

Eva-Maria Jakobs and Daniel Perrin (Eds.)
Handbook of Writing and Text Production

Handbooks of Applied Linguistics



Communication Competence
Language and Communication Problems
Practical Solutions

Editors
Karlfried Knapp and Gerd Antos

Volume 10

Handbook of Writing and Text Production



Edited by
Eva-Maria Jakobs and Daniel Perrin

DE GRUYTER
MOUTON

ISBN 978-3-11-022063-6
e-ISBN 978-3-11-022067-4

Library of Congress Cataloging-in-Publication Data

A CIP catalog record for this book has been applied for at the Library of Congress.

Bibliographic information published by the Deutsche Nationalbibliothek

The Deutsche Nationalbibliothek lists this publication in the Deutsche Nationalbibliografie; detailed bibliographic data are available in the Internet at <http://dnb.dnb.de>.

© 2014 Walter de Gruyter GmbH, Berlin/Boston
Typesetting: Dörlemann Satz GmbH & Co. KG, Lemförde
Printing and binding: Hubert & Co. GmbH & Co. KG, Göttingen
♻️ Printed on acid-free paper
Printed in Germany

www.degruyter.com

Preface

to the Handbooks of Applied Linguistics following the original nine volumes

The present volume constitutes another addition to the de Gruyter-Mouton *Handbooks of Applied Linguistics*. As the reader can see from our subsequent *Introduction to the Handbook Series* on the next pages, the series originally intended to comprise nine books only. However, various developments led us to abolish this self-imposed restriction, the most important ones being those in Applied Linguistics itself.

When we began planning this series in the late 1990s, the disciplinary status and scope of Applied Linguistics was less clear than it appears to be today. At that time, intensive debates were going on as to whether Applied Linguistics should be restricted to applying methods and findings from linguistics only, whether it should be regarded as a field of interdisciplinary synthesis drawing on psychology, sociology, ethnology and similar disciplines that are also dealing with aspects of language and communication, whether it should be regarded as an independent discipline in its own right, whether it was restricted to foreign language teaching, etc. Thus, what “Applied Linguistics” is and what an Applied Linguist does was highly controversial.

Against that backdrop, we felt that a series of Handbooks of Applied Linguistics could not simply be an accidental selection of descriptions of research findings and practical activities that were or could be published in books and articles labeled as “applied linguistic”. Rather, for us such a series had to be based on an epistemological concept that frames the status and scope of our concept of Applied Linguistics. Departing from contemporary Philosophy of Science which sees academic disciplines under the pressure to successfully solve practical everyday problems encountered by the societies which aliment them, we emphasized the view that was at that time only emerging – the programmatic view that Applied Linguistics means the solving of real world problems with language and communication. This concept appears to have become main stream since.

In line with our conviction that Applied Linguistics is for problem solving, we decided to compile a series of books which aimed at giving representative descriptions of the ability of this field of academic inquiry of providing accounts, analyses, explanations and, where possible, solutions of everyday problems with language and communication. To delimit the range of topics to be dealt with, we planned a set of nine volumes which were intended to present findings and applications of Applied Linguistics in concentric circles, as it were, departing from aspects of the communication competence of the individual via those of interpersonal, intergroup, organiza-

tional, public, multilingual, foreign language, intercultural, and technical communication ultimately to the level of society at large.

From the reception this series received in the academic community, among practitioners, and on the market, the underlying concept was a complete success. In fact, this success even triggered competitive handbook series by other publishers.

It has to be admitted, though, that the selection of topic areas for these nine volumes more than ten years ago was guided by what were key issues in Applied Linguistics at that time. Meanwhile, however, further problems with language and communication have come to the fore, and also some topics which were dealt with in individual chapters of the previous nine volumes meanwhile have attracted so much attention, generating so much new insights, that they merit an in-depth treatment in individual volumes devoted solely to these. This development, the fact that repeatedly distinguished colleagues approached us with proposals to edit further volumes in this handbook series and the market success convinced both de Gruyter-Mouton publishers and us as series editors to continue the *Handbooks of Applied Linguistics* beyond the initial nine.

From now on, this will be an open ended series. It will publish individual, self-contained volumes that depart from the view that Applied Linguistics is problem solving and that give a coherent and representative account of how the respective area of practical problems with language and communication is dealt with in this field of inquiry.

The present volume is an example of this.

Karlfried Knapp (Erfurt and Utrecht)
Gerd Antos (Halle/Saale)

Karlfried Knapp and Gerd Antos

Introduction to the handbook series

Linguistics for problem solving

1 Science and application at the turn of the millennium

The distinction between “pure” and “applied” sciences is an old one. According to Meinel (2000), it was introduced by the Swedish chemist Wallerius in 1751, as part of the dispute of that time between the scholastic disciplines and the then emerging epistemic sciences. However, although the concept of “Applied Science” gained currency rapidly since that time, it has remained problematic.

Until recently, the distinction between “pure” and “applied” mirrored the distinction between “theory” and “practice”. The latter ran all the way through Western history of science since its beginnings in antique times. At first, it was only philosophy that was regarded as a scholarly and, hence, theoretical discipline. Later it was followed by other leading disciplines, as e.g., the sciences. However, as academic disciplines, all of them remained theoretical. In fact, the process of achieving independence of theory was essential for the academic disciplines to become independent from political, religious or other contingencies and to establish themselves at universities and academies. This also implied a process of emancipation from practical concerns – an at times painful development which manifested (and occasionally still manifests) itself in the discrediting of and disdain for practice and practitioners. To some, already the very meaning of the notion “applied” carries a negative connotation, as is suggested by the contrast between the widely used synonym for “theoretical”, i.e. “pure” (as used, e.g. in the distinction between “Pure” and “Applied Mathematics”) and its natural antonym “impure”. On a different level, a lower academic status sometimes is attributed to applied disciplines because of their alleged lack of originality – they are perceived as simply and one-directionally applying insights gained in basic research and watering them down by neglecting the limiting conditions under which these insights were achieved.

Today, however, the academic system is confronted with a new understanding of science. In politics, in society and, above all, in economy a new concept of science has gained acceptance which questions traditional views. In recent philosophy of science, this is labelled as “science under the pressure to succeed” – i.e. as science whose theoretical structure and criteria of evaluation are increasingly conditioned by the pressure of application (Carrier, Stöltzner, and Wette 2004):

Whenever the public is interested in a particular subject, e.g. when a new disease develops that cannot be cured by conventional medication, the public requests science to provide new insights in this area as quickly as possible. In doing so, the public is less interested in whether these new insights fit seamlessly into an existing theoretical framework, but rather whether they make new methods of treatment and curing possible. (Institut für Wirtschafts- und Technikforschung 2004, our translation).

With most of the practical problems like these, sciences cannot rely on knowledge that is already available, simply because such knowledge does not yet exist. Very often, the problems at hand do not fit neatly into the theoretical framework of one particular “pure science”, and there is competition among disciplines with respect to which one provides the best theoretical and methodological resources for potential solutions. And more often than not the problems can be tackled only by adopting an interdisciplinary approach.

As a result, the traditional “Cascade Model”, where insights were applied top-down from basic research to practice, no longer works in many cases. Instead, a kind of “application oriented basic research” is needed, where disciplines – conditioned by the pressure of application – take up a certain still diffuse practical issue, define it as a problem against the background of their respective theoretical and methodological paradigms, study this problem and finally develop various application oriented suggestions for solutions. In this sense, applied science, on the one hand, has to be conceived of as a scientific strategy for problem solving – a strategy that starts from mundane practical problems and ultimately aims at solving them. On the other hand, despite the dominance of application that applied sciences are subjected to, as sciences they can do nothing but develop such solutions in a theoretically reflected and methodologically well founded manner. The latter, of course, may lead to the wellknown fact that even applied sciences often tend to concentrate on “application oriented basic research” only and thus appear to lose sight of the original practical problem. But despite such shifts in focus: Both the boundaries between disciplines and between pure and applied research are getting more and more blurred.

Today, after the turn of the millennium, it is obvious that sciences are requested to provide more and something different than just theory, basic research or pure knowledge. Rather, sciences are increasingly being regarded as partners in a more comprehensive social and economic context of problem solving and are evaluated against expectations to be practically relevant. This also implies that sciences are expected to be critical, reflecting their impact on society. This new “applied” type of science is confronted with the question: Which role can the sciences play in solving individual, interpersonal, social, intercultural, political or technical problems? This question is typical of a conception of science that was especially developed and propagated by the influential philosopher Sir Karl Popper – a conception that also this handbook series is based on.

2 “Applied Linguistics”: Concepts and controversies

The concept of “Applied Linguistics” is not as old as the notion of “Applied Science”, but it has also been problematical in its relation to theoretical linguistics since its beginning. There seems to be a widespread consensus that the notion “Applied Linguistics” emerged in 1948 with the first issue of the journal *Language Learning* which used this compound in its subtitle *A Quarterly Journal of Applied Linguistics*. This history of its origin certainly explains why even today “Applied Linguistics” still tends to be predominantly associated with foreign language teaching and learning in the Anglophone literature in particular, as can be seen e.g. from Johnson and Johnson (1998), whose *Encyclopedic Dictionary of Applied Linguistics* is explicitly subtitled *A Handbook for Language Teaching*. However, this theory of origin is historically wrong. As is pointed out by Back (1970), the concept of applying linguistics can be traced back to the early 19th century in Europe, and the very notion “Applied Linguistics” was used in the early 20th already.

2.1 Theoretically Applied vs. Practically Applied Linguistics

As with the relation between “Pure” and “Applied” sciences pointed out above, also with “Applied Linguistics” the first question to be asked is what makes it different from “Pure” or “Theoretical Linguistics”. It is not surprising, then, that the terminologist Back takes this difference as the point of departure for his discussion of what constitutes “Applied Linguistics”. In the light of recent controversies about this concept it is no doubt useful to remind us of his terminological distinctions.

Back (1970) distinguishes between “Theoretical Linguistics” – which aims at achieving knowledge for its own sake, without considering any other value –, “Practice” – i.e. any kind of activity that serves to achieve any purpose in life in the widest sense, apart from the striving for knowledge for its own sake – and “Applied Linguistics”, as a being based on “Theoretical Linguistics” on the one hand and as aiming at usability in “Practice” on the other. In addition, he makes a difference between “Theoretical Applied Linguistics” and “Practical Applied Linguistics”, which is of particular interest here. The former is defined as the use of insights and methods of “Theoretical Linguistics” for gaining knowledge in another, non-linguistic discipline, such as ethnology, sociology, law or literary studies, the latter as the application of insights from linguistics in a practical field related to language, such as language teaching, translation, and the like. For Back, the contribution of applied linguistics is to be seen in the planning of practical action. Language teaching, for example, is practical action done by practitioners, and what applied linguistics can contribute to this is, e.g., to provide contrastive descriptions of the languages involved as a foundation for teaching methods. These contrastive descriptions in turn have to be based on the descriptive methods developed in theoretical linguistics.

However, in the light of the recent epistemological developments outlined above, it may be useful to reinterpret Back's notion of "Theoretically Applied Linguistics". As he himself points out, dealing with practical problems can have repercussions on the development of the theoretical field. Often new approaches, new theoretical concepts and new methods are a prerequisite for dealing with a particular type of practical problems, which may lead to an – at least in the beginning – "application oriented basic research" in applied linguistics itself, which with some justification could also be labelled "theoretically applied", as many such problems require the transgression of disciplinary boundaries. It is not rare that a domain of "Theoretically Applied Linguistics" or "application oriented basic research" takes on a life of its own, and that also something which is labelled as "Applied Linguistics" might in fact be rather remote from the mundane practical problems that originally initiated the respective subject area. But as long as a relation to the original practical problem can be established, it may be justified to count a particular field or discussion as belonging to applied linguistics, even if only "theoretically applied".

2.2 Applied linguistics as a response to structuralism and generativism

As mentioned before, in the Anglophone world in particular the view still appears to be widespread that the primary concerns of the subject area of applied linguistics should be restricted to second language acquisition and language instruction in the first place (see, e.g., Davies 1999 or Schmitt and Celce-Murcia 2002). However, in other parts of the world, and above all in Europe, there has been a development away from aspects of language learning to a wider focus on more general issues of language and communication.

This broadening of scope was in part a reaction to the narrowing down the focus in linguistics that resulted from self-imposed methodological constraints which, as Ehlich (1999) points out, began with Saussurean structuralism and culminated in generative linguistics. For almost three decades since the late 1950s, these developments made "language" in a comprehensive sense, as related to the everyday experience of its users, vanish in favour of an idealised and basically artificial entity. This led in "Core" or theoretical linguistics to a neglect of almost all everyday problems with language and communication encountered by individuals and societies and made it necessary for those interested in socially accountable research into language and communication to draw on a wider range of disciplines, thus giving rise to a flourishing of interdisciplinary areas that have come to be referred to as hyphenated variants of linguistics, such as sociolinguistics, ethnolinguistics, psycholinguistics, conversation analysis, pragmatics, and so on (Davies and Elder 2004).

That these hyphenated variants of linguistics can be said to have originated from dealing with problems may lead to the impression that they fall completely into the

scope of applied linguistics. This the more so as their original thematic focus is in line with a frequently quoted definition of applied linguistics as “the theoretical and empirical investigation of real world problems in which language is a central issue” (Brumfit 1997: 93). However, in the recent past much of the work done in these fields has itself been rather “theoretically applied” in the sense introduced above and ultimately even become mainstream in linguistics. Also, in view of the current epistemological developments that see all sciences under the pressure of application, one might even wonder if there is anything distinctive about applied linguistics at all.

Indeed it would be difficult if not impossible to delimit applied linguistics with respect to the practical problems studied and the disciplinary approaches used: Real-world problems with language (to which, for greater clarity, should be added: “with communication”) are unlimited in principle. Also, many problems of this kind are unique and require quite different approaches. Some might be tackled successfully by applying already available linguistic theories and methods. Others might require for their solution the development of new methods and even new theories. Following a frequently used distinction first proposed by Widdowson (1980), one might label these approaches as “Linguistics Applied” or “Applied Linguistics”. In addition, language is a trans-disciplinary subject par excellence, with the result that problems do not come labelled and may require for their solution the cooperation of various disciplines.

2.3 Conceptualisations and communities

The questions of what should be its reference discipline and which themes, areas of research and sub-disciplines it should deal with, have been discussed constantly and were also the subject of an intensive debate (e.g. Seidlhofer 2003). In the recent past, a number of edited volumes on applied linguistics have appeared which in their respective introductory chapters attempt at giving a definition of “Applied Linguistics”. As can be seen from the existence of the Association Internationale de Linguistique Appliquée (AILA) and its numerous national affiliates, from the number of congresses held or books and journals published with the label “Applied Linguistics”, applied linguistics appears to be a well-established and flourishing enterprise. Therefore, the collective need felt by authors and editors to introduce their publication with a definition of the subject area it is supposed to be about is astonishing at first sight. Quite obviously, what Ehlich (2006) has termed “the struggle for the object of inquiry” appears to be characteristic of linguistics – both of linguistics at large and applied linguistics. It seems then, that the meaning and scope of “Applied Linguistics” cannot be taken for granted, and this is why a wide variety of controversial conceptualisations exist.

For example, in addition to the dichotomy mentioned above with respect to whether approaches to applied linguistics should in their theoretical foundations

and methods be autonomous from theoretical linguistics or not, and apart from other controversies, there are diverging views on whether applied linguistics is an independent academic discipline (e.g. Kaplan and Grabe 2000) or not (e.g. Davies and Elder 2004), whether its scope should be mainly restricted to language teaching related topics (e.g. Schmitt and Celce-Murcia 2002) or not (e.g. Knapp 2006), or whether applied linguistics is a field of interdisciplinary synthesis where theories with their own integrity develop in close interaction with language users and professionals (e.g. Rampton 1997 [2003] or whether this view should be rejected, as a true interdisciplinary approach is ultimately impossible (e.g. Widdowson 2005).

In contrast to such controversies Candlin and Sarangi (2004) point out that applied linguistics should be defined in the first place by the actions of those who practically *do* applied linguistics:

[...] we see no especial purpose in reopening what has become a somewhat sterile debate on what applied linguistics is, or whether it is a distinctive and coherent discipline. [...] we see applied linguistics as a many centered and interdisciplinary endeavour whose coherence is achieved in purposeful, mediated action by its practitioners. [...] What we want to ask of applied linguistics is less what it is and more what it does, or rather what its practitioners do. (Candlin and Sarangi 2004: 1–2)

Against this background, they see applied linguistics as less characterised by its thematic scope – which indeed is hard to delimit – but rather by the two aspects of “relevance” and “reflexivity”. Relevance refers to the purpose applied linguistic activities have for the targeted audience and to the degree that these activities in their collaborative practices meet the background and needs of those addressed – which, as matter of comprehensibility, also includes taking their conceptual and language level into account. Reflexivity means the contextualisation of the intellectual principles and practices, which is at the core of what characterises a professional community, and which is achieved by asking leading questions like “What kinds of purposes underlie what is done?”, “Who is involved in their determination?”, “By whom, and in what ways, is their achievement appraised?”, “Who owns the outcomes?”.

We agree with these authors that applied linguistics in dealing with real world problems is determined by disciplinary givens – such as e.g. theories, methods or standards of linguistics or any other discipline – but that it is determined at least as much by the social and situational givens of the practices of life. These do not only include the concrete practical problems themselves but also the theoretical and methodological standards of cooperating experts from other disciplines, as well as the conceptual and practical standards of the practitioners who are confronted with the practical problems in the first place. Thus, as Sarangi and van Leeuwen (2003) point out, applied linguists have to become part of the respective “community of practice”.

If, however, applied linguists have to regard themselves as part of a community of practice, it is obvious that it is the entire community which determines what the

respective subject matter is that the applied linguist deals with and how. In particular, it is the respective community of practice which determines which problems of the practitioners have to be considered. The consequence of this is that applied linguistics can be understood from very comprehensive to very specific, depending on what kind of problems are considered relevant by the respective community. Of course, following this participative understanding of applied linguistics also has consequences for the Handbooks of Applied Linguistics both with respect to the subjects covered and the way they are theoretically and practically treated.

3 Applied linguistics for problem solving

Against this background, it seems reasonable not to define applied linguistics as an autonomous discipline or even only to delimit it by specifying a set of subjects it is supposed to study and typical disciplinary approaches it should use. Rather, in line with the collaborative and participatory perspective of the communities of practice applied linguists are involved in, this handbook series is based on the assumption that applied linguistics is a specific, problem-oriented way of “doing linguistics” related to the real-life world. In other words: applied linguistics is conceived of here as “linguistics for problem solving”.

To outline what we think is distinctive about this area of inquiry: Entirely in line with Popper’s conception of science, we take it that applied linguistics starts from the assumption of an imperfect world in the areas of language and communication. This means, firstly, that linguistic and communicative competence in individuals, like other forms of human knowledge, is fragmentary and defective – if it exists at all. To express it more pointedly: Human linguistic and communicative behaviour is not “perfect”. And on a different level, this imperfection also applies to the use and status of language and communication in and among groups or societies.

Secondly, we take it that applied linguists are convinced that the imperfection both of individual linguistic and communicative behaviour and language based relations between groups and societies can be clarified, understood and to some extent resolved by their intervention, e.g. by means of education, training or consultancy.

Thirdly, we take it that applied linguistics proceeds by a specific mode of inquiry in that it mediates between the way language and communication is expertly studied in the linguistic disciplines and the way it is directly experienced in different domains of use. This implies that applied linguists are able to demonstrate that their findings – be they of a “Linguistics Applied” or “Applied Linguistics” nature – are not just “application oriented basic research” but can be made relevant to the real-life world.

Fourthly, we take it that applied linguistics is socially accountable. To the extent that the imperfections initiating applied linguistic activity involve both social actors

and social structures, we take it that applied linguistics has to be critical and reflexive with respect to the results of its suggestions and solutions.

These assumptions yield the following questions which at the same time define objectives for applied linguistics:

1. Which linguistic problems are typical of which areas of language competence and language use?
2. How can linguistics define and describe these problems?
3. How can linguistics suggest, develop, or achieve solutions of these problems?
4. Which solutions result in which improvements in speakers' linguistic and communicative abilities or in the use and status of languages in and between groups?
5. What are additional effects of the linguistic intervention?

4 Objectives of this handbook series

These questions also determine the objectives of this book series. However, in view of the present boom in handbooks of linguistics and applied linguistics, one should ask what is specific about this series of nine thematically different volumes.

To begin with, it is important to emphasise what it is not aiming at:

- The handbook series does not want to take a snapshot view or even a “hit list” of fashionable topics, theories, debates or fields of study.
- Nor does it aim at a comprehensive coverage of linguistics because some selectivity with regard to the subject areas is both inevitable in a book series of this kind and part of its specific profile.
- Instead, the book series will try
- to show that applied linguistics can offer a comprehensive, trustworthy and scientifically well-founded understanding of a wide range of problems,
- to show that applied linguistics can provide or develop instruments for solving new, still unpredictable problems,
- to show that applied linguistics is not confined to a restricted number of topics such as, e.g. foreign language learning, but that it successfully deals with a wide range of both everyday problems and areas of linguistics,
- to provide a state-of-the-art description of applied linguistics against the background of the ability of this area of academic inquiry to provide descriptions, analyses, explanations and, if possible, solutions of everyday problems. On the one hand, this criterion is the link to trans-disciplinary co-operation. On the other, it is crucial in assessing to what extent linguistics can in fact be made relevant.

In short, it is by no means the intention of this series to duplicate the present state of knowledge about linguistics as represented in other publications with the supposed aim of providing a comprehensive survey. Rather, the intention is to present the knowledge available in applied linguistics today firstly from an explicitly problem

solving perspective and secondly, in a non-technical, easily comprehensible way. Also it is intended with this publication to build bridges to neighbouring disciplines and to critically discuss which impact the solutions discussed do in fact have on practice. This is particularly necessary in areas like language teaching and learning – where for years there has been a tendency to fashionable solutions without sufficient consideration of their actual impact on the reality in schools.

5 Criteria for the selection of topics

Based on the arguments outlined above, the handbook series has the following structure: Findings and applications of linguistics will be presented in concentric circles, as it were, starting out from the communication competence of the individual, proceeding via aspects of interpersonal and inter-group communication to technical communication and, ultimately, to the more general level of society. Thus, the topics of the nine volumes are as follows:

1. Handbook of Individual Communication Competence
2. Handbook of Interpersonal Communication
3. Handbook of Communication in Organisations and Professions
4. Handbook of Communication in the Public Sphere
5. Handbook of Multilingualism and Multilingual Communication
6. Handbook of Foreign Language Communication and Learning
7. Handbook of Intercultural Communication
8. Handbook of Technical Communication
9. Handbook of Language and Communication: Diversity and Change

This thematic structure can be said to follow the sequence of experience with problems related to language and communication a human passes through in the course of his or her personal biographical development. This is why the topic areas of applied linguistics are structured here in ever-increasing concentric circles: in line with biographical development, the first circle starts with the communicative competence of the individual and also includes interpersonal communication as belonging to a person's private sphere. The second circle proceeds to the everyday environment and includes the professional and public sphere. The third circle extends to the experience of foreign languages and cultures, which at least in officially monolingual societies, is not made by everybody and if so, only later in life. Technical communication as the fourth circle is even more exclusive and restricted to a more special professional clientele. The final volume extends this process to focus on more general, supra-individual national and international issues.

For almost all of these topics, there already exist introductions, handbooks or other types of survey literature. However, what makes the present volumes unique

is their explicit claim to focus on topics in language and communication as areas of everyday problems and their emphasis on pointing out the relevance of applied linguistics in dealing with them.

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Contents

Preface — v

Karlfried Knapp and Gerd Antos

Introduction to the handbook series — vii

Eva-Maria Jakobs & Daniel Perrin

1 Introduction and research roadmap: Writing and text production — 1

Section I. Theory and methodology in text production research

Eva-Maria Jakobs and Daniel Perrin

2 Introduction: Theory and methodology in text production research — 27

Paul Prior and Steven L. Thorne

3 Research paradigms: Beyond product, process, and social activity — 31

Christiane Donahue and Theresa Lillis

4 Models of writing and text production — 55

Almuth Grésillon & Daniel Perrin

5 Methodology: From speaking about writing to tracking text production — 79

Section II. Author perspectives

Kirsten Schindler and Joanna Wolfe

6 Introduction: Author perspectives in text production research — 115

Aleksandra Gnach and Katrina M. Powell

7 Authorship and context: Writing and text production as situated activities — 119

Anne Beaufort and Anna Iñesta

8 Author profiles: Awareness, competence, and skills — 141

Kirsten Schindler and Joanna Wolfe

9 Beyond single authors: Organizational text production as collaborative writing — 159

Section III. Mode and media perspectives

Troy Hicks and Daniel Perrin

10 Introduction: Mode and media perspectives in text production research — 177

Geert Jacobs & Daniel Perrin

- 11 Production modes: Writing as materializing and stimulating thoughts — 181**

Cerstin Mahlow and Robert Dale

- 12 Production media: Writing as using tools in media convergent environments — 209**

Troy Hicks & Daniel Perrin

- 13 Beyond single modes and media: Writing as an ongoing multimodal text production — 231**

Section IV. Genre perspectives

Charles Bazerman and Amy Devitt

- 14 Introduction: Genre perspectives in text production research — 257**

Amy Devitt and Mary Jo Reiff

- 15 Reproducing genres: Pattern-related writing — 263**

Carol Berkenkotter and Martin Luginbühl

- 16 Producing genres: Pattern variation and genre development — 285**

Jack Andersen, Charles Bazerman and Jesper Schneider

- 17 Beyond single genres: Pattern mapping in global communication — 305**

Section V. Domain perspectives

Eva-Maria Jakobs and Clay Spinuzzi

- 18 Introduction: Domain perspectives in text production research — 325**

Mya Poe and Mary Scott

- 19 Learning domains: Writing as lifelong learning — 333**

Eva-Maria Jakobs and Clay Spinuzzi

- 20 Professional domains: Writing as creation of economic value — 359**

David Oakey and David R. Russell

- 21 Beyond single domains: Writing in boundary crossing — 385**

Subject index — 413

Eva-Maria Jakobs & Daniel Perrin

1 Introduction and research roadmap: Writing and text production

The shift from an industrial to an information society has increased the importance of writing and text production in education, in everyday life, and in more and more professions related to fields such as economics and politics, science and technology, culture and media. Through writing, we create, store, and communicate knowledge, build up social networks, develop projects, inform colleagues and customers, and generate the basis for decisions. The quality of the products of all these processes is often decisive for social participation and resonance, opportunities in the labor market, and professional success.

Nevertheless, many people experience writing and text production as a painful duty or a tedious routine. Beginners as well as experienced writing professionals have to fight in order to find the right words and sentences, they struggle to find the most convincing form and content, and they complain of writing problems or even blocks. Obviously text production places demands on semiotic and linguistic, intellectual and motivational capacities in quite different ways from speaking, which usually seems much more manageable. This gap between the importance of writing and people's competence raises the questions of how text production can be conceptualized, taught, and learned – and, above all, what writing and text production *are* in terms of human activities.

This is what the present handbook is about: It brings together and systematizes state-of-the-art research into writing and text production as key human activities and as socially decisive forms of language use. In the next sections of this introduction, we explore the handbook's approach in more detail.

- In Part 1, we reflect on how applied linguistics and writing research can benefit from each other. We explain why, taken together, they offer a theoretically and empirically precise basis for analyzing, understanding, and improving writing in real-life environments.
- In Part 2, we explain the handbook's profile: why the volume focuses on professional rather than educational domains, why all the sections reach beyond traditional categories of writing research, and why every chapter is co-authored. We outline the content of each chapter in terms of main topics and related research gaps.
- In Part 3, we summarize the lessons learned from the handbook production. In order to identify key challenges for future research, we draw a research roadmap that systematizes the main strengths and shortcomings of contemporary research into writing and text production. In doing so, we distinguish between a meta-level of doing research on writing and an object level of doing writing itself.

1 Focus: AL-informed research into writing and text production

In this part of the introduction, we reflect on how applied linguistics (AL) and writing research can benefit from each other. Our focus of attention shifts from a variety of scientific disciplines (1.1.) to linguistics (1.2.), applied linguistics (1.3.), and, finally, the subfields of AL in which writing research plays a key role (1.4.). By doing so, we explain why the AL-informed research of real-life writing requires inter- and transdisciplinary approaches.

1.1 Approaches into writing (research) from many disciplines

Writing and text production are topics among many others that are dealt with in disciplines interested in human thinking and communication, such as psychology, sociology, economics, and media studies. From a linguistic point of view, such disciplines treat extracts of the multilayered phenomena of language use with their own research questions and methods. In doing so, they describe social, organizational, economic, technological, and other aspects of the settings in which individuals and organizations create their offers of communication by producing their texts.

In an investigation of text production in the newsroom, for example, the work done by a particular journalist could be analyzed from economic or linguistic perspectives. When the journalist draws on source materials, she links to both an intertextual chain and a chain of economic value production (Fig. 1).

From an economic perspective, the question arises of how value is created in such production chains (Grésillon and Perrin; Jakobs and Spinuzzi, this volume): at all the stations between source and audience, the news is further contextualized and shaped towards an intended end-user and sold at a higher price. From a linguistic perspective, linguistic utterances such as the quote by the protesters in the above case are edited and recontextualized: cut from their original context, pasted into a new one, and edited in order to fit into the co-text. An applied linguistics approach could investigate how such recontextualizations can be made in a way that the journalists can easily handle the text production task while, at the same time, the original context and meaning of the utterance remain clear for the target audience.

Language, written language, and writing itself are focused on by all the disciplines that work with language and languages as well as with signs and texts in general: semiotics, for example, investigates the way sign systems such as written language and pictures influence one another in multi-semiotic media (e.g., Hess-Lüttich 2002; Bezemer and Jewitt 2009; but also Hicks and Perrin; Prior and Thorne, this volume). Disciplines focusing on language within a cultural region, such as English, German, or Romance studies, investigate the respective language and writing. Literary studies

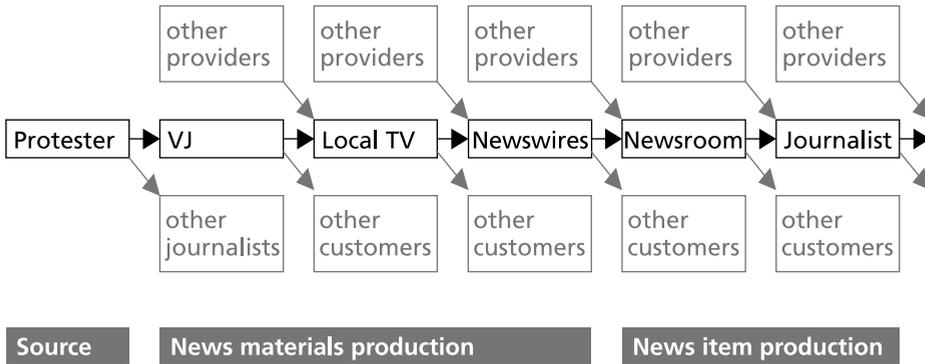


Figure 1: The intertextual chain leads from comments of protesters in Lebanon to quotes in a Swiss television news item (Perrin 2013: 28). The chain includes video journalists (VJs) in Lebanon, a Lebanese television company, globally networked newswires, desk researchers at a local TV news provider, and the journalists drawing on the source materials prepared by the desk researcher.

treats writing as the process of generating literature. Language teaching recognizes that writing is a factor in socialization (Beaufort and Iñesta; Gnach and Powell; Poe and Scott, this volume). Stylistics and rhetoric discuss the form and effect of written texts. Composition focuses on the teaching and learning of writing.

1.2 Linguistics

The central concern of (general) linguistics is language: contrary to semiotics, linguistics just investigates natural language, whether spoken, written, or signed. Different from disciplines such as German studies or Romance studies, it does this beyond the constraints of single languages. It describes languages, rather than judging them as linguistic criticism does, and, different from literary studies or composition, is interested in spoken and written language in all of its uses.

Linguistics has reconstructed language in three research paradigms since the early 20th century: first structurally, as a system of sounds, words, and sentences; then generatively, as a product of cognitive activity; then pragmatically, as a trigger for and trace of social activity in specific settings (such as playgrounds or newsrooms) and contexts (such as domains and related media) of language use. From a writing research perspective, the focus shifted “from linguistics to text linguistics to text production” (De Beaugrande 1989). The linguistic sub-disciplines that emerged as a consequence of such developments all deal with the same general objects of study, namely language and language use. However, each discipline adopts its own perspective.

- Sub-disciplines such as phonology, phonetics, morphology, syntax, and text linguistics are based on structural elements of language (e.g., sounds, words, sentences, and texts).

- Sub-disciplines such as semantics, psycholinguistics, sociolinguistics, and pragmatics are based on functions of language (e.g., denoting, thinking, acting, or building communities).
- Sub-disciplines such as conversation analysis, writing studies, discourse studies, and hypermedia studies are based on the environment of language use (e.g., discussions or hypermedia environments).

All the sub-disciplines aim to describe in theoretical terms the regularities that hold for the language users within a language community or for all language users in general.

1.3 Applied linguistics

Similarly to other academic disciplines, linguistics has also developed an applied variant (e.g., Bygate 2005). While the classical academic subjects derive their questions from theoretical considerations, the applied subjects deal with problems from practice and base their treatment of them on theory.

Applied linguistics addresses “problems of linguistic communication” as its “core research object” (Evensen 2013, blurb). As a “user-friendly linguistics” (Wei 2007: 117), for example, it deals with the optimization of language use for certain communicative tasks and domains, including language learning or workplace communication (e.g., Cicourel 2003; Alatis, Hamilton, and Tan 2002; Candlin 2003). It can investigate the repertoires of strategies that individuals or language communities use when they make linguistic decisions (e.g., Cook 2003: 125) in discussions and writing processes (Beaufort and Iñesta; Gnach and Powell; Schindler and Wolfe, this volume). Then, these repertoires can be expanded through teaching and learning processes (Poe and Scott, this volume).

Many applied linguists see their discipline as a variant of linguistics that uses and develops linguistic theories, methods and knowledge to deal with problems of language use in specific fields of application (e.g., Brumfit 1997: 91–93; AILA 2011). Whereas “linguistics applied” investigates practice to clarify theoretically relevant questions, applied linguistics starts its research projects from practically relevant questions (Widdowson 2000; see also Jakobs and Spinuzzi; Oakey and Russell; Poe and Scott, this volume).

As a discipline (e.g., Brumfit 1997), applied linguistics develops subdisciplines related to domains whose language use is socially significant, differs noticeably from language use in other domains, and is related to domain-specific problems. Examples of such subdisciplines include:

- Legal linguistics deals with language use in law practice, where language creates legal obligation.
- Forensic linguistics deals with language use in legal investigations and judicial practice, where language can yield alibis and evidence.
- Clinical linguistics deals with language use in therapy for language, communicative, and other related disorders.
- Organizational linguistics deals with language use in occupational settings, where language guides organizational processes of value creation.

All of these subdisciplines deal with verbal, para-verbal and non-verbal communication, with spoken and written language, and with all the emerging hybrid forms. Therefore, in addition to domain-related subdisciplines, theoretical and applied linguistics have developed cross-section subdisciplines oriented towards prototype modes of language use, such as speaking and writing.

1.4 AL-informed writing research

From an applied linguistics perspective, writing research has become a cross-section subdiscipline that is oriented towards analyzing, understanding, and improving writing as a key mode of real-life language use. In practice, this AL-informed writing research mostly combines approaches from applied linguistics with knowledge from other disciplines, such as psychology and sociology. Investigating writing in context has long been seen as a research enterprise that requires multi-perspective approaches in order to develop as vivid as possible a reconstruction of the mental, material, and social activities involved (Berkenkotter and Luginbühl; Devitt and Reiff, this volume).

Today, writing research conceptualizes writing as the production of texts, as cognitive problem solving (e.g., Cooper and Matsushashi 1983), and as the collaborative practice of social meaning making (e.g., Gunnarsson 1997; Prior 2006). It investigates writing through laboratory experiments and field research. The experimental research explains cognitive activities such as micro pauses for planning. The field studies provide knowledge about writing processes in settings such as school and professions. The present state of research results from paradigm shifts such as from product to process and from the lab to the field (e.g., Schultz 2006).

- In an early paradigm shift, the focus of interest moved from the product to the process. Researchers started to go beyond final text versions and authors' subjective reports about their writing experience (e.g., Hodge 1979; Pitts 1982). Draft versions from different stages in a writing process were compared. Manuscripts were analyzed for their traces from revision processes, such as cross-outs and insertions. This approach is still practiced in the field of literary writing, where archi-

val research reveals the genesis of masterpieces (e.g., Bazerman 2008; Grésillon 1997; Grésillon and Perrin, this volume).

- Another paradigm shift took research from the lab to the “real life” (Van der Geest 1996). Researchers moved from testing subjects with experimental tasks (e.g., Rodriguez and Severinson-Eklundh 2006) to workplace ethnography (e.g., Bracewell 2003), for example to describe professionals’ writing expertise (e.g., Beaufort 2005: 210). Later, ethnography was complemented by recordings of writing activities (e.g., Latif 2008), such as keylogging. The first multimethod approach that combined ethnography and keylogging at the workplace was progression analysis. Such approaches conceptualize their object as writing in complex, dynamic, and co-adaptive contexts.

Writing research in the field of journalism, for example, sees newswriting as a reproductive process in which professionals contribute to globalized newsflows by transforming source texts into public target texts. This happens at collaborative digital workplaces (e.g., Hemmingway 2007; Schindler and Wolfe, this volume), in highly standardized formats and timeframes, and in recursive phases such as goal setting, planning, formulating, revising, and reading (Fig. 3). Conflicts between routine and creativity or speed and accuracy are to be expected. The micro-activities at individual workplaces influence and are influenced, on a meso-level, by organizational structures and workflows and, on a macro-level, by structures and processes in society at large (Jakobs and Spinuzzi, this volume).

Based on knowledge from such real-life writing research, writing education develops contextualized models of good writing practice, evaluates writing competence according to these models, and designs writing courses (e.g., Jakobs and Perrin 2008; Jones and Stubbe 2004; Olson 1987; Surma 2000).

In sum, applied linguistics offers a theoretically and empirically precise basis for theorizing and analyzing, for understanding and improving writing in real-life environments. In interdisciplinary collaboration, it offers to other scientific disciplines tools for precise analyses of language use – and benefits from their knowledge about all kinds of environments and contexts in which writing takes place. In transdisciplinary collaboration, moreover, applied linguistics develops and conducts in-depth research projects together with experts from practical fields, aiming at mutual learning across domains and disciplines. This understanding of AL-informed writing research shapes the profile of the present handbook.

2 Profile: The multi-perspective approach of this handbook

In this part, we explain the handbook's profile: why the volume focuses on professional rather than educational domains, why all the sections reach beyond traditional categories of writing research, and why every chapter is co-authored. We outline the content of each chapter in terms of main topics and related research gaps.

In line with the above definition of AL-informed writing research, the Handbook of Writing and Text Production provides a state-of-the-art overview of research into real-life writing and text production. Whereas the concept of *writing* refers to the activity of producing written language, *text production* includes multimodal, multi-semiotic sign complexes and the respective production processes. On both levels, the handbook draws on exemplary research projects to illustrate theories, methodologies, research frameworks, and research spaces and traditions. In all of the projects, writing and text production are investigated as socially relevant activities of language use.

This social relevance of writing and text production reaches far beyond education and academia, which, so far, have attracted most attention in writing research. This wider scope is reflected in all five sections of the handbook. The first section explains key approaches of theory and methodology that were developed to investigate writing and text production in general and its real-life forms in particular. The other sections focus on four main perspectives on writing and text production in context: authors, modes and media, genres, and domains. In doing so, they both explain and cross traditional boundaries between traditional approaches of writing research.

In order to foster multi-perspective approaches, every section has its own co-editors, renowned scholars in their specific field and perspective. The chapters, too, are co-authored by two internationally-recognized scholars, each from different academic traditions and research spaces (e.g., US-Asia, Australia-Africa, or Europe-Latin America). Across the chapters, this authorship policy aims at ensuring comparative and comprehensive coverage of research into writing and text production. Within the chapters, the multi-author policy prolonged the production process of some of the chapters, but fostered the emergence of fresh, innovative insights.

The next paragraphs summarize the sections and chapters of the book by focusing on their potential for explaining and crossing boundaries between traditions of writing research. In line with the handbook's structure, they take the readers from theory and methodology (2.1) to author perspectives (2.2), mode and media perspectives (2.3), genre perspectives (2.4), and domain perspectives (2.5).

2.1 Section I, Theory and methodology

- Chapter 2, Introduction:
Theory and methodology in text production research
EVA-MARIA JAKOBS & DANIEL PERRIN

This section explains the dynamics of text production research. It focuses on the interplay of sociocultural contexts with research paradigms, theories, models, and methodology. The emphasis is on process-oriented, socio-cognitive approaches and their potential to explain text production as situated language use within societal contexts.

- Chapter 3, Research paradigms:
Product, process, and social activity
PAUL PRIOR & STEVEN THORNE

Paul Prior and Steven Thorne offer an innovative approach to mapping research lines in and between complex research paradigms such as product, process, and social activity. They develop their concept in contrast to approaches that conceptualize the research as historical eras and/or the impact of the emergence of new approaches and paradigms. Thus, Prior and Thorne focus on writing and the manifold varieties of writing as an object of inquiry with the aim of mapping writing research through multi-dimensional profiling. The authors offer the map “tentatively and heuristically as a multidimensional topography of options” (p. 36). The options refer to a multi-dimensional set of continua: different objects of inquiry, epistemological stances, theoretical frameworks, kinds of data collection and data analysis, and means of representing the research. The authors illustrate the mapping method by applying the approach to a set of exemplary studies and research lines. The analysis shows that the mapping offers different outcomes: it allows us to locate studies in research fields and to find traditions of research on writing and text production, to identify similarities and differences between studies or research fields, and to show that certain studies initiated particular lines of research. In conclusion, the authors plead for a broad research framework that allows us to understand the complexity and diversity of writing phenomena by investigating and conceptualizing writing as a situated and mediated activity distributed across temporal, cognitive, social, and material environments and as part of semiotic ecologies.

- Chapter 4, Models:
Writing and text production processes
CHRISTIANE DONAHUE & THERESA LILLIS

Christiane Donahue and Theresa Lillis provide an overview of core models in contemporary writing research by describing the key assumptions and hypotheses as well as the potential and shortcomings with respect to future transdisciplinary research. They highlight four types of models: text-oriented models, didactic process models, (socio-)cognitive models, and social practices models. Text-oriented models

are mostly linguistically motivated constructions. The focus is on the completed text, sometimes viewed as an indication of its production. Related approaches and methods have mostly been developed in semantics, pragmatics, computational linguistics, and stylistics. Didactic process models are strongly influenced by didactic theories. They emphasize questions such as how people learn to write and do write, and how they can be taught to write effectively. The empirical focus is on aspects of writing, learning, and the author. (Socio-)cognitive models are strongly influenced by psychological approaches. Here, the focus is on the text producer, from the perspective of writing as an individual cognitive activity or of writing as a socially oriented individual activity. Socially oriented approaches view writers and text production as part of complex social systems, e.g. activity systems. Language – as activity itself or as written text – is conceptualized as an important tool of the system. Social practices models are influenced by ethnographic theories and methods, and focus on how people engage in writing and reading in everyday activity. The aim is to understand phenomena not only from the observer’s perspective but also from the participant’s own perspective.

- Chapter 5, Methodology:

From speaking about writing to tracking text production

ALMUTH GRÉSILLON & DANIEL PERRIN

Almuth Grésillon and Daniel Perrin discuss methodological issues of writing and text production research from an applied linguistics perspective. As they state, methodological decisions should be guided by at least two questions: which method fits which problem, and how should and can various methods be combined? Using the example of two methodologically complementary approaches, the authors explain why collecting data represents a key problem in the history of real-life writing research. The first approach, an ex-post analysis of literary writing in the tradition of Genetic Criticism, investigates the genesis of Heinrich Heine’s four-strophe poem “Lebensfahrt” (1843). Within the framework of progression analysis, the second approach investigates writing in journalism focusing on the interplay of language policy, norms, and practice in the newsrooms of an entire public service media organization (Idée Suisse Project). By discussing the two research examples, the authors derive quality criteria for selecting methods that help gather relevant information about real-life writing. Guided by these criteria, they develop a typology of the field’s state-of-the-art methods. Writing research projects often combine perspectives and methods: Grésillon and Perrin explain related challenges, for example, the interplay of macro and micro activity. Working with multi-method approaches requires methodologically pragmatic approaches and a distinctive meta-theoretical position towards ontology and epistemology. On the other hand, combining different methods fosters multi-perspective approaches to the objects under investigation. Grésillon and Perrin, therefore, propose a roadmap towards integral research of writing in real-life contexts that includes progress in methodology and methods in five dimensions.

2.2 Section II: Author perspectives

- Chapter 6, Introduction:
Author perspectives in text production research
KIRSTEN SCHINDLER & JOANNA WOLFE

The section explains writing from an *author* perspective: Who are the agents of text production, and how do they act in contemporary institutions of individual and organizational text production? The emphasis is on the interplay of socio-cultural contexts with authoring activities, author profiles, and multiple authorship.

- Chapter 7, Authorship and context:
Writing and text production as situated activities
ALEXANDRA GNACH & KATRINA POWELL

Alexandra Gnach and Katrina Powell examine the study of text production in relation to the ways that agency, author, and social context intersect, looking at who the agents of text production are and how they act in contemporary institutions of individual and organizational text production. They illustrate their approach with two research projects that are based on different objects of inquiry and methodological approaches. Whereas Gnach's project investigates the news production in Swiss television newsrooms, Powell's project examines literacy practices in a rural Virginia community in the 1930s. Further, Gnach and Powell describe, compare, and discuss conceptual, theoretical, and methodological frameworks. They emphasize the advantages of combining linguistic and ethnographic perspectives for multi-method approaches and applied research perspectives. In linguistic approaches, writing is seen as a communicative act embedded in a social context. The text production process, therefore, is influenced by the personality of the writer, his or her aims, the addressee, and his or her interpretation of the context. Ethnographers understand situated activity as a local, albeit contextualized form of dealing with constraints and enablements of social life in general, such as values, roles, status, rights, and duties. The combination of ethnographic methods with text and discourse analysis bridges the gap between micro (linguistic) and macro (social) perspectives on authorship and context and allows the building of a holistic understanding of their interplay.

- Chapter 8, Author profiles:
Awareness, competence, and skills
ANNE BEAUFORT & ANNA IÑESTA

Anne Beaufort and Anna Iñesta focus on writing expertise and expert writers. Both fields are complex but, as the authors point out, so far only a few researchers have attempted to broadly conceptualize writing expertise. Among these few are approaches that introduced the distinction between general writing skills and context-specific skills or identified different concepts of writing expertise. In the last decades, writing expertise has been discussed within a broad array of research interests, concepts and

approaches. As Beaufort and Iñesta state, the number of approaches is profuse and, moreover, each approach creates its unique terminology. Consequently, the authors develop a two-dimensional conceptual model of writing expertise based on their own research work: “(1) the kinds of knowledge writers need to draw from when working on a specific text and (2) the competencies writers need to perform when putting their knowledge into action” (p. 141). The model integrates a wide range of European and North American research and includes five knowledge domains. Writing expertise, moreover, depends on writers’ abilities to translate knowledge into competence. The authors distinguish five dimensions of writing competence: writing to construct and transform knowledge, to construct and project a social identity as writers and professionals, to engage in self-regulation or strategic decision-making, to establish a constructive and strategic (deferred) dialogue with other members of the discourse community, and to strategically transfer writing knowledge and skills across tasks.

- Chapter 9, Beyond single authors:
Organizational multi-authorship in collaborative writing
KIRSTEN SCHINDLER & JOANNA WOLFE

Kirsten Schindler and Joanna Wolfe define co-authorship and give a short historical overview of related research. They discuss properties and considerations of co-authored documents, and describe the impact and the potential of new technologies for new forms of co-authorship, including international collaborations that require co-authors to negotiate multilingual text production (Jakobs and Spinuzzi, this volume). Co-authorship first became a major area of interest in the early 1990s, when some researchers started to systematically scrutinize the one-author concept that, explicitly or implicitly, had dominated text production research. Recent research on collaborative writing is mostly ethnographically oriented and focuses on highly complex text production processes and documents. Key concepts of collaborative writing are: division of labor and ownership, such as collaborative strategies co-authors use to coordinate their efforts; interim planning documents that co-authors use to organize and manage their work; quality control and peer review by reviewing and commenting on a colleague’s writing; and conflict – a highly productive element allowing group members to debate and discuss ideas from multiple perspectives and try out alternative solutions to problems.

2.3 Section III: Mode and media perspectives

- Chapter 10, Introduction:
Mode and media perspectives in text production research
DANIEL PERRIN

The section explains writing from a *mode and media* perspective: How are language, other semiotic modes, and media used and combined in contemporary institutions

of individual, organizational, and societal text production? The emphasis is on the interplay of socio-cultural contexts with the modes' functions in multimodal text production and the media's role in digital mobility.

- Chapter 11, Production modes:
Writing as materializing thoughts
GEERT JACOBS & DANIEL PERRIN

Geert Jacobs and Daniel Perrin systematize and discuss research on writing and text production as a highly interrelated mode of language use. They explain how the modes of writing and thinking interact with feeling and acting, with emotions and embodiment. In a social frame, writing detaches thoughts and verbalized emotions from writers and allows for public discourse, social synchronization, and shared knowledge building. In a linguistic frame, this interplay of individual and social language use inseparably combines writing with other modes of language use, such as reading, speaking, and listening. The chapter starts with two examples of professional writing that complement each other: one is about writing in financial communication, the other about *not* writing in public discourse. These examples illustrate the transition from a detached to an integrative view of writing in text production research. Then, a framework for the integrative analysis of writing as a key mode of language use is developed. Within this framework, challenges for and controversial issues of contemporary writing research are identified. The chapter concludes by outlining what such research can contribute to and benefit from applied linguistics and by sketching a related research roadmap.

- Chapter 12, Production media:
Writing as using tools in media convergent environments
ROBERT DALE & CERSTIN MAHLOW

Robert Dale and Cerstin Mahlow focus on single-author situations. They discuss how media as tools and environments can support writers and how tools can affect writing and text production processes. Writing and text production always include media choices; the history of writing is also a history of writing tools. The contribution offers a broad overview of the impact and potential of machine-based tools for writing, text production, and resulting products. Dale and Mahlow review existing work and approaches by discussing their potential and weaknesses. Some tools support the writer on various levels at different phases of the writing process, for example spell checking, grammar checking, and style checking. These tools, however, merely help to put the finishing touches to the written product. They are based on natural language processing techniques that support the writer by analyzing the written text and by suggesting ways to improve the product. Software can also support very specific aspects of the writing process such as text entry, creating and supporting genre-specific text structures, making references, or offering prefabricated parts and templates. Digital environments can do more than just support writers: software systems allow

them to automate the complete text production process, based on facts provided by humans or retrieved from databases or an existing human-produced text serving as the basis for another text. Examples of fully automated text production are the automatic generation of weather forecasts or automatic indexing and abstracting.

- Chapter 13, Beyond single modes and media:
Writing as multimodal text production

TROY HICKS & DANIEL PERRIN

Troy Hicks and Daniel Perrin focus on new, hybrid forms of writing and text production. The new forms of digital writing cross traditional boundaries between speech and text, incorporate audio, video, and images, and occur in a digitally connected globalized context. Hicks and Perrin use the example of Wikipedia to illustrate transitions from a narrow to a broader orientation in writing research and develop a framework for the state-of-the-art analysis of writing as a focused and incidental, by-the-way activity of producing editable and storable multimodal communication offers. Wikipedia articles are expected to offer clear, concise, and, mostly, referenced information. This requires focused writing. The content is created collaboratively by a worldwide team of authors and editors who co-construct meaning and share knowledge. The outcomes include main pages (articles) as well as “accompanying talk” (p. 234). The community-based character of wikis encourages Web users to edit articles, to comment on them and to understand the production process behind an article by studying its history. Both comment and history pages create space for writing-by-the-way that impacts the focused writing on the main page. As Hicks and Perrin state, research that investigates how digital writing functions in today’s world can learn and profit from a number of scholarly traditions which are related to applied linguistics in various ways.

2.4 Section IV: Genre perspectives

- Chapter 14, Introduction:
Genre perspectives in text production research

CHARLES BAZERMAN & AMY DEVITT

This section explains writing from a *genre* perspective: How are textual patterns on all levels of complexity used, varied, and altered in contemporary institutions of individual, organizational, and societal text production? The emphasis is on the interplay of socio-cultural contexts with reproduction processes of genres, their continuous development, and their role in public discourse.

- Chapter 15, Reproducing genres:
Pattern-related writing
AMY DEVITT & MARY JO REIFF

Amy Devitt and Mary Jo Reiff investigate how the regularities of genres influence the text production process and the formal text characteristics. The focus is on how genres have been associated with formal qualities of textual products and concepts developed in linguistic research areas such as ESL, ESP, and rhetorical genre studies. While ESL- and ESP-related research is mostly interested in textual patterns and rhetorical moves, rhetorical studies emphasize genres as typified recurrent situations rather than textual patterns. Genres are seen as social norms that promote the socialization of novices. Devitt and Reiff use the case of tax accounting genres to examine how writers reproduce specific genres' textual patterns within socially and culturally defined norms. They show that writers not only reproduce genres but also use their conventions individually by adapting existing genres to new relationships and purposes. Furthermore, they look at how learners acquire genre-related norms, for example by adapting previous genre knowledge to new contexts. The related research indicates that comfort with and willingness to deploy, transform, and abandon discursive resources and conventions can help students to access and adapt new writing contexts.

- Chapter 16, Producing genres:
Pattern variation and genre development
CAROL BERKENKOTTER & MARTIN LUGINBÜHL

Carol Berkenkotter and Martin Luginbühl review work on the motives and situational dynamics that lead to genre change on micro and macro levels of writing. In different traditions and geographical approaches, genre definitions are based on the observation that communicative settings and communicative goals are related to conventions of language use. As habitualized and conventionalized patterns of language use, genres are recurrent, socially situated, and dynamic. The authors explain genres as patterns for text products and related production processes as well as cultural artifacts, constituting and reflecting situational and cultural change. They see genre choice and genre form as key sites for the analysis of culture. Based on their work, the authors show how a genre's form, its variation and change can be related to news cultures and changing paradigms. They illustrate this by giving two examples: genre change in television news shows over time and genre variation in psychiatric case reports in the 19th century. The cases show that new genres usually emerge from already existing genres. Central questions are why and how genres vary and change. The authors discuss these questions by focusing on genres as cultural artifacts. They give an overview of related approaches, and discuss forms of variation and change. Berkenkotter and Luginbühl state that genre change depends on very different, interacting, and partially interrelated factors, and that a genre is most commonly set up and appropriated by drawing on existing genres from its own or a foreign culture.

- Chapter 17, Beyond single genres:
Pattern mapping in global communication

JACK ANDERSEN, CHARLES BAZERMAN & JESPER SCHNEIDER

Jack Andersen, Charles Bazerman and Jesper Schneider discuss the role of genres as parts of large dynamic systems of human activities and ways of observing the production of genre texts within these systems. The overview focuses on approaches in the fields of rhetoric and composition on the one hand and information science on the other. The authors review work that maps genres as part of larger systems and social formations. In the literature, the collections are described as sets, systems, chains, colonies, repertoires, suites, and ecologies, to emphasize different aspects of their systematic relations. Related studies focus on specific networks; they emphasize the local character of text production, produced for a certain group in a certain domain, institution or geographic region, or in an international, digitally connected context. The embedding social system reinforces the familiarity, patterning, meaning, and even recognizable and meaningful variation of the involved genres and locates “the texts within groupings of readers, relations to other texts, and larger nexuses of organized activities, for which those genres are produced” (p. 305), to carry out socially-located activities. The system affects the text production process in various ways. It shapes the underlying motives, resources, channels of circulation, and consequences of text production. Often, genres are part of social institutions and regulated as part of their stabilization. In this view, they are associated with specific roles, tasks and functions, with specific kinds of information and information flows.

2.5 Section V: Domain perspectives

- Chapter 18, Introduction:
Domain perspectives in text production research

EVA-MARIA JAKOBS & CLAY SPINUZZI

This section explains writing from a *domain* perspective: How do domains shape and how are they shaped by contemporary institutions of individual and organizational text production? The emphasis is on the domain specifics of educational and professional writing, and domains’ role in life-long learning and societal mobility.

- Chapter 19, Learning domains:
Writing and life-long learning

MYA POE & MARY SCOTT

Mya Poe and Mary Scott explain how connections between writing, lifelong learning, and social mobility have been investigated in the United Kingdom and the United States across three sites – home, school, and work. They draw on Engeström’s theory of vertical learning, Bourdieu’s theory of capital, and Bernstein’s theory of pedagogic device. As the authors state, this pathway of learning is neither inevitable nor unidi-

rectional, but the transition points do provide opportunities to develop vertical expertise: people learn writing skills as they progress from home to school to work. Highly industrialized countries with a strong knowledge economy and a sharp rise in national and international migration depend on educated citizens and their ability to adapt changing workplace environments by constantly upgrading their knowledge, skills, and abilities. Poe and Scott discuss why and under what conditions writing allows for social mobility in some contexts and not in others. Whereas writing research based on sociocultural theories of learning tends to resist defined models of development or predictive analysis, research from the field suggests insights into the relationship of writing and lifelong learning. Poe and Scott discuss three findings: vertical learning occurs along with horizontal learning within and across domains; social and cultural contexts influence the conditions under which learning occurs and, thus, influence the possibilities of social mobility; and writing is a far-reaching, flexible concept that operates with other semiotic resources which are available to individuals. Research on social mobility, therefore, also requires investigation beyond traditional textual artifacts.

- Chapter 20, Professional domains:
Writing as creation of economic value
EVA-MARIA JAKOBS & CLAY SPINUZZI

Eva-Maria Jakobs and Clay Spinuzzi describe how writing has been and is used to create economic value in professional domains. Writing has its origins in economic activity, and many of its major developments represent attempts to create economic value within changing information technologies, work organization, and other capabilities and relationships. Economic writing developed more quickly and spread further than other forms of writing. In their overview of writing in professional domains, Jakobs and Spinuzzi discuss related research in North America and Europe, and important concepts of workplace writing such as: mental models of writing experts and experts who write; document cycling; professional writing tasks; trends toward textualization; work-life separation; automatization versus customization; social media in companies; and the integration of distributed work into media environments. They argue that three emerging trends will shape writing in the near future: integrated writers, who own processes and who routinely combine knowledge, methods, and information with their work on those processes; integrated writing, in which products are customized through text to create specific value for a customer; and the integration of distributed work, which involves tying together distributed, disparate people and systems so that information can flow through, and bring value to, different contexts (e.g. by social media).

- Chapter 21, Beyond single domains:
Writing boundary crossing

DAVID OAKEY & DAVID RUSSELL

David Oakey and David Russell focus on the fact that lifelong engagement in a single domain is becoming rarer: people must cross domains more frequently and change profession and career more often than ever. As a consequence, they must learn to act in a world of different practices, demands, values, and writing tasks. In most cases they are not trained to meet the demands of different workplaces and related writing tasks, but must cross the boundary themselves. Thanks to telecommunications, digital technologies, and air travel, people are more connected across domains and geographies than ever before. While Poe and Scott discuss vertical learning (Poe and Scott, this volume), Oakey and Russell look at horizontal learning, and in particular the unexpected context crossing that occurs when people must cross disciplines, switch careers, or deal with completely foreign bureaucracies as refugees. In their contribution, the authors focus on three boundary-crossings and related writing competencies: crossing professional domains through multi-, inter- and transdisciplinary text production, primarily in research settings; crossing geographic frontiers through the globalization of education and work; and crossing professional boundaries through personal career transitions due to unexpected changes. They emphasize the newness of studies of boundary crossing and discuss the difficulties in formulating such studies, not least because the boundaries themselves are not clearly fixed.

3 White spots: Research roadmap on meta and object layers

In this last part of our introduction, we summarize the lessons learned from the handbook production. In order to identify challenges for future research, we outline a research roadmap that systematizes the main strengths and shortcomings of contemporary research into writing and text production as explained throughout the handbook and summarized in the above excerpts (2.1–2.5)

In designing the map, we distinguish between a meta-layer of doing writing research (3.1) and an object layer of the research topic itself: the contextualized, situated activity of writing and text production. In line with the understanding of writing as contextualized activity, the object layer of the map splits up into a macro level of contextual range (3.2), and a micro level of linguistic activities (3.3).

3.1 Challenges on the meta-layer of doing research

Investigating the complexity and dynamics of real-life writing and text production in order to solve practically relevant problems requires multimethod approaches (Grésillon and Perrin, this volume) and transdisciplinary integration of disciplines and research traditions (Oakey and Russell, this volume). In-depth analyses of single but complex cases (Prior and Thorne, this volume) have to be combined with procedures of sound generalization in order to connect micro and macro levels of the research object.

- In addition to applied linguistics, the disciplines and traditions mentioned throughout the handbook include: writing studies, rhetoric and composition, new literacy studies; digital humanities, human-computer interface design, computer linguistics, informatics, and information science; semiotics, text linguistics, and gesture studies; sociolinguistics and sociology; anthropology and ethnomethodological accounts of social interaction; psycholinguistics and cognitive and sociocultural psychology; life history studies, education, and politics. Mapping theories and combining methods from such disciplines in order to adequately reconstruct the complexity of writing is one of the key challenges of future writing research (Andersen, Bazerman, and Schneider; Oakey and Russell; Prior and Thorne, this volume).
- Reconstructing and understanding real-life writing in a way that both theory and practice can benefit from the results includes connecting the micro level of situated activities with the macro level of social structures and processes. For example, it is only by revealing the interplay between writers' thoughts and actions on the one hand and their organizational, professional, cultural, and social conditions and impact on the other that writing research can contribute to an empirically based improvement of writing education (Beaufort and Iñesta; Berkenkotter and Luginbühl; Poe and Scott, this volume). Elaborating on such connections between micro and macro levels of real-life writing requires longitudinal studies (Oakey and Russell, this volume) and an understanding of writing as a complex, multimodal enterprise (Donahue and Lillis, this volume) in semiotic ecologies (Prior and Thorne, this volume).

As can be seen from the above examples, shaping the meta layer of writing research towards multi-perspective insights of adequate depth and breadth helps researchers develop, on the object layer, a more precise and systematic representation of writing in its complex, nested real-life contexts.

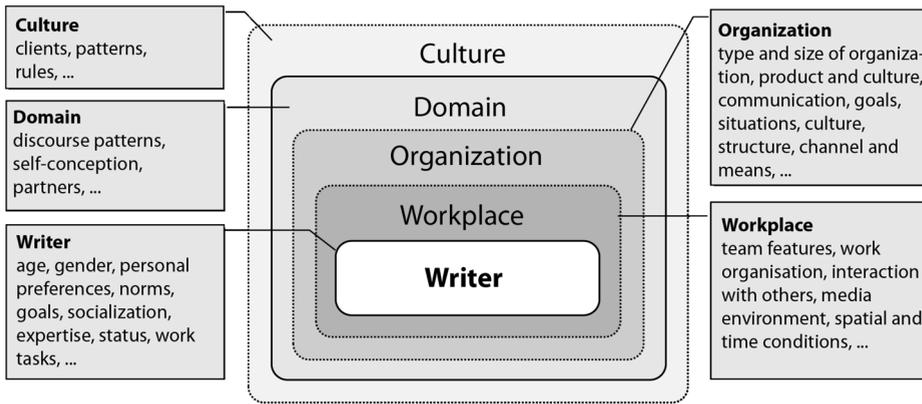


Figure 2: A systematic overview of the nested environments of writing (Jakobs 2007)

3.2 Challenges at the macro level of contextual range

On the level of the research object itself, our roadmap highlights, first of all, the need for theoretically sound contextualization. Future writing research has to develop a more inclusive and systematic understanding of the environments in which writing takes place and with which it interacts. Contextual dynamics emerge in the interaction of writing activities with these environments.

Of course, from an ontological point of view, the environments themselves are infinitely complex. Appropriate epistemological reductions of the complexity have to take into account the theoretical and practical salience of the environments and their distinction and constellation. The context model of interacting factors by Jakobs (2007) offers an empirically grounded approach to systematic contextualization. It distinguishes between five ranges of environments and related contextual enablements and constraints: culture, domain, organization, workplace, and writer (Fig. 2).

- *Culture*-related enablements and constraints include the values and norms of society at large in which professional writing occurs; its writing-related ethical norms and legal rules and circumstances (e.g., intellectual property, liability for written communication); its zeitgeist esthetics and domain-crossing concepts of well-formulated texts; ... (Berkenkotter and Luginbühl; Devitt and Reiff; Oakey and Russell, this volume).
- *Domain*-related enablements and constraints include the values and norms of specific domains (such as industries and branches) in which professional writing occurs; their professional cultures and communicative expectations; their standards, patterns, and routines; their institutions of professional education and

development, ... (Jakobs and Spinuzzi; Oakey and Russell; Poe and Scott, this volume).

- *Organization*-related enablements and constraints include a company's resources such as culture, orientation, value, strategies, targets, finance, quality expectations, vertical and horizontal interaction relations, leadership styles, workflows, information flows, genre ecologies, media and document management, communication policies, style guides, ... (Andersen, Bazerman, and Schneider; Grésillon and Perrin; Jakobs and Spinuzzi; Oakey and Russell, this volume).
- *Workplace*-related enablements and constraints include organizational conditions on local levels, such as hierarchical aspects, interactions with others, team features, workflows, established practices, time and financial budget, instructions, genre sets. Moreover, the workplace is characterized by material conditions such as space, media, light, air, noise; ... (Mahlow and Dale, this volume).
- *Writer*-related enablements and constraints include the writer's individual properties such as age, gender, sociocultural background and education, motives, goals, and experiences, literacy, and factual competencies; his or her relationship to others; his or her position, status, and writer roles; the given task and its mental representation; ... (Beaufort and Iñesta; Gnach and Powell; Schindler and Wolfe, this volume).

As the model indicates, environments of these five ranges can be considered as nested: writers are situated within workplaces, which are situated within organizations, and so forth. Throughout the ranges, enablements and constraints interact. The review of the state-of-the-art writing research, as discussed in this handbook, gives clear evidence that future research will have to face the challenges of this interactive, dynamic contextualization. Therefore, a roadmap of writing research on the macro level indicates hot topics along all ranges of environments and contexts. Shortcomings include:

- Within the cultural range, increasing social mobility is of highest relevance for AL-informed writing research. How can writers learn to transform knowledge about writing, in particular about genres, when moving from one domain to another (Devitt and Reiff; Poe and Scott; Oakey and Russell, this volume)?
- Within the domain range, entire domains have been under-investigated so far, such as church, military, trade, music, or sports (Jakobs and Spinuzzi, this volume). Writing activities in these domains are hard to access for researchers, but crucial for the coherence and development of society at large, within and across domains.
- Within the organizational range, research has neglected key roles of socially relevant writing. One example is ghostwriting. Ghostwriters are widespread in contexts of organizational power, e.g., in industry and politics.
- Within and beyond the workplace range, value creation in writing at work, for example as outlined in Fig. 1 of this introduction, is completely under-researched

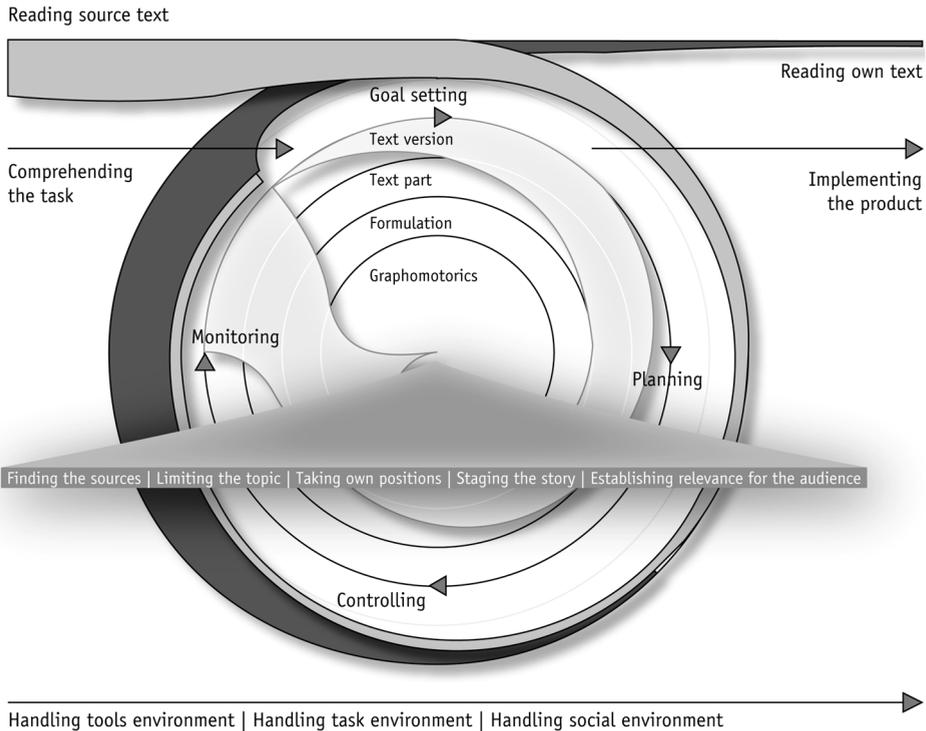


Figure 3: The dynamic system of situated text production (Perrin 2013)

(Grésillon and Perrin; Jakobs and Spinuzzi; Oakey and Russel, this volume). This is astonishing, given the fact that more and more workplaces in the world are oriented towards semiotic value creation.

3.3 Challenges at the micro level of activities

Addressing the direct environment of the writer him- or herself takes us from a macro to a micro model. It shows the activity fields of real-life writing and outlines their dynamics. The model was developed in research projects where writing in the workplace was investigated using grounded theory and detailed multimethod analyses of mental, material, and social micro activities of collaborative writing (Grésillon and Perrin, this volume). In this model, writing itself develops as a helix of four key activities, embedded in twelve flanking activities of text production (Fig. 3).

- In an interface view, writing begins when writers understand and accept a text production task (*defining the task*) and ends when they send the results of their

work along the production chain (*implementing the product*). At these main interfaces of professional writing, writers have to, for example, deal with time and space restrictions, editorial policies, and organizational workflows. In between, they handle *tool environments*, *task environments*, and *social environments*. For example, they cope with computer crashes, solve copyright problems, and negotiate with clients, colleagues, and superiors.

- In the inner circle of the writing process, four phases recur and overlap, each dominated by activities which contribute, at their specific levels, to the incremental production of the text. *Goal setting* typically focuses on the text as a whole. Planning focusses on sequences of text parts, such as paragraphs, and *controlling* on the formulations under construction. *Monitoring*, in contrast, traces the results of the production process throughout all of the levels. Reading processes (*source reading* and *product reading*) interact with writing processes on various time frames and scales (from *grapheme* to *text* version levels).
- The activities in the last five fields focus on the product only. By *finding the sources*, writers decide whose voices appear in a text. Practices include accessing and combining or omitting contradictory sources and their communicational offers. Practices of *limiting the topic* and *taking their own positions* include generating, picking up, broadening, or narrowing topics – and hiding or showing stance in a text. By *staging the story* and *establishing relevance for the audience*, writers decide which semiotic means are used in the dramaturgy of a text and what prior knowledge is required to understand it.

As the model indicates, all activities of real-life writing can be coded in one or several of the 16 fields. Together, the fields cover an outer frame of interfaces to higher-level processes and environments, an inner circle of process-oriented writing activities, and a set of activities with direct impact on the emerging text product only. The activities interact with one another and, of course, with environments of diverse ranges (Fig. 2). The review of the state-of-the-art writing research in this handbook points at shortcomings in all three sets of activity fields. A roadmap of writing research at the micro level includes:

- From an interface view of text production, research so far lacks approaches to a broader understanding of real-life writing activities. Producing written texts can start on a walk around the lake (Prior and Thorne, this volume), include negotiating with co-authors who speak and write different languages (Schindler and Wolfe, this volume), and fail due to inappropriate software (Dale and Mahlow; Jakobs and Spinuzzi, this volume).
- Regarding the inner circle activities of the writing process, understanding the interplay of writing and thinking could benefit from more – and more precise – analyses of mental, material, and social activity throughout the writing phases (Jacobs and Perrin, this volume). Given the increasing relevance of multimodal

and distributed text production environments such as wikipedia, writing phases such as controlling and monitoring need revisiting (Hicks and Perrin, this volume).

- Product-oriented activities, too, dramatically change with ubiquitous mobile networks, social media, and globalized communication (Andersen, Bazerman, and Schneider; Jakobs and Spinuzzi, this volume). The ongoing variation of activities such as quoting sources and expressing stance leads to continuous genre adaptation and change. Hence the call for research into the dynamics of genres (Berkenkotter and Luginbühl; Devitt and Reiff, this volume) and into the interplay of routines and emergence in writing processes (Grésillon and Perrin, this volume).

In sum, applied linguistics offers other disciplines and research traditions a rich repertoire of theoretical and methodological approaches. The value AL adds to writing research consists of both systematic contextualization and precise analysis of the linguistic activities – the kernel – of writing and text production in semiotic ecologies. In providing a concise and vivid overview of the state-of-the-art research into real-life writing throughout socially relevant domains, this handbook draws, at the same time, a roadmap of shortcomings. We hope that it helps our readers to address promising questions in this “exciting time for writing research” (Lillis 2013: 177).

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