus and revealed their possible connections to the various exigencies of each writing context. Of general noteworthiness is the extent of the variation in the use of sources and representation of source material between the study corpora (specifically within the published reviews and the American History student review essays) despite the fact that they all belong to the genre of review. This fact underscores the complexity of speech reporting practices and the extent to which they can be impacted by minute elements of each writing context. In summary, my analyses of the student review essays and the corpus of published reviews revealed that:

- Speech reporting practices in classroom and published review genres can vary widely in connection to specific writing contexts
- Students used a speech reporting form that does not involve explicit attribution—framed free indirect representation of reported speech—with and without issues of academic integrity

## 8. Conclusions

- The attribution of reported speech can involve integral and non-integral attribution as well as direct speech representation and contextual speech reporting “frames”
- Adequate attribution (i.e., the identification and attribution of reported speech) does not necessarily prevent issues of source misuse
- Prominent motivations for “citing” reported speech in the genre of the book review involve decisions about whether to claim, defer, and/or draw attention to responsibility for assertions
- Rules about identifying and attributing others’ speech and/or ideas are sometimes challenged by a perceived need to establish an authoritative authorial identity

What follows are more detailed overviews of the central findings for each corpus of reviews.

### **History Methods student review essays**

*Table 8: Key findings in the corpus of History Methods student review essays*

<b>Observable exigencies of the writing context</b>	<b>Prominent source engagement and speech representation strategies</b>
Institutional policy: The need to identify source material so as not to claim it as one’s own and, thereby, avoid plagiarism	The use of framed free indirect representation of reported speech (FFIR) to endorse reported speech
Assignment tasks: The need to write a “good” book review, follow a set of writing prompts, and engage with published review of the same text	The use of a variety of attribution indicators to ensure the clear identification of reported speech
Audience: The need to write for the instructor by	The use of varying strategies to

## 8. Conclusions

meeting expectations, such as the preference for footnoting and avoiding repetitions of reference information	compete with the authority of the “model” published review
Immediate purpose: The need to achieve an ideal grade	

In this corpus of student review essays, the most prominent speech reporting strategy was the use of FFIR to both summarize and evaluate the text-under-review. Approximately 65% of the number of sentences coded as FFIR in the study corpus featured the orchestration of indirect content paraphrase (ICP) or summary (SUM) and FFIR to construct a positive evaluation of the text-under-review because: (1) the content of the ICP/SUM was related to the FFIR that followed it; (2) the ICP/SUM established a positive critique using a speech act verb and/or an explicit statement of agreement and (3) the FFIR had an endorsement effect on the reported speech. The free indirect speech reporting form allowed students to discuss the text-under-review as a subject without having to constantly refer to it in the subject “slot” of each sentence, which helped students not only to fulfil the instructor's request that they "OMIT NEEDLESS WORDS" but also to don an authorial voice as they spoke on behalf of the author-under-review. Moreover, as a function of speaking on behalf of the author-under-review, the speech report was tantamount to a statement of support—and “endorsement effect.”

While FFIR featured prominently across the study corpus, save for the one student review essay that used ICP to articulate a negative critique of the text-under-review (the only negative review in the study corpus), some students used it with less effectiveness than



## 8. Conclusions

others. For example, the length of Diana's sustained instances of FFIR was less effective than shorter instances of FFIR in the study corpus in two ways: (1) the length exposed the superficiality of FFIR's endorsement effect, revealing it to be an unjustified alignment of support; and (2) the length undermined the authority of voice effect that FFIR can have as the lengthy sustained instances offered no interruptions of the speech report by the student author. In another instance of Diana's FFIR, the free indirect speech reporting form was used mistakenly. In this instance, integral attribution was needed to clarify the sources involved in a tri-level speech report. In addition, FFIR was less effective in Lisa(b)'s review essay due to her penchant for direct speech slips (which she attributed to her training in writing English literature essays). The frequent inclusion of direct speech slips proved to undermine the authority that FFIR can lend to the writer's voice as they deferred to the reported speaker. In fact, this points to another important finding in this corpus of student review essays—the variety of strategies that students used to attribute reported speech.

Despite the instructor's advice to avoid repetitions of reference material and to follow the referencing practices modelled in the published reviews (whether or not he realized that they were so diverse is unclear), these students ensured the clear and frequent identification of reported speech. However, the impact of the instructor's advice might be evident in the variety of ways that students found to identify source material. For example, not only did students use integral and non-integral attribution ("in-text citations" in classroom parlance), they used direct discourse slips and "framing" elements to contextualize speech reports as reported speech. Indeed, analysis of the number of speech act verbs, integral and non-integral attributions, the frequency of direct speech reports, and the consistency with which instances of FFIR were framed as reported speech revealed that students in this corpus attributed

## 8. *Conclusions*

reported speech at least twice as frequently as reported speech was identified in the published reviews.

The reasons why students could not have simply left reported speech unidentified are many. Perhaps most obvious is the pressure to follow institutional policies of academic integrity, which are communicated to students in university orientation sessions and on every course syllabus. Lisa, for example, expressed uneasiness with the instructor's encouragement to avoid attributing all of the information from the text-under-review and explained that her frequent inclusions of direct speech allowed her to include attribution information without seeming to contravene the instructor's directions. Presumably, the inclusion of direct speech also helped students to demonstrate the amount of effort they had invested in the assignment to their instructor. This was the case for James, who explained that he included direct speech not to further his argument about the text-under-review but to demonstrate to the instructor that he had read the text-under-review thoroughly. This underscores his understanding of the real purpose of the writing assignment: to impress the course instructor and achieve an ideal grade.

In contrast to the general clarity with which students identified reported speech in their review essays, two students were purposely unclear in their uses of source material taken from the published review. The speech reporting practices that Greg and Diana(a) used to engage with the published review of the texts they were also reviewing reveal a need to compete with the published reviewer. Greg passed off some of the published reviewer's arguments as his own by paraphrasing them without indicating their connection to the published review through any attribution markers. Diana(a)'s co-option of the published review she accessed is more complicated than a simple lack of referencing. She appropriated

## 8. Conclusions

the published reviewer's discussion of emergent themes in the text-under-review by first introducing the idea of emergent themes as though it were her own and then taking the reviewer to task on minor flaws in his interpretation of the themes.

It is likely that these speech reporting practices would violate many universities' policies of academic integrity, which typically stipulate that representing another's words or ideas as one's own constitutes misconduct, dishonesty, and plagiarism. For example, consider the following definitions of plagiarism from three major Canadian universities:

- University of Toronto: "It shall be an offence for a student knowingly: ... to represent as one's own any idea or expression of an idea or work of another in any academic examination or term test or in connection with any other form of work, i.e., to commit plagiarism." (Code of Behaviour on Academic Matters, 1995, B.i.d)
- University of Alberta: "No student shall submit the words, ideas, images or data of another person as the Student's own in any academic writing, essay, thesis, project, assignment, presentation or poster in a course or program of study." (Inappropriate Academic Behaviour: Plagiarism, 2010, section 30.3.2(1))
- University of British Columbia: "'Plagiarism' means the presentation of the thoughts, writings or inventions of another as one's own or the presentation of thoughts, writings or inventions without proper scholarly attribution." (Scholarly Integrity - Policy 85, n.d., section 3.5)

The University of British Columbia also includes a statement of personal responsibility that extends to students and faculty at all levels:

## 8. Conclusions

Individuals are personally responsible for the intellectual and ethical quality of their work and must ensure that their Scholarly Activity meets University standards.

(Scholarly Integrity - Policy 85, section 2.1)

Indeed, the absence of in-text attribution in Greg's review essay and the way in which Diana competes with the reviewer for the idea of emergent themes are clearly on the wrong side of the "integrity line." How (or if) the instructor attended to these instances of source misuse is unclear. While he explained to me that he found no instances of plagiarism or academic integrity issues on this assignment, I do not know whether he meant that he did not find any issues that necessitated notifying the Dean of Arts. It is quite possible that he addressed these issues by providing students with guiding feedback in his personal comments on their graded assignments (to which I did not have access).

The best way of addressing integrity issues like these is not necessarily straightforward. In fact, the two instances of source misuse are interesting because they illustrate the complexity of the plagiarism question. First of all, they represent two distinct ways of misusing sources, distinct from each other and distinct from the kind of earnest source misuse that Howard (1993) describes as "patchwriting"—"copying from a source text and then deleting some words, altering grammatical structures, or plugging in one-for-one synonym substitutes" (p. 233). Greg's source misuse, for example, might be labelled "imprecise attribution," as he identified the source in the list of references but did not point specifically to the information he reported from it by using integral or non-integral attribution. Diana's source misuse does seem to fit the abduction metaphor that the term "plagiarism" carries etymologically because she seems to capture the reviewer's argument in order to claim it as her own. In the spirit of counteracting the one-size-fits-all nature of the

## 8. *Conclusions*

term “plagiarism,” however, I am inclined to label Diana’s source misuse “appropriation.” Despite her seeming intent, however, I do not know whether her appropriation is the kind of transgression that plagiarism adjudicators are most interested in preventing and punishing since it does not quite constitute “fraud”—submitting work that has not been written by the student named in the title page. Instead, Diana’s appropriation seems to represent a strategic (albeit ultimately inappropriate) attempt to mitigate the power differential between herself, a student writer, and the published reviewer with whose work she was engaging. In fact, this is also one possible reason underlying Greg’s choice to exclude attribution for the material he borrowed from the published review he accessed.

It seems to me that an appropriate response to these instances of source misuse would be discussions with students about why it is neither appropriate nor necessary to compete with the source over the good points it seems to make—perhaps pointing out that writers do well to establish their authority by identifying the contributions another source has made. Were either of these cases of source misuse to have been reported to the Dean of Arts and found worthy of serious consideration, I would hope that they would be considered in light of the challenging task of reporting on a published review within a review essay on the same text. As I think these instances of source misuse illustrate, plagiarism adjudication should not simply identify the presence of intent. Rather, adjudicators should seek to determine the nature of intent as part of a broader consideration of the context, which, as Chandrasoma, Thompson, and Pennycook (2004) point out, ought to take into account at least nine additional concerns: “...development, identity, resistance, student epistemologies, common knowledge, mediated discourse, interdisciplinarity, variability, and task type” (p. 189).

## 8. Conclusions

Interestingly, these instances of source misuse contrast with the overall trend in this corpus of student review essays to carefully identify source material, which is evident when the frequency of their attribution strategies is contrasted with the frequency of the attribution in the published reviews that they accessed. In fact, as the following discussion shows, it seems as though students chose quite explicitly not to see the published review(s) they accessed as genre models to be emulated. The prominence of FFIR in this corpus of student review essays contrasts sharply with the lack of a single, clearly prominent speech reporting form or strategy in the published reviews.

### Published reviews

*Table 9: Key findings in the corpus of published reviews*

<b>Observable exigencies of the writing contexts:</b>	<b>Prominent source use and speech representation strategies:</b>
Audiences: varied from librarians and commercial book purchasers, to academics, to governments, and enthusiasts	Corpus too variable to identify prominent trends
Purposes: varied from selling the book to evaluating the book's contribution, guiding research strategies of the field, explaining the personal impact of the book, and summarizing the book seemingly for students who need to become familiar with it	
Publications: varied from official disciplinary publications, to niche academic journals, interdisciplinary periodicals, and popular websites	

## 8. Conclusions

Formatting requirements: variations in maximum lengths from under 300 words, to under 650 words, to around 1000 words. Variations in editorial styles, some with stipulations against the use of footnoting or in-text referencing

Etiquette: conventional rules for reviewing with regard for the impact such a review might have on the author-under-review's career

The variation of speech reporting practices in this corpus of published reviews is largely due to the differing discursive contexts for which they were written. As I illustrate in Chapter 5, the eleven published reviews that were referenced in one or more of the History Methods' student review essays can be divided into four different types of reviews, including: *brief recommendations*, which were less than 300 words in length and provided a general overview of the text-under-review for librarians and book purchasers; *standard academic reviews*, which were between 480 and 680 words in length and provided an argument about the text-under-review's contribution to research for academics and teachers; *thorough considerations*, which were approximately 1000 words each and functioned as special considerations of a noteworthy publication; and *narrated encounters*, which varied in length and provided more personal, creative encounters with texts (see Table 6).

The ways in which reported speech was represented in these published reviews varied according to the unique exigencies of each writing context. For example, the use of FFIR and direct speech in the brief recommendations seems to have been connected to their strict length restrictions. While FFIR mitigated the need for extensive argumentation, allowing the

## 8. Conclusions

reviewers to endorse the text-under-review simply by paraphrasing without including integral attribution, direct speech slips provided a means of drawing the reader closer to the text-under-review. In contrast, direct speech was used in one of the longer “thorough considerations” as a means of providing textual evidence to support a particularly negative critique of the text-under-review. In this case, direct speech not only provided evidence to support an argument but also demonstrated that the issue with the text-under-review warranted public address despite the typical commensality of book reviewing.

Notably, in general the importance of identifying source material seemed less imperative in this corpus of published reviews than in the student review essays that referenced one or more of them. This is evident in the extent to which the published reviewers’ commentaries were indistinguishable from their reports of the author-under-review’s speech. For example, the ambiguity of the status of FFIR as reported speech occurred quite frequently. One possible reason for the stark contrast between the clarity of the students’ speech reports and the ambiguity of the published reviewers’ is the fact that it is often easy to assume what students know and what they likely retrieved from a source.

### **American History student review essays**

*Table 10: Key findings in the corpus of American History student review essays*

<b>Observable exigencies of the writing contexts:</b>	<b>Prominent source use and speech representation strategies:</b>
Institutional policy: The need to identify source material so as not to claim it as one’s own and, thereby, avoid plagiarism	The use of FFIR with non-integral attribution to treat the text-under-review as a research source



8. Conclusions

<p>Assignment tasks: the dual assignment tasks—to review a journal article and discuss how it contributes to the students’ personal understanding of course themes - and the potentially confusing clarification that students were to review the journal article in light of course themes and materials</p>	<p>Varying strategies to balance a focus on the article as a subject to be analyzed and on the article’s content as information to be considered with respect to course themes</p>
<p>Audience: Follow instructor’s expectations as discerned from his lecture on using evidence to support one’s arguments</p>	
<p>Immediate purpose: Demonstrate learning, effort, and knowledge for grades</p>	

In this corpus of student review essays, the aspect of the discursive context that seems to have had the most impact on how the students engaged with their sources was the complexity and distinctiveness of the American History review assignment. This assignment might be described as a “modified” critical review as it asked students to both review a journal article as well as to discuss how that journal article contributed to their understanding of course themes. The instructor’s in-class explanation of the assignment seems to have depicted a slightly different essay, in which students were to draw on course materials in order to review the journal article. The variations in the students’ speech reporting practices reflected these complicated writing instructions as well as the fact that the “modified” review asked students to construct a unique genre for which they had no pre-existing models.

## 8. Conclusions

As I show in Chapter 7, this corpus can be divided according to how students treated the article that the assignment tasked them with finding and considering. Three of the students seem to have treated the article as a text-under-review, referring to it as the subject of their discussions, which therefore read like “review essays.” The other three students, though, seem to have written “research essays,” treating the article as a research source by referencing it primarily through non-integral attributions (footnotes). Students on either side of this division used innovative speech reporting strategies to fulfil the assignment instructions with varying degrees of coherence, cleverness, and appropriateness.

Within the “review essays,” for example, Robert used passive construction and personification to both maintain the author-under-review as the subject of discussion and downplay its role as the subject of discussion. Unfortunately, this tactic made Robert’s essay somewhat difficult to understand, as the reader had to navigate the meaning of phrases such as “*The following point seeks to define sensibility...*” Alice used a different strategy to achieve the same balance between discussing and not discussing the text-under-review. Interestingly, she relied on the FFIR strategy that is prominent among the History Methods student review essays as she used ICP or SUM to frame subsequent sustained instances of FFIR. This strategy allowed Alice to reduce the number of times she had to reference the text-under-review. John took an entirely different approach to the assignment guidelines. He did not shy away from focusing on the text-under-review, but instead used a great amount of ICP to deconstruct the article and demonstrate that the author-under-review was successful in achieving his research goals. In fact, while Robert and Alice relinquished the “review” genre as they transitioned into a subsequent discussion of how the article contributed to their understanding of course themes, John found a way to sustain the review genre throughout

## 8. Conclusions

this secondary discussion; he cleverly framed this second task as an evaluation of the text-under-review's contribution to historical research.

Within the three “research essays” in this study corpus, the approaches were less varied. Each student seems to have used FFIR with non-integral attribution (i.e., *Women also developed intensive skin care regiments.*<sup>15</sup> [Kate]) in order to focus on the journal article's content. Unfortunately, this innovative approach to addressing the dual assignment tasks as well as the instructor's lesson on using sources to support one's own arguments, led these students to use the article as a source in order to make the same argument using the same evidence—an inadvertent appropriation of the article.

There is also evidence in this corpus of student review essays that students felt the need to respond strategically to the way in which the assignment positioned them as student writers by asking them to comment on their understanding of course themes. We see this most clearly in John's review, as he avoided an explicit discussion of the course by constructing for himself the role of the professional reviewer discussing an article's contribution to historical research in general.

### **Pedagogical Implications**

As Freadman's (1994, 2002) theory of uptake would predict, these findings demonstrate that speech reporting practices are complex components of the decisions (conscious or unconscious) that student writers make as they craft essays in response to assignment instructions within classroom writing contexts. The findings also suggest that student uptake is far from predictable—it can result in a range of appropriate and inappropriate discursive strategies. While each assignment attempted to provide students

## 8. *Conclusions*

with ample resources for constructing effective and successful essays, students drew on and responded to those resources in varying ways. For example, while the History Methods review assignment's use of a model text had real potential to help students to think of themselves as members of a community of academic historians, some students contended with the published review as though it were a competitor. Consider this particular aspect of the assignment again:

You need also to find a review of this book, and include it in your bibliographical page at the end of the text. How have other historians/academic considered this work?

Do you agree with the reviewers' assessments?

These instructions situated students within the discourse community—by asking them to consider what “other historians/academics” thought of the text-under-review—and also asked them to participate in the conversation by summarizing and engaging with a published review. Despite the promise of this instruction, though, some students resisted treating the published review as a fellow participant in the conversation. It seems as though the task, for them, underscored the novice-expert power dichotomy of the classroom. Unfortunately, their uptakes of this perceived need to assert authority over the published review resulted in source misuse that verged on plagiarism. The students' uses of the published reviews consisted of appropriating their arguments in order to strengthen their own positions of authority within their review essays.

In addition, the evidence that students did not emulate the liberal speech reporting practices in the published review(s) they accessed despite the instructor's alleged instruction (according to Lisa) to do so suggests that they were responding to institutional incentives for including attribution information. These incentives involve more than just warnings about

## 8. *Conclusions*

plagiarism. James, for instance, spoke to the need to provide direct quotations to prove that he “actually read the book” as well as to show, “that I can connect my ideas to an actual chapter or issue in the book.” I contend that “social capital” (Bourdieu and Wacquant, 1992) in the school writing context consists of the ability to achieve top grades by, for instance, being able to demarcate between one’s own insights and those of a reported speaker. The student writers seem to have found savvy ways to work around the instructor’s advice to use the published reviews as examples of how to attribute reported speech in a book review in order to remain in line with institutional policies of academic integrity and the need to highlight the presence of their own voice.

These findings are not altogether surprising as much research has been published on the tricky nature of using model texts as pedagogical tools (e.g., Marshall, 1991; Flowerdew, 1993; Dudley-Evans, 1997; Gavioli, 2002). The research seems to point to the necessity of being conscientious and careful when using genre models in the classroom because they can be much different from the texts expected of students (Dudley-Evans, 1997) and, when used in small numbers, they can portray genres as homogenous and static (Marshall, 1991). However, there are no straightforward solutions to this issue. I would imagine that it would be quite difficult to find a published review that would model the kind of essay expected of a student who is writing in an entirely different context—one that Dias et al. (1999) refer to as an “encapsulated reality” (p. 71). In this reality, Dias et al. explain, instructors move between the professional realm and that of the classroom when designing assignments, drawing on and modifying the genres they use in the former to accommodate the teaching goals of the latter. They find that:

## 8. Conclusions

For the instructor, writing is a means of ensuring and confirming that prescribed readings and analyses have been carried out and that certain theoretical concepts are employed as useful analytical tools. As well, it provides the ground for assessing what and how much learning has occurred. (p. 78)

These pressures complicate the task of teaching disciplinary genre conventions in addition to course content even—it would seem—in writing courses like the History Methods course in this study.

The “encapsulated reality” of the classroom writing context is also evident in the American History review assignment, which tasked students not only with conducting a critical review but also with reflecting on how the review contributed to their understanding of course themes. In this case, elements of the writing context resulted in unforeseen methods of engaging with and treating sources that seem to have disappointed the course instructor, who noted that while some students fulfilled his expectations for the assignment many did not:

I got a good number of papers that really just did the first part, assess the article. Some did [do both tasks], though, so it wasn't like it [the assignment] was a complete failure. But... some of them did it [address both tasks] but did it really awkwardly... They made awkward, forced connections [between the article and course themes] or had bifurcated papers where they just did one thing in one part of the paper and one thing in the other part of the paper...

Students in this corpus of review essays used a variety of strategies for addressing this unique assignment, which suggests that a larger selection of these essays would reveal a much more diverse set of approaches to resolving what appears to have been a challenging assignment.

## 8. Conclusions

Indeed, the request that students both review a journal article and discuss it in relation to (or in light of) course materials did require that students discover unique strategies for completing the assignment. However, the addition of that second task could (in an alternate universe) have provided students with support since the ability to use course materials might have helped (instead of hindered) students to find an informed position from which to conduct their review of a published work by an expert in the field. Instead, students seem to have resisted this task by avoiding explicit mentions of the course or their personal understanding of course themes by using non-integral attributions to maintain a focus on the historical subject rather than on the sources of information (such as class lectures). This pattern appears to point, once again, to the student desire to construct an authorial identity, which, in this case, seems to have precluded a discussion of their role as students in a course.

These case studies in history are just two examples of the widely experienced challenge of fostering appropriate speech reporting practices in university-level teaching. Macbeth (2006) connects the challenge of teaching disciplinary ways of writing—which involves constructing arguments, marshaling evidence, engaging with sources and representing source material—to the fact that those ways of writing are “*cultural* conventions” among members whose status as insiders “is the invisibility, the taken-for-grantedness, of the knowledge systems and cultural assumptions that ground participation” (pp. 181-182). Macbeth points out that the “generally tacit, routinely unspoken” (p. 182) nature of disciplinary writing conventions makes for particularly challenging processes of teaching and learning. Paraphrasing Amerine and Bilmes (1988), Macbeth underscores the need for instructors to acknowledge the fact that “*all* instructions are relentlessly and irreparably indefinite, and rely upon a horizon of meanings and/or practices that one must

## 8. Conclusions

consult to execute them” (p. 197). Elton (2010) comes to the same conclusion. Tracing the philosophy that “a word’s meaning is determined by its application” back through Richardson (1976) to Wittgenstein, Elton stresses that “tacit knowledge can never be made wholly overt through the use of words and thus become transferable” (p. 156). On this basis, he critiques the notion that writing is a skill that can be “wholly obtained from a description” (p. 156).

Macbeth concludes that instructors should pay close attention to “the good sense” (p. 201) that students bring to their writing tasks to, perhaps, glean from them an outsider’s perspective on the instructors’ “tacit knowledge” (Polanyi, 1967). Certainly, it would be wise for instructors to revise assignments in light of student performance, and I do not assume that that is not already a standard (if unstated) practice among university-level teachers. However, student motivations for decisions about how to engage with sources and represent reported speech are often difficult to discern. It is for this reason that I have relied in this study more on my subjective interpretation of “citer motivations” by using a combination of close discourse analysis and context analysis than I relied on the writers’ own explanations of their decision-making processes. This is because much research, especially in the field of information science, has found that writer explanations are unreliable for two main reasons: (1) citing decisions are often made in an unconscious manner and (2) interview answers about citing decisions are often too distanced from the writing process to be true indications of motivations (e.g., Harwood, 2008; Bornmann & Daniel, 2006b; Brooks, 1985, 1986). Research that shows the complexity and unconscious nature of citer motivations goes far to explain short-sighted punitive responses to the sometimes problematic or inappropriate ways students use sources and represent reported speech. In addition, such research has spurred



## 8. *Conclusions*

plagiarism analysts like Rebecca Moore Howard to move beyond criticisms of such juridical approaches to dealing with the “problem” of student citation into corpus studies of student writing that seek to use close discourse analysis to illuminate the ‘whys’ and ‘hows’ of student source use (see Howard and Jamieson’s Citation Project at <http://site.citationproject.net/>).

Indeed, this study confirms the ways in which the tacit nature of disciplinary knowledge problematizes its transfer to “outsiders” and contributes some evidence showing that the student need to construct an authoritative authorial identity—and to resist forces that limit their ability to do so—can contribute to unforeseen and, perhaps, inappropriate methods of engaging with sources. In addition, this study demonstrates that Freedman’s concept of uptake is a productive tool for theorizing the connection between classroom writing contexts and the discursive strategies students use in their written work. What uptake reinforces are the opportunities for genre users to “play” strategically and, thus, that there are numerous possible responses to any one preceding shot. Uptake is not predictable. In this study, it has helped to account for successful and problematic speech reporting practices, bridging composition research that shows a student desire to emulate or “ventriloquate” classroom discourse (e.g., Freedman, 1995; Dias et al., 1999) and research that has found student resistance to the power dynamic intrinsic to the classroom (e.g., Boyd, 1999; Ivanič, 1998).

### **Directions for Future Study**

These implications for teaching “citation” and responding to issues of source misuse in student work demonstrate the productive nature of this kind of analysis, which can serve to determine whether critical engagement with sources through synthesis and evaluation is

## 8. Conclusions

being successfully fostered in student coursework. Future studies, though, might involve more participant consultation throughout the analysis process. While a more ethnographic approach was ruled out for this study due to time constraints, such an approach has the potential to mitigate possible researcher bias or short-sighted conclusions resulting from a lack of familiarity with disciplinary contexts. It also increases the chances of faculty implementing recommendations made in light of research results.

A more ethnographic approach to studying reported speech might also have greater potential to reveal the connections between speech reports and the writer's orientation to the matters she is discussing. For instance, interviews might prompt study participants to reflect on the subject of their writing, considering, for instance, the origins of their interest in it and their stance in relation to it. Such information might allow the researcher to take into account the impact of the writer's relationship to the subject under discussion on the ways that they engage with and represent reported speech.

This study shows that research into multiple iterations of a single school genre – such as the “review assignment” – is important for determining what students are writing and, thus, learning. The variations between the two review assignments in this study serves as a warning to composition researchers and departments of higher education looking to find out what students are writing and learning. The *name* of an assignment does not necessarily indicate what speech reporting practices students are using. In fact, the instability of the review assignment in this study, suggests that we need much more study of school genres.

Subsequent research might, for instance, move into scientific discourse with a study of the speech reporting practices used in the lab report assignment, a common assignment in disciplines ranging from microbiology to psychology. Scientific discourse is an important

## 8. Conclusions

context in which to expand the scope of this research because it features a careful negotiation between objectivity and argument—the pressure to focus on scientific methods and the findings they produce but also to encourage an audience to accept such findings and methods as reliable. Scientific discourse is “rhetorical in a constitutive way” (Pera, 1994) because it does not succeed unless it persuades and yet its powers of persuasion are limited by the extent to which it is seen as rhetorical.

The impact of the tension between objectivity and argumentation in scientific discourse seems to play out in the way science writers refer to and represent the work of others. For example, the preference for indirect speech and passive voice in science articles (e.g., *It has been argued that bees' wings are too small to support their body mass*) allows writers to focus on the content of a speech report rather than its authorship and maintain authorial control with options like the choice of speech act verbs (e.g., *argued*, *demonstrated*, or *suggested*) to use the speech report to subtly serve the ends of the new argumentative context (see de Oliveira & Pagano, 2006). The negotiation that happens between objectivity and argumentation in science writing might be difficult for students to learn to emulate. Hyland (2002a) contends that instructors need to counter the notion that such discourse is impersonal and uniform by helping students realize the options available to them for establishing argumentative positions and authorial identities that would be considered appropriate and credible within disciplinary communities—the appropriate use of disciplinary conventions constituting what Truscello (2001) calls a “modern ethos.”

This doctoral thesis demonstrates the value of in-depth study of student speech reporting practices by revealing the integral, complex, and nuanced roles they play in students' attempts to satisfy the exigencies of their course assignments. More research

## *8. Conclusions*

promises to further reveal the nuances of student speech reporting practices and to help support pedagogical approaches that nurture appropriate and effective source engagement and speech representation strategies.

## References

- Angélil-Carter, S. (2000). *Stolen language? Plagiarism in writing*. Harlow: Pearson education.
- Angouri, J., & Harwood, N. (2008). This is too formal for us... A case study of variation in the written products of a multinational consortium. *Journal of Business and Technical Communication*, 22, 38-64.
- Anonymous. (2001). [Review of the book *Backing Hitler: Consent and coercion in Nazi Germany*, by R. Gellately]. *Contemporary Review*, 278(1625), 379.
- Anson, C. & Forsberg, L.L. (1990). Moving beyond the academic community: Transitional stages in professional writing. *Written Communication*, 7, 200-231.
- Bakhtin, M. (1981). *The dialogic imagination: Four essays* (M. Holquist, Ed. C. Emerson & M. Holquist Trans.). Austin: University of Texas Press.
- (1984). *Problems of Dostoevsky's poetics*. C. Emerson, (Ed.). Minneapolis: University of Minnesota Press.
- (1986). *Speech genres and other late essays* (V. W. McGee Trans.). Austin: University of Texas Press.

References

- Bartholomae, D. (1985/2003). Inventing the university. In V. Villaneuva (Ed.) *Cross-Talk in comp theory: A reader* (2nd ed.) (pp. 623-653). Illinois: Washington State University.
- Bawarshi, A. (2008). Genres are forms of intervention. In C. Eisner & M. Vicinus (Eds.), *Originality, imitations, and plagiarism: Teaching writing in the digital age* (pp. 79-89). University of Michigan Press.
- Bawarshi, A., & Reiff, M.J. (2010). *Genre: An introduction to history, theory, research and pedagogy*. (Reference Guides to Rhetoric and Composition. Bazerman, C. (Series Ed.)). The WAC Clearinghouse. [wac.colostate.edu](http://wac.colostate.edu).
- Bazerman, C. (1987). Codifying the social scientific style: The APA Publication Manual as behaviourist rhetoric. In John, N., Megill, A., & McCloskey, D. (Eds), *The rhetoric of the human sciences: Language and argument in scholarship and public affairs*. Madison: University of Wisconsin.
- (1988). *Shaping written knowledge: The genre and activity of the experimental article in science*. Madison: University of Wisconsin Press.
- (1994). Systems of genres and the enactment of social intentions. In A. Freedman & P. Medway (Eds.), *Genre and the new rhetoric* (pp. 79-101). London: Taylor & Francis.
- Beaufort, A. (1997). Operationalizing the concept of discourse community: A case study of one institutional site of composing. *Research in the Teaching of English*, 31, 486-529.
- Belcher, D. (1994). The apprenticeship approach to advanced academic literacy: Graduate students and their mentors. *English for Specific Purposes*, 13(1), 23-34.
- Berlin, J.A. (1984). *Writing instruction in nineteenth-century American colleges*. Edwardsville: Southern Illinois University Press.
- Bernstein, B. (1966). Elaborated and restricted codes: An outline. *Sociological Inquiry*, 36(2), 254-261.
- Bitzer, L. (1968). The rhetorical situation. *Philosophy and Rhetoric*, 1, 1-14.

*References*

- Bizzell, P. (1992). *Academic discourse and critical consciousness*. Pittsburgh: University of Pittsburgh Press.
- Bloch, J. & Chi, L. (1995). A comparison of the use of citations in Chinese and English academic discourse. In D. Belcher & G. Braine (Eds), *Academic writing in a second language: Essays on research and pedagogy* (pp. 231-273). Norwood, NJ: Ablex.
- Bloom, H. (1973/1997). *The anxiety of influence: A theory of poetry* (2nd ed.). New York: Oxford University Press.
- Bonzi, S. & Snyder, H.W. (1991). Motivations for citation: A comparison of self citation and citations to others. *Scientometrics*, 21, 245-254.
- Booth, W.C. (1963). The rhetorical stance. *College Composition and Communication*, 14(3), 139-145.
- Booth, W., Colomb, G.C., Williams, J.M. (2003). *The craft of research* (2nd ed.). University of Chicago Press.
- Borg, E. (2000). Citation practices in academic writing. In P. Thompson (Ed.), *Patterns and perspectives: Insights into EAP writing practice* (pp. 26-42). Reading, UK: Centre for Applied Language Studies.
- Bornmann, L., & Daniel, H.-D. (2006a). Selecting scientific excellence through committee peer review: A citation analysis of publications previously published to approval or rejection of post-doctoral research fellowship applicants. *Scientometrics*, 68(3), 427-440.
- (2006b). What do citation counts measure? A review of studies on citing behavior. *Journal of Documentation*, 64(1), 45-80.
- Bourdieu, P. (1991). *Language and symbolic power*. J.B Thompson (Ed.) (G. Raymond & M. Adamson, Trans.). Cambridge, Massachusetts: Harvard University Press.

References

- Bourdieu, P., & Wacquant, L.J.D. (1992). *An Invitation to Reflexive Sociology*. London: The University of Chicago Press.
- Boyd, R. (1991). Imitate me: Don't imitate me: Mimeticism in David Bartholomae's 'Inventing the university.' *Journal of Advanced Composition*, 11, 335-345.
- . (1999). Reading student resistance: The case of the missing other. *JAC: A Journal of Composition theory*, 19(4), 589-605. Retrieved from <http://www.jaconlinejournal.com/archives/vol19.4/boyd-reading.pdf>
- Breuch, L.-A. (2002/2003). Post-process "pedagogy": A philosophical exercise. In V. Villaneuva (Ed.), *Cross-talk in comp theory (2<sup>nd</sup> ed.)* (pp. 97-125). Illinois: National Council of Teachers of English.
- Brooks, T.A. (1985). An investigation of the validity of bibliographic citations. *Journal of the American Society for Information Science*, 36, 223-229.
- (1986). Evidence of complex citer motivations. *Journal of the American Society for Information Science*, 37, 34-36.
- Bruffee, K. (1984/2003). Collaborative learning and the "conversation of mankind." In V. Villanueva (Ed.), *Cross-talk in comp theory: A reader (2<sup>nd</sup> ed.)* (pp. 415-436). Urbana, Illinois: National Council of Teachers of English.
- Brundage, A. (2002). *Going to the sources: A guide to historical research and writing (3<sup>rd</sup> ed.)*. Wheeling, Ill.: Harlan Davidson.
- Buelow, G.J. (1990). Originality, genius, plagiarism in English criticism of the eighteenth century. *International Review of the Aesthetics and Sociology of Music*, 21(2), 117-128.
- Bullock, R. & Weinberg, F. (2011). *The little seagull handbook*. New York: W.W. Norton & Company.



References

- Calsamiglia, H., & Ferrero, C.L. (2003). Role and position of scientific voices: Reported speech in the media. *Discourse Studies*, 5(2), 147-173.
- Campbell, C. (1990). Writing in others' words: Using background reading text in academic compositions. In B. Kroll (Ed.), *Second language writing: Research insights in the classroom* (pp. 211-230). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Cano, V. (1989). Citation behavior: Classification, utility, and location. *Journal for Information Science*, 40(4), 284-290.
- Case, O.D. & Higgins, G.M. (2000). How can we investigate citation behavior? A study of reasons for citing literature in communication. *Journal of the American Society for Information Science*, 51(7), 635-645.
- Chandrasoma, R., Thompson, C., & Pennycook A. (2004). Beyond plagiarism: Transgressive and non-transgressive intertextuality. *Language, Identity and Education*, 3(3), 171 - 193.
- Charney, D.H., & Carlson, R.A. (1995). Learning to write in a genre: What student writers take from model texts. *Research in the Teaching of English*, 29(1), 88-125.
- Clark, I. (2005). A genre approach to writing assignments. *Composition Forum*, 14(2).  
<http://compositionforum.com/issue/14.2/clark-genre-writing.php>
- Cohn, D. (1978). *Transparent minds: Narrative modes for presenting consciousness in fiction*. Princeton: Princeton University Press.
- Council of Writing Program Administrators. (2003). Defining and avoiding plagiarism: The WPA statement on best practices. Retrieved from  
<http://wpacouncil.org/positions/WPAplagiarism.pdf>
- Cronin, B. (1984). *The citation process: The role and significance of citations in scientific communication*. London: Taylor Graham.

*References*

- Crookes, G. (1986). Towards a validated analysis of scientific text structure. *Applied Linguistics*, 7, 57-70.
- Crowley, S. (1991). A personal essay on freshman English. *Pre/Text*, 12, 155-176.
- Davis, P.M. (2009). Reward or persuasion? The battle to define the meaning of a citation. *Learned Publishing*, 21, 5-11.
- De Oliveira, J.M., & Pagano, A.S. (2006). The research article and the science popularization article: A probabilistic functional grammar perspective on direct discourse representation. *Discourse Studies*, 8(5), 627-646.
- De Vries, M. (2008). The representation of language within language: A syntactico-pragmatic typology of direct speech. *Studia Linguistica*, 62(1), 39-77.
- Devitt, A.J. (1991). Intertextuality in tax accounting: Generic, referential, and functional. In C. Bazerman & J Paradis (Eds.), *Textual dynamics of the professions: Historical contemporary studies of writing in professional communities* (pp. 336-357). Madison, WI: University of Wisconsin Press.
- (2004). *Writing Genres*. Carbondale: Southern Illinois University Press.
- Di Leo, J.R. (2009). The fate of the book review. *Journal of Scholarly Publishing*, 40(2), 166-177.
- Diani, G. (2009). Reporting and evaluation in English book review articles: A cross-disciplinary study. In K. Hyland & G. Diani (Eds.), *Academic evaluation: Review genres in university settings* (pp. 87-104). Palgrave Macmillan.
- Dias, P., Freedman, A., Medway, P. & Paré, A. (1999). *Worlds apart: Acting and writing in academic and workplace contexts*. Mahwah, New Jersey London: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates, Publishers.

References

- Dong, Y. R. (1996). Learning how to use citations for knowledge transformation: Non-native doctoral students' dissertation writing in science. *Research in the Teaching of English*, 30, 428–457.
- Donovan, S. (2006). The long and the short and the tall. *Journal of Scholarly Publishing*, 38(1), 36-40.
- Dudley-Evans, T. (1994). Genre models for the teaching of academic writing to second language speakers: Advantages and disadvantages. In T. Miller (Ed.), *Functional approaches to written text: Classroom applications*. Available online at [http://eca.state.gov/education/engteaching/pubs/BR/functionalsec4\\_11.htm](http://eca.state.gov/education/engteaching/pubs/BR/functionalsec4_11.htm)
- Elbow, P. (1987). Closing my eyes as I speak: An argument for ignoring audience. *College English*, 49(1), 50-69.
- Elton, L. (2010). Academic writing and tacit knowledge. *Teaching in Higher Education*, 15(2), 151-160.
- Emig, J. (1977/2003). Writing as a mode of learning. In V. Villaneuva (Ed.), *Cross-talk in comp theory: A reader (2<sup>nd</sup> ed.)* (pp. 7-15). Illinois: National Council of Teachers of English.
- Fairclough, N. (2003). *Analyzing discourse: Textual analysis for social research*. London: Routledge.
- Flower, L. (1979). Writer-based prose: A cognitive basis for problems in writing. *College English*, 41(1), 19-37.
- Flowerdew, L. (2000). Using a genre-based framework to teach organizational structure in academic writing. *ELT Journal*, 54(4), 369-379.
- Fludernik, M. (1993). *The fictions of language and the languages of fiction: The linguistic analysis of speech and consciousness*. New York: Routledge.

References

- Foucault, M. (1984). What is an Author? In P. Rainbow (Ed.) *The Foucault reader* (pp. 101-120). New York: Pantheon Books.
- Freadman, A. (1994). Anyone for tennis? In A. Freedman & P. Medway (Eds.), *Genre and the new rhetoric* (pp. 43-64). Oxon: Taylor & Francis.
- . (2002). Uptake. In R. Coe, L. Lingard, & T. Teslenko (Eds.), *The rhetoric and ideology of genre: Strategies for stability and change* (pp. 39-53). Cresskill, New Jersey: Hampton Press.
- Freedman, A. (1993). Show and tell? The role of explicit teaching in the learning of new genres. *Research in the Teaching of English*, 27(3), 222-251.
- Freedman, A. & Adam, C. (1996). Learning to write professionally: "Situated learning" and the transition from university to professional discourse. *Journal of Business and Technical Communication*, 10, 395-427.
- (2000). Write where you are: Situating learning to write in university and workplace settings. In P. Dias & A. Paré (Eds.), *Transitions: Writing in academic and workplace settings* (pp. 129-144). Cresskill, New Jersey: Hampton Press.
- Freedman, A., Adam, C., & Smart, G. (1994). Wearing suits to class: Simulating genres and simulations as genre. *Written Communication*, 11, 193-226.
- Ganguly, S. (2008). Heroes entwined: Gandhi and Churchill [Review of the book *Gandhi and Churchill: The epic rivalry that destroyed an empire and forged our age*, by A. Herman]. *Current History*, 107, 395-396.
- Garfield, E., Malin, M.V. & Small, H. (1978). Citation data as science indicators. In Y. Elkana (Ed.), *Toward a Metric of Science: The advent of science indicators* (pp. 179-207). New York: John Wiley & Sons. Available online:  
<http://www.garfield.library.upenn.edu/essays/v6p580y1983.pdf>

References

- Gavioli, L. (2002). Some thoughts on the problem of representing ESP through small corpora. In B. Kettemann & G. Marko (Eds.), *Language, people, numbers* (pp. 293-303). Rodopi. Available online at <http://www.ingentaconnect.com/content/rodopi/lang/2002/00000042/00000001#expand/collapse>
- Giltrow, J. (2001) Vagrant voices: Summary, citation, authority. *Technostyle*, 17(1): 87-103.
- (2002a). *Academic writing: Writing and reading in the disciplines* (3rd ed.). Peterborough, ON: Broadview press.
- (2002b). Legends of the center: System, self, and linguistic consciousness. In C. Bazerman & D.R. Russell (Eds), *Writing Selves/Writing Societies: Research from Activity Perspectives. Perspectives on Writing*. Fort Collins, Colorado: The WAC Clearinghouse and Mind, Culture, and Activity. Retrieved from [http://wac.colostate.edu/books/selves\\_societies/](http://wac.colostate.edu/books/selves_societies/)
- Giltrow, J., Gooding, R., Burgoyne, D., & Sawatsky, M. (2005). *Academic writing: An introduction*. Peterborough, ON: Broadview press.
- Giltrow, J., Gooding, R., Burgoyne, D., & Sawatsky, M. (2009). *Academic writing: An introduction* (2nd ed.). Peterborough, ON: Broadview press.
- Goda, N.J.W. (2004). [Review of the book *Backing Hitler: Consent and coercion in Nazi Germany*, by R. Gellately]. *The Historian*, 66(1), 187-188.
- Graff, G., Birkenstein, C., & Durst, R.K. (2008). *"They say/I say": The moves that matter in academic writing*. New York. W.W. Norton & Co.
- Greenbaum, L. (1969). The tradition of complaint. *College English*, 31, 174-187.
- Grill, J.P. (1992). [Review of the book *The Gestapo and German Society: Enforcing racial policy 1933-1945*, by R. Gellately]. *American Historical Review*, 97(2), 575-576.

References

- Groom, N. (2000). A workable balance: Self and sources in argumentative writing. In S. Mitchell, & R. Andrews (Eds.), *Learning to argue in higher education* (pp. 65–73). Portsmouth: Boynton/Cook.
- Harwood, N. (2008). Citers' use of citees' names: Findings from a qualitative interview-based study. *Journal of the American Society for Information Science and Technology*, 59(6), 1007-1011.
- Herbert, U. (2003). [Review of the book *Backing Hitler: Consent and coercion in Nazi Germany*, by R. Gellately]. *American Historical Review*, 108(1), 276-277.
- Hewings, A., & Hewings, M. (2001). Approaches to the study of disciplinary variation in academic writing: Implications for syllabus design. In D.R. Hall & A. Hewings (Eds.), *Innovation in English language teaching: A reader* (pp. 71-83). New York: Routledge.
- Holmes, R. (1997). Genre analysis and the social sciences: An investigation of the structure of research article discussion sections in three disciplines. *English for Specific Purposes*, 16, 321-337.
- Howard, R.M. (1993) A plagiarism pentimento. *Journal of Teaching Writing*, 11(2), 233-245.
- (1995). Plagiarisms, authorships, and the academic death penalty. *College English*, 57(1), 788-806.
- (1999a). *Standing in the shadow of giants: Plagiarists, authors, collaborators*. Stamford, CT: Ablex Publishing Corporation.
- (1999b). The New Abolitionism Comes to Plagiarism. L. Buranen and A. M. Roy (Eds.), *Perspectives on plagiarism and intellectual property in a postmodern world* (pp. 87-98). Albany, NY: SUNY P.

References

- (2000). Sexuality, textuality: The cultural work of plagiarism." *College English*, 62, 37-55.
- (2001 Nov 16). Forget about policing plagiarism; Just teach." In *The Chronicle of Higher Education*, B24.
- (2003). Should educators use commercial services to combat plagiarism? No. *CQ Researcher*, 13(32), 789.
- (2007). Understanding Internet Plagiarism. *Computers and Composition*, 24(1), 3-15.
- Howkins, A. (1984). Passchendaele [Review of the book *The face of battle: A study of Agincourt, Waterloo and the Somme*, by J. Keegan]. *History Workshop*, 17, 185-187.
- Hunt, R. (2005). Whose silverware is this? Promoting plagiarism through pedagogy (or, Peter Piper picked a peck of purloined passages). In A.P. Smith & F. Duggan (Eds.), *Plagiarism: Prevention, Practice & Policy Conference 28-30 June 2004 Proceedings* (265-274). Newcastle-upon-Tyne: Northumbria University Press.
- Hyland, K. (1999). Academic attribution: Citation and the construction of disciplinary knowledge. *Applied Linguistics*, 20(3), 341-367.
- (2002a). Activity and evaluation: Reporting practices in academic writing. In J. Flowerdew (Ed.), *Academic discourse* (pp. 115-130). Harlow: Longman.
- (2002b). Authority and invisibility: Authorial identity in academic writing. *Journal of Pragmatics*, 34(2), 1091-1112.
- (2002c). Options for identity in academic writing. *ELT Journal*, 56(4), 351-358.
- (2003). Genre-based pedagogies: A social response to process. *Journal of Second Language Writing*, 12, 17-29.
- (2004). Praise and criticism: Interactions in book reviews. In *Disciplinary discourses: Social interactions in academic writing* (pp. 41-62). University of Michigan Press.

References

- (2005). *Metadiscourse: Exploring interaction in writing*. London: Continuum.
- Hyland, T. (2010). Reflections on teaching referencing: What four case studies can tell us about developing effective teaching strategies. *TESL Canada Journal*, 27(2), 51-67.
- Hyon, S. (1996). Genre in three traditions: Implications for ESL. *TESOL Quarterly*, 30(4), 693-722.
- Ivanič, R. (1998). *Writing and identity: The discursual construction of identity in academic writing*. Philadelphia: John Benjamins Publishing Co.
- Janks, H. (2000). Domination, access, diversity and design: A synthesis for critical literacy education. *Educational Review*, 52(2), 175-186. Accessed at <http://www.bazmakaz.com/clip/media/Domination%20Access%20Diversity%20and%20Design%20-%20Synthesis%20Model.pdf>
- King, D.A. (2004). The scientific impact of nations: what different countries get for their research spending. *Nature*, 430, 311-316.
- Kristeva, J. (1969/1980). *Desire in language: A semiotic approach to literature and art*. (T. Gora, A. Jardine, & L.S. Roudiez, Trans.). New York: Columbia University Press.
- Krome, F. (2001). [Review of the book *Backing Hitler: Consent and coercion in Nazi Germany*, by R. Gellately]. *Library Journal*, 126(2), 85.
- Latour, B. & Woolgar, S. (1979). *Laboratory life: The construction of scientific facts*. New Jersey: Princeton University Press.
- Leatherman, C. (1999). At Texas A&M, conflicting charges of misconduct tear a program apart. *Chronicle of Higher Education*, 46(11), A18-A21.
- LeClercq, T. (1999). Confusion and conflict about plagiarism in law schools and law practice. In L. Buranen & A.M. Roy (Eds.), *Perspectives on plagiarism and intellectual property in a postmodern world* (pp. 195-204). New York: SUNY Press.



References

- Lee, S.H. (2010). Attribution in high- and low-graded persuasive essays by tertiary students. *Functions of Language, 17*(2), 181-206.
- Leech, G.N., & Short, M.H. (1981). *Style in fiction: A linguistic introduction to English fictional prose*. London: Longman.
- Lefevre, K.B. (1987). *Invention as a social act*. Carbondale: Southern Illinois University Press.
- Lillis, T.M. (1999). Whose “common sense”? Essayist literacy and the institutional practice of mystery. In C. Jones, J. Turner, & B. Street (Eds), *Students writing in the university: Cultural and epistemological issues* (pp. 127-147). Amsterdam: Johns Benjamins.
- (2001). *Student writing: Access, regulation, desire*. London: Routledge.
- Lindey, A. (1952). *Plagiarism and originality*. New York: Harper.
- Liu, M. (1993). The complexities of citation practice: A review of citation studies. *Journal of Documentation, 49*, 370-408.
- Lunsford, A.A., & Ede, L. (1994) Collaborative authorship and the teaching of writing. In M. Woodmansee & P. Jaszi (Eds.), *The construction of authorship: Textual appropriation in law and literature* (pp. 417-438). London: Duke University Press.
- Macbeth, K.P. (2006). Diverse, unforeseen, and quaint difficulties: The sensible responses of novices learning to follow instructions in academic writing. *Research in the Teaching of English, 41*(2), 180-207.
- Makkonen-Craig, H. (1999). Speech quotations in newspapers as a form of language use. *SKY Journal of Linguistics, 12*, 111-144.
- Marnette, S. (2003). Indirect discourse in a diachronic and pangeneric corpus of French: Forms and strategies. *Forum for Modern Language Studies, 39*(4), 414-426.

References

- Marshall, S. (1991). A genre-based approach to the teaching of report-writing. *English for Specific Purposes*, 10(1), 3-13.
- Martin, R.G. (1971). Plagiarism and originality: Some remedies. *The English Journal*, 60(5), 621-625+628.
- McCain, K.W. & Turner, K. (1989). Citation context analysis and aging patterns of journal articles in molecular genetics. *Scientometrics*, 17, 126-163.
- McHale, B. (1978). Free indirect discourse: A survey of recent accounts. *Poetics and Theory of Literature*, 3, 249-287.
- Miller, C.R. (1984). Genre as social action. *Quarterly Journal of Speech*, 70, 151-167.
- Miller, R.E. (1998/2003). The arts of complicity: Pragmatism and the culture of schooling. In V. Villaneuva (Ed.), *Cross-talk in comp theory: A reader (2<sup>nd</sup> Ed)* (pp. 655-675). Illinois: National Council of Teachers of English.
- Miranda, E.O. (1996). On book reviewing. *Journal of Educational Thought*, 30(2), 191-202.
- Moreno, A.I., & Suárez, L. (2008). A study of critical attitude across English and Spanish academic book reviews. *Journal of English for Academic Purposes*, 7, 15-26.
- Murray, D.M. (1972/2003). Teach writing as a process not product. In V. Villaneuva (Ed.), *Cross-talk in comp theory: A reader (2<sup>nd</sup> ed.)* (pp. 3-6). Illinois: National Council of Teachers of English.
- Myers, G. (1985). Texts as knowledge claims: The social construction of two biology articles. *Social Studies of Science*, 15(4), 593-630.
- (1990). *Writing biology: Texts in the social construction of social knowledge*. Wisconsin: University of Wisconsin Press.
- (1999). Functions of reported speech in group discussions. *Applied Linguistics*, 20(3), 376-401.

References

- Overman Smith, E. (1997). Intertextual connections to 'A humanistic rationale for technical writing'. *Journal of Business and Technical Communication*, 11(2), 192-222.
- Overy, R. (2000). [Review of *Five days in London, May 1940*, by J. Lukacs]. *The Journal of Military History*, 64(2), 577-578.
- Paré, A. (2002). Genre and identity: Individuals, institutions, and ideology. In R. Coe, L. Lingard, & T. Teslenko (Eds.), *The rhetoric and ideology of genre: Strategies for stability and change* (pp. 57-71). Cresskill, New Jersey: Hampton Press, Inc.
- Pecorari, D. (2002). Original reproductions: An investigation of the source use of postgraduate second language writers. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, University of Birmingham.
- Pecorari, D. (2003). Good and original: Plagiarism and patchwriting in academic second-language writing. *Journal of Second Language Writing*, 12, 317-345.
- (2006). Visible and occluded citation features in postgraduate second-language writing. *English for Specific Purposes*, 25(1), 4-29.
- Pera, M. (1994). *The discourses of science*. (C. Botsford, Trans.). Chicago: University of Chicago Press.
- Petraglia, J. (Ed.) (1995). *Reconceiving writing, rethinking writing instruction*. New Jersey: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates, Inc.
- Petrić, B. (2007). Rhetorical functions of citations in high- and low-rated master's theses. *Journal of English for Academic Purposes*, 6, 238-253.
- Polanyi, M. (1967). *The tacit dimension*. New York: Anchor Books.
- Politis, P., & Kakavoulia, M. (2006). Direct discourse in the Greek press: From evidentiality to subjectivity. *Revista Alicantina de Estudios Ingleses*, 19, 345-365.
- Price, D.J. (1965). Networks of scientific papers. *Science*, 149, 510-515.

References

- Price, M. (2002). Beyond "Gotcha!": Situating plagiarism in policy and pedagogy. *College Composition and Communication*, 54(1), 88-110.
- Redeker, G. (1996). Free indirect discourse in newspaper reports. In C. Cremers and M. Den Dikken (Eds.), *Linguistics in the Netherlands* (pp. 221-232). Amsterdam: John Benjamins. Retrieved from [www.let.rug.nl/redeker/redeker1996.pdf](http://www.let.rug.nl/redeker/redeker1996.pdf)
- Robillard, A. E. (2007). We won't get fooled again: On the absence of angry responses to plagiarism in composition studies. *College English*, 70(1), 10-30.
- Robin, R. (2004). *Scandrals & scoundrels: Seven cases that shook the academy*. Berkely, CA: University of California.
- Rotella, et al. (2001). [Review of the book *Backing Hitler: Consent and coercion in Nazi Germany*, by R. Gellately]. *Publishers Weekly*, 248(8), 68.
- Russell, D.R. (1997). Rethinking genre in school and society. *Written Communication*, 14, 504-555.
- Salager-Meyer, F. (1999). Referential behaviour in scientific writing: A diachronic study (1810–1995). *English for Specific Purposes*, 18, 279–305.
- (2000). Rhetorical evolution of oppositional discourse in French academic writing: Oppositional discourse in academic writing. *Hermes, Journal of Linguistics*, 25, 23-48.
- Salager-Meyer, F., Ariza, M.A.A., & Berbesi, M.P. (2007). Collegiality, critique and the construction of scientific argumentation in medical book reviews: A diachronic approach. *Journal of Pragmatics*, 39, 1758-1774.
- Schick, K. (30 Oct. 2011). Citation obsession? Get over it! *The Chronicle of Higher Education*. Retrieved from <http://chronicle.com/article/Citation-Obsession-Get-Over/129575/>
- Schryer, C. (1993). Records as genre. *Written Communication*, 10, 200-234.

References

- (1994). The lab vs. the clinic: Sites of competing genres. In A. Freedman & P. Medway (Eds.), *Genre and the new rhetoric* (pp. 105-124). London: Taylor and Francis.
- (2002). Genre and power: A chronotopic analysis. In R. Coe, L. Lingard & T. Teslenko (Eds.), *The rhetoric and ideology of genre: Strategies for stability and change* (pp. 73-101). Cresskill, New Jersey: Hampton Press, Inc.
- Scollon, R. (1994). Cultural aspects in constructing the author. In D. Keller-Cohen (Ed.), *Literacy: Interdisciplinary conversations* (pp. 213-227). Cresskill, NJ: Hampton Press, Inc.
- Semino, E. & Short, M. (2004). *Corpus stylistics: Speech, writing and thought presentation in a corpus of English writing*. London: Routledge.
- Shadish, W.R., Tolliver, D., Gray, M. & Sen Gupta, S.K. (1995). Author judgments about works they cite: Three studies from psychology journals. *Social Studies of Science*, 25, 477-498.
- Skandalakis, J., & Mirilas, P. (2004). Plagiarism. *Archives of Surgery* 139, 1022-1024.
- Slembrouck, S. (1986). Towards a description of speech representation and speech reportage in newspaper language. *Studia Germanica Gandiensa*, 9, 44-115.
- Small, H. (1973). Cocitation in the scientific literature: A new measure of the relationship between two documents. *Journal of the American Society for Information Science*, 24, 265-269.
- Smirnova, A.V. (2009). Reported speech as an element of argumentative newspaper discourse. *Communication*, 3, 79-103.
- St. Onge, K.R. (1988). *The melancholy anatomy of plagiarism*. Lanham, MD: University Press of America.

## References

- Stearns, L. (1999). Copy wrong: Plagiarism, process, property, and the law. In L. Buranen & A.M. Roy (Eds.), *Perspectives on plagiarism and intellectual property in a postmodern world* (pp. 5-17). Albany: State University of New York Press.
- Stephenson, J.(2002). [Review of the book *Backing Hitler: Consent and coercion in Nazi Germany*, by R. Gellately]. *The English Historical Review*, 117(474), 1382-83.
- Sullivan, D. (1996). Displaying disciplinarity. *Written Communication*, 13, 221-250.
- Sutton, B. (2000). Swales' "moves" and the research assignment. *Teaching English in a Two-Year College*, 47, 446-451.
- Swales, J. (1981). *Aspects of article introductions*. Birmingham, U.K.: University of Aston.
- (1984). Research into the structure of introductions to journal articles and its application to the teaching of academic writing. In R. Williams, J. Swales, & J. Kirkman (Eds.), *Common ground: Shared interest in ESP and communication studies* (pp. 77-86). Oxford: Pergamon.
- (1986). Citation analysis and discourse analysis. *Applied Linguistics*, 7, 39-56.
- (1988). 20 Years of the TESOL Quarterly. *TESOL Quarterly*, 22(1), 151-163.
- (1990). *Genre analysis: English in academic research settings*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- (2004). *Research Genres: Explorations and Applications*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Swales, J., & Najjar, H. (1987). The writing of research article introductions. *Written Communication*, 4, 175-191.
- Tadros, A. (1993). The pragmatics of text averral and attribution in academic texts. In M. Hoey (ed.). *Data, description, discourse* (pp. 98-114). London: HarperCollins

References

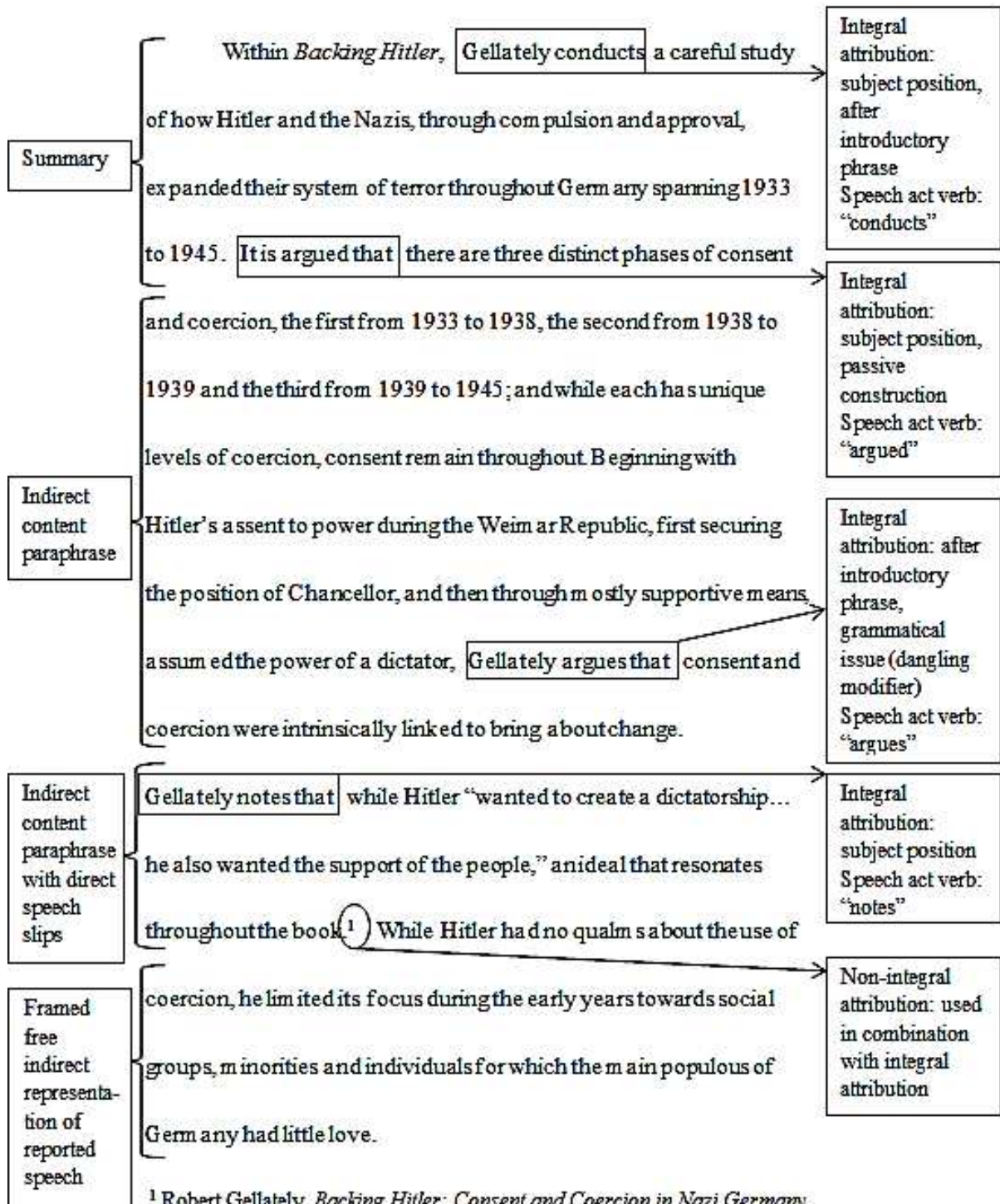
- Thomas, S. & Hawes, T.P. (1994). Reporting verbs in medical journal articles. *English for Specific Purposes*, 13(2), 129-148.
- Thompson, C. (2005). 'Authority is everything': A study of the politics of textual ownership and knowledge in the formation of student writer identities. *International Journal for Educational Integrity*, 1(1). Available at <http://www.ojs.unisa.edu.au/journals/index.php/IJEI>
- Thompson, G. & Y. Yiyun (1991). Evaluation in the reporting verbs used in academic papers. *Applied Linguistics*, 12(4), 365-382.
- Thompson, G. (1996). Voices in the text: Discourse perspectives on language reports. *Applied Linguistics*, 17(4), 501-530.
- Thompson, P. & Tribble, C. (2001). Looking at citations: Using corpora in English for academic purposes. *Language Learning & Technology*, 5(3), 91-105. Accessed online at <http://llt.msu.edu/vol5num3/thompson/default.html>
- Tobin, L. (2001). Process pedagogy. In G. Tate, A. Rupiper, K. Schick (Eds.), *A guide to composition pedagogies* (pp. 1-18). New York: Oxford University Press, Inc.
- Tobin, R.W. (2003 October). The commensality of book reviewing. *Journal of Scholarly Publishing*, 47-51.
- Truscello, M. (2001). The clothing of the American mind: The construction of scientific ethos in the science wars. *Rhetoric Review*, 20(3/4), 365-382.
- University of Alberta. (2010). Code of Student Behaviour. Inappropriate Academic Behaviour: Plagiarism. General Faculties Council Policy Manual, 30.3.2(1). Retrieved from [http://www.uofaweb.ualberta.ca/gfcpolicymanual/content.cfm?ID\\_page=37633#3836](http://www.uofaweb.ualberta.ca/gfcpolicymanual/content.cfm?ID_page=37633#3836)

*References*

- University of British Columbia (n.d.). Scholarly Integrity - Policy 85, section 3.5. Policies & Procedures. Retrieved from: <http://www.grad.ubc.ca/faculty-staff/policies-procedures/intellectual-property>)
- University of Toronto Governing Council. (1995). Code of Behaviour on Academic Matters, B.i.d. retrieved from <http://www.governingcouncil.utoronto.ca/policies/behaveac.htm>
- Vinkler, P. (1987). A quasi-quantitative citation model. *Scientometrics*, 12, 47-72.
- Vološinov, V.N. (1929/1973). *Marxism and the philosophy of language* (L. Matejka & I.R. Titunik, Trans.). Cambridge: Harvard University Press.
- Waugh, L.R. (1995). Reported speech in journalistic discourse: The relation of function and text. *Text*, 15(1), 129-173.
- White, D.H. (2004). Citation analysis and discourse analysis revisited. *Applied Linguistics*, 25(1), 89-116.
- Wilde, R. (n.d.). [Review of the book *The face of battle: A study of Agincourt, Waterloo and the Somme*, by J. Keegan]. About.com, retrieved 29 November 2009 from <http://europeanhistory.about.com/library/prodrev/aafprfaceofbattle.htm>.
- Yates, J., & Orlikowski, W.J. (2002). Genres of organizational communication: A structural approach to studying communication and media. *The Academy of Management Review*, 17(2), 299-326.



# Appendices



Narrator's representation of thought, voice, and writing		
↓	internal thought	<b>She put to herself a series of questions.</b> (Virginia Woolf, <i>Night and Day</i> , p. 272)
	voice	<b>We spoke to vice madam Michaela Hamilton from Bullwell, Notts</b> , who arranged girls for a Hudson orgy at the Sanam curry house in Stoke. ('Hudson fixed sex orgies at his charity fund collapsed', <i>News of the World</i> , 4 December 1994)
	writing	I know he suspected that I ate the wrong food for while I was convalescent in the country <b>he wrote to me frequently</b> ; I still have his letters. (Muriel Spark, <i>Curriculum Vitae</i> , p. 204)

Narrative report of thought, speech, and writing acts		
↓	thought acts	He looked straight at her and <b>thought about his imminent return</b> . She remained unaware of his plan until the following day.
	speech acts	He looked straight at her and <b>told her about his imminent return</b> . She was pleased.
	writing acts	<b>Leonard dedicated a poem to him</b> [...]. (L.S. Dorman and C.L. Rawlins, <i>Leonard Cohen: Prophet of the Heart</i> , p. 60)

Indirect representations of thought, speech, and writing		
↓	thought	He looked straight at her and decided <b>that he would definitely return the following day</b> . She remained unaware of his plan until the following day.
	speech	He looked straight at her and <b>told her that he would definitely return the following day</b> . She was pleased.
	writing	But because of Helsinki, I was down as the favourite, according to the British press. They said <b>I had a good chance of winning gold</b> . (Fatima Whitbread, <i>Fatima</i> , p. 155).

Free indirect representations of thought, speech, and writing		
↓	thought	He looked straight at her. <b>He would definitely come back tomorrow!</b> She remained unaware of his plan until the following day.
	speech	He looked straight at her. <b>He would definitely come back.</b>
	writing	Back came a charming letter. <b>A book of stories would be very acceptable. Was I interested?</b> (Muriel Spark, <i>Curriculum Vitae</i> , pp. 205-6)

Direct representations of thought, speech, and writing		
↓	thought	He looked straight at her and decided ' <b>I'll definitely come back tomorrow!</b> '. She remained unaware of his plan until the following day.
	speech	He looked straight at her and said ' <b>I'll definitely come back tomorrow!</b> '.
	writing	Greene wrote to his mother, ' <b>I have little news in this dim and distance spot</b> ', and their isolation clearly troubled him. (Norman Sherry, <i>The Life of Graham Greene</i> , p. 389)

Free direct representations of thought, speech, and writing		
↓	thought	He looked straight at her. <b>I'll definitely come back tomorrow.</b> She remained unaware of his plan until the following day.
	speech	He looked straight at her. ' <b>I'll definitely come back tomorrow!</b> ' She was pleased.
	writing	I stood at the bar with the <i>Morning Line</i> , <b>WITCH WHO LIED FOR DR SEX. IT'S ONLY ... PUPPY LOVE. I BACK IRA RED KEITH. MY SECRET LOVE BY TV'S MIDGE: SEE CENTRE PAGES.</b> (Martin Amis, <i>Money</i> , p. 91)

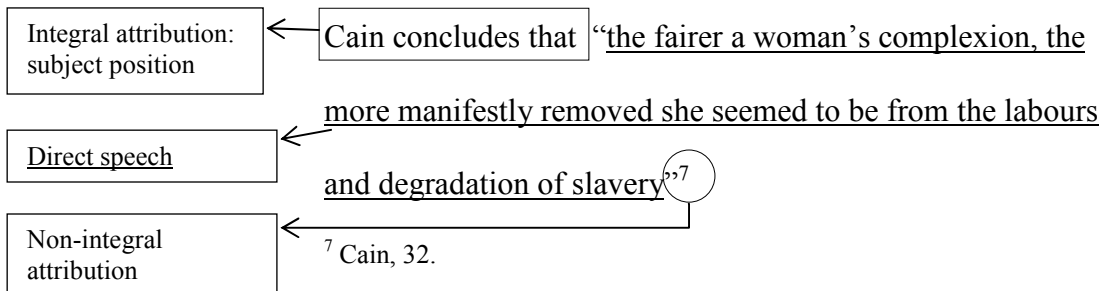
Mimetic pole

(For full descriptions see Chapter 3)

### Classic direct representations of reported speech (CDR)

Speech reports that present the words of an utterance using an attribution phrase and quotation marks. CDR does not involve more authorial commentary about the reported speech than that given in the speech act verb.

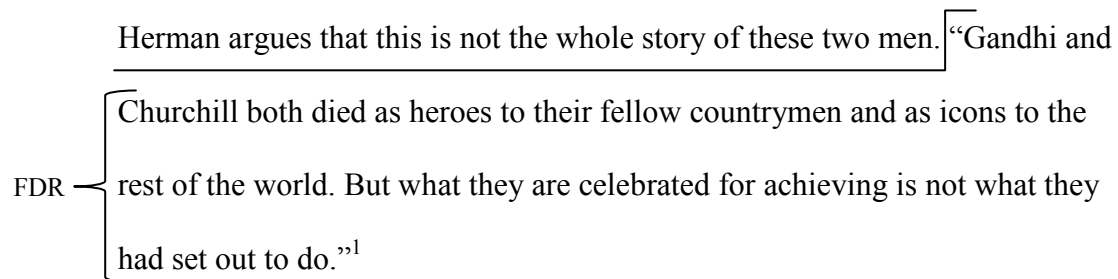
Example (from Kate's review):



### Free direct representation of reported speech (FDR)

Speech reports that present the words of an utterance without attribution information, indirect speech, or authorial commentary within the same sentences.

Example (from Diana(a)'s review):

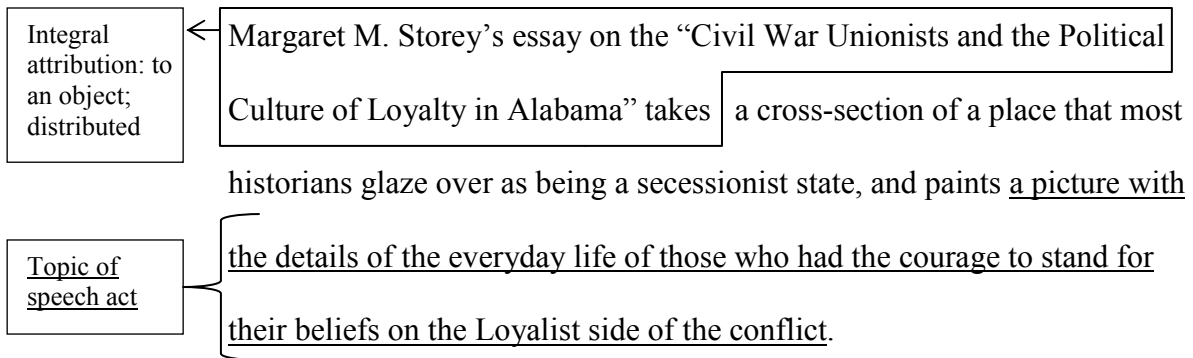


<sup>1</sup> Arthur Herman. *Gandhi & Churchill: The Epic Rivalry That Destroyed an Empire and Forged our Age* (New York, NY: Bantam Dell, 2009) 606.

### Summary

Speech reports that provide a relatively undetailed synopsis of a speech action and/or its topics.

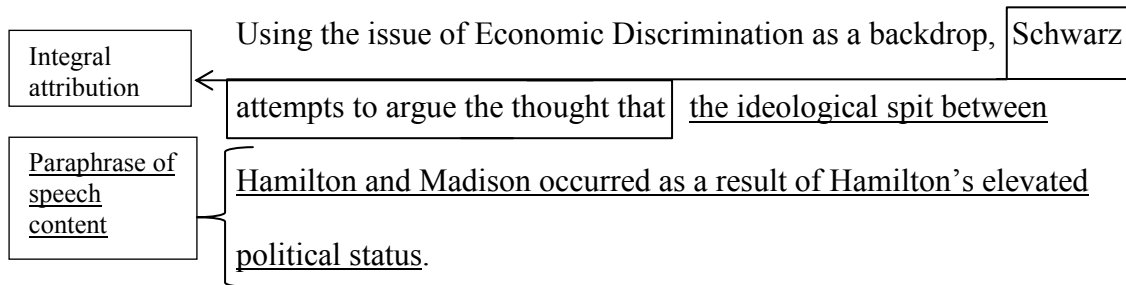
Example (from Ashley’s review):



### Indirect content paraphrase (ICP)

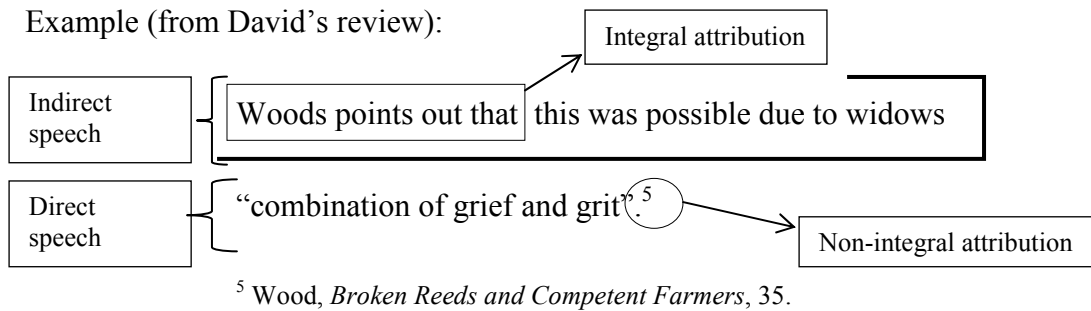
Speech reports with integral attribution that present the content of a speech action without using direct speech.

Example (from John’s review):



### Indirect content paraphrase with direct speech slips (ICP+)

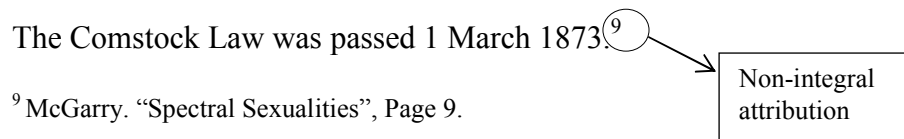
Speech reports with integral attribution that present the content of a speech action using indirect and direct speech.



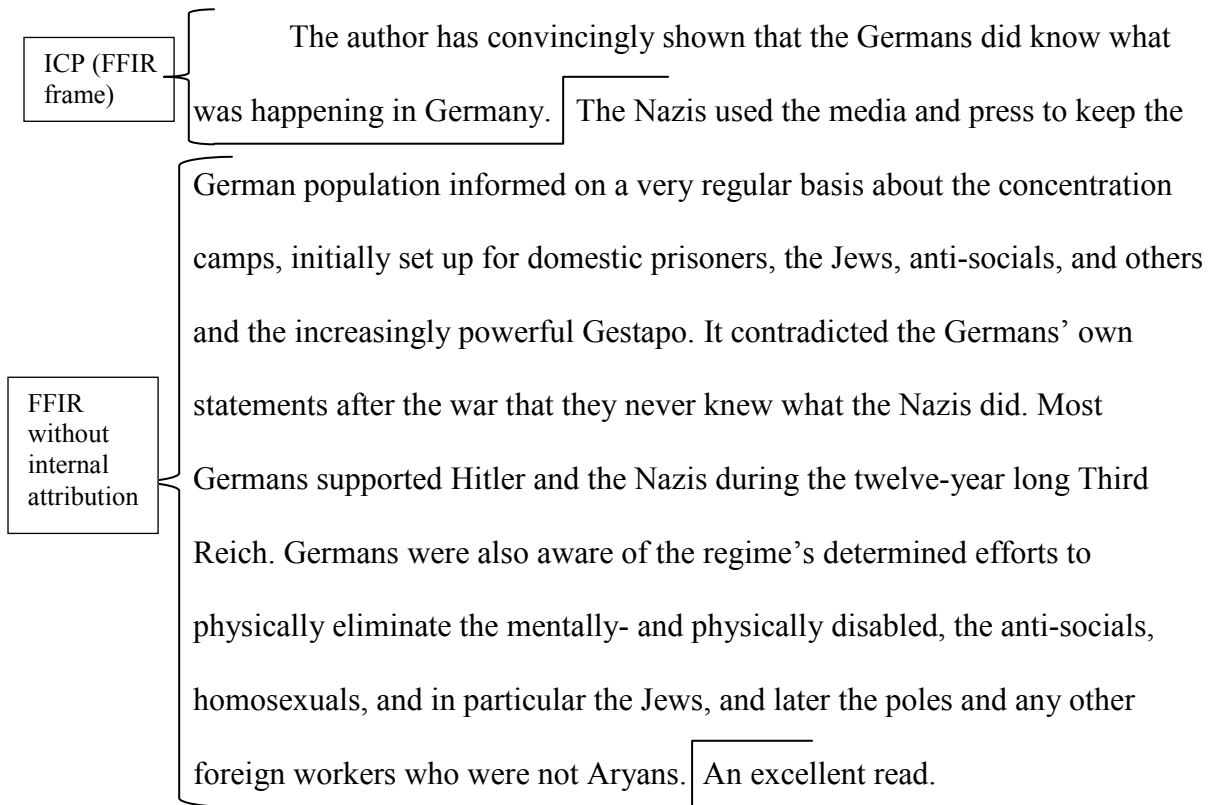
### **Framed free indirect representations of reported speech (FFIR)**

Speech reports without integral attribution that use indirect speech to present the content of a speech action. Their status as reported speech is implied by a previous statement, a preceding instance of reported speech, and/or non-integral attribution.

Example (from Alice's review):



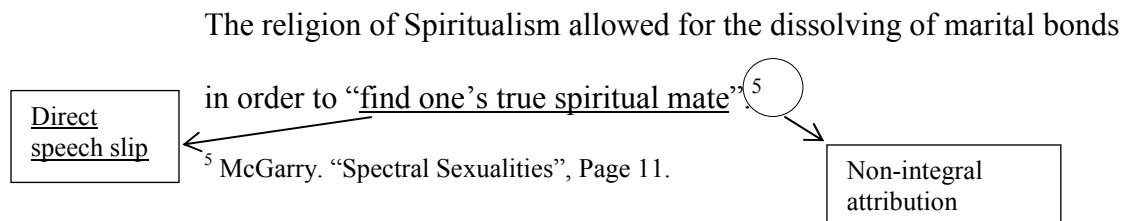
Example (from Maria's review):



**Framed free indirect representations of reported speech with direct speech slips (FFIR+)**

Speech reports without integral attribution that use indirect and direct speech to present the content of a speech action. Their status as reported speech is implied by a previous statement, a preceding instance of reported speech, the direct speech slip, and/or non-integral attribution.

Example (from Alice's review):

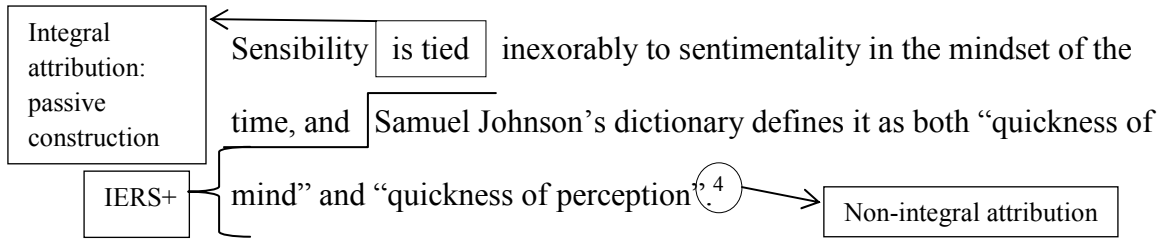




**Indirect or direct representation of embedded reported speech (IERS/IERS+)**

The (free) direct or (free) indirect speech report of a direct or indirect speech report.

Example (from Robert's paper):



<sup>4</sup>Knott. "Sensibility" Historical Review 109 (Feb 2004): 26.

## **American History: Paper Assignment**

(Worth 25% of final grade)

Your paper assignment for this course is to review a recent scholarly journal article and to explain how this article contributes to your broader understanding of the main themes and topics covered in [this course]. Beyond this main task, your essay should: identify the article's primary argument; summarize the article's key points; and evaluate the author's perspective (i.e. point of view, bias, relation to the subject-matter, etc...). In addition to the article you are reviewing, you should also reference course readings and lectures. You are not allowed to reference any other sources without explicit prior approval from me.

Selecting Your Article: You are free to select any journal article written in the past ten years, as long as it meets the following criteria: 1) You must choose your article from the historical journals listed below [I have not reproduced this list here]; 2) the focus of your chosen article must be colonial American or U.S. history prior to 1877; 3) your chosen article must be at least 15 pages (most articles will be 20-35 pages); 4) You are not allowed to choose book reviews.

Paper Guidelines: The expected length of your essay is 5 full pages. It should be in 12 point font, double spaced, with standard margins. Below your title, and before your first paragraph, you are directed to list the author(s), article title (in quotes), journal title (italicized), volume number, date and page numbers. Furthermore, your citation method must follow the Chicago Manual of Style for the Humanities. You can access the Chicago Manual of Style on the university's Library webpage

### **History Methods: Book Review Assignments**

(2 worth 20% each of the final grade)

Choose a book of historical non-fiction that is interesting to you. We have a selected list of choices below from which you may choose [I have not reproduced this list here]. You may select a book beyond the list, but please check if you are choosing a book that is not listed. Your book should be written by an academic historian, contain references and be at least 200 pages in length. The book cannot be on the subject of a written assignment in another course.

A good book review should do two things: offer an overview of the book's main arguments and then offer a focused assessment of some of the work's merits and/or weaknesses. In other words, what is the book about, and how well does it argue its case? A few points to consider in your review:

Who is the author? When is the author writing? Are older works written without considering "new" evidence?

What are the author's main arguments? Read the introduction carefully here.

How is the argument organized? Examine the table of contents carefully here.

What kind of evidence is the author using? Are they looking at archival sources; memoirs; oral interviews; newspapers; government documents?

What is the writing style like?

Is there a good use of maps and illustrations?

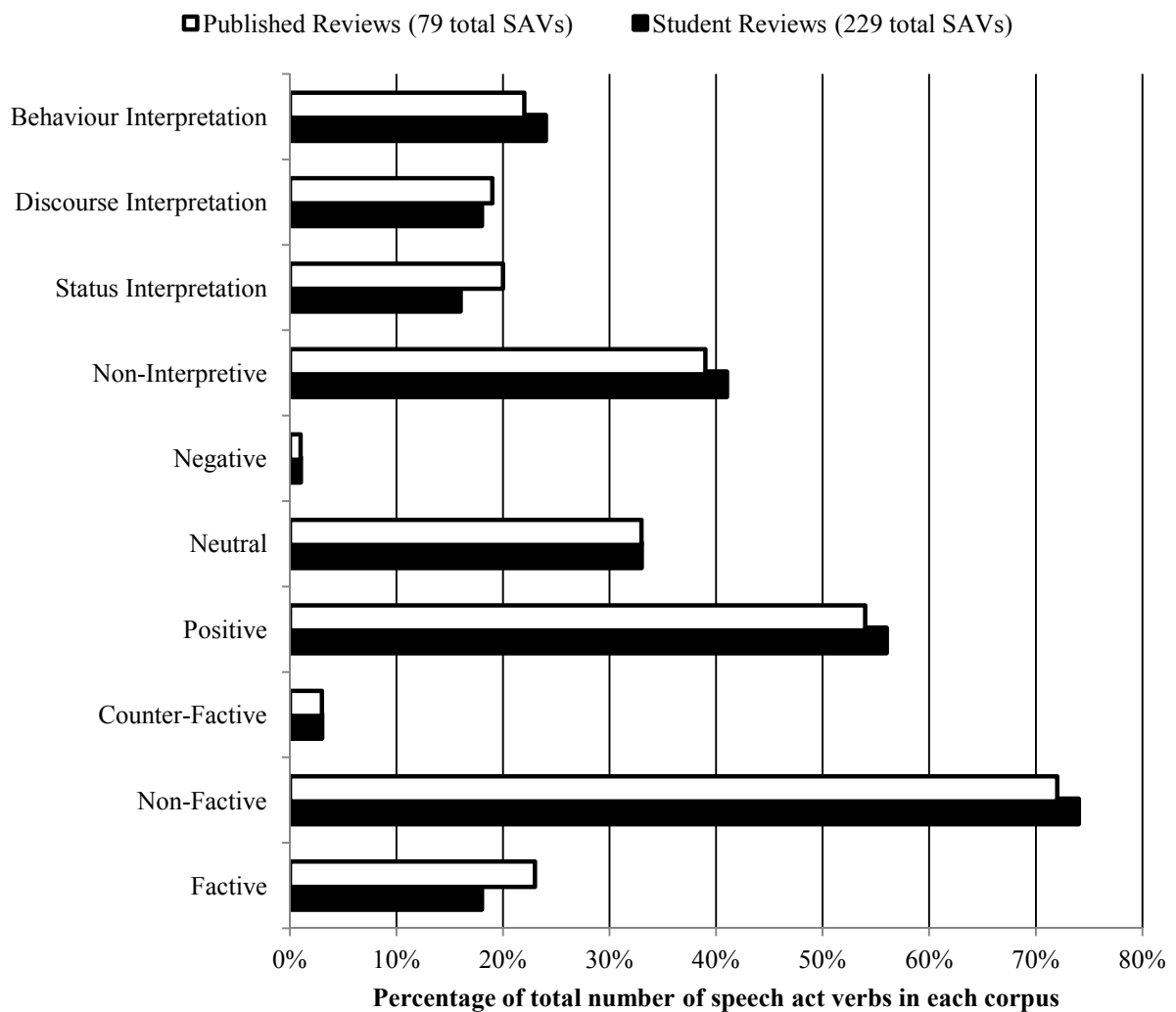
Did you like the book? If so, why?

A book review is not simply a quick answer to these questions in order, for a review needs a thesis around which you're organizing your argument. You need also to find a review of this book, and include it in your bibliographical page at the end of the text. How have other historians/academic considered this work? Do you agree with the reviewers' assessments?

*Appendix 5: Comparison of speech act verbs between the History Methods student review essays and the published reviews*

The student writers and published reviewers used comparable amounts of the speech act verb types identified by Thompson & Yiyun (1991).<sup>30</sup> The coding results for this analysis are shown below in Figure 7. Note that the percentages of speech act verbs coded in each category were calculated using the total number of speech act verbs in that study corpus. There were 79 speech act verbs in the corpus of published reviews and 229 speech act verbs in the corpus of student review essays.

*Figure 7: Speech act verb classifications in student and published reviews*



<sup>30</sup> Thompson and Yiyun’s speech act verb categories are outlined in the Review of Literature.

