2. Do you put any of this on your players (system of checks or audibles, plays that are run differently depending on the defense’s look)?
3. How much of the outcome of a game do you feel is attributed to pregame coaching preparations (game planning, watching film)?
4. How important are in-game decisions such as halftime adjustments, substitutions, and when to gamble on big plays? Do you go with the overall feel of the game or do you look for specific details when it comes to making a game-time decision?

Questions for Discussion and Journaling

1. Before you read, you were asked to consider whether you think football coaches are a discourse community. After reading Brannick’s paper, have you changed your opinion in any way? If so, what did he say that got you to think differently?
2. Brannick’s methods include analyzing the coaches’ discourse community using Swales’s six characteristics. How effectively does he conduct this analysis? What, if anything, would you change or expand, and why?
3. Brannick claims, “There have been many articles written on the X’s and O’s . . . . of the game . . . . however scholars have yet to study a coach’s ability to read his players and the game as a form of literacy” (para. 12). Does Brannick convince you that these abilities are, in fact, a form of literacy? Explain why or why not.

Applying and Exploring Ideas

1. Brainstorm some groups that you think might be discourse communities but which, like football coaches, might not immediately come to mind as such.
2. Pick one of the groups you listed in question 1 and try to sketch out quickly, with a partner or by yourself, whether they meet Swales’s six characteristics of a discourse community.
3. Listing characteristics of a discourse community is only the first step in a project. The next step is identifying a genuine question about some aspect of the discourse community, as Brannick does here. What else would you like to explore about the discourse community you identified in question 2, directly above.

Activity Theory: An Introduction for the Writing Classroom

DONNA KAIN and ELIZABETH WARDLE

Framing the Reading

Elizabeth Wardle is one of the editors of Writing about Writing as well as a Professor at the University of Central Florida. Donna Kain is an Associate Professor at East Carolina University. Wardle and Kain were Ph.D. candidates together at Iowa State University, where they wrote this piece for their undergraduate students around 2001 or 2002. At the time, they taught writing classes in which they asked students to consider how texts worked in context—who used them, how they got written, what they accomplished or didn’t, how people learned to write them. Kain and Wardle found that activity theory was often a helpful lens for thinking about writing, but that there was no explanation of activity theory appropriate for undergraduates. So they wrote this for their own students, and they have been using it ever since. In 2005 they published an article together in the Journal Technical Communication Quarterly describing how they use activity theory with their students; that article won the 2005 NCTE Best Article of the Year in Teaching of Technical and Scientific Communication.

Activity theory, as you will learn in the following reading, “was originally a psychological theory that sees all aspects of activity as shaped by people’s social interactions with each other and the tools [including writing and language] that they use” (para. 1 of the reading). Activity theory gives you a lens for looking at an object or happening and understanding it in new ways, just as all theories do. Scholars in many different fields, as well as workplace consultants, use the lens of activity theory to look at groups of people doing work together, which they call activity systems, and consider what their common motives are and how they try to achieve those common motives. When people are unable to achieve their common motives, activity theory provides a method for examining where the breakdowns might have happened. Activity theory takes into account not only what is happening now, but also the histories that impact what is happening now. In other words, activity theory helps you consider what a particular group (like people creating and using the food bank we mentioned in the chapter introduction) is trying to accomplish, how it has gone about trying to accomplish that work in the past, and how it is doing so now. In looking at the
food bank's activities, the lens of activity theory encourages us to look at the rules or conventions adhered to by the group, how the work (the labor) is divided up within the group, and the tools (including texts and language) that help (or impede) the group in working toward their shared motives.

Activity theory is a useful lens because it acknowledges the importance of the histories, including literacy histories that you studied in Chapter 1, that individuals bring with them when they act as part of an activity system. It is also useful because it helps you take a close look at the actual texts that you or others are writing, reading, and using and ask questions like: How do these work? What are they doing? Who created them? Why are they like this? Activity theory can give you a perspective on texts and groups of people using texts that can assist you in your school, professional, and extracurricular literate lives. You'll learn even more about how to analyze texts in the next chapter on rhetoric. Victoria Marro's student essay in this chapter uses activity theory to look at the genres of her sorority in new ways. In Chapter 3, Charles Bazerman discusses the relationship between activity systems and the genres people use to accomplish work in activity systems.

Both Kain and Wardle use activity theory in their own research. In the next article in this chapter ("Identity, Authority, and Learning to Write in New Workplaces") you will see how Wardle used activity theory to understand the difficulties that a new employee experienced when writing and working. In her current work, she uses activity theory to help explain how and why students do or do not learn and transfer writing-related knowledge learned in school settings. Donna Kain uses activity theory to further her understanding of emergency communication and risk management (particularly related to hurricanes), as well as accommodations for people with disabilities.

Getting Ready to Read

Before you read, do at least one of the following activities:

- List a few groups (formal or informal) in which you participate, and ask yourself what your shared common goals are.
- Pick one of those groups and make a quick list of all of the texts you read, write, or use in order to try to achieve the goals of that group.
- Pick one of those texts, and make a quick list of all of the people who have a hand in or an influence on how it is written and used.

(If you can do the above, you are already on your way to being able to conduct an activity analysis!) As you read, consider the following questions:

- Are there unfamiliar terms here that you need to spend a little more time thinking about? Are there familiar terms that seem to be used in new or unfamiliar ways? If so, make a list of these terms and try to define them for yourself before your next class.
- Keep in mind the groups you listed before you started reading, and use them to help you imagine examples as Kain and Wardle explain the components of an activity system.

People meet social needs by working and learning together over time to achieve particular goals or to act on particular motives. To facilitate their activities, people also develop and use tools. These tools include not only things like hammers or computers, but also language—probably the most complex tool of all. As people refine their tools and add new ones to solve problems more effectively, the activities they perform using those tools can change—and vice versa: as their activities change, people use their tools differently and modify their tools to meet their changing needs. Activity theory, which has its roots in Russia in the early 20th century, was originally a psychological theory that sees all aspects of activity as shaped over time by people's social interactions with each other and the tools they use.

As a society, we differentiate types of activities by the specific knowledge, tools, and repertoires of tasks that people use to achieve particular outcomes. For instance, we recognize the practice of medicine by its goal of meeting people's health-care needs; its participants, including doctors, nurses, and patients; its body of knowledge about human physiology, disease, and treatment options; and its tools, for instance medicines and surgical instruments. We recognize the university by its goal of facilitating learning, its participants, including teachers, students, and administrators; and its tools, including textbooks and chalkboards.

Activity theory gives us a helpful lens for understanding how people in different communities carry out their activities. For those of us interested in rhetorical theory, the most helpful aspect of activity theory is the way it helps us see more fully all the aspects of a situation and community that influence how people use the tools of language and genre. While it is easy enough to say that "context" influences how people write, saying this does not particularly help us know how to write differently when we find ourselves in a new situation. Activity theory provides us with very specific aspects of context to look at as we consider the various factors that influence and change the tool of writing.

What are Activity Systems?

The most basic activity theory lens, or unit of analysis, is the activity system, defined as a group of people who share a common object and motive over time, as well as the wide range of tools they use together to act on that object and realize that motive. David Russell (1997) describes an activity system as "any ongoing, object-directed, historically conditioned, dialectically structured, tool-mediated human interaction" (p. 310). That's a mouthful to be sure; let's look a bit more closely at what Russell means.
• Ongoing. The study of activity systems is concerned with looking at how systems function over time. For instance, the university is an activity system of long duration that began in the past and will continue into the future. We can trace the university's activity over time and consider how it might evolve in the future.

• Object-directed. The types of activities that activity theory is concerned with are directed toward specific goals. Continuing with the example of the university, the object of its activity is learning, which is accomplished through instruction and research.

• Historically conditioned. Activity systems come into being because of practices that have a history. At any point that we begin to study how a system works, we need to consider how it came to function in a particular way. For instance, ways that the university carries out its activities developed over time. Many things we do today can be explained by the history of the university's mission as well as the history of western educational institutions.

• Dialectically structured. The term “dialectic” describes a type of relationship in which aspects of a process, transaction, or system are mutually dependent. When one aspect changes, other aspects change in response. Some of these changes we can anticipate; others we can’t. For example, when the university began to use computers as a tool in education, the ways that teachers, researchers, and students accomplished tasks related to the activity of learning began to change in response.

• Tool-mediated. People use many types of tools to accomplish activities. These may be physical objects, such as computers, or systems of symbols, such as mathematics. At the university, we use textbooks, syllabi, lab equipment, computers, and many other tools to accomplish our goal of learning. The types of tools we use mediate, or shape, the ways we engage in activity and the ways we think about activity. For example, if we think about the course syllabus as a tool, we might say that it organizes the work in the classroom for both the instructor and the students, which affects how we participate in learning activities.

• Human interaction. Studies of activity systems are concerned with more than the separate actions of individuals. Activity theory is concerned with how people work together, using tools, toward outcomes. In the university, teachers, students, researchers, administrators, and staff interact with each other and with tools to achieve the outcomes of learning.

Activity systems are also constrained by divisions of labor and by rules. In the university, for instance, the labor is divided among the participants—students are responsible for completing assignments; instructors are responsible for grading assignments; administrators are responsible for making sure grades appear on students’ transcripts. In the university, we also operate with a set of rules for participating in classroom and laboratory learning. The rules in many respects are our mutual agreement about how the activity will be carried out so we can all progress toward the outcome of learning.

One way that activity theory helps you more fully understand the “context” of a community and its tools is by providing a diagram outlining the important elements and their relationships. Figure 1 shows the conventions activity theory researchers use to present what they view as the critical components of every activity system. The “nodes” in the system are the points on the triangle—think of these as the specific aspects of a “context” that activity theory can help you consider more fully. The arrows indicate the reciprocal relationships among these various aspects. The labels we’ve provided describe some of the components of each node in the system.

**How are Parts of an Activity System Related?**

The Subject(s) of an activity system is the person or people who are directly participating in the activity you want to study. The subject provides a point of view for studying the activity. The Motives direct the subject’s activities. Motives include the Object of the activity, which is fairly immediate, and the Outcome, which is more removed and ongoing. The Subject(s) use Tools to accomplish their Objectives and achieve their intended Outcomes. They are motivated to use these tools because they want to accomplish something and the tools will help them do so. The Tools that mediate the activity system include both physical tools such as computers, texts, and other artifacts, as well as non-physical tools such as language (written and oral) and skills. Activity theorists also refer to this category as “artifacts.” When people first learn to use
a particular tool, they use it on the level of conscious action; they must think about how to use the tool and what they want it to accomplish. Once they have used the tool to perform a particular action over a period of time, the use of that tool becomes operationalized, largely unconscious. Tool use only moves back to the realm of conscious action if something goes wrong or if the user is presented with a new action to perform with that tool.

The terms at the base of the triangle, Rules, Community, and Division of Labor, make up what Engeström (1999) refers to as the “social basis” of the activity system. The social basis situates the activity in a broader context that allows us to account for the influences that shape the activity.

The Community is the larger group which the subject is a part of and from which participants “take their cues.” The community’s interests shape the activity. Community members divide up the work needed to accomplish their objectives. The Division of Labor describes how tasks are distributed within the activity system. People might disagree about how labor should be divided or how valuable various positions within that division are, causing conflicts within the activity system. Rules are one way of attempting to manage or minimize these conflicts within activity systems. Rules are defined not only as formal and explicit dos and don’ts, but also as norms, conventions, and values. “Rules shape the interactions of subject and tools with the object” (Russell, “Looking”). These rules understandably change as other aspects of the system change—or as the rules are questioned or resisted—but the rules allow the system to be stabilized-for-now in the face of internal conflicts. These rules affect how people use tools. Of most interest to you will be the ways in which the rules affect how people use the tool of written language.

To provide an example that we’re familiar with, Figure 2 depicts the class as an activity system.

**How do Activity Systems change?**

Activity systems consist of the interactions among all of the factors that come to bear on an activity at a given point in time. Cole and Engeström (1994; see also Engeström 1999) suggest that the relationship among the factors in an activity system is a “distribution of cognition,” or a sharing of knowledge and work, across all the elements in the system. In this way, activity systems can be thought of as communal.

But activity systems are also very dynamic and, as Russell points out, “best viewed as complex formations” (1997, p. 9). Change is the quality that makes activity systems—and really all human interactions—dynamic. As people participating in activity systems learn, and as new people join the activity, they refine their tools and create new ones. Or one activity system may be influenced by developments in other activity systems. For instance tools developed by computer science may be adopted in other systems, for instance the university or the health care system. As people change the tools they use, or the ways they use existing tools, changes ripple through their activity systems. Change in activity systems can also come about for other reasons. Social needs many change and activity systems may need to refine their outcomes or goals to meet those needs.

![Diagram of Activity Systems Change](image)

**What Purposes Does Activity Theory Serve?**

Researchers use activity theory to study how people engage in all kinds of activities from learning at a university, to working in a manufacturing company, to shopping in a grocery store. Researchers who use activity theory want to understand the relationships among people participating in activities, the tools people use to accomplish their activities, and the goals that people have for the activity. In addition, researchers use activity theory to understand how historical and social forces shape the way people participate in activities and how change affects activities. Three important goals of activity theory include:

- Accounting for aspects of a system to better understand the nature of activity.
- Analyzing how the parts of a system work together to better anticipate the participants’ needs and goals.
- Isolating problems to develop solutions.