Building a pedagogic metalanguage I: curriculum genres

David Rose


0. Introduction

This is one of a pair of papers that offer suggestions for providing teachers with knowledge about language that they can use in their practice. This paper focuses on analysis of curriculum genres; its companion paper (Rose, this volume) focuses on knowledge genres. The suggestions derive from a long-term, large-scale project in teacher education, known as Reading to Learn (R2L) (Rose 2015, in press a, Rose & Martin 2012). Reading to Learn is a genre-based pedagogy, that includes the widely known genre writing approach (Christie & Martin 1997, Cope & Kalantzis 1993, Rose 2008, 2011a, Rothery 1994, 1996), but starts with reading as a central skill for learning in school. Key elements of the R2L pedagogy include 1) carefully designed teacher-class interactions that enable all students, to 2) engage in curriculum texts that may be well beyond their independent reading capacities, 3) interrogate passages of text with detailed comprehension, 4) recognise the language choices that authors have made, 5) appropriate these language resources into their own writing, and 6) construct texts with effective organisation and language choices to achieve their purposes.

However, Reading to Learn is more than a classroom pedagogy; it is also a professional learning program that gives teachers the knowledge about pedagogy and language to apply confidently with their students. Key elements of this knowledge include a) the written genres that students must control for success in school, and patterns of language that realise these genres at the levels of texts and sentences, and b) genres of classroom practice through which students acquire school knowledge, and patterns of classroom discourse that realise these classroom genres at the levels of lessons and teacher/student exchanges.

The classroom pedagogy and professional learning program constitute an integral whole, one embedded in the other. The program has developed in the context of hundreds of inservice teacher training programs across education sectors, internationally. It is delivered through a series of face-to-face workshops interspersed with classroom practice over six months to a year. To be effective and appreciated by teachers, the knowledge presented must be relevant and consumable for all, and immediately applicable in diverse classrooms, producing significant gains for students. These constraints, together with limited time for presentation, and the wide range of previous experience and training amongst teachers, have shaped a pedagogic design that is effective and efficient. In line with action research principles, the design has been negotiated with teachers through continual cycles of design, presentation, application, evaluation and re-design, over 15 years.
1. Design principles

1.1 Recontextualisation

The design of pedagogic metalanguage is informed by SFL descriptions of language and learning in social contexts, but is deliberately recontextualised, from the context of linguistic and educational research to the contexts of classroom teaching and teacher education; in doing so it uses principles from SFL and Bernstein’s sociology of education. Bernstein approaches ‘recontextualisation’ from two perspectives. As a region of institutional practice, the ‘recontextualising field’ (education faculties, boards of studies, educational publishers) mediates the production of knowledge in academia, and its reproduction in schools, “appropriating discourses from the field of production and transforming them into pedagogic discourse” (2000:113). In terms of pedagogic activity, ‘recontextualising principles’ mediate the distribution of resources in society and evaluation of learners in schools. They are “a principle which removes (de-locates) a discourse from its substantive practice and context and relocates that discourse according to its principles of selective reordering and focusing” (2000:173). The recontextualising field determines what knowledge and values are to be recontextualised for the classroom, from which academic fields; recontextualising principles determine how they will be reordered and focused. The two perspectives are brought together in Figure 1.

Figure 1: Recontextualisation of resources and knowledge

1.2 Genre and register

In SFL terms, recontextualisation can be described at two levels of context -- as variation in register (field, tenor, mode) and as variation in the genres configuring these register variables. This assumes the stratified model of discourse in context in Figure 2. Each of these strata consists of systems of resources for meaning that are instantiated as patterns of meaning in actual texts, i.e. as instances of meaning.
Seen in these terms, recontextualisation involves re-instantiating patterns of meaning from one text to another (Martin 2006). A pedagogic metalanguage ‘reorders and refocuses’ knowledge about language produced in the academy for educational applications. The academic texts may include courses and textbooks in linguistics and education. Their patterns of meaning are re-instantiated in the classroom as reading and writing lessons and the texts that are written and read, so the new contexts involve major shifts in genre, field, tenor and mode.

As the social goal of genre pedagogy is redistribution of semiotic and hence economic resources to less advantaged groups, a general recontextualising principle is to aim for equality in educational outcomes. This principle can be specified for tenor (where the aim is to engage and support all students to achieve success), for field (where equality is afforded by giving students equal access to the curriculum knowledge on which they are evaluated and their progress determined) and for mode (where access is opened by giving students equal control over the modalities in which curriculum knowledge is encoded, particularly acquiring knowledge through reading, and demonstrating its acquisition in writing).

1.3 Knowledge genres and curriculum genres

These selections in register shape the design of pedagogic metalanguage, above at the level of genre, and below at the levels of discourse, grammar and phono/graphology. Globally, teachers and students need to control two families of genres that constitute the culture of schooling. One is the genres of school knowledge (stories, chronicles, explanations, reports, procedures, arguments, text responses) -- ‘knowledge genres’ in short (Martin & Rose 2008). The other is the multimodal genres of classroom practice, in which knowledge is exchanged between teachers and learners -- ‘curriculum genres’ (after Christie 2002).

In terms of metalanguage, teachers and students should be able to recognise and name the knowledge genres they are reading and writing, and the curriculum genres in which they are
engaged. Control of knowledge genres is critical for recognising the types and organisation of knowledge and values presented in reading, and for organising knowledge and values appropriately in writing. Control of curriculum genres is necessary for teachers to plan and deliver effective lessons, and for students to engage in them successfully.

At the levels of discourse and grammar, the focus of pedagogic metalanguage is different for the two genre families. For knowledge genres, the focus is on patterns of written discourse in which knowledge and evaluation unfold through a text, and on patterns of grammar through which discourse is realised in written sentences. For curriculum genres the focus is on patterns of spoken discourse in which knowledge and values are negotiated between teachers and learners. Curriculum genres may be relatively complex, as they involve two fields: one is the knowledge being exchanged, the other is the pedagogic activity through which it is acquired.

In curriculum genres, learners construe both knowledge and social values through pedagogic activities. These activities are negotiated between teachers and multiple learners in a class, enacting a variety of teaching/learning relations that we will term pedagogic relations (after Bernstein). Pedagogic activities are organised as sequences of lessons, each composed of series of activities that are negotiated in cycles of interaction between teachers and learners. Pedagogic relations typically include some students more than others in the classroom conversation, position them in hierarchies of success and failure, and may be explicit or implicit (Bernstein 2000). And while knowledge genres can be multimodal (verbal/visual), curriculum genres involve spoken, written, visual, gestural and manual modalities. These dimensions of curriculum genres are schematised in Figure 3, with knowledge and values projected by pedagogic activities, relations and modalities.

**Figure 3: Dimensions of a curriculum genre**
2. Curriculum genres in schools and teacher training

For both knowledge and curriculum genres, the metalanguage that teachers need (for text selection and analysis, lesson planning and assessment) is different from the metalanguage that their students need (for participating in classroom activities and applying to learning and assessment tasks). Pedagogic metalanguage involves two steps in recontextualisation, once for teacher education, and again for classroom practice.

2.1 Recontextualising registers and genres

Recontextualising theory for both training and teaching entails reducing the density of technical fields, and grounding them in familiar contexts. To this end, Martin offers a potentially fruitful re-analysis of technicality and context dependency in discourse, as ‘mass’ and ‘presence’ respectively (Martin in press a, Martin & Matruglio 2013) -- inspired by Maton’s (2014) analysis of ‘semantic density’ and ‘semantic gravity’. Martin’s analyses are specified for field, tenor and mode (Table 1 below).

Mass (density) is concerned with how technical the field is, how values are condensed into iconic wordings and images, and how meanings are previewed and reviewed, and thus ‘aggregated’ in words and images as a text unfolds. Presence (context dependency) is concerned with whether the field is grounded in everyday experience or abstracted from it, whether knowledge is presented as negotiable or authoritatively ‘factual’, and whether meanings are presented implicitly (presumed from a shared environment) or explicitly (construing their own field).

Table 1: Mass, presence and register variables

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>field</th>
<th>tenor</th>
<th>mode</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>mass</td>
<td>technicality of knowledge</td>
<td>iconisation of values</td>
<td>aggregation of meanings</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>presence</td>
<td>everyday/abstract</td>
<td>negotiable/factual</td>
<td>implicit/explicit</td>
</tr>
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With respect to recontextualising metalanguage, we can use mass as a measure of what is re-instantiated from theory to practice, and presence as a measure of how it is taught in teacher training and the classroom. From the perspective of mass, knowledge about language is re-arranged into structures that are most relevant for classroom learning, it is re-valued according to its relevance for these tasks, and aggregated to focus attention on what matters. With presence, teaching language knowledge involves cycling between commonsense and abstraction, between asserting knowledge and values and negotiating them with students, and between shared experience and new knowledge. These dimensions of recontextualisation are summarised in Table 2.
Recontextualisation thus re-instantiates registers of academic theory, teacher education and the classroom -- reordering and refocusing knowledge about language and learning, how it is valued and negotiated, and its modes of presentation. But more abstractly, it also re-instantiates knowledge and values from one genre to another. The canonical knowledge genre of linguistic theory is the taxonomising report, that sub-classifies language features, exemplifies and describes their functions; so a linguistics course or textbook is a macro-report. Its value for students derives from the authority of the textbook, the author, the institution, and the expectation of evaluation and professional qualifications. But the genre through which this knowledge is re-instantiated as pedagogic activity in the classroom is a macro-procedure, setting out steps to follow in series of activities, including the multimodal resources to be used, and principles for negotiating activities with learners. Its value for teachers derives from its practicality, appliability in the classroom, and potential improvements in student evaluations. So whereas reports re-instantiate research activity as classification and description, procedures re-instantiate taxonomic knowledge as classroom practice.

2.2 Designing procedures for curriculum genres

One way to learn procedures is to participate in the activity, observing how it is done – perhaps being guided by an expert to practise its steps. Another is to study the procedure as a text before practising it. This is the function of recipes, instructions and technical training. In general, ostensively learnt procedures have evolved in a culture, while studied procedures are designed. Professional training in many fields includes study of procedures for designed activities, from engineering to surgical operations. But in certain fields, procedures have low status, not least in teacher education where they are often dismissed as rote learning and constraining individual creativity. Nevertheless all professional fields involve both taxonomies and activities, principles and procedures, knowledge and skills. Fields that are most closely involved with economic activity explicitly design and teach their procedures to students and practitioners – for example the physical and biological sciences, engineering, medicine, law. Those less directly concerned with material production may be less explicit about practical procedures – for example sociology and social control, literary theory and discourse analysis, teacher education and classroom activities.

One consequence of leaving procedures implicit is that they must then be learnt ostensively, by observation and practice. This is precisely the practice of contemporary teacher education, where academic courses focus on knowledge, principles and values. How to teach is learnt in the ‘practicum’, by observing practising teachers and practising oneself, with some degree of guidance. A further consequence is that implicit procedures cannot be
collectively designed and taught; without a shared metalanguage for naming and analysing them, they can only be shaped by the practitioner. This is in fact the ideal expectation of teacher education - that by providing students with appropriate knowledge, principles, values, they will be prepared to recontextualise these themselves into appropriate teaching practices. A growing international literature and rounds of public debate question this assumption (Nutthal 2005). In practice, teachers acquire their procedures partly from their practicum observations, partly from advice and materials they come by when they start teaching, and partly from their own experience as students. A handful of school curriculum genres have common names, such as ‘guided reading’ or ‘science experiments’; but in general, intuitive acquisition means that teachers can put few names to the curriculum genres they use, or readily describe their activities.

Genre pedagogy, and R2L in particular, deliberately set out to confront this problem, by designing teaching procedures for each of the tasks in learning to read and write the curriculum (Axford, Harders & Wise 2009, Rose, Gray & Cowey 1999, Rose & Martin 2012, Rothery 1994, 1996). These are procedures for designing and managing the curriculum genres of the classroom. They are not simple recipes, but complex conditional procedures with multiple choice points. They are adapted and sequenced into variable macro-procedures designed to meet the varying needs of teachers, students, fields of knowledge, institutional and classroom contexts. As with technical procedures in other professional fields, their designs simultaneously recontextualise taxonomic knowledge of their informing disciplines, and the complicated conditions of their practical applications. They are also designed, not only to be teachable in classrooms, but learnable in teacher education. And for explicit learning, a metalanguage is needed for classroom curriculum genres, just as it is for knowledge genres.

2.3 Designing procedures for teacher training

In addition, professional learning is also needed for teaching the classroom genres. A professional learning program consists of what I will call ‘training curriculum genres’. Through training curriculum genres, teachers acquire both the procedures for classroom curriculum genres, and the metalanguage for discussing them. Training curriculum genres are no less complex than the classroom activities they are designed to teach, but their complexity can be interpreted in terms of mass and presence.

In terms of technicality and abstraction (field), knowledge about language and pedagogy must be re-technicalised for classroom practice, and pedagogic activities must be designed to abstract this knowledge, from teachers’ intuitive practice to technical design. In terms of negotiation and iconisation (tenor), teachers are expected to let go of familiar practices in favour of new ones, so the new knowledge must be negotiated and charged with values that they recognize – so that its authority becomes their authority (so that they ‘own it’). In terms of explication and aggregation (mode), the goal is teaching literacy through multiple modalities; so the training must model the deployment of these modalities, showing teachers how to teach through reading and how to guide writing, by participating in the practices themselves. This involves using metalanguage to shunt between activities in the here and now of training, and their future application in their classrooms – continually
previewing and reviewing so the functions and structuring of the methodology don't get lost in the detail.

Accordingly, R2L classroom methodology includes a series of classroom curriculum genres, that have been designed for teaching knowledge genres. But the R2L professional learning program also involves a sequence of curriculum genres – a curriculum macrogenre that has been designed to train teachers in pedagogic metalanguage, for both knowledge genres and classroom curriculum genres. Whereas the metalanguage for knowledge genres is organised around their relevant features (Rose, this volume), the metalanguage for curriculum genres is organised around the procedures for teaching them. The remainder of this paper describes these procedures. It is itself a meta-procedure for teaching these procedures to teachers.

In terms of the model developed in Figure 3 above, knowledge is symbolised with speech bubbles in Figure 4. Each genre in the sequence projects knowledge about the next genre, building up pedagogic metalanguage as the sequence unfolds. This paper presents a macro-procedure for a sequence of training curriculum genres. Each curriculum genre presents knowledge about macro-procedures for implementing classroom curriculum genres, whose function is teaching knowledge genres. The meta-procedure in this paper is designed for researchers and teacher educators to design training curriculum genres that will give teachers the pedagogic metalanguage they need.

Figure 4: Procedures for curriculum genres for teaching knowledge genres

3. Teacher training: integrating theory with practice

The professional learning program continually models the multimodal teaching practices of its classroom curriculum genres. As in the classroom methodology, training activities centre on joint reading of textbooks that present the theoretical components of the program, together with procedures for curriculum genres, and activities for analysing and designing curriculum genres and knowledge genres. Teachers are guided to read, discuss, mark and annotate the books, with a data projector modelling these activities, and videoed lessons to analyse. Writing activities are practised by teachers adopting student roles to scribe on whiteboards, guided by the presenter and class. They write in their own copies of the books as texts are jointly constructed, and mark and annotate their copies before practising with
their own curriculum texts. The program thus integrates study of language and pedagogic theory with practice in classroom curriculum genres. In teacher education, by contrast, these activities are more often ‘dis-integrated’ between academic study and the practicum.

### 3.1 Introducing the learning model

The program sequence opens with social values – a discussion of the goals of democratising education outcomes. This theme is negotiated by inviting teachers to present the issues that brought them to the program. These typically revolve around the problems of the low literacy skills of many of their students, difficulties in managing a wide range of student ‘abilities’ in a class, and their lack of training to address these problems. These issues are re-focused by pointing out that closing the learning gap in schools and classrooms requires weaker students to improve their skills at much faster rates than more successful students. The value of the program is then promoted with data and writing samples that show how it accelerates literacy growth for all students, but much faster for lower achieving students – while simultaneously addressing the needs of all. This theme is reiterated throughout the program in order to counter the common view that students should learn at their assessed ‘ability’ or ‘instructional levels’, a practice that Hattie (2009) reports is less than half as effective as teaching all students at the same level.²

Building a pedagogic metalanguage then begins with discussion of the structuring of pedagogic activity, as this is the first principle for designing curriculum genres. Technically, each pedagogic activity has an orbital structure, with a learning Task at the core; this nucleus is preceded by a Focus that specifies the Task, and followed by an Evaluation (Rose 2014, Rose & Martin 2012). The Task may also be preceded by a Prepare phase, optionally providing support for the Task, and followed by an Elaborate phase, that can extend knowledge from the Task. This orbital structuring is schematised in Figure 5.

**Figure 5: Orbital structuring of pedagogic activity**

As with knowledge genre descriptions, this analytic model originated in pedagogic applications (Rose 2004), and the terms Prepare, Focus, Task, Evaluate, Elaborate are designed to be sensible, learnable and applicable for teachers. However, the orbital model of pedagogic activity is a technical representation, comparable to other types of semiotic structure described in SFL theory (Martin 1996). Instead, teachers are introduced to these concepts through the popular image of learning cycles. The model is simplified to just three terms for an initial presentation, Prepare-Task-Elaborate (as in Figure 6).
Figure 6: Structure of pedagogic activity as a learning cycle

This image of the learning cycle is continually re-iterated as an icon in R2L. It is first valorised as the means by which the program’s outcomes are achieved. Its phases are then brought to consciousness as follows. Teachers’ assumption that learning occurs through tasks is readily invoked, with examples from manual activities to reading textbooks or following lectures. Their intuition that learning is most effective if the task is done successfully is also invoked, by discussing the emotional effects of failure in reducing the capacity for learning. It then becomes obvious that a learning task is most likely to be successful if the learner is first prepared by a teacher (or author), countering the individuating constructivist view that learning emerges independently from within the learner. Once the task is done successfully, and is affirmed by the teacher, it opens up the capacity for a further step in learning; this may be the next step in a learning sequence, or a higher level of understanding of the task.

The discussion is then distilled into the learning cycle icon Prepare-Task-Elaborate. Familiar lesson activities are then invoked to demonstrate that teachers already follow this model intuitively, reinforcing its value as a representation of their own practice. In fact this lesson activity itself follows the same model – the task is for teachers to recognise the structuring of their own pedagogic practice; it is prepared by bringing their intuitive knowledge to consciousness, negotiating the experience they share; and it is elaborated by naming what they have recognised and abstracting it as a technical structure that is valorised as a shared icon.

3.2 Introducing the language model

The discussion of learning cycles then paves the way for the introduction of SFL’s stratified model of language in context, which forms the second principle for the design of curriculum genres. Teachers recognise that to prepare effectively, they first need to analyse the learning task. This may be straightforward for manual tasks, but is far more complex with semiotic tasks – for which a coherent understanding of language is required. The language model is accordingly valorised as essential knowledge for teachers, and becomes the next bonding icon in the program.

As the focus is on the complexity of the language task, the pathway from everyday to technical knowledge focuses on metaredundancy, the patterns of patterns of patterns across language strata (Lemke 1995), and on the functionality of social contexts (Martin in
press b). To this end, the strata of language are first introduced in commonsense terms as words, sentences and texts in social contexts. Social contexts include the people involved (tenor), the subject matter (field), the ways that meanings are made (mode) and the global social purpose (genre). This is illustrated with the tenors, fields and modalities of the training curriculum genre, at once grounding it in shared experience and generalising it beyond written texts. The language strata are then complexified, as texts consisting of phases of meaning expressed as paragraphs in writing, sentences consisting of word groups expressing chunks of meaning (who or what it’s about, what doing, where, when) and written words consisting of syllables and their letter patterns. The strata are then technically named: patterns in texts as discourse, patterns in sentences as grammar, and patterns of letters in words as spelling.

Reading and writing, speaking and listening involve processing all these patterns of patterns of patterns simultaneously and automatically, so that struggling at any level can impede learners’ capacity to comprehend or produce coherent texts. Teachers’ specialised knowledge of the reading task is then re-instantiated in this technical framework. What they commonly term ‘decoding’ means recognising patterns of letters in words; ‘literal comprehension’ is recognising words in sentences; ‘inferential comprehension’ is recognising semantic relations in discourse; and ‘interpretive comprehension’ means recognising field and tenor, or interpreting meanings in relation to readers’ knowledge and values. These re-technicalised understandings become part of the program’s metalanguage.

The model is also used to position the activities that teachers currently use for literacy teaching. For example, ‘shared book reading’ engages children in the fields of texts (as does topic teaching in curriculum subject areas); ‘text type’ writing models the stages of texts; ‘composition’ teaches the structures of paragraphs; grammar exercises practise rules for sentences and word groups; vocabulary and spelling activities commit words and their letter patterns to memory; phonics programs drill patterns of sounds and letters. Such collections of activities dis-integrate the tasks of reading and writing into separate activities using different texts, words, sounds and letter patterns (as mentioned above for the activities of teacher education). These dis-integrated practices widen the achievement gap, as they advantage children with extensive experience of relevant reading practices in the home (who can thus recognise and synthesise the functions of each activity), and disadvantage children without comparable experience (who often perceive the different activities as a collection of meaningless school tasks (Rose 2006, 2011b)).

An alternative approach is then presented, that integrates the literacy learning process as a planned sequence of activities informed by the language model (Figure 7). The sequence unfolds from reading to writing. Reading begins at the level of context, drawing on the background knowledge students need to access a text, and a summary of how the field unfolds through the text – which is then read aloud. The teacher then guides students to read the text or a passage in detail, sentence-by-sentence, by discussing each word group in turn. Certain words may then be selected to practise spelling their letter patterns. The sequence thus unfolds through a hierarchy of integrating practices that are each meaningful to all learners. The field is the context of the text, which is the context of each sentence, which is the contexts of each word, which is the context of their letter patterns (described by Firth, 1935). Writing builds back up, first with rewriting the language patterns studied in
detailed reading, and then by constructing a whole text. This re-technicalising of the language model re-aligns teachers intuitive assumptions about language learning into an explicit framework, countering the implicit bricks-&-mortar language model on which much language teaching is based.

**Figure 7: An integrated sequence for literacy teaching**

3.3 **Analysing and designing curriculum genres**

Once the design principles for the learning and language models have been negotiated, explicated, abstracted, technicalised, aggregated and iconised, they can be used to describe the curriculum genres that constitute R2L methodology. The core of the program includes five main curriculum genres, known as Preparing for Reading, Detailed Reading, Intensive Strategies, Joint Rewriting, and Joint Construction. These genres can be shaped and sequenced in various combinations to construct curriculum macrogenres. Briefly, Preparing for Reading supports students to follow a text as it is read, by orally summarising how it will unfold; Detailed Reading supports them to read a text or passage with detailed comprehension, by identifying and discussing the sequence of meanings in each sentence; Intensive Strategies deepen this support, by guiding students to manually manipulate word groups and words in sentences, practising their spelling, and writing the sentences; Joint Rewriting supports them to use the language patterns studied in Detailed Reading, to write new text passages; Joint Construction supports them to construct whole texts, using knowledge acquired from reading, and structures of genre models (see lesson demonstration videos at BOSTES 2014, Reading to Learn 2015). These genres and the staging that realises them, are presented in Table 3.³
The staging of each genre in Table 3 follows the general principle of Prepare-Task-Elaborate. This staging is briefly elaborated as follows. Preparing for Reading supports all students in a class to follow a text as it is read aloud, by first previewing the sequence in which the field unfolds through the genre. A relatively accessible text such as a short story or novel chapter may be read as a whole, and aspects of its field and language features may then be discussed. A denser or more technical text may be read paragraph-by-paragraph, with each paragraph previewed and reviewed. Students may also be guided to mark key information, as each paragraph is reviewed.

Detailed Reading supports all students to read a passage from the reading text with detailed comprehension of its field, and to recognise the author’s language choices. The teacher previews a sentence, and reads it, and then prepares students to identify each wording, with a simple meaning cue. One student is asked to identify the wording aloud, moving from one student to another in turn, in order to engage and affirm all students, and its meaning is then elaborated. These cycles continue for each sentence in the selected text passage. This part of the generic structure is thus recursive.

Intensive Strategies include three activities that strengthen students’ control over the language patterns in the Detailed Reading passage, and move towards writing. In Sentence Making, students are guided to cut up sentences written on cardboard or paper strips; the task is to mix up and re-order the words and word groups, elaborated by creating new sentences from the cards. In Spelling, students are guided to cut up words from these sentences into their letter patterns, and practise writing them on small white or blackboards (this can be extended with other words that use the same spelling patterns). Sentence Writing builds on Spelling, as students practise writing whole sentences, using the words they have learnt to spell, to practise fluent writing. Intensive strategies are also used to teach early literacy in school, and for learning other languages, and other challenging language tasks.

In Joint Rewriting, students are guided to appropriate what they have learnt from Detailed Reading to write a new passage. For factual genres, this begins with note making using the highlighted wordings from the passage. The teacher then guides the class to create a new text, sentence by sentence, drawing on the notes. For stories, arguments and text responses, this activity begins with planning a new field, and then rewriting the same grammatical patterns as the Detailed Reading passage (with new characters, setting and
events for a story, a new issue for an argument, or a new text focus for a response). In each case, the teacher is guiding the students to make complex language choices, interwoven at the levels of register, discourse and grammar. Typically students take turns to scribe both notes and new texts on the class board, with the teacher’s guidance.

Joint Construction supports all students to organise their writing in appropriate genres for assessment tasks, so can they demonstrate what they have learnt from reading. For factual genres, this begins with note making from source texts, which the class then uses to construct a text with appropriate organisation, guided by the teacher. For stories, arguments and text responses, it begins with deconstruction of a model text in the target genre, labelling its stages and phases. The same stages and phases are then used to construct a new text with a new field. For procedures, an activity is demonstrated and jointly practised, then its steps are jointly constructed.

3.4 Introducing the programming model

These sets of options in curriculum genres are the components through which teachers construct curriculum programs. They are presented to teachers as a set of nested teaching/learning cycles providing three levels of support, as in Figure 9.

**Figure 9: R2L curriculum genres as teaching/learning cycles**

The outer cycle in Figure 9 relates directly to the teaching contexts of curriculum, text selection, lesson planning, and assessment. The curriculum is taught through reading, and determines what texts will be selected for teaching it. The selected texts must then be analysed in order to plan reading lessons. The curriculum also determines what genres will be selected for evaluating learning through writing. These must be analysed in order to plan writing lessons. One option for a lesson sequence is to stay in the outer cycle (1), moving from Preparing for Reading to Joint Construction, followed by Individual Construction. Once a text has been jointly constructed, students can practice the same task themselves, or extend the text from the joint construction task, with the teacher circulating and supporting
as necessary. Individual Construction provides additional supported practice before independent writing for assessment, allowing the teacher to give further support as feedback according to each student’s needs. Another lesson sequence option is go from Preparing for Reading to the middle cycle (2) – to Detailed Reading and Rewriting. These curriculum genres provide students with intensive practice with the field and language features of reading texts, before applying them to writing a whole text in Joint Construction. Joint Rewriting is followed by Individual Rewriting, to provide additional supported practice. Typically multiple detailed readings and rewrites are practised before returning to the outer circle for Joint Construction.

In terms of the language task, the primary focus of attention in Preparing for Reading is on comprehending the field of the reading text. In Detailed Reading, the field is explored in detail, together with the patterns of grammar and discourse that realise it; and metalanguage for these patterns is introduced. In Joint Rewriting, the primary focus becomes these language patterns, using and extending the metalanguage introduced in Detailed Reading. In Joint Construction, the primary focus is on genre, together with field. Deconstruction introduces the terms for stages and phases, which are applied in writing the new text, along with the developing metalanguage for grammar and discourse patterns.

The Joint Construction genre was designed by Joan Rothery and colleagues (Martin & Rose 2012) to guide students to appropriate the staging and language features of model texts. This knowledge about language is accumulated in the manner of natural language learning, described in Halliday’s (1975) and Painter’s (1984, 1991) early language research – by experiencing instances in context with a teacher’s guidance. The pedagogic power of Joint Construction comes through students’ joint participation in the activities of deconstructing and constructing texts, before they attempt to write their own. They learn by doing the activity, which provides a meaningful context for studying the language patterns made explicit by metalanguage.

Detailed Reading and Rewriting are designed on the same principle, for students to instantaneously acquire detailed knowledge about grammar and discourse patterns characteristic of the genre under focus. They provide meaningful contexts to explore and appropriate instanital language patterns. As Joint Construction is the genre through which a metalanguage for the staging of knowledge genres is acquired, so Detailed Reading and Rewriting fulfil the same function for grammar and discourse. These designed curriculum genres are thus more effective for both learning language, and learning about language, than are familiar grammar teaching activities. Crucially they are embedded in the context of learning through language, so they are neither separate nor in conflict with curriculum learning.

A further lesson sequence option is to follow Detailed Reading with Intensive Strategies (3), before beginning Rewriting. Sentence Making intensifies students’ control over instanital discourse and grammar patterns and provides opportunities for reinforcing metalanguage. As clauses are cut into word groups, and groups are cut into words, their instanital functions in the sentence are discussed. They can also be labelled with their systemic functions, at clause and group rank (discussed in Rose, this volume). Repeated practice with different texts teaches students to consciously recognise and select systemic functions in instanital...
contexts, and to use the systemic labels as metalanguage. This technique is also used with teachers in the training program. Finally, as Detailed Reading and Sentence Making support students to acquire discourse and grammar patterns, the Spelling activity then supports them to learn spelling patterns, with their associated metalanguage, such as syllable, Onset and Rhyme. Again these patterns are learnt as instances in the context of meaningful texts, which is more effective than traditional spelling exercises.

Multiple macrogenres can thus be constructed from the R2L curriculum genres. The macro-procedure for doing so, presented in the training, is a conditional procedure with multiple choice points. This complexity is negotiated with teachers as jointly constructed options for lesson programming, further linking their everyday practice with the abstract principles of curriculum genre design. Preparing for Reading is presented as a daily activity, as it becomes the standard starting point for teaching the curriculum in most lessons. Teachers then decide how often they expect independent writing for assessment, which determines the frequency of Joint and Individual Constructions. Teachers’ daily and weekly timetables, and their students’ needs, then determine how much time they can allocate to Detailed Reading, Rewriting and Intensive Strategies.

4. Analysing and designing classroom discourse

4.1 Dimensions of classroom discourse

This designed metalanguage for curriculum genres gives teachers conscious control over the global patterns of their own pedagogic practice. However there is a deeper layer of teachers’ pedagogic discourse which can be harder to bring to consciousness, because it is acquired tacitly and applied intuitively, moment by moment in the classroom. This is the level of classroom exchanges through which teachers interact with their students to guide and build their knowledge and skills (Martin 2007, Martin & Rose 2005, 2007a, b, Rose 2004, Rose & Martin 2012). Curriculum genres are realised in classroom discourse in the proportions outlined in Table 4 (detailed in Rose 2014). Register variables are those outlined in Figure 3 above.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>register</th>
<th>knowledge &amp; values</th>
<th>pedagogic activity</th>
<th>pedagogic relations</th>
<th>pedagogic modalities</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>discourse semantics</td>
<td>experiential &amp; interpersonal items &amp; relations</td>
<td>phases in learning activities</td>
<td>teacher/learner exchanges</td>
<td>sourcing of meanings</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 4 is elaborated as follows, from left to right. Firstly, learners construe knowledge and values through pedagogic activity, as discussed in section 1.3 above. The knowledge and values are realised as semantic items in classroom discourse, and relations between them as a lesson unfolds. Secondly, pedagogic activity is composed of sequences of learning tasks, that are prepared, focused, evaluated and elaborated by teachers, as illustrated in Figure 5 above. Thirdly, these learning cycles are negotiated through exchanges that enact pedagogic relations between teachers and learners. In order to engage students in learning, teachers continually ask questions of their classes, and use students’ responses to elaborate with new
knowledge (Alexander 2000, Gibbons 2002, Mercer 2000, Sinclair & Coulthard 1975, Wells 2000). Each micro-task is enacted to infer an appropriate response; it is focused by the teacher’s question, usually evaluated, and elaborated if successful. Fourthly, various pedagogic modalities are used as sources of meanings. Sources of meanings in the discourse include students’ or teachers’ personal knowledge, previous lessons, or recorded texts that may be shared or individual, verbal or visual (full discussion in Rose 2014).

4.2 Bringing classroom discourse to consciousness

Managing these exchanges to achieve teaching/learning goals with classes of 20, 30 or more students is immensely complex; but teacher training seldom, if ever, analyses and designs the structure of classroom exchanges in detail. Teachers are not explicitly trained in the analysis, design and application of classroom discourse, although general protocols may be offered – protocols such as ‘engaging’ students, using ‘open questions’, encouraging ‘inferencing’, and ‘managing behaviour’. Rather, teachers acquire the complex of skills tacitly through experience, first by experiencing them as a student and later by enacting them as a teacher. The R2L program harnesses these skills, by bringing the structuring of pedagogic exchanges to consciousness, technicalising them, and re-designing them to engage whole classes in learning through reading and writing.

One major problem with the standard intuitive practice is that only a minority of students in any class consistently actively participate in teacher/class exchanges. Teachers typically report that just 2-3 or 4-5 students consistently respond to their questions. These are often the more successful students, who understand the teacher’s questions, can infer appropriate responses, consistently receive teacher affirmations, and are thus both ideationally and emotionally prepared for each elaboration of new knowledge. Teachers hope that some other students receive passive benefits from the exchanges, but also know that many others are disengaged, and receive little benefit. The problem is exacerbated because teacher questions typically demand interpretive responses based on students’ own knowledge, a practice that is often promoted in teacher training to encourage ‘inferencing’ or ‘critical thinking’, but which functions socially to create and sustain hierarchies of exclusion (Rose 2010).

This problem can be resolved if the source of answers to questions is a text shared by the class, rather than individual students’ prior knowledge. R2L thus uses a common shared text to teach reading and writing to whole classes. It shows teachers how to prepare all students in their classes to successfully identify elements in texts, with semantic cues. Focus questions are then directed at particular students to identify an element, so that each student can be affirmed in turn. All students then highlight the element. As all students successfully identify each element from the meaning cue, all benefit from the elaboration of meaning that follows.

The issue of unequal engagement and its solution is negotiated with teachers through a series of focus questions, responses and elaborations, mimicking classroom patterns. How do you interact with your students? What’s the learning task when you ask a question? What’s the first thing you do when you get the answer you are after? (‘praise’). How many students consistently answer with the responses you want? This is elaborated by discussing
the functions of elaborations, using students’ responses to build knowledge in steps (Gibbons 2002, Martin & Maton 2013, Wells 2002). What are the other students doing? What do you do when you get a response you don’t want, or no response? This is elaborated by pointing out the extraordinary skill that teachers possess, as they work to engage all students – continually planning how to phrase questions to get the answers we need to elaborate on, and if an appropriate answer is not forthcoming, reconsidering how to prepare students to give the response required. Where did we all learn to do this? The universal answer is ‘not in teacher training’.

### 4.3 A metalanguage for analysing and designing classroom discourse

This negotiation prepares teachers to acquire a technical metalanguage for analysing and designing classroom discourse. It begins with guided analyses of learning cycles in parent/child reading, early years of school and upper primary. These analyses show how parents consistently prepare and affirm children, and how teachers use successful responses to elaborate with new knowledge; they also show how teachers’ focus questions are often unprepared, so that student responses are often unsuccessful. The analyses are labelled with technical terms for learning cycles, **Prepare, Focus, Elaborate**. Response tasks are further specified as **Identify** an element in a text or **Propose** from own knowledge, and evaluations are specified as **Affirm** or **Reject**. Transcripts of Detailed Reading lessons are then examined to show how learning cycles are carefully designed to teach reading, while engaging and affirming all students and continually elaborating with deeper understanding. Teachers then watch a video of such a lesson, and practise analysing its transcript using the metalanguage.

In the following simple example (Table 5), a class of young children is reading Roald Dahl’s *Fantastic Mr Fox*. The teacher previews and reads a sentence, prepares students to identify an item, and asks one student to say it. After affirming, the teacher directs the class to highlight the exact words, so that all students actively read and understand their literal meaning. The elaboration extends this understanding to interpret the field. Here the teacher prepares again by restating the co-text, and asks a student to propose an answer which is affirmed and further elaborated. The nucleus of each exchange is outlined in Table 5 (from Rose & Martin 2012).

**Table 5: Extract from Detailed Reading lesson**

| Teacher | Prepare sentence | In the next sentence Mr Fox checks for danger before he creeps all the way out. I’ll read it. ‘He took a last careful look around.’ |
| Teacher | Prepare Focus | So he took a look. |
| Student | Identify | A last careful look |
| Teacher | Affirm | Brilliant. |
| Elaboration | Student | Why do you think it’s a last look? [student name] |
| Teacher | Propose | He’s going to go outside. |
| Teacher | Affirm | That’s right. |
| Elaboration | Teacher | He’s about to creep right out of his hole and go off to steal the ducks for dinner, so he’s having a last careful look around. |

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4.4 Planning Detailed Reading lessons

Such close interrogation of a text, while engaging every student in the class, requires careful planning – for which the metalanguage of learning cycles is essential. Detailed Lesson Planning is a further curriculum genre developed in the R2L program. It is presented to teachers, first with an example of a completed lesson plan and a demonstration of its use in the classroom, and then as a procedure for writing the plan. Steps in writing such lesson plans include: 1) selecting an ideal passage, according to the field of study, the genre of the students’ ultimate writing task, and the level of written language appropriate for their year grade; 2) marking the wordings for students to identify; 3) planning meaning cues to guide identification of the wordings; 4) planning elaborations, to define, explain or interrogate their meanings; and 5) planning sentence preparations so students will understand the sentence as it is read. (Note this is not the sequence of classroom implementation, which was exemplified in Table 4 check table #; Table 4 doesn't have a sequence of implementation.. Table 3?)

Lesson plans are written as notes, briefly summarising what will actually be said in the lesson. Each sentence is annotated with the sentence preparation, the wordings to highlight, cues for preparing each element and notes for elaborating. What the notes don’t include is information about the context, the position of the words in the sentence, the focus question, the affirmation and much of the elaborating discussion. Table 6 is an extract from such a detailed lesson plan, for the sentence negotiated in Table 5 above.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table 6: Extract from Detailed lesson plan</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Sentence prep</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Prepare cues</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sentence</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Elaborations</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

For most teachers, Detailed Lesson Planning is their first experience of detailed text analysis. It is doubly complex as it involves analysing both the learning cycles of classroom curriculum genres, and the discourse patterns of knowledge genres which they negotiate. The preceding practice with analysing learning cycles, using an explicit metalanguage, provides an essential framework to manage this complexity. The knowledge genre features under focus are then analysed by guiding teachers’ intuitions to: 1) identify relevant elements of meaning in each sentence; 2) reinstantiate these as meaning cues that are accessible to their students; 3) reinstantiate them again as elaborations relevant to their teaching goals; and 4) reinstantiate the whole sentence in terms accessible to their students (described in Rose, this volume). In training workshops, a lesson plan is jointly constructed with guidance, its use is then modelled, and teachers practise using it together, taking turns in teacher and student roles.
5. Sequencing the training curriculum macrogenre

Teachers cannot be prepared for the complexity of these analysis, design and teaching tasks by training in grammatical systems. Indeed, grammatical categories can be positively distracting for teachers who have received functional grammar training, but are inexperienced with Detailed Reading. Rather the focus here is on register; teachers must identify wordings in the text that realise elements of register, and then choose other wordings to recontextualise them in terms of students’ knowledge (preparing) and teacher’s goals (elaborating) (detailed in Rose, this volume). Knowledge of grammar and discourse systems is ultimately useful for experienced teachers, to guide their text selection, analysis and planning; but it needs to be built on their prior knowledge of pedagogy.

5.1 Four macro-phases in the training program

For these reasons, the training curriculum macrogenre is sequenced from the ‘top-down’ in four macro-phases: 1) analysing register and genre in whole texts for teaching reading and writing; 2) analysing register in short passages for Detailed Reading lessons; 3) analysing the grammatical structures through which patterns of register are realized; and 4) analysing patterns of discourse that realise register and genre.

The first phase guides teachers to plan and implement Preparing for Reading and Joint Construction, using the recursive pedagogic principle of the learning cycle and the ‘top-down’ sequencing principle of the language model. They are guided into these curriculum genres by participating in their activities: 1) preparing and reading a technical text, making notes of its key information, and jointly constructing a new text from the notes; 2) preparing and reading a narrative, and discussing its features; 3) deconstructing a model narrative, labelling its stages and phases, and jointly constructing a new story; 4) deconstructing a model argument and/or text response, and jointly constructing a new one; 5) jointly constructing a procedure for teaching a maths algorithm (described in Rose, this volume).

After participating in this lesson practice, teachers are then guided to identify and analyse the knowledge genres they expect their students to read and write. Text selection and analysis is also proceduralised in a further training curriculum genre. First the whole set of school knowledge genres is presented as a system network (Rose, this volume) that teachers are guided to interpret in relation to their professional experience. They are then guided to identify texts within each genre family (stories, chronicles, explanations, reports, procedures, arguments, text responses) and to identify and label their stages and phases.

In addition to these teaching and lesson planning procedures, a further procedure is practised for assessing their students’ writing development, using 14 criteria at the levels of genre, register, discourse, grammar and graphic features. Students’ writing samples are compared with exemplars provided for each school stage; these are scored and annotated for each criterion, and the samples are scored accordingly. The assessment functions, not only to evaluate students’ growth (and hence the program’s effectiveness), but also to introduce teachers to metalanguage and procedures for analysing register and discourse patterns in knowledge genres. It re-focuses SFL technicality for teacher’s assessment tasks, iconises the metalanguage as teachers find it effective for these tasks, and aggregates the
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complexity of language into useful tables with numerical scores. It does so by abstracting technical categories from actual student writing and negotiating their factuality, thereby bringing teachers’ implicit judgements to consciousness with the metalanguage.

The second phase of the program introduces Detailed Reading, Joint Rewriting, Detailed Lesson Planning and Intensive Strategies. Ideally, teachers have spent a month or more practising the curriculum genres introduced in phase 1– gaining experience in selecting and analysing texts, negotiating reading and writing with their students and analysing their writing. The training curriculum genres for Detailed Reading and Lesson Planning were outlined above. Joint Rewriting is modelled, as for Joint Construction, by teachers taking turns to scribe, as the class contributes ideas, guided by the presenter. The difference for Joint Rewriting is that the focus is on language patterns within and between sentences, rather than re-constructing the stages and phases of a whole text in Joint Construction. Again, explicit grammatical knowledge is useful although not essential for this activity, as the practice brings teachers’ intuitive language knowledge to consciousness. For stories and arguments, the rewrite follows precisely the same grammatical patterns as the Detailed Reading passage, but using a new field. For factual texts, detailed notes of the wordings highlighted in the Detailed Reading passage are written, and the teacher guides students to write new sentences using these notes. A key procedural step in planning both Joint Construction and Joint Rewriting is for the teacher to practise the task before the lesson, so they can guide the activity purposefully and predict potential opportunities and difficulties.

The third phase introduces explicit grammatical metalanguage. Again, teachers have ideally repeatedly practised the whole suite of curriculum genres in the classroom. Their experience with detailed text analysis, and negotiating detailed reading and writing with their classes, prepares them for understanding and interpreting the categories of functional grammar, in ways that are directly appliable to their professional tasks. The fourth phase then introduces explicit metalanguage for discourse systems, including patterns of information, reference, conjunction, lexical relations and appraisal. The training curriculum genres for grammar and discourse systems are described in Rose, this volume.

5.2 Four types of training curriculum genres

The four phases of the program are summarised in Table 6, cross-classified with the four general types of training curriculum genres used in each phase. These genres include: 1) preparing and reading the training textbooks; 2) text analysis of knowledge genres and lesson transcripts; 3) lesson practice with the R2L curriculum genres; and 4) lesson planning practice. Table 7 specifies the focus of each of these genres in each phase of the program.
Preparing and reading is used in phases 1 and 2 for introducing the language and learning models, the set of R2L curriculum genres and pedagogic exchanges in home and school. These are followed by activities in text analysis, lesson and planning practice. In contrast, phases 3 and 4 focus on text analysis for building knowledge about grammar and discourse. A metalanguage is built up through these training curriculum genres which facilitates their discussion in the program and teachers’ application in planning and evaluation. This metalanguage includes: 1) the language and learning models, and names for their elements (i.e. the strata of language in context and the phases of learning cycles); 2) the procedures for lessons, planning and evaluation, and names for these curriculum genres and their stages; 3) the structures of learning cycles in classroom discourse, and names for their phases. In classroom teaching, only a fraction of this metalanguage requires explicit naming for students. The names of the curriculum genres are important, so that students know what to expect. But beyond these, students learn the structures of the activities and teacher/student relations ostensively, within a few repetitions. This predictability enables them to focus attention on the knowledge they are acquiring, including the metalanguage used to discuss it. This metalanguage is the topic of the companion paper to this one (Rose, this volume).

### 6. Curriculum genres and metalanguage for teaching tasks

#### 6.1 Designing classroom curriculum genres

What has been described to this point is the core of the training curriculum macrogenre in the R2L program. It has been developed in work with teachers, recontextualising their tasks as designed curriculum genres, and recontextualising theory to inform the design. Beyond this core, a suite of further genres have been designed for a variety of teaching tasks, student groups, and curriculum fields – each informed by the language and learning cycle models. For example, Beginning Reading in early years is prepared with shared book reading (a variant of Preparing for Reading), followed by activities of word recognition, elaborated by sentence making. In Beginning Writing, sentence making prepares for the tasks of letter formation and spelling, elaborated by sentence writing. In addition a variation of Joint Construction is designed for teaching procedures, in particular for maths algorithms. It is prepared by the teacher demonstrating the activity, using a planned oral procedure. The
task is then for the class to practise the activity two or more times with guidance, and then jointly construct the procedure in writing. A variation of Detailed Reading is also used with maths word problems, prepared by teaching the relevant algorithm. The task is to identify three elements of the problem: the data given, the solution expected, and the operations required, elaborated by using the operations to solve the problem.

The range of curriculum genres developed for teachers is presented in Table 8, which displays the repertoire of explicitly designed and named teaching practices in the professional learning program. They are classified most generally in terms of teachers’ professional tasks – of teaching lessons, planning lessons, and evaluating students’ progress. Each of these general tasks include curriculum genres for planning, teaching and evaluating both reading and writing. While most genres are focused on either reading or writing, Intensive Strategies involve both reading and writing.

Each curriculum genre is sub-classified by types of lesson focus, for which teaching strategies vary. These teaching strategies are specified for each stage of the curriculum genre. As the design principle for curriculum genres is preparing and elaborating learning tasks, the staging of each genre is analysed as a sequence of stages that prepare for a core learning task and elaborate on the knowledge focus. Exceptions include Intensive Strategies and Beginning Writing, which involve a sequence of genres: Sentence Making, Spelling and Sentence Writing, each of which involve preparing for tasks (presented as the inner cycle in Figure 9). Most of these curriculum genres are described in detail in Rose (2015).
Table 8: Curriculum genres for teaching tasks

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>teaching activity</th>
<th>curriculum genre</th>
<th>lesson focus</th>
<th>staging: prepare</th>
<th>task</th>
<th>elaborate</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>lessons</td>
<td>reading</td>
<td>whole text</td>
<td>preview text</td>
<td>read text</td>
<td>review key points</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>paragraph-by-paragraph</td>
<td>preview paragraph</td>
<td>read paragraph</td>
<td>review para, mark key info</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Detailed Reading</td>
<td>reading texts</td>
<td>preview, read sentence, prep wordings</td>
<td>identify wordings</td>
<td>define, explain, discuss wordings</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>maths problems</td>
<td>algorithm procedure</td>
<td>identify data, solution</td>
<td>solve problem</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Beginning Reading</td>
<td>early years</td>
<td>shared book reading</td>
<td>word recognition</td>
<td>sentence making</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>older students</td>
<td>preview text</td>
<td>repeat shared reading</td>
<td>sentence making</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>writing</td>
<td>Joint Construction</td>
<td>factual texts</td>
<td>note making from sources</td>
<td>construct from notes</td>
<td>review field, genre</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>stories, arguments, responses</td>
<td>deconstruct model, plan new field</td>
<td>construct with new field</td>
<td>review genre, language features</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>procedures</td>
<td>demonstrate activity</td>
<td>repeated joint practice</td>
<td>construct procedure</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Joint Rewriting</td>
<td>factual texts</td>
<td>note making from passage</td>
<td>rewrite from notes</td>
<td>review field, language</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>stories, arguments, responses</td>
<td>plan new field, review passage</td>
<td>rewrite wordings with new field</td>
<td>review language patterns</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Beginning Writing</td>
<td>sentence making</td>
<td>spelling, letter formation</td>
<td>sentence writing</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>intensive strategies</td>
<td>sentence making</td>
<td>sentence making, spelling</td>
<td>sentence writing</td>
<td>rewriting</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>planning</td>
<td>reading</td>
<td>whole text</td>
<td>select, read text</td>
<td>deconstruct text sequence</td>
<td>plan summary</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>paragraph-by-paragraph</td>
<td>plan summary for whole text</td>
<td>identify para functions, key information</td>
<td>plan para preparations, elaborations</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Detailed Reading</td>
<td>select, read passage</td>
<td>wordings to highlight</td>
<td>plan cues, elaborations</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>writing</td>
<td>Joint Construction</td>
<td>factual texts</td>
<td>make notes from sources</td>
<td>practise re-construction</td>
<td>label stages, phases</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>stories, arguments, responses</td>
<td>deconstruct model text</td>
<td>practise re-construction with new field</td>
<td>label stages, phases</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>procedures</td>
<td>analyse activity steps</td>
<td>write steps</td>
<td>apply to examples</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Joint Rewriting</td>
<td>factual texts</td>
<td>make notes from passage</td>
<td>rewrite from notes</td>
<td>review language features</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>stories, arguments, responses</td>
<td>plan detailed reading</td>
<td>rewrite sentence patterns</td>
<td>review language features</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>intensive strategies</td>
<td>select, write sentences</td>
<td>plan word groups, words</td>
<td>plan discussion</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>evaluation</td>
<td>reading</td>
<td>select, preview text</td>
<td>child reads, annotate copy</td>
<td>comprehension questions, score</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>writing</td>
<td>Writing Assessment</td>
<td>compare with exemplar</td>
<td>analyse features</td>
<td>score criteria</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
6.2 Building a metalanguage for curriculum genres

In sum, designing a metalanguage for classroom practice begins with principles for recontextualising knowledge about language and pedagogy – from theory and research to teacher training and the classroom. The principles are drawn from Bernstein’s model of recontextualising fields and practices, and from the systemic functional model of social context as genre and register. The contexts of schooling can then be distinguished between knowledge genres and curriculum genres.

Recontextualisation involves two steps – to teacher training and then to the classroom. In terms of register, both steps involve changes in density of knowledge (or mass) and context dependency (or presence). In terms of genre, a major shift is from the classifying reports of linguistic description to procedures for classroom activities. It is insufficient to recontextualise language knowledge for teachers, merely by adjusting mass and presence, without also recontextualising it from linguistic classification to its applications in teaching reading and writing. It is also insufficient to provide teachers with metalanguage for knowledge genres, without an equally important metalanguage for curriculum genres. Furthermore, curriculum genres must be designed, not only for embedding reading and writing in classroom learning, but for training teachers in these tasks. To this end, this paper presents a meta-procedure for building a pedagogic metalanguage with teachers.

The first steps in this curriculum macro-genre for teacher training are to introduce the model of learning, the model of language, the classroom curriculum genres, and the model for programming teaching sequences. The learning model involves cycles of analysing and preparing for learning tasks; the language model is SFL’s stratified model of text in context; the programming model starts with reading whole texts, followed by detailed practice with selected paragraphs and sentences, culminating with writing whole texts. The constituent curriculum genres are learnt through guided practice, beginning with Preparing for Reading and Joint Construction of whole texts. Metalanguage is introduced for the structuring of these curriculum genres and of the knowledge genres they are designed to teach. The second step focuses on detailed analysis of classroom discourse – in order to re-design teacher/learner interactions to engage all students equally in Detailed Reading and Rewriting of text passages. The structuring of teachers’ classroom discourse is brought to consciousness, analysed and its components are named. This detailed metalanguage is a necessary foundation for planning discussion of text features in Detailed Reading lessons.

These training curriculum genres are designed a) to give teachers control of the classroom curriculum genres for teaching reading and writing, b) to analyse the knowledge genres under focus, at the levels of generic structures and detailed patterns of register, and c) to apply these analyses in their teaching. Once teachers have control over these genres and analyses through repeated practice, they are introduced to explicit metalanguage for analysing grammar and discourse patterns in knowledge genres. Hence the curriculum genres of the classroom shape how teachers construe linguistic knowledge, replacing the ancient tradition of linguistic theory shaping classroom teaching. The metalanguage teachers are given for knowledge genres differs significantly from the priorities of linguistic theory. The design and teaching of this metalanguage for knowledge genres is set out in the accompanying paper (Rose, this volume).
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1 Figure 4 reconfigures Martin’s (2006b) model of metalanguage as ‘social semiotic instructional discourse’ or SSID projecting Bernstein’s regulative discourse, projecting instructional discourse.

2 Hattie (2009:89) reports that ability grouping is a very common practice in primary classes, but has very low benefits for the learning of any group (d = 0.16, where d = 2.0 is considered a small improvement). He also reported “individualized instruction to be barely more effective than the traditional lecture approach (d = 0.08)” (2009:198). For separating classes based on ability, he found that “…tracking has minimal effects on learning outcomes and profound negative equity effects… the effects on self-concept were close to zero… The overall effects for the three major ability levels across the studies were d = 0.14 for high-tracked, d = -0.03 for middle-tracked, and d = 0.09 for low tracked students – no one profits” (2009:90).

3 Whereas the SFL convention is to use lower case for class labels, such as names of genres, and initial capitals for function labels, such as genre stages, the R2L program uses initial capitals for the names of curriculum genres, in order to emphasise their significance for teachers.

4 The outer circle in Figure 9 is related to the teaching/learning cycle for genre writing, which includes the activities of Deconstruction, Joint Construction and Independent Construction (e.g. Rothery 1994). However in this earlier model, the activities for ‘building the field’ for the Joint Construction are left unspecified. In the R2L model, the field is accumulated through reading activities. Also in the R2L model, independent writing is the evaluation task that follows the teaching/learning activities. Instead, Individual Construction provides a further step of guided practice before independent writing. Thirdly, deconstruction of model texts is treated in R2L as a stage within the Joint Construction genre.

5 Detailed Reading needs to be distinguished from an activity sometimes used to teach functional grammar, in which students identify transitivity functions in clauses, using coloured highlighters, or by cutting them up in paper strips (e.g. Derewianka 2011, Williams 2004). The focus of Detailed Reading is first on comprehending the field of a text, rather than teaching grammar functions. Systemic features of grammar and discourse are only discussed where they are relevant, and do not distract from the reading task.