Genre analysis of English exam essays in Norwegian upper secondary education

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Master’s Thesis
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November 2018
Acknowledgements
I am grateful for the sound guidance and constructive feedback offered by my supervisor Sigrid Ørevik throughout this project. I am eternally obliged to my fellow students who enlisted in the ENGMAU course back in August 2014. I would never have made it ‘over the top’ if not for you. I am also indebted to Steinar Nordtun for proof reading. Finally, to my dear spouse Siv and my son Birk: You are the best.

Rune Kjempenes, November 2018.
**Abstract in Norwegian**
Skrivedugleik er sentralt for å lukkast i den norske skulen. I 2006 vart skriving gjennom parlamentarisk vedtak fastsett som ein av fem grunnleggjande dugleikar i læreplanen Kunnskapsløftet (LK06). Utgangspunktet for oppgåva er ei interesse for korleis elevar skriv, og korleis skriving vert definert og operasjonalisert.

Denne masteroppgåva i engelsk fagdidaktikk har primært som mål å undersøkja korleis avgangselevar i vidaregåande skule skriv engelsk, og sekundært å gje eit bidrag til diskusjonen kring sjanger og teksttype i norsk vidaregåande opplæring.

Studiet er i hovudsak ei kvalitativ analyse av tolv langsvarsoppgåver i skriftleg eksamen i programfaget Samfunnsfagleg engelsk våren 2017. Analysen byggjer på eit eigenutvikla rammeverk for sjangeranalyse som inkorporerer både sosiale praksisar (sjanger) og kognitive prosessar (teksttyper). Langsvarsoppgåvane vart samla inn frå elevar som melde seg friviljug til deltaking i studiet.

Funna tyder på at elevane i ei viss mon meistrar å skriva tekstar som er strukturerde og mottakarmedvitne. Samstundes tyder funna på til dels store skilnader i kor godt elevar klarar å argumentera og drøfta saksforhold. Rammeverket for sjangeranalyse tek opp i seg både «sjanger» og «teksttype» samstundes, og funna indikerer at dette kan vera ein tenleg distinksjon i framtidig skriveundervisning.
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1. Introduction
This thesis originates from an abiding interest in writing and a more recent concern regarding how the teaching and learning of writing is conceptualised in Norwegian secondary education today. Teaching English at upper secondary, my interest in the teaching of writing has particularly revolved around the following questions: What are the writing skills students need to acquire in order to succeed in their written exams? What separates a well-written answer from one less well-written? Why are discussion and argumentation particularly difficult to master? Writing was implemented as a key competency in the Norwegian curriculum in 2006. Although many scholars and teachers commended the heightened importance of writing skills, subsequent developments have raised some concerns. ‘Genre’ has been replaced by ‘text types’ in much of the Norwegian curriculum but neither concept has been clearly and consistently defined (see for instance Breivega and Johnsen 2016, Sparboe 2014, Blikstad-Balas and Hertzberg 2015). I find this unfortunate as these concepts should not be seen as mutually exclusive. The purpose of this Master’s thesis in English didactics is primarily to explore how students write in their final exam at upper secondary, and secondly, to see if a genre-based approach can alleviate some of the current confusion regarding writing terminology.

1.1. Background and Previous Research
How students write has been a popular topic within the field of language studies for many years. Nevertheless, research has tended to mostly focus on academic writing in higher education where students are expected to show greater proficiency and master more complex nuances of writing than what one would expect of students in upper secondary education. Admittedly, how Norwegian upper secondary students write in their native language has been subject to previous research as the QAL-, NORM- and SKRIV-studies can testify to. The purpose of the QAL-project (Evensen 2003) was to evaluate the learning outcome in the Norwegian common core subject at the end of the primary education through studies of 3300 student answers from the final written exam in the period 1998-2001. More specifically, the project sought to explore what skills pupils master when it comes to writing Norwegian. The NORM-study is a nationwide study of writing in all subjects in the primary education where the aim is to develop national standards for the assessment
of writing. The project is entrenched in a functional view of writing which implies an interest in writing acts and purposes, together with semiotic resources that realize the relationship between actions and purposes in different types of texts. This study has also led to the creation of the model The Wheel of Writing (see Chapter 3.6). Finally, SKRIV was a four-year-long study (2006-2010) which aimed to contribute to teachers’ development of textual competence and subject competence with regard to writing in several subjects. The main finding of the study was that the purpose of writing tasks was often not communicated well enough to the pupils. On the basis of this, a writing triangle was developed which highlighted three aspects of writing; form, content and purpose. The study also supported the findings from the previous QAL-study, namely that students prefer literature and personal orientation to argumentative writing.

As seen, several studies of writing and evaluation in Norway have been carried out during the last two decades. Much of the research can be tied to the implementation of The Knowledge Promotion (LK06) which to a large degree rests on theories of literacy and linguistic key competences. The curriculum for all subjects, whether it be Norwegian, Social Science, History, English, or any other, are similarly structured and rests on the same theoretical foundations. Moreover, all subjects incorporate the framework of the five basic skills of being able to express oneself in writing and orally; being able to read; numeracy; and being able to use digital tools. Thus, the findings from the studies above can be said to be relevant not only to the Norwegian common core subject, but also to the English common core subject and the optional English subjects.

However, the aforementioned studies have focused on how students write in their native, L1 language. Generally, little is known about how Norwegian students write English. One of the more enlightening studies is Hasselgård’s (2012) corpus study of 300 texts written by students taking the English foundation course at university or university college level in the early 2000s. Her main finding was that these students, compared with students having English as their native language, were more present in their texts, for example through the use of personal pronouns such as ‘I’ and ‘me’. Based on the corpus, Norwegians are three times more likely to use such pronouns than Americans or British. Norwegian students were also more susceptible to using hedging such as ‘maybe’ and ‘perhaps’ than their English-speaking counterparts. Hasselgård points out two possible objections to the corpus. Firstly,
that the texts were written before the introduction of the LK06 and therefore lack the stricter demands to genre requirements that came with LK06, and secondly, that the texts were written by students at university level and not pupils in primary education or students in secondary education. Regarding the latter, Hasselgård claims that the texts could be seen as a kind of end product of the informants’ English education in secondary education. Her concern is that the English curricula, particularly for the programme subjects, has high demands when it comes to writing skills and text production. As a part of accommodating the writing to purpose, situation and genre, Hasselgård therefore advocates that students should learn how to vary the degree of their explicit presence in texts.

More specifically, knowledge about how Norwegian students deal with written English exams is particularly sparse. Along with scholarly contributions discussing the topic of written English exams, there are four master's theses of particular interest. Berg (2014) has examined what factors affect students’ selection of prompts when choosing which exam task to write in the final written exam for the common core subject, and found that motivation, comprehension, genre and topic, and the expected grade outcome were important factors. Mürer (2015: 91) has analysed whether the written exam in the common core subject is valid and reliable, and concludes that ‘as long as the competence aims in the English curriculum are as extensive and unmeasurable as they are at present, the exam tasks as unclear and the scoring rubrics as ambiguous, the exam will remain both invalid and unreliable.’ Ellingsund (2009) has studied the concept of ‘washback’, or how the written exam may influence teaching throughout a school year and found that the type and intensity varied from teacher to teacher. A final MA study is Nebdal’s (2012) investigation and comparison of high stakes written exams in Norway and Finland focusing on the different approaches to writing and the construct validity of the assessment procedure. The study was based on a total of six exam papers from the final year of upper secondary education: Three from the English Literature and Culture course in Norway and three from the English matriculation exams in Finland. The two main findings relevant to my study were that the Norwegian exams consider aspects of academic writing skills such as argumentative discourse, and that the topical issues of culture and society mentioned in the curriculum were found to be under-represented in the exam. As for scholars, Ørevik (2012) has investigated the role of genre in exam papers for the common core subject in the period
1996-2011, and given a thorough description of the types of texts students had to read and write in conjunction with the exam. She found that ‘the range of genres for production remains largely unchanged through the period of investigation, although the distribution among the genres changes’ (Ørevik 2012: 1). With reference to the latter, Ørevik suggests there has been a gradual shift from subjective writing in the form of ‘stories’ to more argumentative writing. In a later work, analysing the long answer tasks for the written exam in the common core subject in the period 1995-2014, she found an ambivalence towards the concept of genre (Ørevik 2015).

1.2. Rationale for the Study
After the brief exposition in the previous section, two important observations can be made. The first one is that the conducted studies, with the exception of Nebdal’s study, have solely concentrated on the English common core subject. The optional English courses in the final two years of secondary education have to my knowledge not been scrutinised. Given that the common core subject is one that all students in upper secondary education have to take, whereas the optional courses are taken by far fewer students this might be understandable. The common core subject is the minimum requirement in English to qualify for admission to higher education, and although I see the value of measuring students’ competence after ten years of compulsory English education, I would point to the fact that all three English optional subjects1 are considerably more demanding than the common core subject concerning the skills and knowledge the students should acquire. Another point is that it can be more interesting to examine students’ writing skills at the end of upper secondary education rather than at the start. Students have developed more as writers and the topical demands of the exams are greater. This plays into Bereiter and Scardamalia’s (2010: 4) distinction between knowledge telling and knowledge transforming. Writing focused on the latter ‘has the important benefit that the writer's knowledge and beliefs undergo development through the composing process, whereas "knowledge telling" has little or no effect on the writer's 'knowledge’. Similarly, Weigle (2002: 11) asserts that students nearing

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1 The courses are International English, Social Studies English, and English Literature and Culture.
the end of compulsory education should focus more on knowledge transformation and academic writing skills than knowledge telling and writing with less cognitive demands.

The second observation is that while the English written exam has been scrutinised from a variety of angles before, minimal attention has been given to the outcomes of exams. Such a study can be of great importance for at least three different reasons. First and foremost, exam essays written by Norwegian students have not been scrutinised before so there is a research gap. Secondly and more importantly, the exploration of exam answers from high-stakes exams can shed light on how students write English. As previously mentioned, we have some knowledge about what Norwegian students master when it comes to writing in their native language, but one cannot necessarily imply that students master the same skills when it comes to writing English. Although the writing processes in a second language is not too different from those in a first language, and although writing expertise can be transferred from the first to the second language, the argument has been made that ‘writing in a second language tends to be more constrained, more difficult and less effective’ (Silva 1993: 668). Finally, the Norwegian educational authorities have pointed to the importance of a more functional teaching of writing (Heian 2015). By employing a framework for genre analysis which incorporates functional aspects of writing, this study can explore the current level of students’ skills and perhaps make suggestions as to what aspects need to be focused on in future teaching.

1.3. Research Question
Based on the above exposition, this thesis explores how Norwegian students write in their English final exam, and addresses the following question:

To what extent do written exam answers in Social Studies English conform to genre norms?

The question will be addressed by using a framework for genre analysis to examine twelve authentic exam essays from the spring 2017 exam. Genre and text types will be two important analytical concepts in this study. I will perfunctorily define them now before undertaking a more thorough treatment in Chapter 3, followed by an outline of the framework for genre analysis in Chapter 4. Genre can be defined as the overall realisation of
a text. For any genre to be realised, writers have to conform to particular norms relating to social practices and cognitive processes. Firstly, there are the more socially oriented practices of writing such as negotiation and interaction between writer and audience in the form of metadiscoursal resources (e.g. hedges, boosters, frame markers) or the conventionalised staging of content. These practices allow the writer to position himself in relation to the expectations of an imagined reader. In this respect, writing is dialogic because it requires and responds to an active audience and because it enters into a dialogue with other texts (Bakhtin 1987). Secondly, there are the more cognitively oriented processes of writing, such as organising text segments\(^2\) for a specific rhetorical purpose (e.g. to explain, to discuss) and which do not relate to specific contexts in time and space. These processes allow the reader to explore and organise topical knowledge. A final point is that whole texts realising a specific genre typically combine and frame a range of different text types.

### 1.4. Outline of the Thesis

This thesis consists of six chapters. Chapter 2 provides an overview of the Social Studies English course focusing on the curriculum and how the written exam is designed and assessed. The chapter also examines the underlying writing construct focusing on the written exam as an example of the school genre ‘expository essay’.

Chapter 3 first examines three main traditions of genre and then draws a distinction between ‘genre’ as social practice and ‘text type’ as cognitive process. The chapter then reviews two frameworks for text analysis: The first is Bruce’s social genre/cognitive genre model and the second is the Problem-Solution pattern. The chapter ends with an outline of The Writing Wheel, a model of the writing domain for the teaching and assessing of writing as a key competency in Norwegian comprehensive education.

Chapter 4 gives an account of the research design and framework for genre analysis, presents the sample and sampling method, and then discusses validity and reliability. The chapter concludes with a discussion of ethical concerns relating to my study.

\(^2\) By segment, I mean any unit of text that is separate from other parts or can be considered separately.
Chapter 5 presents the results of the analysis. The chapter concludes with a discussion of some potential limitations, particularly focusing on the operationalisation of the text type construct.

Chapter 6 summarises the main findings of the study and proposes some areas where the study has contributed to new knowledge. It then discusses some didactic implications, points to possible limitations and finally suggests some areas for future research.
2. Social Studies English
The question of what skills students master in the Social Studies English written exam cannot be studied only in relation to different genre constructs. The analysis must also be grounded in the curriculum and how its aims are operationalised in the written exam. Of similar importance are guiding documents such as the examination guide, the exam report and assessed benchmark papers. The following sections will give an account of these documents, before the chapter will conclude with a discussion of the underlying writing construct of the exam.

2.1. The Curriculum
Social Studies English is an optional subject in Norwegian upper secondary education which is comprised of 140 teaching hours. The current curriculum was implemented by the Norwegian Directorate for Education and Training³ (UDIR) in 2006 and can be broken down into three parts. Firstly, there are the objectives of the study which give an overarching description of the status and importance of English in the world and in Norway. Secondly, there are the five basic skills of being able to express oneself in writing and orally; being able to read; numeracy; and being able to use digital tools. All of these are integrated in the competence aims. Finally, the competence aims prescribe learning objectives under three main subject areas. The first section, ‘Language and language learning’, deals with knowledge of the English language and its usage. The second section, ‘Communication’, deals with the communication of meaning by means of language. Finally, the section titled ‘Culture, society and literature’, describes the content aspect of the subject and entails key issues related to history, politics, and social, cultural and economic conditions in the English-speaking world.

The aims under the first two main areas (Language and language learning; Communication) relate more to the social aspects of communicating in a given context. The following is written about communication:

The main subject area deals with the communication of meaning by means of language. It is about the development of written and oral language skills, and about

³ Henceforward referred to as UDIR.
building a well-developed, nuanced vocabulary so that one can communicate about social issues. Communication also involves precise and coherent expression in a number of oral and written genres, including composite texts. The adaptation of usage to different social and cultural situations is included in the main subject area. (UDIR 2006)

The more specific competence aims require students to:

- Use a nuanced, well-developed vocabulary to communicate on social and political issues
- Use suitable language appropriate to the situation in a variety of oral and written genres
- Have a command of formal and informal language in a variety of contexts
- Elaborate on and discuss linguistically demanding texts with a social or political perspective
- Summarize, comment on and discuss differing viewpoints on social and political issues
- Produce texts in a variety of genres with clear content, appropriate style, good structure, and usage that is precise and accurate
- Use information based on figures and statistics as a basis for communicating on social and political issues. (UDIR 2006)

The following is written about Culture, society and literature:

The main subject area deals with key issues related to literature and culture in the English-speaking world, and includes literary texts and other artistic means of expression, such as visual art, theatre, music and architecture from various time periods and different parts of the world. It is about the relationship between text, culture and society. In addition, the main subject area covers historical processes that have led to the spread of the English language and Anglo-American culture, as well as current issues in international culture and the world of news. (UDIR 2006)

The more specific competence aims relating to this thesis require students to:
• Elaborate on and discuss how key historical events and processes have affected the development of American society and British society
• Elaborate on and discuss political issues and systems in the English-speaking world, with a special focus on Great Britain and the United States
• Elaborate on and discuss questions related to social and economic conditions in some English-speaking countries
• Analyse a regional or international conflict in which at least one English-speaking country is involved
• Elaborate on and discuss current debates in the English-speaking world. (UDIR 2006)

As seen, both main areas and their respective competence aims highlight the importance of topical knowledge. This is in line with Berge, Evensen and Thygesen (2016: 181) which state that the Norwegian curriculum is defined as knowledge based and that writing should ‘relate to the kinds that characterise subjects such as history, science, geography and Norwegian’. It is worth emphasising that the Social Studies English course is an amalgamation of more specific content concepts (e.g. societal conditions, political systems) and key concepts (e.g. critical and analytical thinking). This is also expressed in the objectives of the subject which state that the broad approach to culture and society shall develop students’ skills in critical analysis and reflection (UDIR 2016).

The curricula for the common core courses in LK064 underwent revisions in both 2010 and 2013, with particularly the latter revision being significant. The rationale was to elucidate the basic skills of the curriculum and create a clearer progression with regard to writing. These aims are supported by research (e.g. the aforementioned NORM, QAL and SKRIV-studies) which suggested the need for a more functional teaching of writing (Heian 2015). For both the English and Norwegian common core subjects this instigated a new understanding of the text concept. In the curriculum for the Norwegian common core subject, the term ‘text types’ replaced previous genre terms. Specified genres such as of ‘short story’, ‘article’, ‘formal letters’ etc. were no longer mentioned in the competence aims, but replaced by acts of writing and purposes of writing. In the written exam, students were now asked to write creative, informative and argumentative texts for a specific purpose. The changes in the

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English common core subject were less lucid. Admittedly, the term ‘genres’ was replaced by ‘different types of text’ but no mention was made of different acts of writing or of purposes of writing. Formally, the Social Studies English curriculum was not affected by this revision. It is noteworthy however that the wording of the exam prompts changed soon after. The eight exams from spring 2010 to autumn 2013 required students to write either an ‘essay’, ‘article’ or ‘text’ supplemented by command terms such as ‘discuss’, ‘compare’ and/or ‘reflect’. The following task from the 2010 autumn exam can serve as an illustration: ‘Write an article in which you discuss poverty in the USA in the light of American values and American views of government’ (UDIR 2010). All exams since have made no mention of genre or type of text. Rather, the exams have used the command term ‘discuss’, or in rare some cases, ‘explain’. For example, the following task was given in the spring exam in 2014: ‘Using both the pictures and the texts below as your point of departure, discuss what is currently happening to the idea of freedom, privacy and civil rights in the UK and the USA’ (UDIR 2014). A consequence of these changes is that command terms such as ‘discuss’ have been foregrounded, and in turn, become more important. Although the curriculum has not been altered, the functional aspects of writing have implicitly been made more salient in the exam.

2.2. The Written Exam
At the end of the Social Studies English course, students can be picked for a nationwide written examination. On a national level, well over half of the students taking the course are drawn out for the written exam. For example, in the school year 2016-2017, 4 019 students obtained a final written grade in the course, and 2 734 students sat for the written exam.5 The five-hour exam consists of two main assignments which in its entirety shall test the students’ competence in all three main subject areas. In the first assignment, students must answer one or two short tasks. These tasks ‘should give the student the opportunity to show his/her competence in producing short and concise texts about different topics which are adapted to a given communicative situation’ (UDIR 2015a). Moreover, these tasks will

5 The corresponding numbers for the English common core subject were respectively 37 358 final grades and 3 302 written exam grades. Source: UDIR Statistikkportalen: https://www.udir.no/tall-og-forskning/statistikk/statistikk-videregaende-skole/karakter-vgs/
principally focus on the competence aims under the main subject area ‘Language and language learning’ but may also include other competence aims. In the second assignment – which is the topic of this study – students can choose between four different tasks and should then write a longer, coherent text. These tasks often include texts or text excerpts, quotations, figures or pictures which the students should comment on or use as their point of departure. The long answer tasks from the 2017 spring exam are included in Appendix 1.

In conjunction with the exam, UDIR publishes an exam guide with guidelines for how the exam is organised and assessed. Stakeholders (e.g. teachers, students and parents) should be acquainted with this guide well in advance of the exam. Concerning assessment principles, the guide states that in addition to writing a text suited to the communicative situation with relevant content, students should also show their competence regarding text structure and use of sources. The language should be varied, idiomatic, appropriate and approximately correct. The text should also have a clear and logical structure, internal coherence and relevant content in accordance with the task chosen by the student. The guide also explicitly states that to overlook task material (e.g. text excerpts, quotations, figures or pictures which the students should comment on or use as their point of departure) shows a low degree of competence. Finally, the guide includes a detailed assessment matrix with scoring rubrics relating to the three main areas in the curriculum: Content, language and structure. Within each of these categories, there are three grade levels which includes criterion statements such as ‘the answer shows little knowledge of genre’ (grade 2), ‘the answer shows understanding of some typical genre traits’ (grade 3-4) or ‘the answer shows good knowledge of genre’ (grade 5-6).

In the summer of 2015, UDIR published five authentic exam answers from the Social Studies English written exam on their website (UDIR 2015b). The papers range from grade 2 (low degree of competence) to grade 6 (exceptionally high level of competence), and each includes a written grade justification. The batch does not include an example of what constitutes a failed paper (grade 1). The rationale behind making these papers accessible to teachers and students alike is ‘to clarify what is expected at the nationwide written examensrettleiing in Norwegian. In the summer of 2013, this guide replaced the previous sensor guide (Sensorrettleiing), intended for examiners, and the assessment guide (Vurderingsrettleiing), intended for students.

My translations.
examination’ (UDIR 2015b). Concerning the long answer (task 2), all texts try – albeit with varying degrees of success – to conform to genre norms. Features such as paragraphs, cohesive links and connectors and personal pronouns indicate that the writers have had an audience in mind when writing. Furthermore, the texts both describe and discuss the topic material. Just as interesting is the ubiquitous absence of any experimental aspects of form, i.e. use of coloured letters, varied font types and sizes, use of pictures, graphs or illustrations. These benchmark papers are benchmark papers for a reason; they set a standard that other papers should try and align themselves to.

Recurring themes in the written grade justifications for the long answer texts are discussion and reflection - or the lack of it. The lowest graded text is ‘to a large degree a summary of the content and shows insufficient insight into American societal conditions’. One text is ‘on the whole characterised by litany and lack a pervasive discussion’, another is commended for a ‘very good analysis of American societal conditions’ and ‘high degree of reflection’, whereas a third is praised for ‘societal reflections’. A common denominator of these terms is discussion. The grade justifications illustrate that what is expected and rewarded is the ability to put forward a considered and balanced review that includes a range of arguments, and that any opinions or conclusions should be presented clearly and be supported by appropriate evidence.

The final important document pertaining to the written exam is the exam report (UDIR 2017b). The report gives feedback from the exam panel and the aim is to give schools, teachers and candidates improved insight into the exam and what competences the different tasks require. Under the heading ‘Tips for Teaching’ the report states the following:

Many candidates have become adept at structuring their texts. On the other hand, it seems that structuring and building an argument appears to be somewhat challenging. Candidates’ argumentation has a tendency to appear underdeveloped and incomplete. A tip can therefore be for candidates to practice structuring and building argumentation in order to show their competence in the best possible manner.

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8 My translations.
9 My translation.
Although the report does not use the terms ‘genre’ and ‘text type’, it is noteworthy that it distinguishes between structure and argumentation. The notion that students deal better with the social practices of writing than the cognitive processes is something that I have experienced in my own teaching and marking as well.\(^\text{10}\)

### 2.3. The Written Exam as School Genre

After having given an account of important guiding documents such as the curriculum, the exam guide, the benchmark papers and the exam report, this section will now discuss the underlying writing construct of the exam. What type(s) of texts are students expected to write? Are there any norms of writing which should be conformed to, and to what degree can students glean these demands from the exam prompts?

A review of the exam papers for Social Studies English in the period 2010-2017 shows that genre requirements have become less visible, and more so in the later exams which make no explicit mention of genre at all. By not requiring a specific genre, students need to decide themselves what type of text they want to write. One might argue that being able to choose the discourse that best fits a given communicative situation is a skill in itself. This would tie in well with the LK06 and its adherence to ‘competence’, a term defined in this context as ‘the ability to solve tasks and master complex challenges’ (White paper 2003-2004)\(^\text{11}\). Students show their competence in concrete situations by using knowledge and skills to solve various tasks. As such, the actual task or situation determines which competence is needed. Knowledge and skills must often be combined and used together in the solving of a task or a situation. Consequently, students must decide themselves how to apply genre and discourse competence when wishing to show their knowledge.

On the other hand, not making genre requirements clear has its drawbacks. Schleppegrell (2001: 434) asserts that students are seldom explicitly told how to linguistically structure and present their responses to school-based tasks. Where students are not explicitly taught genres, they will have to ‘discover appropriate forms in the process of writing itself, gleaning this knowledge from unanalysed samples of expert writing, from the growing experience of

\(^\text{10}\) Interestingly, a recent study of failed written exams in the English common core subject concluded that the key to passing the exam was content rather than language. See Haugestad and McGarrighan (2018).

\(^\text{11}\) My translation.
repetition, and from suggestions in the margins of their drafts’ (Hyland 2003: 19). Consequently, students might be lost in an ‘invisible curriculum’ (Hammond and Derewianka 2013: 189). The point is that some students may be better at manoeuvring such conditions than others, and hence, will benefit more when genre requirements are not explicitly stated (see Hertzberg 2001, Hyland 2003). For example, Christie (1985: 21) has observed that acquiring good grades is a question of language and the pupils’ capacity to decode and master various types of discourses related to the type of knowledge, information and ideas that schools value.

A second, and more important argument is one noted by Løkensgard Hoel (1997: 31): Individual writers, or in this case students, never write in isolation but within set discourse communities, and these communities have their different norms of communication. Løkensgard Hoel claims that many of the problems students encounter in writing stems from lack of knowledge of which linguistic and rhetorical conventions apply within specific discourse communities. I would argue that there is consensus within the discourse community of upper secondary education regarding quality criteria for students’ exam writing. Regarding the written exam in Social Studies English, these criteria are hinted at in the wording of the exam prompts (for instance by the near ubiquitous use of the command term ‘discuss’ during the last four years) and in the examination guide (which says that grades 5 and 6 are distinguished by ‘precise, rounded and relevant answers to the tasks in concord with the task instruction and which shows maturity and independence’ and ‘very good insight in and overview of the subject matter’) (UDIR 2016). The examination guide also used to state that grades 5 and 6 are distinguished by ‘high degree of independence, reflection and understanding’ and that the content is ‘relevant, focused, adapted to the communicative situation and the purpose of the text, and that the argumentation is well founded with several relevant examples’ (UDIR 2015a). This part has, however, not been included in the latest examination guides. I find the deletion of the terms ‘reflection’ and ‘argumentation’ unfortunate as they explicitly highlighted the importance of discussion, and hence, could be helpful to students. In the exam the student will in all likelihood be asked to ‘discuss’ a phenomenon, and if the student has not a clear understanding of what this verb

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12 My translation.
13 My translation.
entails he or she will be impeded in the exam. A challenge is that this command term has not been defined by UDIR, nor have other similar terms such as ‘explain’ or ‘comment’. Consequently, it is not evident what the terms entail.

Another point to make is that school writing often follows a set of norms that cut across different subjects. In a Norwegian school context, Berge (1988) has argued for the existence of particular genre norms or ‘communicative deals’ that can be used to assess successful communication in different situations. Berge writes extensively about the norms and aesthetics of the ‘expository essay’ in upper secondary education, and the most pertinent points will be discussed below. Even though he does not use the term ‘text type’, Berge points out that students are often asked to explore, discuss or assess a phenomenon in their writing tasks. The demand for discussion is often employed when the phenomenon is a contentious and current case, often of a political nature. The purpose of discussion is therefore that students should learn to list and compare different perspectives regarding a case. Ideally, the student should adopt a factual attitude, show insight into other sides of the case and compare the different sides. In addition, the student should discuss consequences of the different understandings.

Skjelbred (2014: 102), in discussing writing instruction from a Norwegian perspective, notes that the ‘expository essay’ is often an explanatory and argumentative text in the form of an article or account. Breivega and Johnsen (2016: 59), similarly, claim that that the expository essay is a school genre, which among other things are characterised by interaction of argumentative and explanatory text types. These views will be endorsed in this study. Different configurations of basic text type patterns realise different genres, and the interaction between argumentative and descriptive text types is one important constitutive feature of the genre ‘expository essay’. Furthermore, I propose that the command term ‘discuss’ implies writing an expository essay where the main aim is to give a thorough, comprehensive and balanced treatment of a topic, taking into account different facts, ideas and opinions, and where all opinions and conclusions should be supported by appropriate

14 The Norwegian term, ‘resonnerande stil’, is commonly used in Norwegian writing instruction. In this study, I will use the term ‘expository essay’.
evidence. To achieve this aim, one has also to address and negotiate meaning with an intended reader.

This chapter has aimed to demonstrate that although specific genres are no longer explicitly required in students’ writings, the objectives and competence aims of the curriculum, and the widespread use of the command term ‘discuss’ in the exam prompts for the long answer tasks denote a preference for the expository essay. The analysis of the examination guidelines, the sample of annotated benchmark papers and the exam report corroborate this impression.
3. Theoretical Background
This chapter examines three main genre ‘schools’ and their notions about writing and teaching. The chapter then points to a divergence in interest among genre theorists: Some see genre as mainly a social phenomenon, others as mainly a cognitive phenomenon. This distinction lays the foundation for an exploration of genre as social practice through the lens of schematic structure and writer stance; and of genre as cognitive process through the lens of rhetorical purpose (or ‘text type’). The chapter then outlines two frameworks for genre analysis: The first is Bruce’s dual approach to genre analysis which incorporates both social practices and cognitive processes. The second is the Problem-Solution pattern, a basic principle for organising texts which relates to cognitive processes. The chapter ends with an outline of The Writing Wheel, a writing construct.

3.1. Three Traditions of Genre
Genre is not one concept, but many. It is a flexible term used in a plethora of ways in fields such as journalism, politics, literature, and music but also within a range of scientific disciplines. Although definitions of genres vary extensively, one common feature is the use of semiotic signs in recurring and recognisable patterns within specific discourse communities. Within linguistics and educational contexts, it is customary to talk of three different genre ‘schools’, namely New Rhetoric, English for Specific Purposes (ESP) and the Sydney School (also labelled ‘Systemic functional’ theory).15 The three schools share an interest in describing how language is used in different practices and settings, and try to theoretically define the concept of genre. Furthermore, the schools have developed linguistic or rhetorical analytical tools to describe the use of language. Another commonality is that all schools premise that specific settings and contexts create expectations from individuals about what is possible, practical and desirable to do with language, and that this in turn creates genre norms.

Theorists adhering to the Sydney School stress ‘the purposeful, interactive, and sequential character of different genres and the ways language is systematically linked to context through patterns of lexico-grammatical and rhetorical features’ (Hyland 2003: 21-22). The theoretical background for the school is the ‘systemic functional’ theory of language where a

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15 This classification is largely indebted to Hyon (1996).
speaker or writer faces different choices in specific contexts of use, and where the choices are described in functional rather than grammatical terms (Hammond and Derewianka 2013: 187, Paltridge 2001: 2). Cope and Kalantzis (1993: 7), in an influential textbook outlining the ideas of the Sydney school for non-Australians, highlight that genres are ‘social processes’ and that texts are patterned in reasonably predictable ways depending on patterns of social interaction in specific cultures. It is this meeting of social and textual patterns that constitutes a certain genre. First developed in Australia in the 1980s, the theory has had a particular interest in describing school genres and giving voice to marginalised pupils. Consequently, theorists have focused on how to give all social groups access to genres deemed valuable through explicit instruction. Teachers have systematically tried to expand students’ writing abilities through techniques such as modelling, joint negotiation and independent construction.

In English for Specific Purposes (ESP), the term genre refers to ‘a class of communicative events, the members of which share some set of communicative purposes’ (Swales 1990: 58). ESP is tied to researchers such as John Swales, Brian Paltridge, Vijay Bhatia and Ken Hyland. As with the Sydney school, researchers within ESP are interested in describing linguistic genre structures and genre norms, and applying these in educational contexts. The main difference is the ESP’s interest in developing educational programs specifically for L2 students. A main concern is to assist students to gain access to the English language demands they encounter in educational or occupational contexts (Hammond and Derewianka 2013: 186). Consequently, within ESP the focus is more on situated genres such as the research article, the abstract, different types of theses; and professional genres such as the letter of recommendation, advertisements, company documents etc. The Sydney School and ESP have several overlapping features. For example, both perspectives identify structural elements in texts and make inferences about the patterning of these elements. Similarly, both examine the notion of genre-specific language (Paltridge 2001: 12-13).

In contrast to the two aforementioned schools, New Rhetoric is not concerned with identifying and analysing genres for a particular group of subjects but is rather interested in describing power structures that genres within institutionalised settings can maintain and hide. Carolyn Miller’s (1984: 151) seminal article ‘Genre as Social Action’ posits that a genre definition cannot be based on the ‘substance or of the form of discourse but on the action it
is used to accomplish.’ As such, it has helped to decipher the often complex relationship between text and context, but in the words of Hyland (2003: 22), its ‘contribution to L2 writing instruction has been minimal.’ Some proponents of New Rhetoric oppose both detailed analyses of genres and explicit genre instruction. Aviva Freedman (1999: 766), for instance, argues against the usefulness of ‘explicating the regularities of specific genres as a way of helping students acquire those genres.’ Her reasoning is that genres are ‘dynamic, fluid, and blurred’ and she questions whether it is possible to assume that rules and regularities from one context can be applied to another and whether the complex web of social, cultural and rhetorical genre features can be explicated in a way that can be useful to learners. Freedman furthermore argues that genre knowledge can be acquired tacitly as students are exposed to specific genres through reading and writing.

The above exposition illustrates that the three genre schools offer different theoretical definitions of the concept of genre. Another difference arises when it comes to the operationalisation of genre knowledge. Whereas some scholars see genre mainly as a social phenomenon dealing with the conventional staging of content and conscious structuring of whole texts, others see genre as a communicatively motivated, cognitive phenomenon. Bruce (2015: 62) writes that while ‘some focus on the socially constructed elements of genre in terms of social actions […] or conventionalised texts and their content organization […] others define genres in terms of more general, rhetorical categories such as argument, explanation, recount and report.’ Leaving aside the first group, which as Hyland noted, had a negligible pedagogical impact on L2 writing instruction, two broad approaches to genre analysis emerge. The first are those who, like Swales (1990), focus on conventionalised texts and their content organization in particular patterns. The second are those who define genre in terms of text types, or more fundamental ways of organising texts as in to discuss (argumentative text type), to explain (expository text type), to describe (descriptive text type) etc. Text types are conventional ways of organising texts which do not relate to specific contexts in time and space, whereas genres are defined and named by the function they have in specific contexts and within time and space.

Paltridge (2002: 73-74) similarly draws a distinction between genre and text type, noting that external criteria such as target audience, context and conventions characterise genre, whilst internal, content-based and rhetorical criteria characterise text types. Similarly,
Pilegaard and Frandsen (1996) draw a distinction between *text genres* and *text types*. As examples of text genres they list novels, instructions, newspaper editorials, legal text or business letters, and as examples of text types they list narrative, expository, descriptive, argumentative and instructional text types. Finally, Newell et al. (2011: 277) in the article ‘Teaching and Learning Argumentative Reading and Writing: A Review of Research’ point out that argumentative writing research is often split into either a cognitive or a social perspective. They furthermore posit that each perspective has its own distinctive logics, but for a complete picture to emerge one has to combine the ‘study of argument as cognition with argument as a set of social practices.’ The following sections will examine these two perspectives in more detail.

### 3.2. Genre as Social Practice

#### 3.2.1. Schematic Structure

As previously mentioned, within ESP the teaching of genre is a practical, means-based activity tied to context and the purpose of communication. A typical expression is the focus on content schemata, or the recognised staging of content in texts in the form of schematic structure or moves and steps. This structuring of content is usually relatively specific and this ‘socially recognized staging of the content of a genre is identified in terms of moves and steps, which are discussed in relation to those linguistic features which are commonly employed for the realization’ (Bruce 2008a: 34). A move can be defined as a particular rhetorical or linguistic pattern, stage or structure conventionally found in a segment of text and which relates to a specific communicative purpose. A move can range from being a clause, a sentence, a paragraph or even several paragraphs. A step, on the other hand, is a strategy or technique the writer uses to realize the purpose of a move.

A key figure of move-step analysis is John Swales, whose book *Genre Analysis* has had a considerable effect on language teaching and writing pedagogy after its publication. In the book, Swales (1990: 58) offered this definition of genre:

> A genre comprises a class of communicative events, the members of which share some set of communicative purposes. These purposes are recognized by the expert members of the parent discourse community, and thereby constitute the rationale
for the genre. This rationale shapes the schematic structure of the discourse and influences and constrains choice of content and style.

In a later work, *Research Genres* (2004), Swales adapted this definition. He no longer defined genres as communicative events, but as frames:

[G]enres are seen metaphorically as *frames* for social action, not as social actions themselves. (...). The frame is a starting place, an initial orientation, with no consequent guarantee that effective rhetorical action will actually be accomplished (...). As a result, genre knowledge is often a necessary but never a sufficient condition for discoursal success (Swales 2004: 61-62).

This definition is, in my opinion, more succinct than the first one for two reasons. Firstly, it emphasises that genres are frames, and secondly, it highlights that genre knowledge is not sufficient in itself for discoursal success. In other words, there is more to realising genres than following the norms and confirming to appropriate social practices. In my opinion, this also points towards the necessity for genre analysts to also study the more cognitively oriented processes of writing. Nevertheless, for now we will consider Swales’ (1990) proposed model of genre analysis which consists of identifying moves and a number of steps to express each move.
His highly influential CARS-model (Creating a Research Space) suggests a three-move structure for the introduction of research articles:

Table 1. Swales’ CARS-model

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Move 1: Establishing a Territory</th>
<th></th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Step 1: Claiming Centrality</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Step 2: Making Topic Generalisations</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Step 3: Reviewing Items of Previous Research</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Move 2: Establishing a Niche</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Step 1A: Counter-claiming</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Step 1B: Indicating a Gap</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Step 1C: Question Raising</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Step 1D: Continuing a Tradition</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Move 3: Occupying the Niche</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Step 1A: Outlining Purposes</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Step 1B: Announcing Present Research</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Step 2: Announcing Principal Findings</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Step 3: Indicating Research Article Structure</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Swales is not the only scholar to have described the patterns of genre through move-step analysis. Numerous other studies have highlighted that there is a conventional organisational structure across texts within a given genre (Bhatia 1993, see also Bruce 2008a: 33 and Dudley-Evans 2000: 6). Nevertheless, some scholars take exception to the idea that texts can be assigned to specific genres based on the schematic structuring of content. Paraphrasing an unpublished study by Paltridge (1993), Bruce (2008a: 25-26) criticises the notion on three accounts, two of which are relevant for this thesis. Firstly, he fears that peripheral examples of texts, as opposed to prototypical examples, will not necessarily be accommodated as there is a wide variety in any given genre when it comes to functional elements and how they are ordered. Furthermore, he questions whether a ‘criterial attribute approach to the categorization of a genre [...] may be insufficiently inclusive to categorize a range of texts within one genre’ (Bruce 2008a: 26). A final criticism is that the purported occurrence of genre-specific language within specific genres (in terms
of recurrent lexico-grammatical patterns) was not supported by evidence in Paltridge’s research. Although questioning the value of systematic functional approach to genre in general, Bruce (2008a: 26) nonetheless concedes that it may be useful in categorizing discourse involving interpersonal transaction, or in other words, the more socially-oriented aspects of writing such as negotiation between writer and audience or the staging of content. On a similar note, Dudley-Evans (2000: 7, 2013: 134) has pointed out that genre analysis has moved on since the early move-step analyses. He notes a dual development where one tendency has been to focus on the concept of discourse community and actual practices, whilst the other tendency has been a detailed analysis of specific language features used in various genres such as phraseology, reporting verbs or metadiscourse. It is to this latest concept we now turn.

3.2.2. Writer Stance
Writers use language purposefully to present their selves, their work and to negotiate social relations with readers. This can be seen through the lens of metadiscourse, or the assumption that written communication is a form of social engagement. Writers situate themselves and their readers in texts in specific social contexts: By setting out ideas in ways the readers are likely to accept, conveying an appropriate writer personality, and engaging with them in appropriate ways, the social interactions that make texts effective may arise. More specifically, Hyland (2010: 125) defines metadiscourse as a ‘set of features which together help explain the working of interactions between text producers and their texts and between text producers and users.’ The focus is on the interaction and negotiation between writer and audience. Hyland (2010: 126) furthermore argues that the term metadiscourse has outgrown its first characterisation as ‘discourse about discourse’ and is now come to be seen as an overarching term for the devices writers can use to explicitly structure their writing, indicate their attitudes to both their material and their audience and to engage their readers.

Writers can draw on a range of metadiscoursal features which Hyland, for analytical purposes, divides into two: Interactive resources and interactional resources. This distinction is based on the notion that ‘statements simultaneously have an orientation to the world outside the text and an orientation to the reader’s understanding of that world through the
text itself’ (Hyland 2010: 127). Conveying information about the world is not the only purpose of language, it is also to present this information to others through the organisation of the text itself. The interactive resources let the writer organise the information flow in the manner and order her or she wants, and include the following resources:

TRANSITIONS comprise an array of devices, mainly conjunctions, used to mark additive, contrastive, and consequential steps in the discourse, as opposed to the external world. FRAME MARKERS are references to text boundaries or elements of schematic text structure, including items used to sequence, to label text stages, to announce discourse goals and to indicate topic shifts. ENDOPHORIC MARKERS make additional material salient and available to the reader in recovering the writer’s intentions by referring to other parts of the text. EVIDENTIALS indicate the source of textual information which originates outside the current text. CODE GLOSSES signal the restatement of ideational information (Hyland 2010: 128).

Interactional resources focus on the participants of the interaction, and allow the writer to undertake a particular writer stance and/or follow the communicative norms for any given setting. These include the following resources:

HEDGES mark the writer’s reluctance to present propositional information categorically. BOOSTERS express certainty and emphasise the force of propositions. ATTITUDE MARKERS express the writer’s appraisal of propositional information, conveying surprise, obligation, agreement, importance, and so on. ENGAGEMENT MARKERS explicitly address readers, either by selectively focusing their attention or by including them as participants in the text through second person pronouns, imperatives, question forms and asides [...]. SELF MENTIONS suggest the extent of author presence in terms of first person pronouns and possessives (Hyland 2010: 129).
Table 2. Hyland’s model of metadiscourse

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>CATEGORY</th>
<th>FUNCTION</th>
<th>EXAMPLES</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Interactive</td>
<td>Help to guide reader through text</td>
<td>Resources</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Transitions</td>
<td>express semantic relation between main clauses</td>
<td>in addition / but / thus / and</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Frame markers</td>
<td>refer to discourse acts, sequences, or text stages</td>
<td>finally / to conclude / my purpose is</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Endophoric markers</td>
<td>refer to information in other parts of the text</td>
<td>noted above / see Fig / in section 2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Evidentials</td>
<td>refer to source of information from other texts</td>
<td>according to X / (Y, 1990) / Z states</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Code glosses</td>
<td>help readers grasp meanings of ideational material</td>
<td>namely / e.g. / such as / in other words</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Interactional</th>
<th>Involve the reader in the argument</th>
<th>Resources</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Hedges</td>
<td>withhold writer’s full commitment to proposition</td>
<td>might / perhaps / possible / about</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Boosters</td>
<td>emphasise force or writer’s certainty in proposition</td>
<td>in fact / definitely / it is clear that</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Attitude markers</td>
<td>express writer’s attitude to pro-position</td>
<td>unfortunately / I agree / surprisingly</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Engagement markers</td>
<td>explicitly refer to or build relationship with reader</td>
<td>consider / note that / you can see that</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Self mentions</td>
<td>explicit reference to author(s)</td>
<td>I / we / my / our</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Hyland 2010: 128-129

Hyland (2005) has also provided an extensive list of items potentially realising metadiscoursal functions in the appendix to his book *Metadiscourse: Exploring Interaction in Writing*. The analysis in this study will use this list as its starting point.

3.3. Genre as Cognitive Process

3.3.1. Rhetorical Purpose

Scholars such as Werlich (1976), Winter (1977), Hoey (1983), Tirkkonen-Condit (1985), Biber (1989) and Adam (1992) have all delivered important contributions to the study of basic compositional patterns of texts. The classical reference point concerning text types is Werlich’s (1976) distinction of five basic text types, namely description, narration, exposition, argumentation and instruction. Werlich operates with simple types of sentences that are expanded to text types through different types of cohesive mechanisms. Hence,
delineations are primarily based on text internal criteria. Later scholars have argued that Werlich’s approach misses an important dimension due to its singular focus on text-internal aspects (Fløttum 1998: 62, Breivega and Johansen 2016: 55). As Breivega and Johansen point out, text types are more than just cohesive mechanisms. In the narrative text type, complications arise which must be solved; in the argumentative text type, problems must be identified and solved; point of views have to be stated. Although Werlich’s theory today is seen as too simple, his typology of five different text types finds much support within linguistic research (Frandsen 1995: 15).

Another scholar, Biber (1989), performed an extensive corpus study of texts and found that particular lexical and syntactic features frequently co-occurred in texts and that they reflected common communicative functions. Based on these findings he proposes eight different text types. Of specific interest to my study are the two of the three expository text types he identified: ‘Scientific exposition […] which is extremely informational, elaborated in reference, and technical and abstract in style and content; Learned exposition […] which is similar to Scientific exposition except that it is markedly less abstract and less technical in style (Biber 1989: 38). The criteria for distinguishing between different text types are the presence or absence of elements of structure or types of sentences, clauses, or words. Biber (1989: 39) furthermore argues that ‘text types […] are defined on the basis of strictly linguistic criteria (similarities in the use of co-occurring linguistic features).’ Furthermore, he draws a distinction between genre and text types by arguing that ‘genres are defined and distinguished on the basis of systematic non-linguistic criteria, and they are valid in those terms’ (Biber 1989: 39).

Quinn (1993: 33), when developing a framework for an EAP style curriculum, found that authentic whole texts are often mixtures of different text types. Working from a premise that text types are ‘based on family resemblances or similarities and differences within each family’ (Quinn 1993: 35), he proposes that the main criteria for identifying these text types are purpose and staging. To assess family differences, Quinn (1993: 35) studies the ‘textual choices made concerning modality, modulation, tense, articles, theme-rheme organisation, voice, agency and lexis’. The result is a taxonomy of four different text types: Reports, explanations, discussions and recounts.
The French linguist Jean Michel Adam has also made important contributions to the study of text types. Unfortunately, his works have not been translated from French so the following exposition will rest on secondary sources. Adam hypotheses about the sequential structures of texts and about the existence of certain prototypical sequential schemas. The five types of text sequences - a term he prefers to ‘text types’ – are narrative, descriptive, argumentative, explicative and dialogic (Fløttum 1995: 66). He sees a close relationship between these elementary types and textual heterogeneity, and points out that whole texts can consist of one or more sequence types in different relationships.

**Table 3. Text type categorisations**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Werlich</th>
<th>Biber</th>
<th>Quinn</th>
<th>Adam</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Description</td>
<td>Intimate interpersonal interaction</td>
<td>Reports</td>
<td>Narrative</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Narration</td>
<td>Informational interaction</td>
<td>Explanations</td>
<td>Descriptive</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Exposition</td>
<td>Scientific exposition</td>
<td>Discussions</td>
<td>Argumentative</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Argumentation</td>
<td>Learned exposition</td>
<td>Recounts</td>
<td>Explicative</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Instruction</td>
<td>Imaginative narrative</td>
<td></td>
<td>Dialogic</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>General narrative exposition</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Situated reportage</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Involved persuasion</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The above exposition has illustrated that although scholars categorise text types differently, it is generally accepted that text types can be defined as conventional ways of organising text segments for a particular rhetorical purpose (e.g. to explain, to discuss) and which do not relate to specific contexts in time and space. Another commonality is that text types do not refer to whole texts, but rather to principles of organising text at a part level. Whole texts (i.e. genres) are usually a synthesis of several different text types (Fløttum 1995, Breivega and Johansen 2016, Bruce 2016). Breivega and Johansen (2016: 57) state that in most realised texts within different genres, the distribution of text types can be quite complex. For instance, one specific textual pattern can be repeated more than once within the same text. Secondly, whole texts are heterogeneous in the sense that they can encompass different text types, for example the narrative, the argumentative and the descriptive. Whole texts are usually characterised by the interaction and interplay of different text types. Similarly, Pilegaard and Frandsen (1996: 3) point out that ‘the criteria defining texts as text types will usually apply only to text parts (or text sequences…) whereas
the criteria defining text as text genres will commonly apply only to whole texts, i.e. except cases where one text genre is embedded within another genre.’

As we have seen, scholars in general agree that text types can be defined as conventional ways of organising text segments for a particular rhetorical purpose and which do not relate to specific contexts in time and space. Furthermore, there seems to be a general understanding that the number of different text types in written discourse are limited to between four and eight. Nevertheless, few studies have concentrated on operationalising these theoretical constructs and using them for concrete text analysis. Three exceptions are Bruce (2008a, 2008b, 2010 and 2015), Tirkkonen-Condit (1985) and Breivega (2003). Bruce has proposed a genre model which incorporates both the social practices and cognitive processes, and Tirkkonen-Condit and Breivega have used a specific discourse pattern (Problem-Solution) to analyse argumentative texts. These will be explored in the following two subchapters.

3.4. The Social Genre/Cognitive Genre Model
Noting a lack of conceptual stringency among genre theorists, Bruce (2015: 163) tries to tie different approaches together by developing a dual approach where ‘both the socially-constructed and the more general, rhetorical and linguistic elements of genre knowledge’ is present. He proposes the following definitions:

Social genre – refers to socially recognized constructs according to which whole texts are classified in terms of their overall social purpose... such as, for example, a novel, a short, a newspaper editorial.

Cognitive genre – refers to the overall cognitive orientation and internal organization of a segment of writing that aims to achieve one particular rhetorical purpose [such as] to explain a process, to argue a point of view, or to recount a sequence of events.

Using these definitions as a point of departure, Bruce develops a highly detailed framework for performing genre analysis of academic discourse. It is outside the scope of this thesis to give a comprehensive account of the model, but those aspects that are relevant to my
framework will be explained in more detail. The model includes context, epistemology, writer stance, schematic structure and the use of cognitive genres:

Table 4. Bruce’s framework for analysing social genres

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Types of knowledge</th>
<th>Research questions relating to</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Overall context</td>
<td>Specialised subject knowledge relating to concepts and activities; parallel specialized linguistic knowledge such as technical vocabulary</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Epistemology</td>
<td>Disciplinary approaches to and values concerning knowledge, its formation and use</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Writer stance</td>
<td>Attitudinal features of language related to addressing and appealing to the audience</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Schematic structure</td>
<td>Conventionalized patterns for staging of certain types of content</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Use of cognitive genres</td>
<td>Cognitive patterns of textual organization</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(Bruce 2008: 141)

Whereas whole authentic texts are examples of social genres, the realisation of different cognitive genres take place on a part level. Put differently, cognitive genres are segments of text realising a single rhetorical purpose within a larger text. The cognitive genre model includes gestalt patterns employed in the higher-level organization of ideas; general text-organizing patterns (e.g. Problem-Solution) and relations between propositions. The model is presented below:
Table 5. Bruce’s cognitive genre model

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table 5. Bruce’s cognitive genre model</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Report: Static descriptive presentation</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rhetorical focus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gestalt structure</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Discourse pattern</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Interpropositional relations</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Explanation: means-focused presentation</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rhetorical focus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gestalt structure</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Discourse pattern</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Interpropositional relations</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Discussion: choice/outcome-focused presentation</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rhetorical focus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gestalt structure</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Discourse pattern</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Interpropositional relations</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Recount: sequential presentation</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rhetorical focus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gestalt structure</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Discourse pattern</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Interpropositional relations</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Bruce also suggests that the analysis of cognitive genres should incorporate the principle of prototypicality, i.e. texts may vary in their conformity to the expected norms. A text that conforms closely to the characteristics of the model is a prototypical instantiation, and a text which uses fewer elements of the model is a more peripheral instantiation (Bruce 2015: 165). Bruce has used the model to study university essays in sociology and English literature from a variety of angles (2008a, 2008b, 2010, 2015 and 2016). Overall, he has found the model useful for genre analysis. One of his more specific finding has been that ‘cognitive genres operate as prototypical text-organizing patterns, embedded within social genres across disciplines’ (Bruce 2015: 163). This corroborates the claim that text types do not relate to specific contexts in time and space (see Chapter 1).
3.5. The Problem-Solution Pattern
The Problem-Solution pattern is a specific discourse structure which has been recognized by linguists since the 1960s (Hoey 1994: 26-27). In this study, the term discourse will refer to the examination of the relationship between a text and the situation in which it occurs. The focus is thus on language ‘beyond the sentence’ (McCarthy 2013: 49). Hoey himself did not tie the Problem-Solution pattern to a particular text type but presented it as a basic principle for organising texts and showed how it was realised in a number of different texts such as fairy tales, scientific articles and advertisements (Breivega 2003: 120-121). Other scholars such as Tirkkonen-Condit (1985), McCarthy (1991), Bruce (2008a, 2008b, 2010, 2015), Breivega (2003), and Breivega and Johansen (2016) have showed its relevance for argumentative texts.

The Problem-Solution pattern is organized around four components. The first is a situation, which describes facts and objective circumstances. The second is a problem, which introduces a problematic aspect of the situation. The third is a response or solution\(^{16}\), which either explains how the problem has been resolved or puts forward suggestions and recommendations. The final component is an evaluation and/or a result, which evaluates and assesses the solution proposed. Hoey (1994: 28) outlined the pattern by the following concocted example sentences:

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{SITUATION} & \quad (A) \text{ I was on sentry duty} \\
\text{PROBLEM} & \quad (B) \text{ I saw the enemy approaching} \\
\text{SOLUTION} & \quad (C) \text{ I opened fire} \\
\text{EVALUATION} & \quad (D) \text{ I beat off the attack}
\end{align*}
\]

Each of these components are rhetorical-functional categories which describes what function a segment of text plays within the text as a whole or within the different part level texts.

Building on work by Winter (1977), Hoey (1994) argues that the Problem-Solution pattern can be signalled in two different ways: Either through identifying appropriate lexical signals

\(^{16}\) For the sake of consistency, I will use the term ‘response’ throughout this thesis. Response is a wider and more open-ended term than solution, and hence, one I find more suitable for this study.
or by projecting the text into question-answer dialogue. Concerning lexical signals, one can study explicit surface signals in the form of particular conjuncts and subordinators, lexical items (e.g. the word cause implying a causal relation) or verb tenses (e.g. the verb form for Situation would be one that indicated a period of time rather than a point in time). McCarthy similarly argues that particular words, or what he terms ‘discourse organisers’, may help to realise the Problem-Solution pattern. He argues that specific vocabulary items typically cluster round the elements of larger patterns in texts and lists the following:

**Table 6. Vocabulary items for PS-pattern**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Component</th>
<th>Vocabulary item</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Problem</td>
<td>concern, difficulty, dilemma, drawback, hamper, hind(er/ance), obstacle, problem, snag</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Response</td>
<td>change, combat (vb), come up with, develop, find, measure(s), respon(d/se)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Solution/result</td>
<td>answer, consequence, effect, outcome, result, solution, (re)solve</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Evaluation</td>
<td>(in)effective, manage, overcome, succeed, (un)successful, viable, work (vb)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(McCarthy 1991: 79)

The words can ‘create links across sentence boundaries and pair and chain together items that are related’ (McCarthy 1991: 27). For example, the inclusion of the verb phrase ‘come up with’ in a segment of text may signal a Response. However, such surface markers are not necessarily present in texts. Hoey and McCarthy agree that where such explicit markers do not exist, readers must interpret and make inferences to make sense of a text. Hoey argues that the preferable way of eliciting the PS-pattern is by the reader entering into a dialogue with the text. By paraphrasing and asking questions of the text, the reader can decide whether a specific text segment conforms to the pattern.
To concretise, Hoey (1994: 30) projects the example text above into dialogue:

**A:** *What was the situation?*
**B:** I was on sentry duty.

**A:** *What was the problem?*
**B:** I saw the enemy approaching.

**A:** *What was your solution?*
**B:** I opened fire.

**A:** *What was the result?*

and

*How successful was this?*

**B:** I beat off the enemy attack.

The component Situation is typically used to answer questions such as ‘When and in what situation?’ Sentence B may also be understood as depicting a situation, but only A has the exclusive function of Situation in this text. Even though B describes aspects of a situation, in this sentence the function is that of signalling ‘the Aspect of Situation requiring a response’ (Hoey 1994: 31). Furthermore, Hoey (1983: 57-58) demands that the Response must include ‘the role of an agent’. Finally, he states that the last sentence involves a conflation of two questions, namely ‘What was the result?’ and ‘How successful was this?’ (Hoey 1994: 30-31). This sentence states both the result and an evaluation of it and can therefore be said to constitute the component Evaluation.

Studying clause relations between sentences can also help identify the Problem-Solution pattern. Winter (1977) suggests that the moment two sentences are placed together for communicative purposes, they enter into a special relation in which the understanding of the one sentence in some way depends on the understanding of the other sentences in the paragraph. He defines clause relations as ‘the cognitive process whereby we interpret the meaning of a sentence or group of sentences in the light of its adjoining sentence or group of sentence’ (Winter 1977: 2). He furthermore argues that a sentence can be interpreted in the light of another in two different ways. The first is the Matching Relations where things, actions, people, etc. are matched for same (similar) or different. The second is the Logical
Sequence Relation where we observe a change in time/space (Winter 1977: 6). Winter furthermore identifies certain nouns, verbs, adjectives and adverbs that helps to signal the relationship of ideas. For example, he argues that words such as effects, results, and differences lead the reader to anticipate upcoming clause relations and therefore how ideas relate to each other. At the same time, Winter underlines that these signalling words are optional. The clause relation exists whether or not it is explicitly signalled. In other words, it is essential in writing to have an underlying logic of ideas that readers can easily recognise. Some typical logical sequence relations are phenomenon-reason, instrument-achievement and cause-consequence. The table below summarises the main clause relations:

Table 7. Clause relations

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Matching relation</th>
<th>Sub-types</th>
<th>Relationship of ideas</th>
<th>Examples</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Compare</td>
<td>What is true of X is true of Y.</td>
<td>Mortgage rates fluctuated throughout the year in U.K. This was seen in New Zealand and Australia also.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Contrast</td>
<td>What is true of X is not true of Y.</td>
<td>People with large mortgages will feel the effect immediately. Those with small mortgages will experience little effect in the short term.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hypothetical-Real</td>
<td>X is not true. Y is true.</td>
<td>Many believe that house ownership is a secure form of investment. In fact, it is little more secure than other forms of investment.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Logical Sequence Relation</th>
<th>Sub-types</th>
<th>Relationship of ideas</th>
<th>Examples</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Cause-Consequence</td>
<td>Y is the consequence of X.</td>
<td>Mortgage rates are expected to remain high throughout the year and the number of new mortgages is expected to drop to pre-1999 figures.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Phenomenon-Reason</td>
<td>Y provides a reason for X.</td>
<td>The stress is documentary and rightly so. Arty photographs are a bore.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Instrument-Achievement</td>
<td>By doing X, Y occurs.</td>
<td>Take out a 'fast-track' repayment scheme. This way you can greatly reduce the amount of interest you pay to the bank.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Clause relations can in turn work together to realise the Problem-Solution pattern. For example, Logical Sequence relations (e.g. cause-consequence and means-result) indicate the realisation of either a Problem or Response component. Matching Relations, on the other hand, may indicate the realisation of a Situation component. This illustrates that typical clause relations patterns in argumentative text segments will be Logical Sequence relations.
In contrast, descriptive text segments will be more oriented towards organising propositional content in the form of Matching Relations.

To sum up, numerous scholars have argued for the existence of the Problem-Solution pattern in different types of text. The pattern consists of the four rhetorical-functional components of Situation, Problem, Response and Evaluation and each component comprises a textual chunk whose size may range from a single word, to a clause, to a sentence or finally to a paragraph. The pattern can be identified by explicit signalling in the form of particular lexical items and ‘discourse organisers’, or, where these do not exist, by the reader interpreting relations between different text segments. The latter is a cognitive process that entails the reader asking questions of the text as it unfolds. In this sense, ‘reading the text is like a dialogue with the author, and the processing of two segments could be seen as analogous to the creation of an exchange in spoken discourse’ (McCarthy 1991: 28).

3.6. The Wheel of Writing
The Wheel of Writing is a model of the writing domain for the teaching and assessing of writing as a key competence in the Norwegian school system. The implementation of LK06 also saw the introduction of national tests in writing to assess the quality of writing in primary education. In conjunction with the developments of the tests, a group of professors developed the model. The Wheel of Writing focus on intentionalities of writing, namely acts and purposes. The model consists of three circles; an outer circle that highlights that writing is an activity where the writer tries to express himself through different acts. For example, when exploring something, one tries to investigate, compare, analyse, discuss, interpret, explain and reason in a broad and substantial manner as possible. A discussion of Britain’s role in the post-war world can be a typical example of an exploration in the Social Studies English course.
Figure 1. The Wheel of Writing (Berge et al. 2016: 180)

The first encapsulated circle highlights that writing is a purposeful activity. The purpose of writing can be to develop knowledge, create a textual world, persuade and so on. For example, when discussing Britain’s role in the world, one purpose can be to organise and systematise the knowledge the writer has about said phenomenon.

The innermost circle highlights that writing is the creation of meaning through the help of a specific technology. Writing is the creation of texts by expressing oneself through a written language system and through multimodal resources. As the use of various semiotic tools fall outside the scope of this thesis, this circle will not be examined closer.

Altogether, the model defines six different writing acts and six different writing purposes, ‘which in a default situation correlate with each other as shown in the figure’ (Berge et al. 2016: 181). The authors underscore that the Norwegian curriculum is defined as knowledge based and that writing should relate to the kinds that characterise different subjects such as history, social science and geography: ‘The Wheel of Writing should, therefore, be used to develop clear understandings of which writing acts focus on knowledge relevant in a specific school subject’ (Berge et al. 2016: 181).
Concerning the Social Studies English exam, I would argue that the most salient purposes of writing are knowledge development, as well as knowledge organisation and storing; and that the most salient acts of writing are to explore and to describe. These purposes and writing acts are it-oriented, or in other words, oriented towards a phenomenon or subject, as is the case for the exam tasks in Social Studies English. Berge et al. (2016: 182) state the following about writing to explore:

'[T]he purpose is to write in such a way that evidence and assumptions about the same subject matter are critically examined. In this way, we may discuss and assess what the most valid interpretation of a phenomenon is [...] It is supposed to be valued in schools by developing students’ critical awareness and attitudes towards knowledge, placing different understandings against each other.'

Finally, Berge et al. (2016: 184-185) assert that the model is not ‘anchored in any form of genre concepts or genre pedagogy’. Formal features or indicators of textual and/or linguistic form should not be the yardstick for writing or assessment of writing. Rather, one should look at whether a text can be considered as a relevant representation of a particular writing act and its purpose. Although the authors themselves do not use the term text types, there are conceptual overlaps between the model and text types: Firstly, acts of writing are defined in similar terms as text types (e.g. to explore, to imagine, to convince, to describe etc.), and secondly, different acts of writing can be employed within one text. This is similar to text type theory which holds that whole texts are heterogenous and that different text types can be realised within one genre.
4. Methods
The present chapter accounts for the research design and the framework for genre analysis. The chapter also explains the approaches for data collection and then discusses validity, reliability and ethical concerns. Methodological concerns are discussed throughout the chapter.

4.1. Research Design
The thesis seeks to explore to what extent Social Studies English written exam answers (Task 2, the long answer) conform to genre norms. The research design is a mix of qualitative and quantitative methods, or what some researchers label ‘mixed methods design’ (Cresswell 2014: 564-565). The assumption is that the combination of methods will allow for ‘a better understanding of the research problem and question than either method by itself.’ The study is qualitatively oriented as it explores a problem and tries to develop a detailed understanding of a central phenomenon, collects data based on a small number of individuals, and analyses documents using an interpretative framework of text analysis. At the same time, the study is quantitatively oriented as it collects numeric data using a pre-made framework of analysis (i.e. ‘instrument’) and seeks out trends between variables (Creswell 2014: 27-30).

4.2. Framework for Genre Analysis
Initially, I had hoped to apply Bruce’s social genre/cognitive genre model (see Chapter 3.4) in my study, but a preliminary analysis of two authentic exam essays I had at my disposal revealed difficulties regarding the use of the cognitive genre model. I contacted Bruce per email, who on his own initiative analysed the exam essays. Finding only two instances of cognitive genres in one of the essays (one Report and one Recount), he replied that in his mind the level of writing was not sufficiently advanced for the cognitive genre model to be applicable for analysis.17 Although the students made fairly clear points at sentence level, they tended to be moving from point to point rather quickly, which in turn does not allow for advanced rhetorical development. He also highlighted that the writers’ discourse competence was still developing at the level of cohesion and coherence, and that although

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17 Personal communication, June 2018.
the texts were physically laid out in paragraphs, the sentences did not always rhetorically connect. In comparison, he has applied the social genre/cognitive genre model to published studies from the British Academic Written English (BAWE) Corpus\(^\text{18}\), which aims to be representative of university assignment writing and which furthermore had achieved grades of either merit or distinction. The corpus texts had also been carefully selected by the corpus builders as examples of highly proficient student writing. I will in the following section propose a framework for genre analysis that is similarly structured to Bruce’s model, but significantly less advanced when it comes to the cognitive genre elements.

As stated in the introduction, genre can be defined as the overall realisation of a text. Whole texts realising different genres typically combine and frame a range of different text types. For any genre to be realised, writers have to conform to particular social practices and master certain cognitive processes. For analytical purposes, I have divided the social practises into two sub-categories: schematic structure and writer stance, whereas the cognitive processes find their expression in the use of a given rhetorical purpose. Taken together, the categories constitute the overall realisation of a given genre. In the figure below, the outer circle represents the overall realisation of a text (genre), whereas the stippled circle represents the part level realisation of a text (text type).

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\(^{18}\) The British Academic Written English (BAWE) corpus was created through a project entitled ‘An investigation of genres of assessed writing in British Higher Education’ from 2004–2007, and consists of 2761 pieces of student writing. Source: [https://www2.warwick.ac.uk/fac/soc/ai/research/collections/bawe/](https://www2.warwick.ac.uk/fac/soc/ai/research/collections/bawe/)
The framework for genre analysis I am proposing will consist of three elements: The first is schematic structure in the form of moves and steps. These find their expression first and foremost in the introduction and conclusion of the texts. Introductions and conclusions are relatively conventionalised and often follow set patterns for the staging of content. The second element is writer stance and the use of metadiscoursal resources. These find their expression throughout the texts. The final element is the rhetorical purpose and the use of text types. These find their expression in the body section of the texts. Overall, it is hoped that this analysis can gauge both the socially oriented practices and the cognitively oriented processes inherent in essay writing.

4.2.1. Schematic structure
Concerning schematic structure, I propose a model where the introduction of the exam essays can consist of three moves for the staging of content. Separating the introduction into three different parts is fairly conventional. I have opted to label these three moves Hook, Context and Outline. The Hook move tries to attain the reader’s attention through the use of anecdotes, questions or quotes, and if present, is found in the opening sentence(s) of the essay. The two other moves, if present, are usually also found within the opening paragraph. The Context move introduces the topic and can be realised by steps such as giving a historical overview of the issue or problem which the text deals with (historical); defining important terms and concepts in the essay prompt (textual); or using current or contemporary information as a point of departure (topical). Finally, the Outline move maps the structure of the essay, either implicitly through posing one or more essay questions (which are then presumably sought answered in the body of the essay) and/or explicitly through a detailed overview of how the different parts of the essay are structured.

19 For example, the writing courses in the textbooks Access to English (Anthony, Burgess and Mikkelsen 2014) and New Reflections (Haugen et al. 2013) classify the introduction in three different parts.
The move-step model for introductions is presented below:

Table 8. Move-step model for essay introductions

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Move 1: Hook</th>
<th>Move 2: Context</th>
<th>Move 3: Outline</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Attaining interest</td>
<td>Introducing the topic</td>
<td>Mapping the structure</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Step 1: Quote and/or</td>
<td>Step 1: Historical and/or</td>
<td>Step 1: Posing essay question(s) and/or</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Step 2: Anecdote and/or</td>
<td>Step 2: Textual and/or</td>
<td>Step 2: Indicating essay structure</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Step 3: Question</td>
<td>Step 3: Topical</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As for essay conclusions, I propose a model of two moves for the staging of content. The first move is *Consolidation*, or in other words, providing a summary of the most important points discussed in the essay. The second move is *Embedment*, or in other words trying to link the content to the wider world and taking the conclusion a step further than just summing up the main points. Thus, embedment is more adventurous than consolidation as it seeks not only to sum up the main points, but also to synthesise the content. Potential strategies could be providing a personal reflection on the topic; appealing to the reader for help or calling for action; contextualising the topic; or considering the wider implications of the argument put forward.
The move-step model for conclusions is presented below:

### Table 9. Move-step model for essay conclusions

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Move 1:</th>
<th>Consolidation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Step 1:</td>
<td>Summarising content</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Move 2:</th>
<th>Embedment</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Step 1A:</td>
<td>Providing a personal reflection or</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Step 1B:</td>
<td>Appealing to reader or</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Step 1C:</td>
<td>Contextualising topic or</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Step 1D:</td>
<td>Considering implications</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In my analysis, I have sought to match segments of text from the introductions and conclusions to the different moves and steps outlined above. The emphasis has been on the higher-level, more general content structures in the form of moves, rather than the more specific content schema of steps. The reason is that ‘with an increased specificity on focus will come greater variation of organizational choices and, thus, greater difficulty in establishing generalizable patterns’ (Bruce 2008: 139).

### 4.2.2. Writer Stance

As previously mentioned, writers use language purposefully to present their selves, their work and to negotiate social relations with readers. Taken together, these features constitute what can be termed ‘writer stance’. Writer stance can in turn be realised by various metadiscoursal functions (see Chapter 3.2.2). Using Hyland’s word list as a point of departure, I manually searched all the sample texts for metadiscoursal items.20 All instances of metadiscourse have been underlined in the marked-up texts (see Appendix 4). It should be underlined that for an item to qualify as metadiscourse it has to have a ‘text-external’ function rather than a ‘text-internal’ function. The difference between these two terms is that the first refer to the reality denoted by propositions whereas the latter refers to the propositions themselves. Conjunctions, for example, ‘must mark transitions in the argument,

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20 See Chapter 3.2.2. It should be noted that Hyland’s word list is not necessarily comprehensive. Other words and expressions could have similar metadiscoursal functions.
rather than linking events in the world beyond the text’ (Hyland 2010: 132). Hyland illustrates with the following examples:

(1) The next question I want to examine is the relationship between the teacher’s language proficiency and teaching effectiveness. [...].

(2) In the next step, this residual signal is reconstructed by adding the same prediction as was subtracted earlier in the encoding process. [...]

The transition in (1) qualifies as metadiscourse as it is used to link a sequence in the argument, whereas (2) is disqualified as it is used to express a relation between processes. Hyland also provides similar examples for frame markers and hedges in the form of modals (e.g. might and possible) but these are omitted in this section for the sake of brevity. The point is that simply counting the frequency of any of the items in Hyland’s word list is not sufficient, the researcher must ensure that each item is also performing metadiscoursal functions. I have therefore manually analysed all texts to ensure all items have a ‘text external’ function, i.e. that they are instances of metadiscourse.

4.2.3. Rhetorical Purpose

Chapter 3.3 illustrated that although there seems to be consensus as to how text types should be defined theoretically, few studies have sought to operationalise the term for analytical purposes.21 The following section will present my framework for analysis of text types. As was shown in Chapter 2, the exam prompts in Social Studies English unanimously instruct students to discuss phenomena such for example as the role of US in international society or the consequences Brexit has had on British domestic politics. In the same chapter I suggested that the command term ‘discuss’ implies giving a thorough, comprehensive and balanced treatment of a topic, taking into account different facts, ideas and opinions, and where all opinions and conclusions should be supported by appropriate evidence. Finally, the ‘expository essay’ is characterised by an interaction of explanation and argumentation. Bearing this in mind, I furthermore propose that the framework should incorporate two different text types: The first is a dynamic text type focusing on argumentation and

21 Tirkkonen-Condit (1985), Breivega (2003) and Bruce (2008a, 2008b, 2015) are some exceptions, but it should be pointed out that they have analysed more advanced texts than this study.
problematisation and which I have labelled *Argumentative text type*. The second is a static text type focusing on description which I have labelled *Descriptive text type*. The Problem-Solution pattern will be used to operationalise both text types.

As Hoey and others have demonstrated, the Problem-Solution pattern does not only apply to argumentative text types (see Chapter 3.5). The pattern is also prevalent in other texts types such as the narrative. I will argue that it is the best tool to analyse argumentative writing due to its focus on problematising situations, examining possible solutions or responses and finally evaluating outcomes – core elements in discussion. In this respect, argumentative writing can be seen as dynamic and going places. As Breivega (2003: 165-166) succinctly puts it, text segments of argumentative nature often start in an equilibrium – a ‘the world is in order’-situation – and this is how they also end, *after* having gone through complications and problems that have been solved. In contrast, descriptive text types are static and lack forward thrust in the form of causality, temporality and evaluative elements. I will argue that descriptive text segments will never depict anything else than what comprise the Situation component in the PS-pattern. Hence, text segments where the different components (i.e. Situation, Problem, Response and the non-obligatory Evaluation) work together to realise the PS-pattern will be marked as argumentative text type. Segments of texts where a Situation component stands in relative isolation and is not linked to other components will be marked as descriptive text type.

Text type analysis is a cognitive process on the part of the reader where stretches of text (i.e. segments) are matched to specific features of a construct, in this case the PS-pattern. To decide what component a specific text segment conforms to (if any), the reader can apply different strategies such as to paraphrase and/or ask questions of the text, study clause relations or search for specific words (see Chapter 3.5). I will now give a detailed account of the analysis of one segment from the sample. The table below has two columns: The right-hand column contains the unabridged text segment from the sample text in question. The left-hand column indicates via the use of brackets and the abbreviations Sit, Pro, Res and Eva where the different components start and stop.
In the example below, I have also numbered where each component begins.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Component</th>
<th>Text segment</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Sit</td>
<td>(1) Scotland have been a part of the United Kingdom since 1707. In 1997 and 2014 there were held referendum regarding Scotland’s independence, but both times Scotland chose to remain in the union. (2) One of the reasons some Scottish people voted to remain in the union, was to also remain in the EU, because of uncertainty regarding their membership if they were independent. Consequently, when the United Kingdom voted to leave the EU, (3) Nicola Sturgeon means that Brexit is a reason for Scotland to hold a new referendum regarding Scotland’s independence. (4) This shows conflicts between the countries that voted to leave the EU and those who wanted to remain in the EU. While the majority of all the British people that voted chose to leave the EU, as Martina Anderson and Alyn Smith mentions in their quotes, Scotland and Northern Ireland “voted to Remain within our family of nations”. (Text 1)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The analysis of each text starts by asking questions such as *What is the situation? What is the problem? What is the response (and who is the agent)? What is the solution and/or evaluation?* Based on these questions and their answers, I will argue that the analysis of the above segment plays out like this: Segment (1) describes facts and circumstances about Scotland’s relationship with the UK, i.e. it indicates the *Situation* component. Segment (2) introduces a problematic aspect of the situation; namely that Scotland partly voted to stay in the UK to keep close ties to the EU, but that they now have to leave the EU against their own will. This is then the *Problem* component. Segment (3) constitutes a *Response*. This component, which always comes in the form of an agent, is Nicola Sturgeon demanding a new independence referendum. Finally, we have segment (4), which is the *Evaluation*, or in this case an evaluation of the *Response*.

As stated above, lexical signalling and/or clause relations can also help to identify and classify different text types. More specifically, the components of *Problem* and *Response* can be defined on the background of logical sequence relations and specific words and/or phrases indicating transitions in argument. In the example above, the occurrence of subjunctions such as *because* and *consequently* indicate that the *Problem* component is being realised. Furthermore, we can see logical sequence relations in the form of a cause-consequence relation (because the Scottish people were uncertain what would happen if they left the UK, they voted to stay in the union) and a phenomenon-reason relation (UK voting to leave the EU should give Scotland the chance to have a new independence
referendum). In my analysis, I will primarily rely on paraphrasing and question asking, but I will also examine lexical signalling and the use of clause relations.

4.3. The Sample

The sample consists of twelve exam answers written by students that sat for the 2017 spring exam in Social Studies English. The exam was held 19th May. Locating participants and collecting the samples was a cumbersome process. Four weeks prior to the exam, I emailed around 250 upper secondary schools that offered Social Studies English in the school year 2015-16. In the email, I informed about the scope and aim of the study and requested the mail to be forwarded to the relevant teacher(s). The teachers were in turn requested to show their students a hyperlink to a Google form with information about the project and a consent form where the students could sign up for participation (see Appendix 3). It should also be noted that all students who agreed to participate took part in a prize money draw. A nominal sum was awarded by draw and paid out to three participants after the data collection was finished.

Altogether, just over 50 students signed up. On the day of the exam, I sent emails to the students politely requesting them to forward me their exam answers. This procedure was repeated twice in the course of the following four weeks. In total, I received 24 exam answers written by students from ten different schools. Considering that some of the students that signed up for participation were most likely not picked for the exam and thus were ineligible as participants, I was satisfied with the number of exam answers. As students had to volunteer and agree to be studied, the sampling method was convenience sampling, a form of non-probabilistic sampling where the researcher selects participants ‘because they are available, convenient and represent some characteristic the investigator seeks to study’ (Creswell 2014: 163). An obvious drawback with this type of sampling is that the researcher cannot with certainty say that the participants are characteristic of the population, and thus the results are not necessarily generalisable. Nevertheless, the main aim of this study is not

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22 The schools (and their email addresses) were found by manually searching through UDIR’s Statistikkportalen, https://statistikkportalen.udir.no/vgs/Pages/default.aspx
to generalise findings to a population but first and foremost to describe the characteristics of a small group of written exam answers.

When the data collection was finished, the long answer (task 2) from each of the 24 texts was copied and saved as a new Microsoft Word document. Using the assessment form in the examination guide as a guideline, I then graded and sorted the texts into three different categories. Three were rated as below average (grades 1-2), 16 as average (grades 3-4) and five as above average (grades 5-6). Two of the texts were omitted from the sample after the first grading. One text was clearly unfinished (it stopped mid-sentence after 387 words), whereas another gave a totally irrelevant answer to the essay prompt. To check for intra-rater reliability I re-graded the texts a fortnight later. Of the remaining 22 texts, 19 were given the same grade, whereas the marking of the final three texts were marginally different. The largest discrepancy was half a grade, i.e. one text was marked as 3+ the first time and 4 the second time. It should be specified that these assessments took place before the analysis of the texts. Finally, I selected twelve texts for the final analysis. I chose the four lowest-scoring texts, the four highest-scoring texts and finally four medium-scoring texts. In Appendix 4, the texts have been ordered from lowest scoring to highest scoring. The average length for the final twelve sample essays was respectively 1,009 words (mean) and 914 words (median) with a standard deviation of 315 words. The texts were then analysed according to the genre framework.

4.4. Validity and Reliability
Validity is a complex concept and the understanding of it has undergone a significant evolution during the last decades. Not only are there numerous overlapping and competing definitions, there is also the question of whether the concept applies to qualitative research, and by implication, this study. Kleven (2008: 219) notes that some authors find the concept of validity irrelevant and inappropriate for qualitative research. Rather, researchers should engage with more suitable concepts such as transferability, trustworthiness, dependability and confirmability. Creswell (2014: 283), for instance, highlights that qualitative research is interpretive and researchers should be self-reflective about their role, their interpretation of the findings and how their personal and/or political history may help to shape their understanding. Qualitative researchers use varied terms to describe the accuracy or
credibility of findings, and there are numerous strategies to validate findings such as triangulation, member checking and auditing. I will nevertheless use the term validity as I find it suitable for this study. The rest of this chapter will give an account of the theoretical evolution of the concept, examine threats to validity and discuss reliability. Finally, the chapter will discuss some implications for my study.

The complexity of the current understanding of validity can be contrasted to a more traditional and simpler view. In its simplest terms, validity can be defined as the degree to which a test measures what it is supposed to measure. The adjacent term, reliability, is to what degree the measurement is accurate and consistent. A more nuanced view divides validity into three different types: Construct validity, content validity and criterion-related validity (Brindley 2001: 138). Messick has challenged the traditional understanding of validity seen as different types, claiming that construct validity is a superior concept. He writes:

Validity is not a property of the test or assessment as such, but rather of the meaning of the test scores. Hence, what is to be validated is not the test or observation device per se but rather the inferences derived from test scores or other indicators - inferences about score meaning or interpretation and about the implications for action that the interpretation entails. (Messick 1996: 245)

This view has garnered much support within educational research over the last decades. In a review of language testing and assessment, Alderson and Banerjee (2002: 79) support the view that ‘validity is not a characteristic of a test, but a feature of the inferences made on the basis of test scores and the uses to which a test is put. One validates not a test, but a principle for making inferences.’ The same point is also made by Creswell (2014) and Kleven (2008). The focus is no longer on different types of validity but on evidence and results elicited by the use of a given instrument. Creswell (2004: 177) writes that validity ‘is the degree to which all of the evidence points to the intended interpretation of test scores for the proposed instrument. Thus, a focus is on the consequences of using the scores from an instrument.’ Kleven (2008: 222) also points out that validity is a property of inferences and that many scholars today regard construct validity a superior concept, and content validity and criterion-related validity as subordinated concepts.
4.4.1. **Construct Validity**

Construct validity, then, is about to what degree the constructs of theoretical interest are successfully operationalized in the research (Kleven 2008: 224). The crucial question to ask of construct validity is to what degree the operational definition covers the most important aspects or dimensions of a theoretical construct. An essential part of research, quantitative or qualitative, is to create links from theoretical constructs (e.g. text types) to empirical indicators (e.g. clause relations). Researchers thus oscillate between two levels – a theoretical and an empirical level. When formulating research questions and hypotheses, and when interpreting findings, the researcher finds himself on the first level. Collecting and analysing data, however, happens on the latter level. For research to be sound, there must be concord between the use of the concepts on the theoretical and empirical level (Hellevik 1999: 51). In order to analyse how genre and text type norms are conformed to in the written exam one has to operationally define the theoretical constructs of ‘genre’ and ‘text types’. Operationalisation is the specification of how a researcher can define and measure the variables in a study (Creswell 2014: 169). Some qualitatively oriented researchers might balk at the use of the word measurement, but in modern educational research methodology, measurement is the process of linking concepts to indicators (Kleven 2008: 224). This process does not necessarily entail numerical quantities; lexical qualities can suffice.

Naturally, an obvious challenge in much educational research is that most constructs of interest are not directly visible or measurable. The implications are clear: It is impossible to provide certain proof of our findings. Evidence of validity can be accumulated from a variety of different perspectives, and thus, validation is never complete (Alderson and Banerjee 2002: 102). Kleven (2008: 224) writes that although construct validity cannot be measured ‘as it is about the quality of a correspondence between something observed and something which cannot be directly observed’, there are ways to provide reasons for one’s inferences. In my study, I discussed the theoretical and empirical concepts, set up criteria for my analysis, and discussed limitations of the various ways of analysis. Whereas the metadiscourse analysis was about counting frequencies of words and phrases and ensuring that the items qualified as ‘text-external’, the analysis of schematic structure and rhetorical purpose was more demanding. These two constructs may suffer from the validity threats of construct underrepresentation and construct irrelevance that Messick (1995) identified. The
first type jeopardises authenticity in that the construct is too narrow and fails to include important dimensions of the construct, whereas the second type jeopardises directness in that it contains excess matter that is irrelevant to the construct (Messick 1996: 244). I would argue that explaining my constructs (see Chapter 4.2), analysing data several times for intra-rater reliability and by enclosing the complete marked-up texts in the appendix, contributes to high validity.

4.4.2. Reliability
Reliability is about consistency, or trying to ascertain whether repeated measurements with the same instrument gives the same result. There are numerous procedures to examine this such as for example test-retest reliability, alternate forms reliability, inter-rater reliability, internal consistency reliability (Creswell 2014: 178). This section will however only discuss the types relevant for this study, namely inter-rater reliability and intra-rater reliability.

Inter-rater reliability is the degree of agreement by two or more raters that have administered the same instrument. The raters have to record their scores and then compare their findings to see if they are similar or different. An advantage is that it can negate any bias that any one rater may bring to scoring. On the other hand, a drawback is that it requires the researcher to train the fellow rater(s), and furthermore, that the raters have ‘to negotiate outcomes and reconcile differences in their observations’ (Creswell 2014: 179).

Intra-rater reliability, on the other hand, is the degree of agreement among repeated administrations performed by a single rater. An obvious drawback is the lack of validation from a different rater, but overall I decided that it would be too time consuming and expensive to train one. I therefore decided to administer several analyses until high intra-rater reliability was achieved.

4.4.3. Implications for my Study
In my thesis, genre is the main theoretical construct that need to be operationalised in order to be applicable for analysis (and for high construct validity to occur). I have decided to use schematic staging of content (moves and steps), writer stance (metadiscourse) and rhetorical purpose (text types) as indicators of the genre construct (see Chapter 4.2). This closely resembles Bruce’s genre construct, apart from the fact that epistemology and overall
context have been omitted (see Chapter 3.4). Although I concede the importance of these features regarding the social practices of writing, they will not be included in my framework for genre analysis due to the limited scope of this thesis. As such, it can be discussed whether the study falls foul of Messick’s concept of construct underrepresentation.

Regarding metadiscourse, the analysis was a case of counting words/phrases and noting down frequencies, ensuring that the items qualified as metadiscourse (see Chapter 4.2.2) before marking them up. The rest of the analysis was however more complicated. Both the move-step and Problem-Solution analyses are proposed as prototypical structures. The schematic structure and the rhetorical purpose are theoretical idealisations of the most representative examples. Whereas some texts may be closely aligned to the models in terms of the degree of use of their features, other texts may be more peripheral expressions. I have not attempted to grade the degree of conformity to the prototypes suggested in this analysis. The analysis was a cognitive process, where the benchmark for classification used was where stretches of text appeared to conform mainly to the features of text type or move-step, they were classified in terms of those categories (Bruce 2008b: 43). Nevertheless, chapter 5.3.4 discusses some challenges regarding the issue of prototypicality in text type analysis.

4.5. Ethical Concerns
Any research projects that includes the collection of personal data or the recording and/or storing of audio/visual data must be approved in advance by the NSD, or ‘the Data Protection Official for Research for all the Norwegian universities, university colleges and several hospitals and research institutes.’ As I intended to collect personal data in the form of participants’ e-mail addresses and their exam answers, I submitted a description of my planned research to the NSD two months prior to the data collection. The application was granted approval four weeks later. See Appendix 2.

An essential principle in research is the fully informed consent, or that ‘participants in research should know exactly what they are letting themselves in for, what will happen to them during the research, and what will happen to the data they provide after the research is completed’ (Gibbs 2007: 8). To oblige this principle, the students were informed about the
scope and aim of the project, promised secured anonymity and that they had a right to withdraw from the project at any time, without having to give any reason. In other words, the consent was freely given, informed, and in an explicit form, in line with the Norwegian National Research Ethics Committee (NNREC) (2016: 15) recommendations. The students were also informed that all data (i.e. their e-mail address and exam answer) would be deleted upon the completion of the project. To ensure as much anonymity as possible no school names have been given and all texts have been labelled by numbers only throughout the thesis. See Appendix 3 for the consent form.

Another important principle is that any data collected must be ‘reported honestly, without changing or altering the findings to satisfy predictions’ (Cresswell 2014: 38). NNREC similarly emphasises that recognised norms within research ethics are ‘integrity in documentation, consistency in argumentation, impartiality in assessment and openness regarding uncertainty [...] irrespective of the values, positions or perspectives of the researchers’ (NNREC 2016: 10). To adhere, I have tried to keep the data collection process and the data as transparent as possible. The marked-up texts have been added in their complete form in the Appendix. Consequently, others may check and repeat the investigations I have made.
5. Findings and Discussion

5.1. Schematic Structure
The findings of the analyses of the sample texts are organised in terms of the conventional essay sections of introductions and conclusions. The body of the essay could also have been included in this analysis, but as this part is more salient for text type analysis it will be further explored in Chapter 5.3. The table below maps the schematic structure of the twelve sample texts. Typically, the introductions were found to have a simple schematic structure of two moves for the staging of content, which I have termed context and outline. These two moves were, where present, without exception assigned to the first paragraph and in that specific order. The conclusions were mostly brief summaries of the main points made in the body of the essay, or what I have termed consolidation. Some essays also used the move of embedment. These two moves were, where present, without exception assigned to the final paragraph. Overall, I would argue that the students conform adequately to the genre norms of the ‘expository essay’ (See Chapter 2.3). The findings will be explored in more detail below.

Table 10. Schematic structure of 12 exam texts

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Essay Structure</th>
<th>Text 1</th>
<th>Text 2</th>
<th>Text 3</th>
<th>Text 4</th>
<th>Text 5</th>
<th>Text 6</th>
<th>Text 7</th>
<th>Text 8</th>
<th>Text 9</th>
<th>Text 10</th>
<th>Text 11</th>
<th>Text 12</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Introduction</td>
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<td>-</td>
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<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>Hook</td>
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<tr>
<td>Outline</td>
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<tr>
<td>Embed.</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

5.1.1. Introductions
The move-step analysis showed that nearly all sample texts included the context move. The one exception was text 4. Typically, the first sentences introduced the topic at hand by describing relevant facts and circumstances. The introductory paragraph from Text 8 is an example of a topical introduction:

In June 2016 the UK had a referendum concerning their membership in the European Union. The two official campaigns “Vote Leave” and “Britain Stronger in Europe” went out for almost three months, with a budget of approximately 7 million pounds each, campaigning and debating, hoping to get people to join their side. In the end, the country was split in half,
with the “Leave” side winning with 52% of the votes. What will be the consequences of this decision? (Text 8)

The analysis also showed that just over half the texts included the outline move which provides the reader with a map of the essay. Interestingly, this move was not present in the four low scoring texts. The move was indicated in various ways. Some texts outlined the structure implicitly. Consider the examples:

To take a closer look on this issue, we can use the outcome of the 2016 Presidential and Congressional election to explain the unfairness of the system. (Text 5)

We can ask ourselves the following questions: “How is the American system that has given Trump and the Republic Party this much power built up, and what does this outcome say about the situation in the American Politics?” (Text 12)

The writers do not explicitly state the aim or purpose of the essay, but the use of inclusive we creates a dialogue with the reader and give strong hints about which direction the essay is headed. Other texts indicated the structure more explicitly by either stating the purpose and aim of the essay, or by posing a direct question which was then sought answered in the body. Consider the following excerpt:

In this text, I will shed light upon some of the factors that made Brexit possible, as well as discuss all the different consequences of the referendum, both positive and negative. (Text 7)

Interestingly, only one text included all three moves of hook, context and outline. The full introduction is provided below and the different moves are indicated in the right hand margin:

The last time the very existence of the United Kingdom (UK) was threatened, Prime Minister Winston Churchill said “This is not the end. It is not even the beginning of the end. But it is, perhaps, the end of the beginning.” (Churchill, 2013, s. 71). Even though the UK is not at war today, the quote is, regardless, a fine illustration of this crucial time in British history and politics. It began with the Scottish referendum of independence, where the union prevailed due to the arguments of safety and further devolution. However, in an effort to restore British sovereignty by leaving the European Union, the nation was suddenly once again divided. What consequences of the EU referendum are currently causing strain on the political situation in the UK, and is the existence of the UK threatened? (Text 10)
In my view, the student’s use of the anecdote ensures it has the most arresting opening of all the sample texts. In my experience, students often use quotes to start their essays, but the use is not always apt. They might use a quote with little relevance to the topic, fail to signal its relevance or misunderstand the meaning of the quote. In contrast, the writer of this text uses the quote aptly and shows historical knowledge of the topic.

5.1.2. Conclusions
The analysis also showed that ten of the twelve texts included the consolidation move, and that the move was set in the final paragraph of the text. Before providing examples of consolidation, it could be interesting to look at one of the texts where the move was not present. Consider the example below:

> These constitute some of the consequences regarding the United Kingdom of Britain and Northern Ireland leaving the EU. The country has come in a political situation with more than more thing to be cautious about. The UK may receive more consequences by leaving EU. (Text 2)

Although the text discusses consequences of the UK leaving the EU in the body of the text, these points are not restated in the conclusion. The text refers to ‘these’, but it is not clear what this word entails. Readers must look outside the conclusion to find out, and I would therefore argue that this text fails to conform to the genre norm.

However, most texts in the sample employed the consolidation move. Two examples are provided below:

> All of the reasons stated above are valid when discussing the reason to why people become homeless. Mental health issues, long-term physical issues, drug use and war are some of the many reasons for homelessness. Often homelessness can be caused by, not only one, but several of these reasons. By being homeless you also have a certain impact on the society you live in. Crime rates might go up and the average wellbeing might go down. Being a homeless is not easy, but living where there are lots of homeless is not easy either. (Text 3)

The conclusion above neatly includes all the points accounted for in the body and in the same order. Each point (e.g. ‘mental health issues’) were explored in more detail in the body, one paragraph per point. A more minimalistic approach is taken in Text 5, where the student restates just some of the points discussed in the body. See the example below:

> To conclude we can say that the outcome of the 2016 elections really reflects how the Electoral College. Clinton did not win, even with the most votes, and both in Congress and
with the President, the winner takes all. This reflects the unfairness many people react to in the US, and using the appendix, we can see the reactions to normal scholars like Noam Chomsky. An outcome of the Electoral College has placed total control with the Republican Party. (Text 5)

Although the conclusions should be credited for restating the most important points from the discussion, they do not add any new topical information and can thus be said to constitute examples of consolidation. The ability to synthesize content and to arrive at a judgement or opinion by reasoning is more cognitively demanding than simply restating information. As such, this relates to the distinction between ‘knowledge telling’ and ‘knowledge transformation’ (see Chapter 1.2). Only five of the sample texts employed the embedment move, and of these, four were from the high scoring bracket. One example of embedment is listed below:

In this text, I have focused on the outcome of the 2016 US Presidential election. I have discussed what the outcome of both the Presidential and the Congressional elections says about American politics. As I have mentioned, the President is not elected directly by the popular vote. Even if a candidate loses the popular vote, he or she can still win in the electoral college. Their political system might be old-fashioned, but it sure has benefitted certain candidates, like for example Donald Trump. The electoral college benefits the one who is winning, but not the vast majority. The result of the presidential election in 2016, has provoked a lot of people, both Americans and people all over the world. (Text 6)

I will argue that the first six sentences are part of the consolidation move, whereas the final sentence considers implications of the election, something not mentioned previously in the body. A different way of embedding the text is found in Text 9. Here, the conclusion starts with listing two questions that have not been discussed in the body of the text, before the main points from the discussion are restated. In other words, the embedment move comes before the consolidation move. The opening sentences (i.e. the embedment move) are provided below:

It is hard to say what the results of the election will be. Will Labour be able to come together as a unified party who can actually challenge the Conservatives? Or will Theresa May be able to strengthen her majority and prove that she is a leader who has support from the people? (Text 9)

As seen, the embedment move can be applied in both at the start of and at the end of the final paragraph. Moreover, it can be used several times in the conclusive paragraph, something that is illustrated by Text 10. The conclusion is quoted in its entirety below and the different embedment strategies are underlined.
In conclusion, the EU referendum has clearly caused division in a time when the United Kingdom desperately requires unity. The voting results show how old voters have imagined a completely different future from the young voters, and prioritized symbolic values above the uncertain dangers of a Brexit. Consequently, the common political division between the age groups is becoming increasingly evident. Under these circumstances, is it correct to allow the old population to vote against the will of the future generation? Likewise, there is every reason to discuss whether it is a fair democracy that Scotland is pulled out of the European Union against their will because of the English opinion on the matter. This significant difference brings the question whether Scotland would benefit from independence after all even though the Scottish people remains undecided. In other words, Theresa May is fighting a two-front war because of the EU referendum. One front is towards Europe, where her task is to ensure stability and security for her people. The other front is the dangerous division within her precious union, a division that possibly will reveal itself once again on 8th of June. Hence, the political consequences of the EU referendum can be described as political instability, uncertainty, and division. Nevertheless, these issues are not radical enough for us to expect the crumbling of the United Kingdom. (Text 10)

As we can see, the text shifts between consolidation (unmarked text) and embedment moves (underlined text). The revisiting of main points from the body discussion are interspersed with the synthesising of content in the form of a question or by considering implications. Importantly, the conclusion does not bring in any new information, it is rather a question of drawing conclusions and reviewing content based on the material presented.

To conclude, most of the sample texts are adept at using the context move and the consolidation move. These findings seem to corroborate a main point from the exam report: Students are quite good at structuring their texts. Having said that, there is a certain divergence regarding the use of the other moves. The outline move, which helps structure the text, and the embedment move, which synthesises content, seem to be difficult to master.

5.2. **Writer Stance**

The analysis showed that there were 542 cases of metadiscourse in the 12,113 word corpus of twelve exam texts. This is a frequency of one every 22 words. It should be noted that metadiscourse is often realised by more than one word (e.g. phrases such as ‘in other words’
or ‘as seen in quote 2 in appendix 1’) but these have been counted as one instance in my analysis. The figures, then, are not meant to convey the exact overall amount of metadiscourse but rather to make it possible to allow comparison between different patterns of occurrence of metadiscourse in the different sample texts. The sample texts were analysed manually using Hyland’s word list (Hyland 2005) of some 300 potential items of metadiscourse to ensure each item was functioning as metadiscourse (See chapter 4.2.2.).

Table 8 shows that writers used more interactive than interactional forms, and that transitions and hedges were the most frequently used devices followed by engagement markers and evidentials. In contrast, endophoric markers were the least frequently used device followed by self-mentions, frame markers and attitude markers. The findings will be explored in more detail below.

### Table 11. Metadiscourse in exam texts per 500 words

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Category</th>
<th>Text 1</th>
<th>Text 2</th>
<th>Text 3</th>
<th>Text 4</th>
<th>Text 5</th>
<th>Text 6</th>
<th>Text 7</th>
<th>Text 8</th>
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<th>Text 10</th>
<th>Text 11</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
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### 5.2.1. Transition markers

Transition markers ‘are mainly conjunctions and adverbial phrases which help readers interpret pragmatic connections between steps in an argument’ (Hyland 2005: 50).

Transition markers represent 40% of all metadiscourse in the corpus and demonstrate that writers try to establish their reasoning as unambiguously as possible. Hyland underlines that using transitions are the most explicit way of structuring an argument as they ‘denote how
the writer intends the connections between elements of the discussion to be understood’ (Hyland 2005: 76). Transition markers can function in three different ways: They can add elements to an argument (e.g. and, furthermore); mark arguments as either similar (e.g. likewise, equally) or different (e.g. but, on the other hand); draw or justify conclusions (e.g. thus, therefore) or counter an argument (e.g. nevertheless, of course). The different types will be exemplified below, starting with the additive relation which lets the writer extend his argument:

The Electoral College can therefore make it possible for a candidate to get the most votes in total without actually winning, and this is what happened in the 2016 election between Hilary Clinton and Donald Trump. (Text 5)

The next is the contrastive relation which allows the writer to contrast an argument:

By exiting, the EU will lose one of its largest and most important members, which will have a significant impact on the European political system. On the other hand, the British representatives in all EU core institutions will be removed, and the UK will no longer have anything to say in the matters of the European Union. (Text 11)

Finally, there is the causative relation where the writer draws a conclusion:

UK leaving the EU is scary, because it might start a chain of reactions. Now that one country has gone out of EU, it could possibly push other countries over to follow in their footsteps. (Text 4)

Although writers were overall adept at using transition markers, faulty uses occurred. Consider the examples below, which, for the sake of illustration, have been underlined and marked with asterisks(*):

*But as a result of democracy, the majority in the United Kingdom voted to leave the UK, and then allow the British government to activate “Article 50”. (Text 1)*

*As results of the referendum most the votes went to “leave” and resulted in the UK resigning from the EU. (Text 2)*

Both examples show faulty use of the contrastive relation as a result of. Another example is below where the adverb ‘Thus’ faultily indicates that the first clause is the cause of the second clause.

Nevertheless, the UK has no reason to fear violent demonstrations and riots from the young population as the Brexit negotiations continue. *Thus, the EU referendum was indeed regarded as a fair and democratic vote. (Text 10)*
It should be underlined that the three examples given here were not counted as metadiscourse in the analysis. They do however illustrate that students sometimes struggle to create explicit connections in their line of argument at the more local level (i.e. within or between clauses).

5.2.2. Frame markers
Frame markers ‘signal text boundaries or elements of schematic text structure’ (Hyland 2005: 51). Three of the sample texts did not use any frame markers, and interestingly, these were also from the low scoring texts. A closer analysis reveals that frame markers were typically used in three ways. The first was to explicitly introduce the aim or purpose of the essay:

In this text, I will shed light upon some of the factors that made Brexit possible, as well as discuss all the different consequences of the referendum, both positive and negative. (Text 7)

The second was to bring the text to an end as shown below:

In conclusion, the EU referendum has clearly caused division in a time when the United Kingdom desperately requires unity... (Text 10)

To conclude we can say that the outcome of the 2016 elections really reflects how the Electoral College... (Text 5)

The final way was to sequence arguments by using explicit additive relations such as ‘firstly’ or ‘next’. Consider the example below:

First of all, it is important to understand the Electoral College. (Text 5)

Although the use of frame marker above makes sense on a clause level, the cohesion on a more global level, i.e. the overall text, is lacking as the frame marker is not followed up by sequencing markers such as ‘secondly’ or ‘furthermore’. The explicit use of ‘First of all’ creates a reader expectation for more frame markers. If the frame markers do not work together as a whole the impression will be one of haphazardness. A similar issue is the fluctuating degree of explicitness regarding the use of frame markers. The excerpt below is an example of a well-written argument where a general and informative topic sentence is followed by two specific examples, but which still lacks cohesion.
There are several reasons why she has changed her mind. The Conservative Party is hugely popular at the moment, while the Labour party is still getting used to Jeremy Corbyn as their new leader. Secondly, while Brexit at first did not seem to affect the economy as much as was feared, huge companies are now relocating from London to cities within the EU, and it seems the British economy is in danger if May cannot negotiate new trade deals with countries outside of the EU. (Text 9)

Whereas the second argument is highlighted by using the explicit additive marker ‘Secondly’, the first argument is listed implicitly. This oscillation between explicit and implicit marking of the text has consequences for the text’s readability. For a text to be fully coherent, I would argue that the degree of explicitness should be similar throughout. This illustrates that although students are adept at using frame markers on a local level (e.g. within a clause), they struggle more when it comes to creating cohesion on a more global level (e.g. paragraph or whole text level).

5.2.3. Endophoric markers
Endophoric markers are metadiscoursal elements that refer readers to ‘explanatory or related material elsewhere in the text’ (Hyland 2005: 156). Typically, this can be the reinforcement of an argument by ensuring that the reader has access to relevant data or arguments that are located elsewhere in the text. In the following excerpt, the student has discussed four quotes in the preceding paragraphs before succinctly summing up:

In these quotes, we can see that the four people have their strong opinions on the referendum and the EU... (Text 2)

Another student uses an endophoric marker aptly in the conclusion. Having discussed the reasons for and consequences of homelessness in the UK the student concludes:

All the reasons stated above are valid when discussing the reason to why people become homeless. (Text 3)

Endophoric markers were present in only four of the sample texts. This is not surprising given that endophoric markers are more concerned with referring readers to other parts of the texts, characteristics that are more expected to be part of longer texts such as theses and dissertations. In briefer texts, such as exam essays, there is lesser scope for building longer chain of arguments. Nevertheless, the texts that employed endophoric markers did so successfully.
5.2.4. Evidentials

Evidentials ‘are metalinguistic representations of an idea from another source which guide the reader’s interpretation and establish and authorial command of the subject’ (Hyland 2005: 51). It is worth reiterating that the exam tasks often include quotes, figures or pictures that students should comment on or use as a point of departure, and that overlooking these shows a low degree of competence. All four exam prompts instructed students to use material from the relevant appendix. In other words, the explicit signalling of references through the use of evidentials is to be expected. The analysis shows that evidentials were present in ten of the sample texts. Evidentials were typically used to refer to information from the exam material, as the following examples illustrate:

The statistics in the Appendix 2 shows how different age groups voted in the referendum. (Text 1)

According to Homelessness in the UK “112,070 people declared themselves homeless in England” in 2014. (Text 3)

Moving to the last quotations in the appendix, we can find two… (Text 5)

Text 6 and 9 did not use evidentials explicitly, but a closer analysis reveals that these texts used material from the exam appendix. In the paragraph below, the student has included information from the relevant appendix, but not included an explicit reference:

To gain control in the House of Representatives, one must have 218 seats. Trump won 241 seats. The senate consists of 100 Senators. Again, the Republican Party won the majority with 52 seats. This means that the Republicans has total control of all the chambers – both executive, legislative (Congress) and Supreme Court. (Text 6)

Evidentials were neither found in Text 9, a high scoring text. It is however not difficult to see that the student has incorporated material from the relevant appendix. In the paragraph below, figures and quotes from the exam booklet are weaved together:

The British people were certainly not unified in their choice to leave the European Union. In Scotland, a majority of 62% voted Remain, and in Northern Ireland the Remain side got a 56% majority. Geography was not the only factor that divided the electorate – age also played an important role. The Remain side had the support of all age groups between 18 and 44. Their support was strongest in the youngest group, 18–24, where they got an overwhelming 73% majority. The support from the young people however was not enough, as all age groups over 45 were distinctly in favour of Brexit. Even though old people clearly did not agree with young people about what would be the best thing for Britain, English pensioner Maureen Morrison argues that her choice was not made without thinking about the future. She says: ‘I did think about their future, it was just a different future I saw: one living in a free, independent nation’. (Text 9)
The examples above illustrate a shortcoming of the metadiscoursal analysis undertaken in this study: The concern with surface signals in the form of specific words and/or phrases excludes implicit ways of creating text coherence.23

As mentioned, most evidentials referred to material from the exam booklet. Interestingly, three of the high scoring texts included evidentials that referred to sources outside of the exam material. In the example below, the writer has used information from the newspaper *The Guardian*:

SNP wants Scotland to be internationalist, co-operative, fair and European. They want to stay in the “family of nations” (*the guardian, 2017*). The idea of leaving the United Kingdom to be able to stay in the EU is also reflected in the Irish Republican Party Sinn Fein (*the guardian, 2017*). (Text 11)

Overall, there seem to be little pattern between the use of evidentials and the overall marking. For example, a low scoring text (Text 1) used the most evidentials with 7.9 instances per 500 words, whereas one of the high scoring texts did not use any evidentials.

5.2.5. Code glosses

Code glosses supply additional information, by rephrasing, explaining or elaborating on what has been said and where the aim is to ensure that the reader has grasped the writer’s intended meaning (Hyland 2005: 52). Ten of the sample texts used code glosses and the devices were distributed fairly even across the texts. Below is an example where the student first explains a hypothetical outcome and then rephrases the argument:

If Sanders for instance won the state of California, he would steal Clintons votes, and the Republicans would have an even better chance of winning. In other words, with this political system, the people cannot really vote for the President they want to which is visible on the map of the Presidential Election. (Text 5)

Phrases such as in other words, such as and for instance were the most frequent in the sample. There were also a few instances of parentheses used as the example below illustrate:

The second quote came from Martina Anderson, MEP (Member of the European Parliament) for Irish republican party Sinn Fein (representing Northern Ireland in the EU Parliament). (Text 2)

23 This stands in contrast to other programme subjects such as Social Sciences and Politics and Human Rights which require sources to also be listed within the text itself.
Overall, students commanded the use of code glosses well.

5.2.6. Hedges
Hedges are devices ‘which indicate the writer’s decision to recognize alternative voices and viewpoints and so withhold a complete commitment to a proposition’ (Hyland 2005: 52). Typical examples are *may, might and possible*. Hedges were present in all twelve sample texts, most typically in the body and the conclusion of the text. Using hedges allows the writer to present information as opinions rather than facts, and thus, makes propositions negotiable. This is important where the writer want to reserve judgement or express himself cautiously. A typical example from the body is listed below:

Britain is currently standing quite alone, and with a need to build new trading relations. This *might* cause negative consequences for the British economy, and lead to less funding for institutions like the NHS. Meanwhile, all the funds the UK put into financial aid in the EU *could* be used to benefit the citizens of the UK. (Text 11)

Hedges were also used in the conclusions for good effect. In the following example, the student points towards some future scenarios of Brexit, all the while employing a certain tone of circumspection through the use of hedges:

To conclude, there will be many challenges for the UK to deal with in the near future. The United Kingdom as we know it *might* be on its way out. Scotland *might* get their independence, and Northern Ireland *could* soon re-united with Ireland. As for the younger population of the UK, they *might* just have to cross their fingers, and hope that the older population in the UK were right, and that Brexit is the right choice for the United Kingdom. (Text 8)

Text 3 is an outlier in the sample in that it used 12,0 hedges per 500 words. The remaining sample texts used from 0,9 to 5,6 hedges, with an average of 2,9 hedges per 500 words. The excerpt below is from Text 3’s penultimate paragraph:

Homelessness can also lead to more crime. Crimes like robbery, drug or weapon trafficking and violence will *likely* increase due to homelessness. This affects the society the homeless live in. The homeless will *likely* be treated even harsher than they already are and the security in the country *may* increase. For instance, in the UK they *might* have more police in the streets and *maybe* they will throw away the homeless if they are laying around in the streets. (Text 3)

Although the hedges used in the text works on a sentence level, the overall impression is one of overly cautiousness. I would argue that the writer reserves so much judgement throughout the body that the argumentation suffers. This illustrates the fine balance
students have to strike in their writing: Use too many hedges, and the writing comes across as prudent; Use too few hedges, and the writing comes across as crass.

5.2.7. **Boosters**

Boosters are devices that let the writer close down alternatives, refute other views and express certainty in their arguments (Hyland 2005: 52). Typical examples are *clearly*, *obviously* and *certainly*. Boosters were present in ten texts. It should be mentioned that only four texts used boosters to any significant degree (by that I mean more than 2,0 times per 500 words). Some examples are listed below:

- *There is no doubt that* the referendum will have many consequences on the political situation of the United Kingdom, both good and bad, and that the British society is forever changed because of it. (Text 7)

- The British people were *certainly not* unified in their choice to leave the European Union. (Text 9)

- In conclusion, the EU referendum has *clearly* caused division in a time when the United Kingdom desperately requires unity. (Text 10)

The scarce use of boosters might indicate that students are reluctant to commit to their statements. On the other hand, it can also indicate that students will only use boosters when they are convinced about the certainty of their claims.

5.2.8. **Attitude markers**

Attitude markers are devices that are used to express the writer’s affective, rather than epistemic, attitude to the propositional material he or she presents (Hyland 2005: 32). Rather than commenting on the truthfulness, relevance or reliability of the information, attitude markers show agreement, surprise, importance etc. Attitude markers were present in eight of the sample texts, and in four of these they were used only once. Below is an example where the writer uses an adverb to convey importance of an argument:

- Looking further into the outcome of the election, we can peek at the map of the Electoral College which shows where the parties have their support, but more *importantly*, it is an eye opener to how the system is dependent on agreement within the parties. (Text 5)
In the following example, the student’s use of the adverb *surprisingly* expresses not only an affective attitude to a poll, but also lets the student seamlessly show knowledge of British politics by explaining why this is a surprise:

Only 27% of voters in Scotland answered they would vote for the SNP, whilst a *surprisingly* high percentage of 24% said they would vote Conservative (YouGov, 2017). Traditionally Scotland has been Labour territory, although nearly every Scottish constituency turned nationalist in the 2015 election. Nicola Sturgeon will, therefore, struggle to maintain her party’s presence in Parliament. (Text 11)

Overall, the sparingly use of attitude markers could illustrate that students are concerned with keeping an objective attitude to the topic they are writing about.

### 5.2.9. Self-mention

Self-mention refers to the explicit presence of the author in text and this is measured by the use of first person pronouns and possessives such as *I, me, mine* and exclusive *we, our, ours* (Hyland 2005: 53). Naturally, writers cannot avoid projecting an image of themselves and their stance towards the propositional material into their text(s), but they can vary the degree of their explicit presence. The absence or presence of author reference is therefore a powerful means of self-representation. Self-mention were present in four of the sample texts.

The pronouns of *I* and *me* were the only examples of self-mention, and their presence constituted themselves in very different ways. In Text 4, the writer used five first-person pronouns over the first three body paragraphs but then did not use any more in the remaining 15 paragraphs. In Text 6, the writer shied away from using *I* until the final paragraph where it is used three times in quick succession:

In this text, *I* have focused on the outcome of the 2016 US Presidential election. *I* have discussed what the outcome of both the Presidential and the Congressional elections says about American politics. As *I* have mentioned, the President is not elected directly by the popular vote. (Text 6)

In comparison, Text 7 used the first person pronoun once, more specifically in the introduction to signal the aim of the essay:

In this text, *I* will shed light upon some of the factors that made Brexit possible, as well as discuss all the different consequences of the referendum, both positive and negative. (Text 7)
The final example is from Text 12, where the writer in the conclusion uses a combination of self-mention, booster (of course) and hedge (seems) to establish an argument:

This is of course only speculation, but to me it seems weird that only half the country shows up to vote, especially in an election with a great amount of controversy, and the drastic result of Donald Trump becoming president. (Text 12)

The analysis shows that self-mention is used occasionally and infrequently in the sample texts. The writers seem unsure when and if they can use first person pronouns. They seem reluctant to explicitly enter into the midst of their own texts. From my own experience, I know that students have varying views on this matter. Some students claim that I should under no circumstances be used in an essay, others find it perfectly acceptable whereas some argue it depends on the type of genre or text. That the use of personal pronouns is a contentious field is also corroborated by scholars. Hyland observes that there is confusion in teaching materials and style guides as to whether self-mentions should be prohibited or encouraged (Hyland 2005: 131).

5.2.10. Engagement markers

Engagement markers ‘are devices that explicitly address readers, either to focus their attention or include them as discourse participants’ (Hyland 2005: 53). There are various ways to do this. The writer can address readers directly through second person pronouns (you, your, yourself) or third person pronouns (we, us); speak directly to readers through rhetorical questions; direct readers to action or thought through necessity modals (must, should); or assume sharedness through presupposition markers (of course, obviously).

Engagement markers were found in all twelve sample texts. The inclusive third-person form of we constituted 44% of all engagement markers and was thus the most frequent. See below for three examples:

In these quotes, we can see that the four people have their strong opinions on the referendum and the EU. (Text 2)

The Electoral College is, as we can see, unfair. (Text 5)

To understand why Donald Trump won the US presidential election in 2016, we must take a look at the American political system. (Text 6)

In the examples above, the writers attempt to engage the readers by underlining a presumed shared understanding of the topic at hand. In this way, the writer and reader’s
understanding is compatible and the reader is recognized as a peripheral participant in the argument.

Rhetorical questions were used in nine of the sample texts and distributed quite evenly around the texts. They firstly functioned as a way of introducing the topic at hand and hinting at the essay structure. The example below is the introductory paragraph of Text 8:

In June 2016 the UK had a referendum concerning their membership in the European Union. The two official campaigns “Vote Leave” and “Britain Stronger in Europe” went out for almost three months, with a budget of approximately 7 million pounds each, campaigning and debating, hoping to get people to join their side. In the end, the country was split in half, with the “Leave” side winning with 52% of the votes. What will be the consequences of this decision? (Text 8)

Questions were also used in the body of the text. Often, they were used as a way of introducing a problematic aspect that needs to be solved. In this respect, they can be a part of the Problem-Solution pattern (more on this in chapter 5.3.). Three examples are listed below:

Still, who won the election? Trump did. (Text 5)

Now that Brexit is happening, it will be exciting to see if UKIP will continue to grow as a party, or if their support came from people who wanted Brexit, and who now will return to the bigger parties. Also, if they do continue to grow, will they formulate policies on other topics, or will they run exclusively on their immigration policies? And if they keep growing, should we worry about the direction the UK is going politically? (Text 8)

Because of the elections last autumn, the Republicans now has control over all these three branches. This would in theory mean that things should flow very smoothly for the Republicans in the next 4 years, but is it so? (Text 12)

Finally, some writers used questions in the conclusion as a way of contextualising the topic and considering implications. Instead of speculating about future scenarios, the student below decides to ask two relevant questions:

It is hard to say what the results of the election will be. Will Labour be able to come together as a unified party who can actually challenge the Conservatives? Or will Theresa May be able to strengthen her majority and prove that she is a leader who has support from the people? (Text 9)

The use of engagement markers highlights the dialogic nature of writing. Overall, students were adept at using engagement markers in a way that recognise readers as peripheral participants in the argument. However, one challenge was that some writers struggled to maintain the same writer presence throughout the essay. In Text 12, the student explains
how the US system of government works in three paragraphs. The first two paragraphs describe how the Electoral College and the system of Checks and Balances work and there is no explicit recognition of the reader in the argument. However, this changes in the third paragraph which deals with the Supreme Court:

Also, how the Republican Party managed to get majority in the Supreme Court is rather interesting. Once a judge has been appointed as a Supreme Judge, you are so for the rest of your life, or until your health prevents you from doing your job sufficiently. During Barack Obama’s last year of reign as president, a new judge was supposed to be appointed. But needing the Senate’s approval, Obama never managed to get a Democratic Supreme Judge appointed. (Text 12)

In the excerpt above, the reader is explicitly recognised as a participant in the argument by the second person pronouns ‘you’ and ‘your’. The words are used five times within one sentence. The problem here is the lack of consistency in the writer’s presence and distance to the object he or she is writing about. Considering how the previous paragraphs were phrased, it would have been more natural to use ‘they’ and ‘their’ when explaining how the Supreme Court works. This is another illustration of students’ lack of consistent writer personality.

5.3. Rhetorical Purpose
The analysis showed that the twelve sample texts vary extensively in their use of text type patterns. Although all texts included descriptive and argumentative text types, the distribution and number of realised patterns varied greatly. Some texts relied mostly on descriptive segments, some varied between descriptive and argumentative segments, whilst others relied mostly on argumentative segments. When linking this to how the texts overall scored, a pattern emerged: The lower scoring texts mostly relied on descriptive segments, whereas the higher scoring relied more on argumentative segments. Having said that, eleven of the twelve sample texts included at least one example of a fully realised PS-pattern. Another finding was that many texts suffered from ‘fuzzy boundaries’, in other words, the texts included segments which did not conform to any specific text types.

In the following, I will focus on three patterns that regularly occurred: The first is the realised PS-pattern that consists of situation, problem, response and the non-obligatory component of
This pattern has been labelled *Argumentative text type 1*. The second is the minimal PS-pattern that consists of SITUATION and PROBLEM. This has been labelled *Argumentative text type 2*. I treat both realisations as argumentative text types as they are dynamic and problematizing in nature. The third regularly occurring pattern is where only SITUATION is realised, also labelled *Descriptive text type*. I treat this realisation as descriptive text type as it tends to be static in nature.

The table below gives an overview of realised patterns of each sample text. It should be noted that the number of realised patterns does not necessarily correlate with a text being ‘successful’. For instance, Text 4 has realised nine patterns in total, but a closer inspection would reveal that many of the patterns are peripheral and that the text is rather incoherent. Furthermore, segments from different texts that have been marked as similar, can still be qualitatively different (e.g. the realisation of an argumentative segment in text X is not necessarily of the same quality as a similar realisation in text Y). This will be explored in more detail in chapter 5.3.4. The table gives an overview of the distribution of realised patterns for each text, but the numbers are not necessarily suitable for comparisons across the sample texts.

### Table 12. Text type patterns

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It should be reiterated that the components do not necessarily have to come in said order. The PROBLEM might come before the SITUATION etc. The same applies to the minimal PS-pattern.
The sections below will give an account of argumentative and descriptive text types in more detail and provide examples of analyses from the sample. The chapter will end with a discussion of some methodological limitations.

5.3.1. Argumentative Text Type 1: Realised PS-patterns
Apart from Text 3, all sample texts included at least one example of a realised PS-pattern. Texts 11 and 12 included the most realisations, with a total of five. The table below provides one example from the latter:

<table>
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<tr>
<th>Component</th>
<th>Text segment</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
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<td>Sit</td>
<td>Because of the elections last autumn, the Republicans now has control over all these three branches. This would in theory mean that things should flow very smoothly for the Republicans in the next 4 years, but is it so? After Trump’s first 100 days of Presidency, he claimed that being President wasn’t as easy as he had thought it would be, being controlled by the quite strict system that is Checks and Balances. Although having gotten through the system in some instances, we can only conclude that Trump is having some trouble using his party’s majority in his favour.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pro</td>
<td>With the system keeping President Trump checked and balanced, he has seen himself forced to use executive orders to try and get things done. This is in many ways a loophole in the system of checks and balances as it is a presidential order without the need of approval in Congress. It is however not a durable way of changing things, because the executive orders aren’t laws or amendments to existing laws. Many of the orders are likely to fall away when the next president takes seat, as it was the case when Trump replaced Obama as president. (Text 12)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Res</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Eva</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

It is noteworthy that in Text 12, each component was developed and detailed, and the PS-pattern was repeated recursively. Overall, the writer seems to have a clear view of how to structure and build up a discussion. Other texts realised the PS-pattern, but could have profited from longer chains of arguments and more developed argumentation. Consider the example below:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Component</th>
<th>Text segment</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Sit</td>
<td>The American political system is a two-party system. A lot of people do not agree with either of them. Many of them choose not to vote at all, some vote for a third-party and some vote for the candidate they hate the least. (Text 6)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pro</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Res</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Although the segment realises the PS-pattern, the individual components should ideally have consisted of more ideational information in the form of definitions, examples, justifications.
and so on. The political system could have been described in more details; more reasons as to why people disagree with the parties could have been stated; and who ‘some’ are could have been specified in more detail. This example illustrates that although the PS-pattern is realised, there is little scope for extended rhetorical development as the writer moves quickly from point to point. Similar patterns were found in several of the sample texts. A juxtaposition of two segments from different texts dealing with the same topic (Scotland’s relationship to the UK) can illustrate this. The first segment realises the PS-pattern but is rather brief:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Component</th>
<th>Text segment</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Sit</td>
<td>Scotland already had a referendum in 2014 about leaving the UK and become an independent country. That the time the votes ended up resulting to remain in the United Kingdom. Now that the UK is leaving Nicolas Sturgeon the leader of SNP (Scottish National Party) have asked for a new referendum since Scotland wants to be a part of the EU. Theresa May declined the first request of a new referendum, but Sturgeon believes it will be a new one. (Text 2)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The second segment (see below) is similarly configured in terms of components, but adds more details and also includes an EVALUATION at the end. Thus, the segment stands out as a more comprehensive and thorough answer than the first one.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Component</th>
<th>Text segment</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Sit</td>
<td>The question of Scottish independence has always existed. The Scottish Nationalist party arranged a referendum on Scottish independence in autumn 2014. In the referendum, Scots voted to remain part of the United Kingdom. However, Brexit might change people’s minds. Party leader Nicola Sturgeon is currently looking at the possibility of holding a second Scottish independence referendum before the UK leaves the European Union. SNP wants Scotland to be internationalist, co-operative, fair and European. They want to stay in the “family of nations” (the guardian, 2017). The idea of leaving the United Kingdom to be able to stay in the EU is also reflected in the Irish Republican Party Sinn Fein (the guardian, 2017). In other words, the Brexit vote has disturbed the political stability within the United Kingdom. (Text 11)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

I will argue that realised PS-patterns are examples of successful discussion, and hence, that they conform to text type norms. However, a challenge is that the segments making up the individual components are too brief. Students struggle to flesh out their paragraphs and consequently their writing becomes superficial. Another challenge is that students often fail to execute all the stages necessary in discussion. They are able to describe a situation and
point to some problematic aspects of it, but often fail to discuss responses or solutions. It is to this pattern we now turn.

5.3.2. Argumentative Text Type 2: Minimal Realisations
I have opted to include segments that realise the SITUATION- PROBLEM components as minimal realisations of the PS-pattern. Although this configuration lacks the components of RESPONSE or EVALUATION it can still be seen as dynamic and problematising, and consequently be counted as argumentative text type (See Chapter 4.2.3.). This pattern was realised in five of the sample texts. The segment below describes a situation and points to a problematic aspect of the situation (‘This makes a big disagreement between the young and the old, and could potentially form a divided nation.’), but does not offer any response or solution.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Component</th>
<th>Text segment</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Sit</td>
<td>When I look at the statistics over who voted to stay or leave the EU, I can see that the younger generation wanted to stay in EU, while in general the more older generation you look at the more people voted to leave the EU. This makes a big disagreement between the young and the old, and could potentially form a divided nation. (Text 4)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The segment below gives an example of the pattern in inverted form. Here, the PROBLEM component comes before the SITUATION component:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Component</th>
<th>Text segment</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Pro</td>
<td>The main thing that is bad for UK by leaving EU is the loss of the single market. The single market is a system intertwined in EU. All the member countries are a part of it, it makes it so it is like all the countries are one country in terms of trading. Allowing goods and people to move around freely and using the same currency, the euro. (Text 11)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In most of the texts, the PS-pattern was used only once or twice. One exception was Text 3 where the pattern was realised six times in succession. All paragraphs started with a SITUATION which was then followed by a PROBLEM.
One of the paragraphs is listed below:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Component</th>
<th>Text segment</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Sit</td>
<td>Long-term physical health issues are also a common reason for homelessness. About every 56 out of 100 homeless people have a long-term physical health issue, whereas just 29 out of a 100 has the same problem in the general population. Long-term physical health issues can vary from osteoporosis (brittleness of the bones) to arthritis (a disease causing painful inflammation and stiffness of the joints). This physical issues can be so bad that the person who has them might not be able to work, and will eventually end up homeless. (Text 3)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pro</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

By repeating the same components in the same order throughout the text, it seems like the writer has a clear idea of how he wants to structure the text. Nevertheless, the text does not discuss responses or solutions to any of the problems. If one were to haphazard a guess as to why, it might be because the task does not specifically ask for this. The prompt asks the student to discuss reasons for and impact of homelessness. I would argue that for the text to be successful the student should also have offered some possible responses and solutions to the problem (e.g. in the form of specific policies) and evaluations (e.g. how these policies could minimise the problem of homelessness).

5.3.3. Descriptive Text Type
As outlined in the beginning of this chapter, I argue that where a SITUATION component does not link directly with a preceding or subsequent component (such as for example a PROBLEM) we might be dealing with a case of descriptive text type. Where the SITUATION stands in relative isolation, its purpose is most often to explain or describe topical information. As mentioned in Chapter 2.3, one would expect an ‘expository essay’ to consist of both descriptive and argumentative stretches. In order to discuss a phenomenon, it is often necessary to first have outlined and described it in some details. The descriptive text type was found in ten of the sample texts. In several of the texts, the first instance of the descriptive text type appeared in the second paragraph (i.e. what can be considered the start of the body). Text 1 and 2 for example both started the body with a description of the outcome of the Brexit referendum.
Below is the excerpt from Text 2:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Component</th>
<th>Text segment</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Sit</td>
<td>As we know the United Kingdom consists of England, Wales, Scotland and Northern Ireland. The majority in Scotland and Northern Ireland voted for “remain” and the majority in England and Wales voted for “leave”. In total the whole nation of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland the votes were “remain 48.1%” and “leave 51.9%” (Text 2)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

I will argue that this segment is an example of a descriptive text type as it describes facts and objective circumstances. Additionally, matching relations such as contrast are typical features of this component, and they are present in this segment (e.g. contrasting the voting results in Scotland and Northern Ireland with the ones in England and Wales). Finally, the following paragraph starts a new topic. Text 5, a discussion of the US political system, starts with an explanation of the Electoral College:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Component</th>
<th>Text segment</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Sit</td>
<td>First of all, it is important to understand the Electoral College. The US consist of several states that all have been given a number of electoral votes based on the population of the state. If you win the majority of votes in a state, you will receive all the electoral votes. The Electoral College can therefore make it possible for a candidate to get the most votes in total without actually winning, and this is what happened in the 2016 election between Hilary Clinton and Donald Trump. (Text 6)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Although there is much to be said for describing important facts in the beginning of the body, it is interesting that few of the higher scoring texts relied solely on a descriptive segment in the second paragraph. These texts mostly started with a description of the matter at hand, but quickly problematised the matter, i.e. the SITUATION component was followed by a PROBLEM.

An interesting exception is Text 12 which started with three paragraphs about various aspects of the US system of government and electoral results. Each of the paragraphs was marked as a SITUATION (i.e. Descriptive text type). These paragraphs led up to a conclusion about the Republicans controlling all three branches of government, which was followed by a problematic aspect of the situation. Although the rest of the text consists of successive PS-patterns it is interesting that a text from the high scoring bracket started with three descriptive segments. The text alternates between descriptive and argumentative stretches and thus conforms to the genre norms of the ‘expository essay’ (see Chapter 2.3).
5.3.4. Limitations of Analysis
As discussed in Chapter 4, matching theoretical constructs to empirical indicators is a challenging process in any research, but particularly in this thesis which seeks to match genre as an abstract object to text as an empirical concept. Coutinho and Miranda (2009: 35) highlights two arguments usually raised against genre description: Firstly, that genres are so diverse that any description is impossible, and secondly, that each genre is mobilised by numerous interacting factors, and that it is near impossible to study them all. Bearing this in mind, this section will therefore examine some possible limitations of the analysis.

Firstly, the difficulty of deciding which component in the PS-model, if any, fits a particular text segment has to be acknowledged. As explained in Chapter 3.5, the question-answer technique underpinning the PS-model is a cognitive process on the part of the reader, and there are obvious limitations to matching patterns of text to the different components. Hoey (1994: 29) concedes that paraphrasing and question asking is not without difficulties: ‘The fact that more than one question may elicit the same answer does not reflect a weakness in the dialogue-projection technique but reflects instead the considerable complexity of monologue.’ To overcome this obstacle, Hoey proposes that the form of the question that most clearly reveals or manifests a common pattern should be selected. This can be linked to Bruce’s insistence on prototypicality as an important feature of genre analysis. Whereas some of the segments in the sample were prototypical and consequently easy to analyse, others were less so. Consider the following text segment:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Component</th>
<th>Text segment</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Sit</td>
<td>This referendum for leaving the EU might provoke Scotland to become an independent country. Scotland had 38% votes to leave, and 62% votes to stay in the EU. Scotland may consider leaving the UK and joining EU as an independent country. It has become disunity in the UK. Most of the oil income in the UK is from Scotland, if Scotland leaves the UK and joins the EU as an independent country, UK is going to have more economical issues regarding the oil. They may have to either pay Ireland a lot more for oil, or find another country to buy oil from like for instance Norway.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pro</td>
<td>UK leaving the EU is scary, because it might start a chain of reactions. Now that one country has gone out of EU, it could possibly push other countries over to follow in their footsteps. EU as mentioned above was created to prevent countries from going to war against each other, by making relations. (Text 4)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
My analysis is given in the above table. Nevertheless, it could also be argued that the analysis might have played out differently. The segment from ‘if Scotland leaves...’ to ‘...it could possibly push other countries to follow in their footsteps’ could have been part of the EVALUATION as it assesses the RESPONSE. Alternatively, the same segment could have been marked as a new PROBLEM. Hoey (1994: 41) asserts that a negative evaluation of the response may signal a new problem. Nevertheless, I have decided to leave the segment unmarked as it suffers from incoherent reasoning.

Another challenge was the presence of segments which barely conformed to any of the components in the PS-pattern. Where segments had little prototypicality I have not marked them at all. The table below gives an example of this. The segment lacks a clear line of reasoning, and is also hampered by an incomplete first clause.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Component</th>
<th>Text segment</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Consequences the United Kingdom have to face is the new issues that needs to be discussed. To give an example, we have the border controls. Would the United Kingdom like to continue with the same border controls as they leave the EU? One reason people chose to leave the EU was because of the increasing of immigration. Some British people were either afraid or certain that the immigrants were about to replace them by taking their jobs, buying their houses and taking advantage of the health care in the country. Therefore, most likely, the border controls will be sharpened. (Text 1)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The examples above illustrate that students at upper secondary are developing writers whose texts often lack extended rhetorical argument and suffer from frequent ‘genre shifts’. This relates to Bruce’s (2008a: 87) point that young learners tend to mix different text types such as argumentative, expository, narrative in their writing even when they are supposed to write texts employing one of them. In turn, the boundaries of their writing often become ‘fuzzy’. Also, the fact that the written exam is a five hour, high stakes test puts further stress on the students.
6. Conclusion
This final chapter provides a summary of the thesis and presents the conclusions. The chapter will also discuss some didactic implications, potential limitations and suggest some areas for future research.

6.1. Summary of Thesis
This thesis primarily set out to explore how Norwegian upper secondary students write English and if they conform to genre norms of writing. A secondary aim was to see whether a genre-based approach can offer contributions to current writing terminology. Based on the works reviewed in the theory chapter, genre was conceptualised as incorporating both social practices and cognitive processes. These theoretical constructs laid the foundation for developing a framework for genre analysis where schematic staging of content (moves and steps), writer stance (metadiscourse) and rhetorical purpose (text types) were selected as empirical indicators of the genre construct (see Chapter 4.2). The framework was then used to analyse twelve authentic sample texts. The sections below will link the key findings from the data analysis to the research question outlined in the introductory chapter.

6.2. Summary of Findings
This study sees writing as a synthesis of mastering social practices and cognitive processes. The findings in this thesis illustrate that although a successful ‘expository essay’ should adhere to a set of genre norms, there is considerable leeway as to how writers might conform to these expectations. The analysis revealed that, overall, students master the social practices of writing rather proficiently. Regarding schematic structure, nearly all students managed to employ the context and consolidation moves. These constitute the most basic parts of writing introductions and conclusions. The more challenging outline and embedment moves, however, were less used, and the hook move was used in only one of the sample texts. Regarding metadiscourse, transitions and hedges were the most frequently used devices followed by engagement markers and evidentials. Endophoric markers, self-mentions and frame markers were the least frequently used devices. Closer analysis revealed that the writers often struggled to maintain the same degree of explicitness or writer personality throughout the text. The subchapters dealing with frame markers, self-
mentions and engagement markers gave evidence of this. Students master the social practices of writing adequately on a local level, but they struggle more when it comes to the global level, and thus with realising the genre.

The analysis also revealed that students master the cognitive processes of writing less proficiently. All the sample texts included argumentative and descriptive text types, but the distribution and number of realised patterns varied greatly. An overall pattern was that the lower scoring texts mostly relied on descriptive segments, whereas the higher scoring relied more on argumentative segments. Another finding was that many of the texts suffered from ‘fuzzy’ or unclear boundaries. It was difficult to decide where one segment ended and the next one started, and consequently, the line of reasoning was difficult to follow. This corroborates the exam report’s (see Chapter 2.2) claim that argumentation tends to appear underdeveloped and incomplete in students’ writing.

6.3. Didactic Implications
This study has contributed to the field of English didactics and general writing instruction in two ways: Firstly, it has provided empirical data about how Norwegian upper secondary students write English in an exam setting. Secondly, these data have in turn been analysed through a framework which incorporates both socially oriented practices and cognitively oriented practices of writing. The framework has sought to merge the theoretical concepts of ‘genre’ and ‘text types’ into one single approach. Such an endeavour can be of value as it might unravel some of the confusion surrounding the two terms in current writing instruction. Genre and text types, as I see it, are not mutually exclusive, but rather two sides of the same coin. Genre deals with whole texts, text types with segments of text. Of course, the framework suggested in this study is just one way to operationalise the concept of genre and writing more generally. What is important though, is that the teaching and learning of writing should incorporate both the social and cognitive aspects of writing.

Regarding the social aspects, students should practice how to maintain the same degree of explicitness or writer presence throughout a text. A more pressing concern, however, is the lack of argumentation and discussion in students’ texts. Rhetorical development should therefore be given more focus in the teaching and learning of writing. For example, students
can be asked to analyse a stretch of text using a simple PS-pattern, and in turn, try their hand at writing a text that realises the pattern (or parts of it). Students could also be asked to problematise a subject matter. In other words, they should through writing try to create a ‘the-world-is-in-disorder’-state and in turn solve it (see Chapter 4.2.3). Using the PS-pattern may help students to execute the different stages of discussion. In my experience, students often do not successfully complete a discussion. They describe a situation and point to some problematic aspects, but struggle to offer responses or solutions. This is not surprising given that the latter relate more to ‘knowledge transformation’ than ‘knowledge telling’ (See Chapter 1.2). Another suggestion is that the different command terms in the exam prompts should be explicitly explained. What does discussion actually entail? Such explanations are common within the International Baccalaureate (IB)-program.25

6.4. Potential Limitations and Suggestions for Future Research
This study has a very wide scope, attempting to explore both the social practices and cognitive processes inherent in writing through a genre analysis of twelve written exam essays from graduating students in Norwegian upper secondary education. To my knowledge, this is the first exploration of actual written exam answers of any English course at upper secondary education. It is also the first study relating to students’ writing in the English subject from a genre and text type perspective – concepts that for all their theoretical interest have seldom been subject to practical scrutiny. Although the study has created a research gap and made contributions to English didactics and general writing instruction, I would like to exercise circumspection regarding the findings and their didactic implications. The following section will discuss potential limitations of the study and suggest some areas of future research.

It is acknowledged that the type of research performed in this study is only a partial analysis. A more ethnographically oriented investigation where one explored the contexts within where the texts were created or the writers of the texts could have been interesting. Of particular interest would have been a study of how conscious students are in their choices concerning schematic structure, writer stance and rhetorical purpose. I have only had access

to texts, and not the writers’ thoughts. Interviewing students about their awareness and application of genre and text type knowledge would undoubtedly have been valuable in this respect. Unfortunately, this was not possible to achieve due to limitations of space and time.

Writer stance is also worth more scrutiny, both from a quantitative or qualitative perspective. It would be interesting to study the use and distribution of metadiscoursal resources from a larger sample and with the aim of establishing trends that may be generalised to a larger population. It would be equally as interesting to explore the use of metadiscourse in depth by interviewing a small group of students about their awareness and application of the different metadiscoursal resources. Finally, a closer inspection of potential links between metadiscoursal resources and different components of the PS-pattern could be valuable. Such a study does not necessarily have to utilise the PS-pattern; but the focus should be on where metadiscourse is used in texts. Do certain types of metadiscoursal resources relate with certain stages of text?

6.5. Concluding Remarks

This thesis was written on the verge of significant changes to the Norwegian educational system. From how I interpret the revisions, text in the widest sense of the word (i.e. the combination of more semiotic resources such as letters, sound, pictures etc.) will become more important. The written exam prompts in the English common core subject currently instruct students to ‘create a text’. The concept of genre is also on its way out. I would like to express some concerns about these changes. Bearing in mind that the Norwegian curriculum is knowledge based (Berge et al. 2016), that students nearing the end of secondary education should focus more on knowledge transforming than knowledge telling (Bereiter and Scardamalia 2010), and that students struggle with argumentation (see exam report and my findings), I would argue that there is every reason to retain ‘expository essay’ and genre as concepts in the teaching of writing.
7. References


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https://dok.udir.no/DokumenterAndrekataloger.aspx?proveType=Ev


UDIR (2017b). ‘Eksamensrapport. SPR3010 Samfunnsfaglig engelsk’


8. Appendices

Appendix 1: Samfunnsfagleg engelsk, eksamen vår 2017

Task 2

Long answer

Choose one of the alternatives a, b, c or d.

Task 2a

*Using the material in Appendix 1, discuss the reasons for and impact of homelessness in the UK today.*

Task 2b

Read the material in Appendix 2.

*Using the material in Appendix 2, discuss the consequences the EU referendum is having on the political situation in the UK.*

Task 2c

Read the material in Appendix 3.

*Using the material in Appendix 3, discuss what the outcome of the 2016 US Presidential and Congressional elections says about American politics.*

Task 2d

Read the extract from *The Invention of Wings*, set in 1803 in America, in Appendix 4. Hetty is a young black girl who is also called by the nickname Handful, and Sarah is a young white girl. Mauma means mother in African-American slang.

*Discuss what you learn about race relations in the US from the three main characters in the story. Compare this to what you have learned about race relations from characters in another English-language text or film.*
Homelessness in the UK

In 2014, 112,070 people declared themselves homeless in England – a 26% increase in four years. At the same time, the number of people sleeping rough in London grew by 75% to 6,437. In the same period, the UK have seen a £7bn cut in housing benefits, welfare cuts and a lack of affordable housing.

The average annual cost of homelessness is thought to be £1bn.
'The Homeless Song' by Chester P.
I'm from a corner where these shadows want to murder ya
Offering no help to tackle the hypothermia
I'm trying to make it through the winter; where the season's so bad And police officers came and they took my sleeping bag

If every king deserves a castle then the truth is
My kingdom is out of reach because this world has left me roofless

I'm losing dignity every time I choose to eat
And now there's metal spikes where I used to sleep
I used to play guitar and busk in the spotlight
Until I lost a couple fingers to the nasty frostbite
And overall it's like I'm barely even visible
This mental struggle took its toll upon my physical
I sit and watch the street devoured by its own's traps
And people wonder why the hell I fell through the cracks

If every king deserves a kingdom then the truth is
My kingdom is out of reach because this world has left me roofless

They keep on telling us no second night out no more
But I've been sleeping rough more than half my life, if you keep score
It's hard to find a purpose in the city's glittery glow I sit and wonder where did all my life go

This disenchantment is all I have to call my own
These dirty stairs to the shops are the place I call home

If every king deserves a castle then the truth is
My kingdom is out of reach because this world has left me roofless

Can you fathom how it feels
To watch the world passing by
While you're begging for a meal
And no one looks you in your eyes

So can you fathom how it feels
To see the people pass by
While they're shopping for deals
And no one looks you in your eyes
“Brexit”

The majority of the people who voted in the EU referendum, held in the UK on 23rd June 2016, voted to leave the EU. However, the people of Scotland and Northern Ireland, as well as the citizens of London, voted to remain in the EU. Below you will find four quotations and statistics about the referendum.

Quote 1:
“As an older member of the population, I also resent the current view against older people like me, that Remain voters are pushing, that my vote to leave was somehow selfish and of less value than the vote of a young person, and that I should have thought of their future. I did think of their future, it was just a different future I saw; one living in a free, independent nation, able to make its own decisions without interference from Brussels.”  
- Maureen Morrison, English pensioner

Quote 2:
“There was a democratic vote. The people of Northern Ireland voted Remain.”
- Martina Anderson, MEP (Member of the European Parliament) for Irish republican party Sinn Fein (representing Northern Ireland in the EU Parliament)

Quote 3:
“I want my Scotland to be internationalist, co-operative, ecological, fair, European. And the people from Scotland along with the people of Northern Ireland and the people of London and lots and lots of people in Wales and England also voted Remain within our family of nations.”
- Alyn Smith, MEP for the Scottish National Party

Quote 4:
“We are a country that boasts three of the top ten universities in the world and the world’s leading financial capital. The reputations of our institutions, like the NHS and BBC, echo in some of the farthest corners of the globe. All this is possible because we are one United Kingdom – England, Scotland, Wales and Northern Ireland – and I will always fight to preserve our proud, historic Union and will never let divisive nationalists drive us apart.”
- Theresa May, Conservative, Prime Minister
Breakdown of Referendum vote according to age and geographical region.

**England**
- Leave: 53.4% (15,186,406 votes) vs. Remain: 46.6% (13,360,996 votes)
- Turnout: 73.0%

**Northern Ireland**
- Leave: 44.2% (349,442 votes) vs. Remain: 55.8% (440,437 votes)
- Turnout: 62.9%

**Scotland**
- Leave: 36.0% (1,018,322 votes) vs. Remain: 62.0% (1,861,191 votes)
- Turnout: 67.2%

**Wales**
- Leave: 52.5% (804,572 votes) vs. Remain: 47.5% (773,347 votes)
- Turnout: 71.7%

---

**How different age groups voted**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Age Group</th>
<th>Leave</th>
<th>50%</th>
<th>Remain</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>18–24</td>
<td>27%</td>
<td></td>
<td>73%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>25–34</td>
<td>36%</td>
<td></td>
<td>62%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>35–44</td>
<td>46%</td>
<td></td>
<td>52%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>45–54</td>
<td>56%</td>
<td></td>
<td>44%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>55–64</td>
<td>57%</td>
<td></td>
<td>43%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>65+</td>
<td>60%</td>
<td></td>
<td>40%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Lord Ashcroft Polls

---
Voter turnout: 55.3%

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Nominee</th>
<th>Donald John Trump</th>
<th>Hillary Diane Rodham Clinton</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Party</td>
<td>Republican</td>
<td>Democratic</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Running Mate</td>
<td>Michael Richard Pence</td>
<td>Timothy Michael Kaine</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Electoral Vote</td>
<td>304</td>
<td>227</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Popular Vote</td>
<td>62,979,879</td>
<td>65,844,954</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Percentage</td>
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Presidential election (Electoral College) results map. Red denotes states won by Trump/Pence, blue denotes those won by Clinton/Kaine. Numbers indicate electoral votes allotted to the winner of each state. Electoral votes cast for others: Colin Powell 3, John Kasich 1, Ron Paul 1, Bernie Sanders 1, Faith Spotted Eagle 1
house results

Swing: Democrats +6

senate results

Swing: Democrats +2
“On November 8, the most powerful country in world history, which will set its stamp on what comes next, had an election. The outcome placed total control of the government — executive, Congress, the Supreme Court — in the hands of the Republican Party.” - Noam Chomsky, scholar

“No one likes the Electoral College, except perhaps those who were elected because of it. No one likes gerrymandering, except those doing the gerrymandering.” - Kevin Bleyer, writer

“Donald Trump will lead a unified Republican government. We are eager to work hand-in-hand with the new administration to advance an agenda to improve the lives of the American people.”

- Paul Ryan, Republican, Speaker of the House of Representatives
Appendix 2: NSD Approval

Sigrid Ørevik
Institutt for fremmedspråk Universitetet i Bergen
Sydnesplassen 7
5007 BERGEN

Vår dato: 11.04.2017                         Vår ref: 53533 / 3 / AMS                         Deres dato:  
Deres ref:               

TILBAKEMELDING PÅ MELDING OM BEHANDLING AV
PERSONOPPLYSNINGER

Vi viser til melding om behandling av personopplysninger, mottatt 09.03.2017. Meldingen gjelder prosjektet:

53533  Textual and discoursal resources used in the Social Studies English written exam
Behandlingsansvarlig  Universitetet i Bergen, ved institusjonens øverste leder
Daglig ansvarlig  Sigrid Ørevik
Student  Rune Kjempenes

Personvernombudet har vurdert prosjektet og finner at behandlingen av personopplysninger er meldepliktig i henhold til personopplysningsloven § 31. Behandlingen tilfredsstiller kravene i personopplysningsloven.

Personvernombudets vurdering forutsetter at prosjektet gjennomføres i tråd med opplysningene gitt i meldeskjemaet, korrespondanse med ombudet, ombudets kommentarer samt personopplysningsloven og helseregisterloven med forskrifter. Behandlingen av personopplysninger kan settes i gang.


Personvernombudet vil ved prosjektets avslutning, 10.08.2018, rette en henvendelse angående status for behandlingen av personopplysninger.

Vennlig hilsen

Kjersti Haugstvedt  
Anne-Mette Somby

Kontaktperson: Anne-Mette Somby tlf: 55 58 24 10
Vedlegg: Prosjektvurdering
Kopi: Rune Kjempenes kjempenes@hotmail.com
Prosjektvurdering - Kommentar

Prosjektnr: 53533

Utvalget informeres skriftlig og muntlig om prosjektet og samtykker til deltakelse. Informasjonsskrivet er godt utformet.

Personvernombudet legger til grunn at forskere og studenter følger Universitetet i Bergen sine rutiner for datasikkerhet. Dersom personopplysninger skal lagres på privat pc, bør opplysningene krypteres.

Forventet prosjektslutt er 10.08.2018. Ifølge prosjektmeldingen skal innsamlede opplysninger da anonymiseres. Anonymisering innebærer å bearbeide datamaterialet slik at ingen enkeltpersoner kan gjenkjennes. Det gjøres ved å:
- slette direkte personopplysninger (som navn/koblingsnøkkel)
- slette/omskrive indirekte personopplysning (identifiserende sammenstilling av bakgrunnsopplysninger som f.eks. bosted/arbeidssted, alder og kjønn)
Appendix 3: Consent Form

Førespurnad om deltaking i forskingsprosjektet ”Textual and discoursal resources used in the Social Studies English written exam”

Føremål og bakgrunn
Føremålet med studiet er å identifisera tekstmønster på langsvarsoppgåva i Samfunnsfagleg engelsk skriftleg eksamen.

Prosjektet er del av eit masterstudie i engelsk ved Universitetet i Bergen.

Førespurnaden er send til ei rekke vidaregåande skular i Noreg, og du vert spurd om å delta sidan du tek Samfunnsfagleg engelsk dette skuleåret. Ved å delta vil du bidra til at elevar og lærarar kan få større forståing for kva dei må gjera for å lukkast med skriftleg eksamen i framtida.

Kva inneber deltaking i studiet?
Deltaking inneber at du må senda inn eksamenssvaret ditt per e-post etter eksamen. Dersom du ikkje vert trekt ut til eksamen er du ikkje kvalifisert til å delta i studiet.

Alle som sender inn oppgåva er med i trekkinga av tre pengepremiar à 500 kroner.

Kva skjer med informasjonen om deg?
Alle personopplysningar vil bli behandla konfidensielt. Du vil ikkje kunne bli kjent att i publikasjonen.

Prosjektet skal etter planen verta avslutta våren 2018. Alt materiale (eksamenssvaret ditt) vil då verta sletta.

Friviljug deltaking
Det er friviljug å delta i studiet, og du kan når som helst trekka samtykket ditt utan å gje nokon grunn. Dersom du trekker deg, vil alle opplysningar om deg bli anonymisert.

Dersom du har spørsmål til studiet, ta kontakt med student Rune Kjempenes på tlf. 47 29 29 18 / rune.kjempenes@hfk.no eller rettleiar Sigrid Ørevik på tlf. 92 21 69 34 / Sigrid.Orevik@uib.no.

Studiet er godkjend av Personvernombudet for forskning, NSD - Norsk senter for forskningsdata AS.

Samtykke til deltaking i studiet
Dersom du ynskjer å delta, ver venleg og fyll ut skjemaet nedanfor. Du vil då bli kontakta på e-post like etter eksamen.

E-postadresse: *
Skule: *

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<td>After the United Kingdom voted to leave the EU, there are lot of issues they now have to face. Not all the countries in the union voted to leave the EU. But as a result of democracy, the majority in the United Kingdom voted to leave the EU, and then allow the British government to activate “Article 50”. It is uncertain what will happen to Britain after the exit, because of the issues and consequences they now are facing. The EU referendum was held in the United Kingdom 23rd of June 2016. The day after, as a consequence of Brexit, David Cameron chose to withdraw from his position as a party leader and prime minister. Because of his fight against Brexit, he did not want to pull of “Article 50”. The one to replace him was the present prime minister Theresa May. Consequences the United Kingdom have to face is the new issues that needs to be discussed. To give an example, we have the border controls. Would the United Kingdom like to continue with the same border controls as they leave the EU? One reason people chose to leave the EU was because of the increasing of immigration. Some British people were either afraid or certain that the immigrants were about to replace them by taking their jobs, buying their houses and taking advantage of the health care in the country. Therefore, most likely, the border controls will be sharpened. Scotland have been a part of the United Kingdom since 1707. In 1997 and 2014 there were held referendum regarding Scotland’s independence, but both times Scotland chose to remain in the union. One of the reasons some Scottish people voted to remain in the union, was to also remain in the EU, because of uncertainty regarding their membership if they were independent. Consequently, when the United Kingdom voted to leave the EU, Nicola Sturgeon means that Brexit is a reason for Scotland to hold a new referendum regarding Scotland’s independence. This shows conflicts between the countries that voted to leave the EU and those who wanted to remain in the EU. While the majority of all the British people that voted chose to leave the EU, as Martina Anderson and Alyn Smith mentions in their quotes, Scotland and Northern Ireland “voted to Remain within our family of nations”. The statistic in the Appendix 2 shows how different age groups voted in the referendum. Due to this statistic, we can say that</td>
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The United Kingdom decided in 2016 that they would hold a referendum to remain or leave the EU. As results of the referendum most the votes went to “leave” and resulted in the UK resigning from the EU. Because of this the country ended up in a political situation with its citizens.

As we know the United Kingdom consists of England, Wales, Scotland and Northern Ireland. The majority in Scotland and Northern Ireland voted for “remain” and the majority in England and Wales voted for “leave”. In total the whole nation of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland the votes were “remain 48.1%” and “leave 51.9%”

In Appendix 2 material we received four quotations from citizens from the UK with their view on the referendum. The first one is Maureen Morrison a pensioner that voted for “leave”. He is a member of the old population, and was criticized by the younger generation for being selfish and not thinking about their future. Morrison believes that he did think about their future, he just saw a different future.

The second quote came from Martina Anderson, MEP (Member of the European Parliament) for Irish republican party Sinn Fein (representing Northern Ireland in the EU Parliament). She said
“There was a democratic vote. The people of Northern Ireland voted Remain”. Anderson took her stand on Northern Ireland and their vote for “remain”.

And the third quote is from Alyn Smith, MEP for the Scottish National Party. Smith argues for EU and saying many people across the country voted for “remain”. And that shoves Smith over to the “remain” side.

Theresa May, the Prime Minister, has the fourth quote. Here she praised the country for all its achievements. And that this union will not be torn apart by the nationalists. In these quotes, we can see that the four people have their strong opinions on the referendum and the EU. The outcome of the referendum and Brexit have caused a political situation followed up by consequences. As we can see in the quotes the citizens of the UK have different thoughts on the matter.

The first consequences of the EU referendum were David Cameron resigning from his position and the Prime Minister. Cameron told people he would resign from his position if the results ended with “leave”. His position as PM was filled by Theresa May who was against Brexit, but was not very vocal about it.

It became a separation between the older and the younger generation. The younger population voted for “remain” while the older population voted for “leave”. The UK was separated into areas as well. Scotland and Northern Ireland voted for “remain” while England and Wales voted for “leave”.

Scotland already had a referendum in 2014 about leaving the UK and become an independent country. That time the votes ended up resulting to remain in the United Kingdom. Now that the UK is leaving Nicolas Sturgeon, the leader of SNP (Scottish National Party) have asked for a new referendum since Scotland wants to be a part of the EU. Theresa May declined the first request of a new referendum, but Sturgeon believes it will be a new one.

Leaving the EU will cost the UK economic consequences with a pay on 50 million pounds exist. The EU pays the UK billions in subsidies, without the EU the farmers would risk losing 60% of their income. The government have promised 6 million pounds for three years to replace the EU funding. Wales is estimated to lose 245 million pounds a year.

Northern Ireland is a part of the UK while the rest of Ireland is their own country. It causes fear of a return to the border of the “Troubles”. The projects of cross – community that the EU has founded in Northern Ireland to bring Protestants and Catholics together will almost certain stop. And that may cause the political problems in Northern Ireland to start up again.
When the EU referendum first started, some people didn’t think about the consequences. Some of them voted to “leave” because they didn’t believe that it would receive most the votes. Or they regretted their decision when the results came. Some of them didn’t believe that David Cameron would resign as Prime Minister.

These constitute some of the consequences regarding the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland leaving the EU. The country has come in a political situation with more than more thing to be cautious about. The UK may receive more consequences by leaving EU.

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There are many different reasons for why people end up being homeless. Being homeless has an impact on both themselves and the society. Homelessness occurs in every country in the world, and the UK is one of the countries that struggles with it. According to *Homelessness in the UK* "112,070 people declared themselves homeless in England" in 2014. This was an increase of 26 per cent in four years.

Homelessness has many reasons for occurring. One of the many reasons are that the people who eventually end up homeless has some kind of mental health issue. It has been said that about 72 out of a 100 homeless people has mental health issues. These issues can vary from depression and suicidal thoughts to schizophrenia. If a person suffer for some kind of mental health issue, it can lead to weakening of his or her economy because they might be unable to work as much as before, or it can lead to the loss of a job, which means no income. In addition to losing your job and your income, you might eventually end up losing your home because you cannot pay bills or rent and you will end up homeless.

Long-term physical health issues are also a common reason for homelessness. About every 56 out of 100 homeless people have a long-term physical health issue, whereas just 29 out of a 100 has the same problem in the general population. Long-term physical health issues can vary from osteoporosis (brittleness of the bones) to arthritis (a disease causing painful inflammation and stiffness of the joints). This physical issues can be so bad that the person who has them might not be able to work, and will eventually end up homeless.

Drugs may also be a reason to why some end up homeless. If a person becomes a drug addict it can affect his or her work ability and that may result it loosing of jobs, houses etc. When someone has become a drug addict, that person will most likely...
use his/hers money on drugs instead of paying bills or rent. This will eventually result in loss of his/hers house and they will end up homeless.

- **Sit**
  Whenever there is war, there is always some people who end up homeless. Either their house gets bombed, taken over by someone else or they have to flee. As a result of the war, they do not have a house any longer and it might be hard to get a new one because they might not have enough money to afford one. If they had to flee the country, for instance to the UK, the houses there are more expensive and will not be able to afford it. Therefore, they end up homeless.

- **Pro**
  There are dozens of reasons for homelessness. As stated above, homelessness has not only an impact on the homeless, but also on the society. UK, today, struggles with quite a few homeless people. United Kingdom, being the good society it is, do not acknowledge just how bad it is. The homeless people are often overlooked by passers-by. The homeless will struggle to survive, but the general population will not do anything with it because if they do not acknowledge it, it will disappear. However, it will not. Homelessness will always be a problem if the general population does not acknowledge it and do something about it. Homelessness drags down the average wellbeing in a country.

- **Pro**
  Homelessness can also lead to more crime. Crimes like robbery, drug or weapon trafficking and violence will likely increase due to homelessness. This affects the society the homeless live in. The homeless will likely be treated even harsher than they already are and the security in the country may increase. For instance, in the UK they might have more police in the streets and maybe they will throw away the homeless if they are laying around in the streets.

  All the reasons stated above are valid when discussing the reason to why people become homeless. Mental health issues, long-term physical issues, drug use and war are some of the many reasons for homelessness. Often homelessness can be caused by, not only one, but several of these reasons. By being homeless you also have a certain impact on the society you live in. Crime rates might go up and the average wellbeing might go down. Being a homeless is not easy, but living where there are lots of homeless is not easy either.
Theresa May, the current Prime Minister, thought in the same way as Cameron, both were against leaving the EU. However, she chose to become the Prime Minister since leaving EU was what the people wanted.

Theresa May started the two-year process of leaving the EU on 29 March. The reason that leaving the EU takes two years is because of Article 50. All the EU countries signed an agreement that was part of the treaty of Lisbon which in 2009 became a law. This agreement is what I referred to as Article 50. Article 50 is a plan for any country that wishes to leave the EU.

When I look at the statistics over who voted to stay or leave the EU, I can see that the younger generation wanted to stay in EU, while in general the more older generation you look at the more people voted to leave the EU. This makes a big disagreement between the young and the old, and could potentially form a divided nation.

In the age group of 18-24, 24% wanted to leave the EU which means 73% of them voted to remain in the EU. When I look at the age group that is 65+ I can see that 60% of the people voted to leave the EU, and 40% voted to remain. From the age of 18 to 65+ the votes to leave the EU increases gradually.

The statistics shows the geographical percentage of votes as well. In England, the overall vote for leave was 53.4%. In Northern Ireland, the leave vote was at 44.2%. In Scotland, the vote for leaving the EU was at 38.0%. Lastly in Wales, the leave vote was at 52.5%. Overall after the votes of all the geographical regions and all the people in them, leaving the EU was the result.

There is a map of Great Britain shown besides the numbered statistics that shows color-coded where the majority wanted to leave or remain in the EU. The most clear and noticeable about this is that the northern side of the UK is close to only votes to remain in the EU, even though the result was to leave. If the election was per geographical region England and Wales would still leave the EU. However, Northern Ireland and Scotland would have remained seated in EU. Naturally people in Northern Ireland and Scotland is not happy with the results.

One of the biggest reasons people that wanted to leave the EU had, was to restrain border control and accept less immigrants and refugees in to the UK. Many elderlies had focus on rebuilding Great Britain as the strong and independent powerhouse it used to be. Not in the same ways in terms of colonization, but being able to control their own country without anyone else interfering and making own laws. People look up to the Queen of England and especially the elderly. The Queen has a big influence and like most other older people in the UK she is a bit nationalistic, and wants their country to rule by itself.
**Sit**

Why is it bad for the UK to leave EU, to write about this we need to know what the EU is. The European Union is an economic and political partnership between the member countries. EU started up after world war two, when thinking that countries that rely on trading with each other are less likely to go to war against one another.

**Pro**

The main thing that is bad for UK by leaving EU is the loss of the single market. The single market is a system intertwined in EU. All the member countries are a part of it, it makes it so it is like all the countries are one country in terms of trading. Allowing goods and people to move around freely and using the same currency, the euro.

**Res**

When the United Kingdom now is leaving the EU, they lose the single market. Trading with other countries whether it is export or import it will become much more expensive. Of course, they can try and get an agreement like for instance Norway has. Norway is a part of a trading agreement that gets Norway a part of the single market. The single market allows free movement of goods, services, money and people within the European Union.

**Sit**

Not being a part of the EU might affect the younger generations more than the elderly. You lose the freedom to travel to all other EU countries as freely as when you are in the EU. The younger generation loses many opportunities to work or study abroad, or at least now having to pay much more to get the same opportunities.

**Pro**

Right after the referendum for leaving EU had been finalized the pound dropped. It went down to the lowest it had been for 30 years. After the referendum, the pound stayed 15% under the dollar, and 10% under the euro.

**Res**

This referendum for leaving the EU might provoke Scotland to become an independent country. Scotland had 38% votes to leave, and 62% votes to stay in the EU. Scotland may consider leaving the UK and joining EU as an independent country. It has become disunity in the UK. Most of the oil income in the UK is from Scotland, if Scotland leaves the UK and joins the EU as an independent country, UK is going to have more economical issues regarding the oil. They may have to either pay Ireland a lot more for oil, or find another country to buy oil from like for instance Norway.

UK leaving the EU is scary, because it might start a chain of reactions. Now that one country has gone out of EU, it could possibly push other countries over to follow in their footsteps. EU as mentioned above was created to prevent countries from going to war against each other, by making relations.

Now that UK is becoming Brexit, the pension agreements are not going to stay the same, now that Theresa May has taken over after David Cameron. There are some demographical changes as the population growth is rising. There is a lot of people in the UK
that are between the age of 40 to 60. As the average age continues to rise, in 20 to 30 years the retiree numbers will be tremendously high. Furthermore, not keeping a good and steady economical pension agreement will not be good in the future, a solution will have to be put on the table.

In Appendix 2 at page 1 there are 4 quotes. In the first quote, there is an elderly woman from England who is talking back to the younger generation, because the younger generation thinks that the elderly has only thought of themselves and not the future of younger people. Maureen Morrison is answering back, and saying that this is not true. Morrison is clearly a nationalist as she says, “I saw; one living in a free, independent nation, able to make its own decisions without interference from Brussels.”

In quote number two Martina Anderson does not seem pleased with the result of the referendum, as all she had to say was, “There was a democratic vote. The people of Northern Ireland voted remain.”

In quote number three Alyn Smith is talking about how she wants Scotland to stay in EU and why. Smith mentions that it goes along with people from Northern Ireland, the people of London and many people in Wales and England.

In quote number four, the last quote, you could argue that Theresa May is bragging about the UK. May then states that, “All this is possible because we are one United Kingdom.” She says she will always fight to preserve their pride, and will never let divisive nationalists drive them apart.
actually winning, and this is what happened in the 2016 election between Hilary Clinton and Donald Trump.

Looking at the appendix we can find statistics on the outcome between Trump and Clinton. Trump has got 304 electoral votes while Clinton has 227. But, looking at the popular vote, which is the number of people who have voted for you in total, Clinton leads by two percent. Still, who won the election? Trump did. The wasted votes to Clinton has led to a lot of negative reactions as most people actually did not want Trump to represent the US at all. Demonstrations has been held with signs saying “Trump is NOT my president!”

The Electoral College is, as we can see, unfair. Moving on in the appendix, the writer Kevin Bleyer that earlier has been hired by Obama himself agrees to this. Stating in connection to Trump “No one likes the Electoral College, except perhaps those who were elected because of it. No one likes gerrymandering, except those doing the gerrymandering”. Gerrymandering is also fairly criticized in the Electoral College as it gives politicians an option to change the borders of a district to adapt it to their own advantage, something the Republicans are accused of doing.

Looking further into the outcome of the election, we can peek at the map of the Electoral College which shows where the parties have their support, but more importantly, it is an eye opener to how the system is dependent on agreement within the parties. For a President from either the Democrats or the Republicans to win, there has to be agreement within the party if one of their candidates are ever going to be elected. If Sanders for instance won the state of California, he would steal Clintons votes, and the Republicans would have an even better chance of winning. In other words, with this political system, the people cannot really vote for the President they want to which is visible on the map of the Presidential Election.

Connecting the Presidential Election map to the Congressional results in the appendix, there is no surprise that the Republicans have a majority and that the Democrats still have gotten their fair share of seats. But, the outcome of the Congressional election shows us why there tend to be a deadlock or block when it comes to change in the American society. Looking at the outcome of 2016, many Republicans and Democrats have to cooperate both in the House of Representatives and in the Senate, and as shown before, most tend to support their own party and to block the ideas of the other.

The house results also shows us the situation of the small parties today. They have absolutely no seats. Because of the winner takes all system, it is impossible for smaller parties to win an election as you need a majority or plurality of votes to get represented in Congress. In fact, the Democrats and the Republicans are both huge coalition parties where the members have meanings from left to right within both parties. This is what they have to do to get represented, and is proven to be the only
thing that works with this system. After the political system in
the US was created, the nation had several parties or interest
groups, and those who did not win had to make coalition in
order to do so, and of course, the others then had to follow to
win themselves.

Moving to the last quotations in the appendix, we can find two
reactions to the results of Trump and the Republican Party
leading the country that are in contrast to each other. Scholar
Noam Chomsky states “The outcome placed total control of the
government – executive, Congress, the Supreme Court – in the
hands of the Republican Party”. This shows a scholar’s view on
the political system in the US. She is not a politician, and therefore on the outside compared to Paul Ryan, and shows
concern with her statement. She knows that the government is
not united. The Republican Party is left with the power. This is in contrast with the Republican Paul Ryan who states “Trump will lead a unified Republican Government. We are eager to work
hand-in-hand with the new administration...”.

To conclude we can say that the outcome of the 2016 elections really reflects how the Electoral College. Clinton did not win, even with the most votes, and both in Congress and with the President, the winner takes all. This reflects the unfairness many people react to in the US, and using the appendix, we can see the reactions to normal scholars like Noam Chomsky. An outcome of the Electoral College has placed total control with the Republican Party.
candidate with the majority of the popular vote, also gets the total amount of electoral votes in their state. A lot of people have protested over how unfair the American political system is. In fact, Donald Trump himself, has criticised the system.

Both the federal, something that concerns the entire nation, and state elections are in single-seat election districts. That basically means that no matter how many candidates that are running for election, only one representative from each district can be elected.

The American political system is a two-party system. A lot of people do not agree with either of them. Many of them choose not to vote at all, some vote for a third-party and some vote for the candidate they hate the least.

The process of electing a new president is a long, time-consuming and also, expensive journey. The nomination and campaigning start earlier in the year. Already in January the first primaries are held. Three months prior to the election day, the parties chose their final candidate for president. The election day happens in November every four years.

Since one must have the majority of the electoral votes to win the presidential election, it does not matter if one only win the popular vote. Trump won with 304 electoral votes of a total of 538 in the Electoral College! Trump basically won because small states are over-represented in the Electoral College.

It is fair to say that American elections is all about money. You must have a lot of money to be able to run for President. Donald Trump has not political experience, but he still won. He has one thing, and that is money.

To gain control in the House of Representatives, one must have 218 seats. Trump won 241 seats. The senate consists of 100 Senators. Again, the Republican Party won the majority with 52 seats. This means that the Republicans has total control of all the chambers – both executive, legislative (Congress) and Supreme Court.

In this text, I have focused on the outcome of the 2016 US Presidential election. I have discussed what the outcome of both the Presidential and the Congressional elections says about American politics. As I have mentioned, the President is not elected directly by the popular vote. Even if a candidate loses the popular vote, he or she can still win in the electoral college. Their political system might be old-fashioned, but it sure has benefitted certain candidates, like for example Donald Trump. The electoral college benefits the one who is winning, but not the vast majority. The result of the presidential election in 2016, has provoked a lot of people, both Americans and people all over the world.
The new United Kingdom

The British EU referendum of 2016 shook the world. The much unexpected outcome, United Kingdom leaving the EU, became reality because of many different factors, and will most certainly have many consequences on the political situation in the United Kingdom, as well as the whole British society. In this text, I will shed light upon some of the factors that made Brexit possible, as well as discuss all the different consequences of the referendum, both positive and negative.

The first factor that lead to the leave side winning the referendum was the growing frustration of the British people. Outsourcing, combined with mass immigration made many brits frustrated over their future, as they felt that their own country betrayed them by moving many jobs out of the country, as well as giving immigrants jobs while they were to sit around unemployed. This frustration made it so that many brits believed that leaving the EU and closing all borders for immigration will fix these issues, something that made many of these beforementioned people vote leave.

Another Brexit-enabling factor is the rise of right wing populism across whole Europe. Over the span of the last few years, right wing populism has gained a huge growth in popularity, luring many people, both young and old into a bubble of nationalism and xenophobia. This growing belief, that immigrants are the cause of everything bad, that having open borders is asking for terrorist attacks, and that helping other countries in need is a bad thing, has led to even more brits believing that leaving the EU will make the UK a perfect place, and voting for Brexit.

The first consequence of the EU referendum was already prominent in the days after the results were published. The referendum split the British society, in several ways. The poll provided in appendix 2, showing how different age groups voted, shows clearly that older people were the ones voting leave, while a big majority of people between the age of 18 and 34 wanted to remain in the union. This led to a huge split and distrust between young and old people, as the younger part of the population, people that will live in the new, EU-free UK, felt betrayed by the old people that voted to leave the EU. This split can be seen in quote 1 in appendix 2, where pensioner Maureen Morrison talks about how young people look at her vote as less valuable than their own, and that she did think about their future, only that it was a future without the EU controlling the United Kingdom.

The United Kingdom might cease to exist because of the outcome of the referendum. The unity that once held the United Kingdom together was already severely weakened, because of
In June 2016 the UK had a referendum concerning their membership in the European Union. The two official campaigns the growth of nationalism in the smaller countries of the union, and the results of the referendum only made things worse. The whole Scotland and Northern Ireland voted to remain in the union, while England voted leave, weakening the feeling of unity in the kingdom. Martina Anderson, member of the European Parliament for the Irish republican party Sinn Fein pointed out that the people of Northern Ireland voted remain in this democratic vote, showing that people are fed up with England deciding for the whole union, and who knows, the United Kingdom might soon become a kingdom only consisting of England and Wales.

Brexit contributes to the growth of right wing populism and xenophobia. The Boris Johnson-led Brexit-campaign promised brits a new future, with control over British borders, control over the British economy and a future that is ruled from London and not Brussels. This new, closed off UK is like a paradise for the conservative, and will contribute to even more growth of right-wing populism. Xenophobia, which is a fear of everything different, is a natural result of right-wing growth. The EU-free United Kingdom will become a society afraid of everything that isn't British, and we might see an increase in hate crime because of this. Another consequence of the growing right-wing in the UK will be a more conservative society, more likely to be led by the conservative party.

The referendum does also provide the United Kingdom with new, positive opportunities. Brexit might bring many new, positive things to the British society, even though many people look at it as a step backwards. Regaining control over the British economy might contribute to a better society for brits, as the government can spend their own money on British people, instead of doing what the EU tells them to. Regaining control over the borders seems very xenophobic and unwelcoming, but might help fix the problem with unemployment in the United Kingdom. Leaving the European Union might seem scary for now, but might end up being just what the UK needs to fix itself.

The EU referendum is either a step in the wrong direction, or a brilliant opportunity to fix the UK, depending on who you ask. There is no doubt that the referendum will have many consequences on the political situation of the United Kingdom, both good and bad, and that the British society is forever changed because of it. Nobody can foresee the future, and we will just have to wait and see, to see what the new, EU-free, United Kingdom will become.
“Vote Leave” and “Britain Stronger in Europe” went out for almost three months, with a budget of approximately 7 million pounds each, campaigning and debating, hoping to get people to join their side. In the end, the country was split in half, with the “Leave” side winning with 52% of the votes. What will be the consequences of this decision?

The decision to leave the EU split the country in half. Not only were the people not agreeing, but there were also splits in the political parties. This is especially notable in the Conservative Party. Even though the Conservative Party is now leading the UK out of the EU, it is important to note that there are parts of the Conservative Party that do not think Brexit is a good idea when it comes to the economy and business aspect of it. However the Conservative Party were losing their votes to the United Kingdom Independence Party, who had been running their campaigns solely on getting out of the EU and on immigration policies with racist implications. The Conservative Party had to do something, both to show their voters that they were taking them seriously, and to settle the disputes within their own party. Hence the referendum was called, and Brexit was set in motion.

Now that Brexit is happening, it will be exciting to see if UKIP will continue to grow as a party, or if their support came from people who wanted Brexit, and who now will return to the bigger parties. Also, if they do continue to grow, will they formulate policies on other topics, or will they run exclusively on their immigration policies? And if they keep growing, should we worry about the direction the UK is going politically?

Not only were the political parties split on the Brexit issue, the entire UK was. As we can see on page 2 of appendix 2, both Northern Ireland and Scotland voted “Remain”, while England and Wales voted “Leave”. Thus a big concern following the decision to leave the EU is what will happen to the United Kingdom? The Scottish people did not think they would end up in this predicament when they voted to stay a part of the United Kingdom, during their own referendum of independence in 2014. However the terms are now changed, and separatists are calling for a new referendum to give them their independence, and the opportunity to apply for an EU membership of their own.

As for Northern Ireland, their biggest concern is what will happen to the border between them and Ireland. This border has been open, but now that the UK are pulling out of the EU, there is a risk of that border being closed off again. This will make it much harder for people to travel back and forth, which is a huge issue for those who live on one side of the border, and work on the other. Consequently, there are movements in the Northern Irish population who want to break away from the UK and reunite with Ireland.

Equally important is what we can see on the second set of statistics on page 2 of appendix 2. The vast majority of people under the age of 44 wanted to remain in the EU. We can also see
in quote 1 from appendix 2, that the younger population are less than happy about the decision: “I also resent the current view against older people like me, that Remain voters are pushing, that my vote to leave was somehow selfish and of less value than the vote of a young person, and that I should have thought of their future..” This is a common thought amongst the younger voters. It is thought that they should have had more to say, considering they might have to live with the consequences of this decision for a longer period of time. Moreover it might be really difficult for the UK to re-join the EU if they would wish to do so later. After all, the EU might want to show other member countries that it is best to stay.

To conclude, there will be many challenges for the UK to deal with in the near future. The United Kingdom as we know it might be on its way out. Scotland might get their independence, and Northern Ireland could soon re-united with Ireland. As for the younger population of the UK, they might just have to cross their fingers, and hope that the older population in the UK were right, and that Brexit is the right choice for the United Kingdom.

Britain is the first country to ever leave the European Union. Among many uncertainties, the only thing that is sure at this point is that there are going to be a lot of difficulties in the negotiations between the UK and the EU. In the middle of these negotiations, Prime Minister Theresa May has called for a snap election to be held on the 8th of June. May hopes to win an even bigger majority in the House of Commons than she has presently, so that she will have an easier time with getting approvals for the EU negotiations. But despite the Conservative Party being way ahead in the polls, the British population is still not unified in their opinion on Brexit, as both younger people and the people of Scotland and Ireland voted to Remain. In the upcoming election, we will see if these groups have accepted the decision to leave or if they are still trying to find ways to avoid Brexit.

Brexit is not the only referendum that has taken place in Britain in recent years. In September 2014, Scotland held a referendum on whether they should become an independent country. 55% voted to remain a part of the United Kingdom. Many Scots are probably regretting that decision now, as they are forced to join the UK in leaving the EU without actually wanting to. Nicola Sturgeon, the First Minister in Scotland, has expressed her wish for Scotland to hold a new referendum on independence. However, Theresa May has said that a new referendum is not going to happen, and in the end, it is the British government that decides if Scotland can hold a new referendum.
Scotland was not the only nation who voted to Remain, Northern Ireland were also in favour of staying in the EU. Although the wish for a referendum in Northern Ireland is not as distinct as in Scotland, there are people who feel that Northern Ireland have more possibilities, as they could also cooperate with the Republic of Ireland.

The British people were certainly not unified in their choice to leave the European Union. In Scotland, a majority of 62% voted Remain, and in Northern Ireland the Remain side got a 56% majority. Geography was not the only factor that divided the electorate – age also played an important role. The Remain side had the support of all age groups between 18 and 44. Their support was strongest in the youngest group, 18-24, where they got an overwhelming 73% majority. The support from the young people however was not enough, as all age groups over 45 were distinctly in favour of Brexit. Even though old people clearly did not agree with young people about what would be the best thing for Britain, English pensioner Maureen Morrison argues that her choice was not made without thinking about the future. She says: ‘I did think about their future, it was just a different future I saw: one living in a free, independent nation’.

The day after the referendum, Prime Minister David Cameron resigned. He had been the one to promise that Britain would hold a referendum on Brexit, during his election campaign in 2015. Later he had campaigned against it and he decided to step down when the Leave side won. Another Conservative, Theresa May, took his place. She had also been in favour of Remain, although she was not very active in the campaign. She has said that she now supports Brexit, at it is what the people want. In the spring of 2017 she triggered Article 50, which gives Britain two years to negotiate their divorce from the EU.

Although the prime minister earlier denied plans of holding a snap election before the next scheduled election in 2020, May has now announced that a snap election will be held at the 8th of June this year. There are several reasons why she has changed her mind. The Conservative Party is hugely popular at the moment, while the Labour party is still getting used to Jeremy Corbyn as their new leader. Secondly, while Brexit at first did not seem to affect the economy as much as was feared, huge companies are now relocating from London to cities within the EU, and it seems the British economy is in danger if May cannot negotiate new trade deals with countries outside of the EU. It is therefore better for May to hold an election now, before people realise how severely the economy has been hit, and start to blame the Conservatives for this.

The reason why David Cameron was forced to promise a referendum on Brexit was due to the huge rise in popularity for right-wing party UKIP. UKIP essentially only had one specific goal: Brexit. Now that their goal has been achieved, their popularity has fallen dramatically. The Conservative Party has been able to
pick up a lot of the UKIP voters, which also gives Theresa May an advantage in the upcoming election.

Despite Scotland deciding to stay in the UK, nationalism has been high in Scotland, and in the last general election in 2015 the Scottish National Party won 56 out of Scotland’s 59 seats. This weakened both Labour and the Liberal Democrats, while it did not hit the Conservatives as hard, as Scotland has generally voted further to the left than England and Wales.

The general election in 2015 was indeed a very important election for Britain. UKIP managed to win 12.6% of the votes, although they only secured one seat in the House of Commons. As earlier mentioned, the SNP also had their best election ever, and won 56 seats. The Liberal Democrats, on the other hand, lost 49 seats and most of their power. However, they are hoping to gain more voters in the upcoming election, as they are the only party who wants to hold a second referendum on Brexit.

Labour also offers an alternative to May’s ‘hard Brexit’. Their program promises that they will negotiate a ‘soft Brexit’, where the rights of all EU citizens living in the UK will be looked after, and Britain will stay in the single market-trade deal that, at the moment, makes up 40% of Britain’s export. However, Labour has, during the last few years, suffered under a leadership that is split between Corbyn’s wish to move Labour further to the left, and other people in the party who wish to stay more in the centre.

One of the most interesting aspects of the snap election will be to see the voter turnout. After all, Britain has been through two elections in two years, and Scotland has had three elections in the last three years. It might be harder for politicians to get people up and voting now than it would be if it had been five years since the last election.

It is hard to say what the results of the election will be. Will Labour be able to come together as a unified party who can actually challenge the Conservatives? Or will Theresa May be able to strengthen her majority and prove that she is a leader who has support from the people? Not only does Britain’s future depend on how the election turns out, but also on what sort of deals the government are able to negotiate when leaving the EU. The population has showed itself to be very divided in their opinion of the European Union, but unless the Liberal Democrats gain enough support to force through a second referendum, it is already too late for normal people to have any more say in if Brexit is going to happen. They can, however, choose between Labour’s ‘soft Brexit’, which would probably include Britain staying in the single market, and Theresa May’s ‘hard Brexit’, that will limit immigration and pull Britain out of the single market.
A Divided Union in A Time of Uncertainty

The last time the very existence of the United Kingdom (UK) was threatened, Prime Minister Winston Churchill said “This is not the end. It is not even the beginning of the end. But it is, perhaps, the end of the beginning.” (Churchill, 2013, s. 71). Even though the UK is not at war today, the quote is, regardless, a fine illustration of this crucial time in British history and politics. It began with the Scottish referendum of independence, where the union prevailed due to the arguments of safety and further devolution. However, in an effort to restore British sovereignty by leaving the European Union, the nation was suddenly once again divided. What consequences of the EU referendum are currently causing strain on the political situation in the UK, and is the existence of the UK threatened?

First of all, the political instability in Westminster has been a direct consequence of the EU referendum already before the electorate decided to leave. In 2015, when David Cameron won a single party majority in the general election, he promised a referendum on EU membership in order to annihilate the instability and dissension within the Conservative Party. As a result, the Brexit campaign created two completely new fronts, with Conservatives, for instance, campaigning against each other. Moreover, the population’s decision to leave shocked the Prime Minister, who decided to resign. Different from Cameron, Theresa May seemed to be motivated to negotiate with the EU, as she promised a hard Brexit, meaning “No deal is better than a poor deal”. Consequently, the UK is struck with economic and political uncertainty, because no one knows what to expect after Brexit. To demonstrate the political instability, May also called for a snap election despite the fact that she refused this thought when entering office. With the intention of gaining a larger majority, she is hoping to seem more united when beginning the negotiations with Brussels. In other words, uncertainty rages in the UK.

Equally important are the referendum results, and how a they split the population into young and old. According to Lord Ashcroft Polls, only the youngest parts of the British population voted clearly to remain in the Union. In contrast, the oldest parts of the population were in favour of leaving (Lord Ashcroft Polls, 2017). This divide is most probably caused by the young worrying about the uncertain future, whilst the old population dreamed of the Empire and the symbolic value of sovereignty. Consequently, some young Remain voters pushed for the vote of the old to value less, as the old population certainly failed to be conscious of their future. English pensioner Maureen Morrison reacted to these accusations, and said “I did think of their future, it was just a different future I saw; one living in a free,
Eva: independent nation...” (BBC, 2017). Here the differences in prioritizing becomes evident, as already mentioned.

Sit: On the other hand, the young voters obviously respected the democratic results, as there were few further protests. As a matter of fact, the young voters actually answered that they would not demand a referendum on the Brexit deal, according to the YouGov polls 27th-28th of April 2017 (YouGov, 2017). This poll is unfortunately somewhat inaccurate, because a percentage of 22% were undecided. Nevertheless, the UK has no reason to fear violent demonstrations and riots from the young population as the Brexit negotiations continue. Thus, the EU referendum was indeed regarded as a fair and democratic vote.

Sit: Another important factor to consider is how the referendum divided the UK into its historic nations, with only England and Wales voting to leave the EU (BBC, 2017). Especially that Scotland markedly wanted to remain causes significant turmoil for a number of reasons. First thing to remember is that one of the main reasons why Scotland remained a part of the UK in 2014 was due to the uncertainty concerning EU membership. The UK, and even Spain, mentioned how EU membership would be difficult if Scotland decided for independence. This wish is expressed in Alyn Smith’s statement to the European Parliament on behalf of the Scottish National Party: “I want my Scotland to be internationalist, co-operative, ecological, fair, European.” (Smith, 2017) Consequently, Nicola Sturgeon, leader of the Scottish National Party, quickly urged for a new independence referendum. Furthermore, if we compare the number of English votes to the rest of the UK, we can undoubtedly claim that England decided the referendum. In other words, the Scottish people are once again victims of English dominance. For this reason, Theresa May should expect to handle more Scottish discontent.

Pro: Despite the fact that the referendum results should spark nationalism and discontent, Theresa May is prepared to tackle this turmoil. In her statement, she praised the reputation of UK’s institutions, and because of her passion for the Union, she added “I will always fight to preserve our proud, historic Union and will never let divisive nationalists drive us apart”. According to the YouGov polls, we can take her statement literally, because the snap election is bad news for the nationalists. Only 27% of voters in Scotland answered they would vote for the SNP, whilst a surprisingly high percentage of 24% said they would vote Conservative (YouGov, 2017). Traditionally Scotland has been Labour territory, although nearly every Scottish constituency turned nationalist in the 2015 election. Nicola Sturgeon will, therefore, struggle to maintain her party’s presence in Parliament. As a consequence, the Scottish nationalism will most likely become less visible in British politics, contributing to stability during the Brexit negotiations.

Eva: In conclusion, the EU referendum has clearly caused division in a time when the United Kingdom desperately requires unity. The
voting results show how old voters have imagined a completely different future from the young voters, and prioritized symbolic values above the uncertain dangers of a Brexit. Consequently, the common political division between the age groups is becoming increasingly evident. Under these circumstances, is it correct to allow the old population to vote against the will of the future generation? Likewise, there is every reason to discuss whether it is a fair democracy that Scotland is pulled out of the European Union against their will because of the English opinion on the matter. This significant difference brings the question whether Scotland would benefit from independence after all even though the Scottish people remains undecided. In other words, Theresa May is fighting a two-front war because of the EU referendum. One front is towards Europe, where her task is to ensure stability and security for her people. The other front is the dangerous division within her precious union, a division that possibly will reveal itself once again on 8th of June. Hence, the political consequences of the EU referendum can be described as political instability, uncertainty, and division. Nevertheless, these issues are not radical enough for us to expect the crumbling of the United Kingdom.

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Brexit: dividing Britain

The people of Britain voted for a British exit, or Brexit, from the EU in an extraordinary referendum on Thursday June 23. The outcome prompted celebrations among Eurosceptics around the continent and sent shockwaves through the global economy. After the declaration of the result, the pound fell to its lowest since 1985 and David Cameron resigned as Prime Minister (Foster, 2017). Prime Minister Theresa May triggered article 50, the step that starts the timer on two years of talks about Brexit. The referendum has been widely criticised, and some people are calling for a new one. The outcome has caused outrage amongst younger people, and especially amongst citizens of global cities like London. Of its major cities, only Birmingham voted to leave. The majority of the leave voters were older, working class people, and poorer anti-immigration voters, usually people who felt left behind. How will the tight result divide the country? What are the political consequences of leaving, and will the United Kingdom still stand? These are the questions on everybody’s minds.

The decision to leave is already dividing the people of Britain. The older members of society voted in favour of leaving, and many resent the view that their vote was selfish. Younger voters were in favour of remain, in fact, in the age groups 18-44, the majority voted remain (Lord Ashcroft’s Polls, 2017). The younger generations feels as though the older generations have ruined

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their future. Meanwhile, the older generations picture a future with a free, independent nation. The Brexit vote might make it more difficult for international students to come to the UK, and make it harder to get a job within the EU. Many businesses are also removing workplaces from Britain, because of the referendum, like for example Ryanair. In other words, the vote will completely change the future of those about to embark on the working life. In London, as well as other major cities, the frustration is clear, as most major cities voted in favour of remain. For these cities, which have many young inhabitants and are global cities, Brexit could be disastrous. Jobs will be removed and international companies might not invest in the city of London anymore. The division within the country is already creating conflict.

The Brexit vote is also affecting the race relations in Britain. Many Brexiteers’ reason for wanting to leave is Eastern-European immigrants coming to work in the UK. “They’re stealing our jobs” and “they do not contribute to our society at all”, are reasons leavers have given as to why they want to leave the EU. The referendum led to a boom of post-Brexit racist attacks, with people being abused in the streets. Separating from a union will obviously lead to a divided country, and suddenly these anti-immigration people got their thoughts confirmed by the public. Rise in racism and hate crimes is effecting the political situation in Britain today.

Moreover, many minorities are feeling left behind, and angry with the government. For instance, Jamaicans and other Caribbean immigrants, who came here to work many years ago, are living in awful conditions. They feel as though their situation has been forgotten in all the Brexit focus, and frustrated that no political party is taking a stand for their cause. At the same time, they are also affected by the rise in racism, as they are now being told to go back to Caribbean. The political situation surrounding immigration is more tense than ever.

Brexit’s impact on the political situation in the United Kingdom is massive. The decision to leave the EU has sparked a desire to leave the United Kingdom in Scotland and Northerns Ireland. The majority in both countries voted in favour of remain, and they do not wish to be a part of a United Kingdom, outside of the European Union. Sixty-two percent from Scotland voted remain, and about fifty-five percent in Northern Ireland (the guardian, 2017). As a result, the people of Scotland and Northern Ireland are calling for a referendum, to be able to leave the United Kingdom. Political movements and nationalist parties are on the rise in both countries, and the discontent with the decision to leave is fuelling their campaigns.

The question of Scottish independence has always existed. The Scottish Nationalist party arranged a referendum on Scottish independence in autumn 2014. In the referendum, Scots voted to remain part of the United Kingdom. However, Brexit might change people’s minds. Party leader Nicola Sturgeon is currently...
looking at the possibility of holding a second Scottish independence referendum before the UK leaves the European Union. SNP wants Scotland to be internationalist, co-operative, fair and European. They want to stay in the “family of nations” (the guardian, 2017). The idea of leaving the United Kingdom to be able to stay in the EU is also reflected in the Irish Republican Party Sinn Fein (the guardian, 2017). In other words, the Brexit vote has disturbed the political stability within the United Kingdom.

Following this, the Brexit vote will also lead to some future political changes. In many ways, British politics will not be quite the same. For instance, the UK will no longer have to answer to European laws and legislation, meaning that, in some ways, the British businesses will stand more freely. Luckily, most of the political changes will fall on the EU. By exiting, the EU will lose one of its largest and most important members, which will have a significant impact on the European political system. On the other hand, the British representatives in all EU core institutions will be removed, and the UK will no longer have anything to say in the matters of the European Union. Being excluded from international matters, and losing the vote in European decisions, are some of the reasons as to why young people wants to stay in the EU. Britain is currently standing quite alone, and with a need to build new trading relations. This might cause negative consequences for the British economy, and lead to less funding for institutions like the NHS. Meanwhile, all the funds the UK put into financial aid in the EU could be used to benefit the citizens of the UK.

The current political situation in the UK is unstable. The sudden changes, like David Cameron resigning for example, has caused many people to crave stability and a peaceful exit from the EU. All the economic, political and social changes, scare people, and they desire a solid government. At the moment, the Prime Minister is not an elected one, and many felt that it would not be democratic if Theresa May were allowed to continue as Prime Minister, without an election. Initially Theresa May stated that she would not call for a general election. Despite her promise, May suddenly declared that a general election would be held, prompting an election campaign full of confusion and frustration. People were drawn to May because of her steadiness and strong leadership, however, some feel this sudden change of heart, proves otherwise. Remainers are also using this election to create a future referendum, as some see the election as an opportunity to re-join the EU. The voters are having a hard time finding a party to put their faith in, as the only questions on people’s lips seem to be about Brexit. People are frustrated that issues regarding health care, school system and minorities are being overshadowed by the Brexit negotiations. At the same time, the nationalist parties are gaining followers in Scotland and Northern Ireland, causing many Britons to fear the end of the United Kingdom, and therefore seeking the party most willing to fight for the Union.
In conclusion, the Brexit vote will change the UK forever. There is no way of knowing exactly what the future holds, and no way of knowing what the UK will look like after the negotiations are done. However, British politics are in a state of chaos. The younger generations are feeling frustrated and worried about the future, whilst the older generations celebrate their victory. Race relations in the UK have degraded, and the people of Britain is more divided now, than ever. The British and European Politics will change dramatically, and Britain will no longer have the opportunity to influence Europe. In addition, the people of Scotland and Northern Ireland have expressed a wish to leave the UK, in order to stay in the EU. Nationalist Parties are on the rise, and the politicians in both countries seem to prepare for war. Again, the United Kingdom seems to be in danger of falling apart. The tight result is not only splitting up the people of Britain, but the countries as well.

The Republican Party’s great success – time to throw a 4-year long Republican party?

The 8th of November 2016, Donald Trump was elected the next President of the United States. About a month later, the Electoral College chose Trump as president, in accordance with the result of the election, despite Hillary Clinton receiving the majority of the popular vote. The result of the elections has left the Republicans in control of all the three branches in the system of Checks and Balances; the executive, the legislative and the judicial. The next four years will seemingly be dominated by the Republican’s politics. We can ask ourselves the following questions: “How is the American system that has given Trump and the Republic Party this much power built up, and what does this outcome say about the situation in the American Politics?”

Firstly, to understand how Trump could win with a margin of 77 electoral votes, it is necessary to understand how the Electoral College works. It is a system where the voters cast their votes on electors, who in turn will pass on the votes on your behalf. This system was invented in a time when electors from each state would travel to deliver their states’ votes by horse, and has stuck by ever since. Each state is granted a certain number of electors, based on the state’s population. Usually, the electors’ votes are in accordance with the popular vote, but there are examples where this isn’t the case, as it was when Trump won over Clinton last year.

Next, the system of Checks and Balances that the Republicans now hold total control over, needs to be explained. It is a system consisting of three branches, each one checking and balancing
each other, in order to prevent that one branch misuse power. The three branches are the executive, which is the President, the legislative, which consist of the Congress and the Senate, and it is the judicial, which is the Supreme Court. Each branch keeps control over each other. President Trump can for example get a new law through the legislative branch, but it could be stopped in Supreme Court if it is against the Constitution.

Also, how the Republican Party managed to get majority in the Supreme Court is rather interesting. Once a judge has been appointed as a Supreme Judge, you are so for the rest of your life, or until your health prevents you from doing your job sufficiently. During Barack Obama’s last year of reign as president, a new judge was supposed to be appointed. But needing the Senate’s approval, Obama never managed to get a Democratic Supreme Judge appointed. The Senate, with a Republican majority, postponed for as long as they could, hoping that Trump would win the election in order to appoint a Republican and conservative judge. This is one of the few things that President Trump has done, and the selection of Judge Gorsuch has ensured both Republican as well as conservative majority in the Supreme Court. As the judges for Supreme Court are selected for life, it is a way for Trump to influence the direction of US politics long after his presidency runs out.

Because of the elections last autumn, the Republicans now has control over all these three branches. This would in theory mean that things should flow very smoothly for the Republicans in the next 4 years, but is it so? After Trump’s first 100 days of Presidency, he claimed that being President wasn’t as easy as he had thought it would be, being controlled by the quite strict system that is Checks and Balances. Although having gotten through the system in some instances, we can only conclude that Trump is having some trouble using his party’s majority in his favour.

With the system keeping President Trump checked and balanced, he has seen himself forced to use executive orders to try and get things done. This is in many ways a loophole in the system of checks and balances as it is a presidential order without the need of approval in Congress. It is however not a durable way of changing things, because the executive orders aren’t laws or amendments to existing laws. Many of the orders are likely to fall away when the next president takes seat, as it was the case when Trump replaced Obama as president.

As a result of the election result, many have for the last half year or so asked themselves the following question: “How could Donald Trump become the President of the United States?” Not only is it the most powerful position in the world, but it was given to a person with no experience from politics, and who came with quite absurd comments during the presidential debates. It indicates at the very least that the American people are looking for a change. Donald Trump is for sure something new and different, and came with a lot of promises during the
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election campaign. He also addressed the immigration situation in the USA, one which have irritated many Americans for some years now. But even so, it seems strange that an unexperienced politician like Donald Trump managed to get a hold of the most powerful position in the world.

In the map of the presidential election results given in appendix 3, we can see which candidate received most votes, state by state. The trend is clear: Trump is popular in bigger parts of the central of USA, as well as in north and in south. We can point to some factors causing this. The people living in the rust belt up north, have grown tired of their poor situation, in an area with high unemployment rate. The southern states want a change in the immigration policy on the Mexican border, and found consolation in Trump’s promises of a “great, great wall”.

Especially Florida was an important state to win for Trump, giving as many electoral votes as it did, as well as often tipping in the Democratic Party’s favour. Lastly, many of the other states marked as red, have been Republic states for a long time, and many voters in these areas are voting for their party, more than for the presidential candidates.

On the other hand, the Democratic voters are mostly from states in the east and the west, coming from the metropolitan areas. We can see that important states such as California and New York, giving as many electoral votes as 55 and 29, wanted Hillary Clinton as president. Metropolitan areas are often characterized by having a younger population, which in turn often have a more receptive view on immigrants. These are also high-density areas with a lot of voters, which can help explain the fact that Hillary Clinton won the popular vote, but lost the electoral vote.

Moreover, based on the voter turnout of only 55,3%, the interest in American politics seem low. This means that only a little over half of the American population turned up to vote. As there was some controversy around both the candidates, we can assume that this low number is partially because people didn’t want to vote for either of the candidates. Even so, the low turnout gives the impression that many have, to some degree, given up on politics altogether. This is of course only speculation, but to me it seems weird that only half the country shows up to vote, especially in an election with a great amount of controversy, and the drastic result of Donald Trump becoming president.

Lastly, a Republican Party that wants to limit the authorities’ influence on the economy, reduce taxes, have a strong military and that beholds a conservative view on abortion and neutral-gender relations, receives the majority of the votes. (Notaker, 2017) This makes an interesting point, and tells us that the people want change. After eight years of Obama as president, introducing and inserting the health care reform Obamacare, people doesn’t seem impressed. Instead of health care for everyone in need of it, they want tax reductions instead, and to for the health care if need be. This differs quite a bit from how we think in Norway, where a welfare state including free health
care for all is taken for granted, despite consequently having relatively high tax rates.

To conclude, we can say that the situation in the American politics is quite interesting. How the American political and voting system is built up doesn’t explain why, but only how Trump and the Republican Party ended up with not only executive, but also legislative and judicial power. We need to see to social factors, such as immigration, unemployment, taxes and the resentment for a national health service. First then can we understand why the outcome of the elections last autumn reached this rather unusual result. Trump as President, as well as a Republic majority in all the three branches of Checks and Balances, proves that the social and political situation in USA is in desperate need for a change.