16 English for Research Publication Purposes

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Introduction

Academic writing for research publication takes place around the globe, involving, according to a recent account, 5.5 million scholars, 2,000 publishers and 17,500 research/higher education institutions (Lillis and Curry 2010). A number of factors have come together to create this publishing phenomenon. First, with the rapid development of university education and research internationally, there are now more and more university faculty members and research students wishing to publish their findings. Second, as a result of the internationalization of research – facilitated by global communication networks supported by the internet and ease of international travel – universities are competing globally with each other to produce more and more research publications, a process which is encouraged by the establishment of international league tables comparing universities, with research output being an important metric. Third, as a result of the first two factors, international publication is becoming more and more often a requirement of doctoral or even master's degree graduation. Fourth and last, but by no means least, given that English is now widely accepted as the international language of research, there is a widely accepted lingua franca to facilitate this process.

As an indication of the preeminence of English in research, using statistics from Lillis and Curry (2010) again, out of the 66,166 academic periodicals included in *Ulrich's Periodicals Directory*, (2009) 67 percent use some or all English; and within the Institute for Scientific Information (ISI), which includes the "top" journals, more than 95 percent of natural science journals and 90 percent of social science journals are published in all or some English (Lillis and Curry 2010). Again,

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while a lot of this research is published by Anglophones, more and more is being published now by non-Anglophone scholars, or, rather, scholars who use English as their second, or professional, language, sometimes referred to as EAL (English as an additional language) writers.

To take just one example country where this is happening, Pérez-Llantada, Gibson, and Plo (2011) present the case of Spain. Pérez-Llantada et al. note that Spain, like many other countries, is increasingly impacted by the dominance of English. As one indicator of this, they note that there has been a decline in publication in Spanish language journals – from 5,309 articles in 1996 to 2,744 in 2006 – and a corresponding increase in English-language publications – from 19,820 papers in 1996 to 39,115 in 2006. Pérez-Llantada et al. adduce three reasons for this. First, and most important, is the Spanish academic reward system, which favors international publication. One of the criteria for promotion, for example, is publications in indexed journals and these are invariably published in English. Second, the increasing internationalization of teaching and research in Spain, has led to increased international academic exchange. Third, is the increasing amount of teaching that is conducted in English, as a result of student exchange programs, which require English as a lingua franca. The situation in Spain described by Pérez-Llantada et al. is not unlike that in many other countries.

There are tremendous benefits to this spread of English as the language of research. It means that scholars from all countries are able to access and publish in this international language. Ferguson (2007: 13) cites De Swaan's (2001) account of the impact of "external networks" in language spread:

> Languages . . . do not diminish in utility with use: on the contrary, the more speakers a language gains, the greater the potential number of interlocutors, the greater the production of texts, and the greater the utility of the language to all those already proficient in it.

So, extrapolating to research publication, the greater the number of scholars using English, the more research can be disseminated (to researchers who know English), and the more that research is disseminated in English, the more scholars will be encouraged to publish in English. The process is thus self-perpetuating. Ferguson takes the example of an academic journal *Angewandte Chemie*, which switched from publication in German to English. When the journal retitled itself as *Applied Chemistry*, there was a greater incentive for researchers to publish in English. Thus English is a self-perpetuating force; once it establishes a critical mass of users, more and more users are attracted to it.

Of course, there is a negative side to this: those scholars who do not have English will increasingly be excluded and those journals which cease to publish in particular languages will impoverish those languages in a process which Ferguson labels "domain loss" (see also Salager-Meyer 2008; Swales 1997; Tardy 2004). Furthermore, work not published in international English journals may be undervalued or ignored (a phenomenon referred to by Gibbs [1995] as "lost science") (see S. Cho 2004; Flowerdew 2001). And, finally, the Anglo-American discursive norms of journals may discriminate against the discursive norms of other languages (de Swaan 2001) and not accept what are perceived to be linguistic idiosyncrasies, or "non-standard" English (Ammon 2000: 112).

Inequalities in Academic Publishing

This brings us to consider the disparities within academic publishing. Within the international publishing "game" (Casanave 2002), there are various inequalities – Salager-Meyer (2008: 121) refers to "the stark disparities and inequities that exist in the world of scholarly publishing" – and various parameters have been applied to explain them. Importantly for this chapter, one disadvantage relates to language. Clearly, the Spanish scholars in Pérez-Llantada et al.'s example cited above are at a disadvantage vis-à-vis Anglophone scholars who will have acquired English as part of their upbringing, while Spanish scholars may have had only limited instruction in English. Within Kachru's (1992) model of the three concentric circles of English, Spain and other European countries, as well as China, Japan and the countries of Latin America, would be members of the outer circle, of those countries where English has only recently been introduced and does not have any historic tradition. Few people in these countries, historically, would be proficient in English. Countries in the expanding circle, those countries where English has a historic role – countries such as Hong Kong, India, Nigeria, Pakistan, Singapore – would likely find publication in English easier, English having perhaps already been established under the colonial regime. Those who would have least difficulty would be those for whom English is their native language, those from the inner circle countries, most notably Australia, Canada, Great Britain, and the United States.

Ferguson (2007: 20) uses a metaphor from economics, that of "location rent," to describe the disparity between Anglophone and EAL writers. Anglophone scholars, he argues, benefit from a resource, the production costs for which, they contribute very little to. EAL writers (and their governments and tax-payers who pay for their education), on the other hand, are required to spend more time and money acquiring this additional resource. Similarly, Van Parijs (2007) uses a different metaphor, describing Anglophone scholars as benefitting from a "free ride" when it comes to writing for publication. In addition to the cost of educating EAL writers, such writers require more time and money than their Anglophone counterparts in the actual act of writing. It is likely to take them longer to read and write, they may have to pay for editors and proofreaders and, other things being equal, the negotiating that they need to do with reviewers and editors is likely to be longer (Burrough-Boenisch 2003; Flowerdew 1999b; Lillis and Curry 2010). This is without mentioning the overlooked emotional burden that having to perform and be evaluated in an additional language carries with it (Flowerdew 2008).

Various surveys highlight this burden of having to write in a second language. Of the 585 Cantonese L1 academics in a survey I conducted (Flowerdew 1999a), over two-thirds felt that they were at a disadvantage compared with L1 writers in writing for publication. Similarly, Li's (2002) survey of mainland Chinese doctoral researchers discovered that almost 80 percent of these apprentice scholars felt themselves to be at a disadvantage. In a very recent study conducted by Ferguson, Pérez-Llantada, and Plo (2011), out of the 300 Spanish academics surveyed, 95 percent agreed that native speakers are at an advantage in international publishing.

In spite of the importance of this language disadvantage, some have argued that language is not the primary problem EAL scholars have in publication. In a study of reviewers' comments on submissions to *English for Specific Purposes*, Belcher (2007) has argued that language is not the major impediment to these writers. Instead, reviewers are more likely to mention a study's research design or literature review. Those submissions that are successful, Belcher argues, come from scholars who are willing to revise their articles and resubmit them, sometimes repeatedly, regardless of the language background of the writer. It needs to be borne in mind here, however, that submissions to *English for Specific Purposes* are likely to come from more proficient users of the English language than from scholars working in other, non-linguistic, fields.

One thing that seems to be true is that more and more EAL writers are publishing and becoming members of the editorial boards of international journals than was the case two or three decades ago. This is a point that has been made by Master (1999) with regard to papers published in *English for Specific Purposes* and by Swales (2004) with regard to *TESOL Quarterly*. Again, though, these are applied linguistics journals. Ferguson states that the bibliometric evidence is unclear on the success or otherwise of L2 writers, but that it does not support the argument that L2 scholars cannot succeed. He cites Wood (2001) who, based on data from *Nature* and *Science*, established that during one year (1997–8), 45.6 percent of writers were from L2 backgrounds. But then again, as Salager-Meyer, (2008) has noted, not all EAL writers are the same; some have had more privileges, such as living or studying in Anglophone countries, than others who have not benefitted in such a way. In the absence of statistical data on acceptance (and rejection) rates from international journals, the jury is still out on whether EAL writers suffer worse than L1 writers. Nevertheless, a warning from Hyland (2007: 87) needs to be heeded. Hyland writes that, "[in] a context where editors are overwhelmed with submissions and are often looking for reasons to reject manuscripts, non-standard language may serve as good a reason as any to justify this." In addition, this discussion of the success and failure rate of EAL writers fails to consider all of those scholars who never write for publication in English or who have given up doing so, because of language difficulties.

Another disadvantage that peripheral scholars have with regard to language – which, in fact, from a different perspective, might be considered an advantage and a privilege (Kramsch 1997) – is that they may be expected to write in two languages. As well as writing for publication in English, they may be expected to write for the local community in their first language. The pressures and dilemmas arising from such a situation are well brought out by Casanave (1998) in her study of Japanese scholars who return to Japan after doctoral study in the United States and by Shi (2002) in her study of the writing practices of Chinese scholars who have returned to China from the West.

Cutting across this language parameter of disadvantage is another parameter, that of the center and the periphery (Galtung 1971; Wallerstein 1974). Center and periphery is a model in political economy which claims that the countries in the "center" – the core industrial developed capitalist states focussed on capital-intensive industries – dominate and make dependent on them the "periphery" states – which act as mere purveyors of raw materials and producers of labour-intensive low quality goods. Although it is not impossible to move from a periphery situation to a center one, it is extremely difficult. In these terms, with regard to *English for research publication purposes* (ERPP), publication would take place unproblematically in the center countries, while it would be much more problematic in the periphery.

This dichotomy has been applied by Canagarajah (2002), himself a periphery scholar, in so far as he began his career in Jaffna, Sri Lanka (although he is now based in the United States). Based on his own experience and that of his colleagues in Jaffna, Canagarajah (1996, 2002) has described the many difficulties experienced by periphery scholars who want to publish in center journals. Periphery scholars may have difficulty not only with the English language. They may not have access to the latest books or journals; they may not have access to adequate, if any, research funding; they may have inadequate physical research facilities such as laboratories; and their university systems may not be structured in such a way as to encourage publication in international journals or even publication at all.

Another term used by some writers on academic publishing to refer to less privileged academics is that of "off-network" (Belcher 2007; Ferguson 2007; Swales 1987, 2004). This term draws attention to an important feature of successful international publication, the need for access to networks of people who can facilitate the process in order to act as a bridge between the center and the periphery (Lillis and Curry 2010). Issues concerning periphery, or off-network, scholars have been investigated in a range of geographical contexts including Hong Kong (see below), Korea (D. W. Cho 2009; S. Cho 2004), Poland (Duszak and Lewkowicz 2008), PRC (see below), Venezuela (Salager-Meyer 2008), Sudan (El Malik and Nesi 2008) and countries on the periphery of the European Union (Lillis and Curry 2010, see below).

All of the disadvantages for EAL writers, which have been outlined above, give rise to the need for measures to alleviate them. It is here that there is an important role for the English for specific purposes (ESP) researcher and practitioner. This can take the form of researching the specific nature of the favored target genre of the research community, the research article (RA); in investigating the social situation in which scholarly writers find themselves; and in applying the findings of this research to pedagogic intervention. These issues of research and pedagogy will take up the remainder of this chapter.

Approaches to Theory in ERPP

Discourse analysis

Much work has been done in ESP in describing the genre of the RA in rhetorical and linguistic terms. (Space precludes a discussion here of other members of the "genre set" that go with the RA, such as conference abstracts, conference presentations, submission letters, referee's reports, editorial letters, etc., see Räisänen 2002). This work, which can be broadly referred to as discourse analysis, has been conducted under the labels of genre analysis, corpus-based discourse analysis, and contrastive rhetoric (also referred to as intercultural rhetoric), among others. The relevance of this work to ERPP is that the more knowledge that there is available about the structure of the RA the more effective will be ESP practitioners in any pedagogical intervention that they might undertake in assisting writers – EAL writers, in particular, but also L1 writers – in writing effectively for publication. Other chapters in this volume review this work more thoroughly e.g. Paltridge this volume; Parkinson this volume), but studies specifically focussed on the RA can be briefly mentioned here.

Research on genre has shown how academic language is subject to systematic generic and disciplinary variation (e.g. Bhatia 1993; Hyland 2000; Swales 1990). Particularly worthy of note in the context of this chapter is the huge amount of work that, following Swales (1990), has been devoted to the research article. Swales' model for research article introductions, for example, has been further investigated by e.g. Anthony (1999), Nwogu (1990), Paltridge (1994), and Samraj (2002). Further work has focussed on other parts of the RA, e.g. discussion sections (e. g. Dudley-Evans 1994; Holmes 1997; Lewin and Fine 1996; Peacock 2002), results sections (e.g. Brett 1994; Bruce 2009; Kanoksilapathan 2007; Williams 1999; Yang and Allison 2003), and abstracts (e.g. Hyland and Tse 2005; Lorés Sanz 2004; Salager-Meyer 1992; Santos 1996). A main focus of this work is on schematic structure, the prototypical structural patterns that make up the genre and its parts, but work has also been done on lexico-grammar, how the parts (moves) are realized linguistically. Other features of the RA that have been investigated include metadiscourse (e.g. Hyland 1998), politeness (e.g. Myers 1989 and citation conventions (e.g. Dahl 2004; Hyland 1999, Thompson and Tribble 2001), among others.

Work on the RA has also been done within the contrastive rhetoric paradigm (e.g. Ahmad 1997; Burgess 2002; Dahl 2004; Lee 2000; Melander 1998; Melander, Swales, and Fredrickson 1997). The idea here is that writers from one language background may transfer features of the RA in their L1 to their writing in English. Knowledge of these likely areas of transfer can be focussed upon in any pedagogic intervention. Interestingly, contrastive rhetoric has been used to investigate some other more occluded professional academic genres (see e.g. Connor and Mauranen 1999; Yakhontova 2002) which space does not allow for any sort of detailed treatment of here.

Social constructivism and situated learning theory

In terms of how individuals actually go about writing for publication – the writing process, as opposed to the product, which is the focus of discourse analysis – the prevalent theoretical constructs for ERPP research are those of social constructivism (Bruffee 1986) and situated learning (Lave and Wenger 1991). These interrelated theories view writing as much broader than just "knowing various language structures and discourse strategies" (Grabe and Kaplan 1996). Writing is viewed by these theories as a situated social practice, involving various networks and communities. Individuals write in order to become members of communities of researchers and maintain relations with those communities. In order to become proficient ERPP practitioners, individuals need to learn not just the mechanics of writing, but how to gain access to and maintain relations with the relevant networks, to know what is acceptable rhetorically within those communities. As Hyland (2007: 88) emphasizes, "learning to write for a professional peer audience is the process by which novices are socialized into the academic community; it is the recognized route to insider status."

For this reason, the work of Lave and Wenger (1991) is much invoked in ERPP. Lave and Wenger (1991) developed the notion of "community of practice" as referring to a group of people who share an interest, craft, and/or profession. In sharing information and experiences, individuals within the group learn from each other. Professional communities of scholars involved in research and publication in particular fields of specialization are good examples of communities of practice (e.g. Casanave 2002). When someone joins a group, they initially spend time on the periphery in a sort of apprenticeship, perhaps performing some of the simpler tasks until they are ready to become full members. This process is described as "legitimate peripheral participation" (Lave and Wenger 1991). Learning to write for publication invariably takes the form of legitimate peripheral participation, because novices learn by a process of doing, by writing articles, submitting them for publication, and receiving feedback from the editors and reviewers. Communities of practice, by definition, vary in their make-up and their conventions. This means that what is expected in terms of writing in one discipline is likely to be different in another; this is referred to as its "situated" characteristic.

A social constructivist approach to research into writing for publication focusses on aspects of the publishing process such as peer review, negotiation with editors and reviewers and acceptance/rejection of papers. The work of Gosden in Japan was groundbreaking in investigating some of the social issues involved in publishing from an EAL perspective. In a first paper, Gosden (1992) surveyed editors of center science journals with regard to their attitudes towards non-native speaker (NNS) contributions. He found that the editors felt that their NNS contributors demonstrated a lack of clarity in their results sections, problematic research methodology, longer writing and submission time than L1 writers and problems stemming from what was perceived as their isolated situation, which included unfamiliarity with the target journal requirements, failure to review the literature adequately and failure to contextualize studies within the context of other work. In a second paper, Gosden (1995) focussed on the textual revisions involved in the writing of successful research articles by NNS novice Japanese researchers. In this case, "success" was judged from the processes of peer review, negotiation, revision, and eventual acceptance for publication of research articles in English-language scientific journals. In a third paper, Gosden (2003) analyzed referees' comments on scientific research articles. In this study, he noted the strong interpersonal dimension of reviewers' comments, with two thirds of the comments in his corpus of comments focussed on "interactional deficiencies" of the manuscripts under consideration. Gosden's conclusion was that novice researchers need to be made aware of "the need to interpret appropriately the motivation behind referees' comments" (Gosden 2003: 87).

Sociocultural factors of RA production such as those investigated by Gosden and others (see below) draw attention to the important role that power plays in this enterprize. As early as 1990, Swales (1990: 102) eloquently drew attention to this power factor, as follows:

> Despite an objective 'empiricist' repertoire, we are far away from a world in which power, allegiance and self-esteem play no part, however much they may seem absent from the frigid surface of RA discourse. And yet we find the research article, this key product of the knowledge-manufacture industry, to be a remarkable phenomenon, so cunningly engineered by rhetorical machining that it somehow still gives an impression of being but a simple description of relatively untransmuted raw material.

Another writer to emphasize the power factor in academic writing, including ERPP, is Casanave (2002: 30), who refers to all forms of academic literacy as "deeply social and political" and describes how EAL writers need to "wrestle with power-infused and entrenched academic cultures" (2002: 181). Casanave highlights the difficulties of EAL writers who write for publication in Chapter 7 of her book, "Writing Games" (Casanave 2000), pointing to the struggle EAL writers have in mastering what she refers to as "the rhetorical and linguistic resources needed for a successful publication," on the one hand, and "how to respond to, negotiate and compromise with reviewers, editors and co-authors," on the other.

Overlapping with Gosden's work in Japan was my own work in Hong Kong, with Cantonese L1 writers. Over an extended period, I investigated how Hong Kong Cantonese-L1 academics go about writing for publication in international journals. The first study published in this project (Flowerdew 1999a) was a quantitative survey focussing on perceptions, problems, and strategies employed in writing for international publication. Following the quantitative survey, I conducted a qualitative interview study with scholars across the disciplines, again focussing on perceptions, problems, and strategies. The next study (Flowerdew 2000) was a single case of an EAL scholar in mass communication from Hong Kong and his experience in publishing a scholarly article in an international refereed journal on his return from doctoral study in the United States. The investigation was presented as "a contribution to the important study of what it means to be a non-Anglophone researcher seeking international publication in English, but living and researching in a non-Anglophone country" (2000: 127, abstract). Following on from the case study was another interview study, this time with editors of journals in the fields of applied linguistics and language study (Flowerdew 2001), asking them about their perceptions of contributions from Hong Kong, in particular, and Asian and other periphery countries in general. In later work (Flowerdew 2007, 2008), I discussed the disadvantages experienced by EAL writers and invoked Goffman's notion of stigma to understand their position (Flowerdew 2008). Casanave (2008) critiqued this view, arguing against what she refers to as a "labeling" effect and I responded (Flowerdew 2009), arguing that my goal had been to articulate the position I see EAL writers potentially finding themselves in and suggesting some possible ways of resisting this positioning.

Broadly continuing my case study approach (Flowerdew 2000), Li published three separate cases of doctoral science students in Mainland China writing for publication. In the first of these, Li (2006a) focussed on a doctoral student in computer science and this student's work on alternative versions of a paper aimed at separate Chinese and international audiences. In the second of her studies to be reported here, Li (2006b), considered the publication efforts of a doctoral student of physics working towards international publication, demonstrating how the participant's writing processes and publication success were affected by the power relationships between the writer and his supervisors, on the one hand, and the writer and journal editors, on the other. This paper was contextualized within legitimate peripheral participation theory. In her third study, this time with a student of chemistry, Li (2007) again invoked community of practice theory. Using the student's process logs, his developing text, his bulletin board system message exchanges and post-hoc interviews, Li showed how the apprentice writer went about developing the first draft of a paper. This study demonstrated the complex interactions between the participant's engagement with the local research community, the laboratory data, his own experience and practice of writing research articles , and the global specialist research community.

In a later study, working together on data collected during Li's earlier studies, Flowerdew and Li (2007) showed how the doctoral science students focussed on in Li's earlier studies used copy and pasting strategies based on published work to develop their own writing for publication. As well as analyzing the students' strategies, the article considered the participants' justification for their practices and asked whether or not their practices constituted plagiarism (see also Starfield this volume).

In a final article based on Li's group of doctoral research students, Li and Flowerdew (2007) focussed on "shapers" (Burrough-Boenisch 2003), people who provided language correction for the doctoral science students involved in Li's studies. Three main sources of English-language correction assistance were identified: supervisors, peers, and language professionals.

In subsequent work, Flowerdew and Li (2009) and Li and Flowerdew (2007), addressed the issue of writing in English and Chinese on the part of established Hong Kong and Mainland scholars in the humanities and social sciences (HSS). The idea driving this research was to test the commonly held view that more work is published locally in these so-called "soft" disciplines (Lillis and Curry 2010) and to consider the tension at work between English and Chinese publication. In the first of these two studies, 20 academics across a range of HSS disciplines at an elite research-based university in China were interviewed. This study found that for the most part, in spite of official encouragement to publish in English, including financial inducements, for a range of reasons, these scholars preferred to publish in Chinese. The second of these studies involved interviews with 15 Hong Kong counterparts of the Mainland Chinese HSS scholars. The findings showed that these scholars were more motivated to publish in English both for institutionally driven reasons and through personal motivation. However, some of these Hong Kong scholars also publish in Chinese for the purpose of serving their target audiences at the local/regional level.

Overlapping with Flowerdew and Li, but using a similar case study approach, is the work of Lillis and Curry. Focussing on 50 education and psychology scholars writing for publication in 12 institutions over a period of eight years in Hungary, Portugal, Slovakia, and Spain, Lillis and Curry used an ethnographic "text-histories" approach to investigate ERPP practices in these non-Anglophone, "periphery" countries. Lillis and Curry's findings were published in a series of articles and later brought together in a book (Lillis and Curry 2010).

In common with Flowerdew and Li, Lillis and Curry (2010) view ERPP from a social practice perspective and contextualize such practice within globalization theory, with an emphasis on local practice and networked activity. Their book is contextualized within what Lillis and Curry refer to as "the politics of academic text production," positioned within the broader context of international knowledge production. Lillis and Curry emphasize how the role of English is sustained by institutional and national systems and their incentive and reward systems, which favor "international" publication (which, as they point out, is synonymous with publication in English). They demonstrate how the ERPP practices of the participants depend very much on "networked activity" and the role of local, national, and international networks in obtaining the resources necessary for successful publication in Anglophone "center" journals. Publication is viewed as very much a joint activity, rather than an individual one. Lillis and Curry (2010: 61) write that:

> Evidence of the significance of different kinds of network activity – in which scholars engage locally and transnationally – calls into question the predominant focus on individual competence in EAP (English for academic purposes) and academic writing research and pedagogy more widely.

In line with their view of ERRP as networked activity, Lillis and Curry examine in detail the role of "literacy brokers," people who assist in the task of successful publication. These may be friends, academic colleagues, editors, translators, or proofreaders. In the conclusion to their book, Lillis and Curry argue for a "de-centring" of the current model of academic publishing, with efforts needed to promote national journals, innovations in the practices of center journals in favor of non-Anglophone periphery scholars, and publishing practices which view research not as market-driven but as freely exchanged.

Methods used in ERPP research

In terms of methods, because it is problem-driven, as opposed to theory-driven, ERPP research employs a whole range of methods. In an earlier publication (Flowerdew 2005), I created a diagram to display the methods that I used in investigating ERPP in Hong Kong, as in Figure 16.1. The four circles of the figure represent the different foci of investigation. Starting in the top left quartile and going in a clockwise direction, these foci involve: (1) finding out what apprentice and/or experienced writers think about the process of writing for publication; (2) finding out what goes on in their minds when they are writing; (3) analyzing the

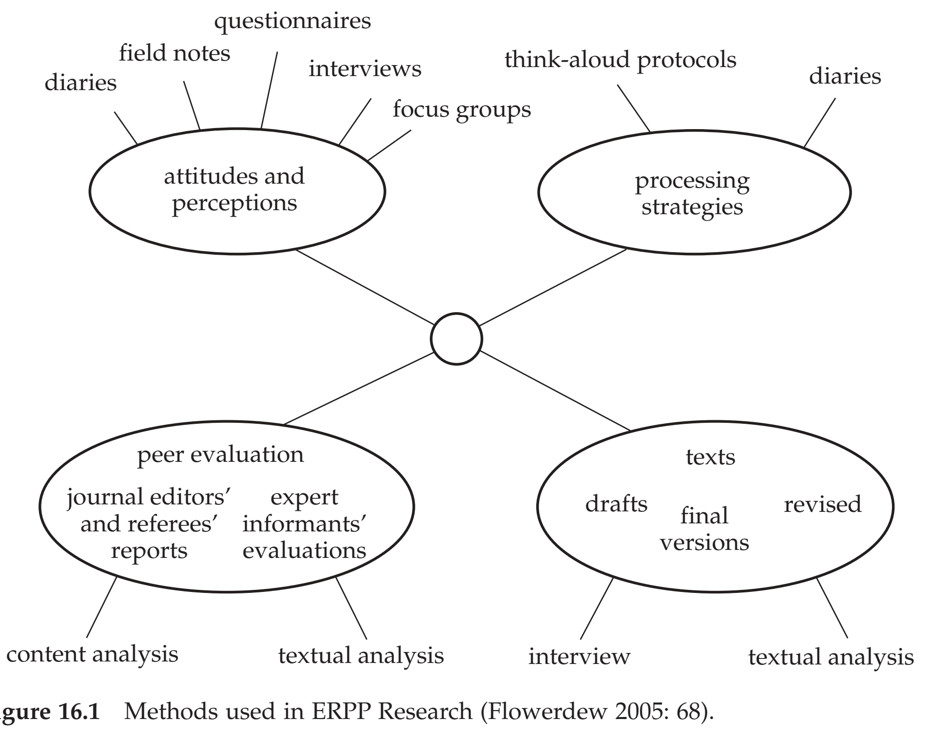

Figure 16.1 Methods used in ERPP Research (Flowerdew 2005: 68).

different versions of texts written by scholarly writers; and (4) obtaining and analyzing peer evaluation in the form of editors' and reviewers' reports and soliciting evaluations of manuscripts by specialist informants. Each of these foci is associated with particular research methods, as shown in the figure.

Within the extant research on ERPP, by far the most commonly used of those methods identified here is discourse/text analysis of one form or another (see above for references). With regard to the social dimension of ERPP, a very popular method has been the interview (e.g. S. Cho 2004; Giannoni 2008; Huang 2010; Pérez Llantada et al. 2011, also the work of Curry, Flowerdew, and of Li and of Lillis reviewed above). Another method has been to collect personal reflections on the writing experiences of bilingual writers (Aitchison, Kamler, and Lee 2010; Belcher and Connor 2001).

The ERPP Curriculum

Having reviewed the research base of ERPP, we now need to consider how the research may be applied to pedagogy. What should go into a course designed to prepare novice writers, especially EAL writers, in writing for publication? Kwan (2010) refers to these two aspects of what she calls "the discursive task" as, on the one hand, "communicating one's research through an RA" and, on the other hand, "communicating with gate-keepers about the RA" (see Figure 16.2 for Kwan's overall framework). While agreeing with this broad division, it should be noted that the two dimensions are interlinked: while creating the document, the writer will need to bear the needs of the gatekeepers in mind, and, in dealing with the gatekeepers, the writer will need to do this through the medium of language.

In communicating one's research through the RA, Kwan sets out particular competencies that need to be mastered. These include familiarity with the prototypical schematic structure of the genre and its parts (which are subject to disciplinary variation and variation across journals); command of discipline-specific citation language "to advance various rhetorical goals;" and metadiscourse "that signals one's degree of commitment to statements made" (2010: 57). These particular skills are in addition to generic writing skills such as "argumentation, coherence-building, and abstracting" (2010: 58).

A notable publication with regard to Kwan's first dimension, "communicating one's research through an RA," is a case study designed to use corpora in developing ERRP skills (Lee and Swales 2006). Lee and Swales (2006) had a heterogeneous group of graduate students at the University of Michigan create their personal corpora of research articles specific to their particular disciplines. These corpora were used as a resource for working on the writing required for the RA preparation on their higher degree programs. As noted elsewhere (Flowerdew and Li 2007), an issue that has to be confronted with this type of application is where to draw the borderline between reusing typical phraseological patterns, on the one hand, and copying longer sections of texts extracted from the corpus – a case of plagiarism – on the other (see Flowerdew and Li 2007, Pecorari 2003, 2006). Cargill

The discursive task

communicating one's research through an RA

command of schematic structure

command of discipline specific citation language and metadiscourse

command of generic writing skills (e.g argumentation, coherence)

communicating with gate-keepers about the RA

command of occluded genres

strategic research conception

command of disciplinary academic rigour

ability to find a "niche"

ability to relate appropriately to the international community

strategic management of research and publishing

manage time cycle

ensure required amount of publications

know appropriate journals

Figure 16.2 Kwan's model of the discursive task (based on Kwan 2010)

and O'Connor's (2009) handbook on research writing, uses a similar procedure to that reported by Lee and Swales.

With regard to "communication with gate-keepers," Kwan emphasizes that this involves what Swales (1996) refers to as "occluded" genres, which can be "difficult to handle" (Kwan 2010: 58). Reviewer comments tend to be indirect and can be misleading to the reader (Flowerdew and Dudley-Evans 2002; Gosden 2003). There is thus a need to develop the ability to interpret these documents, on the one hand, and to develop "discursive tactics to carry out revisions accordingly" (2010: 58), on the other.

In addition to the two dimensions discussed thus far, Kwan's competence framework for writing for publication has two further elements, both of which merit attention. The first of these is "strategic research conception." Here, the writer needs to ensure that, first, the research is conceived and conducted with appropriate disciplinary academic rigor, and that, second, it finds a niche in the literature in conformity with the "zeitgeist" (Berkenkotter and Huckin 1995) of the field (the spirit of the time), fitting into what elsewhere Bazerman (1980: 657–8) refers to as "the conversations of the discipline." Moreover, according to Kwan, researchers need to consider the relevance of their research to the international community. This can be particularly difficult for off-network scholars. Indeed, off-network scholars in humanities and social science fields, in particular, who may focus their research on local matters, need to consider how they can make their publications appeal to an international readership. It might also be added here that these researchers need to be able to decide what is appropriate for international publication and what is more appropriate for a local readership (Flowerdew and Li 2009; Li and Flowerdew 2007; Lillis and Curry 2010). Furthermore, publishability will depend on the "fit" between a given article and the targeted journal.

The second additional competence identified by Kwan she refers to as "strategic management of research and publishing." Here, novice researchers need to consider how to manage their research and publication in such a way as to fit in with assessment schedules and the type and amount of publications expected by their institution at various academic ranks. To do this, these young researchers need to appreciate the length of time required to produce a manuscript and for it to go through the review process. They also need to know which journals to submit their work to and which journals to redirect their work to in the case of rejection. Indeed, it might be added that they need to know that rejection is the norm for most submissions and that initial rejection does not preclude resubmission.

A further dimension to Kwan's model she refers to as "competence in publishing the thesis-in-progress." This concerns publications produced during the doctorate, a requirement for which is becoming more and more common. One strategy here is to structure the thesis as a series of articles. Where this is not the case, then special skills are required in converting the thesis to articles and vice versa.

One publication possibility not envisioned by Kwan is that of joint-publication with a supervisor. In some science disciplines this is in fact the norm, where papers are published by teams of people. Here, competence is required in dividing up the work, in deciding who will do the writing, and so on.

Conclusion and Future Directions

This chapter has noted the preeminence of English as the international language of research and publication and the advantages and disadvantages of this situation. The chapter has highlighted the disadvantages faced by EAL writers in particular, and periphery writers in general, of writing in English for publication. It has been argued that, in spite of its negative side, these disadvantages provide an important space for ESP researchers and practitioners. The chapter has reviewed the main approaches to research in ERPP, with discourse analysis and social constructivism/situated learning being the main theoretical approaches and a whole range of methods being used to pursue this research. In a final section, the chapter has considered the issue of pedagogy and suggested how an ERPP curriculum might look.

In the remaining space, some consideration will be given to the issue of disadvantage, and to how the situation might be improved, bearing in mind the role of ESP in this enterprise. One suggestion has been to discard the NS/NSS acronym and replace it with *L1 and L2 writers*, *EAL writers*, *international writers* (which to me is ambiguous) or to not make any distinction. This is a point made by many of the editors in Flowerdew's (2001) interview study. As Canagarajah (2006) has argued, in the wider scheme of things, the NS/NNS demarcation is already breaking down. English has become a contact language for both intra- and international relationships, not just in research and publication. In addition, for many writers, even if English is not their mother tongue, it is their L1 as far as their professional literacy practices are concerned. Taking away the labels will also reduce the stigma (Flowerdew 2008) attaching to EAL writers. An important step in this respect would be for journals to stop requiring writers to have their papers vetted by a "native-speaker" before submission. As Swales (2004) and Hyland (2006) have both argued, the degree of experience may be more important than the question of L1 and L2. Swales (2004), accordingly, suggests referring to "junior" and "senior" scholars.

Another suggestion is to open the door to different varieties of English in international publication. It is worth considering why it is that *English as a Lingua Franca* (ELF) (Nickerson this volume), a hybrid variety of English, is becoming more and more accepted in universities internationally, especially in spoken contexts, but has not become accepted as far as publication is concerned. The reason for this must be that writing is more conventional than speech, perhaps because it is easier for gatekeepers – publishers and editors in the case of ERPP – to control it. Ferguson (2007: 33) conceives of a move towards ELF occurring for ERPP in the longer term. He describes such a process as "the de-anglicization of English," glossing this process as:

> allowing bilingual EIL [English as an international language] authors to identify themselves, and be identified, as authoritative users of their own lingua franca variety (with its own peculiarities – see Ammon 2000) as opposed to imperfect writers of a standard British or American standard English.

As has been argued elsewhere (Flowerdew 2008; Flowerdew and Li 2009), there is a role for corpora here – collections of language written by international writers which are considered acceptable by the scientific community as a whole:

> In the long run . . . just as spoken corpora may help to characterize ELF in verbal communication (e.g. House 2003; Mauranen 2003; Seidlhofer 2004), large corpora for the various disciplines written by EAL writers might help to identify what is acceptable in terms of intelligibility in written academic English and what is not (Flowerdew 2008: 84).

Whether or not these perhaps utopian ideals come to pass, there will undoubtedly still be an important role for ESP in ERPP. The increase in international publication in English is unlikely to diminish and the difficulties experienced by EAL writers will remain. So we must ask the question, is the ESP profession prepared? The answer is that it is probably not. It can be argued that writing for publication should be an integral part of scholarly formation. However, not many universities offer such courses. Where such courses are offered, they may be run by individual academic departments or by language support centers. A well-prepared cadre of ESP practitioners would be in a position to claim this territory. However, where language support centers run such courses, those teaching on such courses usually do not have the sort of specialist training that this chapter has made clear is needed for such a task. As Hyland (2008) has written, this is a field where the research base is ahead of pedagogical practice. There is an urgent need, therefore, for ESP practitioners to up their game. This is a field where there is an important need and it is an area that offers unique challenges and opportunities for the ESP profession to demonstrate its value. It is time for ESP practitioners to respond.

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