Prologue. The Multidimensional Variables of Writing Program Development and Sustainability

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Programs for writing are more than isolated or ad hoc activities, more than individual teachers' integration of writing into their courses, and more than curricular strategies that ebb and flow with inconsistencies of commitment. They are characterized by curricular coherence and a sense of stability within changing environments, and by the collective efforts of individuals who work both within the program and outside it. Although goals for student writing can differ internationally based on a range of sociopolitical, educational, and economic factors, all writing programs share general needs for funding, personnel, and curricular oversight, and operate within larger systems of influence, control, expertise, and collaboration.

Figure 1 shows some of the administrative, curricular, and instructional variables that together characterize a program for writing in an academic setting. They are not exhaustive, but no program can exist without them, and no program can become successful without attending to them. Each is intricately tied to the others in patterns of mutual influence and dependency.

Variables of employment refer to the labor of instruction: who is providing it, how they are hired and on what basis or credentials, how much they are paid, how they are viewed within the institution and the units they serve, and what their general working conditions are (such as office space, supplies, technological support, staff support, workload, and evaluation processes). Such variables also include the disciplinary specializations of those supporting writing—whether, for example, they are applied linguists, second-language experts, specialists in writing studies or rhetoric and composition, educational psychologists, or students providing tutorial help to peers. In some cases, support for student writing resides in discipline-based faculty who enjoy stable positions within particular academic departments.
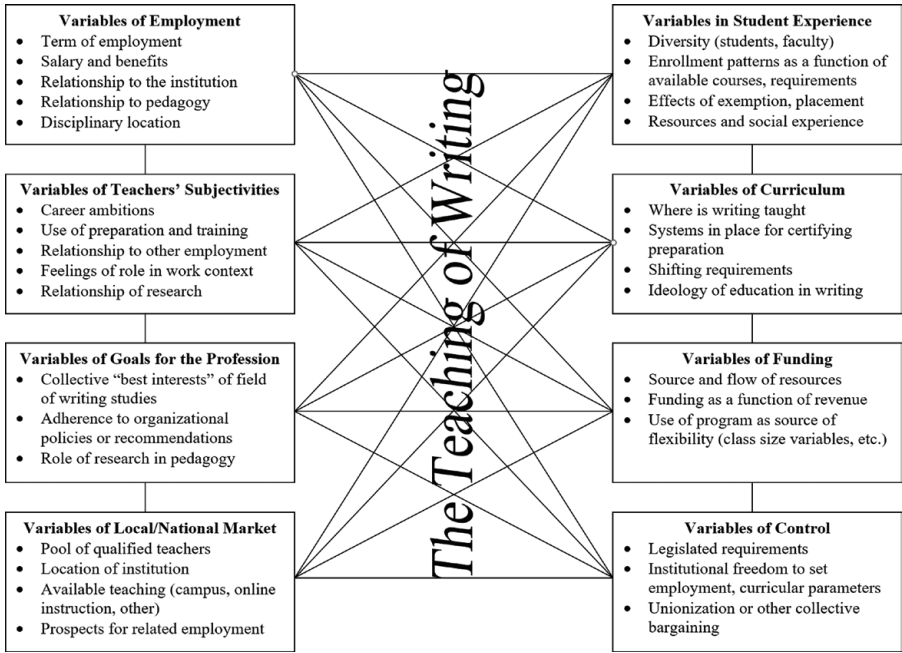
Figure 1. Intersecting Variables in the Work of Program-Based Writing Instruction.

In other cases, support for writing may come from writing specialists who do not hold full faculty status but may be staff members in a writing center, adjuncts hired to teach standalone writing courses, or graduate students who hold positions as teaching assistants. Employment variables can be objectively measured or described, and include diversity-related patterns of hiring, such as age, gender, race, country of origin, and language background.

Variables of teachers' subjectivities include the motivating forces, many of them affective and personal, behind teachers' work, such as their career ambitions, how much training and development they have sought, and the extent to which they embrace or ignore research on writing and writing instruction. In some contexts, for example, instructors may be hired to teach writing when their own specializations or training do not sufficiently inform them, or they may constantly aspire to teach something else, such as literature, that a dearth of positions denies them. Or, in the context of programs for integrating writing across the curriculum, instructors may embrace or resist opportunities to support students' writing for many reasons, including their view of the role writing plays in their discipline or in students' learning. Teachers' subjectivities include their identities within the program and feelings of belonging or alienation, and thus their commitment to their work. Unlike variables of

employment, these variables can be difficult to determine because they are personal, experiential, and sometimes tacit.

Variables of goals for the profession refer to broader organizational and disciplinary strategies or approaches based on shared governance within particular scholarly associations. Such goals variously influence or guide specific programs or sometimes are entirely ignored. In some regions, they may be relative nascent, while other regions may have histories of policy making or attempted influence over other entities that affect how academic institutions operate or, within academic institutions, what a program should or should not do. For example, organizations in the US such as the Conference on College Composition and Communication (CCCC) and the Council of Writing Program Administrators (CWPA) issue reports with recommendations on a range of practices in order to influence national educational policy for writing programs (such as standards of class size in composition courses; see https://cccc.ncte.org/cccc/resources/positions/postsecondarywriting). Others, such as the European Association for the Teaching of Academic Writing (EATAW), serve as contexts for the exchange of knowledge within the writing-studies community and as repositories of information, in part because it may be challenging to establish European-facing policies for writing instruction to apply to different countries each with its own sociopolitical, economic, and educational needs. In Latin America, the Red Latinoamericana de Centros y Programas de Escritura (RLCPE) and the Latin American Association of Writing Studies in Higher Education and Professional Contexts (ALES) have helped to professionalize and gain visibility to the field of tertiary writing instruction and research as different from parent disciplines such as linguistics or education, which in turn validates specific pedagogical approaches, methodological tools, and theoretical presuppositions for writing initiatives. However, professional goals also refer to the somewhat inchoate aspirations of the discipline, as represented in the collective voices of its members. As shown in publication research (Ávila Reyes, Narváez-Cardona, & Navarro, in press), the field of writing studies in Latin America is growing rapidly around a core set of methodologies and scholars, but continues to draw from different disciplinary traditions. Although older in its development, writing studies in the US was not seen as worthy of disciplinary status until fairly recently, thanks to the efforts of those who identify with and define its scholarship and instructional literature (see Phelps, 1988). If there are no identifiable national or regional disciplinary goals, then the creation of goals resides within the academic institution and is based on its own context.

Variables of local or national markets refer to who is willing and available to teach at specific institutions. Faculty who support writing in their own disciplines such as history or engineering may represent different pools of

candidates for positions than do writing specialists charged with teaching standalone writing courses or working in writing centers. The variables are based on such factors as institutional location and competition with other opportunities. A university located in a major population center may have access to a large pool of qualified instructors, and thus the more competitive opportunities for employment may affect standards of pay and working conditions. A university in a remote and less populated area with fewer social and recreational opportunities, or one with lower reputational status and financial support, may have to rely on a smaller pool with less qualified individuals (who may have lower rates of retention), or the university needs to increase its employment standards in order to attract instructors. Market variables include institutional reputation and existing or aspirational hiring trends; an institution with high numbers of faculty from underrepresented groups may be more attractive to others in those groups than an institution with a known climate of aversion to diversity.

Variables of student experience are many, ultimately linked to the quality of education they receive, to the status of the institution's teaching mission, and to opportunities for engagement in co-curricular and extra-curricular activities. From the perspective of course administration, design, and delivery, students' experiences may vary. Testing and placement processes (when these exist), requirements vs. electives, and choice when courses are not structured in similar ways to reach the same learning outcomes can affect students' experiences and success. In addition, if processes of placing students into specific levels or kinds of courses exist, these can affect the diversity of students in particular classes. When such processes are too determinative, L2 learners or basic writers may be separated from mainstream populations, which can limit students' experience of ethnic, racial, and linguistic diversity (see Matsuda, 2006). In highly stratified and uniform programs, "basic writers" (those deemed not ready for a mainstream course) can experience a course with less rich and engaging learning activities, which simply reinforces prior negative experiences and leads to slower progress. Opportunities for writing support, such as writing centers, writing fellows embedded in courses, or co-curricular workshops for students, all affect the potential for students to develop as writers.

Variables of curriculum often depend on the architects who design the courses students take, including choice of reading material, writing activities and assignments, grading processes, and media (written or spoken text or multimodal productions). Goals or outcomes for courses are often tied to broader missions of the institution, as well as to the nature of the student population and the extent to which the leader(s) of the program are credentialed or have backgrounds in writing studies. Curricular planning and the

assessment of students' abilities can result in a wide range of experiences; in some countries, no common requirement for a foundational writing course exists, so students write in discipline-based courses or courses in their chosen major or concentration, or they are simply expected to write coherently when they take exams. In such cases, the program may be a campus-wide writing center that provides student support for those who seek or need it. At some institutions, students may not be asked to write extensively as undergraduates, but the emphasis falls more strongly on graduate education where students must write theses or dissertations, sometimes requiring article publication. Curricular variables also include overarching ideologies of writing, or what Ivanič (2004) describes as "constellations of beliefs about writing, beliefs about learning to write, ways of talking about writing, and the sorts of approaches to teaching and assessment which are likely to be associated with these beliefs" (p. 224). An institution with dominant assumptions that writing is not highly developmental and that students can write effectively with a simple "inoculation" (or that they should have been adequately prepared in high school) are less likely to create multiple opportunities for growth. An institution that sees writing as a highly scaffolded, developmental process and understands that students cannot easily "transfer" foundational skills to successfully write in unfamiliar genres in new disciplinary contexts will create programs that help instructors to support student writing wherever they happen to be learning (see Anson & Moore, 2016). Differences in instructional ideology between program leaders and higher administrators can sometimes lead to conflicts and (in another set of variables) questions of control.

Variables of funding arise from the source of financial support for a program, including whether revenue accrues to it to offset expenses. In some countries, higher education is free, so the costs of personnel, infrastructure, and the like come from national-level sources that can fluctuate with the economy. In other countries, a mix of public and private universities offers some choice of tuition costs. Some institutions, especially in the context of L2 learners who need help writing in the language of instruction, may create "institutes" that levy additional fees on students for tutoring or course work, while at other institutions the costs are drawn from a general fund and instruction is free for all students. Vagaries in funding can lead to significant changes—sometimes temporary, sometimes permanent—in a program's operations, such as class size or enrollment caps in writing-related courses, cuts (or increases) in personnel support, availability of tutorial help, or changes in exemption or placement thresholds. Funding is also related to institutional commitments for student writing development; if it is not seen as a priority related strongly to the quality of students' subject-matter learning, program leaders may need

to constantly lobby higher administrators for needed support. In some cases, all spending and budgetary decisions are made by program leaders, while in other cases those decisions are made for them by other administrators who may know less about principled ways to support student writing.

Variables of control determine how much freedom a program has to design and teach its curriculum or provide writing support to students. Again, when curricular control is not in the hands of program leaders, beliefs about "how students best learn to write" (or should be taught) can influence a program from without, and levels of authority in a hierarchy can force program leaders to enact methods of instruction not aligned with what they know from research. Control can also come from beyond the institution, as in national, regional, or accreditation-related educational policies (a good example being the principles enacted through the Bologna Process in Europe—see Amaral et al., 2009). In addition, national or state-level attempts to regulate curriculum (for example, to standardize learning outcomes or make it easier for students to move from institution to institution) can exert influences on local decision-making in curricular and course design. In some cases, administrative control can determine the need for a program, its aims or mission, and its resources, but with a recognition that the teachers and language specialists need to make pedagogical and administrative decisions. This might be called a "meso-level" kind of control, exemplified in some Latin American universities by academic vice-chancellors. Control also exists at the level of individual teachers, who have varying degrees of freedom to design and teach their own courses or tutor students in particular ways. In some writing programs, the desire to provide students with similar learning experiences in different sections of the same course that reach the same outcomes can influence what teachers can teach and how they teach it. With appropriate training and development, this may be preferable to a program made up of wildly disparate courses taught idiosyncratically based on instructor interest or specialization. Institutions or programs that are organized with "flattened hierarchies" (Gunner, 2002) or with strong principles of collaboration and collective decision-making can often reduce the tensions that arise from external controls.

As shown in Figure 1 and apparent in the brief preceding descriptions, the variables *interact* with each other in ways that can reveal the successes and shortcomings of particular programs that support student writing development, or in a heuristic way, set a course for analysis and improvement. For example, the variables of *curriculum* clearly intersect and interact with those of *employment* and *teacher subjectivities*. Who is supporting students' development as writers? What is their disciplinary preparation? What is their institutional status relative to the crucial responsibilities they shoulder

in their support of writing? Are there inequities in their employment? Is their workload reasonable to fully meet the needs of student writers? How do they feel about their work? Together, these are also influenced by variables of control: who makes decisions about courses or student experiences withing a program? What is the relationship between instructional freedom and constraint? If there is some degree of curricular control in a carefully designed curriculum, the variables of teachers' subjectivities come into play: are teachers inspired to embrace training and preparation programs to teach the courses, and do they subsequently integrate this preparation into their own longer-term career goals and sense of professional development? In turn, the variables of funding determine how extensively the program can provide that professional development (based on program personnel and workload), and whether teachers are compensated adequately for engaging in such activities.

In the US, writing scholars have for decades expressed concerns about the labor and material conditions associated with those who are responsible for the development of students' literate abilities (for a recent synthesis, see Kahn et al., 2017). In part, these concerns have developed because of the almost ubiquitous presence of a required first-year composition course at most colleges and universities, which has necessitated a massive number of writing instructors nationwide. Complex aspects of budgets, supply, demand, and the overproduction of PhDs in English (especially in literary study) who cannot find tenured positions have led to a situation where many instructors are "contingent," hired on full-time but non-permanent contracts that can be terminated at will, or hired semester by semester on a part-time basis, paid by the course with no accompanying health insurance or other benefits. Usually cut off from the research missions of their institutions, these contingent workers teach large numbers of students for low wages that sometimes require them to teach at multiple institutions simultaneously, giving them the disparaging title of "freeway flyers" (rushing on highways from institution to institution). The heavy workload and lack of identity with and commitment to the institution consequently affects students' experience, which may lack the kind of mentoring and thoughtful commentary on their writing that leads to improvement. Although US-facing organizations such as the CWPA and the CCCC have advocated relentlessly for improvements to these employment practices, loss of state and federal funding to universities over the years has only exacerbated the situation. The variables of employment, therefore, are intricately tied to those of funding. Furthermore, if available candidates do not see themselves as long-term teachers of writing, their own alternate career ambitions may (but, of course, do not always) affect the quality of their instruction and their relationship to students.

Parallel problems with labor and the material conditions of literacy instructors exist in Latin America but for somewhat different reasons. In particular, the expansion of enrollments has yielded an economic diversification of students who have experienced different pathways to schooling and bring different literacy needs with them (see Chiroleu & Marquina, 2017; Navarro et al., 2021). Like the shift to open admissions at a number of US universities in the 1960s, this increasing socioeconomic diversity, which on the one hand provides broader opportunity and further democratizes education, also creates a need for the expansion and enhancement of literacy programs and academic staff to manage and teach in them (see Shaughnessy, 1976).

Labor may also be considered in its intersection with students' educational experience. In part, the lack of focus on students' written literacy in disciplinary courses has emerged from a longstanding association of language study with literature and *belle lettres* or, in some countries, applied linguistics—with those experts who study texts rather than with those experts who study engineering, psychology, or biology and who use writing to communicate that expertise to others. Pedagogical knowledge of writing is separated from professional knowledge, with the disciplinary experts often claiming that they lack sufficient pedagogical training to support their students' writing development. The increasing development of writing studies as a field of empirical inquiry has only furthered such assumptions. In this respect, cross-curricular support for writing requires a kind of lateralization of labor that involves the shared responsibility of instructors of all disciplines. Some programs in Argentina demonstrate shared responsibility between language specialists and specialists in the disciplines (see Moyano, 2010, 2017, 2018, as well as Moyano & Natale, 2012). In general, programs for writing across the curriculum have done much to distribute attention to writing into all courses and to provide faculty development and departmental consulting to eliminate barriers of resistance to the effort (see Thaiss et al., 2012).

The eight variables depicted in Figure 1 characterize organized programs of support for student writers in higher education. The questions generated from each set of variables can be considered from the historical, sociocultural, political, economic, and educational perspectives of particular countries or geographical regions, but they become more dynamic and generative when we think of them cross-culturally and cross-nationally. In the context of the present collection, they offer ways to read and interpret the results of the initiatives and research described here.

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When viewed through the lens of the variables in Figure 1, the contributions to this collection demonstrate the importance of program development

as multidimensional work. The variables touched upon are selective, but the contributions have clear implications for those that are not discussed. For example, from the perspective of the variables in Figure 1, Violeta Molina-Natera cites inadequate hiring and preparation of personnel "with specialized training to design program evaluation" as one reason for the lapse in program evaluation in many Latin American writing centers or programs. From the perspective of teachers' subjectivities, some feel that program evaluation is "outside their area of expertise, so it should be done 'by someone else.'" For others, assessment initiatives become an "implied insult" because they perceive mistrust of their work by administrators. Dimensions of budget intersect with these sources of resistance because program leaders are too burdened to think they can add assessment to their workload. Budget cuts associated with the dimensions of funding make matters worse. Yet from the perspective of students' experience, program evaluation provides vital information to gauge the success with which the program is meeting its educational goals. As Molina-Natera points out, this requires collaboration, communication, and an interest in collecting and analyzing data (i.e., conducting localized research) in a continuous cycle of self-assessment and improvement.

Several variables in Figure 1, especially curricular control, enter into the cooperative relationships vital to the implementation of writing into all academic courses and disciplines at the University of Chile, as described by Pablo Lovera Falcon and Fernanda Uribe Gajardo. Here we see the positive effects of institutional relations that subvert hierarchies that can lead to loss of control, the imposition of unprincipled beliefs about writing, or tensions that affect the personal goals and aspirations of teachers and administrators. A system of "coordinated decentralization" provides support for the management of the Program of Academic Reading, Writing, and Orality. In addition to the "material and economic" variables are "symbolic imaginaries" that regulate relationships among institutional stakeholders. In turn, the cooperative relationships characterizing organizational culture that facilitate the health and sustenance of a writing program are determined in part by the culture of the broader institution, which is enacting the "principles and republican values of the nation." In this sense, we can see the relationships among variables of curriculum, control, funding, and goals for the profession. The success of the program comes from the symbiotic relationships between situated training and preparation, curricular design, systematization of teaching practices (but in a context of buy-in rather than top-down control), and continuous localized research in the form of surveys and other data-gathering tools.

Intersections between variables of curriculum, teacher subjectivities, and students' experience characterize Karen Urrejola Corales and Margaria Vidal

Lizama's contribution. In particular, the authors focus on the institutional factors and theoretical frameworks that led to the development of the Academic Reading and Writing Program (PLEA) at the Universidad Católica de Chile—factors that included "institutional recognition of the relevance of teaching academic communication skills in an organized and systematic manner." In this case, transformations in institutionalized ideologies of writing allowed for broad understandings of the importance of establishing a writing center, while at the same time helping faculty to see the need for direct instruction and experience in writing alongside standalone courses and tutoring. More importantly, the PLEA program was founded—and continues to develop—on an integration of principles and theories derived from linguistic and literacy research, especially sociocognitive and sociosemiotic perspectives. Thus, we can see the power of intersections between variables of goals for the profession, curricular design on a university-wide basis, and the effect of training on teachers' subjectivities. The intersection of scholarship and curricular design and outreach provided the basis for a theoretical framework for teaching writing that integrates the socio-cognitive, didactic model known as "Didactext," with a theoretically-founded understanding of how language works, informed by Systemic functional linguistics.

Intersections of curricular design and attention to students' learning processes are at play in Adriana Bono, Yanina Boatto, Mariana Fenoglio, and María Soledad Aguilera's focus on a pedagogical intervention with the potential for teacher transformation. Drawing on research in cognitive psychology and learning processes, a *monographic writing* assignment emphasizes both cognitive and metacognitive processes. Through a sequence of writing plans, writing and reviewing, and evaluation that precipitates revision, students engage in processes of task contextualization, strategic use of knowledge, conceptual restructuring, and evaluation of textual productions. The positive results of the intervention suggest a path toward teacher development that has the potential to influence teacher subjectivities and further reform (and inform) students' experiences, although—also pointing to the dimensions in Figure 1—this will require appropriate funding, care in hiring and teacher support, and sensitivity to control of the curriculum.

Intersections between curricular variables and student experience are showcased in Martín Miguel Acebal's contribution. With an emphasis on genre, students are guided through a teaching-learning cycle of deconstructing the genre at hand, jointly writing a new version of the genre, and jointly editing the resulting texts. The focus of teaching is set on interpersonal resources for evaluating meanings in texts. The result demonstrates the need for instructors to adapt their pedagogy to the intervention and to how meanings of APPRAISAL

(Martin & Rose, 2007), including teacher expectations, "are considered and interpreted in the context of the disciplinary field and the same expectations of the teacher of [a] specific subject." Sensitivity to students' development in the context of what has already been incorporated in other aspects of the Program show the need for scaffolding of experience and the explicit preparation of instructors to carry out that scaffolding. In addition, the process demonstrates the importance of the relationship between variables of writing instruction and the effects of engaging in contextually appropriate research.

A demonstration of the intersections of teacher subjectivities, variables of curriculum, and (indirectly) students' experiences is seen in Alejandra Sánchez Aguilar and Eurídice Minerva Ochoa Villanueva's instructional training initiative. As teachers completed their compulsory workshop, they subsequently confronted students with different language skills and recognized challenges in the transfer of general competence to other subjects or contexts, and a need for further student-facing support developed, followed by the recognition of a need for a teacher training program. The workshop series generated from these experiences show the relationship of variables of curriculum, employment and training, teachers' views of their instruction, programmatic control, and student experience. Of special note is the way that broader institutional goals and orientations influence these variables: the philosophical, spiritual, social, and educational precepts of a Jesuit institution that emphasizes reflection and action. These goals and orientations explain the desire, from the perspective of teacher subjectivities, for additional teacher training workshops and the embrace of tools to support students' communication experiences and abilities.

In Margarita Vidal Lizama and Soledad Montes' chapter, we can recognize the intersection of variables of curriculum, professional goals for research, and student experience across different courses in their triangulation of data from focus groups with teachers, linguistic analysis of genres in the art curriculum, and teacher workshops. In this case, a qualitative study of how students' writing in art develops over time shows the importance of embedding writing into social practices. Of special note is how the results of the genre analysis and focus groups fueled workshops with teachers, whose recorded transcriptions generated a consensual description of the role and functions of writing in the art curriculum. It also provides a methodology for similar studies of genre scaffolding in other disciplines, especially those where inquiry has been less robust.

Karen S. López-Gil's study demonstrates the intersection of tutors' own knowledge and goals alongside variables in students' experience, but the implications focus on variables of the curriculum, with an interest in an "articulation with the different components of the institution's writing program,"

emphasizing the creation of joint criteria across units and disciplines for students' use of digital sources. Interestingly, tutors sometimes relied on their own knowledge and expertise rather than direct training when working with student writers, raising interesting questions about expertise and administrative authority relative to innate knowledge and agency. In this context, López-Gil suggests the importance of creating learning communities, fostering collaboration, and providing orientation and training to tutors to most effectively meet the demands of students.

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Throughout this volume, we see the complexities of writing program development and administration in the form of variables that intersect, intertwine, and influence one another. The chapters emphasize some but not all of these intersections, so that from a heuristic perspective, what's not discussed becomes as interesting as what is. Readers can learn about the diligent work of those who are supporting students' writing abilities across Latin American institutions, but can also imagine other elements that deserve discussion and inquiry. Although this volume represents work on writing and writing programs in Latin America, it is of additional interest to those working beyond the region to consider the broader implications of the contributions across and within such spaces. From this collection, we can take away many new ideas, perspectives, and strategies to inform the continued development of writing programs in Latin America and around the world.

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