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THE LANGUAGE POLITICS OF DOCTORAL STUDIES IN RHETORIC AND
COMPOSITION: TOWARD A TRANSLINGUAL REVISION OF GRADUATE
EDUCATION IN THE FIELD

By

Carrie Byars Kilfoil
B.A., Miami University, 2002
M.A., University of Kentucky, 2004

A Dissertation
Submitted to the Faculty of the
College of Arts and Sciences of the University of Louisville
in Partial Fulfillment of the Requirements
for the Degree of

Doctor of Philosophy

Department of English
University of Louisville
Louisville, Kentucky

May 2014

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A Dissertation Approved on

April 14, 2014

by the following dissertation committee

Bruce Horner
Dissertation Director

Min-Zhan Lu

Susan Ryan

Karen Kopelson

Christiane Donahue

DEDICATION

To

Rowan

My anchor. I love you to the moon—and back.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

I would like to thank the members of my committee, Bruce Horner, Min-Zhan Lu, Susan Ryan, Karen Kopelson, and Christiane Donahue for their time, patience, and valuable insight in helping me to shape this project. I would also like to thank my fellow Rhetoric and Composition Ph.D. students at the University of Louisville for motivating me to take on this topic and serving as a constant reminder of its importance. Thanks particularly to those who completed the survey I document in Chapter 4 and to the members of the “reading-writing group” who provided me with helpful feedback on my prospectus and first chapter. Thanks you to Lisa Arnold, Nancy Bou Ayash, Brice and Abby Nordquist, Mike Sobiech, Vanessa Kraemer Sohan, and Caroline Wilkinson for your friendship, thoughtful advice, and humor over the last five years. Mom and Dad, thank you for the moral and material support you have provided during my time in graduate school. Your own experiences as first-generation and non-traditional college students have taught me a great deal about issues of access in higher education and why they are so important. Angela, thank you for your childcare services during my research trip to Purdue and many other afternoons and evenings. Finally, thank you Pete for being my partner through this process. As we have navigated parenthood and our respective graduate programs together, I feel like we have learned a great deal about ourselves, one another, the academy, our disciplines, and what is at stake in the work we do both personally and professionally. There is no one I’d rather be on this journey with than you.

ABSTRACT

THE LANGUAGE POLITICS OF DOCTORAL STUDIES IN RHETORIC AND COMPOSITION

Carrie Byars Kilfoil

April 14, 2014

This dissertation critiques graduate education in rhetoric and composition in relationship to recent calls for a “translingual” approach to the teaching of writing and a transnational, cross-cultural approach to writing research (Horner, Lu, Royster, Trimbur; Canagarajah; Donahue). Building on this scholarship, I attend to the (re)production of disciplinary dispositions toward language difference in rhetoric and composition doctoral studies. Through textual analysis of the *Rhetoric Review* surveys of doctoral programs in the field (1987, 1995, 2000, 2007, and the current wiki), archival materials from various programs (including three focal schools), and a survey of doctoral students currently enrolled in the University of Louisville’s Rhetoric and Composition Ph.D. program, I investigate tensions between official discourses of rhetoric and composition doctoral studies and the lived experiences of graduate teaching and learning in the field. Within these tensions, I identify dominant and emergent language ideologies in rhetoric and composition and describe the ways in which these are exercised and transmitted through its doctoral training. Though, I argue, rhetoric and composition doctoral curricula have evolved to reflect a dominant monolingualist

ideology in U.S. higher education and society at large, this ideology has been relocalized and resisted in the practices of students and teachers negotiating the material conditions of composition teaching and learning in the late 20th and early 21st centuries. At the level of local practice, rhetoric and composition graduate education suggests the emergence of a translingual ideology in the discipline that recognizes and responds to more complex social identities and cross-language practices in a globalizing world.

In Chapter One, I discuss the globalization of higher education, the changing institutional conditions it brings about, and recent arguments for translingual and cross-cultural approaches to composition teaching and research meant to address these conditions. I then provide a description of my methodology in examining Ph.D. programs in rhetoric and composition to identify their language politics and, ultimately, suggest possibilities for change. In Chapters Two and Three, I analyze curricular policies surrounding the practices of rhetoric and composition doctoral studies to argue that graduate education in the field has been structured, currently and historically, in relationship to an ideal of English monolingualism. In Chapter Four, I explore the dissonance between policy and procedure—curriculum and education—to reveal the translingual work already taking place in rhetoric and composition doctoral studies in the context of teaching and learning. In Chapter Five, I discuss language education policy initiatives in Europe. I use lessons learned from these initiatives to frame suggestions for how composition studies can serve as a vehicle for institutional change when it comes to matters of language and language relations in U.S. universities. I argue that change can best be achieved not through top-down policy initiatives, but

through making local changes to specific rhetoric and composition graduate program practices.

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INTRODUCTION

In “Beyond the Personal: Theorizing a Politics of Location in Composition Research,” Gesa Kirsch and Joy Ritchie propose that composition researchers “locate themselves” in their writing “by examining their experiences as reflections of ideology and culture, by reinterpreting their experiences through the eyes of others, and by recognizing their own split selves, their multiple and often unknowable identities” (8). In this introduction, I will examine the politics of my location in relationship to this dissertation project by narrating the origins of my interests in language differences in composition teaching and research. Even though I recognize that, as Kirsch and Ritchie observe, “any location is fluid, multiple, and illusive” (9), I feel that attempting to locating myself in relationship to this project serves two important goals. First, it signifies that this project, like its author, does not “presuppose objectivity,” (Kirsch and Ritchie 9) but is socially and historically situated and politically interested. Second, it illustrates how real lives (my own and the students I’ve taught) operate within the theoretical abstractions I will be discussing in the five chapters of this dissertation.

Teaching (and Learning) the Language(s) of Composition

In fall 2002, I was 22 years old and teaching composition as a graduate teaching assistant at the University of Kentucky. Most of my undergraduate students were a lot like me—U.S.-educated, “native English speakers” from fairly privileged backgrounds

— and I felt lucky to be blessed with such well-prepared students my very first time teaching. But there was one international student in my class who challenged my expectations about what a “good student” should be, and I will call him Vinay. Vinay was, in almost every way, a model composition student. His essays were well drawn, supported, and demonstrated significant revision throughout the drafting process. He participated often in class, even though he was clearly self-conscious about his accent and often apologized for it. He went to the writing center and my office hours regularly and unprompted. He did all of these things because he was determined to erase the taint of difference in his writing, an array of features I was quick to identify and dismiss as “non-standard.” He was also determined to get accepted into the university’s pre-pharmacy program the following year, and to achieve that goal, he was convinced he needed to get an A in my class.

Vinay did not get an A. I consistently marked down his very admirable written work on the basis of the “non-standard” features in it. I told myself that this was because, in the real world, no one would care about Vinay’s multilingual background and that he would be judged just like (and against) his mainstream peers. I should clarify that no one told me to approach students like Vinay this way. In fact, no one had told me how to approach students like Vinay at all. My TA orientation and my composition theory course barely addressed strategies for teaching students whose language practices marked them as “different.” And no one mentioned that we might have to reckon with the presence of multilingual and second language writers in our composition classes. So I did what many undertrained, first-time composition teachers do: I fell back on my skills in grammar and punctuation. I made my expertise in

“Standard Written English” the focus of the class, a strategy that did not work well for Vinay in terms of his grade. He received a high B.

After grades were posted, Vinay contacted me to see if I would consider bumping him up to an A, since he felt he had earned one. I was surprised by this uncharacteristic act of boldness on his part, and politely refused, explaining why I felt his grade was appropriate and that not everyone could get an A (especially when, as a TA, I was required to grade on a bell curve). Vinay said he understood, and that was the end of it. The next semester, I wrote him a letter of recommendation for the pre-pharmacy program, explaining that he was a top student in my class with the exception of a few “second language issues” which negatively impacted his final grade. That summer I was thrilled to learn that, after being waitlisted, he was ultimately accepted into the program.

Even though (as I told myself) things “worked out” for Vinay in the end, something didn’t sit right with me about what happened with him. I couldn’t shake the sense that I had behaved badly, but at the same time, I couldn’t imagine what else I could have done. Wasn’t it my job to preserve the high standards of the university (as I had been told at my TA orientation)? But then wasn’t it also my job to support students by acknowledging and honoring their hard work (as I learned in my composition theory class)? I started asking questions: in the overcrowded offices I shared as a T.A. and eventually at the adjunct orientations I would attend at various institutions. What resources do we have available to support multilingual students? How should we assess students who are English language learners? I was told to send these students to the Writing Center. Or refer them to an ESL section. Or to simply ignore “non-standard”

language features, like missing articles and incorrect verb conjugations (anything that “an editor could fix,” one WPA told me), and if there were too many problems to ignore, to fail the student so he or she could retake the course. “It’s the kindest thing you can do. They need to learn the language,” one fellow adjunct told me. But we aren’t teaching the language, I thought.

My encounters with students identified as “English language learners” in my classes began to remind me of my experiences learning French in school. I remembered repeating words and phrases over and over again, my teachers correcting my accent and shaking their heads. I remembered the flash cards with verb conjugations and the red ink on my tests. I stuck with French through middle and high school for the air of intellectual sophistication it promised...and the food. But even the crepes and Nutella at French club could not make me “like” French or ease the crushing anxiety I felt that I would never speak or write it “correctly.” Confident that I would never “need” the language, I quit taking French as soon as I had completed my undergraduate language requirement. I remember exiting my last French final with an incredible sense of relief, knowing that I was finally free from the red pen.

But now here I was poring over papers, red pen in hand, with my basic writing students at a Colorado community college. With the exception of one U.S.-educated “English monolingual,” all of these students were either international or resident “ESL,” hailing from countries like China, Nepal, South Korea, Mexico, and Indonesia. I made corrections on their papers and, in lengthy class lectures, explained the “rules” of Standard English grammar—rules that all too often broke down under my students’ questions about them. I suggested they use flash cards to memorize them anyway. And I

started to understand why some of these students seemed tuned out. Or overwhelmed. Or even angry. And unlike me, my basic writing students could not “quit” English—at least without facing a barrage of education, professional, and social repercussions. They were stuck, and I did not know how to help them.

I began to connect my experiences with these “ESL” basic writing students to my experiences teaching first year composition at a proprietary school the previous semester. As is often the case with these “career colleges,” this school enrolled primarily working class, first-generation college students. These students too had struggled with writing “correctly” and had seemed frazzled and frustrated by my class. On the one hand, I was not teaching “grammar”—a subject many of these students had seemed to think the class should cover—and on the other, I was assessing their papers with certain grammatical “standards” in mind. At the time, I had read the “slang” in their work as evidence of sloppiness and poor preparation. However, I began to think now about the variability in the language backgrounds of these U.S. educated, “English monolingual” students. Like my ESL basic writers, these students had brought an array of non-mainstream linguistic forms and practices to their written work. And unfortunately, these forms and practices failed to align the “standards” I believed it was my duty to expect and uphold.

The Tension between Language Ideals and Realities

As I began to suspect that the failure was mine and not my students, I became increasingly interested in the tension between my expectations and my students’ work—a tension between language ideals and realities. A desire to explore this tension, and in

the process become a better teacher, led me back to graduate school after a four year hiatus following the completion of my MA. (and a year of Ph.D. work) in English Literature. Through my Ph.D. coursework in Rhetoric and Composition, I began to be able to name this tension. I began to see the growing friction between a dominant, monolingual ideology and linguistically diverse U.S. institutions. And I began to understand the importance of new composition teacher-scholars being trained to negotiate that tension in their teaching and research.

As I will discuss in Chapter 1, U.S. colleges and universities are becoming more socioculturally and, by extension, linguistically diverse by dint of the globalization of higher education. Consequently, we are seeing increasing numbers of students identified as “non-native,” “ESL,” or “multilingual” in writing programs. However, so-called “English monolingual” students also bring a range of linguistic forms and practices to composition classrooms. Ethnic and cultural minority students often display patterns of speech and writing traditionally denigrated in U.S. culture, and “mainstream” students also show language differences in their writing—even if we are less likely to recognize these differences. As proponents of “translingual approach” to writing teaching have argued, linguistic heterogeneity is the norm (not the exception) in all discourse. Consequently, matters of language difference pertain to all students, not just those explicitly identified as “different” from the academic norm by virtue of their sociocultural backgrounds.

This dissertation considers how graduate studies in rhetoric and composition, currently and historically, both reflects and advances dominant, resistant, and emergent approaches to language difference in composition teaching and research. Through

textual analysis of the *Rhetoric Review* surveys of doctoral programs in rhetoric and composition (1987, 1995, 2000, 2008, and the current wiki) and program materials drawn from department websites and the archives of three focal schools, I describe the ways in which a dominant monolingual ideology in U.S. higher education and society at large has worked to shape rhetoric and composition doctoral curricula to obscure the relevance of linguistic forms and practices associated with second language writers and other academic outsiders to training and professional development in the field. I then analyze dissertation abstracts, course syllabi, and a survey of doctoral students currently enrolled in the University of Louisville's Ph.D. in Rhetoric and Composition to show how this ideology has been resisted in the practices of students and teachers negotiating the material conditions of composition teaching and learning in the late 20th and early 21st centuries. I argue that while monolingualism continues to shape rhetoric and composition doctoral education at the level of curricular policy, local practices suggest the emergence of a translingual ideology in the discipline that recognizes and responds to more complex social identities and cross-language practices in a globalizing world.

Chapter Summaries

Chapter One, "Language and Cultural Change in U.S. Universities: Rewriting Disciplinary Dispositions Toward Difference," outlines the exigencies for this research project through a discussion of the globalization of higher education, the changing institutional conditions it brings about, and the recent arguments for translingual and cross-cultural approaches to composition teaching and research meant to address these. I describe these arguments as efforts to modify composition's disciplinary dispositions

toward difference and identify rhetoric and composition doctoral studies as a set of metapedagogical practices where disciplinary dispositions are written and revised. Because of the ways in which graduate education in rhetoric and composition contributes to (re)producing composition's disciplinary habitus, I argue that such education is key to both observing the hegemonic process by which dominant disciplinary dispositions toward difference are maintained in the field and disrupting these to promote translingual dispositions. I further argue that because graduate education sits at the margin of disciplinary scholarship and graduate students occupy the position of disciplinary "outsiders," alternatives to the monolingual orientation of composition studies that arise within its graduate programs are more likely to constitute significant breaks from disciplinary tradition and offer real opportunities for change. I then provide a description of my methodology in examining Ph.D. programs in rhetoric and composition to identify their language politics and, ultimately, suggest possibilities for revising doctoral education in the field to promote a translingual norm in writing teaching and scholarship.

In Chapters Two and Three, titled "English Monolingualism in Rhetoric and Composition Doctoral Education: From History to Present Practice" and "Monolingual Orientations to Multilingual Doctoral Practices: Linguistics, T/ESL, Basic Writing, and 'Foreign' Language Requirements," I analyze curricular policies surrounding the practices of rhetoric and composition doctoral studies to argue that graduate education in the field has been structured, currently and historically, by an ideal of English monolingualism. Though I acknowledge a fundamental dissonance between curricular policies and educational practices, I argue that these policies function as prescribed

courses of action in the bureaucratic environment of the university, framing and sanctioning graduate program practices and imposing limits on the transformative work that takes place in graduate training. In Chapter Two, I conduct a comparative analysis of the various *Rhetoric Review* surveys and describe a popular trend in curricular development in which coursework and exams in linguistics, T/ESL, and basic writing pedagogy are exchanged in the 1990's and 2000's for requirements in rhetorical history/theory and humanistic research associated with greater institutional power and prestige in monolingual U.S. research universities. I then illustrate how this exchange took place at two case study institutions: The University of Louisville and Miami University. In Chapter Three, I look more closely at the form and structure of linguistics, T/ESL, basic writing, and "foreign" language coursework and requirements currently and historically in relationship to their marginalization within rhetoric and composition Ph.D. curricula over the past 30 years. Through analysis of course catalogs, department websites, graduate program guidelines, and syllabi, I argue that the ways in which these requirements have tended to frame language and language relations via structuralist theories and methodologies has tacitly argued against their relevance to composition teacher training.

Chapter Four, "Resisting the Monolingual Norm: Translingual Dispositions in Doctoral Education," troubles the two chapters that precede it as well as a vision of doctoral studies as the passive transmission of dominant disciplinary (language) ideology. Through a close reading of graduate syllabi, dissertation abstracts, and a survey of doctoral students' perceptions of language diversity in the context of their professional development, I explore the dissonance between policy and procedure—

curriculum and education—to reveal the translingual work already taking place in rhetoric and composition doctoral studies in the context of teaching and learning. I argue that in the local practices of graduate studies, graduate professors and students often “translate” monolingual policies in ways that suggest that languages are inevitably in flux, the boundaries between them porous and ideologically constructed, and that meanings and identities are fluid and emergent in the process of communicative action. I argue that doctoral studies at the level of local practice suggests an emerging, translingual language ideology in the discipline that reflects more complex social identities and cross-language practices in a globalizing world.

Chapter Five, “Composition Studies and Institutional Change: Moving beyond a Tacit ‘English-only’ Language Policy through Rhetoric and Composition Doctoral Education” describes how composition studies can serve as a vehicle for institutional change when it comes to matters of language and language relations in U.S. universities through making changes to specific graduate program practices. First, I review models of institutional change developed in composition studies, with specific attention to arguments that focus on matters of language and language relations in U.S. universities. I then look to international models of language policy change in education and focus in particular on the implementation of two European intergovernmental organizations’ (IGO) language education policies (the Council of Europe’s “plurilingual” policy and the EU’s “mother tongue plus two” policy) through their member states’ adoption of the Common European Framework for Languages (CEFR). I use lessons learned from the CEFR to frame suggestions for how composition studies might move away from a monolingual paradigm of teaching and research by way of its Ph.D. programs. I argue

that the CEFR teaches us that teacher training and professional development is crucial to promoting the shift away from monolingualism and that this shift is most likely to be achieved not through top-down policy initiatives, but through bottom-up changes to research and teaching practices. I then suggest changes to graduate teaching and learning to build upon the translingual work already taking place in rhetoric and composition Ph.D. programs. I conclude by reiterating the need for the graduate education in composition studies to become more closely aligned with a translingual approach to writing teaching and research and suggest possibilities for future research in this area.

CHAPTER I
LANGUAGE AND CULTURAL CHANGE IN U.S. UNIVERSITIES: REWRITING
DISCIPLINARY DISPOSITIONS TOWARD DIFFERENCE

In response to an increasing linguistic diversity in U.S. higher education, a number of rhetoric and composition scholars have called for revising U.S. writing instruction to engage with rather than attempt to eliminate students' language differences (Canagarajah; Horner, Lu, and Matsuda; Horner, Lu, Royster, and Trimbur; Matsuda "Myth"). However, in keeping with general trends in composition research, the vast majority of this scholarship has focused on undergraduate students, particularly those students enrolled in FYC or developmental/basic writing courses administered by university writing programs. The implications of this movement for graduate students, courses, and curricula in composition studies have been largely unconsidered.

This dissertation addresses this gap in scholarship through a research project that examines the specific practices of rhetoric and composition doctoral studies (coursework, exams, language requirements, and dissertation) to uncover the language ideologies that circulate in this site of disciplinary (re)production and (potential) change. In this chapter, I contextualize this research project within global trends in higher education and scholarship on language and language relations, both in and outside the field of composition studies. I begin by providing background into the

material circumstances that have foregrounded issues of language in composition studies. I then describe a “translingual approach” to composition teaching and scholarship, which I situate within a larger movement worldwide to reform college curricula to reflect the global realities of language use in the 21st century. I explain the importance of rhetoric and composition graduate studies to this movement by identifying graduate education as a process through which disciplinary dispositions toward language are written and revised. Finally, I outline the methodology for this research project, which will be described in greater detail in the subsequent chapters.

Globalization and Higher Education

In recent years, language politics¹ have come to the fore of scholarly conversation about teaching in the discipline. Issues of language, power, and difference have been explored and debated in special issues of the field’s journals as well as in edited collections and at recent conferences.² In these venues, a growing number of composition scholars have issued challenges to the dominance of a “standard” English language norm in composition teaching, charging that the exclusion of other languages, dialects, and cross-language work from pedagogical practice effaces the linguistic

¹ By “language politics”, I mean both the “official” (policy statements) and tacit (assumed norms)—and always, already political and ideological—ways in which language, language users, and linguistic difference are understood and responded to in scholarly practice in composition.

² See *College English* [Cross-Language Relations in Composition, 69 (2006)], *JAC* [Working English in Rhetoric and Composition 29.1-2 (2009)], and *WPA* [Second Language Writers and Writing Program Administrators, 30.1-2 (Fall 2006)]. See also edited collections *Language Diversity in the Classroom*, *ALT/DIS: Alternative Discourses and the Academy*, *Cross-Language Relations in Composition*, *Writing in Multicultural Settings*, *Generation 1.5 Meets College Composition: Issues in the Teaching of Writing to U.S.-Educated Learners of ESL*, and *Code-Meshing as World English: Pedagogy, Policy, Performance*. Finally, see the 2011 Watson Conference (theme: Working English in Rhetoric and Composition) and the 2011 Penn State Conference on Rhetoric and Composition (theme: Rhetoric and Writing Across Language Boundaries).

heterogeneity of the field, while situating students and teachers who don't "fit" within the dominant linguistic paradigm outside of it. These scholars urge compositionists to resist a monolingual, "English-only" ideology in English teaching (Horner and Trimbur) by pluralizing composition to include other languages, dialects, and mixed forms (Canagarajah "Place"; Elbow; Richardson; Smitherman and Villaneuva; Young "Average"), building pedagogies based on the practices of multilingual, multidialectal writers (Lu; Canagarajah "Toward"; Young "Nah"), promoting trans/intercultural, multivocal, and global literacies (Guerra; Gilyard; Kells; Zamel), and, most recently, redefining the teaching of writing as a translingual enterprise (Horner et al. "Language Difference"). Though their ontological orientations toward language and the pedagogies that follow from these vary, these scholars agree that composition teaching must change to reflect the diverse linguistic resources and sociocultural histories of today's composition students. This work complements recent calls for compositionists to engage in cross-cultural scholarly work across borders (Muchiri et al.; Foster and Russell; Donahue), and for writing programs to become "globalized" to reflect the diverse cultural affiliations and linguistic practices of their "multicultural, multilingual, and international (MMI) students" (Hesford, Singleton, García 120; Harklau, Losey, Siegal). Collectively, these arguments call for a dramatic reconstitution of the field in the face of complex, plural, and heterogeneous linguistic practices and identities in a globalizing world.

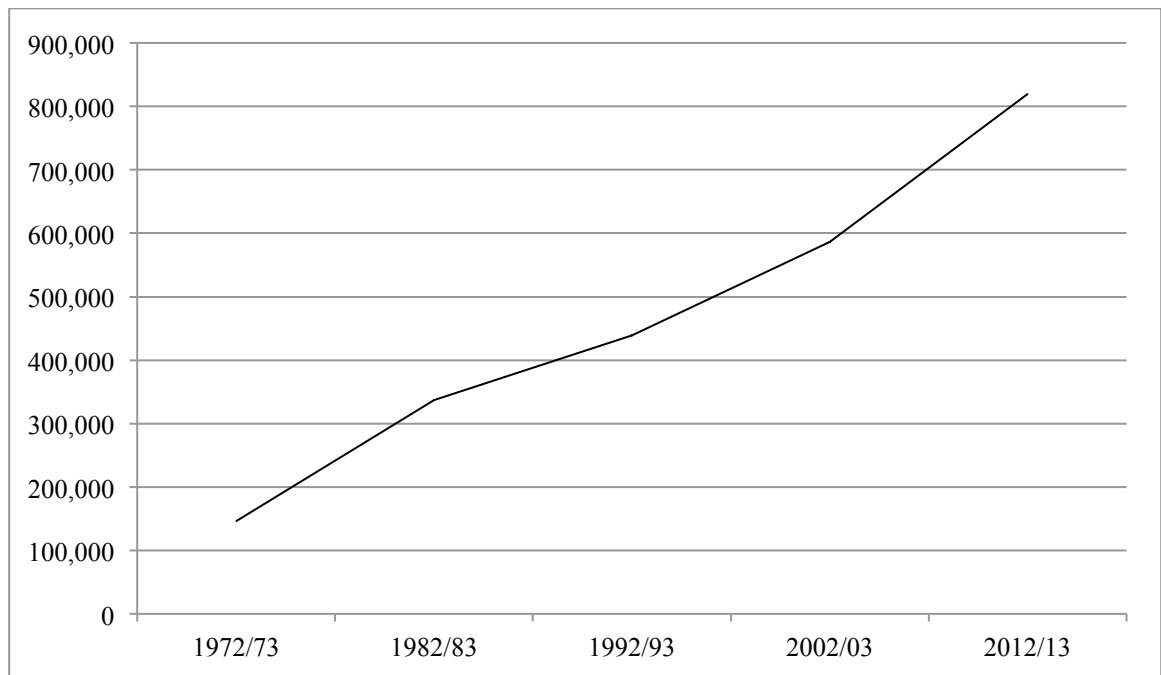
Economic globalization³ is rapidly changing the face of U.S. universities. As the demand for higher education in periphery nations increases and local institutions

³ I use this term with awareness that it is an abstraction, referring to a collection of dynamic sociocultural, technological, and economic phenomena characteristic of life in the late 20th and early 21st century.

become saturated, international students flood into the American universities that promise to accommodate them...and their tuition dollars (Matsuda “Alternative”; “Open Doors”; Singh, Kenway, and Apple). Because foreign students often do not qualify for aid and often must complete additional, non-credit coursework to graduate (i.e. “remedial” language courses), the practice of “exporting” higher education to meet the demands of the global marketplace has been pursued as a panacea for cash-strapped American institutions. In the context of growing state and federal budgets to higher education, international students both finance U.S. universities and lend them a modicum of prestige, such that they can bill themselves as “international” in an increasingly competitive bid for students on the higher education market (see Singh, Kenway and Apple; Spring). Significant increases in international student enrollments in 2008/09, 2009/10, and 2010/11 indicate that “[h]igher education is among the United States’ top service sector exports, as international students provide significant revenue not just to the host campuses but also to local economies of the host states for living expenses” (“Open Doors”). The Institute of International Education reports that international student enrollment in U.S. universities is at a record high—up 32% from a decade ago due to increasing numbers of students from countries like China, India, South Korea, Saudi Arabia, Vietnam, Iran, and Venezuela.

Figure 1

International Student Enrollment in U.S. Postsecondary Education (Data from “Open Doors: International Student Enrollment Trends”)



But international students are not the only source of growing diversity in U.S. higher education. Since the late 1960’s, academic inclusion measures like Upward Bound, Education Opportunity Programs (EOPS), and affirmative action admissions have been effective in bringing students who represent “a different race, culture, and historical experience” into the academy (Smitherman 353). These include a burgeoning population of U.S. resident language minority students—sometimes known as “generation 1.5” (see Rumbaut and Ima). Children of recent immigrants to the U.S. from areas of the world like Latin America, Eastern Europe, Southeast Asia, Africa, and the Caribbean, these U.S. residents have been educated in U.S. secondary schools (Harklau, Losey, Seigal 2-3). However, their exposure to, knowledge of, and experience

with language conventions associated with “Standard Written English”⁴ varies. Like international students, they bring more diverse linguistic practices into the U.S. academy and are a testament to the ways in which geopolitical forces and the global marketplace are reconstituting student bodies and redrawing the linguistic, social, and cultural boundaries of higher education in the 21st century.

As institutional spaces become more heterogeneous and contested—polyvocal and polysemous—universities struggle to address language and cultural differences in the academy that are increasingly difficult to mask and contain. In composition, traditional pedagogies that seek to eliminate language differences in writing at all costs are giving way to writing pedagogies that work to codify and manage difference by arguing for the preservation of “home languages” in “appropriate” contexts (see Bean et al.; Elbow; Jordan; CCCC “Students’ Right”). As Bean et al. explain in an article that summarizes a July 2002 symposium at the University of Massachusetts—Amherst on the place of “mother tongues” in composition teaching:

the question was not so much *whether or not* to invite students to write in a mother tongue different from standardized English—but rather this: *when and under what conditions* might it make sense to do so? Of course there are many conditions where it doesn’t make sense to invite a home language. But we could see that there are at least a few limiting contexts where it probably does make sense—for example for purely private exploratory writing or for comparing the grammar or rhetoric of their home language with standardized written English. (26)

⁴ I use this term hesitantly, as my argument rests upon an assumption that languages and varieties are continually emergent in the process of communicative action, and subsequently, necessarily in flux. According to this view, “Standard Written English,” as a stable and accessible linguistic variety which functions as the “norm” in communication in the U.S. and other ostensibly “English-speaking” nations, does not exist. I employ the term since it points to the dominant perception in composition studies, and other areas of language teaching, that standard languages do exist and should be “mastered” by students in the process of language learning. In fact, this perception is so dominant it is difficult to talk about matters of linguistic diversity in education without reference to the “standard” in some fashion. As a “representation” of language is “a convenient fiction”, but one that holds a great deal of social value which must be acknowledged in any discussion of language pedagogy (Calvet).

The notion that students must be taught “*when and under what conditions*” it “make[s] sense” to use one language versus another is the cornerstone of “code-switching” pedagogies in composition. Code-switching purports to teach linguistically diverse students a separate and distinct “standard” code for use in particular contexts to supplement, but not replace or mediate, their “home” languages. As Jay Jordon observes in his study of multicultural composition readers, the bilingual/bidialectal “code-switching” Bean et al. recommend is rapidly becoming the “dominant pedagogy” when it comes to negotiating language differences in student writing. As a correlative, writing programs have begun to hire “ESL people” (Shuck) to create and administer ESL-specific sections of Basic Writing and FYC. ESL sections attend to what are considered the “special needs” of linguistically diverse students, who (it is assumed) must be taught to “translate” their scholarly prose into “Standard Written English” in order to enter the (Standard) English-medium curriculum (Harklau et al).

Though they are no doubt well intentioned, these efforts to respond to greater diversity in writing programs are flawed in the sense that they rest on the same assumptions about language that informed an earlier, “eradicationist” approach to language differences in composition (Horner and Lu “Resisting”). By restricting linguistic forms and practices that fail to align with an idealized “standard” to the marginalized spaces of early drafts and personal pieces, hiring ESL faculty to assume “sole responsibility for all the nonnative English speakers” in the undergraduate writing program, and quarantining linguistically diverse students from the “native speakers” who populate “regular” composition courses, they represent a new manifestation of—rather than alternative to—the policies of containment that have traditionally been used

to manage linguistically diverse students in writing programs (Shuck 66; Matsuda “Myth”). The upshot is that composition tends to respond to more diverse student populations in ways that simply pluralize (and hierarchize) destructive notions of correctness, preserving the notion of languages as fixed and discrete entities, and ultimately, a model of university literacy built around the mastery of “Standard Written English’ for use in U.S. contexts.

As Wendy Hesford, Eddie Singleton, and Ivonne García explain, the turn toward a global, multicultural curriculum in composition “does not yet demonstrate an understanding of the complex cultural collisions, transcultural negotiations, and power differentials within and across audiences and cultures” (115). The globalizing pedagogies forwarded by university diversity initiatives are overwhelmingly informed by corporate multiculturalism: a “client-oriented” approach to diverse student populations that “celebrates” difference while “uphold[ing] problematic notions of a unified and coherent national culture and language that ignor[e] the critical impact of transnational, cross-language, and cultural relations on national states and their institutions” (113). To get away from pedagogical approaches which continue to reflect monolingual and ethnocentric assumptions about the first year writing course and the language and cultural backgrounds of “English” students and teachers, Hesford, Singleton, and García argue that compositionists need to attend to “the relationship between cultural, linguistic, and economic exchanges” in the work they do as teachers, administrators, and scholars (117).

A “Translingual Approach” to Composition Teaching and Research

There is some evidence that compositionists are becoming more open to doing the sort of work Hesford, Singleton, and García describe and paying greater attention to the cross-language and cross-cultural dimensions of writing teaching and research in the context of global economies of higher education. Recent arguments for a “translingual approach” to the teaching of writing (Horner, Lu, and Matsuda; Horner et al. “Language”) and a growing interest in scholarly work that reaches across national and cultural borders⁵ suggest a developing awareness that, as the discipline works to respond to the erosion of cultural, linguistic, and national boundaries brought about by economic globalization in the 21st century, it is limited by its fundamental association with “Standard Written English” and the United States.

In a 2011 opinion piece in *College English*, Bruce Horner, Min-Zhan Lu, Jacqueline Jones Royster and John Trimbur argue for a “translingual approach” to the teaching of writing. This approach “sees difference in language not as a barrier to overcome or as a problem to manage, but as a resource for producing meaning in writing, speaking, reading, and listening” (Horner et al. 73). Grounded in work in applied linguistics and second language studies (see Gal and Irvine; Pennycook; Kramsch; Firth and Wagner), it assumes that language is fluid and heterogeneous and that boundaries between languages are not indicative of stable, pre-existing codes but ideologically constructed. Languages are not neutral conduits through which meaning passes, but patterns in communication that emerge over time, subject to constant

⁵ As evidenced by recent conferences: *Les discours universitaires: Formes, pratiques, mutations/University Discourses: Forms, Practices, and Changes* (Brussels, Belgium 2008). *La Rédaction et al rédactologie au-delà des frontières disciplinaires et nationales/Writing Beyond Borders: Writing Studies Across Disciplinary and National Borders* (Vancouver 2008), *Littéracies universitaires: saviors, écrits, disciplines/University Literacies: Knowledge, Writing, Disciplines* (Lille, France 2010), *Writing Research Across Borders: Writing Studies Across Disciplinary and National Borders* (George Mason University, Washington D.C. 2011).

revision and reinterpretation. Because language is inherently unstable, communication is always an act of translation which involves the active participation of both speaker and hearer, writer and reader, who apply a broad range of linguistic and discursive resources to each interaction. Even those interactions where speaker/hearer, writer/reader are both ostensibly monolingual involve subjects working across languages and dialects in context-specific ways in a struggle to create meaning. As Suresh Canagarajah said in his keynote talk at the 2010 Watson conference, “We are all multilingual; all languages are mixed.” To accomplish everything from buying dinner (“Rigatoni or spaghetti?” I wonder, scanning labels) to renewing a driver’s license at the DMV (“You ready?” The woman across the counter asks me as she slides me a pen and a form), so-called monolingual “English” language users regularly apply their knowledge of conventions associated with various national languages and dialects.

Recognizing that linguistic interaction is always a negotiation redefines “fluency” in writing and reading as one’s ability to develop and then creatively apply a diverse linguistic/discursive repertoire to the production and reception of texts. To teach toward such fluency is neither to restrict student communication to an idealized variety of English, nor is to promote “additive” multilingualism, layering monolingual competences on top of one other in ways that suggest the linguistic systems are distinct and tied to particular contexts (i.e. in the U.S. one speaks English, in France, one speaks French; or in school one speaks “Standard English,” at home one speaks “Spanglish”), nor is it to fetishize mixed forms (a danger of “codemeshing” pedagogies) in ways that further reify linguistic codes. Rather, it is to recognize the inevitability of working

across languages and to promote semiodiversity—the diversity of meaning making that comes from negotiating language—in all acts of reading and writing.

A translingual approach to writing and writing teaching is intimately linked to and complemented by scholarly work that reaches across national borders. As compositionists look outward to the international writing research and pedagogy that stands to enrich their scholarship, they confront the folly in the longstanding, widespread assumption that the generalized first year writing course is unique to U.S. universities and writing scholarship and instruction is, hence, “absent” from other countries (Foster and Russell; Donahue “Cross-Cultural”, “Internationalization”; Horner, Necamp, and Donahue; Muchiri et al.). The realization that writing studies is transnational disrupts composition’s historical indifference to non-English medium scholarly work and more recent attempts to “export” composition studies to other nations. As Christiane Donahue has said, “internationalizing” composition is not about “exporting” the discipline as part of larger movement to globalize higher education. Rather, it is about reaching beyond a U.S. and English-centric paradigm of writing scholarship to accomplish the “‘hearing’ of work across borders” (“Internationalization” 2). To hear the work of the scholarly other, U.S. compositionists must engage in acts of translation, using a range of linguistic and cultural resources to work across semiotic systems and engage productively with “foreign” texts. Such transnational work is “translingual” both in practice and spirit.

Translingual and cross-cultural initiatives in composition studies participate in a larger movement across nations and disciplines to reform college curricula to reflect the global realities of language use through applying research and theory that challenges a

predominant view of languages as discrete, reified constructs clearly delineated by the boundaries of nations, cultures, and disciplines⁶. For instance, the Council of Europe's "Common European Framework of Reference for Languages" (2001), draws heavily from francophone research in *didactique du plurilinguisme et du pluriculturalism*, to "provid[e] a common basis for the elaboration of language syllabuses [sic], curriculum guidelines, examinations, textbooks, etc. across Europe" (Council of Europe 1). This research has approached languages as social representations developed to reflect global power differentials, with attention to how individual language users draw upon these representations to negotiate meaning using diverse linguistic repertoires (see Calvet; Moore and Gajo). It has developed "a new paradigm in language education that emphasizes social, cultural, and political dimensions of language education" enacted in the CEFR and other language education policy initiatives in Europe (Moore and Gajo 138).

In the U.S., the MLA Ad Hoc Committee on Foreign Languages has recommended that foreign language learning at the university level should be reformulated to support students in developing translingual and transcultural competence, emphasizing the ability of individuals to "operate between languages" (3-4). In "Foreign Languages and Higher Education: New Structures for a Changed World" (2007), a report issued in response to "a sense of crisis around what came to called the nation's 'language deficit' following 9/11," the MLA draws from research in

⁶ This includes work in critical and social theory (Bakhtin; Bourdieu; Derrida; Deleuze and Guattari; Lecerclé), applied linguistics (Canagarajah; Fairclough; Firth; Firth and Wagner; Gal and Irvine; Grosjean; Hall; Makoni; Pennycook; Khubchandani), ESL and second language studies (Alptekin; Blanchet et Coste; Byram; Cook; Kramsch; Ortmeier-Hooper; Nero; Pratt), critical translation studies (Baker; Dingwaney and Maier; Venuti), and, of course, composition (see Horner, Lu, Royster, and Trimbur; Horner, Lu, and Matsuda).

second language studies to argue against “instrumentalist” approaches to language teaching that “seek to replicate the competence of an educated native speaker” (1, 3). It suggests that language study should be situated “in cultural, historical, geographic, and cross-cultural frames” and offers recommendations for incorporating “transcultural content and translingual reflection at every level,” from K-12 to the doctorate (5).

Both the CEFR and the MLA Ad Hoc Committee on Foreign Languages report speak to a developing awareness amongst language teachers that literacy education must be dramatically restructured to reflect an image of languages as “traffic” across fluctuating semiotic systems—developed against and working with one another (Gal and Irvine; Pratt; Kramsch; Pennycook “English”). To do so, we must abandon models of literacy built around the “native speaker”⁷—a “myth” that simplifies the linguistic practices of speakers who are already multilingual and socially, historically, and discursively constructed in the processes of communicative action (Matsuda “Myth”; Pennycook; Firth and Wagner; Canagarajah; Ortmeier-Hooper). Literacy education must be redefined in relationship to what Claire Kramsch has termed the “intercultural speaker”: the multilingual who speaks/writes across languages with an acute and growing awareness of the sociocultural situatedness of linguistic forms and use. As Philippe Blanchet has described, an intercultural approach to language learning:

met en effet l’accent non seulement sur le processus de contact culturel mais également sur l’interpénétration, le métissage, des cultures, et donc des langues...[il] utilise la diversité culturelle et linguistique comme moyen d’apprentissage/puts the accent not only on the processes of language contact but equally on interpenetration, the mixing of cultures and therefore languages...it uses cultural and linguistic diversity as a mode of learning [Translation mine].

⁷ As both Trimbur (“Dartmouth”) and Matsuda (“Myth”) have argued, composition as a discipline has developed historically in relationship to an idealized image of the “native speaker” of English.

In short, an intercultural approach asserts the productive value of linguistic and cultural difference in preparing students to meet the communicative demands of a globalizing world.

The movement in composition to revise writing program curricula to reflect models of literacy alternately described as translingual, transnational, plurilingual, and intercultural might best be understood as an attempt to promote new dispositions in the discipline toward language difference. As Min-Zhan Lu and Bruce Horner argue, much composition scholarship that asserts the productive value of language differences relies upon “the very language ideologies responsible for producing ways of understanding and denigrating language difference against which such work is consciously directed” (“Translingual Literacy” 584). In these arguments, language difference—conceived in terms of minority languages and dialects or alternative and hybrid discourses—continues to be defined as a deviation from the “norm,” despite evidence that linguistic variation is, in fact, the norm in communication (see Firth and Wagner). They thus serve to reinforce, rather than challenge, the normative status of standard language. To escape from false dichotomies of “accommodation” and “resistance” to the supposed “standard,” compositionists must come to view language difference as the communicative norm, and, as such as a resource for, rather than impediment to, success in academic writing, teaching, and research

Changing what is recognized and acknowledged as the norm in composition studies is a daunting task. As Hesford, Singleton, and García observe of the monolithic notions of culture and context that structure U.S. universities’ attempts to create global, multicultural curricula “[l]ittle attention has been paid” to how assumptions about

language difference “are made, naturalized, and promoted” within the discipline (115). This lack of attention to the roots of hegemonic assumptions about language and language relations corresponds to composition’s failure to critically examine and theorize its doctoral programs, which work to construct dominant disciplinary ideologies and the conceptions of language and language relations with which these are linked.

Graduate Studies and Disciplinary Dispositions Toward Language Difference

The role of graduate studies in maintaining what Bruce Horner and John Trimbur identify as unidirectional English monolingualism, the tacit language policy that has “settled into our contemporary beliefs and practices as writing teachers” to make the teaching of “Standard Written English” in U.S. universities “seem inevitable” has, up to this point, received little attention in research concerned with matters of language and language relations in composition studies (596). This is unsurprising, given that composition scholarship, currently and historically, has overwhelmingly focused on undergraduate students, curricula, and pedagogies, leaving graduate education under-examined and under-theorized. As Stephen North has observed of the field of English generally, composition “appears to have very little historical sense, shared or otherwise, of its efforts at doctoral education” and, moreover, “no significant tradition of dealing with doctoral education *as* education” (2). Where the subject of doctoral training in rhetoric and composition does come up in scholarly conversation, it is most often viewed as a landmark of the field’s newfound “disciplinary success” and path toward legitimacy in the academy (Chapman and Tate; Brown, Meyer, and Enos;

Lauer “Doctoral”, “Dappled”). Subsequently, “the details of such training—what actually *happens* during the seventy or more credit hours most programs...requir[e]—may have been discussed in faculty lounges or teaching assistant offices” but has rarely made its way into the pages of scholarly books or journals (S. North 3).

Failing to theorize doctoral pedagogy means that it often relies upon “traditional” pedagogical models as opposed to research-based theories that have figured prominently in disciplinary literature and been commonly applied in undergraduate writing education. For example, Heidi Estrem and Brad Lucas draw from program statements and policy documents to argue that comprehensive exams often “reflec[t] a vision of an ideal writer-subject who first knows and then writes” (406). As they explain, this vision runs counter to canonical scholarship in the field on assessment and collaborative learning, and gestures toward the ways in which reified visions of subjectivity, knowledge, and language continue to inform the field twenty years after the supposed “theoretical turn” in composition called these into question. Similarly, Sidney Dobrin identifies an “inoculation model” of teaching operating in composition practicum courses—an approach that reflects dated ideas about teaching and learning in composition studies. Like Estrem and Lucas, Dobrin identifies a paradox in rhetoric and composition graduate studies: As it works to enculturate students into the field, its practices often run counter to, and even tacitly argue against, its established disciplinary theories.

As Louise Wetherbee Phelps has argued, “the maturation of Ph.D. programs in composition and rhetoric creates a rhetorical exigency to study and theorize doctoral practices of education as deeply and seriously as we have undergraduate teaching”

("Reproducing" 117). To do so, we must not simply view graduate studies through the prism of our concerns with the institutional status of the "discipline," considered in bounded and reified terms. We must begin to see graduate education *as* education: a set of (meta) pedagogical practices⁸ that are rich, multilayered, and recursive, in so far as they involve the teaching of teachers. These pedagogical practices map out the conditions of possibility in the field, and in so doing, inculcate the conceptions of language and language relations that condition the ways in which its members respond to language differences in disciplinary work.

In *Disciplining English*, David Shumway and Craig Dionne draw from Foucauldian theories of power and discipline to argue that "graduate training and the mentoring of young professionals" is key to the creation and reproduction of academic disciplines, defined as "historically specific forms of knowledge production, having certain organized characteristics, making use of certain practices, and existing in a particular institutional environment" (1-2). As graduate students are "disciplined" in graduate programs through the completion of coursework and requirements, they come to:

internalize the values, norms, and standards the discipline upholds. Since academics spend the longest "apprenticeship" of any modern professionals, they may be the most disciplined occupational group—a condition that belies the perception that academics are typically rebels or outsiders" (Shumway and Dionne 3).

The rigorous "disciplining" of new members of the profession means that "disciplinary power" exercised through the "anonymous surveillance and judgment of practitioners" does not need to be enforced from the outside (3). After graduation, the norms, values,

⁸ In its attention to "practice," this project reflects work in contemporary critical theory (Althusser; Bourdieu; Giddens) that see repeated local practices as constitutive of the macro structures of social life, including languages, discourses, ideologies, and disciplines.

and standards graduate students internalize during their studies will go on to structure their academic labor (teaching, administration, and scholarship) in what will amount to a self-policing of disciplinary boundaries.

Shumway and Dionne's description of disciplines as historically and institutionally situated sets of knowledge-making "practices" (re)produced through the training and credentialing of new members recalls Pierre Bourdieu's notion of habitus. Habitus refers to sets of dispositions that work to shape an agent's perceptions, attitudes, and practices toward and within his or her world. These dispositions are inculcated through training in such a way that they become "'regular' without being consciously co-ordinated or governed by a 'rule'" (Thompson 12). They affect the way the subject understands his or her social world through *méconnaissance* (misrecognition)—a reductive and strategic interpretation of cultural practices divorced from theoretical knowledge of those practices. In so doing, these dispositions affect possibilities for misrecognition's implied inverse: "recognition" of alternative modes of interpreting cultural practices (see Thompson 23/Bourdieu 223). While recognition is always a possible and habitus should not be understood as structurally determining in the classic sense, the "structured dispositions" of which it is made are "*durable*: they are ingrained in the body in such a way that they endure through the life history of the individual, operating in a way that is pre-conscious and hence not readily amenable to conscious reflection and modification" (Thompson 13).

Critical analysis of rhetoric and composition Ph.D. programs graduate study in rhetoric can reveal the hegemonic process by which a durable disciplinary habitus is formed through the installation of the field's constitutive norms, values, and standards

in its graduate students. In the context of efforts to promote a translingual approach to language difference in the field, it can cast light upon the ways in which dominant professional assumptions about language difference are (re)written through a particular set of material social practices revolving around the teaching of composition teachers.

Social practices, as Anthony Giddens describes them, are social activities deeply embedded in space and time that reproduce the conditions of social life in an ongoing process of structuration. These practices are continuously revised and reframed in the reflexively monitored behavior of social actors mobilizing rules and resources at their disposal. Rules and resources allow for “the ‘binding’ of time-space in social systems, the properties which make it possible for discernibly similar social practices to exist across varying spans of time and space and which lend them ‘systematic’ form.”

(Giddens 17). These structured properties of social systems are the products of an ongoing process of sedimentation in social practice where repeated practices build up to produce general principles that constitute and enforce system “norms.” As social actors use them “to negotiate routinely the situations of social life” they are continually reframed and revised, making them, at once, “medium and outcome of the practices they recursively organize” (22, 25).

The structured properties of rhetoric and composition graduate education are formalized and codified in the “official” discourse on the subject found in disciplinary literature and program policies and procedures—a discourse that must be distinguished from the graduate practices it works to represent and frame. As Giddens writes, discursive, formalized rules are “interpretations of rules rather than rules as such,” which operate at the level of practical consciousness and are often only tacitly grasped

by actors (21). The discursive representations of rules found in curricula and requirements are not quite the same thing as the sedimented structures of graduate studies which help organize the behavior of teachers and students, structures which are necessarily “out of time and space, save in [their] instantiations and coordinations as memory traces” (Giddens 25).

However, there is great power in these representations, which makes them worthy of analysis and critique. Representations, in the words of Louis-Jean Calvet, “foster and reinforce the realities [sic]” because “people believe in them, because they have ideas about them and images of them” (3, 6-7). It is because people cultivate beliefs, ideas, and images of social life in relationship to existing representations that, as Giddens describes, “the line between discursive and practical consciousness is fluctuating and permeable” (21). Further, because these representations reflect the hegemonic forces and relations endemic to the material conditions in which they emerge and are encountered, they point to the ways in which systems of power and influence operate in social life to shape a durable disciplinary habitus. Consequently, representations of graduate study and its central practices circulating in the “official,” professional discourse of journals, as well as institutional and programmatic publications, are vitally important to understanding how faculty and graduate students imagine and, hence, carry out their work as knowledgeable actors in relationship to institutional and disciplinary power structures.

Raymond Williams reminds us that hegemony is not a static condition of domination, but

...a whole body of practices and expectations, over the whole of living: our senses and assignments of energy, our shaping perceptions of

ourselves and our world. It is a lived systems of meanings and values—constitutive and constituting—which as they are experienced as practices appear as reciprocally confirming (110).

In composition, this lived system of power and influence operates through rhetoric and composition graduate programs, where dominant professional ideologies are reified in graduate curricula and transmitted through the social practices curricular policies frame. As Phelps observes, “Every doctoral program in rhetoric and composition acts out in vividly in concrete features a theory of the discipline: in its curricular content, requirements, qualifying exams and reading lists” (“Reproducing” 118). In this way, doctoral programs in general function as what Sydney Dobrin says composition practicum courses do: to offer “a version of composition studies and the profession of academic work in English” by constructing/allotting its cultural capital in certain ways (20). Through the lived experience of coursework and other requirements, graduate students come to perceive composition studies and their professional role within it in relationship to the particular, political visions of the field—its teachers, students, and work—their programs advance.

These “versions” of composition studies inevitably reflect its institutional history and, particularly, the cultural capital it has built within U.S. institutions administering undergraduate writing programs and courses. As Tom Fox, Paul Kei Matsuda, and other have noted, these courses reflect universities’ attempts to respond to (and eliminate) students’ social and linguistic differences as U.S. institutions have become more inclusive over the last century. Through socializing students to the “manners of the elite,” conveyed through and crystallized in certain formal language features identified as “Standard Written English” (Fox, *Defending* 23), first-year

composition and “basic writing” courses have functioned historically to preserve what Matsuda has called a “myth of linguistic homogeneity” in the U.S. academy: “the assumption that students are by default native speakers of a privileged variety of English from the United States” (“Myth” 639). In so far as matters of language and language relations are central to composition’s history teaching and administering “gatekeeping” undergraduate courses, they are also a central—if often unacknowledged—component of its graduate training.

As Hesford, Singleton, and García observe of the training of graduate teaching assistants (GTA’s) “certain rhetorical, cultural, and linguistic traditions have been valued over others” within rhetoric and composition graduate programs to “structure the economy of teaching” in linguistically heterogeneous, multicultural composition classrooms (119). Just as Hesford, Singleton, and García urge WPA’s to re-examine their undergraduate curricula within the global marketplace of higher education, graduate curricula must also be understood within the context of “unidirectional monolingualism and national ambivalence about multilingualism, and the conditions and contexts within which graduate [students] labor in composition” (118). Doing so reveals the implications of a lacuna in research on graduate training in the field for those working to forward a translingual approach to composition studies and points to the challenges, opportunities, and possibilities of revising disciplinary dispositions toward difference in and through rhetoric and composition graduate education.

In the following chapters, I argue that the “official,” professional discourse of rhetoric and composition doctoral studies represents and further sediments “Standard Written English” as “la langue officielle” (see Bourdieu 48) of the discipline, and,

more broadly, U.S. higher education. My analysis of major trends in coursework, exams, and “foreign” language requirements, over time shows that rhetoric and composition doctoral curricula have developed in relationship to an ideal of English monolingualism held by U.S. higher education and society at large. Consequently, these curricula have evolved to obscure the relevance of linguistic forms and practices associated with second language writers and other academic outsiders to training and professional development in the field. To see graduate studies in rhetoric and composition in this light is to both recognize it as one of the “shadowy, largely unexamined ways” “unidirectional monolingualism has shaped the historical formation of U.S. writing instruction and continues to influence its theory and practice” and to confront the ways in which graduation studies in the field has functioned historically to limit composition’s ability to serve more linguistically diverse student populations (Horner and Trimbur 594).

However, my reading of graduate syllabi, dissertation abstracts, and a survey of doctoral students’ perceptions of language diversity in the context of their professional development troubles the notion that rhetoric and composition graduate education is a site for the passive transmission of dominant language ideologies and suggests that it also a site of ideological contest and struggle, where oppositional ideologies are articulated and work to gain ground. As Louis Althusser notes, “the resistance of the exploited classes is able to find means and occasions to express itself” in ideological state apparatuses (like education) “either by the utilization of their contradictions, or by conquering combat positions in struggle” (147). In the process of transmitting professional assumptions about language and identity, graduate education in rhetoric

and composition invites faculty and students to think deeply and critically about these assumptions. Moreover, because graduate students are not yet fully interpellated into the discipline as subjects, they can offer fresh perspectives on language and language relations in composition teaching and research. In fact, I argue that it is graduate students' positions as "outsiders" and the perception of rhetoric and composition graduate education as tangential to the central concerns of the field that make graduate studies a fertile ground for the cultivation of resistant ideologies of language and modes of language teaching.

Alternative conceptions of language and its relationship to the teaching of writing that arise in graduate syllabi and reading, class discussions, seminar papers and dissertation projects are more likely to constitute a significant break from dominant professional assumptions tied to monolingual ideology than those developed within the established tradition of composition scholarship in undergraduate education. As Williams describes, "any hegemonic process must be especially alert to the alternatives and oppositions which question its dominance" and work actively to neutralize these threats by "changing or actually incorporating them" (111, 112). Williams explains that "all initiatives and contributions, even when they take on manifestly alternative or oppositional forms, are in practice tied to the hegemonic" and always, to some degree, reflect and reinforce the social formations upon which hegemony rests (114). As I believe "code-switching" alternative pedagogies illustrate, opposition which arises from disciplinary centers draws heavily upon canonical terms and concepts in the field that reflect its institutional gate-keeping role, and subsequently, is easily reducible to the "hegemonic limits and pressures" which help shape it (Williams 114). In contrast,

alternatives that arise from the disciplinary margins, “while clearly affected” by these limits and pressures, are less steeped in the theories and practices tied to the traditional hegemonic function of composition teaching and more likely to be “at least in part significant breaks beyond them” (Williams 114).

Embedded in the material artifacts and labor of individual doctoral programs⁹ are monolithic constructions of language, culture, and national identity, reified in relationship to one another—but also the potential for displacing these. The transformative power of doctoral education rests in the ways in which it operates at the level of meso-politics as a set of “disciplining” institutional practices by which the discipline is continually (re)produced. Alastair Pennycook describes the mesopolitical as “an intermediate level between the micro and the macro,” where repeated practices produce the macro structures of our social worlds: languages, genres, discourses, and ideologies (*Language* 22). Because practices are always “local”—deeply situated in the dynamic social spaces in which they occur—these structures are constantly being reinvented at the same time they are being reinforced. The micro events of human activity constitute the macro structures of social life, which are constantly “relocalized”—reframed, and remade—in each instance of individual action.

Project Overview and Methodology

In this research, I critically examine the central practices of rhetoric and composition doctoral studies to identify the assumptions about language and difference that circulate in rhetoric and composition graduate programs and the professional

⁹ Coursework, requirements, program guidelines, comprehensive exams and reading lists, faculty specializations and titles, and graduate student term projects and dissertations.

ideologies with which these are linked. I identify and explore these practices through attention to the texts that emerge from and in relationship to them: commercial teacher training materials and textbooks, program descriptions and guidelines, comprehensive exam questions and reading lists, course syllabi and other course materials, dissertation abstracts, etc. These texts represent patterns of individual action, where professional ideologies become “written” onto the bodies of novice teachers/scholars who are hailed by the field as part of the graduate training process.

This approach is no doubt problematic, given the dissonance that exists between the textual artifacts of doctoral studies and the real work that goes on in graduate programs.¹⁰ As Estrem and Lucas observe in their study of the comprehensive exam in rhetoric and composition Ph.D. programs, “[l]ocal discussions are not captured by the ‘concrete features’ of our discipline...nor are local tensions stemming from individual professors or graduate students. However, for a field composed of scholars trained in rhetoric, there are few excuses for ignoring the written embodiments of programmatic acts.” (402). If graduate program texts cannot offer a clear picture of graduate program practices, they can provide a sense of the ways in which those practices are framed/sanctioned within the institutional and programmatic environment. As such, they can reveal something about the assumptions about/ideologies of language that inform the practices of graduate education in rhetoric and composition.

There are certain advantages to a textual approach to investigating graduate program practices. As opposed to an ethnographic approach (which would limit the scope of this project in certain ways), collecting and analyzing graduate programs texts

¹⁰ As Susan Miller has shown in her study of the use of textbooks in writing courses (“Is There a Text in this Class?”), it is difficult, if not impossible to get a sense of the actual practices of teachers and students by looking at class texts.

allows me to identify major trends in a broad range of graduate program practices across a broad range of institutions. This “top down” approach involves noting similarities in the ways in which requirements are articulated, texts assigned, dissertation projects conceived and structured, etc., over time and space and then tracing the evolution of these trends in relationship to both language and the institutional conditions that have historically foregrounded or concealed issues of language in composition studies. The breadth of data I was able to collect and analyze allows me to draw broad conclusions about the treatment of language and language relations in doctoral education in the field.

I conducted my research in three phases and, in so doing, progressed from identifying and evaluating “official” discourses of rhetoric and composition doctoral studies that suggest curricular “standards”¹¹ to “relocalizations” of those discourses in institutional, and finally, individual practices. My goal in considering this series of relocalizations was to evaluate how graduate practices nested in official discourses and the institutional policies these discourse inform both forward and resist dominant monolingual ideology, and consequently, how they are positioned to contribute to or combat forces that promote monolingualism, multilingualism, and translingualism in a globalizing world.

In my first phase of research, I examined doctoral curricula as they are represented in “official,” professional discourse: journal articles, graduate catalogs, program handbooks, etc. I conducted a comparative analysis of the various *Rhetoric Review* surveys of doctoral programs in rhetoric and composition (1987, 1994, 1999,

¹¹ I follow Tom Fox in using the term “standards” to refer to received, prescribed courses of action (like “standard” language and a “standardized” curriculum) associated with vague, idiosyncratic notions of “quality” and a social and institutional aversion to change.

2007) as well as the *Rhetoric Review* “Survey of Doctoral Programs” wiki, a live resource for programmatic information continually updated by individual programs and volunteers. In my first reading, I identified four central practices (coursework, language requirements, exams, and dissertation) of rhetoric and composition Ph.D. programs implied by the organization of these surveys and their program profile templates. I then organized information from the surveys’ program profiles into searchable databases specific to each practice. I read through the data again to identify key terms that represent major trends in curricula over time. For example, the terms “linguistics” and “ESL” appeared frequently in program profiles under “coursework” in the 1987 survey. However, these terms appeared less frequently in descriptions of coursework in each subsequent survey’s program profiles, whereas terms like “rhetoric” and “theory” appeared more frequently. I analyzed trends like this one in relationship to narratives of the evolution of rhetoric and composition Ph.D. programs suggested by the essays that introduced each survey (with the exception of the current wiki, which does not have an introductory document), as well as other journal articles published as part of the special survey issues of *Rhetoric Review* and elsewhere about rhetoric and composition graduate education.

In my second phase of research, I visited the department websites of every program detailed on the *Rhetoric Review* wiki and pulled policy information related to the central practices of doctoral studies I had previously identified. I added these materials to the databases I had previously created to get a sense of how “standard” practices were being relocalized in various institutional contexts. As I did with the *Rhetoric Review* program profile information, I read through this programmatic

information to identify key terms. I then used these key terms to code the data to identify major trends in the ways in which central practices are framed through graduate program policies. To supplement this analysis, I conducted a critical reading of various editions of textbooks (*Cross-Talk*, etc.) described in the programmatic information I collected (in, for instance, course and comprehensive exam descriptions) get a better sense of the shape of these practices and the version and types of knowledge they are expected to impart.

In my third phase of research, I added specificity, historical depth, and scope to this project by looking closely at three rhetoric and composition Ph.D. programs located in three different institutions: the University of Louisville, a large urban university in a mid-sized city at the border of Kentucky and Southern Indiana, Miami University, a mid-sized, liberal arts university located in rural southwest Ohio, and Purdue University, a large, “Research 1” university with a special emphasis on science and technology located in a small city in a largely rural area of Indiana. These Midwestern programs were all established in the late 1970’s and, consequently, are relatively “long standing” in terms of rhetoric and composition doctoral studies, but they differ in terms of location, history, and mission. While the material I was able to gather for each program varied considerably in ways that made comparing these programs difficult,¹² I

¹² I was able to access considerable materials from my home institution, the University of Louisville, including all course catalogs and graduate program guidelines back to the beginning of the program as well as historical copies of comprehensive exams and syllabi. For Miami University, I was able to access the doctoral program proposal, copies of letters to alumni and interoffice memos, departmental self-studies, a few past copies of graduate program guidelines, and current syllabi. For Purdue, unfortunately, I was only able to access one past copy of the program’s guidelines, some course catalogs from the time of the programs’ inception to the present, and current syllabi posted on the department website. There was a gap of several years in the Purdue University archive’s holdings of graduate program bulletins, and both the graduate school and the English department responded to my requests by saying they did not have the missing catalogs either. The lack of records for the Purdue program was surprising to me, given the considerable thought that had gone into creating the program (see Lauer) and the extensive holdings

was able to get a sense of how each program's curricular policies and the practices these policies frame have changed over time within the local dynamics of the programs and their institutions.

In reviewing the materials I gathered from the university archives and English departments of these programs, I considered the historical role of matters of language and language relations in rhetoric and composition doctoral pedagogy, in the form of ESL and linguistics requirements, foreign language requirements, and coursework and training in addressing linguistic difference, in these programs. I also attended to the products of graduate teaching and learning in these programs (syllabi, dissertation projects, etc.) to consider the ways in which graduate teachers and students “translated” institutional policies into practice to reflect, reinforce, or alter the assumptions about language and difference upon which these policies rest. Finally, I conducted a qualitative case study of the University of Louisville program,¹³ which included a survey of current rhetoric and composition doctoral students' perceptions of language diversity in the context of their professional development. I used this survey to explore the dissonance between policy and procedure—curriculum and education—to reveal the translingual work already taking place in the University of Louisville program in the context of teaching and learning.

As a final step in my research process, I reviewed models of institutional change in composition studies, particularly with respect to matters of language and language relations in U.S. higher education. Since these matters are often more visible and

of the Purdue archives, which contain the James Berlin papers among many other materials. I believe this gap in records speaks to the ways in which graduate studies has been under-considered in scholarship generally and, specifically, in studies of institutional history.

¹³ I chose to look more closely at this program since it was the one about which I had the most information and the best access to resources.

actively negotiated in international higher education contexts, I then looked to international models of language policy change in education, which, I argue, can prove instruction to those in composition studies working to promote a “translingual approach” to writing and writing teaching. I focused specifically on the implementation of the Council of Europe’s “plurilingual” language education policy and the EU’s “mother tongue plus two” policy through the Common Framework of References for Languages (CEFR), which I mentioned earlier in this chapter. Through analyzing the CEFR and the ways in which it has been taken up and applied in higher education contexts across Europe, I worked to identify the language ideologies that surround and inform this important policy document. I then considered how lessons learned from the CEFR could help composition studies make the shift from a monolingual to a translingual paradigm of teaching and research through specific changes to rhetoric and composition graduate training.

Textual Analysis

In analyzing my materials, I refer to scholarship in rhetoric and composition, comparative literature, applied linguistics, and critical theory about the nature of language and language acquisition to determine what assumptions about language and language relations are implied by official discourse, institutional policies, and individual practices. I then connect these assumptions to a dominant monolingual ideology, a multilingual approach to writing and writing teaching that pluralizes and extends monolingual ideology, and an emerging translingual ideology of language as they have been described in this scholarship. For instance, I isolate the “foreign language

requirement” as it is termed in the *Rhetoric Review Survey* wiki, as a “standard” requirement and a part of the “official discourse” of rhetoric and composition doctoral studies. Read in the context of scholarship that brings to light and problematizes boundaries of language, culture, and social identity (Gal and Irvine; Firth and Wagner; Pennycook; Pratt; Yildiz), the requirement suggests a particular conception of language and its relationship to national culture and social identity. By referring to all other languages beyond English as “foreign” to the rhetoric and composition graduate program, and, by extension, the U.S. university, it rests upon an assumption that languages are stable, clearly delineated entities, tied to specific nations, cultures, and disciplines. It reflects a dominant monolingual ideology held in composition and U.S. society more generally, whereby the U.S. is imagined a monolingual English nation and, by extension, U.S. universities (their “English” departments, faculty, and students) are imagined as monolingual English, with English narrowly defined in terms of an idealized standard form.

In my examination of the two-fold process of relocalization whereby official discourse is relocalized in policy, and policy relocalized in practice, I considered scholarship in critical translation studies, an emerging field that illuminates the ways in which all translation is partial, selective, and ideologically driven (see Dingwaney and Maier; Tymoczko; Venuti). This scholarship suggests there is no such thing as a seamless, neutral, or value free, “translation” of official discourse into policy, or policy into practice. Rather, these translations reflect “interpretative choices determined by a wide range of social institutions and cultural moments” some “calculated” and others “dimly perceived or entirely unconscious during the translation process” (Venuti,

“Translation as Cultural Politics” 78). Deeply situated in the social and historical context of the translation, these choices are inherently political and can function to both perpetuate and resist the configuration of hierarchy as it exists in a wide spectrum of fluid sociocultural contexts associated with the graduate program text’s production and reception.

For example, the decision by many institutions to not only reproduce the “standard” “foreign language requirement” in their programs, but also keep its “official” name (which identifies the language knowledge required as “foreign”), does not simply replicate that official discourse in curricular policy in a value-neutral way. Rather, in conjunction with other common precepts of policy relocalizations of “foreign language requirements”—like the specification that the “foreign” language must not be English and the restriction of acceptable languages to those European languages (French, German, Spanish, etc.) most commonly encountered in U.S. foreign language education—it redoubles the monolingual implications of this requirement. Such policy relocalizations are strategic, signifying the “English-only”, monolingual orientation of the program and, by consequence, its willingness to engage with linguistic difference in only narrow and tokenistic ways. The relocalization of these policies in the practices students undertake to complete these requirements is also strategic. Choosing, for instance, to complete the requirement through one of many loopholes or substitutions (like taking and passing a statistics course or completing a technology project) also redoubles a commitment to English-only monolingualism in rhetoric and composition doctoral studies but also suggests a certain resistance to it, in the sense that the student

may resist engaging with linguistic difference in the circumscribed way many requirements allow.

The details of this analysis will unfold in the subsequent chapters. In the next chapter, I attend to the rhetoric and composition doctoral curriculum and matters of policy in its central practices: core coursework, exams, and dissertation. I expose the monolingual assumptions written into the policies that frame these practices, and describe monolingual ideology and the political projects in which it participates

CHAPTER II
ENGLISH MONOLINGUALISM IN RHETORIC AND COMPOSITION
DOCTORAL EDUCATION: FROM HISTORY TO CURRENT PRACTICE

In the last chapter, I outlined the exigencies for this research project through a discussion of the globalization of higher education, the changing institutional conditions it brings about, and recent arguments for translingual, cross-cultural approaches to composition teaching and research meant to address these conditions. I presented rhetoric and composition doctoral studies as a site where disciplinary dispositions toward difference are written and revised, and subsequently, as a place where these initiatives can be enacted and disciplinary, institutional, and social change can take place. I then provided a description of my methodology in examining Ph.D. programs in rhetoric and composition to identify their language politics and, ultimately, suggest possibilities for change.

In this chapter, I examine the evolution of rhetoric and composition doctoral curricula in relationship to a dominant monolingual ideology that serves as a guiding, if tacit, organizing principle of U.S. higher education. First, I locate the origins of rhetoric and composition Ph.D. programs in writing teacher training programs designed to address growing sociocultural, and by extension, linguistic diversity in U.S. universities in the 1970's. I then use the *Rhetoric Review* surveys of doctoral programs in rhetoric and composition to show how requirements in linguistics, TESOL, and basic writing

pedagogy were central components of these early programs before becoming gradually marginalized and eliminated through the 1990s and 2000s. I link this process to the effects of a dominant professional discourse of rhetoric and composition graduate studies evident in disciplinary literature like the *Rhetoric Review* surveys themselves, which work to align the field's Ph.D. programs with traditions of Western rhetorical study, research, and critical and cultural theory associated with institutional power and prestige in U.S. research universities, and, specifically, their humanities programs and English departments. I then show how this discourse was "relocalized" (Pennycook) in the institutional and programmatic policies of two case study schools.

Following John Trimbur's work on linguistic memory in U.S. culture and institutions, I argue that this process of curricular development enacts composition studies' "systematic forgetting" of its history in and current concerns with linguistic heterogeneity and difference in multilingual, multicultural U.S. institutions. I further argue that this "forgetting" takes place in relationship to an institutionalized English monolingualism and traditional hierarchies of academic work in the humanities that mutually reinforce the marginalization of language study in "English" departments. In response to these institutional pressures, rhetoric and composition doctoral curricula evolved to obscure the relevance of linguistic forms and practices associated with second language writers and other academic outsiders to professional development in the field. Subsequently, these Ph.D. programs have tended to reinforce the (incorrect) assumption that their graduate students, the undergraduate students they are being trained to teach, and the field of composition studies in general is monolingual (standard) English by virtue of their/its location in the U.S.

Language and Language Relations in Rhetoric and Composition Graduate

Education

In “The Myth of Linguistic Homogeneity in U.S. College Composition,” Paul Kei Matsuda calls attention to the fact that:

relatively few graduate programs in rhetoric and composition studies offer courses on [second language] issues, and even fewer require such courses. As a result, the vast majority of U.S. college composition programs remain unprepared for second-language writers who enroll in the mainstream composition course. (637)

While Matsuda’s observation is accurate in terms of the current state of affairs in rhetoric and composition Ph.D. programs, it is worth noting that this was not always the case. Coursework in linguistics, TESOL, and basic writing pedagogy designed to teach composition teachers to address what Matsuda calls “‘strong’ forms of linguistic difference”—language differences associated with national and cultural “others”—were a common feature of many early rhetoric and composition Ph.D. programs taking shape during the 1970s and 1980s. Of the 38 programs profiled in the first *Rhetoric Review* survey of doctoral programs in rhetoric and composition¹⁴ (1987), 66% (n=25) listed courses in linguistics, TESOL, and basic writing as “core” and 37% percent listed them as electives with a total of 92% (n=35) of all programs describing course work in these areas as components of their curricula. Roughly 1/3 (34%; n=13) of all programs profiled listed “linguistics” as an area of their comprehensive exams and 38% (n=10) of programs listed dissertation projects concerned with linguistics, basic writing, or TESOL among their “recent dissertations.”

¹⁴ This survey, like the subsequent ones conducted in 1994, 1999, and 2006, gathered information about program mission, requirements, faculty, and recent graduates and organized this material into individual program profiles listed in alphabetical order

The prominence of linguistics, TESOL, and basic writing in many early rhetoric and composition Ph.D. programs reflects the material conditions of these programs' emergence in U.S. universities. As Richard Lloyd Jones argues, the pressures created by open admissions and other academic inclusion measures in the late 1960s and early 1970s forced the creation of graduate programs in composition, and in a related turn, the emergence of rhetoric and composition as a "respectable" discipline within the academy. Lloyd Jones explains:

As Research Universities accepted more graduate students in order to have more TAs, they forced managerial expansion. In response to conscience or public relations, deans asked research people to set up training programs and mass management procedures to improve the quality of undergraduate teaching. Some of the in-service training programs emerged as *de facto* doctoral programs in composition, and these programs created an additional market for the fruits of our scholarship... We became part of the mainstream. (491)

These "*de facto* doctoral programs" were designed to support English departments' efforts to address the specific language needs of open admissions students—students who, as Lloyd-Jones argues, transformed English departments' concerns with language from "a kind of superficial formalism" to matters of "social conscience" (Lloyd Jones 490; c.f. Smitherman "CCCC"). By consequence, rhetoric and composition Ph.D. programs were often developed in conjunction with English departments' "basic writing" programs, as Margaret Strain demonstrates in her local histories of two of the first Ph.D. programs in the field at the University of Louisville and Ohio State. Strain writes that the rhetoric and composition Ph.D. at Ohio State, like U of L, was formulated to both "address the literacy issues of expansive undergraduate population[s] and fuel the research of future doctoral students"—two objectives that were imagined as interconnected and mutually reinforcing (Strain 66).

Within early rhetoric and composition Ph.D. programs, training in linguistics and its applicability to composition teaching (most notably through TESOL, but also through basic writing pedagogy¹⁵) played an important role. Since the 1950s, composition had relied on theory and research in modern linguistics to replace traditional grammar instruction with more politically responsible pedagogies to address shifting student demographics (see Crowley “Linguistics” and Faigley). Lester Faigley writes:

In the 1960s when rhetoric and composition blossomed as a discipline, advances in rhetorical theory represented by the work of Wayne Booth, James Kinneavy, and James Moffett were paralleled by new directions in language study proposed by Alton Becker, Francis Christenson, Walker Gibson, and Kellogg Hunt. By 1965 Robert Gorrell saw English teachers’ awareness of linguistics as the most important development of the first decades of CCCC, and Richard Young and Alton Becker proposed linguistics as the basis of a modern theory of rhetoric. Considerable work followed in the 1970s from lines of research established in the 1960s, including extensions of Christensen’s ideas by Frank D’Angelo, Andrew Kerek, and Max Morenberg. (241)

Faigley argues the CCCC statement on “Students’ Right to Their Own Language” (1974), which drew heavily from work in sociolinguistics and applied linguistics, “reflected a general optimism about the prospects for linguistics in the late 1960s and early 1970s” to position composition studies to develop pedagogies to address “problems of racism” in writing programs (241). Because linguistic approaches to composition research, in the words of Sharon Crowley, promised to “free students from the normative tyranny imposed on them by more traditional means of instruction” rooted in “a linguistic snobbery...decidedly out of step with democratic ideals,” these

¹⁵ In so far as early basic writing scholarship relied on theories and approaches developed in modern linguistics, including structural and transformative grammar, syntax-as-heuristic and sentence combining, and error analysis.

approaches seemed to align with the liberal project of open admissions, and by extension, the graduate programs in composition developing to support it (“Linguistics” 484, 482). In this context, a heavy emphasis on linguistics made sense in budding rhetoric and composition Ph.D. programs.

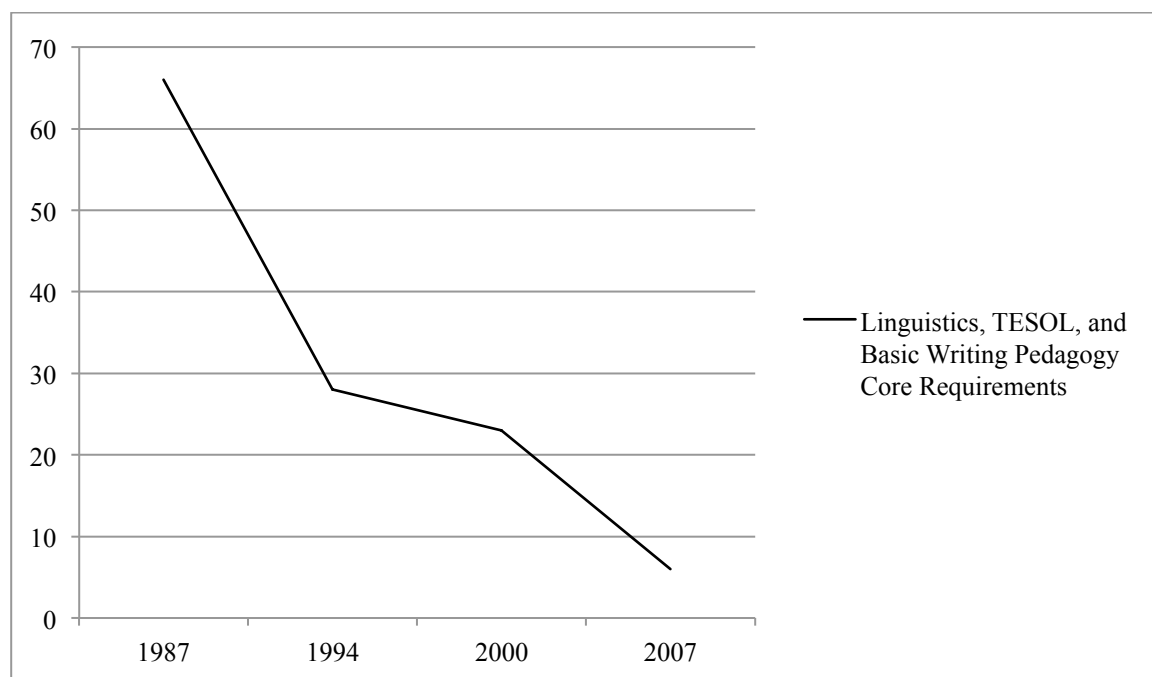
However, linguistic approaches to composition teaching were falling fast out of favor at the time the first rhetoric and composition Ph.D. programs were forming. To explain why composition moved away from linguistics during the late 1970s, Lester Faigley offers what he describes as two “easy” answers. First, the growing emphasis on “writing as process” supplanted language study as an area of research in the field. Second, Chomsky’s generative grammar shifted the focus of linguistic research away from actual language practice toward a view of language as “abstract, formal, intuitive, and acontextual” (242). If linguistics was not concerned with “how people actually used language” it seemed to have little relevance to education, as Chomsky himself admitted (242). That said, Faigley argues that the decline of linguistics in composition studies might be more accurately attributed to compositionists encountering, again and again, a more longstanding and fundamental difficulty with applying linguistic research to written discourse. Because the dominance of mathematic and scientific approaches in modern linguistics limited its analysis to small, structural units of text, its applicability to written discourse was limited. As Faigley observes “texts—unlike phonemes, morphemes, and clauses—are semantic rather than structural units” and “[s]emantics has been the least developed area of linguistics” (245).

Since linguistics had been declining in composition studies for some time, it is perhaps unsurprising that rhetoric and compositions Ph.D. programs moved to eliminate

linguistics and related courses and requirements from their curricula through the 1990s and 2000s. By the 1994 *Rhetoric Review* survey, only 28% (n=20) of 72 programs profiled still reported core linguistics requirements, and core TESOL and basic writing pedagogy courses had been completely eliminated. In the 2000 survey, only 23% (n=15) of 65 programs reported core linguistics requirements. In this same survey, only 11% (n=7) reported offering TESOL and 3% (n=2) reported offering basic writing elective pedagogy courses—even though 31% (n=20) of the programs in this survey reported that their graduate students “typically taught” TESOL or basic writing courses. In the 2007 survey, core linguistics requirements were only held by 6% (n=4) of 67 programs, with only 4% (n=3) of programs listing linguistics as an area of comprehensive exams.

Figure 2

Linguistics, TESOL, and Basic Writing Core Requirements Reported in *Rhetoric Review* Surveys of Doctoral Programs in Rhetoric and Composition.



While the number of programs offering this coursework as electives declined less precipitously, hovering around 20% in the 1994, 2000, and 2007 surveys, it is important to remember that, as electives, the regularity with which these courses were offered and the level of student enrollment and engagement within them is inherently questionable. This fact is perhaps evidenced by a significant decline in the number of programs listing dissertation titles that reference linguistics/language, basic writing pedagogy, and TESOL in response to the 1994 survey's request for a list of "recent dissertations"—down to 11% (n=6) of 72 programs from 38% (n=10) of 38 programs in the 1987 survey. Data from the 2000 and 2007 surveys, which provided additional information about dissertation areas by asking programs to provide numbers of completed and defended dissertations since the previous survey in relationship to provided categories, show the continuation of this trend. Numbers of dissertations reported in "linguistics" remained proportionally low in comparison to other areas, like "Theories of Rhetoric and Composition" (2000 survey: 127 dissertations v. 21 Linguistics; 2007 survey: 100 dissertations v. 21 Linguistics).

Of course, the four *Rhetoric Review* surveys vary considerably in terms of both the schools represented and the total number of programs surveyed, making percentages to illustrate trends in rhetoric and composition doctoral curricula through them over time somewhat suspect. Still, closer examination shows that the gradual elimination of linguistics requirements is a trend repeated in the history of many programs. The University of Alabama, Purdue University, the University of South Carolina, Texas Tech, the University of Wisconsin at Milwaukee, and the University of Iowa all reported linguistics requirements in the 1987 survey, but then failed to report these

requirements in the 1994 survey or any survey thereafter. Bowling Green State, the University of Nebraska—Lincoln, Texas Christian, Wayne State, and Texas A&M reported core linguistics requirements in the 1987 and 1994 surveys, but not the in 2000 survey. Of the 25 programs who reported core linguistics requirements in the original 1987 survey, only six—Arizona State, The Catholic University of America,¹⁶ Ohio State, Indiana University of Pennsylvania, the University of New Mexico, and the University of Washington—were still reporting the requirement in 2000, and only one—the University of Washington—was still reporting it in 2007.

Comparative analysis of the above programs' *Rhetoric Review* survey profiles shows that these programs replaced their linguistics courses and requirements with others in rhetorical history, research methods, composition theory, and critical and cultural theory. This trend is most clearly demonstrated through analysis of the 2000 survey in relationship to the 1987 survey. Between 1987 and 2000, the number of courses offered in these areas went up in each of these programs. The average number of rhetoric courses increased from 1.52 to 2.45, the average number of research courses increased from .47 to 1, the average number of composition theory courses increased from 1 to 1.75, and the average number of critical and cultural theory courses increased from 0 to .55.

¹⁶ Catholic University and University of Wisconsin Milwaukee were not represented in the 2007 survey.

Table 1

Average Number of Rhetoric, Research, and “Theory” courses in the 1987 and 2000 Surveys Listed by Programs that Lost Linguistics Core Requirements between 1987 and 2007

	1987 Survey	2000 Survey
Rhetorical History and Theory	1.52	2.45
Research in Rhetoric and Composition	.47	1
Composition Theory	1	1.75
Critical and Cultural Theory	0	.55

I argue that this shift in curricula represents a “systematic (and systematically incomplete) forgetting” of compositions studies’ (and its graduate programs’) roots in sociocultural and linguistic diversity in U.S. higher education (Trimbur 579). In “Linguistic Memory and the Politics of U.S. English,” John Trimbur explains how U.S. culture has worked to forget its multilingual, multicultural past through surrogation: “a substitution for the missing original” that imperfectly defers its memory, which then “compulsively resurfaces in the U.S. university in the form of multiculturalism, postcolonial theory, and transnational studies” (585). Following from Trimbur and his source, Joseph Roach, Brice Nordquist explains how a strategy of “surrogate doubling” has been enacted in composition studies to reinforce the notion of an idealized “Standard Written English” through the creation of linguistic antitypes: “‘mistakes’ of non-native speakers grouped according to various language-nation configurations” (In press). I argue that in rhetoric and composition graduate studies, rhetoric, research, and various “theory” courses and requirements function as “surrogates” to help create a selective memory of composition studies that elides its origins in and historical

concerns with linguistic forms and users far outside the monolingual norm of U.S. higher education.

Graduate Program Curriculum Development and the Linguistic Memory of (Rhetoric and) Composition

While composition's history is broad and varied, its memory is selective and has been discursively constructed to reflect the social and material conditions of American institutions. As Matsuda has observed, the absence of second language writing discussions in rhetoric and composition's disciplinary histories "reflects and is reflected in the way composition studies has been constructed in historical context" ("Composition" 700). Matsuda argues that second language issues in composition's history do "not appear in the work of influential historians of composition studies—such as James Berlin, Robert Connors, Susan Miller and David Russell" due to composition and ESL's efforts to "establish their own unique identities as respectable professions" within their formative periods ("Composition" 700). While Matsuda analyzes these efforts as a relatively neutral process of two disciplines' "claiming their own areas of expertise" ("Composition" 701), I wish to call attention to the ways in which these claims were made in relationship to institutional hierarchies operating within a English monolingual norm in U.S. higher education.

In "English-only and U.S. College Composition," Bruce Horner and John Trimbur argue that a "tacit language policy of unidirectional monolingualism" has shaped the formation of writing instruction in U.S. universities. English monolingualism, they explain, was institutionalized in U.S. universities in the late

nineteenth and early twentieth centuries, when education reformers successfully replaced the classical, bilingual (“in principle if not always in practice”) curriculum “of the old time pietistic college with secular education in the vernacular” (595). While Horner and Trimbur are careful not to defend the “justly discredited oral recitations and ‘translation English’ of the classical curriculum,” they call attention to the fact that “the triumph of the vernacular dramatically rearranged the relationships among languages and the roles they were slotted to play in the curriculum” (596). Languages were “territorialized” into distinct academic departments defined by national borders to reflect the assumption that “one’s social identity is defined in terms of nationality, which itself is defined in terms of a single language” (596). As Horner and Trimbur show, a “chain of reifications” involving social identity, language, language use, and language user development created the conditions for the emergence and proliferation of first year English writing courses from turn of the twentieth century to the present. These normative reifications of language, language use, and the social identity of language learners continue to “inflec[t] our work as writing teachers in consequential and sometimes unsuspecting ways” (596).

When composition studies and ESL were coming of age within the U.S. academy in the 1950s and 1960s, the chain of reifications Horner and Trimbur identify rendered the partitioning of language teaching into first and second language components seemingly both natural and necessary. Composition studies capitalized on consolidating “first language” (“mother tongue”) writing teaching in one “English-only” discipline, with English narrowly defined in terms of an idealized, “standard” form associated with national identity, patriotism, and upward mobility (see Horner and

Trimbur; Fox *Defending*). ESL established its worth by containing and working to eradicate linguistic forms and conventions far removed from this imagined “standard,” through consolidating “strong” forms of language difference associated with national and cultural “others” within its own disciplinary territory and, in so doing, helping to maintain the illusion that teaching and research in U.S. universities takes place in “English-only” (Horner and Trimbur).

Since its division from ESL, composition studies has worked to obtain greater institutional power and prestige in U.S. research universities by further distancing itself from scholarly traditions associated with its history as language teaching in the context of multiple languages, in part through its graduate programs. As Bruce Horner and Min-Zhan Lu have argued, the “rhetoric and composition” designation for the field in and of itself “glosses over” composition studies’ deep roots in education and applied linguistics, “despite the fact that many figures whose work has been historically key to rhetoric and composition, and many figures active in the field so designated, are most closely affiliated with these fields” (“Working” 487). That the “rhetoric and composition” designation is most commonly used to describe graduate programs in composition studies (as evidenced by the *Rhetoric Review* surveys), speaks to a related point Horner and Lu make about graduate curricula in the field. Horner and Lu observe that graduate programs are designed to address “concerns for achieving academic disciplinary legitimacy within the institution and profession” and in this way “reflect dominant definitions of academic professionalism” (“Working” 482).

Though rhetoric and composition Ph.D. programs have largely been considered a sign of the field's "disciplinary success" in American institutions¹⁷, composition's pursuit of academic legitimacy in and through its graduate programs has always been complicated. As James Slevin describes, the "graduate courses designed to prepare teachers" that rhetoric and composition graduate programs grew out of were traditionally seen as "lacking the rigor and breadth of other graduate offerings" in English ("Depoliticizing" 14). Like the courses in FYC, and, particularly, basic writing and TESOL they were designed to train teachers to teach, they "received only marginal status in most departments, and frequently [bore] no credit" (ibid.). The low status of these graduate courses reflects what the MLA has described as a "two-tiered" system of language study in the humanities that privileges the study of canonical literature over language teaching. According to this model "humanists do research while language specialists provide technical support and basic training," and, all too often, "work entirely outside departmental power structures and have little or no say in the educational mission of their department, even in areas where they have particular expertise" (2-3). By virtue of this two-tiered system, the development of graduate programs in composition risked reinforcing the popular image of the field as a service

¹⁷ In what amounts to the first description of graduate studies in field, Lauer describes the "Doctoral Studies in Rhetoric" meeting held at the 1980 CCCC convention in Washington, noting that it "marked an important stage in the development of the discipline" through reflecting the growing "grass-roots pressures toward organized study" ("Doctoral" 190). Six years later, Chapman and Tate's landmark survey of graduate programs in rhetoric illustrated the fruits of such pressures, with the authors observing that the field is "no longer quite so open to the indictment James Kinneavy made nearly fifteen years ago, that 'Composition is...the stepchild of the English department'" (133). In Brown, Meyer and Enos' follow up survey in 1994, the authors write that their data suggests that "the status of rhetoric and composition has changed since 1985-6" in the sense that the field has become more specialized and secure (244). And in the 2000 survey, Brown, Jackson, and Enos interpret the data (which actually shows a reduction in graduate programs in rhetoric and composition) to reflect "a move toward consolidation in the field" which indicates its fundamental health and growth (233).

discipline second and subservient to English literary studies (see Miller *Textual*) and, subsequently, undeserving of institutional prestige and support.

In this context, the installation of rhetoric, research, and various “theory” surrogates in rhetoric and composition doctoral curricula through the 1990s and 2000s not only reflects the decline of linguistics in composition, but also a strategic attempt on the part of these programs to align themselves with more privileged scholarly traditions in the humanities, and, specifically, English studies. Rhetoric courses promised to both address the semantic concerns in composition teaching neglected by modern linguistics and to add breadth and intellectual sophistication to “composition,” redefining it not as “language teaching” but as the application of rhetoric principles coding “social and civic engagement” to student texts (Horner and Lu, “Working” 477; see also Crowley, “Composition is Not”). Research courses redefined composition as a “research discipline” to reflect the historical privileging of “research” over “teaching” in humanities programs and English departments. In particular, these courses reflected the privileging of “‘basic’ research in relationship to ‘applied’ research” (Horner and Lu 484) by focusing on research associated with the theoretical analysis of texts and qualitative analysis of textual production as opposed to the kind of quantitative, empirical research frequently practiced in linguistics (c.f. Haswell). Coursework in critical and cultural theory referenced the “theoretical turn” in English studies in the 1980s and 1990s, and like Western rhetoric, had the benefit of reflecting a hermeneutic tradition of textual analysis in literary studies traditionally valued in English departments. Finally, composition theory courses addressed how rhetoric, research, and

critical and cultural theory had been and could be applied to composition teaching and, in so doing, recast as “theory” a discipline traditionally regarded as “practice.”

As with all surrogates, however, these substitutes have been an “inexact fit” for what they have replaced, and as such, “a source of ambivalence more than a resolution to the anxiety of displacement” (Trimbur, “Linguistic” 579). Despite the limitations of its structuralist approach, linguistics in composition foregrounded matters of language difference endemic to the material circumstances of rhetoric and composition’s professionalization. As Crowley, a critic of linguistics in composition, acknowledges, “[l]inguists taught teachers to look at language actually used by their students as a departure for instruction” and in so doing, “emphatically rejected the claim made by more traditional teachers that instruction should present students with an ideal language to which their own linguistic performance must be made to conform” (“Linguistics” 502). By calling attention to linguistic heterogeneity in student writing and presenting it as a central aspect of composition’s work, linguistic courses and requirements worked against normative reifications of language, culture, and discipline powerfully operative in research and scholarship in U.S. universities (see Canagarajah; Gal and Irvine; Yildiz) which render (standard) “English-only” the assumed medium of communication within their walls.

By contrast, courses and requirements in rhetoric, research, and critical and cultural theory tend to eclipse linguistic forms and practices perceived to be different from a norm of English monolingualism, as evidenced by my survey of course descriptions drawn from the department websites of Ph.D. programs currently listed on the *Rhetoric Review* “Survey of Doctoral Programs Wiki.” Over $\frac{3}{4}$ (78%; n=35) of the

48 course descriptions I was able to locate for “rhetoric” courses specified that the course would focus on a Western, Greco-Roman, Anglo-American rhetorical tradition, which was, telling, often identified as “the” rhetorical tradition¹⁸, and failed to mention rhetorics associated with “periphery” contexts and languages (see Baca; Silva, Leki, Carson). Only one course description (Iowa State) mentioned the course would be covering “non-Western” rhetorics in addition to Western ones.

Moreover, while these rhetoric course descriptions, like the critical and cultural theory course descriptions I reviewed, frequently mentioned assigning literature originally rendered in other languages (e.g. Greek, Latin, French, and German), none of them indicated that this literature might be read in its original form, of, for that matter, mentioned that these texts would be read in translation. In this way, both rhetoric and critical and cultural theory course descriptions represented English as the transparent medium of communication in the course to mask the translated nature of class texts and politics of their translation. Finally, all of the 43 “research” course descriptions I reviewed excluded non-English medium scholarship and scholarly traditions (e.g. the French field of didactics) in their descriptions of research and research methods relevant to composition studies. In so doing, these course descriptions seemed to advance the (incorrect) assumption that writing instruction and scholarship is an exclusively U.S., English-language phenomenon—a perspective that informs the separation of research courses from foreign language requirements (traditionally imagined as a “research tool” for graduate students, see Chapter 3). All together, the course descriptions I surveyed suggest that the rhetoric, research, and theory “surrogates” in rhetoric and composition

¹⁸ See, for example, Patricia Bizzell and Bruce Herzberg’s anthology *The Rhetorical Tradition*, a text designed for and often used in graduate rhetoric courses.

doctoral curricula promote a linguistically parochial perspective in composition, which, as Silva, Leki, and Carson have observed, limits its scope to Western scholarly and research traditions and writing in “English” by so-called “native speakers.”

This perspective is consistently challenged by a growing awareness amongst disciplinary members that writing research and teaching takes place internationally in a variety of languages (Donahue; Horner, Donahue, NeCamp; Foster and Russell; Muchiri et al.) and that U.S. universities are becoming more linguistically diverse. Through the 1990s and 2000s, linguistic heterogeneity has increased in U.S. universities “as a result of institutions actively recruiting students and scholars with various ethnic and socioeconomic backgrounds as well as, by implication, linguistic and cultural backgrounds” (Matsuda, “Alternative” 194). Growing numbers of linguistically diverse students and faculty means that compositionists are called upon more than ever to reckon with language differences in their teaching and scholarship. While courses in rhetoric, research, and “theory,” do address these matters in their own way, through, for instance, calling attention to the situatedness of writing in rhetorical context (writer, audience, purpose, etc.) or theoretical concepts like Bakhtinian heteroglossia or Derrida’s *différance*, they tend not to capture the complex translingual and transcultural negotiations and power differentials highlighted by a focus on “languages” (in the linguistic sense) as multiple and shifting “codes” functioning politically as indexes of ethnic, cultural, and national identity.

That compositionists are beginning to recognize the need to attend to translingual and transcultural negotiations in writing teaching and research is evidenced by the “CCCC Statement on Second Language Writing and Writers” (first published in

2001 and reissued in 2009), a document that argues to centralize second language issues in composition theory and practice, and by periodic recognition in scholarly discourse that more compositionists should be trained in language issues.¹⁹ For example, Barbara Gleason argues that rhetoric and composition graduate programs should increase standard offerings of basic writing pedagogy courses, given the abundance of scholarship and resources available to use to teach such courses and the great “need” for teacher-scholars trained in this area. Similarly, in their *College English* opinion piece on “Language Difference in Writing: Toward a Translingual Approach,” Bruce Horner et al. argue for the incorporation of “more multi- and cross-language work into graduate curricula” to prepare teacher-scholars to address the “fact” that “[I]anguage use in our classrooms, our communities, the nation, and the world has always been multilingual rather than monolingual” (309, 303). And yet, rhetoric and composition Ph.D. programs have continued to eliminate the linguistics, TESOL, and basic writing pedagogy coursework and requirements that have historically served to address matters of language and language relations in their curricula.

Admittedly, linguistics, TESOL, and basic writing pedagogy courses and requirements have often been problematic, and, in many ways, have failed to align with “translingual” approaches to writing theory and practice designed to address the

¹⁹ See *College English* [Cross-Language Relations in Composition, 69 (2006)], *JAC* [Working English in Rhetoric and Composition 29.1-2 (2009)], and *WPA* [Second Language Writers and Writing Program Administrators, 30.1-2 (Fall 2006)]. See also edited collections *Language Diversity in the Classroom*, *ALT/DIS: Alternative Discourses and the Academy*, *Cross-Language Relations in Composition*, *Writing in Multicultural Settings*, *Generation 1.5 Meets College Composition: Issues in the Teaching of Writing to U.S.-Educated Learners of ESL*, and *Code-Meshing as World English: Pedagogy, Policy, Performance*. Finally, see the 2011 Watson Conference (theme: Working English in Rhetoric and Composition) and the 2011 Penn State Conference on Rhetoric and Composition (theme: Rhetoric and Writing Across Language Boundaries).

essential linguistic heterogeneity of modern social life. As I discuss in Chapter 3, these courses and requirements have tended to be dominated in their form and content by monolingualist conceptions about the nature of language and social identity and, subsequently, have worked to “contain” traditionally recognized categories of language differences in particular, often marginalized, curricular spaces within rhetoric and composition Ph.D. programs. However, the presence of these courses in curricula has served to foreground a diversity of linguistic forms and practices in composition and the need for those seeking entry to the field to reckon with them. In this way, they have worked against a pervasive and illusory “myth” of linguistic homogeneity— “the assumption that college students are by default native speakers of a privileged variety of English” —which has masked matters of language and language relations in U.S. college composition throughout its history (Matsuda, “Myth” 85). Their loss has also foreclosed possibilities for the inclusion of more recent, critical linguistic, second language writing, and basic writing scholarship in rhetoric and composition Ph.D. programs and, ultimately, has worked to position (standard) English as the invisible medium for communication in the field.

Because rhetoric and composition doctoral curricula often fail to capture the multilingual realities of composition teaching and research, they are a source of ambivalence about language conventions that diverge from an English-only norm of composition teaching and scholarship—an “anxiety of displacement” that can be witnessed in the dominant professional discourse of rhetoric and composition doctoral studies that works to install and maintain these surrogates.

Surrogation and Forgetting: The Rhetoric Review Surveys' Narrative of Doctoral Studies in "Rhetoric"

This dominant professional discourse both emerges from and shapes the material social practices of teaching and learning in rhetoric and composition graduate studies. In an ongoing process of structuration (see Giddens), patterns in rhetoric and composition graduate program practices coalesce to form "rules and resources" that faculty and students use to navigate its processes across time and space. Discursive representations of these rules and resources emerge as attempts to isolate and stabilize them, producing curricular "standards" that bind and unify doctoral studies as it takes place in a broad range of institutional settings. These representations of program content and curricula in disciplinary literature are then "relocalized"—reframed and remade (see Pennycook *Language*)—in the actions of individual graduate students, teachers, and administrators who use them to cultivate beliefs, ideas about, and images of graduate education in the field that they then use to coordinate their behavior in relationship to it.

The various instantiations of the *Rhetoric Review* survey of doctoral programs in rhetoric and composition have been particularly powerful in this regard. The four surveys, published in 1987, 1994, 2000, and 2007 in special issues of the *Rhetoric Review*, have not only provided forums through which individual programs have been able to represent their missions, faculty, requirements, and recent graduates. They have also narrativized the data provided by these programs into a story of the evolution of graduate education in rhetoric and composition as it has, in their terms, "opened up" (1987), "grown" (1995), "consolidated" (2000), and "matured" (2007). This narrative,

embedded in the authors' analyses of current trends as well as the design of the survey apparatus itself, has worked to centralize rhetoric, research, and theory while marginalizing a tradition of study in linguistics seemingly less relevant to the humanistic concerns of rhetoric and composition teacher-scholars.

In the first *Rhetoric Review* survey conducted in 1985-6 and published in 1987, authors David W. Chapman and Gary Tate critique many of the programs profiled as lacking "a well defined core of related courses" (129). They write:

Courses in linguistics, technical writing, basic writing, English as a Second Language, and composition pedagogy are thrown together into a 'grab bag' with seemingly little thought given to the relationship among these various fields. (129)

This description speaks to the prevalence of both linguistic courses (the first set of courses described) and courses focused on the relations between composition and linguistics (technical writing, basic writing, English as a Second Language) in early rhetoric and composition graduate education. It also speaks to a professional desire to reorganize curricula (and in so doing, render them coherent) along different lines that perhaps do not speak as directly to the institutional conditions that gave rise to many Ph.D. programs. In fact, Chapman and Tate fail to acknowledge these conditions at all and, instead, attribute their emergence to a "recent growth of interest in rhetoric that has been reflected in the graduate curriculum in English," a sentiment that is echoed in other discussions of graduate program development (see Lauer "Doctoral Programs"; "Dappled Discipline). Locating the origins of rhetoric and composition graduate programs in rhetorical study, and not the language teaching training programs of the 1970's, risks denying the social and material history of rhetoric and composition graduate programs and the institutions in which they are situated. It also gestures toward

what a “well-defined core” curriculum might look like, one that places not only “rhetoric,” but also humanistic research and critical and cultural theory, rather than language teaching, at its center.

In the 1995 survey, authors Stuart C. Brown, Paul R. Meyer, and Theresa Enos suggest the emergence of such a core, noting with approval the “strong sense of focus and purpose in program descriptions that the schools provided” (242). While they acknowledge that rhetoric and composition Ph.D. programs “may well have” begun as part of enhanced composition teacher training following open admissions, they emphasize that “things are now quite different.” (248). The differences between past and present programs might be summed up in their portrait of a “typical doctoral program” in rhetoric and composition—one that varies considerably from the picture Chapman and Tate painted in the 1987 survey. They write:

The typical program that responded to our survey...has eight faculty in [rhetoric and composition]...two specialize in rhetorical and/or critical theory, two in rhetorical history, one in composition pedagogy, one in technical and professional communication, one in research methodology, and one in a variety of subdisciplines such as computers and composition, gender studies, or writing program administration... Students are about equally likely to write dissertations in any of these five areas: composition pedagogy, rhetorical history, rhetorical theory, rhetoric and literature, or composition research. (248)

“Linguistics,” “basic writing,” and “TESOL” are not identified as areas of faculty or student research, notwithstanding the fact that 28% of programs in this survey listed linguistics amongst their core requirements and 38% of programs mentioned linguistics/language, basic writing, or TESOL in their program descriptions. These numbers suggest that, even if these areas are less central now than there were in the past, they are still matters of faculty and student scholarship. By imagining faculty and

student work primarily in terms of rhetoric, research, and theory, the “typical program” profile represents rhetoric and composition doctoral education in ways that further the installation of these surrogates in disciplinary memory.

The 2000 survey does more to document, and in so doing, cement, the growing centralization of these surrogates in rhetoric and composition doctoral studies. Where the other surveys used the term “rhetoric and composition” in their titles, authors Stuart C. Brown, Rebecca Jackson, and Theresa Enos title this survey “The Arrival of Rhetoric in the Twenty-First Century: The 2000 Survey of Doctoral Programs in *Rhetoric*” (my emphasis). In doing away with the term “composition” (and its association with language teaching), they foreshadow their analysis of trends in curricular development. In it, they describe “a collective vision the discipline appears to have developed about what constitutes ‘core study’ in rhetoric at the doctoral level” (237). They write:

we see [a] growing collective “agreement” about which courses are integral to doctoral study in rhetoric. The vast majority of programs require a course in the history of rhetoric, rhetorical theory (classical to modern), theories of composition, and the teaching of composition (or writing). (238)

The authors describe this “agreement,” predicated on the elimination of linguistics and related requirements, as evidence that doctoral programs in “rhetoric” have “matured.” However, this agreement is far from settled, as the drop in these requirements between the 1994 and 2000 surveys is not as significant as that in between the 1987 and 1994 surveys. In fact, almost one quarter (23%; n=15) of the 65 programs represented still reported core linguistics course requirements, and elective TESOL and basic writing courses, though reduced from previous years, were still reported by some programs (Auburn, Bowling Green State, Ohio State, Purdue, Ball State, and others). Through

their description of the “agreement” which replaces these courses with others in rhetoric, research, and theory, Brown, Jackson, and Enos work to advance the trend. Their success in doing so is suggested by the numbers of these courses in the 2007 survey.

In the final (2007) survey, core linguistics requirements are drastically reduced, with only 6% (n=4) of 67 programs reporting them, and only 4 programs represented reporting elective TESOL or basic writing pedagogy courses. This survey differs from the previous ones in the sense that, in their analysis, authors Stuart C. Brown, Theresa Enos, David Reamer, and Jason Thompson focus on applicant demographics, admissions criteria, GA training and support, and job placement—not curricula. This focus suggests that the “agreement” about the doctoral curriculum Brown, Jackson, and Enos named in the previous survey has settled into a collective understanding—that rhetoric, research, and theory have been successfully installed at the heart of the doctoral curriculum and that linguistics, TESOL, and basic writing have been moved to its periphery. However, the anxieties that surface in the discussion of “Challenges and Opportunities” point toward an underlying tension inherent in the survey and the vision of graduate studies in the field it has, over time, cultivated and transmitted.

The survey, the authors admit, “reveals much about what we don’t know” with respect to matters like student “diversity (including international students)” and “information about the internationalization of graduate programs in rhetoric and composition [which] would provide insight in to the direction of the field” (339). The authors also wonder, “Are our PhD programs preparing graduates for the kinds of careers that they obtain?” These questions and concerns reflect the material conditions

of graduate study in not only “rhetoric,” but also composition that bring matters of language and language relations erased from curricula increasingly to its fore.

Two Case Studies in Relocalizing the *Rhetoric Review* Survey Narrative: The University of Louisville and Miami University

In order to illustrate how the *Rhetoric Review* surveys’ vision of doctoral studies in the field has been relocalized in particular institutional contexts, I will now consider the curricular history of two programs: The University of Louisville’s Ph.D. in Rhetoric and Composition and Miami University’s Ph.D. in English (composition and rhetoric specialization). My intent in sketching the following case studies is not to write a conclusive history of these two programs, but rather, to provide brief narratives of their curricular development set within their particular institutional contexts. These narratives reflect the resources available to me as a researcher researching curricular development and change, and vary from rich with regard to my home institution, Louisville, and somewhat limited with respect to Miami University. That said, there is enough to show how surrogation and the subsequent “forgetting” of each program’s history in linguistics, TESOL, basic writing, and subsequently, matters of language and language relations, is enacted in relationship to institutional conditions and the pressures they create.

A Graduate Program to Support an “Urban Mission”: The University of Louisville Ph.D. in Rhetoric and Composition

The University of Louisville doctoral program in rhetoric and composition formed in 1977 in response to the institution's need for writing teachers to teach a growing population of linguistically diverse students. Over the course of the late 1960's through the 1970's, tuition at Louisville was halved and scholarships were added to dramatically expand its enrollment and change its demographics. By 1979, U of L had more African American students than any other university in Kentucky (including Kentucky State, a historically black university), and had amassed a "less affluent white student population" ("English Ph.D."). Public outcry about declining standards at U of L coalesced in a discussion about the language education of these students in the local media. As one *Louisville Times* reporter described them, these students "from low income and culturally deprived homes...come from areas such as sections of southern Jefferson county or black inner-city neighborhoods where a dialect is spoken. For such students...standard, written English must almost be taught as a foreign language" (Raymond). In response, U of L expanded its basic writing program under then director of composition Joseph Comprone, hired in 1976. It was Comprone who spearheaded the rhetoric and composition emphasis in the pre-existing English Ph.D. program and, later, argued to make the emphasis the sole focus of the program when the state proposed eliminating it on the grounds it duplicated the English Ph.D. at the University of Kentucky. Comprone argued convincingly that the Ph.D. program in rhetoric and composition was a course of study in teacher training that, as he emphasized to one reporter, met the university's "urban mission," the changing demographics of higher education nationally, and the needs of those undergraduate students who "can't write a sentence" (Aprile B2).

As Comprone describes in his 1981 article “Graduate Programs for Teachers of Basic Writing: The University of Louisville’s Ph.D. in Rhetoric and Composition,” the Louisville program was designed to reflect “the specific needs of our institution” by providing “a foundation for the training of basic writing teachers” (24). He argues that this foundation necessarily requires a working knowledge of “applied linguistics”—“theories and methods of analyzing syntax”—and other areas of linguistics deemed specifically relevant to the teaching of open admissions students who either “speak English as a second language” or come from “oral cultures” (“Graduate” 29). He writes:

Training in English as a second language, in contrastive linguistics and error analysis, and in sociolinguistics provides a basic writing teacher with both the cultural-linguistic understanding and the empirical-analytical skills to develop more effective writing programs for such students...Courses in sociolinguistics, history of the English language, and teaching English as a second language will prepare teachers for the cross-cultural and dialect-interference problems their students have when they write ‘academic English.’ (“Graduate” 30)

The concern with linguistic difference and change Comprone describes is evident in the early U of L curriculum, as it is outlined in the Graduate Program Guidelines for the first year of the rhetoric and composition concentration (1977-8). Applicants to the program were required to “show evidence of having taken college level courses in the history of the English language, general approaches to grammar,” and in the absence of having taken such courses, were required to complete the department’s own ENG 523 History of the English Language and ENG 522 Structure of American English before matriculating into the program. Once matriculated, all students had to complete at least two courses in the core area of “Linguistics and Reading,” an area that included descriptive linguistics, sociolinguistics, and ESL teaching courses under the “ENG” prefix. “Linguistics and Composition” was an area

of the qualifying exam (until the exam was eliminated was in 1985), and “Linguistics, Composition, and Pedagogy” was one of three options for the comprehensive exam.

In late 1980’s and through the 1990’s, the role of linguistics was reduced in the program while the role of rhetoric was expanded. In 1987, the year Chapman and Tate published the first *Rhetoric Review* survey, the comprehensive exam was redrawn, and the “Linguistics, Composition, and Pedagogy” exam was eliminated. Under the new exam structure, linguistics was one of five possible options for the “Interdisciplinary Studies and Composition Exam” and “History of Rhetoric” was elevated to the level of having its own, required exam. In 1989, the number of linguistics courses students were required to take was reduced from two to one, and the number of linguistics courses available to doctoral students for credit was reduced from nine to five. At the same time, available courses in rhetoric doubled from three to six.

Table 2

University of Louisville graduate courses in rhetoric and linguistics in 1987 and 1989.
This table shows a decrease in graduate linguistics courses and an increase in graduate rhetoric courses between 1987 and 1989.

	1987 Graduate Courses	1989 Graduate Courses
Rhetoric	History of Rhetoric	History of Rhetoric
	Rhetorical Approaches to Literature for the Teacher of Writing	History of Rhetoric II
	Special Topics: Rhetoric	Rhetorical Approaches to Literature for the Teacher of Writing
		Rhetoric and Technical/Professional Discourse
		Special Topics, Rhetoric
		Seminar in Rhetorical Theory
Linguistics	The Teaching of English	Linguistics

Linguistics	Teaching of English as a Second Language
Descriptive Linguistics	Seminar in Linguistics
Sociolinguistics	Recent Philosophy of Language
Seminar in Linguistics	Language and Cognition
Recent Philosophy of Language	
Psycholinguistic Theory	
Teaching English as a Second Language	
Integrative Language Seminar	

In 1991, the comprehensive exam was restructured again, and this time, linguistics was no longer a stated component of any of the three required examinations in Contemporary Rhetorical Theory, a Specified Research Area, and a Literary Period. During the same year, there was a subtle change in admissions guidelines. Every previous edition of the “Graduate Program Guidelines” stated that applicants were expected to show coursework “in the history of the English language,” but this was changed in the 1991 “Guidelines” to state they were expected to “have taken advanced college-level coursework in the history of *criticism*” (my emphasis), notwithstanding the fact the program remained, as it had been since 1980, solely in Rhetoric and Composition, and not in English literature. Though the expectation that prospective students had taken coursework in “English grammar” remained, the concern with English, and more broadly, language had been effectively dehistoricized—removed from the material social history of the production of its conventions. In its place, a concern with historical knowledge of a particular interpretative tradition associated with

the study and teaching of literature was inserted, signaling the privileging of traditional structures of academic study in English in the curriculum and the beginning of the end of its concern with linguistic study and, by extension, the matters of language and language relations it brought to the fore.

The 1996-7 “Graduate Program Guidelines” is that last available of these documents that lists the single, three credit linguistics course requirement. In the years that followed, linguistics courses were relocated to the Humanities department as part of the formation of an M.A. concentration in 2001. Linguists retired from the English department (Robert Miller, Karen Mullen) or were moved to new departments (Robert St. Clair) and new hires were exclusively in rhetoric and composition, literature, and creative writing. Though the 3 credit linguistics requirement was still listed in the University of Louisville Graduate Catalog until Fall 2005, it is interesting to note that U of L does not report it in the 2000 *Rhetoric Review* survey— a choice which perhaps speaks to a feeling on the part of the graduate committee that the requirement was unnecessary or undesirable and, ultimately, foreshadows its eventual demise. By 2008, linguistics was not only not required, it was also not offered within the program. Students who wished to take linguistics courses had to exercise their option for one elective course outside the field to count for credit toward their degrees (2008 Guidelines).

This remains the current situation, notwithstanding the fact that the program description in the current (2012-2013) “University of Louisville Graduate Catalog” still mentions graduate training in “linguistics” as one aspect of the program. That this relic of the past curriculum is preserved in the program’s description could simply be

attributed to the low priority of revising the program statement in relationship to other, more pressing tasks of administering the graduate program. However, it might also point, at least in part, to an anxiety that lingers in the wake of displacing U of L's linguistics requirements—an anxiety rooted in the recognition that the matters of language and language relations signaled by linguistics training are indeed still relevant to the work of graduate students and faculty in the department.

A Graduate Program to Prepare Students for Jobs: The Miami University Ph.D. in English (composition and rhetoric specialization)

Unlike the Rhetoric and Composition Ph.D. program at U of L, Miami University's composition and rhetoric Ph.D. specialization did not arise in response to demographic change in its own institution. Rather, it developed to reflect a changing job market in English studies brought about shifting demographics in higher education nationally. A 1995 program self-study describes the composition and rhetoric “major” as beginning in:

the early 1970's, when three of our faculty (two linguists) and a specialist in American literature conducted an influential study of the effectiveness of sentence-combining as an instructional technique. Largely because of the interest their project generated among faculty and graduate students, activity in composition grew and additional composition specialists were hired. By 1980, the department added composition and rhetoric to the seven literary examination areas (Powell et al. 10).

This brief history glosses over the ways in which this interest was driven by the material conditions of work in English studies during the late 1970's—circumstances which English faculty and graduate students were keenly aware as they considered the future of Miami's Ph.D. in English in 1978.

Departmental correspondence from this year shows that the department's graduate committee was considering drastically reducing or even eliminating the Ph.D. in English Literature and Language due to concerns about "the terrible plight of young, highly qualified Ph.D.'s who cannot find tenure-track positions" (Harwood). Director of graduate study Donald Fritz requested feedback from alumni on whether the program should continue, and if so, how it might better prepare graduates for jobs. Several alumni urged the program to capitalize on Don Daiker, Max Morenberg, and Andrew Kerek's "sentence combining" research as well as Paul Anderson's research in technical writing to better position graduates to find work in English departments given, as one alumnus wrote, the undeniable "trend toward hiring people with preparation in technical writing or linguistics and sentence combining" (Anderson). Citing this faculty expertise, alumnus Jack Selzer suggested that "Composition be elevated to a status equal to the eight literary 'fields' that students may choose to concentrate in." These recommendations, in conjunction with a Miami University English Graduate Organization (EGO) position paper arguing for the need for more professional training in composition, led to the creation of the composition and rhetoric specialization in 1980.

The beginnings of the Miami specialization in faculty research on the intersections between linguistics and writing (in the form of "sentence combining" and technical writing research) speaks to the centrality of applied linguistics research in the emerging field of composition studies in the 1970's. The early curriculum at Miami reflects this state of affairs, as students in all majors were required to take a general linguistics course, English 601 Introduction to Language and Linguistics, in addition to

four other required courses: English 602 Introduction to Rhetoric, English 603 Introduction to Literary Criticism, and English 604 Introduction to Research. In 1985, however, the curriculum changed so that students now had a choice between English 601 and English 603, linguistics or criticism. The introduction of this choice coincided with an expansion of course offerings in composition theory (English 731 The Theory and Practice of Teaching Composition, a new required course for TAs) and research (English 730 Studies in Composition Research and Pedagogy). It also corresponded with the creation of the “double-major,” which required students to choose primary and secondary specializations from nine fields (seven literary historical periods, literary theory, and composition and rhetoric) or create a devised field.

Through the 1990’s, course offerings in research, theory, and rhetoric continued to expand as the role of linguistics in the curriculum was reduced. In the 1995-6 “Miami Graduate Catalog,” English 601 Introduction to Language and Linguistics is no longer included among course requirements, which were listed as English 603 Introduction to Literary Criticism and English 605 Historiography and other Issues in the Profession, a new course. The reconstitution of the formerly required linguistics course as an elective coincided with the creation of several other new courses: English 732 Studies in Composition Theory, English 733 Studies in Rhetoric, English 734 Issues in Composition Pedagogy, and English 735 Research Methods in Composition. While a 1995 department self-study includes linguistics as one of five areas in which “all doctoral candidates in the field should have proficiency” (the others being pedagogy, history, theory, and research methods), the study does little to explain how this proficiency is to be attained given that, at the time, Miami had only three 600 level

linguistics courses available for doctoral students to take. The self-study offers a much more detailed account of how students might make use of available resources (in the form of new coursework and faculty specializations) in literary and cultural theory in order to complete scholarly projects that reflect the department's interest in "unifying composition and literary studies"—the only way in which interdisciplinary scholarship is imagined in the document (Powell et al. 12).

It is significant that the Ohio Regents' review of Miami's English doctoral program in 1995, for which the 1995 self-study was conducted, expressed "concern...for the intellectual rigor and academic viability of all English doctoral programs in the state" given "the sudden growth of Rhetoric and Composition programs" (Walters). That said, the Ohio Regents found the Miami program to be "of high quality and academically rigorous" (Walters). By aligning the program with literary studies and particularly, literary and cultural theory, and not with linguistics or technical communication, the department worked strategically in its self-study to affirm that the program met the Ohio Regents' "standards of viability" and, subsequently, would continue to receive material support from the state. In so doing, it kept the program firmly ensconced in the English department, avoiding potentially complicated interdisciplinary relationship with other departments offering linguistics courses (i.e. Psychology and various modern language departments) as part of an interdisciplinary undergraduate major in the subject.

By the next department self-study, conducted in October 2000, linguistics was not mentioned at all as an area of focus or concern in the Miami curriculum. While sociolinguistics is cited as a "well established devised field" for students creating what

the department referred to as their graduate program “majors,” the documents notes the trend toward new devised fields in “postcolonial literature and theory, women’s rhetoric, feminist theory and rhetoric, and performance studies,” suggesting that self-designed majors in sociolinguistics were somewhat passé (Sadoff et al. 26).

Though catalogs and department self-studies from 1995 and 2000 suggest that linguistics had been all but eliminated from the program, other documents suggest otherwise, pointing to some ambivalence about the place of linguistics in the curriculum. A copy of the “Miami University English Graduate Program Handbook” from the 2000-2001 academic year lists ENG 601 Introduction to Language and Linguistics as a “foundation course” for the composition and rhetoric major. Moreover Miami, in both the 1994 and 2000 *Rhetoric Review* surveys, represents itself as having core linguistics requirements (described as “Linguistics and Writing” in the 1994 survey and “Introduction to Linguistics” in the 2000 survey) in direct contradiction to the information in the Miami Graduate Bulletins from those years. For certain audiences, e.g. the readers of the *Rhetoric Review* survey, disciplinary insiders (and potential Ph.D. applicants) familiar with the conditions of writing teaching and learning, linguistics might be considered a desirable requirement to be seen as having. For others, i.e. the readers of the graduate bulletins (which includes program members, but also institutional authorities), perhaps it is one to be downplayed. At any rate, incongruities within the data about Miami’s Ph.D. specialization in “composition and rhetoric” suggest that the position of linguistics within this program is contested and unclear—a condition which points to a broader trend in rhetoric and composition doctoral education.

Conclusion: Inconsistencies and Underlying Tensions

Inconsistencies within the official, professional discourse of rhetoric and composition doctoral education point toward the ways in which matters of language and language relations continue to linger and resurface in graduate study in the field. There is, for instance, a mismatch in every *Rhetoric Review* survey between the programs who state an interest in linguistics and language in their program descriptions and those who state they require or offer courses in linguistics, basic writing, and TESOL in their descriptions of their curricula. Subsequently, many more programs identify their interest in these issues than actually provide for their study—and numbers of programs stating this interest have held steady even as courses have disappeared. Of course, these discontinuities reflect the unreliability of graduate program texts as indicators of graduate program practices, which are embodied, continually emerged, and necessarily unlocatable. However, varying interpretations of these practices in different texts (surveys, journal articles, graduate program guidelines, catalogs, etc.) speak to the tensions that are continually negotiated through and within them. Amongst these, language and language relations are particularly salient in disciplinary history and present practice in ways I will explore in the subsequent chapters.

CHAPTER III
MULTILINGUALISM IN RHETORIC AND COMPOSITION GRADUATE
EDUCATION: LINGUISTICS, BASIC WRITING, TESOL, AND “FOREIGN”
LANGUAGE REQUIREMENTS

In the last chapter, I discussed the evolution of rhetoric and composition doctoral curricula in relationship to a monolingual norm serving as a guiding, if tacit, principle of teaching, learning, and scholarship in U.S. universities. I outlined the gradual elimination of linguistics, basic writing, and TESOL pedagogy requirements designed to train teachers to address language differences associated with national and cultural “others” in favor of rhetoric, research, and critical and cultural theory requirements associated with greater institutional power and prestige in the humanities programs and English departments of U.S. research universities. This exchange, I argued, both reflected and advanced a dominant monolinguist ideology in rhetoric and composition graduation education (and, more broadly, the discipline, departments, and institutions in which it is situated) through promoting the notion that matters of language and language relations are outside the scope of Ph.D. programs in the field.

In this chapter, I look more closely at the structure of current and historical curricular requirements designed to address the existence of “other” languages outside the “standard” English medium curriculum in rhetoric and composition teaching and

scholarship. This includes training in linguistics, TESOL, and basic writing designed to prepare writing teachers to reckon with the existence of language conventions associated with other national languages and varieties of English in their classrooms. It also includes the “foreign” language requirements traditionally used by humanities disciplines to prepare graduate students to access texts written in other national languages for the purposes of their scholarship. I argue that these requirements tend to be structured and administered according to monolinguist conceptions that undercut their effectiveness at preparing future teacher-scholars in rhetoric and composition to conduct teaching and research across languages and cultures. Because the monolingual ideology that frames them often renders them ineffectual and tokenistic, these “multilingual” requirements have been marginalized within the rhetoric and composition Ph.D. curriculum and subject to reduction and elimination.

To make this argument, I use programmatic material drawn from my three focal schools and information gathered from websites of other programs to analyze the form and content of linguistics, TESOL, and basic writing pedagogy training in relationship to its elimination in the 1990s and 2000s—a trend that is documented in the *Rhetoric Review* surveys of doctoral programs in rhetoric and composition (1986, 1994, 1999, 2006, and the current wiki). I then identify the current trend toward reducing and eliminating “foreign” language requirements in English departments broadly and rhetoric and composition Ph.D. programs specifically, as documented by the MLA and evidenced by the *Rhetoric Review* surveys. Using programmatic information collected from the websites of the 38 schools that identify having language requirements in the *Rhetoric Review* wiki, I analyze moves to reduce and eliminate language requirements

in various institutional contexts in relationship to dominant trends in the structure and administration of these requirements. I conclude by calling attention to the mutable nature of curricular policies that emerge in relationship to graduate program practices and gesture toward the ways in which problematic policies, like the ones I have identified in this chapter, may be revised in the wake of movements to adopt a translingual approach to the teaching of writing and a cross-cultural, transnational approach to writing research.

Multilingualism in Teaching: Linguistics, TESOL, and Basic Writing Courses

Traditionally, rhetoric and composition Ph.D. programs have used training in linguistics, TESOL, and basic writing to prepare graduate students to teach students whose language differences marked them as national and cultural “others” in U.S. universities. In 1981, Joseph Comprone argued that training in theoretical and applied linguistics, particularly, “English as a second language, in contrastive linguistics and error analysis and in sociolinguistics” helps composition teachers to develop “both the cultural linguistic understanding and the empirical analytical skills to develop more effective writing programs” for linguistically diverse open admissions students (“Graduate” 29). In 2006, Barbara Gleason praised the existence of and argued for further development of graduate basic writing pedagogy courses that “offer opportunities to study widely discussed issues surrounding such topics as students’ right to their own languages, teaching and learning standardized English, ideologies of language deficits and literacy skills instruction” (55). These courses, she reasoned, prepare graduate students to teach and administer writing programs for a broad

spectrum of student writers whose linguistic practices are marked as “other,” including “people of color or speakers of more than one language or dialect, refugees or immigrants, [and]...people with learning or other disabilities (Uehling qtd. in Gleason 51). And in a recent (2013) survey of first year writing instructors, Paul Kei Matsuda reported that composition teachers often link their preparedness to teach L2 writers to their completion of “relevant graduate-level coursework in L2 writing (n=15; 20.27%), methods of teaching a second language (n=18; 24.32%), and English grammar (n=23; 31.08%)” (“Writing” 71).

Because training in linguistics, TESOL, and basic writing has been and continues to be perceived as providing “special preparation” for composition teachers to address language differences in their classes, critical analysis of the ways in which this training has framed matters of language and language relations is crucial to understanding how language issues have been conceived of and approached in rhetoric and composition doctoral education and, in turn, how ideologies of language have functioned within it to shape possibilities for addressing the linguistic heterogeneity of U.S. universities. The presence of “special” courses in these areas in and of themselves suggests that matters of language and language relations are separate and distinct from the rest of the monolingual English curriculum—matters to be taken up in addition to, but not as interactive with and constitutive of, issues of teaching and scholarship that take place in other, more central courses, like the pedagogical practicum, rhetorical and composition theory, and research methods. Moreover, the content of specialized courses in these areas—understood in terms of their objectives and the literature discussed and studied within them—speaks to both their effectiveness in preparing composition

teachers to address linguistic diversity in their classrooms, and, relatedly, the question I posed in the last chapter: Why have these courses been eliminated even as linguistic heterogeneity has increased in writing programs and the “needs” they address have become more pressing?²⁰

To answer this question more fully than I have up to now is to explicate the links between linguistics, TESOL, and basic writing specialized graduate coursework and a dominant, structuralist tradition of linguistic theory. As Suresh Canagarajah observes, structuralism brackets language off from the social and material conditions of its production to “turn language into an objectively analyzable product...isolated from other domains of society, culture, individuals, and politics” (*Translingual* 23). By “isolating” language from “other domains such as society, culture, individuals, and politics,” Canagarajah argues that the structuralist tradition has effectively cast language as “transparent system...a conduit for reality and truth,” notwithstanding the ways in which Saussurean structural linguistics argues for an arbitrary relationship between sign and signifier, word and reality (*Translingual* 23, 24). Subsequently, Canagarajah argues structuralism has worked to advance (through masking) an equivalence of “language, community, and place” rooted in Western philosophy and key to political processes of nation building and state formation through the 18th, 19th, and 20th centuries (*Translingual* 24).

²⁰ As I discussed in Chapter 2, a number of scholars in rhetoric and composition from the late 1990’s to the present have called attention to increased linguistic heterogeneity in writing programs in the context of growing enrollments of international and U.S. resident students (see Harklau, Siegal, Losey; Hesford, Singleton, García; Horner et al. “Language”; Matsuda “Alternative”). These scholars and others have also argued that rhetoric and composition teacher-scholars should be trained to address this linguistic heterogeneity in their disciplinary work (Hesford, Singleton, García; Horner et al. “Language”; Shuck; Valdés)

Pierre Bourdieu argues that this acontextual, structuralist approach to language study functions politically to reinforce the notion of an “official language” that determines who and what belongs in linguistically and culturally heterogeneous societies Bourdieu writes:

Parler de *la* langue, sans autre précision, comme font les linguistes, c’est accepter tacitement la définition *officielle* de la langue *officielle* d’une unité politique: cette langue est celle qui, dans les limites territoriales de cette unité, s’impose à tous les ressortissants comme la seule légitime...Produit par des auteurs ayant autorité pour écrire, fixée et codifiée par les grammairiens et les professeurs, chargés aussi d’en inculquer la maîtrise, la langue est un *code*, au sens de chiffre permettant d’établir des equivalences entre des sons et des sens, mais aussi au sens de système de norms réglant les pratiques linguistiques. (*Langage* 70)
To speak of *the* language, without further specification, as linguists do, is tacitly to accept the *official* definition of the *official* language of a political unit. This language is the one which, within the territorial limits of that unit, imposes itself on the whole population as the only legitimate language...Produced by authors who have the authority to write, fixed and codified by grammarians and teachers who are also charged with the task of inculcating its mastery, the language is a *code* in the sense of a cipher enabling equivalences to be established between sounds and meanings, but also in the sense of a system of norms regulating linguistic practices. (*Language* 404)

By analyzing and taxonomizing language “codes” (as ciphers), structural linguistic theory further cements the political regulatory power of language “codes” (in the legal sense, as systems of norms) used as devices to, in Mary Louise Pratt’s terms, “imagine communities.”

Pratt argues the imagined community of the nation-state—a “linguistic utopia” where idealized speakers are bound together via a similarly idealized national language—has shaped linguistic study to evade the “noise” of real world linguistic communication that takes place across rigid, traditionally conceived linguistic and social boundaries (50). Rooted in Saussure’s initial contention that language (as *langue*)

can be studied as objective elements organized in a static formal system, distinct from the messy particularities of day to day use (*parole*), Pratt notes that “our modern linguistics of language, code, and competence posits a unified and homogenous social world in which language exists as shared patrimony” (50). Though Saussurean formal linguistics, American descriptive linguistics (Baos; Bloomfield), Chomskian psycholinguistics and generative grammar, and sociolinguistics (Labov; Searle) differ considerably in terms of their analytical practices and, relatedly, the ways in which they conceive of *langue*,²¹ they all follow from Saussure to the degree that they approach language as a fixed, idealized entity both accessible through and embodied in a stable and monolithic “native speaker.” This approach has led to, as Susan Gal and Judith Irvine observe, “the relative neglect...of linguistic variation, multilingualism, and the patterned social functions of speech” in linguistic theory and research (970). As Pratt explains, the “prototype or unmarked case of language is generally taken in linguistics to be the speech of adult native speakers face to face...in monolingual, even monodialectal situations—in short the maximally homogenous case linguistically and socially” (50).

This monolingual orientation to language study and teaching is reflected in the evolution of rhetoric and composition Ph.D. curricula. Comparison and analysis of

²¹ Saussure’s formal linguistics focuses on the synchronic analysis of the structure and structural interrelationships between phonemes in European languages. American descriptive linguistics focuses more broadly on phonemic, morphological, and syntactic structures in a wide variety of indigenous languages. Chomskian psycholinguistics turns the focus on the structure inward, to the “constructive, structure-building operations of the individual mind” (Nystrand et al. 284) in an effort to identify language universals: a “deep structure” that underlies all national languages and regional dialects. Sociolinguistics, as originally articulated by Labov, constitutes a neostructuralist approach to language, which focuses on the descriptive analysis of varieties associated with various, often marginalized, sociocultural contexts. As Nystrand et al. argue, it should be distinguished from sociolinguistic studies that are more dialogic in nature (i.e. work associated with the London school: J. Firth; Hymes; Malinowski; Halliday; Halliday and Hasan).

program profiles in the *Rhetoric Review* surveys shows that, until the 2000's, specialized coursework and exams in linguistics, basic writing, and TESOL were reported by many programs as both "core" and elective components of their curricula (see Chapter 2). However, since that time these requirements have been systematically marginalized and eliminated from most curricula. That this has happened is perhaps unsurprising, given that the ways in which this training has often approached language via structuralist theories and methods of analysis reinforces its own separateness from "core" coursework and corresponding marginality within the curriculum. In the following three sections, I analyze this training to illustrate how these courses, in their form and content, have tacitly argued against their own presence in rhetoric and composition Ph.D. curricula as graduate programs matured through the 1990's and 2000's.

Linguistics

Archival materials from my three focal schools and course descriptions collected from schools represented in the current *Rhetoric Review* survey of doctoral programs wiki provides a sense of the shape of linguistics training in rhetoric and composition graduate programs currently and historically. These archival and web materials suggests two things: 1. That programs have traditionally favored training in theoretical as opposed to applied linguistics, notwithstanding the relevance of work in applied linguistics on language teaching and learning to composition studies 2. That training in theoretical linguistics has tended to focus on formal linguistics with an emphasis on descriptive analysis of "English," despite the strong influence of both psycholinguistics

and sociolinguistics on rhetoric and composition, especially during its formative years (see Smitherman; SRTOL). The emphasis on descriptive English linguistics in graduate courses and requirements reflects composition studies' history importing insights from descriptive linguistics in order to develop more inclusive and politically responsible pedagogies in the 1950s and 1960s (see Crowley "Linguistics"; Faigley; Chapter 2). As Sharon Crowley observes, by the mid-20th century "descriptive linguistic research had established that many of the shibboleths about 'correct' usage with which freshman were regularly beaten were not based on some timeless grammar of English, but were accidents of linguistic history" and that "the proscribed usages [teachers] had been warning their students to avoid could be regularly found in the speech of educated persons" ("Linguistics" 482). However, focusing linguistics training in rhetoric and composition programs on descriptive English linguistics rendered linguistic courses and requirements vulnerable in the face of the growing hegemony of psycholinguistics (see Firth and Wagner) and, to a lesser degree, sociolinguistics in the 1990's and the 2000's—movements which subtly argued against the relevance of linguistic study to teacher training in rhetoric and composition.

In the inaugural years of the rhetoric and composition Ph.D. programs at the University of Louisville (1977), Purdue (1980), and Miami University (1980), their English departments all offered graduate coursework in linguistics for credit toward the rhetoric and composition Ph.D., including courses in descriptive linguistics, psycholinguistics, sociolinguistics, and applied linguistics.²² Most of the courses offered were theoretical in nature (only Miami offered applied linguistics courses during the

²² It should be noted that the linguistic course offerings at Purdue reflect the existence of a Ph.D. track in English Linguistics at that institution.

inaugural year of its program) and focused on descriptive analysis and/or the linguistic history of “English.” The privileging of theoretical over applied linguistics and the dominance of English linguistics in these programs is further reflected in which courses were required for rhetoric and composition majors at U of L and Purdue. At U of L, both the “History of the English Language” and the “Structure of American English” served as pre-requisites to entering the program. At Purdue, the required “English Linguistics” survey course focused in large part on “[h]istorical and descriptive analysis of English” (“Purdue Bulletin 1980-82” 176).

Table 3
Linguistics Graduate Coursework and Requirements during Inaugural Years of Rhetoric and Composition Ph.D. tracks at the University of Louisville, Miami University, and Purdue University²³

	Descriptive Linguistics	Psycholinguistics	Sociolinguistic	Applied Linguistics
Louisville (Graduate Bulletin 1977-8)	Seminar in Linguistics <u>History of the English Language</u> Descriptive Linguistics <u>Structure of American English</u> Old English and Middle English Language and Literature	Psycholinguistics Recent Philosophy of Language Seminar in Linguistics	Seminar in Linguistics Sociolinguistics	

²³ Course titles that are underlined represent required linguistics courses for rhetoric and composition Ph.D. students. Courses that, according to their catalog descriptions, address more than one approach to linguistic study are listed under each category that applies to them.

Miami (Graduate Bulletin 1980-1)	<u>Introduction to Language and Linguistics</u>	Syntax and Semantics	Study of English as a Second Language
	The English Language	<u>Introduction to Language and Linguistics</u>	Selective Topics in Linguistics: Applied Linguistics
	Historical and Comparative Linguistics		
Purdue (Graduate Bulletin 1980-2)	English Phonology	<u>English Linguistics</u>	Dialects of American English
	<u>English Linguistics</u>		
	The Grammar of Modern English		
	History of the English Language		
	The Grammar of Modern English		

This concern with English linguistics reflected the monolingual orientation and norms of English departments, which were, after all, tasked with the study and teaching of “English” composition and literature. Within the structure of responsibilities associated with this mission, it seemed particularly necessary that that rhetoric and composition (v. literary studies) students should receive training in this area. As Matsuda observes, “[l]anguage issues are...inextricably tied to the goal of college composition, which is to help students...produce English that is unmarked in the eyes of teachers who are the custodians of privileged varieties of English” (“Myth” 640). These graduate courses provided composition teachers with a sense of the “rules” of the language they were teaching and the standards they were expected to uphold. As

Alastair Pennycook has shown in his analysis of English Language Teaching (ELT) in a variety of international contexts, such knowledge has often been deemed all that is necessary to confront linguistic heterogeneity in English language teaching, given that it is often seen as a “monolingual enterprise” best accomplished through “English-only” teaching methodologies (“English” 33).

However, by the early-1990’s, linguistics course offerings and requirements in all three programs had begun to change to suggest the emergence of a new perspective on linguistic training within English departments, and more specifically, their rhetoric and composition Ph.D. programs. Course offerings for rhetoric and composition Ph.D. students in the descriptive analysis of English, currently and historically, had, on the whole, been reduced in all three programs. In the U of L program, “History of English Language” had been eliminated as prerequisite. At Miami, students now had the choice to take either “Introduction to Language and Linguistics” or “Introduction to Literary Criticism” to complete their core requirements.

Table 4

Linguistics Graduate Coursework and Requirements at the University of Louisville, Miami University and Purdue University in early 1990s

Course titles that are underlined represent required linguistics courses for the rhetoric and composition Ph.D. students. Course titles in italics represent graduate courses offered by the department but not accepted for credit toward the rhetoric and composition Ph.D. Courses that, according to their catalog descriptions, address more than one approach to linguistic study are listed under each category that applies to them.

	Descriptive Linguistics	Psycholinguistics	Sociolinguistics	Applied Linguistics
University of Louisville (Graduate Bulletin 1991-3)	<i>History of the English Language</i>	Language and Cognition I	Sociolinguistics	<i>Teaching English as a Second Language</i>
	<u>Structure of Modern American</u>	Language and Cognition II	Recent Philosophy of Language	
		Recent		

	<u>English</u>	Philosophy of Language		
	Recent Philosophy of Language			
Miami (Graduate Bulletin 1991-3)	Introduction to Language and Linguistics	Introduction to Language and Linguistics	Introduction to Language and Linguistics	Study of English as a Second Language
	Historical and Comparative Linguistics	Syntax and Semantics		Linguistics for Technical and Scientific Communication
	Phonology			
Purdue (Graduate Bulletin 1992-4)	<u>Introduction to English and General Linguistics</u>	Natural Language Processing	Dialects of American English	
	English Phonology		Sociolinguistics	
	English Syntax and Syntactical Theory		Methods of Sociolinguistic Analysis	

These changes reflect the rising prominence of linguistic scholarship in the psychological/cognitive and sociological aspects of language during the 1980's and 1990's and the formative influence this work had had on rhetoric and composition. As Martin Nystrand, Stuart Greene, and Jeffrey Wiemelt have argued, psycholinguistics was highly influential in the development of rhetoric and composition as a discipline in the 1970's by sowing the "intellectual seed for conceptions of writing and reading as cognitive processes" (283). And as Geneva Smitherman and Scott Wible ("Pedagogies") have observed, sociolinguistics was pivotal in framing the emerging discipline's "language rights" movement, culminating in the 1974 CCCC "Students' Right to Their Own Language" resolution and the pedagogies that followed from it. The

importance of this linguistic scholarship to composition studies is evident in the addition of graduate courses in these areas as the rhetoric and composition Ph.D. programs at U of L, Miami, and Purdue matured. However, on the whole English linguistics courses and requirements in these programs were not replaced by courses and requirements in psycholinguistics and sociolinguistics. Gains in psycholinguistic and sociolinguistic course offerings were modest, and none of the three programs developed core requirements in either psycholinguistic or sociolinguistics, instead offering the courses as electives toward general coursework or a broad “linguistics” seminar requirement.

The wholesale loss of linguistics courses and requirements in the U of L, Miami, and Purdue programs continued into the 2000s.²⁴ By 1999, Miami only had three graduate linguistics courses available for its rhetoric and composition Ph.D. students to take and one of these, “Linguistics and Writing,” was, according to the *Graduate Bulletin* for that year “offered infrequently” (80). U of L had lost both its English linguistics pre-requisites and now offered only “Sociolinguistics” and “The Teaching of English as a Second Language” for graduate students to take to fulfill its 3 credit linguistics seminar requirement. Janice Lauer recalls that Purdue program no longer had

²⁴ Because of gaps in the records at Purdue, I was unable to get a list of their linguistics graduate course offerings for 1999-2001 and, consequently, I cannot speak with absolute certainty about the place of linguistic courses in the program during this time. When I arrived at Purdue to conduct my research, I found that Purdue’s graduate bulletins beyond 1995 have not been preserved in their university archives and special collections. I attempted to locate information about the graduate curriculum during the late 1990s/early 2000s through both the graduate school and the English department, but these attempts were unsuccessful. Kristin Leaman, a graduate assistant in the archives who was helping me with this project, reasoned that “those years represent the shift from paper to computer” which was why “Purdue simply does not have copies of these [materials]” (email). However, Janice Lauer, the former director of graduate studies at Purdue during the late 1990s and early 2000s, recalls that the program did not have a linguistics requirement during these years.

a linguistics requirement in the late 1990s, though she told me students could take linguistics courses to fulfill their requirement for expertise in a “second field.”

Table 5

Linguistics Graduate Coursework and Requirements at the University of Louisville and Miami University 1999-2001

	Descriptive Linguistics	Psycholinguistics	Sociolinguistics	Applied
University of Louisville (Graduate Bulletin 1999-2001)	<i>History of the English Language</i>		<i>Structure of Modern American English</i> Sociolinguistics	The Teaching English as a Second Language <i>Applied Linguistics for English Teachers</i> <i>ESL Endorsement Portfolio</i>
Miami University (Graduate Bulletin 1999-2001)	Introduction to Language and Linguistics	Introduction to Language and Linguistics <i>Syntax and Semantics</i>	Linguistics for Technical and Scientific Communication	<i>Study of English as a Second Language</i> Linguistics for Technical and Scientific Communication Linguistics and Writing (offered infrequently)

These losses illustrate the more subtle influence of psycholinguistics and sociolinguistics on the field of linguistics, English departments, and the developing discipline of rhetoric and composition. If psycholinguistics, as Nystrand, Greene, and Wiemelt suggest, provided the intellectual foundation for research in and the advanced study of writing in English departments, it also tacitly argued against the relevance of the study of “English” language and linguistics within those departments and in their rhetoric and composition Ph.D. programs. Where once descriptive linguistic study of

English made sense in English departments and their graduate programs since knowing the “rules” of the language seemed essential to the study and teaching of English composition and literature, psycholinguistics foreclosed the need for such study by redefining “*grammatical* as whatever is ‘acceptable to the native speaker’” (Chomsky qtd. in Nystrand, Greene, and Wiemelt 285). If English departments were devoted to the “native” language of the nation in which they were situated, and were (it was believed) populated by native English speaking students and teachers, then everyone already had the necessary rules at their disposal.

This perspective is evident in Patrick Harwell’s widely anthologized 1985 *College English* article “Grammar, Grammars, and the Teaching of Grammar,” a staple in commercial teaching training texts like *The Allyn and Bacon Sourcebook for College Writing Teachers*, *Teaching Composition: Background Readings*, *Cross-Talk in Comp Theory*, and *The Norton Book of Composition Studies*. In his critique of formal grammar instruction in composition classes, Hartwell, drawing heavily from psycholinguistic theory, assumes that composition students are by default native English speakers developing “print literacy” in their mother tongue. He uses non-native English speakers in second language learning contexts as a foil to develop his argument, stating, for instance, that grammar “rules” “however valuable [they] may be for non-native speakers, [are], for the most part, simply unusable for native speakers of the language” (116). Since composition students, Hartwell reasons, bring to their writing an innate “competence” in their mother tongue, formal language instruction is both unnecessary and potentially hazardous in the sense that it can confuse their efforts to apply that competence to their development of print literacy.

To account for the presence of “socially nonstandard dialects” in composition, which “is always implicit in discussions of teaching formal grammar,” Hartwell draws from early work in sociolinguistics which further cements a native speaker norm in language teaching and, in so doing, reinforces the sense that knowledge of linguistic theory is unnecessary for composition teaching (123). Citing research by Labov and others, Hartwell argues that the “surface features of spoken dialect are simply irrelevant to mastering print literacy,” given that “[n]ative speakers of English, regardless of dialect, show tacit mastery of the conventions of Standard English, and that mastery seems to transfer into abstract orthographic knowledge through interaction with print” (123). This argument rests upon the ways in which Labovian sociolinguists incorporate language variation into the psycholinguistic model by fracturing and pluralizing language at its surface while retaining a notion of a common core to language at the level of “*deep structure*” (see Horner “Students’ Right”; CCCC “Students’ Right”).

The image of language that emerges from the sociolinguistic theory Hartwell cites is, as Horner describes in his analysis of linguistic theory cited in the background document to *SRTOL*, “an archipelago dotted with a variety of what Mary Louise Pratt has termed ‘linguistic utopias’: discrete, autonomous, essentially static communities of language and language users, each associated with a particular sociocultural identity...each sovereign within the sphere of its own community (“Students’ Right” 743). As Horner notes, this image yields “contradictory, competing claims” about language which is, in one sense, “universal” with “surface’ differences obscuring an underlying sameness,” and, in another sense, splintered and multiplied, with individual varieties bounded and mutually exclusive, reified in relationship to sociocultural

identity and context (“Students’ Right” 745). Both senses support a monolingualist orientation to composition teaching, in so far as language differences could be dismissed as “surface level” in composition classes, and, subsequently, unimportant, or, conversely, conscribed within “appropriate” domains like the home, and necessarily distinct from the “Standard English” of U.S. higher education.

Hartwell’s article speaks to the ways in which Chomskian psycholinguistics and Labovian sociolinguistics, rather than offering an alternative to the institutionalized monolingualism framed by descriptive linguistics in English departments, reinforced and extended this monolingualism by positioning language conventions associated with “standard” English as the assumed, and henceforth invisible, medium for communication within their borders. They cast language conventions associated with other languages or “non-standard” varieties of English as separate, marginal matters to be cordoned off and taken up by teacher-scholars in other departments and programs (e.g. psychology, modern language departments, TESOL programs) and students from other linguistic traditions as best helped through being immersed in the language or getting help from TESOL programs aimed at accelerating them on their developmental path to native-like competence. Subsequently, the attention to matters of language and language relations linguistics courses in English departments had traditionally foregrounded seemed outside the scope of English departments and their graduate programs. The whole field of “linguistics” then was driven to the margins of rhetoric and composition doctoral curricula.

The marginalization of linguistics in the rhetoric and composition Ph.D. coincided with the growth of distinct graduate programs devoted to ESL instruction. In

1999, the U of L English department began offering an ESL endorsement certificate geared primarily toward Master's students who planned to teach high school English—a program that eventually migrated to the Humanities department. The Purdue English department similarly developed a concentration in second language studies for Master's and Doctoral students. The development of such programs reflected what Matsuda has identified as “the rise of the field of L2 writing circa 1990 as an interdisciplinary field situated simultaneously in composition studies and second language studies” (“Writing” 69; see also Matsuda “Composition”; Silva, Leki, and Carson; Valdés) and has further distanced mainstream rhetoric and composition programs from linguistic study through the 2000's.

Today, only 7% (n=5) of 72 rhetoric and composition Ph.D. programs listed on the *Rhetoric Review* wiki report requiring linguistics coursework. My review of descriptions for these courses suggest that they continue to be dominated by traditional, structural linguistic theory and research, though some dissonance inevitably exists between the official descriptions of course catalogs and syllabi and the “real work” that takes place in each instantiation of these courses. These courses continue to focus on “descriptive linguistics” (Illinois State); “the sounds, forms, order, and vocabulary of Standard English” (University of Connecticut); and “the structure and creation of words, sounds and sound systems in language” (Ball State). Only the University of Washington course in the “Nature of Language” and the spring 2013 instantiation of Miami University's “Linguistics and Language” core seminar referenced more recent scholarship in functional linguistics and critical applied linguistics which views language in terms of “situated action” (J. Firth; Halliday; Pennycook; Kramsch). This

work has proved influential in the development of more social-interactive and dialogic theories of writing (Nystrand, “Social Interactive”; Brandt) and has been cited in recent arguments for a “translingual” approach to the teaching of writing (see Horner et al. “Language”; Horner, Lu, Matsuda *Cross-Language*; Canagarajah *Translingual*).

In the face of this work and its growing significance to compositionists, these courses’ heavy reliance on traditional—even, in case of much formal linguistics, largely antiquated—models reinforces their own marginality within their respective programs. However, the continued presence of these courses and their form and structure speaks to the centrality of a particular image of language within English departments as unitary, fixed, isolable and eminently describable, comprising rules that could be “taught” in the face of the linguistic difference and diversity driving the creation and expansion of rhetoric and composition Ph.D. programs.

TESOL

Applied linguistics has, for the most part, been represented in rhetoric and composition graduate programs via elective TESOL pedagogy courses sometimes used to fulfill general linguistics course requirements. Due to both historical divisions between ESL writing and composition (see Matsuda “Composition”; Silva, Leki, and Carson), and the historical privileging of speech over reading/writing in applied linguistics,²⁵ these courses have never been particularly prevalent in rhetoric and composition doctoral education in the first place. However, they have grown increasingly sparse in recent years, even as interest in L2 writing has increased in both

²⁵ TESOL tends to associate reading and writing with a largely denigrated “grammar-translation” approach to foreign language teaching against which more modern methods have been constructed (Richards and Rodgers 6; c.f. Pennycook, “English”).

mainstream rhetoric and composition (see Matsuda “Writing”) and applied linguistics (Leki “Writing”; Matsuda et al. “Changing”; Matsuda, Ortmeier-Hooper, You). While in the 1987 and 2000 *Rhetoric Review* surveys, seven programs reported having TESOL electives, in 2007 only two programs reported them and in the current wiki, none of the 55 programs whose curricula are represented report them. As with theoretical linguistics, the disappearance of these courses can be linked to the approach to matters of language and language relations they tend to forward, one that tacitly argues against their relevance to rhetoric and composition specialists.

At both the University of Louisville and Purdue, these courses have historically been approached as “surveys” in TESOL meant to introduce students to the basics of theory and practice in the field. While such an approach is, to some degree, inescapable given the necessity of locating contemporary language teaching in historical context and the time constraints involved in doing so, it tends to advance the dominant (language) ideologies underlying what have come to be identified as key terms and essential readings in the field. As Alan Firth and Johannes Wagner have argued, orthodox social-psychological linguistic theory is deeply embedded in “fundamental concepts” in second language acquisition (SLA) like the “non-native speaker” (and its inverse, the native speaker), “learner,” and “interlanguage” that set the foundation for a range of methodological approaches to research and teaching in the field (“On Discourse”). The abstract and uncritical focus on the “basics” often undertaken in TESOL survey courses means that they risk forwarding the dominant, monolinguist approach to SLA crystallized in these terms that “elevates an idealized ‘native’ speaker above a stereotypicalized ‘non-native,’ while viewing the latter as a defective communicator,

limited by underdeveloped communicative competence” (Firth and Wagner, “On Discourse” 757-8).

This tendency is reflected in course descriptions for these courses and the texts they assign for reading. For example, U of L’s “The Teaching of English as a Second Language” (ENGL 625, offered from 1982 until 2005 as a means by which to fulfill mandatory course requirements in “Linguistics and Reading”) is described in the graduate bulletin from 1982-2004 (when the bulletins stopped listing course descriptions) as providing “a theoretical and practical approach to teaching English to students for whom English is not a *native* language” (my emphasis). Course descriptions and objectives provided in course syllabi from Spring 1993, Summer 2001, and Fall 2008 all describe a focus on “*interlanguage* and evidence of stages of development in second language learning” (my emphasis). Analysis of ENGL 625 syllabi from 2001 and 2008 show that assigned readings for the course are drawn primarily from H.D. Brown’s *Principles of Language Learning and Teaching* and Pergoy and O. Boyle’s *Reading, Writing, and Learning in ESL*, both texts which purport to introduce students to “key concepts” (Brown) and “essential issues” (Pergoy and Boyle) in second language acquisition theory and practice, which reflect the hegemony of structural linguistics Firth and Wagner identify operating within it.

Similarly, Purdue’s two course ESL sequence, “Theoretical Foundations of ESL and English” and “The Basics of ESL Curriculum Design” (which once counted toward a required seminar in “Linguistics” for rhetoric and composition majors²⁶ and currently count as an option toward a fulfilling a required “secondary area” of research for these students) are described in graduate bulletins as providing “an introduction to the *basic*

²⁶ As specified in the 1991-1992 “Purdue Manual for Graduate Study in English.”

theoretical issues in learning and teaching English as a second or foreign language” (516) and “a principled *basis* for and practical experience in evaluating, developing, and adapting curricula, syllabi, and course materials” for ESL teaching (my emphasis). The reading list from a 2006 syllabus for English 516 lists a number of “canonical” articles in linguistic theory as applied to second language acquisition from 1945 onward, including work by Charles Fries, Robert Lado, Eugene Nida, Ronald Wardhaugh, Stephen Krashen. A syllabus for “The Basics of ESL Curriculum Design” lists the course text as Jack C. Richards and Theodore S. Rodgers’ *Approaches and Methods in Language Teaching*, which the authors write is meant to provide a “comprehensive and comprehensible account of major and minor trends in language teaching from the beginning of the twentieth century to the present” (viii).

In many ways, Richards and Rodgers' text illustrates the problems associated with a survey approach to language teaching—or any other subject. In its efforts to provide a “comprehensive and comprehensible” account of the history of language teaching and a “straightforward introduction to commonly used and less commonly used methods,” it paints both major and minor trends in relatively broad strokes and presents them, as Richard and Rodgers describe, in “objective” terms (ix). The heuristic Richards and Rodgers use to outline language teaching methods in terms of “approach, design, and procedure” and the linear trajectory they draw from the classic 19th century approaches to modern communicative language teaching (CLT) approaches means that various “methods” are defined in relationship to each other, with certain key terms and assumptions carried throughout. For instance, the term “native speaker” first appears in Richard and Rodgers’ description of the early 20th century “Direct Method” which

“required teachers who were native speakers or who had native like fluency” and is used uncritically 19 times total throughout the book to describe a range of current and historical approaches (13). Tellingly, it is used to describe methods in CLT, despite the fact that the notion of “communicative competence” on which CLT is based has been used to question the legitimacy and privileging of the “native speaker” in language study and teaching (see Kramsch “Privilege”; Paikeday; Pennycook).

In their description of CLT “procedure,” Richards and Rodgers describe an exercise where “[l]earners...listen to recordings of native speakers performing the same role-play task they have just practiced and compare differences between the way they expressed particular functions and meanings and the way native speakers performed” (238). This description reflects the dominant view in second language acquisition that nonnative speakers (NNs’) are “NS’s subordinates, with regard to communicative competence” and that there is “homogeneity throughout each group, and clear-cut distinctions between them” (Firth and Wagner, “On Discourse” 763, 4). It also reproduces a dominant approach to second language acquisition that holds that L1 and L2 are separate, distinct, and (ideally) mutually exclusive, with “interlanguage” serving as a bridge on the developmental path from L1 to L2. Within this framework, English language teaching is largely considered to be a “monolingual enterprise” (see Pennycook “English”), an approach which eclipses the essential heterogeneity of linguistic practices theory and research in communicative competence and CLT has worked to foreground and incorporate into language teaching.

As the examples above demonstrate, the language in course texts and course descriptions for TESOL courses reproduces a dominant discourse of TESOL that

reinforces boundaries between languages and the disciplinary boundaries with which they are linked. It renders the separation of “natives” from “nonnatives” in pedagogical contexts necessary, and indeed, inevitable, given the imagined gulf between these stereotyped and homogenized groups of students. In so doing, it supports both the compartmentalization of matters of language difference in writing teaching in programs administered by ESL specialists (see Shuck) and the “myth of linguistic homogeneity” in U.S. college composition, the “assumption that students are default native speakers of a privileged variety of English from the United States” (Matsuda, “Myth” 639). In turn, these course descriptions tacitly suggest that ESL training for composition teachers is not needed within rhetoric and composition graduate programs.

Basic Writing

As Barbara Gleason observes, the notion of providing special professional preparation for teachers of basic writing was widely discussed in the 1980’s and informed the creation of two special issues of the *Journal of Basic Writing* (Spring/Summer 1981 and Spring/Summer 1984). These issues covered the use of both new and existing coursework for the professional development of basic writing instructors and include Joseph Comprone’s description of the University of Louisville graduate curriculum specifically designed for the training of teachers of basic writing. Comprone’s vision for specialized basic writing teacher training, though more ambitious than most programs, was not unique. According to the *Rhetoric Review* surveys, graduate basic writing pedagogy courses were offered by several programs in the 1980’s and 1990’s, including the University of Pittsburgh, The University of

Southern Mississippi, Indiana University of Pennsylvania, University of Illinois, Urbana-Champaign, Purdue University, Washington State University, and the Southern Illinois University at Carbondale. However, by the mid 2000's, as Gleason observes, basic writing courses and scholarship were largely absent from rhetoric and composition graduate curricula.

As with theoretical linguistics and TESOL, we might link this absence to the ways in which this training reproduced monolingualist conceptions that tacitly argued against its relevance to the study and teaching of rhetoric and composition, in part through its reliance on dominant, structuralist theories of language drawn from linguistics. For instance, Comprone's 1981 syllabus for ENG 602, the pedagogical practicum required of new teaching assistants at the University of Louisville teaching basic writing, relies heavily on writing scholarship which, he notes elsewhere, is "derive[d] from structural and transformative theories of grammar," including work on syntax-as-heuristic and sentence combining (Christensen; Mullen; O'Hare; Daiker, Morenberg, and Kerek; Strong; Hunt; Winterowd) and error analysis (Shaughnessy) ("Graduate" 29). Lectures and readings on psycholinguistics and reader-response theory (itself, as Nystrand, Greene, and Wiemelt observe, derived from psycholinguistic theory) also occupy several weeks of the course. Though this "developmental" approach to training basic writer teachers reflected innovative, indeed ground-breaking theories of composition teaching available at the time, the monolinguist conceptions of language and language relations on which it (and these theories) were based ultimately marginalized both basic writing and the training of its teachers within the curriculum.

These conceptions are cemented in the foundational basic writing scholarship both represented in Comprone’s syllabus and emerging at the time it was developed—scholarship, which, in so far as it formed the basis for specialized basic writing pedagogy courses, undermined their ability to centralize matters of language and language relations in composition teaching. In “Conflict and Struggle: The Enemies or Preconditions of Basic Writing,” Min-Zhan Lu argues that “three pioneers of Basic Writing”—Shaughnessy, Kenneth Bruffee, and Thomas Farrell—all “tend to adopt two assumptions about language”:

1. an ‘essentialist’ view of language holding that the essence of meaning precedes and is independent of language...2. a view of ‘discourse communities’ as ‘discursive utopias’ in each of which a single, unified, and stable voice directly and completely determines the writing of all community members. (32)

As Lu shows, this epistemology led to a focus on “acculturating” basic writers to the dominant discourse of the academic community, which in linguistic terms, can be conceived of in terms of the “standard” English considered the language of academic parlance in U.S. universities. Pedagogies of “acculturation” and “accommodation” in basic writing cast language issues as obstacles to be traversed in the mastery of “academic discourse” such that “heterogeneity, uncertainty, or instability is viewed as problematic” and not, by contrast, essential to process of negotiating conventions associated with a wide variety of, again, in linguistic terms, national languages or regional varieties (Lu, “Conflict” 39). In presenting matters of language and language relations as problems that must be “solved” and put to rest, these theories marginalized them in a particular way—presenting them as not unimportant, but transient and, ultimately, surmountable vestiges of the linguistic and cultural history of individual,

“basic writing” students. They then reflected and advanced what Mike Rose has identified as the “myth of transience” in remedial education: the belief that “if we can just do x or y, the problem will be solved—in five years, ten years, or a generation and higher education will be able to return to its real work” (355).

That basic writing pedagogy courses largely disappeared through the 1990s is, ironically, a consequence of the very approach to language issues the scholarship these courses drew from and advanced. On the one hand, the “myth of transience” implied that such courses were unnecessary in the aftermath of anti-remediation efforts that relocated linguistically diverse students to community colleges and returned research universities to their “normal” (monolingual) state. On the other hand, the fundamental assumptions behind this myth rendered basic writing vulnerable to theoretical critique from figures inside the field, who questioned the “tidy distinction between basic and mainstream writers” and the reductive, utopian notions of language and community on which it was based (Bartholomae, “Tidy” 12; see also Jones; Adams; Fox “Standards”). As a growing number of scholars argued that basic writing as an approach to linguistic difference did little more than “create basic writers”—reinforcing the academic disenfranchisement of culturally and linguistically diverse students (Rodby and Fox)—and that “mainstreaming” offered better opportunities to both serve the specific needs of these writers and centralize difference in composition teaching (Rodby and Fox; Soliday; Grego and Thompson), basic writing pedagogy courses likely seemed increasingly antiquated and theoretically unsound.

Loss and Significance

As programs abandoned linguistics, TESOL, and basic writing specialized coursework and requirements through the 1990's and 2000's, the scholarly traditions they represented largely disappeared from rhetoric and composition Ph.D. curricula. To determine the degree to which these traditions were integrated into "core" coursework following the elimination of the specialized courses that were once devoted to them, I analyzed the 71 program profiles on the *Rhetoric Review* survey of doctoral programs wiki and identified the most common "core" courses in rhetoric and composition doctoral education today: rhetorical history and theory (48%; n=34), research methods (41%; n=29), and composition theory and practice (44% n=31). I then gathered course descriptions for these courses and searched them for key terms associated with linguistics, TESOL, and basic writing. The term "linguistics" appeared in four course descriptions (1 research methods, 1 composition theory and practice, and 2 rhetorical history and theory) and the terms "ESL" and/or "second language writing" appeared in only one (composition theory and practice). "Basic writing" appeared in five course descriptions, all courses in composition theory and practice. These numbers suggest that these scholarly traditions have largely been eclipsed within the mainstream rhetoric and composition Ph.D. curricula.

Though, as I have described, the work in these traditions that made its way into specialized coursework in linguistics, TESOL, and basic writing was often problematic, the loss of these courses is nonetheless significant in rhetoric and composition graduate programs. Even seemingly antiquated courses, once on the books, can provide placeholders for more innovative approaches to the matters they address. In this case, these courses provided officially sanctioned curricular spaces for considering language

diversity in writing programs and, particularly, the presence of linguistic forms and practices associated with academic “outsiders” in composition courses: “basic writers” and resident and international “L2” students. As David Bartholomae has observed of the field of “basic writing,” despite its flaws, these courses and the traditions they represent “can best name a contested area in the university community, a contact zone, a place of competing positions and interests” as linguistically diverse students have entered the U.S. academy (21). Their loss has made it more difficult to imagine, propose, and see the need for graduate courses focused on language and language relations in composition teaching, and has foreclosed the possibility that more recent, critical work in these traditions might inform the training of composition teachers.

For example, recent work in what Alastair Pennycook terms “critical applied linguistics,” could be particularly useful in the training of rhetoric and composition teacher-scholars. Critical applied linguistics applies sociopolitical dimensions to a broad area of research traditionally associated with the field of applied linguistics, including “language use in professional settings, translation, speech pathology, literacy, and language education” (*Critical* 4). While traditional approaches to studying the relationship between language and social life rely on an “overlocalized and undertheorized” model of social relations (*Critical* 6), critical applied linguistics “insists on an historical understanding of how social relations came to be” (*Critical* 7). Critical applied linguistic research “explor[es] language in social contexts that goes beyond mere correlations between language and society and instead raises more critical questions to do with access, power, disparity, desire, difference, and resistance” (*Critical* 7). By mapping “micro and macro relations...between concepts of society,

class, and classroom utterances, translations, conversations, genres, second language acquisition, and media texts” (Pennycook, *Critical* 6) and problematizing what these categories are traditionally understood to mean in applied linguistics and related fields, this research could contribute to rhetoric and composition Ph.D. students’ understandings of their work as it relates to matters of language and language relations both in and outside the classroom. However, the absence of linguistics courses and requirements in most programs means that it is unlikely that most rhetoric and composition graduate students will be exposed to this important research, or more broadly, scholarship that addresses language use and teaching across languages.

Multilingualism in Scholarship: Foreign Language Requirements

Today, the most significant gesture toward acknowledging the presence of “other” languages in rhetoric and composition graduate education are so-called “foreign” language requirements. A familiar trope of graduate studies in the humanities, language requirements have continued to be prevalent in rhetoric and composition Ph.D. programs even as linguistics, TESOL, and basic writing specialized coursework and requirements have largely disappeared. The relative staying power of foreign language requirements reflects both their entrenchment in graduate programs as a “traditional” academic practice (c.f. Estrem and Lucas) and, relatedly, the ways in which they uphold an institutionalized monolingual ideology. Unlike linguistics, TESOL, and basic writing requirements, language requirements prepare graduate students to research (not teach) across languages, and, by consequence, uphold the monolingualist sense that only *reading* not *writing* takes place in other languages in

U.S. universities (see Horner and Trimbur). That said, languages are increasingly seen as problematic, and, subsequently, subject to reduction and elimination in many programs.

The History of “Foreign” Language Requirements in Graduate Studies in English

The presence of “foreign” language requirements in graduate studies in English and, more specifically, rhetoric and composition doctoral programs, today can be traced back to the modernization of the college curriculum in the late 19th century and the replacement of Latin and Greek with English as the medium of instruction. In the new, vernacular university, the modern languages were cordoned off in departments, “distinct academic entities defined by the national borders,” and knowledge of them was restricted to reading and not writing (Horner and Trimbur 596). However, while the “triumph of the vernacular” at this time set the university on a path toward education in “English-only,” a multilingual pedagogical focus persisted in the early days of the modern university, in large part due to necessity (Horner and Trimbur 596). Since early modern U.S. universities relied heavily on continental models and continental research occupied the top tier of scholarship in many fields, “[t]he study of other languages remained...an assumed necessity for research” in budding English departments (Steward 206).

The need for access to foreign texts fueled a “rigorous” language requirement in the early part of the 20th century (Steward 208). Graduate students in English were expected to have a robust reading knowledge of two languages, French and German, and complete competence exams that assumed that they had “read rather widely in their

literatures” (Campbell 196). However, following the World Wars, the language requirement began a steady decline. Doug Steward reasons that:

Four factors...militated in the 1950s and 1960s against a strong foreign language requirement:

the ascendancy of English as the foremost world language, the time consuming difficulty of mastering a foreign language, increasingly narrow specialization in research, and the mass enrollment in higher education, which required greater numbers of PhDs produced more quickly. (209)

With the traditional two language requirement become increasingly impractical, programs moved to reduce it or reconstitute it as a requirement for “interdisciplinarity” (Steward 210). In a 1967 survey of 46 graduate deans of schools belonging to the U.S. Association of Graduate Schools, Richard Admussen reported that 47% of the 43 schools that responded had significantly changed the requirement within the previous ten years. Roughly half (47%) had pared it down to reading knowledge of one language. Others (1/3 of schools polled) amended it to allow for the substitution of other “research tools (computer science, statistics)” for foreign language competency, and many others sought to relieve departments from administering the requirement by farming out the examination to modern language departments (27%) or ETS (50%) (Admussen 347).

In 2006, the MLA Ad Hoc Committee on Foreign Language Education reported that while 112 of 118 Ph.D. programs in English retained the requirement, only 50% (n=59) required two languages (7). Though the MLA has called upon English departments to “enhance,” “enforce,” and “reward” students for completing language requirements in doctoral programs, given the “language deficiency that is prevalent in the United States” and the negative impact it has on both U.S. culture and higher education, the position of language requirements in English graduate education is

contested and their potentiality unclear (8, 9). In 2008, Edward White voiced what he claimed was a general sense amongst administrators that the requirement is “one of the most persistent problems in American graduate education in English,” due to its unenforceability “within a country where an ‘English only’ initiative is a sure winner in any election” (A39).

Foreign Language Requirements in Rhetoric and Composition Doctoral Education

Data from the *Rhetoric Review* surveys suggests that language requirements are even more in danger of reduction and elimination in rhetoric and composition Ph.D. programs than they are in the literary studies English Ph.D. In the surveys that offer information about the requirement, far below half of all programs report having the traditional, two language requirement, with the number steadily falling in each survey (1999: 38%, n=24; 2006: 11%, n=6; Current wiki: 10%, n=7). In the 1999 survey, the first to request information from programs about foreign language requirements, 84% (n=54) of 64 programs reported having a foreign language requirement. Of these, less than half (44%; n=24) required knowledge of two additional languages while 54% (n=30) required knowledge of one. In the 2006 survey, however, only 65% (n=35) of 54 programs profiled reported having a foreign language requirement, with only 17% (n=6) of these requiring two languages and 83% (n=29) requiring one. Currently, the *Rhetoric Review* wiki shows that the number of programs requiring foreign language knowledge had dropped even further, to only 54% (n=38) of 71 programs. Among these programs, the distribution of the number of languages required has held relatively steady since the

last formal survey, with only 18% (n=7) requiring two languages and the vast majority 82% (n=31) requiring one.

The increasing marginality of foreign language requirements in rhetoric and composition doctoral education is reinforced through a growing general silence about these requirements in its professional discourse. While numbers of rhetoric and composition Ph.D. programs reporting the traditional two language requirement and a reduced, one language requirement have fallen since 1999, the numbers of programs failing to report any information about the requirement has steadily risen. For instance, in 1999, of the 16% of programs who did not report having a foreign language requirement, 13% (n=8) answered “0” to the survey apparatus’s request for “Foreign Languages Required,” while 3% (n=2) left the field blank. In 2006, however, 19% (n=10) responded with a “0” and 17% (n=9) left the field blank. In the current wiki, the number of programs failing to provide any information in response to the survey’s query is up to 32% (n=23), with now only 14% (n=10) bothering to fill in the field with a “0.”

This silence is reproduced in programmatic and department literature drawn from individual institutions. For example, in their 1995 and 2000 graduate program self-studies, the Miami University English department fails to acknowledge the existence of, let alone describe, their language requirement in their discussions of the graduate curriculum, despite the fact that the Miami University *Graduate Bulletins* show that they did have an active requirement during those years. Similarly, a 1991-92 Purdue University *Manual for Graduate Study* fails to mention that program’s foreign language requirement, despite the fact that the requirement is described in the Purdue University

Graduate Bulletin for that academic year. Currently, the University of Illinois—Urbana-Champaign reports having a requirement on the *Rhetoric Review* survey of doctoral programs wiki, but makes no mention of it in their current graduate handbook as it applies to Ph.D. students (it did make scant mention of it in relationship to the English M.A.).

Where requirements are outlined in programmatic and department literature, descriptions are often vague and incomplete. For example, this description of the requirement from the Penn State English department website is fairly typical:

A student is required to demonstrate reading knowledge of one of the following languages: French, German, Russian, Italian, Spanish, Latin, Classical Greek, or any other language approved by the Graduate Studies Committee. Additional languages needed from individual students programs will be determined by their doctoral committees. (See the section on the language requirement for the M.A. for information procedures for fulfilling the language requirement.)

The additional information offered under the M.A. requirements pertaining to “procedures” did not explain what constitutes “reading knowledge” or why such knowledge is useful to graduate study in rhetoric and composition. It specifies that a grade of “B or better in an intermediate—or advanced—level foreign language or literature course at Penn State” can fulfill the requirement, but does not indicate which courses are intermediate (upper level undergraduate?) or advanced (graduate?). It further offers the option of “successful performance on an examination administered by the English department faculty (or faculty in other Liberal Arts departments) with competence in language” but does not provide details regarding the (translation?) exam or offer a definition of “success” in relationship to it.

As with many other programs, the vagueness that surrounds Penn State foreign language requirement stands in marked contrast to the program's descriptions of other requirements on its website, like its comprehensive exams. While programs frequently failed to define certain key terms associated with the completion of language requirements—for instance, what constitutes “reading knowledge” of another language v. any other sort of knowledge, or following from that, how do we distinguish between “advanced and intermediate” reading proficiency—such key terms were often defined in comprehensive exam descriptions, which tended to be both longer and more detailed than language requirements descriptions. For example, Penn State's description of its comprehensive exams is 686 words longer than its foreign language requirement description (751 words v. 65 words) and includes a “Definitions” section that defines two key terms: “major area” and “historical period.” In contrast to the program's vague description of its language exam, Penn State provides a detailed description of its comprehensive exam format (timed exams in three areas, with options for students to substitute an oral or take-home exam for one timed area exam) and well as details about how the exams will be assessed and by whom.

Also like the Penn State example, programs often fail to outline the relevance of language requirements to the degree and what the student can expect to gain from completing it along her path to professionalization. Only three of the 38 programs that report having a language requirement on the *Rhetoric Review* wiki (Michigan State; the University of New Hampshire; the University of Massachusetts Amherst) offered a justification for their language requirements on their websites by specifically stating that these requirements provide students with a “research tool” for use in their

scholarship. These elisions suggest a lack of consideration of the requirement’s value and purpose and both reflect and further a common perception on the part of both students and faculty that the requirement is a “nuisance” and more about earning one’s educational “stripes” than truly developing oneself as a teacher-scholar in the field (Steward 204, 209).

This perception is furthered by major trends in the policies that surround foreign language requirements in rhetoric and composition Ph.D. programs, which I identified through reviewing programmatic material drawn from websites of the 38 programs that reported having language requirements in the *Rhetoric Review* Survey wiki.

Table 6

Major Trends in the Administration and Assessment of Foreign Language Requirements in Rhetoric and Composition Ph.D. Programs

	<i>Number of Programs (n=38)</i>	<i>Percent</i>
Number of Languages Required		
One Language	18	47%
Two Languages	10	26%
If two, Advanced competency in one accepted	8	80%
Restrictions		
Reading knowledge only	29	76%
Can’t use English	20	53%
European languages preferred	12	36%
Must be completed before comprehensive exams	12	36%
Coursework to complete the requirement will not count as credits toward Ph.D. degree	5	13%
Assessment		
Modern language coursework	26	68%
Proficiency/translation Exam	23	61%
Work completed prior to enrollment in Ph.D. program	16	42%
Waiver for native speakers of another language	13	34%
Substitution of coursework or exam in computer literacy, statistics, or a cognate field	7	18%
Coursework in linguistics (Old	6	16%

These trends suggest that programs frequently structure and administer their requirements to reflect monolingualist assumptions about language and social identity that call the efficacy of pursuing language knowledge beyond “English-only” for those in rhetoric and composition into question. This is most evident in the frequent naming of the requirement as the “foreign” language requirement, which implies that all languages beyond English are “foreign” to the Ph.D. program and its members. It is also reinscribed in the ways in which the requirement is administered and accessed in many programs.

For instance, the common identification of the languages that will be accepted, or not, as meeting language requirements reflects the tacit assumption that rhetoric and composition Ph.D. students are U.S. educated English monolinguals with limited exposure to other languages. Fifty-three percent (n=20) of programs specify that students cannot meet the requirement by demonstrating ability with English, even when (as for many international students) language competence in English has been developed for scholarly purposes, which would appear to be in keeping with the spirit of the requirement. Moreover, 36% (n=12) of programs limit acceptable languages to those European languages most commonly taught in U.S. schools to English monolingual students—French, German, Spanish—further complicating completion of the requirement for many international students, who must petition the graduate committee to allow them to use their “native language” to complete it. And yet, allowing students identified as “native speakers” of another language to complete the requirement through demonstrating competence in their “mother tongue,” or,

conversely simply “waiving” the requirement for them altogether (34% of programs) further reinforces the sense that these students’ linguistic practices are “foreign” to the program in which they are enrolled, reifying boundaries between languages and the discipline of composition in relationship to English.

Assumptions about the sociocultural origins and corresponding linguistic abilities of graduate students extend to faculty, who are imagined as English monolinguals unqualified to support students in the acquisition and exercise of diverse linguistic resources. This is evident in a variety of policies that situate the administration and assessment of the requirement outside the program and department. Though six programs offer students the option to use department coursework in another variety of English (i.e. Old English, African American Vernacular English) and one program (Michigan State) allowed students to complete a translation project with the help of rhetoric and composition faculty to meet the requirement, the majority restricted student options to complete the requirement to modern language coursework (68%) and proficiency exams provided by modern language departments or commercial testing agencies (61%).

Heavy reliance on modern language faculty and standardized testing means that, as opposed to other curricular requirements, like core coursework and exams, almost no departmental resources are devoted to helping shepherd students through language requirements and sole responsibility for completing them falls on the individual students. Students are often expected to complete additional, outside coursework, which 13% (n=5) of programs specify will not count as credit toward their Ph.D. degrees or pay out of pocket for ETS or university testing to certify their proficiency. These

policies relieve rhetoric and composition faculty of the imagined burden of having to expand their own linguistic capabilities to support students in meeting the requirement through, for instance, assigning non-English medium reading and writing in their courses. In so doing, they work to “contain” other languages within the space of modern language departments to prevent other linguistic codes and practices from influencing the work that takes place within the exclusively English realm of the graduate program.

That language requirements are ancillary to graduate programs, their teachers, students, and missions, is further reflected in policies that allow students to evade developing additional language resources in the process of completing them. Eighty percent of programs (n=8) that require knowledge of two languages beyond English will accept “advanced competency” in one, meaning that the requirement is, in effect, one language for many of their students. In addition, 42% of program (n=16) will accept work completed prior to matriculation into the Ph.D. program for completion of the requirement, including M.A. language requirements, undergraduate coursework, and life experiences. My review of the policies around accepting this work showed that they were fairly liberal, especially in comparison to the restrictions often placed on transferring coursework. While students may have to draft a petition to explain why this work should count toward the requirement—a practice which does promote some critical reflection on the part of the student about his or her linguistic abilities in relationship to the degree she is pursuing—it is difficult to imagine accepting previous (indeed, undergraduate) coursework and “life experiences” for a doctoral requirement in any other area of the curriculum. Moreover, the informality of these petitions (described

at Michigan State as “one page note or email”) downplays the requirement’s significance and necessity.

Finally, 18% of programs (n=7) allow students to “substitute” various forms of work unrelated to natural languages completed while enrolled in the doctoral program in lieu of the modern language coursework and exams usually undertaken to meet the requirement. These include coursework and special projects related to computer literacy, statistics, or another cognate field of seeming greater relevance to the student’s research in rhetoric and composition—a practice which reinforces the false sense that writing teaching and scholarship are English medium phenomena exclusive to the U.S. (see Donahue; Foster and Russell; Horner, NeCamp, Donahue; Muchiri et al.). While these substitutions do resituate the language requirement back in rhetoric and composition Ph.D. programs and the departments in which they are located, or, at the very least, distribute the burden across humanities departments so not so it is not so concentrated in modern languages, they do so at the expense of fostering linguistic resources beyond English-only.

Where foreign language requirements do support the development of additional language resources, they imagine those resources in terms of a native-like competence in another language meant to supplement, but not influence the student’s knowledge of English. This is evident in the structure and type of modern language coursework that students undertake to meet the requirement: undergraduate language or graduate “reading courses” that often take a traditional, “individualistic and mechanistic” approach to second language acquisition. Such an approach is reflected in the following

course descriptions for reading intensive courses at Miami University and the University of Louisville:

FRE 617/618 Intensive Course for Graduate Students (3, 3)

A two-part course sequence that provides reading knowledge of French for graduate students in other disciplines. No speaking component in the courses. Vocabulary-building through reading, with emphasis on French grammar for recognition purposes. Readings of increasing difficulty with emphasis on idiomatic usage in students' disciplines. (*Miami University General Bulletin* 2013-2014 350)

HUM 640

Intensive language [sic] course, designed for graduate students who are preparing for language reading examinations. Provides reading knowledge of a foreign language by focusing on fundamentals and translation. The credits may not be used as part of the graduate program. May be repeated up to 3 times for different languages. (*University of Louisville Graduate Catalog Online Fall 2013*)

In their concerns with “vocabulary building,” “fundamentals,” and, it can be presumed, “correct” grammar and translation, these courses suggest a monolithic view of language, where the ability to read some kind of French text is tantamount to the ability to read any and all French *tout court*, notwithstanding the Miami course description’s nod to “idiomatic usage in students’ disciplines.” They cast language learning as an individual accomplishment that takes place through a fixed, linear sequence of steps toward “native speaker” proficiency in another stable, discrete language. In so doing, they suggest a traditional, “additive” approach to multilingualism where language learning is approached as a discrete, acontextual skill that simply pluralizes monolingualism, such that the multilingual is akin to “two monolinguals in one,” performing in one language or the other depending on the cultural domain of communication.

The “additive” nature of the requirement is reinforced by the fact that 76% of programs (n=29) restrict it to “reading knowledge,” not writing knowledge, of another language. Only one program (University of Arizona) described the requirement as “permitting...composition in a language other than English,” and tellingly, that program had suspended its requirement indefinitely as of April 2010. This focus on “reading knowledge” is reflected in the structure of student proficiency exams where students are asked to translate a text from another language into English, but not vice versa, as described by the programs at Michigan Tech, the University of Louisville, and the University New Hampshire. Structuring the requirement (and associated exams) around reading means that the possibility that scholars might translate their work in English into another language or write a piece in another language for submission to a non-English medium journal or conference are not considered and are not capacities the requirement fosters. It then reinforces the notion that graduate student (and all other student) writing in U.S. universities is and should be in English-only.

Furthermore, restricting the requirement to “reading knowledge” of another language ties the use of languages beyond English to particular contexts to further cement its ancillary status in rhetoric and composition Ph.D. programs. Imagining reading knowledge of another language as a “tool” for the purposes of scholarship links it more directly to literary study than to rhetoric and composition, given the widespread (though incorrect) assumption that writing teaching and scholarship is an English-medium phenomenon exclusive to the U.S. Thus, University of New Hampshire English department justifies the requirement for students in *all* its Ph.D. tracks in so far as it “giv[es] students a *tool (or tools)* which will enable them to master the literature in a

specific field that they choose to study, and to add depth to their study of a period of literature, a national literature, an area of critical theory, or the like” and links its requirement to an article entitled “Why Should Graduate Students in English Literature Know a Foreign Language?” However, the usefulness of the requirement for these purposes is somewhat questionable, given, as Stewart observes, “the research use of foreign languages had for the most part been abandoned by English departments by the mid-60’s” (210). Although language knowledge beyond English has always been necessary for medieval literature specialists, and more recently, specialists focusing on the various “worlds literatures” rapidly becoming incorporated into the Anglo-American canon, English literature programs continue to be largely monolingual, as Stewart’s analysis of the loss of foreign language requirements in English departments suggest.

If the language requirement is only valued in the sense that it enables small (if growing, as in the case of world literatures) branches of scholarship in English literary studies, it seems far afield of rhetoric and composition, and, as often imagined, an unnecessary hurdle to be traversed as soon as possible in the pursuit of the Ph.D. This perception is both reflected and advanced in the frequent stipulation that the requirement must be completed before comprehensive exams. That 36% (n=12) of programs require that students complete the requirement before pursuing candidacy suggests that foreign language knowledge is separate from the “real work” of graduate studies that takes place during exams and the writing of the dissertation, rather than incorporated into research. Of course, one might read this stipulation as suggesting that additional language knowledge is so important to exams and dissertation, it must be

completed as a pre-requisite. However, other trends that surround these requirements, like the vagueness of language requirement descriptions and the frequent lack of justification for these requirements for rhetoric and composition graduate students, suggest otherwise. Either way, like the time limits placed on translation exams, the stipulation that students complete the requirement before exams presents the language requirement as something to be gotten over with, and in so doing, effaces the ongoing nature of language learning to present language knowledge as a reified “skill” one either has or does not have.

Conclusion: Policy and Practice

In his work on institutional bureaucracies, Michael Herzfeld argues that policies, though often considered to be rational, expedient, and matter of fact, function symbolically to construct boundaries around the bureaucratic entity, designating who and what “matters” and who and what may be treated with “indifference” within its borders, a “rejection made tolerable to insiders because it is presented in terms that are at once familiar and familial” (33). In this chapter, I have attempted to show that it is the “familiar” structures of curricular policies surrounding linguistics, TESOL, and basic writing coursework and “foreign” language requirements that denote a “familial” tie to composition’s “mother tongue,” preserving the dominance of monolingual ideology within the discipline by way of the next generation of its teachers and scholars.

However, it is important to remember that curricular policies are not deterministic in the classic sense, and inevitably fail to capture the complex ways in which language issues are negotiated in graduate programs. It is these negotiations that,

over time, give rise to program policies which will go on to influence local practices which will, in turn, continue to shape them. For example, in 2012 the University of Louisville English department graduate committee replaced the traditional, two foreign language requirement with a requirement that students' demonstrate proficiency in one language "other than English," ("Graduate Program Guidelines 2013" 18) to reflect the ways in which students were already sidestepping the requirement through various substitutions. Upon surveying graduate students, the graduate committee found that "[o]f 35 currently enrolled doctoral students who have either completed or declared the means by which they will complete the 'two foreign languages' requirement, 30 of these have done so via a statistics course, technology course, or technology project" (Kopelson et al.). As a new faculty hire (Mary Sheridan) meant that technology was becoming more integrated into the "regular coursework" of the department and students had the option to take statistics as their "one elective outside the department," the committee reasoned the requirement was becoming redundant and "neither in the spirit of multilingualism nor the best use of students' time" (Kopelson et al.).

Graduate program policies emerge as individual actors (graduate students and faculty) negotiate graduate study in relationship to existing policies and procedures (i.e. the practice of allowing "substitutions" in the first place) that have sedimented from past practice. These policies, then, are freighted with the past but always responsive to the present. In the next chapter, I will attend to current negotiations of graduate program policy in context of movements in composition to adopt a "translingual" approach to the teaching of writing and transnational, cross-cultural approach to composition research. In this way, I will gesture toward the ways in which rhetoric and composition doctoral

program policies might change through practices that reflect what Yasemin Yildiz has referred to the as “postmonolingual” condition of social life in the 21st century.

CHAPTER IV
RESISTING THE MONOLINGUAL NORM: TRANSLINGUAL DISPOSITIONS
AND PRACTICES IN RHETORIC AND COMPOSITION DOCTORAL
EDUCATION

In the last two chapters, I have argued that graduate education in rhetoric and composition has evolved in relationship to an ideal of English monolingualism. Though I acknowledged a fundamental dissonance between curricular policies and educational practices, I argued that these policies function as prescribed courses of action in the bureaucratic environment of the university, framing and sanctioning graduate program practices and imposing limits on the transformative work that can take place in graduate training. Because these policies reflect monolingual terms and assumptions, they have worked to obscure the relevance of linguistic forms and practices associated with national and cultural others to the training of future rhetoric and composition teacher-scholars.

In this chapter, I present an institutional case study that explores the ways in which the dominant, monolingual ideology written into rhetoric and composition doctoral curricula has been relocalized and resisted in the University of Louisville Ph.D. program. Through analysis of current and past doctoral dissertations, graduate course syllabi, and a survey of current doctoral students' perceptions of language diversity in the context of their professional development, I illustrate the ways in which an

emergent translingual ideology is working to shape teaching and scholarly practices in this program. Though this resistance to monolingual dominance has been shaped by the local conditions and exigencies of the program and the institution in which it is located, I argue that it speaks to broader patterns of resistance insofar as the history of this program reflects trends in other institutions. I further argue that translingual dispositions and practices in the U of L program and elsewhere are not “new,” and, by extension, potentially transient and insignificant, but rather a “rediscovery” of programs’ historical concerns with language difference and diversity.

Resisting Monolingualism in Language and Literacy Studies

In “‘Internationalization’ and Composition Studies: Reorienting the Discourse,” Christiane Donahue critiques the logic of the English-centric and US-centric “export model” compositionists often use to theorize writing instruction globally. This model, in conjunction with an “assumed dominance” of English that compositionists bring to bear on scholarly and pedagogical work across borders, creates a partial view of internationalization that “reduc[es] awareness of blind spots, domains to which composition theory has not stayed attuned” (“Internationalization” 228, 214, 228). Instead, she argues for a paradigm of “exchange” in international work, one that will “‘de-naturalize’ our assumptions and stances” by engaging multiple points of view (232). Donahue’s argument, in terms of both her critique and recommendations, captures the rich interplay between a dominant monolingual worldview and emergent, collaborative cross-language cultural processes in writing and writing research as composition confronts the global traffic in people, cultures, and languages characteristic of life in the 21st century.

As in previous chapters, I refer to “monolingualism” here not as a simple numerical term designating the presence of one language, but as a worldview that organizes our perception of social life: of people, cultures, and disciplines, as well as language and language relations. Rooted in the major Western social and philosophical movements of the 18th, 19th, and 20th centuries and tied to the emergence of the nation-state, monolingualism is based on a fundamental “equivalence of language, community, and place” (Canagarajah *Translingual*) and the corresponding assumption that “individuals and social formations...possess one ‘true’ language, only, their ‘mother tongue’ and through this possession [are] organically linked to an exclusive, clearly demarcated ethnicity, culture, and nation” (Yildiz 2). The idea of the mother tongue has led to the popular denigration of language differences by promoting the sense that the only way to “properly think, feel, and express oneself” is in one’s native language (Yildiz 7). By casting communicative practices in multiple languages as “deviation, hodgepodge” or simply not existing at all, monolingualism has “rapidly displaced previously unquestioned practices of living and writing in multiple languages” in a variety of national and cultural contexts—including U.S. higher education, where it became institutionalized in the late 19th century (Yildiz 6).

When the moderns replaced the classical, bilingual curriculum (at least in theory if not always in practice) in Greek and Latin with one that—with few exceptions—mandated that teaching and learning in U.S. universities take place in “English-only,” academic study in the U.S. was reframed along monolingual lines (see Horner and Trimbur). The “territorialization of languages according to national borders” in academic departments (Horner and Trimbur 596) has shaped the development of

research traditions in U.S. universities, which, as linguistic anthropologists Susan Gal and Judith T. Irvine describe, rehearse and reinforce the equation of language, nation/culture, and discipline through their scholarly practices. In this way, research and teaching in U.S. universities has “led to active processes of monolingualization, which have produced more monolingual subjects, more monolingual communities, and more monolingual institutions, without, however, full eliminating multilingualism” (Yildiz 2-3).

However, under economic globalization, multilingual and cross-language practices in Western institutions have begun to assert themselves with increasing force. As Yasemin Yildiz observes, “globalization and the ensuing renegotiation of the place of the nation state have begun to loosen the monolingualizing pressure and have thereby enabled the contestatory visibility of these practices in the first place” (3). These circumstances shape what Yildiz has termed the “postmonolingual condition” of 21st century social life. For Yildiz, the prefix “post” has both a historical and critical dimension, suggesting both the time since the emergence of the monolingual paradigm in late 18th century Europe and a growing resistance to and struggle against monolingualism in recent years. Though Yildiz argues a fully articulated alternative to the monolingual paradigm does not yet exist, this growing “field of tension” between monolingual ideals and real communicative practices is allowing scholars of various fields to “suggest the possible contours of such a multilingual paradigm and contribute variously to just such a restructuring” (5).

In cultural materialist terms, the post-monolingual might be considered indicative of the current “structure of feeling” in Western communities and institutions.

Structures of feeling, Raymond Williams explains, are “styles” of social experience within a particular generation which are still “*in process*, often indeed not yet recognized as social but taken to be private, idiosyncratic, and even isolating” (131, 132). Though they can be defined in terms of a “structure: as a set, with specific internal relations,” these structures are distinct from fixed, explicit, and fully articulated social formations and the official consciousness to which they are connected. They represent a present cultural process where “meanings and values...are actively lived and felt, and relations between these and formal or systematic beliefs are in practice variable” (132). In this way, structures of feeling have “emergent, connecting, and dominant characteristics” (132) expressed in “specific feelings, specific rhythms” (131) which “do not have to await definition, classification, or rationalization before they exert palpable pressures and set effective limits on experience and action” (132).

In language and literacy studies, postmonolingual pressures have led scholars to question their traditional, monolingual orientation to teaching and research. Suresh Canagarajah writes:

The big question now is how to account for successful communication and meaning-making in postmodern contexts of translingual contact. It is becoming clear that the monolingual models we constructed under the influence of modernist ideals are inadequate for our purposes. Models based on fixed systems, grammatical competence, and homogeneous communities are not useful when we are dealing with plural languages and interlocutors. Unpredictability and diversity are the norm in postmodern globalization, conditions the modernist and monolingual discourses treated as the exception or attempted to control through their models and institutions. (*Translingual* 26)

Recognition of the “unpredictability” of communication in highly diversified, postmodern global spaces has fueled the emergence of practice-based orientations to language and literacy. These include models of “language as local practice” (Pennycook

Language), “a linguistics of contact” (Pratt), “communities of practice” (Lave and Wenger), and, in composition studies, translingual literacy and practice (Lu; Horner and Lu; Horner et al. “Language”; Canagarajah *Translingual*).

Although such models are becoming increasingly visible in the disciplinary discourse of composition studies, the degree to which they are being taken up by composition teachers and scholars to shape professional practices in the field is unclear. To this end, I present an institutional case study that explores the ways in which monolingualism is being resisted in the teaching and scholarly practices of one doctoral program in the field. As I argued in Chapter 1, doctoral programs are arenas in which disciplinary dispositions are written and revised, as graduate students become acculturated to dominant disciplinary ideologies, and in the process, engage in practices that (re)produce these ideologies in potentially powerfully counter-hegemonic ways. They are then an appropriate place to observe paradigm shifts like the move from monolingualism to translingualism in composition studies in social and material context, as taking place through local practices deeply situated within institutional history(ies).

The Setting

As I explained in Chapter 2, the University of Louisville’s rhetoric and composition Ph.D. was formed in response to the institution’s need for writing teachers to teach a growing population of socioculturally and linguistically diverse undergraduate students in the late 1970’s. Originally a doctoral program in English literature, the program was reconfigured in 1978 as a rhetoric and composition program

designed specifically to train “basic writing” teachers. This change in the curriculum took place after U of L became a state institution in 1970 and the Kentucky State Council of Higher Education in 1977 recommended eliminating the program on the grounds that it duplicated the University of Kentucky’s English Ph.D. The move to “rhetoric and composition,” and specifically, basic writing, was spearheaded by the director of composition at the time, Joseph Comprone, and was intended to differentiate the U of L program from UK’s by aligning it more closely with the university’s “urban mission” and the increasingly diverse student body it attracted. Insofar as basic writing has historically served “as the only space in English which seriously investigates the challenges of students whose writing is explicitly marked as ‘not belonging’ to the academy” (Horner and Lu, *Birth* xv), the U of L program, at least as it was originally conceived, was centered on matters of linguistic and cultural difference in U.S. institutions and writing programs.

This focus is evident in graduate program guidelines from the early years of the program as well as the 1981 syllabus for ENG 602, the composition practicum course. As I described in Chapter 2, graduate program guidelines from the late 1970’s and early 1980’s show that courses and exams in structural and applied linguistics were central components of the program. These requirements reflected Comprone’s assertion that such work “provides a basic writing teacher with both the cultural-linguistic understanding and the empirical-analytical skills to develop more effective writing programs” for teaching open admissions students who either “speak English as a second language” or come from “oral cultures” (“Graduate” 30, 29). This view is also reflected in Comprone’s 1981 syllabus for ENG 602, the pedagogical practicum required of all

new teaching assistants. The course takes what Comprone identifies as a “developmental approach” to teaching college composition and assigns as required reading basic writing scholarship which, he notes elsewhere, is “derive[d] from structural and transformative theories of grammar,” including work on syntax-as-heuristic and sentence combining (Christensen; Mullen; O’Hare; Daiker, Morenberg, and Kerek; Strong; Hunt; Winterowd) and error analysis (Shaughnessy) (“Graduate” 29).

The U of L program’s initial focus on language differences associated with “basic writers” is also evidenced by several early dissertations completed in the program, including Christine Hall’s 1984 dissertation on the reading and writing practices of “remedial” college students, Warren Seekamp’s 1986 dissertation on basic writing pedagogy, Karen Hunter Anderson’s 1986 dissertation on English as a Second Language writers’ handbooks, and Robert Delius Royar’s 1987 dissertation on using computer networks to teach basic writing. However, general trends in dissertations through the 1980’s and 1990’s foreshadow U of L’s curricular shift away from basic writing pedagogy and toward coursework and requirements in rhetoric, research, and critical and cultural theory through the 1990’s and 2000’s (see Chapter 2). Though basic writing pedagogy was a central component of the Ph.D. program in the 1980’s, most of the 23 dissertations completed and defended during this decade focused not on language differences associated with academic “outsiders” in composition teaching, but on research in cognitive psychology and composing processes (39.13%, n=9), the application of critical and literary theory to composition teaching (17.39%, n=4), the

application of Western rhetoric to composition teaching (17.39%, n=4), and Western rhetorical history (13.04%, n=3).

Through the 1990's, language diversity in writing teaching and research continued to be underrepresented in student dissertations. Of the 41 dissertations completed and defended during this decade, only two (Pamela Butsch's "Revitalizing Basic Writing With a Pedagogy of Play" and Ruoyi Wu's "Genre/Culture Relations: Self Presentation in Autobiographical Writing of ESL Students") foregrounded language diversity in composition teaching. By contrast, many more dissertations from the 1990's focused on applications of the Western rhetorical tradition to composition pedagogy (24.39%, n=10) and critical and cultural theory to composition (24.39%, n=10), as well as Western rhetorical history (14.63%, n=6), with others continuing to use cognitive psychological and literary studies as analytical lenses to consider issues in writing and writing instruction.

Dissertations foregrounding language diversity in composition studies and making use of scholarship in linguistics have continued to constitute a small portion of all dissertations completed and defended in the U of L program through the 2000's. However, they have become more prevalent in recent years. Of the 85 dissertations completed during this period, only eleven (12.94%) have focused on language differences in composition, and nine of those eleven have defended since 2005. These include Anne-Marie Pederson's dissertation "Globalized Research Writing in Jordan: Negotiating English Language and Culture" (Defended 4/3/07, Director: Carol Mattingly), Julia Kiernan's "Cultivating our Mosaic: Understanding the Language Choices of Canadian Immigrant Students" (defended 11/18/10. Director: Bruce

Horner), Vanessa Kraemer Sohan's "Thinking Differently about Language Difference: Relocalized Listening" (defended 11/28/11. Directors: Bruce Horner & Min-Zhan Lu), Samantha NeCamp's "The Moonlight Schools: Adult Literacy Education in the Age of Americanization" (defended 3/29/11. Director: Carol Mattingly), and Nancy Bou Ayash's "Translingualism in Post-Secondary Writing and Language Instruction: Negotiating Language Ideologies in Policies and Pedagogical Practices" (defended: 4/17/13. Director: Bruce Horner). As the above examples indicate, this renewed focus on language diversity in composition studies in graduate student scholarship after 2005 corresponds with new attention to writing and writing instruction in international contexts.²⁷ This renewed attention to language diversity set in the context of international scholarship on writing and writing teaching reflects the shaping influence of two U of L faculty hired in 2006: Bruce Horner and Min-Zhan Lu. Prof. Horner and Prof. Lu brought their expertise in translingual and transnational theories of composition to U of L, and they have worked to bring issues of language and culture differences to the fore of graduate teaching and learning in the program. That said, other faculty have also embraced a focus on language and language relations, as indicated by recent graduate course offerings.

A number of recent graduate courses have concentrated specifically on language and language relations through investigating work in and outside composition studies. Karen Hadley's Fall 2007 English 692 Topics in Interpretative Theory course, subtitled "Twentieth Century Theories of Language," drew from foundational work in

²⁷ While exploring language differences in composition through the lens of international research risks reinforces the monolingualist equation of nation/culture and language, these projects apply much needed attention to international writing teaching and research which, historically, has received little attention in composition studies.

“philosophy and linguistics (Gottlob Frege and Ferdinand de Saussure),” to springboard discussion of deconstruction and social-historical perspectives on language and its use. Joanna Wolfe’s Spring 2008 English 692 Topics in Interpretative Theory, subtitled “Linguistic Theory and its Applications in Literary and Rhetorical Study,” introduced students to “linguistic theories such as structuralism, formalism, transformative generative grammar, speech act theory, functional grammar, and theory” and “how they have been borrowed, used, and adapted to how we read and teach texts” in literary and rhetorical studies. Bruce Horner’s Fall 2006 English 687 Seminar in Rhetorical Studies, subtitled “Basic Writing in History, Theory, and Practice,” drew from “formative” scholarship in the subdiscipline of basic writing to “investigate the strategic value of and limitations of compositionists’ various attempts to define the writing, courses, students, pedagogies, and writing programs called ‘basic’ both to discriminate amongst these attempts and to discern their relation to larger movements in the field of rhetoric and composition.” Bronwyn William’s Spring 2009 English 681 Seminar in Special Studies, subtitled “Popular Culture and Literacy: Writing and Reading in a Mass-Mediated World,” focused on “how we define literacy and how best to approach teaching critical literacies in a mass-mediated culture” and drew from international scholarship on situated language and reading and writing practices to invoke broader conceptions of literacy outside of “print,” the U.S., and by extension, English.

Attention to language differences in composition is also indicated by the 2010, 2012, and the upcoming 2014 Thomas R. Watson Conferences in Rhetoric and Composition, events hosted by the U of L English Department and attended and largely organized by its graduate students. Respectively titled “Working English in Rhetoric

and Composition: Global-local Contexts, Commitments, and Consequences" and "Economies of Writing," the 2010 and 2012 conferences featured work by domestic and international scholars on the role of language(s) in composition studies in relationship to the political economies of writing and writing instruction within globalizing higher education structures. These scholars' work focused on cross-cultural and alternative rhetorics,²⁸ intersections between second language studies and composition,²⁹ writing and writing teaching in multilingual, international contexts,³⁰ and composition's engagement with other languages and English(es) in teaching and scholarly practice.³¹ The upcoming 2014 Watson Conference, titled "Responsivity: Defining, Cultivating, Enacting," includes attention to "global partnerships" that "foster new approaches" responsive to the material conditions of writing teaching and learning in the 21st century and features work by scholars concerned with writing across languages in global-local contexts.³²

Several recent courses have been formulated to address questions raised by and matters discussed within the Watson Conferences. Bruce Horner's Fall 2009 ENGL 674 Interdisciplinary Studies in Rhetoric and Composition course, subtitled "Politics of Language in the Teaching and Study of Composition," focused on "the problematics and possibilities of intersections between work in composition and the politics of language," including language ideologies in composition, distinctions between mainstream composition and ESL writing, and the teaching of composition in the

²⁸ Damían Baca, Ralph Cintrón, Keith Gilyard, LuMing Mao, Jacqueline Jones Royster, Vershawn Young, Victor Villaneuva, Xiaoye You.

²⁹ Paul Kei Matsuda, Suresh Canagarajah, Michelle Hall Kells, Shondel Nero, Christine Tardy.

³⁰ Mária Corejová, Christiane Donahue, Rochelle Kapp, Roman Licko, Theresa Lillis, Shondel Nero, Catherine Prendergast, Vivette Milson-Whyte, Xiaoye You, LuMing Mao, Weiguo Qu.

³¹ Jay Jordan, Carmen Kynard, Jacqueline Jones Royster, John Trimbur, Scott Wible, Vershawn Young.

³² Christiane Donahue, Juan Guerra, Wendy Hesford.

context of the global spread of English and the associated proliferation of English(es) at home and abroad. Prof. Horner's Fall 2010 course, "Outside Composition," also addressed language differences in composition through attention to "scholarship on education, extracurricular writing, second-language writing instruction and scholarship, writing instruction and scholarship outside the U.S., and the 'internationalization' and 'globalization' of education generally and composition specifically." This course also included campus visits from two scholars whose work focuses on language relations in composition: Paul Kei Matsuda and Christiane Donahue. Min-Zhan Lu's Fall 2011 "Watson Seminar in Rhetoric and Composition" course focused on the work of three visiting scholars interested in language and cultural differences in writing and transnational theories of composition: Suresh Canagarajah, Brian Street, and Ralph Cintrón. Finally, Mary P. Sheridan's Fall 2013 English 674 "Community Literacy" course focused in part on the work of two Watson Conference keynote speakers concerned with cross-language, cross-cultural community literacies: Juan Guerra and Wendy Hesford.

The influence of the Watson conferences and the courses they inspired can be seen in comprehensive exam questions, which the faculty create to reflect recent course offerings. The Fall 2003 comprehensive exam, the oldest the department has on record, does not address language differences in composition explicitly, save for a parenthetical reference to "basic writing" as a specified area of interest in a question about whether or not there is a coherent "field" of rhetoric and composition, nor does it address global contexts of writing and writing teaching. By contrast, the 2012 comprehensive exam included a question that asked students to consider "multilingual language practices" as

one of a number of issues and conversations in rhetoric and composition that challenge traditional notions about “the nature and purpose of the field.” It also included another question about “translingual communication contexts” and their implications for “research and teaching in the field of Rhetoric and Composition.” The 2013 exam included a question about “cross-disciplinary engagements” in rhetoric and composition in “an increasingly globally connected world,” and asked graduate students to theorize relationships between composition and sociolinguistics, as well as other literacy related fields.

Survey

All together, recent dissertations, courses, the Watson conferences, and comprehensive exam questions suggest that matters of language politics and difference are coming back to the fore of the U of L doctoral program after a relatively long hiatus, at least in part in response to recent pressures to “internationalize” the discipline. As Donahue has noted, “*internationalization* has become a buzzword in composition studies,” a “hot commodity” in teaching and scholarship (“Internationalization” 212) that reflects the discipline’s growing recognition of globalizing higher education structures. However, the degree to which doctoral students in the U of L program are adopting dispositions toward language difference that diverge from the dominant, monolingual paradigm that has worked to shape the program’s curriculum over time (see Chapter 2) is questionable. To explore the ways in which graduate students are adopting “translingual” dispositions toward language difference in the context of the

postmonolingual condition of U of L's program, I conducted a perception study of its current doctoral students.

This web-based online study was designed to document doctoral students' perceptions of language diversity, defined as the simultaneous presence of multiple, shifting language "codes" (including both national languages and dialects), in composition teaching and scholarship (see appendix). Specifically, the survey attended to rhetoric and composition doctoral students' perceptions of language diversity in writing teaching and their professional preparation to teach students with diverse language backgrounds, including but not limited to increasing numbers of undergraduate students identified as "ESL" in U.S. universities. It also worked to identify doctoral students' perceptions of language diversity in writing scholarship, both as a focus of writing research and as a condition of international writing scholarship that takes place in a variety of languages, as well as their desire and professional preparation to discuss language diversity in their own scholarship and participate in cross-language writing research. Finally, it attempted to identify doctoral students' perceptions of their own language practices in the program to determine the degree to which they are already working across languages in their teaching and scholarship.

Participants

The invitation to participate in the study was emailed to all currently enrolled rhetoric and composition doctoral students in the University of Louisville English department and elicited 17 responses. Of the 17 respondents, three were taking coursework, six were in the process of completing exams, one was completing the

prospectus, and seven were writing their dissertations. All participants were fully funded graduate students who had either taught or were currently teaching at the University of Louisville as Graduate Teaching Assistants (GTAs). Respondents reported teaching courses in the first year composition sequence, English 101: Introduction to College Writing (39%; n=17) and English 102 Intermediate College Composition (27%; n=12), English 105 Honors College Writing (5%; n=2), as well as English 303: Science and Technical Writing (5%; n=2), English 306: Business Writing (16%; n=7), ENG 309: Inquiries in Writing (n=1). A few students also reported teaching the following literature courses: Women and Literature, Writing about Literature, and American Literature II.

Surprisingly, the responses to question 3 (What national languages and/or dialects of English do you use currently or have you used in the past and where and when have you developed your knowledge of these languages? Please discuss all languages you feel you have some familiarity with, even if not “fluent.”) indicated that all of the students who responded to the survey considered themselves to be, at least on some level, “multilingual.” All respondents reported using or having used other national languages in either personal or academic contexts or both, although most described their knowledge of languages other than English as limited to basic conversation and reading skills. Four participants reported speaking and writing multiple languages as a product of their experiences in the U.S. as foreign nationals or abroad as exchange students from the U.S. The majority described their language knowledge beyond English as developed through high school and college coursework. Three participants described themselves as “multidialectals” who used dialects like AAVE and Southern English in addition to the

“Standard English” they used as teachers and scholars. Though these responses suggest that participants’ knowledge and use of other languages is limited to particular contexts outside the graduate program in which they are enrolled, they also counter the monolingual assumption held by many departments that rhetoric and composition graduate students (like the undergraduate students they are being trained to teach) are U.S. educated, English-only monolinguals (Hesford et al.; see also Chapter 3 discussion of “foreign” language requirements).

Data Analysis and Discussion

The survey consisted of twenty questions regarding participants’ perceptions of language diversity in the context of their development as teacher-scholars enrolled in a rhetoric and composition Ph.D. program. In these questions, participants were asked to rate their agreement with statements about their teaching and scholarly practices on a six point Likert scale (1=Strongly disagree, 6=Strongly agree) and clarify those responses through a series of open-ended prompts.

The first set of questions referred to participants’ work as GTA’s in the program and ongoing professional development as teachers through coursework, workshops, and other resources and requirements. Responses to these questions showed that most participants (52.94%, n=9) agreed that they notice students whose language practices reflect a variety of national languages and dialects of English in the classes they teach and the vast majority (88.23%, n=15) stated they thought language diversity was increasing in U.S. higher education as compared to 30 years ago.

Table 7

Graduate students' responses to the statement "I notice students whose language practices reflect a variety of national languages and dialects of English in the classes that I teach." (N=17)

Response	N	%
Strongly disagree	1	5.88
Disagree	1	5.88
Somewhat disagree	2	11.76
Somewhat agree	4	23.53
Agree	4	23.53
Strongly Agree	5	29.41

Table 8

Graduate students' completions of the statement, "Compared to 30 years ago, language diversity in U.S. higher education is:" (N=17)

Response	N	%
Increasing	15	88.24
Decreasing	0	0
Largely the same	2	11.76

The majority of respondents (82.35%, n=14) also indicated that they felt responsible for addressing the specific language needs of students with language backgrounds different from mainstream English monolinguals, including students commonly identified as "multilingual," "multidialectal," "basic writers," or "ESL writers." These answers suggest that doctoral student teachers in the U of L program were somewhat more likely

to be attuned to the presence and needs of students from diverse language backgrounds as compared to the teachers represented in Paul Kei Matsuda, Tanita Saenkum, and Steven Accardi's recent study of writing teachers in another institution. Of 74 first-year writing teachers Matsuda, Saenkum, and Accardi surveyed, only 22 (29.72%) both "perceived the presence and needs of multilingual writers and said they took specific actions to address those needs" (76). It's worth noting that Matsuda, Saenkum, and Accardi surveyed not only doctoral graduate student teachers, but also master's graduate student teachers, M.A. level instructors, and a few Ph.D. level instructors and tenure track faculty at an institution with "one of the largest international student enrollments in the United States; it also enrolls a large number of multilingual writers who are U.S. residents" (70). That the majority of the U of L students surveyed in this study indicated that they were conscious of and willing to respond to the needs of linguistically diverse students, even though U of L is a seemingly less diverse institution³³, suggests that these teachers have developed consciousness of language issues in composition through coursework and other requirements in the doctoral program.

Though most participants indicated that they were aware of and responsive to the needs of linguistically diverse students, fewer (76.47%, n=13) stated that they felt confident in their ability to teach students with diverse language backgrounds. Only three "strongly agreed" with this statement and eight only "somewhat agreed."

³³ U of L's 2012-2013 institutional profile reports that 24.8% of enrolled students identify as a race or ethnicity other than white and 5.2% of enrolled students are foreign nationals ("Just the Facts" 13).

Table 9

Graduate students' responses to the statement "I feel responsible for addressing the specific language needs of students with language backgrounds different from mainstream English monolinguals, including students commonly identified as 'multilingual,' 'multidialectal,' 'basic writers' or 'ESL writers.'" (N=16)³⁴

Response	N	%
Strongly disagree	1	6.25
Disagree	0	0
Somewhat disagree	1	6.25
Somewhat agree	3	18.75
Agree	7	43.75
Strongly Agree	4	25

Table 10

Graduate students' responses to the statement "I feel confident in my ability to teach students with diverse language backgrounds, including students commonly identified as 'multilingual,' 'multidialectal,' 'basic writers' or 'ESL writers.'" (N=17)

Response	N	%
Strongly disagree	0	0
Disagree	2	11.76
Somewhat disagree	2	11.76
Somewhat agree	8	47.06
Agree	2	11.76
Strongly Agree	3	17.65

³⁴ Due to a technical problem with the survey instrument, only 16 answers were recorded to this question.

This lack of confidence can be tied to comments participants made when asked about their professional preparation to teach in the context of language diversity. Fourteen students said they felt under-resourced in this area and would appreciate additional resources. These responses corroborated the results of several studies that found that writing teachers report a lack professional preparation to teach multilingual students (Braine; Ferris et al.; Matsuda, Saenkhum, Accardi; Williams). However, in this case, a number of the participants made a distinction between their theoretical introduction to language differences in composition through coursework and their practical training in these matters. After all, the vast majority (94.12%, n=16) agreed that they felt “knowledgeable about scholarship devoted to language diversity in writing teaching,” though only three “strongly agreed” with this statement. One participant wrote, “I feel like I’ve read a lot about this issue, but have received little concrete training in how to teach to it,” while another wrote “I have had a few courses which promote the theoretical value of respecting and engaging with students from different language backgrounds, but I really haven’t seen any resources or support which expound upon the practical side of that issue.”

These participants’ comments suggest that were observing a theory/practice binary, which serves to limit their ability to apply theory to meet particular disciplinary exigencies, like changing student demographics. As Bruce Horner and Min-Zhan Lu argue, the theory/practice binary in graduate studies, like other salient disciplinary binaries (rhetoric/composition, past/present, scholarship/teaching, authors/students), reflects the “[p]ursuit of academic disciplinary legitimacy” and “risks failing to prepare students for the ever-changing needs they face in their work as teachers, administrators,

and even scholars. They may be ‘qualified’ to teach a History of Rhetoric course but unprepared to respond to ongoing, local, disciplinary, or global history in rhetorically effective ways” (“Working” 482).

Two students cited Bruce Horner’s “Outside Composition” and “Politics of Language” classes and sessions at the Watson conference as providing a theoretical backing in language diversity in composition. Another cited Bruce Horner and Min-Zhan Lu’s classes on literacy and multilingualism. This student also mentioned a specific assignment in one of Bruce Horner’s classes where “we had to translate an academic article in another language into English”³⁵ which the student stated helped him/her develop empathy with international students “translat[ing] the mass amount of information” in the school work “in a timely manner, let alone correctly.” This comment indicates this student’s awareness that such empathy is needed for composition teachers, but it also frequently lacking, given the implication that it can best be cultivated through assignments that s/he presents as outside the norm in the graduate program.

The desire for more “practical” training in how to address students’ language differences in the classroom suggests a growing interest on the part of the graduate students surveyed in cross-language teaching practices. However, students often tended to imagine this training as separate and supplemental to the mainstream rhetoric and composition curriculum, and subsequently, downplayed its importance and relevance to the program. One student recommended an optional “TESOL” certification, one recommended a “separate course for those interested in special attention to this

³⁵ For the record, Prof. Horner has clarified that this assignment was an option, not a requirement for the class.

subject,” one recommended that a “portion of 602 [the teaching practicum course] be dedicated to this topic,” and seven others recommended optional “pedagogy workshops” geared toward helping students with diverse language backgrounds.

All of these recommendations relegate language issues to the domain of the extracurriculum to ultimately reinforce that sense that “regular” rhetoric and composition courses and requirements are concerned with training teachers to teach mainstream English monolingual students. In this way, they evidence a monolingual approach to language difference which, as Min-Zhan Lu and Bruce Horner have described, identifies it “as a defining problem for and characteristic of the socially ‘different,’ seen as both linguistically and socially embodying something other than ‘the norm’ and hence requiring a ‘different’ approach—likely in a different location, curriculum, or program segregated from “normal” writers” (“Translingual” 583). This monolingualist approach is practically problematic in the sense that these “add ons” to the curriculum would require additional resources to create and maintain them and would also compete with core courses and requirements for the time and attention of students and faculty. As one student wrote, “I’m not sure how these activities could scale...It seems like most resources—workshops, websites, handouts, whatever—would be necessarily simplistic.”

A number of participants did, however, provide recommendations that would place language difference and diversity at heart of teaching practice and professional development in the program. For instance, four participants suggested that the existing English 602 teaching practicum course, the only course required of all students in the

program³⁶, might provide curricular space for addressing language diversity in composition. Given that practicum courses, as Sidney Dobrin has argued, are “the largest, most effective purveyor of cultural capital in composition studies”...a space in which teachers are not only “trained...but one in which they are enculturated into cultural ideologies of composition,” these suggestions work against the often prevailing sense that language differences are separate and marginal matters to be taken up through additional, non-credit bearing workshops and programs (21). Another participant suggested that undergraduate composition class sizes be reduced to “allow for more attention to individual students.” In a very different way, this recommendation also centralizes matters of language differences in the program, insofar as smaller classes would allow graduate student teachers the opportunity to pay greater attention to the language choices and backgrounds of all students in the class, not only those marked as “ESL” or “international.” Finally, one participant said that support for cross-language teaching could best be provided through an “ongoing, mixed theory/practice conversation with all composition instructors,” though this respondent admitted that s/he wasn’t sure what this would look like in practical terms. This recommendation evidences translingual thinking about the issue at hand in several ways. First, it suggests that language differences in composition are not temporary or surmountable hurdles to be traversed and forgotten via universal and prescriptive strategies. Second, it resists binary constructions of theory and practice associated with such “top down” strategies. Finally, it suggests that language differences are ongoing and central concerns in the

³⁶ It should be noted that English 620 Research in Composition is also required of all students. However, students have the option to substitute other research methods courses in the department. No such substitutions are offered for English 602.

program best approached through tactics that are flexible and responsive to local context.

In terms of their own language practices in the context of their teaching, most participants disagreed with statements that they used language conventions associated with other national languages (14) or non-standard varieties of English (11) in their classes. This trend again suggested that participants subscribed to monolingual ideology insofar as they viewed composition classes as English-only spaces. Moreover, that many participants identified themselves as using or having used other languages and dialects in other areas of their lives, in high school or college foreign language classes, at home, or on trips abroad, reinforces the monolingual reification of languages in relationships to particular contexts.

However, those participants that did acknowledge using languages beyond “standard English” in their teaching described such uses as pedagogically useful. For instance, one participant wrote that a discussion of various dialects and language change supports his or her teaching of “academic writing,” given the ways in which the genre increasingly reflects more diverse linguistic practices as a result of the globalization of academic research. Three other participants stated that they used discussion of the plurality of languages and dialects to teach students about the contextual nature of “correctness” in writing. One of these participants wrote:

Because I have some experience with southern and midwestern dialects, I've sometimes brought scans and transcripts of actual Civil War letters, and used them to illustrate points about grammar and "correctness" (in conjunction with some scholarly texts, like Joseph Williams' "Phenomenology of Error"). I find that students enjoy "negotiating" with these texts, and I can usually get them to change their ideas about error and correctness when I teach these.

That students find pleasure in discussions of linguistic forms and practices that are perhaps seen as transgressive in “English” writing classes came through in other responses. Another participant wrote that her unintentional use of Texas and South Texas dialect sometimes “opens up discussions of different words for different object, phrases, and actions.” These responses show participants' recognition of the value of a translingual approach to writing teaching and a willingness to capitalize on the translingual practices students and teachers are already bringing to class in their own pedagogies.

However, as one participant acknowledged, the use of language conventions associated with non-standard English dialects in composition teaching brings with it certain risks for graduate students actively negotiating issues of power and authority in their classrooms. This person wrote:

I speak in a Southern dialect sometimes in the classroom and that is just because it occurs when I am speaking so I do not plan it. I think more students feel comfortable talking to me because they recognize the authority is different in that way. However, I have had students in class make fun of how I say certain words because of my Southern accent/dialect. That is actually uncomfortable to be honest, and I could have used it as a teaching moment about different dialects, but because I am a graduate teaching assistant and did not feel so much authority, I did not say anything.

That this teacher's undergraduate students “feel comfortable” talking to him or her based on his or her nonstandard language practices speaks, again, to the potentially productive uses of diverse language forms in composition classes. This may be particularly true at an institution like U of L, where over three quarters (76.24%) of undergraduate students are from Kentucky, and consequently, likely use or have familiarity with Southern patterns of speech traditionally denigrated in mass culture (“U

of L Just the Facts” 6). However, this response also indicates that graduate student teachers cannot use these forms in class without risking undermining their tenuous institutional authority, which, as Wendy Hesford, Edgar Singleton, and Ivonne M. García have argued, is built in relationship to their ability to represent and transmit linguistic forms and practices associated with mainstream academic culture and, by extension, “standard English.”

Hesford, Singleton, and García observe that graduate student teachers with diverse language backgrounds (like international teaching assistants) are often tacitly discouraged from using their other languages in their teaching by the programs and institutions in which they are enrolled. Handbooks and workshops for international GTA’s work to assimilate them to mainstream academic forms and practices, and in so doing, cast linguistic and cultural differences as barriers to graduate student teachers’ institutional legitimacy and effectiveness with mainstream students. While Hesford, Singleton, and García limit their critique of the monolingualist assumption that “all instructors of English begin from the same place on a level playing field” to international graduate students and focus on the limitations placed on these students by institutional authorities (i.e. the graduate school, the English department, the writing program), the above participant’s response suggests that this critique can be extended to domestic graduate student teachers with non-standard language backgrounds and undergraduate students who, ironically, also work to enforce a standard English-only norm, even if these students (as at U of L) are often the victims of such enforcement.

That this graduate student teacher does not feel empowered to use students “making fun” of her language use as “a teaching moment” to discuss language politics

and linguistic violence in the context of a plurality of languages suggests that she too is hampered by the expectation that she represent and transmit mainstream academic forms and practices to undergraduate student consumers. In this context, it is unsurprising that most participants in this study reported not using the diverse language backgrounds they reported having in their teaching. Rather than attribute the monolingual practices of these graduate student teachers solely to their own monolingualist thinking, it can be also be, at least in part, attributed to their recognition of the institutional monolingual bias that frames their liminal role as graduate student instructors.

As with the questions about their teaching, participants' responses to questions about their scholarship revealed some ambivalence about the place of non-standard English forms and practices in their professional development. While most participants felt responsible for addressing these matters in the classes they taught, fewer participants were interested in making these issues a focus of their own scholarship.

Table 11

Graduate students' responses to the statement "I am interested in conducting research on and writing about language diversity in writing teaching." (N=17)

Response	N	%
Strongly disagree	0	0
Disagree	5	29.41
Somewhat disagree	3	17.65
Somewhat agree	4	23.53
Agree	3	17.65
Strongly Agree	2	11.76

Graduate students' scholarly interests are shaped by a variety of material factors, including their exposure to various lines of inquiry in coursework and exams and the availability of faculty to mentor students through projects. With this in mind, the disparity between what students notice in their classrooms and higher education generally and what they are interested in focusing their research on is worthy of consideration. It suggests that the participants were more likely to see language differences as matters of "practice" rather than theory—a view that is also reflected in the common perception on the part of the participants that they were unprepared to teach students with diverse language backgrounds because matters of language difference hadn't been approached in "practical" terms in their program.

This view of language differences reflects a traditional, monolingual approach to language in English studies and higher education (as seen in the history of composition and basic writing) that necessarily marginalizes them, given disciplinary and institutional hierarchies that privilege theory over practice (see Horner and Lu, "Working"; Miller; MLA). As Sidney Dobrin has observed, this theory/practice split in composition studies is "played out...on the bodies of new teachers and scholars" in so far as graduate curricula are designed to address questions about the institutional legitimacy of these programs and, more broadly, the discipline they work to represent and create (20). That graduate students' scholarly interests develop in relationship to concerns about disciplinary power and prestige helps to explain why so many participants reported relatively low levels of interest in conducting research and scholarship in writing across languages, even as the vast majority reported being aware of and familiar with composition scholarship published on language diversity through

coursework and exams, and slightly more students indicated that they felt “confident” in their ability to perform this research than were “interested.” High levels of awareness and confidence reflect students’ recognition that the tide is currently turning about the importance of language issues in composition, which have become en vogue in the context of the internationalization of the field. However, language issues still carry the trace of their historic marginalization, particularly when they are not cast as part of a larger “globalization” college composition and, instead, are identified with writing and writing students traditionally branded as “under-prepared” and “remedial.”

Table 12

Graduate students’ responses to the statement “I feel knowledgeable about of scholarship devoted to language diversity in writing teaching, including but not necessarily limited to work on students commonly identified as ‘multilingual,’ ‘multidialectal,’ ‘basic writers,’ or ‘ESL writers.’” (N=17)

Response	<i>N</i>	%
Strongly disagree	0	0
Disagree	0	0
Somewhat disagree	1	0
Somewhat agree	7	41.18
Agree	6	35.29
Strongly Agree	3	17.65

Table 13

Graduate students' responses to the statement "I feel confident in my ability to conduct research on and writing about language diversity in writing teaching." (N=17)

Response	N	%
Strongly disagree	0	0
Disagree	5	29.41
Somewhat disagree	3	17.65
Somewhat agree	2	11.76
Agree	5	29.41
Strongly Agree	2	11.76

As with using their diverse language backgrounds in their teaching, graduate students on the margins of scholarly discourse in their field face certain risks when they research and write about language diversity in composition—risks that are compounded if they can not make a clear connection between their work and “international” issues and people.³⁷ By associating themselves with low-status language teaching practices *historically* (even if not presently) considered marginal to mainstream composition, they risk failing to position themselves to compete as new scholars for publications, jobs, awards, etc., all of which are associated with established traditions of high-status disciplinary research and theory.

³⁷ Based on my own experiences in the program (particularly, the conversations I have had with other graduate students about choosing dissertation project), I believe that U.S. educated, (primarily) English monolingual graduate students at U of L are often more hesitant to explore language diversity in their scholarship for exactly this reason. There seems to be an assumption that to do this work well, students need an “in” in an international community and/or extensive knowledge of another language to enable their research in such a community. These assumptions reflect a monolingual approach to language diversity scholarship in the field that retains the equation of language and nation/culture.

The sense that language difference and diversity are matters of teaching practice and not scholarly inquiry is further reflected in the participants' own language practices as researchers. Participants were less likely to report using other languages in their research than they were in their teaching, with only one student agreeing that she or he did so.

Table 14

Graduate students' responses to the statement "I use languages beyond 'standard English' in my scholarship, including but not necessarily limited to conventions associated with other national languages and dialects of English." (N=17)

Response	<i>N</i>	%
Strongly disagree	4	23.53
Disagree	6	35.29
Somewhat disagree	3	17.65
Somewhat agree	2	11.76
Agree	1	5.88
Strongly Agree	1	5.88

Other responses reinforced the sense that participants overwhelmingly read and wrote English-medium scholarship and neglected research and publishing in other, non-English medium contexts. Most reported that they did not feel knowledgeable about non-English medium scholarship on writing and writing instruction, even though slightly more indicated that they felt confident in their ability to read such scholarship.

Table 15

Graduate students' responses to the statement "I feel knowledgeable about non-English medium scholarship on writing and writing instruction." (N=17)

Response	N	%
Strongly disagree	4	23.53
Disagree	6	35.29
Somewhat disagree	3	17.65
Somewhat agree	2	11.76
Agree	1	5.88
Strongly Agree	1	5.88

Table 16

Graduate students' responses to the statement, "I feel confident in my ability to read non-English medium scholarship for the purposes of my research." (N=17)

Response	N	%
Strongly disagree	4	23.53
Disagree	4	23.53
Somewhat disagree	2	11.76
Somewhat agree	4	23.53
Agree	2	11.76
Strongly Agree	1	5.88

These responses suggest that a lack of knowledge and confidence have led participants to adopt a linguistically parochial perspective about writing and writing instruction. As a number of scholars have argued, this perspective is endemic to the field of rhetoric

and composition, notwithstanding the fact that scholarship in writing and its teaching takes place worldwide in a variety of languages (Donahue; Foster and Russell; Horner, NeCamp, Donahue; Muchiri et al.), and, as Silva, Leki, and Carson have stated “[e]xamination of the large area of studies of writing in languages other than English... would repay consideration by adding needed depth to theories of rhetoric and writing” (402).

As with teaching, relatively low levels of knowledge of and confidence in using other languages for research purposes can be linked to participants’ assessment of the professional preparation their program provides in these areas. Five students stated they felt the graduate program did not provide any resources or support for graduate students to read and write scholarship in languages other than English. Several others wrote that the language requirement was the sole gesture toward this goal but questioned its usefulness. One student wrote that the “culture around the requirement is that it is a ‘hurdle’ to get past and not an enriching and useful activity.” Another wrote that restrictions around the language requirement limited its usefulness, stating “[t]he language requirements are a bit strict in what is or is not counted as a viable language option. For example, I’m interested in scholarship coming out of Scandinavia, but neither Norwegian or Swedish are ‘approved’ languages.”³⁸ Finally, one student linked the ineffectiveness of the language requirement to the ways in which language exams failed to reflect widely accepted disciplinary views on learning and assessment:

The language exam/requirements were just not useful. I think they should be removed and replaced with courses we could take or directed

³⁸ This student’s comment does not acknowledge that, according to the graduate program guidelines, students can petition the graduate committee to approve other languages for them to use to complete the requirement. However, this comment does speak to the perceived barrier listing particular, “approved” languages in program policies places on students’ developing language knowledge beyond English.

study where we could study languages and it's not based on proficiency, especially since many scholars in rhetoric and composition complicate what proficiency means. Therefore, it seems rather ironic that this program makes us become "proficient" in a language when we critique "proficiency."

This “irony” reinforces the sense that language requirements are outside the curriculum and inessential to the real work of teaching and learning in the graduate program.

However, as the above quote suggests, participants tended to imagine “fixing” this requirement in similarly extracurricular ways. Six students called for more opportunities for graduate students to take foreign language courses outside the department, and one of these students suggested that students might be advised to take this coursework after completing their departmental coursework toward the degree. Another student suggested that foreign language coursework might count as graduate credit toward the degree, a recommendation that incorporates language training into the curriculum, but preserves “regular” rhetoric and composition courses as monolingual, English-only spaces.³⁹ As they did with teaching, students seemed to cast support for language diversity in research as an additional, inessential component of their curricular work, which raises questions about the feasibility of completing it in light of the material conditions of graduate student labor. As one participant observed, “I’m not sure how the time needed to learn any of these languages would be grafted onto our current model of PhD studies. I used Christmas money to buy some books to self-teach myself Latin, but because of the demands of writing a diss, I have not cracked those

³⁹ While one graduate foreign language course could count toward the degree under current rules, this student seemed to be referring to undergraduate language coursework. Undergraduate language courses focus on developing students’ language knowledge, rather than their knowledge of the literature and culture of that language. The latter is the focus of modern language graduate courses at U of L, which assume the student already has substantial language knowledge.

books.” Another wrote, “If I really wanted to take other language classes, I expect I would be allowed to do so—but it would be on my own time, and I have precious little free time for extracurricular activities.”⁴⁰

That said, five participants observed that they would benefit as scholars from developing additional language resources. One participant wrote that s/he is “interested in scholarship coming out of Scandinavia” but indicated s/he is didn’t have the necessary language knowledge to access this scholarship, while another noted, “For my dissertation, it would be help me to be able to read French, and for my own research interests in classical rhetoric, it would be great to have reading knowledge of Latin and Greek.” Another student wrote passionately about the need to teach rhetoric and composition graduate students to use other languages for scholarly purposes in the face of the global dominance of English:

English may be the dominant language in the world, but there is a variety of untapped scholarship/voices that, because they are not translated into English, are silenced. If we are able to read German or French or Spanish, I think graduate students could utilize a very rich source of information on language use and writing that is ignored due to our monolingual society and value of scholarship that is English only. Teach us the skills, technologies, and literacies of translation, and we could start untapping those sources sooner than later.

⁴⁰ Though graduate programs have traditionally assumed that graduate students would have a background in another language by virtue of undergraduate coursework, this presumption is increasingly problematic. Under the pressure of state and federal budget cuts, universities have scaled back their modern language programs and classes. For instance, at the State University of New York at Albany in 2010, administrators responded to sweeping budget cuts by eliminating undergraduate majors in a number of languages. In 2011, George Washington University’s Columbian College of Arts and Sciences eliminated undergraduate language requirements as a budget-saving measure. As reporter Lisa Foderaro observes in an article in the *New York Times*, “small, interactive” foreign language courses are both expensive to run and can seem unnecessary in a world increasingly dominated by English. The paradox, however, is that universities are eliminating these courses at the same time they “embrace an international mission.” SUNY Albany’s motto is, after all, “the world within reach.”

And finally, one other observed, “Additional resources (classes in foreign languages, etc.) might be helpful for those of us planning to read foreign scholarship and /or translate, but I think a lot of us have research interests that don’t necessitate those goals.”

While all of these comments indicate that graduate students are increasingly coming to recognize the productive value of cross-language research practices, this last comment casts research interests that involve reading foreign scholarship and/or translating as clearly outside the norm. However, all the students surveyed agreed that the acquisition of language knowledge beyond “standard English” is useful for graduate students entering the field of rhetoric and composition.

Table 17

Graduate students’ responses to the statement “I believe that the acquisition of language knowledge beyond ‘standard English’ is useful for graduate students entering the field of rhetoric and composition.” (N=17)

Response	N	%
Strongly disagree	0	0
Disagree	0	0
Somewhat disagree	0	0
Somewhat agree	4	25.53
Agree	6	35.29
Strongly Agree	7	41.18

This discrepancy suggests that while such a monolingual norm may be in place in the doctoral program, it is increasingly challenged by graduate students’ adoption of

translingual dispositions and practices as they confront the shifting terrain of higher education broadly and rhetoric and composition specifically under economic globalization.

Conclusion: Rediscovering Difference

Though the results from this survey suggest that a nascent translingual ideology is emerging in the University of Louisville program, it is important to remember that translingual dispositions and practices are not “new” at U of L or elsewhere. As Suresh Canagarajah explains:

translingual practices in South Asia, Africa, South America, and other indigenous communities go back many centuries before modernity and colonization. Furthermore, despite the power of monolingual discourses, translingual practices have been alive in grass roots and everyday contexts in the West, although perhaps unacknowledged and hidden always. (*Translingual* 33)

The origins of the U of L Ph.D. program in rhetoric and composition is a case in point. By taking basic writing pedagogy and making it the center of the department’s graduate program, Joseph Comprone and other faculty members in the late 1970s worked against the historic marginalization of language differences in both English studies and composition under the monolingual paradigm.

As Thomas A. Van, former U of L Director of Composition, has acknowledged, efforts on the part of the faculty and graduate students to "create programs and design materials" to serve "an increasingly diversified student population" in the 1970s were "controversial" in so far as they challenged an ideal of English-only monolingualism held by the department, the university, and the community in which it was situated (qtd. in Strain 60). In his words, "This university, this community had never heard of students

not walking right into 101," the mainstream freshman writing course designed for students who were considered native speakers of particular, privilege variety of English (qtd. in Strain 60). The intervention of state government in the U of L program forced the department to recognize issues of language and language relations hitherto obscured by well established disciplinary hierarchies and associated curricular structures and, in so doing, to foreground language differences and cross-language practices in its rapidly expanding basic writing program. Faced with losing their Ph.D. program (the only doctoral program in the College of Arts and Sciences), and consequently, academic standing and material support from the state, the English department had to relinquish its official claims to English-only monolingualism and refocus its doctoral program on the translingual practices of its undergraduate students, as well as the collaborative pedagogical work amongst composition instructors (faculty and graduate students) taking place to address these practices.

As with other early rhetoric and composition programs that arose in conjunction with or in response to open admissions and basic writing programs⁴¹ (see Chapter 2), the history of the U of L program reveals the ways in which translingual practices arise in the context of material circumstances that trouble clear-cut distinctions between people, cultures, disciplines, and languages and a dominant monolinguist ideology that shapes the terms of response to these realities. As I discussed in Chapter 3, the U of L program was conceived to reflect monolinguist forms and assumptions in its

⁴¹ Richard Lloyd-Jones argues that the earliest rhetoric and composition Ph.D. programs arose out of teacher training programs designed to ensure quality assurance in the wake of expanding and diversifying undergraduate student populations under open admissions. Margaret Strain illustrates this process in her histories of the U of L and Ohio State programs, which were both developed to support their English department's basic writing programs. My research shows the Miami University program developed in response to the changing job market brought about by open admissions and the need for more teachers trained to teach linguistically diverse students.

coursework and requirements. However, considering “emergent” translingual dispositions and practices in the current U of L program in the context of this history serves an important counter hegemonic function. It connects present practice to the past in ways that both recover areas “discarded” from selective disciplinary traditions built in relationship to monolingualism and illustrate their “links to the present” (Williams, *Marxism* 116).

In recent years, the U of L program and others have rediscovered their historical concerns with language and cultural difference as they have confronted a new wave of demographic change in “globalizing” U.S. institutions. These demographic changes are bringing teacher-scholars trained to address language differences in composition classes back into demand, as evidenced by recent trends in the MLA Job Information List (JIL). While the 2000-2001 Job Information List only listed 14 of 499 (2.8%) rhetoric and composition positions specializing in language differences, with 11 of these positions in basic writing and three in second language writing, the 2012-2013 MLA Job Information List advertised twenty-six positions (7.8% of a total 330 rhetoric and composition jobs) that ask specifically for rhetoric and composition teacher-scholars with backgrounds in multilingual writing (12), second language writing (6), and basic writing (8).

Viewing the recent attention to language differences in rhetoric and composition doctoral education demonstrated by U of L’s program and the JIL as a “rediscovery” positions these concerns as the disciplinary and programmatic “norm” rather than a development that is “new,” and, perhaps, temporary and transient. As both Yildiz and Canagarajah argue, it is monolingualism, not multi or trans-lingualism, that is “new” is

Western social life and institutions and works against the grain of communicative practices and the pedagogical practices with which they are associated, currently and historically. However, this "rediscovery" is both materially and philosophically different from past attention to translingual practices in writing and teaching. Rather than work to eliminate language differences in writing, or celebrate them uncritically, a growing number of compositionists are working to engage these differences by making matters of language and language relations an ongoing and central concern in composition teaching and scholarship. In the next chapter, I will describe what that may mean for rhetoric and composition doctoral curricula if they are to be adapted to support composition studies' shift from a monolingual to a translingual paradigm of writing teaching and research.

CHAPTER V
COMPOSITION STUDIES AND INSTITUTIONAL CHANGE: TOWARD A
TRANSLINGUAL NORM THROUGH RHETORIC AND COMPOSITION
GRADUATE EDUCATION

In the last chapter, I presented an institutional case study of the Ph.D. in Rhetoric and Composition at the University of Louisville to show how graduate students and faculty have resisted a dominant monolingual ideology written into the official discourse of rhetoric and composition graduate studies through their local teaching and research practices. I argued that while monolingualism continues to shape rhetoric and composition graduate education, these practices suggest the emergence of a “postmonolingual” structure of feeling and associated translingual ideology in the discipline that responds to more complex social identities and cross-language practices in a globalizing world.

In this chapter, I discuss the ways in which composition studies can promote change in U.S. institutions by replacing a tacit language policy of “English-only” with a translingual approach to teaching and research. First, I describe how composition studies can serve as a vehicle for institutional change when it comes to matters of language and language relations in U.S. universities. Then, I look to international models of language policy change in education, focusing on the implementation of two

European intergovernmental organizations' language education policies (the Council of Europe's "plurilingual" policy and the EU's "mother tongue plus two" policy) through their member states' adoption of the Common European Framework for Languages (CEFR). I use lessons learned from the implementation of the CEFR to frame suggestions for how composition studies might move away from a monolingual paradigm of teaching and research by way of its Ph.D. programs. I argue that the CEFR teaches us that teacher training and professional development is crucial to promoting the shift away from monolingualism and that this shift is most likely to be achieved not through top-down policy initiatives, but through bottom-up changes to research and teaching practices. I then suggest changes to graduate teaching and learning that build upon the translingual work already taking place in rhetoric and composition Ph.D. programs. I conclude by reiterating the need for the graduate education in composition studies to become more closely aligned with a translingual approach to writing teaching and research and suggest possibilities for future research in this area.

Internationalizing Composition as a Vehicle for Institutional Change

Composition studies is well positioned to serve as a vehicle for change in U.S. institutions. As James Porter et al. observe, the establishment of graduate programs in rhetoric and composition in itself is evidence of this fact, insofar as these programs resulted from "long term and effective institutional action" within writing program administration which served to "professionali[ze] a field that, according to Janice Lauer, had too long languished in a second-class (or third class) status in the university" (614). Ironically, such powerful institutional action is rendered possible by the ways in which

composition studies sits at the margins of disciplinary and institutional power structures. Louise Wetherbee Phelps argues that writing programs by their very nature foster productive relations among “students, teachers without ‘researcher’ status, and professors trained to ‘produce knowledge’” (“Institutional” 167). In this way, they can address fundamental problems endemic to American institutions, like “rewarding teaching and service, planning workload for administrators, budgeting for nontraditional instruction, encouraging cross-disciplinary teaching and research efforts” all while making effective use of existing university resources (Phelps, “Institutional” 158). By breaking down “conventional boundaries that distinguish sharply between teaching, research and service” in ways delimited by the social and material realities of individual institutions, Phelps argues, writing programs can serve as “*heuristics for change*” in local institutional contexts (“Institutional” 165, 164).

Porter et al. argue that such changes can best be achieved through rhetorical actions aimed at refiguring the spaces in which disciplinary and institutional practices take place. Drawing from work in postmodern cultural geography, the authors offer rhetorical strategies for change that are attentive to the material and discursive spaces that “lin[k] macro-level systems and more visible local spaces, such as classrooms, where critique and action in rhetoric and composition typically operate” (621). Their model of institutional critique “examines particular institutional formations that are a local manifestation of more general social relations, nodal points in the rhetorical relationships between general social (if not sociological) processes and local practices” (621). These “zones of ambiguity” can often be found within “processes of decision making” where individual actors take part in disciplinary practices that reframe and

remake institutional structures, in sometimes powerful and productive ways. As the authors state, “[i]t is in the gaps, the ambiguities, and the mismatches that the system is flexible and open to change” (631).

Recent articles point toward the ways in which these “gaps,” “ambiguities,” and “mismatches” might serve as sites for rhetorical action to resist an English-only norm in composition. In “Laboring to Globalize a First Year Writing Program,” Wendy Hesford, Eddie Singleton, and Ivonne García describe the Multilingual, Multicultural, and International (MMI) initiative at Ohio State, a grant-funded research project designed to address the “mismatch” between the widespread assumption that graduate student teachers (GTA’s) in composition are U.S. educated, English monolinguals and the increased presence of “multicultural, multilingual, and international (MMI)” GTA’s who bring more diverse educational backgrounds and linguistic practices to their undergraduate classes. This project involved rhetorical negotiations of GTA identity and the first year composition curriculum by both creating a mentoring program for MMI GTA’s and capitalizing on the expertise of these GTA’s to create transnational, multicultural composition syllabi. It resulted in permanent changes being made to the Ohio State writing program and, by extension, the culture of the institution in which it is situated. These changes included the development of an ongoing peer mentoring group for MMI GTA’s, a bank of transnational composition syllabi for use by new teachers, a section of the GTA training handbook devoted to the challenges faced by international and non-native-speaker GTAs, workshops on multicultural issues in composition, and adjustments to the GTA training program.

In “Combatting Monolingualism: A Novice Administrator’s Challenge,” Gail

Shuck describes using the “ambiguities” of her role as her institution’s first second-language writing specialist as well as her liminal role as both scholar and administrator to change how her institution perceives multilingual students and the role of language in composition courses. Because she is often perceived as “having sole responsibility for all of the nonnative English speakers at Boise State University” (66) and “[a] kind of autonomy [that] coincides with [the] marginalization of L2 learners,” (67) Shuck is able to circumvent institutional bureaucracies that might serve as barriers to change. She writes:

I can offer individual advising for students, occasionally circumventing an ineffective placement process. As the director of the three course ESL sequence, I have been able to interview prospective instructors myself, since I have the L2 writing expertise that would allow me to make informed hiring decisions, and simply get them hired without going through the WPA’s office. My assistant and I were also able to implement the new tutoring program with no administrative difficulty at all. (67)

These actions allow Shuck to bring her scholarly interests in promoting language diversity as “the natural state of things” in U.S. higher education to bear on her administrative tasks as the “fix it” person for ESL issues on campus (68). Through mainstreaming linguistically diverse students who might not benefit from being classed as “ESL,” hiring instructors who show a genuine interest in working with multilingual writers in both ESL and “regular” first year composition courses, and developing a tutoring program to support L2 writers in the mainstream curriculum, Shuck is able to work toward recreating her role as “resource person” for instructors across the curriculum as they take “collective responsibility” for addressing linguistic heterogeneity in their classes (73).

Ironically, however, Shuck argues that her work risks reinforcing her “fix-it

role” and the monolingual policy of “containing” linguistically diverse students it embodies. She writes, “As we develop agency as administrators, we may be even more susceptible to suggestions that we have sole responsibility for solving particular problems—problems that many of our colleagues and the public at large believe to be located in open admissions policies and associated with students from certain class and ethnic backgrounds” (74). The irony Shuck identifies here points to the difficulty of creating institutional changes that work against deeply entrenched ideologies. These ideologies are literally written in to the discursive spaces of institutional policies, job descriptions, etc.—all of which have a real material effect on students’ and faculty’s lives. Because rhetorical actions toward change always operate within the terms and assumptions of these discursive spaces and the material circumstances they make possible, they always risk reproducing the dominant ideology they work to disrupt.

Since changing disciplinary dispositions toward and institutional perceptions of language difference is so inherently difficult, we might benefit from looking to language education policy changes outside composition, and even the U.S., to identify strategies to adopt or guard against. Matters of language and language relations are often more visible and actively negotiated in international higher education contexts due to both stronger commitments to multilingualism and more established traditions of language teaching in other countries. Specifically, I argue recent language education policy changes in Europe can be instructive to composition studies as it moves toward a translingual norm of teaching and research.

In looking to Europe as a model for change, I work against traditional, U.S.-centric and English-centric approaches to internationalizing composition’s labor. As

Christiane Donahue has argued, composition's attention to "internationalization" has "tended so far to focus on the increasingly global nature of U.S. classrooms and U.S. students or students attending U.S. universities—the internationalization of *our* world" ("Internationalization" 213). In "theorized discussions of cultural, ideological, or political encounters in U.S. composition classrooms and in anecdotal experiences over seas," and, on some occasions "broader questions about academic writing in other countries," compositionists have tended to see globalized writing study through the lenses of "various claims to unique knowledge, expertise, and ownership of writing instruction, and writing research in higher education" ("Internationalization" 213). To counter the colonizing effects of dominant discourses of internationalization in composition studies, Donahue suggests that "[w]e might focus on internationalizing the field by opening up our understanding about what is happening elsewhere to adapt, resituate, perhaps decenter our contexts" ("Internationalization" 215). David Foster and David R. Russell agree, arguing that cross-national composition research can denaturalize our assumptions about education and the teaching of writing since "what is common sense in one education system may be simply unthinkable in another... Through cross-national comparisons, the familiar can indeed come to look strange" (33).

My analysis of language education policies in Europe attempts to "make strange" our assumptions about the place of language(s) in composition and by extension U.S. institutions. I attend to "internationalization" in higher education not as a process of exporting U.S. based disciplines (like composition) and their practices, but as it has been defined by Philip Albach and Jane Knight in their analysis of university

initiatives developed in a variety of global contexts in response to economic globalization. For Albach and Knight, internationalization refers to “the policies and practices undertaken by academic systems and institutions—and even individuals—to cope with the global academic environment” (290-1). I analyze these policies and practices as strategies to adopt and guard against as U.S. universities and composition studies moves toward a translingual approach to writing and writing teaching.

Language and Language Relations in European Education

As opposed to the U.S., where language teaching is often under-resourced and marginalized within the curriculum (see Byrnes; MLA Ad Hoc Committee on Foreign Languages; Wible “Composing”), language education in many European countries is central and ongoing from early childhood through tertiary education. This is largely due to the influence of intergovernmental organizations (IGO’s) like the Council of Europe and the European Union on national language education policies. Though these organizations are not allowed to directly intervene in the educational planning and administration of their member states (Little 647), they have done much to influence these processes through promoting national policies that reflect their organizational commitments to communication and exchange across European nations.

Formed in the wake of World War II, the Council of Europe (COE) has “shown a steady commitment to the learning of languages” to support its broader efforts to promote “human rights, parliamentary democracy, and the rule of law” across its 46 member nations (Little 647). John Trim, the former director of the COE’s Modern Languages Project, observes that since the late 1950’s, the COE’s support of language

learning has “continued and accelerated, necessitating a profound reorientation and reorganisation [sic] of the social organisation [sic] of language learning, teaching, and assessment, that is still far from complete” (5). To work toward such a reorientation, the COE has sponsored research on language learning in a variety of European contexts. It has also issued guidelines and recommendations for educational policy makers across Europe based on this research.

The European Union (EU) “attaches the same social, cultural, and educational value to languages as the Council of Europe” while also promoting language learning to support economic exchange across the European single market (Little 647). In 1995, the European Commission issued the doctrine of “mother tongue plus two,” which proposed that all EU citizens should develop proficiency in two EU languages besides their own (Commission of the European Communities, 47). Shortly thereafter, it was made official EU policy that “the educational systems of all member states should teach two FL’s [foreign languages] to all pupils up to the end of compulsory education” (Little 671). To support member states’ adoption of this policy, the European Commission has funded the implementation of the COE’s language learning projects, including the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages: Learning Teaching and Assessment (CEFR). This document works to provide “a common basis for the elaboration of language syllabuses [sic], curriculum guidelines, examinations, textbooks, etc. across Europe” (Council of Europe 1).

Published in 2001, the CEFR has been described as “one of the most ambitious examples of the gradual formation, shaping and reshaping, and, most recently, implementation of language education policies” (Byrnes, “Introduction” 641). The

document comprises two parts: 1) a “Descriptive Scheme” language professionals can use to communicate the goals of language study and assessment and to “map the progress of learners” (Council of Europe xii) and 2) a set of “Illustrative Scales”: six levels of references to describe language learners’ abilities in terms of speaking, reading, listening and writing—A1 and A2 (Basic User, B1 and B2 (Independent User), C1 and C2 (Proficient User). Both the Descriptive Scheme and Illustrative Scales are designed to reflect the COE’s plurilingual theory of language learning. This theory sees:

the aim of language education as [not] to achieve mastery of one or two, or even three languages, each taken in isolation, with the ‘ideal native speaker’ as the ultimate model. Instead, the aim is to develop a linguistic repertory, in which all linguistic abilities have a place. This implies, of course, that the languages offered in education institutions should be diversified and students given the opportunity to develop a plurilingual competence. (Council of Europe 5)

As the CEFR authors describe, this theory represents a paradigm shift in language education away from traditional “multilingualism,” which they define as “the knowledge of a number of languages, or the co-existences of different languages in a given society” and the monolingual and monocultural models of language teaching and assessment it engenders (4). In this way, the CEFR’s plurilingual approach parallels translingual approaches to writing and writing teaching rapidly gaining ground in rhetoric and composition. Both approaches work to build students’ language resources so that they can become flexible and innovative communicators in a wide array of global contexts.

The CEFR’s plurilingual approach draws from Francophone research in “didactique du plurilinguisme et du pluriculturalisme” (didactics of plurilingualism and pluriculturalism). Daniele Moore and Laurent Gajo describe plurilingual research as

focusing “on the individual as the locus of linguistic and cultural contact, and the effort to conceptualise the nature of a ‘plurilingual and pluricultural competence’, [sic] seen as a lifelong capital reservoir of co-ordinate experiences developing differently, in relation to individual biographies and social trajectories” (141-2). Closely identified with matters of language policy and planning, plurilingual research “emphasises [sic] the social, cultural and political dimensions of language education” to reflect the influence of both situated theories of language drawn from American sociolinguistics (Labov, Hymes and Gumperz) and theories of “the role of language in the exercise of power, the constitution of social capital and the production and reproduction of identity” drawn from French sociology (Touraine, Bourdieu) (Moore and Gajo 138). Through analysis of “the macro-contexts of appropriation and transmission of languages (for instance, the study of migration patterns) and “the micro-contexts of their use and negotiated value with actual interaction in several environments,” including “multilingual classrooms,” this research has yielded a model of “language in action” adopted by the Council of Europe and described and applied in the CEFR document (Moore and Gajo 140, 141). This model defines language competence as

la compétence à communiquer langagiérement et à interagir culturellement possédée par un locuteur qui maîtrise, à des degrés divers, plusieurs langues et a, à des degrés divers, l’expérience de plusieurs cultures, tout en étant à même de gérer l’ensemble de ce capital langagier et culturel. L’option majeure est de considérer qu’il n’y a pas là superposition ou juxtaposition de compétences toujours distinctes, mais bien existence d’une compétence plurielle, complexe, voire composite et hétérogène, qui inclut des compétences singulières, voire partielles, mais qui est une en tant que répertoire disponible pour l’acteur social concerné. (Coste, Moore, and Zarate 129; qtd. in Moore and Gajo 142)

...the competence to communicate linguistically and interact culturally possessed by an actor who masters, to varying degrees, multiple languages and to varying degrees, multiple cultural experiences, while

being able to manage all this linguistic and cultural capital. This perspective is not considered a superimposition or juxtaposition of competences that are always distinct, but rather the existence of a competence that is plural, complex, seen as both composite and heterogeneous... which is available as a directory for the social actor in question. [my translation]

Though the CEFR document articulates this definition of competence and provides materials to support language professionals to apply it in curriculum development and testing, its authors acknowledge that the “full implications of such a paradigm shift have yet to be worked out and translated into action” (Council of Europe 5).

Examining the ways in which language professionals in Europe have “translated” the CEFR into practice can be instructive to U.S. composition studies as it makes a similar paradigm shift from monolingualism to translingualism. In what follows, I analyze commentary from the *Perspectives* column of a 2007 issue of *The Modern Language Journal*. In nine essays, one U.S. and eight European language scholars discuss the impact of the CEFR on local education systems and institutions across Europe and suggest possibilities for future action related to this important document. This commentary reveals the monolingual thinking that has informed the implementation of the EU’s plurilingual language policy. In so doing, it illustrates the limits and possibilities of “top-down” policy initiatives for institutional changes when it comes to language and language teaching.

Monolingual Approaches to Plurilingual Policy: The Problematic Implementation of the CEFR

While the scholars in the *Perspectives* column agree that the CEFR has had a far reaching impact on the language profession in Europe, many suggest that the document

has been taken up and applied in reductive and even counter-productive ways. This is due, in large part, to language professionals “fixating” (B. North 659) on the Illustrative Scales and paying less attention to the more nuanced and theoretically dense Descriptive Scheme, which constitutes the greater part of the document. Neus Figueras writes that the “highly positive response” to the Illustrative Scales over the Descriptive Scheme was not predicted by the CEFR authors and “is reflected by the fact the [scales] were appendixes in the 1996 draft but incorporated into the main body in the final version” (673). In fact, the Illustrative Scales have become so popular that J. Charles Alderson surmises that without them, “the CEFR would have been largely ignored in European language education” (661).

The popularity of the scales has shaped the way the document has been understood as whole. As Brian North observes, “many people equate the action-oriented approach” described and justified in the Descriptive Scheme “with just using [the] *can-do* descriptors” provided in Illustrative Scales for “self-assessment and role-plays” (659). Subsequently, North argues, the CEFR has largely failed to achieve one of its stated goals: to “encourage practitioners to reflect on their current practice, particularly in relation to analyzing practical language learning needs, setting objectives, and tracking progress (659).

Indeed, the document has not done much to influence language teaching and has had a much more substantial impact on commercial testing. David Little explains that “the Association of Language Testers in Europe (ALTE), which brings together all of Europe’s major commercial language testing agencies, was quick to associate its tests with the CEFR’s six-level scale” and adapted its proficiency tests to reflect the CEFR’s

descriptors (648). By contrast, the CEFR “has a much smaller impact on official exams, especially school matriculation exams, administered by Europe’s national education systems” and, in a related turn, has also failed to significantly influence “official curricula and curricular guidelines,” even though “the descriptive scheme can be used to analyze learners’ needs and specify their target communicative repertoire in terms that carry clear pedagogical implications” (Little 649). While there are some exceptions to this rule,⁴² on the whole, “the CEFR has no more occasioned a revolution in curriculum development than it has prompted the radical redesign of established language tests” (Little 649).

These resigned language tests and associated materials (exam prep books and courses) have been marketed to national education systems without evidence that these materials are, in fact, based on the CEFR’s plurilingual theory and action-oriented approach, given the Council of Europe’s failure to establish validation procedures to hold these companies accountable (Alderson 622; c.f. Bonnett 671, Figueras 673). Moreover, these tests have been used to support education and immigration policies that run counter to the CEFR’s action-oriented approach to language learning, which emphasizes language resource development specific to particular domains. For instance, Alderson notes that politicians and administrators “usually uninformed about language learning, teaching and assessment” have used tests ostensibly designed to reflect the CEFR to “define standards” that dictate who can earn a university degree in a language or who can apply for citizenship to a country “without any thought being given to

⁴² For example, the CEFR was used to develop curricula for adult language learners in Catalonia, adult refugees in Ireland, English as a second language primary school students in Ireland and (in early draft form) to develop pre- and in-service teacher education programs in Poland under the Polish education reform of 1999 (see Little).

whether the [particular, prescribed language] levels tested might be achievable or justified” (622). As Hans-Jürgen Krumm observes, even though “the CEFR is not intended to be applied uniformly to everybody,” European immigration policies have often “applied [it] in just such a fashion, thereby undermining its more broadly conceived goals” (667).

As Krumm describes, countries like Austria, Germany, and the Netherlands have adopted immigration policies that require migrants to demonstrate “mastery of a specific CEFR level” in order to “obtain a permit of residence or to gain citizenship” (668). These policies apply the six levels of proficiency in a linear way, so that, as in Austria, a person has to demonstrate A2 competence in speaking, listening, reading and writing, notwithstanding the real “needs and capacities” of migrants given the specific contexts in which they are using the language (668). Although this application may be appropriate “to demonstrate what somebody has learned or acquired...in school,” (in “traditional” language learning classes), it “creates a barrier to the integration of migrants inasmuch as it neglects their differing biographies and their plurilingualism” (668). As Krumm argues, “in a world of social, cultural, and individual heterogeneity, one instrument and approach can neither address all situations and contexts nor meet all needs” (667).

Krumm’s analysis of the CEFR and its misapplications to migrants speaks to a more general observation he makes about the document. Though, he writes, “the explicit policy of the Council of Europe [is] to protect and develop linguistic diversity and plurilingualism...the CEFR is usually applied in a monolingual manner—curricula and exams derived from it concentrate on one language” (669). That the CEFR is

usually applied in this monolingual way speaks an inherent problem with the document. In order for it to be effective, language professionals must be able to “translate” it to work within different contexts. However, those doing the translating are often trained in more traditional models of language learning and lack a strong grounding in plurilingual theory. Consequently, the CEFR has been translated in ways that support outdated practices reflective of a dominant monolingual ideology in language education. For example, as Alderson observes, “(brief) mentions...of the skills of mediation” in the CEFR’s descriptive scheme have been used justify “the more traditional examination boards, particularly in Central Europe, to continue a very outdated form of the testing of translation as part of language proficiency examinations” (662).

Areas of the CEFR that cannot be so easily co-opted to support traditional, monolingual approaches to language learning have been effectively “lost in translation,” which can account CEFR’s failure to influence curriculum design and pedagogy. As Gerard Westhoff argues:

supporting foreign language (FL) proficiency development through the stages described in the CEFR [would require] a shift in pedagogic routines for those practitioners who are used to teaching in traditional ways, especially in the role they conceive for grammar in the language classroom. (676)

Westhoff contrasts a traditional view of FL teaching as “a linear process in which discrete grammatical issues are presented one after another” with the CEFR’s view that “formal correctness is expected to develop gradually and concurrently with a broad array of grammatical issues” (676). He explains that the CEFR suggests “rules should not be the primary focus of classroom activities...priority should lie with building a lexical repertoire within content-oriented lessons that focus on meaningful

communication rather than specific grammar rules” (677-8). Though, he argues, “such shifts would mean a small revolution” in language teaching in many European countries, “without such changes the CEFR ... as an assessment practice will not be compatible with the methodologies currently used in European FL classes” (678). Figueras echoes this argument when he observes that problems with implementing the CEFR in curriculum development and pedagogy relate to “difficulties in changing educational cultures in Europe” (674).

The difficulties language professionals encounter translating the CEFR to develop new approaches to language teaching are exacerbated by rhetorical problems with the CEFR document itself. Alderson argues that the underutilized Descriptive Scheme is not “reader-friendly” and is “couched in language that is not easy to understand, often vague, undefined, and imprecise” (661). The Illustrative Scales, on the other hand, appear to offer a “concrete operationalization” (Alderson 661) of the descriptive scheme in a way that invites misreading and misapplication, since the genre of the framework scale is difficult for readers to navigate. Brian North writes:

A framework scale ideally needs to be context-free in order to accommodate generalizable results from different specific contexts, yet at the same time the descriptors on the scale need to be context relevant, relatable or translatable into each and every relevant context, and appropriate for the functions serving that context... The CEFR illustrative descriptors attempt to do this, but it is a tall order. (658)

The potential for misreading and misapplying the Illustrative Scales is increased by many “gaps and flaws” in the descriptors that gloss them, which as Alderson notes, are beset with “overlaps, ambiguities, and inconsistencies in terminology” (661).

However, the biggest problem with the Illustrative Scales (and perhaps why they have been so readily adopted and adapted in commercial testing) are the monolingual

assumptions that underlie their structure and content—assumptions which tacitly argue against the plurilingual theory espoused in document’s Descriptive Scheme. As Little observes, the scales “confirm long-established categorizations” in language learning, which, I add, are indicative of the traditional, monolingual pedagogical approach Westhoff describes, where learners progress linearly through three stages: beginner, intermediate, and advanced. The scales subdivide these three stages into the six levels (A1, A2, B1, B2, C1, C2) to present language learning in terms that, as Little describes, are “already familiar” but also “new” (648).

The descriptors that gloss the six levels also reflect monolingual assumptions about the sociocultural identities of language learners. As Krumm shows, descriptors like “propose a toast” and “ask questions about personal details such as where he/she lives, people he/she knows and things he/she has” (level A1) suggest a single, uniform sociocultural identity for language learners rooted in a certain degree of privilege and authority (668). This identity corresponds with a traditional approach to language learning that prepares learners to be “tourists” in a foreign land (see Byrum) and not engage in the kind of deep, intercultural negotiations the CEFR document suggests. For this reason, Krumm argues, the document is inappropriate for preparing curricula and testing for migrants who “live under conditions of distrust and suspicion” and who need to develop the capacity to use a new language in “vocational and administrative contexts...not currently the focus of the CEFR” (668).

That the CEFR reflects monolingual assumptions and has been largely translated in a monolingual way is perhaps unsurprising, given the large degree to which it owes both its creation and widespread use to the EU’s language education policy of “mother

tongue plus two” for its member states. David Little explains the EU’s European Commission has “done much to encourage the adoption of the CEFR” and “ensure that member states will increasingly take account of...its common reference levels when developing language education policy and determining how it should implemented” (647). For instance, it has funded the DIALANG project for the development of web-based diagnostic language tests in fourteen European languages using the CEFR language levels. It has also used the CEFR’s self-assessment grid in Europass, a professional portfolio system for EU citizens that records their experience and credentials in a standard format. Finally, it has used the CEFR reference levels to develop the European Indicator of Language Competence, which “aims to provide Member States, policy makers, teachers and practitioners with reliable comparative data on foreign language competence across the European Union” (European Commission).

The EU’s policy of “mother tongue plus two” implies that languages are separate, distinct, internally uniform, and learned in isolation from one another. It has positioned the CEFR and, more broadly, language learning as concerned with “foreign languages,” such that its reference levels and descriptive schemes have, for the most part, not been applied to what the Council of Europe calls the “language of instruction,” the language/s with which students have the most familiarity and use most often at home and at school. Relegating the CEFR to foreign language learning reinforces the monolingualist sense that students are “native speakers” of the country in which they are studying and, moreover, that one’s “native” language is developed intuitively and separately from any other competencies developed in, for instance, “foreign” language classes.

This use of the CEFR is particularly ironic given the growth of English medium instruction (EMI) across Europe under the Bologna Process and the associated development of the European Higher Education area. As Little and Alderson both note, the CEFR is neither designed for nor used in relationship to content and language integrated instruction (CLIL), the field of research and teaching that supports EMI instruction. My own experience at the 2013 conference on Integrating Content and Language in Higher Education in Maastricht, the Netherlands, a conference focused on CLIL in higher education in the context of the rapid expansion of EMI in Western Europe, confirms that the CEFR is only used in admission procedures for EMI programs (to certify a prescribed level of English language competence). It does not appear to inform teaching within these programs. While EMI programs purport to promote plurilingualism in European higher education, by not using the CEFR or related materials that work to put plurilingual theory into practice, they are often administered in an English-only, monolingual fashion.

Overall, applications of the CEFR sponsored by the EU have reinforced the position of the “mother tongue” as one’s “natural” medium for communication, where, as Yasemin Yildiz describes, the mother “stands for a unique, irreplaceable, unchangeable biological origin that situates the individual automatically in a kinship network and by extension in the nation” (9). These applications then mask the existence of what Louis-Jean Calvet calls “father tongues,” languages that develop when sociocultural backgrounds create conditions of “coproduction, of which creoles are a good example” (7). In this way, the EU’s uses of the CEFR document both neglect and deny the plurilingualism espoused in its Descriptive Scheme.

Successes and Future Possibilities: Promoting Plurilingualism through the CEFR and Associated Projects

Though the *Perspectives* commentary tends to highlight the monolingual ways the document has been applied by language professionals, it does suggest that the CEFR and associated projects have been, to a certain degree, effective in promoting a general awareness and knowledge of plurilingualism in Europe, which can be built upon over time. Jan H. Hulstijn writes that the CEFR “has proven to be extremely influential in the promotion of plurilingualism in Europe,” noting that the “framework is, of course, not perfect, but it is good enough to be improved upon...and developed further” (663). North argues that the CEFR has been successful in its aim to “establish a common metalanguage to talk about objectives and assessment” and in this way has worked to redefine the language profession in Europe in accordance with the COE’s plurilingual language policy (658). Gerard Bonnet argues that the CEFR has worked to integrate language teaching, learning, and assessment across Europe under the banner of plurilingualism, writing:

The advent of the CEFR and its adoption by the EU introduced for the first time a degree of commonality in terms of content; it thus marked the beginning of a common education policy...both at the EU level and beyond. For the first time a truly European dimension has been embraced in one area of education. (672)

Finally, Westhoff is optimistic about the CEFR’s ability to serve as a “powerful incentive for innovation, particularly if supported by systematic curriculum renewal and extended opportunities for in-service teacher training” in order to draw language

teaching across Europe in line with the COE's plurilingual language education policy (678).

Some commenters also spoke favorably about the impact of two CEFR-related teaching and assessment projects: the European Language Portfolio and the DIALANG project. The European Language Portfolio (ELP) is a pedagogical and documentary resource for language teachers and learners conceived in parallel with and making use of the CEFR. The ELP is composed of three parts: a "language passport" which describes the "owner's linguistic identity, with particular emphasis on his or her experience learning and using L2s and his or her encounters with other cultures," a "language biography" where the owner reflects upon his or her language learning and use and sets goals to develop "a plurilingual and pluricultural identity," and a dossier, where the owner preserves samples of his or her work in the language she or he is learning or knows (Little 649). The CEFR Illustrative Scales provide the framework for the owner's self-assessment and goal-setting. Little describes the ELP project as a largely effective implementation of the CEFR's action-oriented approach, which highlights the agency of individuals who "use the ELP to plan, monitor, and evaluate their own learning" (650). Though the ELP is often seen as an "optional extra" by language professionals rather than a way to reconceive curricula (Little) and, like testing, is subject to questions about validity (Alderson), it has "had a strong impact on language classrooms" and is one the principal ways the CEFR has influenced pedagogy at the local level (Little 649).

The EU-funded DIALANG project developed web-based testing for listening, reading, writing, and vocabulary across all six CEFR levels in 14 European languages.

Instead of a “score,” test-takers “are provided with detailed feedback calculated to help them set priorities for future learning” (Little 649). This project put into practice the CEFR’s action oriented approach by moving away from a traditional focus in assessment on certifying proficiency (imagined as a stable, reified “thing” one either has or does not have) and focusing instead on assessing and supporting an ongoing process of language learning. As with the ELP, DIALANG accents the individual’s agency in establishing diverse language competences over time. Also like the ELP, the project has engendered a strong response: the diagnostic tests, which are now offered for free on the internet, are widely used, with the DIALANG website stating that “on average there are more than 500 successful sessions per day, and over 1,000 on some days.”

Alderson, the former scientific coordinator of DIALANG, also indicates that the project had the unintended benefit of creating data that could help improve the CEFR. He writes that in the process of developing the tests, he and other project members encountered gaps and inconsistencies in the CEFR illustrative scales and other supporting documents from the Council of Europe (660). Whether or not the CEFR will be revised to address these “identifiable limitations,” Alderson writes, will determine its “long-term influence on testing bodies, such that whatever happens, happens in a respectable and professionally responsible way” (662).

Lessons from the CEFR for Rhetoric and Composition

I have said that applications of plurilingualism and the CEFR’s “language in action” model in Europe can be instructive to U.S. composition studies as it grapples

with increasing linguistic diversity in writing programs and the U.S. institutions in which they are situated. That said, it is important to remember that the COE's plurilingual language policy and the CEFR document that works to put it into practice emerged from, speak to, and reflect their European context and its history. As the one American scholar represented in the *Perspectives* column, *Modern Language Journal* editor Heidi Byrnes, argues, "plurilingualism as a framework for language policy" is a product of "the war-burdened history of 20th-century Europe" and embodies Europeans' competing desires for "political unification...[and] coordinating, even integrating activities at all levels of an evolving Europe" and to "retai[n] strong forms of distinctness, where language, not surprisingly, was the most obvious issue" ("Developing" 679). The policy also reflects the ways in which migration from both inside and outside Europe has problematized the traditional equation of "normed national languages and nation-based societies" ("Developing" 679). In the U.S., Byrnes argues, the "undisputed ideological, cultural, and practical power of English has not allowed sufficient space for arguments assuring a public presence of other languages in the educational system," as the English-only movement in American politics has demonstrated ("Developing" 680). To construct a language education policy in the U.S. as innovative and far-reaching as plurilingualism:

would require a public discourse that would reconfigure language learning, moving it from being interpreted as the added 'cultural experience' claimed by diverse elites (e.g., foreign language learning), the 'pet project' advanced by the identity politics of minorities (e.g., heritage language learning), or the 'remediation activity' that primarily serves immigrant 'problem' groups...toward a comprehensive enterprise that concerns everyone ("Developing" 680).

Byrnes argues that such a public discourse could be initiated by those in the language profession applying what they know about languages to rethinking the relations between language and education. She writes, “Because language is about meaning-making and ways of knowing the world, ourselves, and others, education must be thought of as fundamentally language based” such that “content” and “language” are “inherently and inseparably” interwoven (“Developing” 680). To quote Michael Halliday, “Language is not a **domain** of human knowledge...Language is the essential condition of knowing, the process by which experience **becomes** knowledge.” (94; qtd. in Byrnes, “Developing” 680).

Composition studies can rethink the relations between language and education to promote a public discourse that supports translanguaging in U.S. institutions by applying greater scholarly attention to, and ultimately, reshaping its approaches to graduate studies in the field. The commentary in the *Perspectives* column suggest two important lessons from the CEFR. First, the monolingual ways language professionals largely unversed in plurilingual theory have translated the document illustrate the importance of teacher training and professional development to promoting a paradigmatic shift away from monolingualism in education. While it is tempting to use “top-down” policy changes to implement such a shift, it is only through educating practitioners about alternative theories of language and its use that that real change can occur through practices on the ground. Second, these practices can influence change from the “bottom up” by informing the creation of local projects, which can be used to revise and improve existing policies designed to promote language diversity, as we have seen with both the ELP and DIALANG projects.

It follows from both these lessons that traditional, top-down policy approaches to promoting language diversity in and through composition graduate programs, through, for instance, creating required “language diversity” and ESL courses, are insufficient in and of themselves. As I discussed in Chapter 3, these curricular policies often separate out questions of language difference from the rest of the curriculum, preserving the notion that U.S. disciplines and institutions are monolingual English by restricting knowledge and use of other languages to particular, marginalized contexts. Since the curriculum has functioned historically to preserve English monolingualism in U.S. universities over time, even innovative policies carry the trace of the monolingual ideology of the institution. In this way, they risk reinforcing that ideology even as they work to resist it.

Though my analysis in Chapter 3 focuses on historical curricular policies related to language differences in composition that have largely been eliminated, the Michigan State Ph.D. in Writing and Rhetoric’s “multiliteracies” requirement might offer a contemporary example to reinforce my point. This requirement was developed recently as an alternative to the program’s standard, foreign language requirement. The multiliteracies requirement is innovative in several ways. Rather than having students complete an exam to certify proficiency in one of a short list of Western European languages, it is individually tailored to each student’s scholarly path to support their interests and goals. It also allows students to develop language resources in a variety of ways outside the traditional course/exam, through, for instance, “complet[ing] studies in indigenous language with elders (Cherokee, Ojibwe) and engag[ing] in language immersion programs abroad” (Powell). Furthermore, the requirement is attentive to the

diverse sociocultural histories and linguistic capabilities of graduate students, allowing students to demonstrate capability in heritage languages other than the Western European languages traditionally used to complete foreign language requirements. Finally, students are invited not only to develop knowledge of a “second” language, but also of language variation, through “building expertise in AAVE” or other non-mainstream dialects of English (Hart-Davidson).

However, in many ways the multiliteracies requirement simply repackages a “multilingual” approach to language diversity (based on monolingualist assumptions about language and social identity) embodied in traditional foreign-language requirements. Like foreign language requirements, the multiliteracies requirement allows students fluent in languages other than English to use these languages to complete the requirement. This practice reinforces the monolingualist sense that these students and their languages are “other” to the program and institution in which it is situated (see Chapter 3). Also like foreign language requirements, the multiliteracies requirement allows students to substitute research skills (computer literacy, statistics) for the development of additional language knowledge. This practice works to preserve the monolingualist sense that composition research and teaching takes place exclusively in English by virtue of the discipline’s location in the U.S., and, typically in “English” departments.

Because of the difficulty of combating monolingualism through policy alone, I argue it might be more effectively challenged through making changes to the local teaching and research practices of composition graduate programs. These changes

would be aimed at shifting what is recognized and accepted as the “norm” for the study and teaching of writing. As Pierre Bourdieu has argued:

La reconnaissance de la légitimité de la langue officielle n’a rien d’une croyance expressément professée, délibérée et révocable, ni d’un acte intentionnel d’acceptation d’une «norme» ; elle est inscrite à l’état pratique dans les dispositions qui sont insensiblement inculquées, au travers d’un long et lent processus d’acquisition, par les sanctions du marché linguistique. (*Langage* 36)

Recognition of the legitimacy of the official language has nothing in common with an explicitly professed, deliberate, and revocable belief, or with an intentional act of accepting a “norm.” It is inscribed in a practical state, in dispositions which are impalpably inculcated, through a long and slow process of acquisition, by the sanctions of the linguistic market. (Raymond and Adamson trans. in Bourdieu, *Language* 51)

Through promoting translingual dispositions toward language, we can adjust “les sanctions du marché linguistique” to resist a tacit, “English-only” language policy in composition studies and U.S. universities.

To promote translingual dispositions, we might begin by calling attention to and capitalizing on the translingual work already taking place in rhetoric and composition Ph.D. programs. As Hesford, Singleton, and García and the MMI initiative at Ohio State demonstrates, the globalization of U.S. higher education has brought an influx of international, multilingual, and multicultural graduate students into these programs. In a related turn, we are also seeing more socioculturally and linguistically diverse composition graduate faculty by virtue of English departments’ efforts to recruit faculty historically underrepresented in U.S. higher education (see Matsuda). These students and faculty can collaborate with other faculty and students with more limited language resources on graduate teaching and research projects across languages. As Horner, NeCamp, and Donahue have argued, taking a “translingual” approach “shifts the focus

away from individuals...and towards groups of people working in collaboration to use all available linguistic resources” (288). Though such collaborative work differs from many traditional academic practices in English and the humanities (like the privileging of “single author” scholarship), it makes effective use of the translingual realities of rhetoric and composition graduate programs to resist the dominant, monolingual ideology that frames them.

Graduate seminars provide spaces in the curriculum for this collaborative work to take place. Because graduate faculty are traditionally allowed a great deal of flexibility to design their seminars, these classes serve as what Porter et al. termed “zones of ambiguity”: nodal points between macro level curricula and micro level local practices where institutional changes can occur. I saw the potential for the sort of rhetorical action for institutional change Porter et al. describe in my survey of course descriptions for the most common core courses in rhetoric and composition Ph.D. programs: the composition practicum, research methods, composition history and theory, and rhetorical history and theory. In the dissonance between catalog and syllabus course descriptions, I could see faculty actively negotiating institutional policies in ways that resisted the monolingual ideology written into the official curriculum. See, for instance, differences between the catalog course description for English 502, Theory and Teaching of Composition, and Keith Gilyard’s Spring 2013 instantiation of the course at Penn State University:

ENGL 502 Theory and Teaching of Composition (3) Study of grammar, logic, rhetoric, and style in their applicability to teaching composition.

ENGL 502
Theory and Teaching Comp
Keith Gilyard

This pro-seminar introduces students to the field of Composition Studies with emphasis on the research developments and intellectual exchanges that have marked the discipline's emergence. Students will develop their ideas about what it means to teach writing; become familiar with methods for studying composition; discuss issues surrounding the politics of writing, language education, and educational policy with particular focus on linguistically diverse student populations; and articulate how they would use composition scholarship to help them work (practice) in classrooms.

In the catalog course description, the study of “grammar” (not grammars) followed by “logic,” implies that languages are stable and accessible through the study of fixed, formal rules, which can then be “logically” applied in written discourse. “Rhetoric” followed by “style” suggests that the course will cover Western rhetorical theory (the primary way in which “rhetoric” has been imagined in relationship to composition pedagogy; see Baca; Silva, Leki, and Carson; Chapter 2) and that this theory will dictate certain style maxims for written discourse. Finally, that “English” only appears in the course's prefix suggests that it is the assumed medium for communication in composition courses by virtue of their location in U.S. universities and, by extension, their logical placement in “English departments.” Altogether, this brief description suggests a monolingual approach to composition pedagogy.

By contrast, the course description from Gilyard's syllabus suggests that composition pedagogy should work across languages. By emphasizing “the research developments and intellectual exchanges that have marked the discipline's emergence,” it historicizes writing instruction to recover a sense of it as “language education” in the context of “linguistically diverse student populations.” Attention to the “politics of writing” suggests that the course will address the ways in which writing takes in the context of a political economy of linguistic exchange across multiple, shifting languages endowed with various forms of economic, cultural, and social capital. Altogether, this

more fleshed out course description “translates” the catalog description (and the official curricular discourse it represents) to speak to the material conditions of teaching and learning in the context of a plurality of languages and, in this way, resists monolingual approaches to composition theory and teaching.

This example demonstrates that graduate seminars (even as they operate within monolingual curricular frameworks) can be developed to support faculty and students in an ongoing process of teaching and researching across languages to support a translingual norm. I have experienced this first hand as a graduate student at the University of Louisville. In Bruce Horner’s “Outside Composition” seminar, we were given the option of translating a non-English medium text pertinent to composition studies into English and then writing about that process in lieu of completing a standard seminar paper. In Bronwyn Williams’s “Creative Nonfiction” seminar, we were invited to write and share creative pieces that drew from our diverse language resources. Through workshopping pieces written by three multilingual, international students across languages, mainstream U.S.-educated students like myself with limited exposure to other languages (in this case, Nepali, Sanskrit, and Arabic) were able build our knowledge of other languages and cultures.

Classes specifically focused on language and language relations in writing and writing instruction might support larger, more focused collaborative projects. For instance, seminars on international writing research could involve faculty and students translating relevant scholarship into English from variety of global locales, and vice versa, to support students in attending and contributing to international, non-English medium conferences and journals. Translating works in these seminars could enable

cross-culture analyses of writing instruction and research, which could enhance composition studies and other, related disciplines through the cross-fertilization of ideas. As Donahue has shown in her cross-cultural analysis of French and U.S. introductory students' writing, these projects can help move disciplines beyond "discourses of difference" when it comes to international work ("Cross-Cultural" 319). By develop a greater understanding of the common discourses of student learning and experience that stretch across national and linguistic borders, we can develop a greater sense of what we might gain from developing the linguistic resources necessary to hear international scholarly voices and incorporate their work into our own.

Because many mainstream students would need to enhance their knowledge of other languages to participate actively in such projects, these courses could be taught collaboratively with faculty in modern languages, and specifically, in correlation with the modern language reading courses already on the books to support standard foreign language requirements. In the process, these reading courses could be retooled to involve students reading and translating literature relevant to their scholarship (rather than unrelated literary texts) into English and vice versa, as Horner, Donahue, and NeCamp have argued. They might also involve students developing language resource portfolios (like the European Language Portfolios (ELPs) developed in concert with the CEFR) that document and set goals for their ongoing processes of language learning during and after their time in the Ph.D. program. Furthermore, assessment practices for these courses or the language exams that often follow from them could be modeled after or even directly involve the DIALANG project tests. Since the DIALANG tests do not simply certify a certain level of proficiency, but provide test-takers with feedback about

their language resources and how to better develop them over time, they too would support graduate students in developing diverse language competences to use in their teaching and research.

Other standard course offerings in rhetoric and composition graduate programs, like rhetorical history and various kinds of “theory” courses, might also be retooled to have students reading and writing across languages. Rhetorical history and critical theory courses often assign texts originally written in other languages (Latin, Greek, French, German) that have been translated into English, and composition theory courses frequently assign English-language texts that cite heavily from these translated texts (as evidenced by *Cross-Talk* and other similar texts). Inviting students to read texts translated into English in their original forms and then studying the English versions with attention to the politics of their translation would not only support students in exercising and building their language resources. It would also enhance students’ understandings of these texts by situating them more deeply within the social and material conditions of their production and reception over time and space.

Mentoring relationships in graduate programs between graduate students and faculty also provide opportunities to promote translingual dispositions toward composition teaching and research. In their work with students, faculty can ask for and endorse interdisciplinary and cross-language scholarship, through, for instance, encouraging students to add non-English medium scholarship and theoretical texts to comprehensive exam readings lists or supporting them in attending multilingual international conferences. My own mentor Bruce Horner has encouraged and supported me in both these ways so that I was able to develop my knowledge of French for my

comprehensive exams and international writing teaching and research through attending two international conferences, the 2010 University Literacies: Writing Across the Disciplines in Lille, France and the 2013 Integrating Content and Learning in Higher Education in Maastricht, the Netherlands.

Since Universities Literacies was a bilingual conference in French and English, I was required to translate portions of my conference submission from English into French, a task for which I felt largely unprepared. As I discussed in Chapter 3, foreign language requirements typical involve students translating texts from other languages into English and, in this way, do not support students in developing the language knowledge necessary to contribute to international, non-English medium conferences and journals. Translating my work into a different language was challenging and time-consuming, but it allowed me to participate in the translingual and intercultural negotiations of this conference. This, in turn, helped me to develop a more global perspective on writing teaching and research and gave me greater insight into the emerging discourse of internationalization in composition. It also gave me insight into the translingual and transcultural negotiations made regularly by my own multicultural and international undergraduate students, which ultimately helped me to develop my own “translation” based composition pedagogy, which emphasizes the negotiation of meaning across genres and languages through revision.

Conclusion: Increasing Semiodiversity in Composition Studies

Overall, I believe my University Literacies experience illustrates how developing additional language resources to engage in cross-language disciplinary

practices can enrich graduate studies in rhetoric and composition, and more broadly, the field and institutions in which these studies take place. If, as Claire Kramsch has argued, “[m]onolingualism is the name not only for a linguistic handicap but for a dangerously monolithic traffic in meaning,” to increase glossodiversity is to increase semiodiversity—to allow for new landscapes of semiotic possibility to unfold before the learner (“Traffic” 102). To produce faculty prepared to meet the challenges of teaching composition in a globalized world, rhetoric and composition graduate programs must cultivate students’ and faculty’s development of diverse language resources. Doing so will no doubt be difficult, since these programs have evolved in relationship to a monolingual ideal of U.S. higher education and U.S. culture at large. However, tapping into the ways in which these programs are, and always have been, translingual promises to enrich them to make this work possible

CONCLUSION

In "Reproducing Composition and Rhetoric: The Intellectual Challenge of Doctoral Education," Louise Wetherbee Phelps writes, "the most powerful channels for change in higher education are those that focus on graduate students as the faculty of the future...it is they who will revitalize an increasingly dysfunctional academic community and acculturate senior members to a new world" (126). In this dissertation, I have argued that efforts to resist a tacit "English-only" language policy in composition studies should be concerned with the requirements that certify budding composition teacher-scholars. In fact, I believe compositionists must critically examine rhetoric and composition graduate programs, both in terms of their histories and present practices, if composition studies is to meet challenges posed to the profession by the global flows of people, capital, and languages that shape life in the 21st century.

In Chapter 1, I argued that even though graduate education has been traditionally under-examined in composition research, critical analysis of rhetoric and composition Ph.D. programs can play an important role in efforts to promote a translingual approach to composition teaching and research. Graduate curricula offer a wealth of information about how the field has approached linguistic forms and practices perceived to be different from a norm of English monolingualism over time. Consequently, these curricula can teach us a great deal about how disciplinary dispositions toward language differences have been developed through the

“disciplining” of new members of the profession. As I discussed in Chapter 2, the origins of graduate programs in the field foreground its historical concerns with language differences in U.S. universities—concerns that are often masked by grand narratives of disciplinary history. Since the first rhetoric and composition Ph.D. programs were developed in the wake of open admissions (and often in conjunction universities’ basic writing programs), these graduate programs are a testament to the importance of linguistic diversity to the professionalization of the field.

Early graduate curricula reflected an awareness of language differences in U.S. universities and the need to reckon with these differences in composition teaching and research. Through courses and requirements in linguistics, TESOL, and basic writing pedagogy, these programs aimed to prepare to future composition teacher-scholars to improve the quality of undergraduate teaching in increasingly diverse university writing programs. However, as I discussed in Chapter 3, linguistics, TESOL, and basic writing pedagogy courses and requirements tended to be dominated in their form and content by monolingualist assumptions about language and sociocultural identity, and in this way, tacitly argued against their own relevance to training in “English” composition. As these courses and requirements effectively wrote themselves out of existence in the 1990s and 2000s, language differences associated with second language writers and other academic outsiders were erased from graduate curricula in the field, and, more broadly, the discipline these curricula (re)produced. That said, as I argued in Chapter 4, the dominant monolingualist ideology in rhetoric and composition graduate programs has been relocalized and resisted in the practices of students and teachers negotiating the material conditions of composition in the late 20th and early 21st centuries. At the level

of local practice, rhetoric and composition graduate education suggests the emergence of a translingual ideology in the discipline that responds to more complex social identities and cross-language practices in a globalizing world. As I discussed in Chapter 5, we can capitalize on the translingual work already taking place in rhetoric and composition Ph.D. programs through making changes to local teaching and research practices. Through collaborative projects that work across languages, rhetoric and composition graduate faculty and students can work toward adjusting “les sanctions du marché linguistique” to resist a tacit, “English-only” language policy in composition studies and U.S. universities.

Further research into the material social practices of rhetoric and composition Ph.D. programs can help support the shift from a monolingual to a translingual norm. Studies of specific graduate programs, and specific courses within these programs (like the composition practicum, which, as Sidney Dobrin has observed, is often represented as a “microcosm” of the field) can reveal more about the ways in which language ideologies have been exercised and transmitted through graduate training to structure composition’s response to waves of demographic change in U.S. institutions. Comparative analysis of programs can both reveal dominant trends in curricula over time and points of disruption—places where curricula differ in relationship to local conditions and the exigencies they create. Differences between individual programs, like the differences between “official” curricula and individual syllabi, assignments, and projects, can be examined as what James Porter et al. call “zones of ambiguity” places where “the system is flexible and open to change” (631).

As this dissertation project demonstrates, archival research can provide limited insight into the material social practices of rhetoric and composition Ph.D. programs, currently and historically. While we can learn much from archival records about individual programs' histories, it is inherently difficult to analyze graduate education through text-based research alone, given the dissonance that inevitably exists between lived experiences and the textual artifacts these experiences leave behind. But the problems of text-based research are exacerbated in studies of rhetoric and composition Ph.D. programs, since historical records of these programs are often inconsistent and incomplete.

My experience researching for this project shows that schools vary widely in terms of the records they hold about their rhetoric and composition Ph.D. programs. Moreover, the availability of these records reflects factors that are institutionally and/or departmentally specific, and these factors are often subject to change. For example, the archivist at Miami University explained to me that many of the records I reviewed were available only because of the regular self-studies that departments at Ohio universities must conduct for the state. At the University of Louisville, the graduate program administrative coordinator explained that the department files on the graduate program were so extensive because both she and the person previously in her position were “pack-rats.”

Finally, at Purdue, gaps in the records of both the university archives and English department were significant. The university archives were missing over a decade of Purdue Graduate Bulletins—documents that I confirmed were not available elsewhere in the library, at the graduate school, or in the English department. As Kristin

Leaman, the archives graduate assistant, told me, it appeared that “Purdue simply does not have copies of these,” despite Purdue having the most extensive archives of any of the three schools I visited. Ms. Leaman also told me the English department had not maintained any copies of graduate program handbooks from the mid-1990s through the mid-2000s, a statement that seemed to be confirmed by my communications with both Patricia Sullivan (the current Director of Graduate Studies) and Janice Lauer (former Director of Graduate Studies) about this issue. While, as Prof. Sullivan told me, there was a tremendous amount of information about the *current* program on the department’s website, there seemed to be a dearth of historical records related to it in the department files. Janice Lauer was able to give me her recollections about particular requirements in the 1990s and early 2000s, but was not able to direct me to any records that would confirm that these recollections were accurate. While this lack of records was frustrating and necessitated that I qualify my findings about the Purdue program, it did, in a way, speak to my argument about the wealth of untapped possibilities in studies like the one I conducted. Purdue has one of the oldest, most established rhetoric and composition Ph.D. programs. As Prof. Lauer’s article “Constructing a Doctoral Program in Rhetoric and Composition” demonstrates, significant thought went into forming the rhetoric and composition specialization at Purdue, and it was put forth as a “model” for other English departments to follow in the 1990s as they developed their own rhetoric and composition specializations. That this particular program lacks records of its history speaks to fact that rhetoric and composition graduate studies have been under-considered in disciplinary scholarship and, in particular, studies of disciplinary history.

Because of gaps in archival records like those at Purdue, future studies of the place of language and language relations in graduate education in the field can benefit from supplementing archival research with ethnographic research methods. Interviews with current and past faculty and students could reveal a more nuanced picture of the place of language and language relations in rhetoric and composition graduate studies, currently and historically. Observations of graduate courses, workshops, orientations, and other curricular activities could also offer information about the cross-language teaching and research practices taking place in globalizing rhetoric and composition Ph.D. programs, and, moreover, offer insight into how these practices might be used to support the shift to a translingual norm.

Such research could lay the groundwork for graduate training in composition that will prepare the next generation of teacher-scholars in the field to address the increased presence of linguistically diverse student writers in their classes and participate in the growing global scholarly conversation about writing and writing teaching. As Raymond Williams has written, “recovery of discarded areas or the redress of selective and reductive interpretations” can be a powerful way to resist an active hegemony, which is taken up and expressed through selective traditions (116). Through paying attention to the often unacknowledged cross-language practices within these programs, we can recover a sense of composition as fundamentally about language and its use in education, and, in so doing, reimagine both composition and its graduate programs in terms of the language differences they have historically worked to suppress and contain.

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Zamel, Vivian. "Toward a Model of Transculturation." *TESOL Quarterly* 31 (1997): 341-52.

Print.

CURRICULUM VITAE

CARRIE BYARS KILFOIL

Education

Ph.D. in Rhetoric and Composition, University of Louisville, Louisville, KY (expected May 2014)

Dissertation: “The Language Politics of Doctoral Studies in Rhetoric and Composition: Toward a Translingual Revision of Graduate Education in the Field”

Committee: Bruce Horner (chair), Min-Zhan Lu, Susan Ryan, Karen Kopelson, and Christiane Donahue

M.A. in English Literature, University of Kentucky, Lexington, KY (Dec. 2004)

Culminating Project: Ecocritical Readings of Nineteenth-Century British Literature

W.B. Yeats International Summer School, Sligo, Ireland (July 2003)

B.A. in English Literature and History (double major), Miami University, Oxford, OH (May 2002)

Publications

“Beyond “English-Only” in U.S. Writing Instruction: Fostering Translingual Dispositions in Writing Teacher Education” with Bruce Horner. *Integrating Content and Language in Higher Education 2013 Conference Proceedings*. 13 ms. pp. forthcoming.

“The Nature and Value of Work in Rhetoric and Composition” *Watson Conference Keynote Articles*. Spec. issue of *JAC*. 32.3-4 (2012): 731-7.

“The Economies of Writing.” Co-edited with Nancy Bou Ayash, Bruce Horner, and Brice Nordquist. *Watson Conference Keynote Articles*. Spec. issue of *JAC*. 32.3-4 (2012).

“Global Englishes and Language Difference.” Online annotated bibliography for Comppile. Co-edited and compiled with Bruce Horner, Nancy Bou Ayash, Samantha NeCamp, Brice Nordquist, and Vanessa Kraemer Sohan.

“Translingual Writing (Annotated) Bibliography.” Editor with Bruce Horner, Samantha NeCamp, Brice Nordquist, and Vanessa Kraemer Sohan <
<http://www.translingualwriting.com/translingual-writing-bibliography.php> >

Awards, Honors, Grants

Watson Dissertation Completion Scholarship
University of Louisville Department of English, Fall 2013

University Fellowship
University of Louisville Graduate School, Fall 2009-Spring 2013

Graduate Student International Travel Grant
University of Louisville International Center, Fall 2010

Writing Program Excellent Instructor
University of Kentucky, Fall 2004

Tuition and Travel Scholarship
W.B. Yeats International Summer School, July 2003

Parents Association Certificate of Merit
Miami University, May 2002

Phi Alpha Theta History Honors Society, Fall 2001

Conference Presentations

“The Monolingual Disciplining of Composition Studies: A History of the Language Politics of Doctoral Education in the Field.” Conference on College Composition and Communication, Indianapolis, IN, 21 Mar. 2014. (upcoming)

“Reviving and Revising Jane: The Politics of Translation in *Bridget Jones’ Diary* and *Clueless*.” Feminisms and Rhetorics, Palo Alto, CA, 25 Sep. 2013.

“Beyond ‘English-Only’ in U.S. College Writing Instruction: Fostering Translingual Dispositions in Writing Teacher Education.” with Bruce Horner, Integrating Content and Language in Higher Education, Maastricht, the Netherlands, 8 Apr. 2013.

“The Language Politics of Graduate Education in Composition: Toward a Translingual, Cross-Cultural Approach to Graduate Education in the Field.” Research Network Forum—Conference on College Composition and Communication, Las Vegas, NV, 13 March 2013.

“The Language Politics of Graduate Education in Composition Studies.” Thomas R. Watson Conference in Rhetoric and Composition, Louisville, KY, 19 Oct. 2013.

“Gilbert White’s (Natural) History: Nature, Culture, Narrativity, and the ‘Real’ in *The Natural History of Selbourne*.” Rhetoric Society of America Conference, Philadelphia, PA, 28 May, 2012.

“The ‘Foreign’ Language Requirement in Doctoral Programs in Rhetoric and Composition: Rethinking Language Relations in Composition.” with Bruce Horner, Consortium of Doctoral Programs in Rhetoric and Composition, Conference of College

Composition and Communication, St. Louis, MO, 21 March 2012 (invited presentation).

“Tell me a Story: Systems Theory, Embodied Intelligence, and Creative Nonfiction.” Conference on College Composition and Communication, Atlanta, GA, April 2011.

“Bringing Forth a (Better) World: The Contact Zone as Complex System.” Thomas R. Watson Conference, Louisville, KY, October 2010.

“Genre, Ideology, and Difference: Examining the Politics of Personal Genres in U.S. College Composition.” University Literacies: Knowledge, Writing, Disciplines, Lille, France, 2 September, 2010.

“Elizabeth Gaskell’s Industrial City and the Social Imaginary.” University of Kentucky Literary Conference, Lexington, KY, March 2005.

“Ecological Vision and Voice in Margaret Atwood’s *The Journals of Susanna Moodie*.” Hawaii International Conference for the Arts and Humanities, Honolulu, HA, 13 January 2005.

Teaching

Graduate Teaching Assistant, University of Louisville, 2009 – 2013

ENGL 101: Introduction to College Composition

ENGL 102: Intermediate College Composition

Part Time Lecturer, University of Colorado, Boulder, 2008

WRTG 1250: Advanced First Year Composition

Adjunct Faculty, Front Range Community College, 2007

ENG 060: Writing Fundamentals

Adjunct Faculty, Westwood College, 2006

ENG 101: College Writing I

Adjunct Faculty, Rocky Mountain College of Art and Design, 2005-2006

WO 1010: Written and Oral Communication

WO 1050: Philosophy of Art and Design

Graduate Teaching Assistant, University of Kentucky, 2002-2005

ENG 101: Introduction to College Writing

ENG 102: Intermediate College Writing

ENG 104: Accelerated College Writing

Writing Center Consultant, University of Kentucky Writing Center, 2004-2005

Center for Academic and Tutorial Services (C.A.T.S.) Writing Tutor, University of Kentucky, 2003-2005

Teaching Intern, Woodberry Forest School, Summer 2001, 2002

English literature and composition courses for rising freshmen and sophomore high

school students.

Administrative Experience

Assistant Director, Thomas R. Watson Conference on Rhetoric and Composition
“Economies of Writing”

University of Louisville, Department of English, June 2011-June 2012

Director, Min-Zhan Lu

Research Assistant to Prof. Bruce Horner, Endowed Chair of Rhetoric and Composition

University of Louisville, Department of English, June 2010-June 2011

Academic Advisor

Naropa University, Academic Affairs, July 2007-July 2009

Director, Wendy Levin

Assistant Director of Student Services

Westwood College, Fall 2006-Fall 2007

Director, Dianne Hopkins

Faculty Advisor

Rocky Mountain College of Art and Design, Fall 2005-Spring 2006

Director, Nina Miller

Center for Academic and Tutorial Services (C.A.T.S.) Writing Tutoring Program

Coordinator

University of Kentucky, Department of English, Fall 2004-Spring 2005

Director, Randall Roorda

Workshop Presentations

“Planning your Academic Path.” Naropa University New Student Orientation, Fall 2007, Spring 2008, Fall 2008, Spring

“Avoiding Plagiarism.” University of Kentucky C.A.T.S. Peer Tutor Training, Fall 2004, Spring 2005

“Writing Consulting Practices.” University of Kentucky C.A.T.S. Peer Tutor Training, Fall 2004, Spring 2005

Academic Service

Member, Thomas R. Watson Conference Committee, Department of English
University of Louisville, 2011-2012

Volunteer, Thomas R. Watson Conference in Rhetoric and Composition

University of Louisville, Oct. 2010

Lecturer Representative, Faculty Advisory Committee, Program for Writing and
Rhetoric

University of Colorado, Boulder, Fall 2008

Board Member, Standing Committee for General Staff
Naropa University, 2007-2009

Member, New Student Orientation Committee
Naropa University, 2007-2009

Chair, New Student Orientation Committee
Westwood College, 2006-2007

Graduate Student Representative, Writing Program Committee, Department of English
University of Kentucky, 2003-2004

Board Member, English Graduate Student Organization, Department of English
University of Kentucky, 2003-2004

Languages

Proficient in French reading and writing

Graduate Coursework

Ph.D. University of Louisville

ENGL 602 Teaching College Composition (Joanna Wolfe)

ENGL 621 Sociolinguistics (Elizabeth Patton)

ENGL 620 Research in Composition (Debra Journet)

ENGL 670 Composition Theory and Practice (Min-Zhan Lu)

ENGL 674 Outside Composition (Bruce Horner)

ENGL 674 The Politics of Language in the Theory and Teaching of Composition
(Bruce Horner)

ENGL 681 Creative Non-Fiction: Practice and Pedagogy (Bronwyn Williams)

ENGL 687 Narrative Theory and Composition (Debra Journet)

ENGL 688 Watson Seminar: Biology, Technology, and Writing (visiting professor
Marilyn Cooper)

ENGL 692 Topics in Interpretive Theory (Matthew Biberman)

M.A. University of Kentucky

ST 500 Introduction to Social Theory (Dana Nelson)

WS 600 Topics in Women's Studies: Nabokov's Lolita and her Descendants (Susan
Bordo)

ENG 609 Composition for Teachers (Randall Roorda)

ENG 610 Studies in Rhetoric (Dana Nelson)

ENG 626 Studies in Spenser, Shakespeare, Milton (Jennifer Lewin)

ENG 630 Studies in English Literature: 1660-1720 (Lisa Zunshine)

ENG 635 Studies in Romanticism: Jane Austen (Lisa Zunshine)

ENG 642 Modern Irish Literature 1890-1940 (Jonathan Allison)

ENG 653 Studies in American Literature Since 1900: Literature and the Environment
(Randall Roorda)

ENG 691 Readings in Rhetoric: Composition and Place (Randall Roorda)

ENG 691 Readings in Rhetoric: Consulting Practices (Janet Eldred)
ENG 738 Seminar in Victorian Literature (Ellen Rosenman)
ENG 780 Directed Studies: Eco-critical Readings of 19th Century British Literature
(Randall Roorda)

Professional Affiliations

Conference on College Composition and Communication
Modern Language Association
National Council of Teachers of English
Rhetoric Society of America

References

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