Is This an Argument?
An Analysis of Two Argumentative Texts in a Textbook for Year Nine

En analys av två argumenterande texter i en lärobok för årskurs nio

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Abstract

This essay looks at the new syllabus in English (Lgr11) and its focus on text types. The argumentative text is then the focal point and the argument as a text type and its characteristics are explored. The purpose is to see if two texts from a textbook in year nine could be seen as good representations of arguments. The textbook texts were compared to the forms of an argument through a reading matrix set up for this purpose. The results show that the selected texts were lacking in many respects and cannot be used as good examples of arguments. The textbook presents mostly fictional texts and just a few other text types. This heavy focus on fiction is a problem in more than one respect. Pupils need to be able to read and write many different kinds of texts as the demands of literacy are high in today’s society. It also important to be able to read critically as the number of texts available are increasing, especially on the internet, and their purpose and aim might not be disclosed.

Key words: argument, textbook analysis, English, teaching.
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1 Introduction

In classical Greece and Rome the art of arguing was considered of vital importance. To argue well was not only a right but an obligation of a good member of society according to Ramage, Bean and Johnson (2009, p. 377). They explain further that the people in classical times believed that fist fights and even wars could be avoided if conflicts were resolved through the “exchange of perspectives, negotiation of differences, and flexible seeking of the best solutions to a problem” (p. 377). In this context, an argument is not a debate that is lost or won, nor is it a fight in which the participants shout at each other (p. 377). Instead, they say, it is about truth seeking and persuasion and is a process as well as a product. The product of the argument is a “contribution to the conversation at any one moment” and the process is “an act of inquiry characterized by fact-finding, information gathering, and consideration of alternative points of view” (Ramage et al., 2009, p 378). The practise of these elements of the argument is something that should take place in the English language classroom in compulsory school.

Since the summer of 2011 there is a new curriculum and syllabus for compulsory school in place in Sweden. This means that the previous curriculum from 1994 and the revised syllabuses from 2000 are replaced. The National Agency for Education (henceforth Skolverket) states that the motivation for this change is to further align the syllabus to the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages: Learning, Teaching, Assessment (CEFR). CEFR is a number of systematic guidelines developed by the Council of Europe to teach, assess and describe learners’ proficiency in foreign language studies. This framework was also used as a basis for the previous syllabus, but Skolverket states that the changes made this time were in order to better serve the framework guidelines. Among other things, text types and context for language use have been put into the core contents of English (Skolverket 2011b).

In the new curriculum and syllabus Skolverket (2011a) puts focus on the importance of teaching pupils the ability to use the language in different situations and for different purposes. They explain that the capacity of understanding different text types is one of the main focuses. Oral and written descriptions and instructions are mentioned, as well
as information, discussions and arguments. Skolverket (2011a) further states that one of the main principles for learning English is to be able to use the language in different situations and for different purposes. It is also of great importance that the teaching contributes to pupils’ knowledge of searching for, evaluating, choosing and acquiring the content of spoken English as well as text from various sources (Skolverket 2011a). They say this is done, among other things, by learning about texts and text types and their structure. The number of texts available has increased in the information society we live in and, as Lundahl (2009) concludes, so have the demands of literacy (p. 174). In order to develop a critical mind towards these texts, pupils need to be taught about text conventions and how writers can affect and even manipulate their readers with various textual devices.

Arguments are found in many of the non-fictional texts that we come across every day. They are represented in many different areas such as politics, law, culture, science and business (Hellspong, 2001, p. 108). In order to be able to estimate the value of the claim, Hellspong (2001) emphasizes that it is important to ascertain if the argument is sound; what are the reasons for accepting or rejecting the claim and can it be trusted to be true (p. 108)? This is something that Lundahl also brings up in the context of texts on the internet. It is often difficult to ascertain in which context the text was produced, who wrote it and its purpose as well as what the presumptions of the author are (Lundahl, 2009, p. 202). He suggests using critical reading to disclose the ideological assumptions and to question the claims in texts (Lundahl, 2009, p. 202). This can also be done by performing an argumentative text analysis. Giving pupils some tools for asking simple but effective questions of the text can reveal hidden opinions and bring underlying assumptions to the surface. The ability to identify any flaws in the argument and its reasons is also important as it will help pupils to detect unsound arguments and will make them critical readers. This is something that should not only be taught in the Swedish classroom but also in English language teaching.

English is a world language and we are often told that globalization is increasing. Björk (2001, p. 112) argues that foreign languages will play a bigger part in peoples’ ability to form ideas and to cope with working life as well as enrich their personal lives. The demand for communicative competence in foreign languages is increasing and this includes the ability to use the language for different purposes in different situations (Björk, 2001, p. 112). He claims that English takes on a special role in this respect as it is nowadays often thought of as a second language rather than a foreign language (p. 112). This means that it is more important to be able to speak and write English now
than ever before. It is not enough to be able to order at a restaurant or speak with friends as English is used in higher education, business and the social realm. This is something that can now also be seen in the new curriculum for compulsory school.

According to a survey, conducted by Skolverket in 2006, teachers of English favour using textbooks in their teaching (Skolverket, 2006). They asked 472 English teachers teaching year five and year nine to participate in a survey carried out in the school year of 2004/05 (p. 65). As many as 56% of the year nine teachers were said to use textbooks during every, or almost every lesson (p. 70). A further 27% of the year nine teachers claimed to use textbooks in their teaching every month (p. 70). This is a significant portion of the teachers participating in the survey. The survey further showed that only 3% said that they never used textbooks in their classroom (Skolverket, 2006, p. 70).

The survey shows that textbooks constitute a major part of the teaching material used. As these books are in use for several years they will have to fulfil many different kinds of needs and demands. The textbook selected for this analysis is called *What’s Up? Textbook 9* and it is a book I became very familiar with during my practice weeks. This textbook, as of course all textbooks are, is written with the demands of the curriculum in mind; but how well can it be said to correspond to those demands? This is particularly relevant as there are now new demands to adhere to. How well, for example, does this textbook correspond to Skolverket’s new focus on teaching about different text types?

### 1.1 Aim and Research Questions

In this essay one of the text types mentioned in the new syllabus is investigated closely, namely the argumentative text. This is done in of one of the textbook used in English teaching. As shown in Skolverket’s survey about teaching materials the textbook is widely used in English teaching and will most likely continue to be so.

During teaching practice at year nine, my supervising teacher used textbooks almost exclusively. I wanted to know if one of these textbooks could meet the demands of different text types in the new curriculum and, in particular, if the argumentative text was represented. The features and conventions of an argumentative text are investigated and described; they are then compared to texts in the selected textbook for year nine.
The purpose was to see if these texts could be said to be good representations of the argumentative text according to the conventions. The question focussed on is:

How well do the two selected texts in the chosen textbook correspond to the characteristics of the argumentative text?
2 Theoretical Background

This section investigates what the curriculum and syllabus says regarding text types and arguments. Other literature on argumentative texts and text types in the learning situation is presented. Then the definitions of text and argumentative text that have been used are explained.

2.1 The New Curriculum and Syllabus for English

The syllabus starts with declaring that language is mankind’s most important tool for thinking, communicating and learning (Skolverket, 2011a). It continues by stating that the English language surrounds us and is used in a number of different areas, such as politics, education and finance. The aim for English teaching is to contribute to pupils’ development of the ability to search, evaluate, choose and acquire spoken and written English from different sources (Skolverket, 2011a). The syllabus divides the core content of the English subject into three parts: the communicative content, reception (listening and reading) and production and interaction (speaking, writing and discussing).

On reading and listening (reception), the syllabus states that discussions and arguments with different purposes should be part of English teaching. Skolverket gives some examples of what these texts might be: news articles, reports and magazine articles. Also stated in the syllabus is that pupils should learn how to adapt their reading to the form, content and purpose of the text and speech. The fact that there are different ways to search for, choose and evaluate or rate texts is highlighted and also that texts, as well as speech, can be varied to fit different purposes and contexts (Skolverket, 2011a). This line of thinking is further explained in the comments material for the syllabus. The comments material argues that many different texts are available from a number of different media and pupils need to work with varied ways of searching for and choosing
texts (Skolverket, 2011b). This means, according to Skolverket, that they need to know about text types and in order to be able to relate to the abundance of information it is important to learn how to be critical.

When it comes to the third part of the core contents, production and interaction, Skolverket argues that pupils should learn different ways to adapt their work in order to vary it, make it clear, specify and adapt it to fit their purposes. Pupils should also be able to converse, discuss and argue (Skolverket, 2011a). This means that teachers need to teach pupils how arguments work, how they are built and what the structure of an argument is.

In the comments to the syllabus Skolverket also stresses the unique position English takes in the globalized world of today; it is the language used in almost all domains, in private life, in business, in education. The need for language skills is also of major importance within the European Union, according to Skolverket, who argue that it is important to increase the strength of competition internationally and by that strengthen economic growth. It is not only for the benefit of the pupils to learn English; it is also of vital importance for Swedish society that the school system produces productive citizens (Skolverket, 2011b).

The very first sentence in the National Curriculum maintains that the Swedish school system rests on the basis of democracy (Skolverket, 2011a). Further on in the document it is affirmed that the school system must be open to a diversity of opinions and encourage these different opinions. The school system should, declares Skolverket (2011a), stress the importance of making a personal standpoint and also give opportunities for pupils to bring them forth. They maintain that the mission of the school system is to transfer core values and to promote learning so that pupils are prepared for living in and taking part in the society. One part of this is to develop the ability to critically scrutinize facts and conditions (Skolverket, 2011a). It is of utter importance that pupils learn the skills of how to exercise their democratic rights and are able to participate in society and this cannot be done without the necessary skills in the English language. One of these skills is the knowledge of how an argumentative text works in order to recognise it but also being able to produce one.
2.2 Overview of Research on Learning about Text Types

According to Lundahl (2009) language development is one of the main purposes of text usage in language teaching education (p. 183). He suggests a number of different things teachers can do in order to use texts to develop the language skills of pupils. The first thing is to use a wide variety of text types that are read for different purposes and in different ways (p. 200). Another important aspect of this is the meta-perspective of texts. He maintains that by discussing the reading of texts, pupils increase their awareness of texts, reading, reading purposes, strategies for reading and understanding (p. 227). The point of working with different text types is to make pupils aware of text patterns and language elements, so that the typical features in a text give them the support structure they need when reading and writing (Lundahl, 2009, p. 233). He points out that, when writing argumentative texts, the need for adapting to the audience is high. The writer needs to consider three aspects: his/her own opinions and thoughts, the ideas represented in the literature and the reader’s thoughts and ideas (Lundahl, 2009, p. 220). Lundahl further argues that the ability to cope with these three aspects is part of accommodating the audience and by that also part of the writing and language development (2009, p. 221). This fits well with the purpose of using argumentative texts in teaching.

Björk (2001) has also emphasized the need for working with a variety of texts in language teaching (p. 117). In discussing the importance of writing he has argued that the development of linguistic competence and the process of critical thinking are inseparable as different linguistic purposes coincide with thinking processes. He points out that text types and their purposes coincide with basic linguistic functions. By learning about text types, and going through them one by one, the critical thinking can develop little by little and at the same time pupils learn about the linguistic features that belong to each type (Björk, 2001, p. 118).

An argument, in Hellsppong’s (2001) view, takes on an open question that does not have a definite answer (p. 109). He states that its purpose is to strengthen, undermine or investigate a point of view. This is done though the reasoning for or against this point of view with the basis of some given presumptions (Hellsppong, 2001, p. 109). A text analysis made from an argumentative point of view could serve a number of purposes. Hellsppong (2001) suggests that it could be used to get information in order to settle something (p. 108). Another reason is to look at the strengths and weaknesses of the text
and by these take a stand and a third motive is to look at the reasoning in the text to understand it better (Hellspang, 2001, p. 108). These are all important skills that need to be taught not only in Swedish class, but also in the English classroom. It would not only help the pupils improve their reading and writing skills but also better prepare them for secondary school.

### 2.2.1 Definition of a Text

A text can be said to be many things. Fjellestad and Wikborg (1995) describe the contemporary approach to a text as “an open and infinite process of generating and subverting meaning” (p. 171). They explain that a text is not only something written or printed but can also consist of speech and pictures. The purpose of this essay is to explore the concept of argumentative texts: the Fjellestad and Wikborg (1995) definition of what a text is is not used as that would not serve this purpose. Instead it is the traditional and limited sense of a text as something written or printed that has been used. This is also the point of view taken by Skolverket in the comments on the syllabus (2011b). The syllabus differs between spoken English and written texts in order to make the information and descriptions in the curriculum clearer. This view of texts is also the basis for this essay. This means that only printed texts in the textbook are looked into. It would have been interesting to look into the exercises and pictures as well, but that would mean a deeper analysis of the book as a whole and that has not been the aim here.

### 2.2.2 Definition of an Argument

Arguments can be found in media everywhere: newspapers, blogs, essays, magazine advertisements. There are companies trying to persuade us to buy a certain product or politicians trying to convince us to agree on a political issue. The classical written argument, however, is more than that: it is based on the tradition of ancient Rome and Greece when the senators had to give speeches to persuade the others in the senate (Ramage et al., 2009, p. 377). According to Ramage et al. (2009) there are two main parts to the classical argument; seeking of the truth and persuasion (p. 377). They maintain that, in search of the truth, the argument must consider all sides of a problem,
look at all information and alternatives available in order to arrive at the best solution (p. 378). Persuasion is achieved through convincingly arguing against or for a claim so that readers accept and agree the reasons put forward (Ramage et al., 2009, p. 378). It is also important to understand what an argument is not. They conclude that it is not a dispute in which people of opposing views shout at each other, nor is it just a pro/con debate that is won or lost (p. 377). Instead Ramage et al. (2009) describe the argument as both a process and a product:

As a process, argument is an act of inquiry characterized by fact-finding, information gathering, and consideration of alternative points of view. As a product, it is someone’s contribution to the conversation at any moment – a turn taking in a conversation, a formal speech, or a written position paper such as the one you will write for this chapter. (p. 378)

This also fits with Hellspong’s (2001) description of the argument as taking on an issue that has no certain answer (p. 109). The purpose is to support, undermine or investigate a point of view. This is done through reasoning for or against something on the basis of some given presumptions (Hellspong, 2001, p. 109).

It is the description of the classical argument given by Ramage et al. (2009) that has been used throughout this section to explore the structure and features involved. This description has also served as the basis of the text analysis of the two texts from the textbook. They go through the main points that need to be considered when writing a classic argument in a clear and straightforward manner.

An argument, according to Ramage et al., must have a clear question with one or more reasons to support the stand point taken (2009, p. 380). They explain that the core of the argument is a question formed from an issue that has more than one possible answer. Different perspectives need to be taken into consideration for the argument to be effective (p. 381). If there are assumptions in the argument that are silent and the readers do not agree with these they will not be persuaded, according to Ramage et al. (2009, p. 383). Any assumptions that might not be shared with the audience must be brought up and defended by the arguer for the sake of persuasion. Evidence and reasons must be given to support the position taken. These can be anything from statistics, facts and research to personal experience (p. 385). The context of the argument and the issue it discusses determine the level of formality required of the evidence. It is important to evaluate the reasons and evidence used to support the claim in order for them to work for the cause. The evidence given must be enough to support the stand-point and here
Ramage et al. refer to Richard Fulkerson. Fulkerson (1996) has formulated a way to evaluate evidence through four criteria that are called the STAR criteria. This is an acronym of Sufficiency, Typicality, Accuracy and Relevance. Using this model, an evaluation of the evidence can be made as to how representative, accurate and relevant it is (pp. 62). According to Fulkerson (1996), there must be enough evidence to support the claim and this evidence needs to be representative for the claim made (p. 63). It is important that the data provided is correct; and stating facts from second- or third-hand sources is not a good idea as information might be lost on the way (p. 67). He continues by pointing out that equally crucial are the reasons fitting and applicable to the argument (1996, p. 67). After considering these points, the arguer needs to confront any objections and counterarguments to the claim by thinking of any opposing or other views that can be taken on the subject (Ramage et al., 2009, p. 389).

Ramage et al. (2009) suggest a planning schema to be set up in helping the development of a persuasive argument. The main points are put into a table to help anticipate any counterarguments or objections readers might have. Such a table has been made below (Table 1). It starts with the claim and its accompanying reason; this part should have a clear question with one or more supporting reasons (p. 390). Then, follow the underlying assumptions that might need to be addressed (p. 390). The readers’ willingness to accept the reasons must be considered and any unstated assumptions might have to be articulated and defended (p. 391). The third point is the evidence given to support the reasons (p. 390). This is where the readers should be persuaded to agree with the claim. The evidence can be personal experience or of a more formal kind such as factual data, research, statistics, testimonies or sub arguments (pp. 385). It is here that Fulkerson’s (1996) STAR criteria can be used to evaluate the evidence. An effective argument should include data that is sufficient, typical, representative and relevant, even if all four might be difficult to meet (Ramage et al., 2009, p. 387). In addition, one must consider the underlying assumptions and present arguments and evidence to support these views (p. 391). Lastly, it is important to think about how readers might object to the reasons stated or the underlying assumptions and address these objections (p. 391).
Table 1. Planning schema to anticipate objections.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th><strong>Main points</strong></th>
<th><strong>Explanation</strong></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>A claim with reasons</td>
<td>A clear question with one or more supporting reasons.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Underlying assumptions</td>
<td>If the readers do not agree they will not be persuaded. Articulate and defend these assumptions.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Evidence to support reasons</td>
<td>Evidence can be personal experience. Claim may require more formal evidence: factual data, research, statistics, testimonies and sub arguments. Apply STAR criteria to evaluate evidence.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Evidence/arguments to support underlying assumption</td>
<td>Address the underlying views and thoughts.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ways sceptics might object</td>
<td>Thinking about how readers might object to reasons stated or the underlying assumptions.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Measuring the evidence against the STAR criteria means to check if reasons given are sufficient, typical, accurate and relevant enough to persuade readers.

It is also important to learn about and recognise the mistakes that can be made and above all tricks that can be used to persuade readers, for instance in advertising (Ramage et al., 2009). Ramage et al. (2009) define ten informal fallacies that are among the most common (pp. 396). In the first one they describe how sequence can be mistaken for cause: one event is thought to be the cause of a subsequent event when this is not so. The next informal fallacy is defined as a case where not enough data, or data that does not represent the statements made, has been used. Evaluating the evidence according to the STAR criteria can help eliminate such generalisations. Comparing things that should not be compared, or “false analogy”, is the third fallacy. Next is the “Either/Or Reasoning”, where a complicated matter is assumed to only have two sides and other solutions are ignored (p. 396). Another common error, and number five in their list, is to criticize the arguer instead of the argument. Arguing that a claim is valid because it is supported by many or a celebrity is appealing to “False Authority” (p. 397). Drawing support from anyone who is not an expert in the field is irrelevant, but still an error commonly made according to Ramage et al.. The argument also fails if there is no apparent correlation between the evidence and the claim. The same goes for “circular reasoning” where the claim is stated and then stated again as a reason but rephrased (p. 397). A fact or point that is not relevant brought up in order to confuse the reader is called a “Red Herring” and is often used by politicians to evade a difficult topic or question (p. 397). The last of the common errors is when the arguer jumps to
conclusions, asserting that one step will unavoidably lead to another in the same direction, the so-called “Slippery Slope” (p. 397).
3 Method and Material

This section discusses the method used in which the previously described definitions of an argumentative text have been utilised in order to make a text analysis on the selected material. The material is then presented with some words on the textbook and an overall view of the text types found. After this comes a short description of the two selected texts.

3.1 Method

This text analysis can be said to be a case study. According to Hood (2009), a case study is a study that is investigated in a bounded setting (p. 69). As Hood (2009) points out it is not a research method but a focus where a specific object, setting or circumstance is looked at (p. 69). The method or methods used to investigate the case are chosen by the researcher to fit the purpose of the study (Hood, 2009, p. 69).

The case investigated here is a textbook’s argumentative texts and their validity as such for the classroom. The textbook is used at the school where I do my practice weeks training to be a teacher and I have used it myself in teaching during those weeks.

The method used is a comparative text analysis. The basis of this text analysis is the style and form of the argument as has been presented previously in the Theoretical Background section (see section 2). The two selected texts have then been compared to these conventions and features to ascertain if they can be said to be representations of arguments. The purpose of the argumentative analysis is to examine the reasons the text gives a certain opinion and how these reasons interact with each other (strengthen or weaken the argument) and what they are based on (Hellspong, 2001, p. 108).
3.2 Material

The textbook under discussion is called *What’s Up? Textbook 9* and was written by Gustafsson, Österberg and Cowle and was published by Bonnier Utbildning (now Sanoma Utbildning) in 2007. The book is part of a series of English teaching books and material for compulsory school, ranging from the very first year of learning English to year nine.

This textbook consists of 176 pages and is divided into three major sections: the first of these is the text section, the second is the grammar section and the third is a glossary. The text section is then further divided into chapters with typically three texts within each chapter. There are themes such as “Ups and Downs”, “Love”, “Media”, “Stories of Suspense” and “Mother Nature” making up these regular text chapters. Three of the themes are somewhat different from the others; one is called “Literature” and has six different chapters which are all fictional, the second is called “Realia” (cultural studies) and has three chapters on the role of the English language in the world and the third is called “A Light Read” and contains five chapters with two texts within each chapter which correspond to the major themes of the book. Two projects are suggested: plan a trip and make a yearbook. A few poems and lyrics are also included. There is a short description in Swedish for each chapter as well as suggestions for studying grammar. Each chapter starts with a short introductory text and a text to listen to (which is not printed) where some of the words are presented as well as questions to discuss, most often in the form of “true or false”.

3.2.1 The Textbook and Its Text Types

Two texts have been selected on the basis that they were the two texts that fit the description above of argumentative texts better than other texts in the book. Going through the table of contents and focussing on the longer chapters it was soon clear that the textbook favours narratives and fiction. The short introductory texts to each chapter were ignored throughout as these would not provide enough to go on and were typically descriptive in form. This means that there were not a lot of different texts of various types to choose from in this textbook.
Counting only the main texts in each chapter there are 34 texts in the book. All poems, lyrics and introductory texts have been omitted from these 34 texts. In many cases the textbook gives a definition of what kind of text type the text represents. This is the case for 18 of the 34 texts and as can be seen in Table 2 there are 13 texts that are not defined at all. Some of the texts are simply described as a story about something, a song or a short story. Those texts that have not been defined in the contents page are sometimes described in the short introduction to that text. Some texts are not defined as a text type at all and it is up to the reader (or the teacher) to decide. When the majority of the texts are clearly fictional it is difficult to ascertain the character of the other texts as they might all be stories of some sort.

Table 2. Number of texts in the textbook with text type definitions.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Texts defined as:</th>
<th>Texts</th>
<th>Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Texts</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Story or fiction</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>53%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>9%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Not defined</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>38%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The text type definition is stated either in the table of contents as with the chapter called “Stories of Suspense”. This chapter has three texts that are all stories: “The Chase”, “Nightmare in Yellow” and “Harriet’s Horrible Dream”.

When text type is not defined in the table of contents it is often stated in the few lines that sometimes introduce a text. Text A in the first chapter, called “The Accident”, is presented as a story about an accident. As can be seen in Table 3 the majority, or 86%, of the 21 texts that are described as a type of text are defined as stories or fiction. Only three texts have been put into the “other” category as they were specified to be a number of quotes on television, an interview with a journalist and myths and facts about diamonds.

Table 3. Texts with definitions.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Text type stated</th>
<th>Texts</th>
<th>Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Text type stated</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Story or fiction</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>86%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>14%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The next step was to look at those 13 texts that had no definitions of text type at all, neither in the table of contents nor in the introductory lines. Of these 13 undefined texts there were two that seemed to argue for something. First there was the second text in the first chapter called “Ups and Downs”. The text named “Life Past and Present” (p. 12) had two parts with statements and opinions regarding the “Good Old Days” and of the “Bright New World”. The second text chosen was the second text in the next chapter called “Love”. The text is “Real Love by Mandy P.” (p. 20) and presents itself as written by a teenage girl who argues that she knows what real love is.

3.2.2 Short Presentation of the Selected Texts

The first text is called “Life Past and Present” (from now on referred to as Text 1) and consists of two pages in the textbook (pp. 12). It is structured in two main parts, the first one with the subtitle “Good Old Days” on the left hand side of the page spread and the second one called “Bright New World” on the right hand side of the spread. Both parts provide a number of positive statements on life; the first one on life past and the second one on life today. There are no negative or problematic views presented at all.

The second text is called “Real Love by Mandy P” (Text 2 from here onwards) and is about one and a half pages in size (pp. 20). It tells the story of a teenage girl and her first love from a personal point of view and is written in a first-person narrative. Mandy, the narrator of this story, contests the notion that teenagers do not know what love is and recounts how she met her first love and boyfriend. She then explains how she ended the relationship and lost her love.
4 Reading the Texts

This section covers the readings and analysis of the two texts. The template set up in Section 2.2.2, has been used here to show the features of the argumentative text and how the selected texts are checked against this template. Last in this section follows a summary of the text analysis.

4.1 Reading Matrix

The table shown in Section 2.2.2 is used here to analyse the two texts. The table describes the planning schema on how to write a persuasive argument and what main points need to be considered. Table 1 is presented again below for easy reference:

Table 1. Planning schema to anticipate objections in table form.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Main points</th>
<th>Explanation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>A claim with reasons</td>
<td>A clear question with one or more supporting reasons.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Underlying assumptions</td>
<td>If the readers do not agree they will not be persuaded. Articulate and defend these assumptions.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Evidence to support reasons</td>
<td>Evidence can be personal experience. Claim may require more formal evidence: factual data, research, statistics, testimonies and sub arguments. Apply STAR criteria to evaluate evidence.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Evidence/arguments to support underlying assumption</td>
<td>Address the underlying views and thoughts.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ways skeptics might object</td>
<td>Thinking about how readers might object to reasons stated or the underlying assumptions.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The main points on the left hand side of the table have been rephrased into questions to be put to the two texts. The explanations have been taken away to show examples instead. The five main questions to put start with asking what the main claim is and
what reason or reasons are given for this claim. Are there any underlying assumptions and if so, what are they? What evidence is given to support the reasons of the claim? What evidence for arguments can be found to support the underlying assumptions and last: what might sceptics object to?

I have read the texts with Table 1 as a template. The left hand side of the table has been reworked into questions and the right hand side shows examples from the texts. The starting point is as follows:

Table 4. Reading matrix for the selected texts.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Main points</th>
<th>Examples from the texts</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>What is the main claim and its reason(s)?</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Are there any underlying assumptions? If so, what are they?</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>What evidence to support the reasons is given?</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Are there any evidence/arguments to support the underlying assumption?</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>In what ways might sceptics object?</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

After looking at the texts through this matrix the next step was to see if any of the ten “informal fallacies” could be spotted (Ramage et al., 2009, p. 395). These fallacies are common flaws in arguments based on defective reasons and can result in unhealthy presumptions. They may even be used deliberately to persuade and are therefore important to be able to recognise. The ten fallacies repeated in short are: mistaking sequence for cause, hasty generalisations, false analogy, either/or reasoning, attacking the arguer instead of the argument, appealing to false authority, no evident connection between claim and reason, circular reasoning, raising an unrelated or irrelevant point deliberately and assuming that one step will lead to the next step in the same direction (Ramage et al., 2009, pp. 395).

4.1.1 Reading Text 1

By using the reading matrix from Section 4.1 (above) and questioning the text from the main points the result can be viewed in table form as Table 5. The right hand side of the table shows examples from the text that might answer the questions to the left.
Table 5. Reading matrix for Text 1.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Main points</th>
<th>Examples from Text 1</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>What is the main claim and its reason(s)?</td>
<td>First main claim is that life was better in the past. “People talk about the good old days, saying that everything was a lot better then”. The second claim is that life is better now: “living today is actually better than ever before”.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Are there any underlying assumptions? If so, what are they?</td>
<td>The past is not specified at all, the reader is supposed to know what time they are referring to.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>What evidence to support the reasons is given?</td>
<td>General opinions such as: “environment was better”, “crime rates were much lower”, “hardly any unemployment”, “hardly any stress at all”, “people seemed to be happier” about the past. The present is described as: “life today is a lot easier and more comfortable”, we “probable have wider perspectives of life”, mobile phones give young people “independence, and a rich social life, out of their parents’ control”. The evidence given can hardly be said to meet the STAR criteria of accuracy as they cannot be validated. No counterarguments are addressed.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Are there any evidence/arguments to support the underlying assumption?</td>
<td>No.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>In what ways might sceptics object?</td>
<td>All that is given are a lot of opinions on life either today or in the past.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

There are two main points in this text: the first point made is that life was better in the past; the second point being that life is better today. The views given in the two parts are presented in an indirect and elusive way by just describing personal opinions from an unknown author. As there is no author stated it must be assumed that this text was written by the authors of the textbook but they do not take ownership of the arguments. Instead they refer to “people talk[ing] about the good, old days” and present “some ideas to consider” (Gustafsson et al., 2007, p. 12). The reader is not told exactly whose ideas should be considered. This means that already at the beginning of the text the fallacy of unsupported claims is unfortunately detected.

The first part of the text offers a number of romantic and idealised thoughts on what life was like in an unknown past. It says that “there was hardly any stress at all” in the good old days but this is something that is ignored totally in the part about present life (Gustafsson et al., 2007, p. 12).
The second part claims that present life is better by presenting a number of statements supposed to support the argument. The statements are almost as vague as in the first part but at least the reader knows that the time period referred to is the present. However, it does not really help the reader to decide if claims like “life today is a lot easier and more comfortable” is valid or not (Gustafsson et al., 2007, p. 13). It obviously depends on who is being referred to. Other generalisations made are about our “perspectives of life” being wider and that mobile phones give young people “freedom and independence” as well as a “rich social life, out of their parents’ control” (Gustafsson et al., 2007, p. 13).

Something to object to in this text is the evidence given and the failure of the STAR criteria. The reasons provided for life being better in the past are just opinions and generalisations, they are not possible to verify as the past is an unspecified time period. Stating that “crime rates were much lower” may well be true but as it is not possible to verify this for the reader it is not a valid point (Gustafsson et al., 2007, p. 12). People who experienced the depression in the 1930s are likely to disagree with the statements that there was “hardly any unemployment at all” and “hardly any stress at all” (Gustafsson et al., 2007, p. 12). The very vague phrase “people seemed to be happier” might even get the reader to become suspicious and thinking that the author even means the opposite; they seemed happy but were not (Gustafsson et al., 2007, p. 12). There are no counterarguments presented anywhere and it is difficult to argue for something if only positive aspects are presented. A good argument presents more than one side of the claim. In my view the text would have gained credibility in giving a more complex view of present life as well as life in the past.

Finally one must check for any fallacies that might occur in the text. The ten fallacies mentioned in Section 2.2.2 were the ones checked for in this close reading example. Two that immediately fit are the hasty generalisations: the text is full of general statements and data that are not directly unrepresentative but certainly unsupported. These unsupported claims appear already at the beginning of the text as the reader is not told who is making these claims. Pupils might not be such experienced readers as to recognise any of these fallacies if not pointed out by the teacher. Further, it is not possible to verify if the data provided is true or not, as it is not known what time period is referred to. Then there is the fallacy of the either/or reasoning; the text demands that the reader decides whether to agree with life in the past or the present. There is no room given for a more balanced view where some things might have been better in the past but others a lot worse.
4.1.2 Reading Text 2

Text 2 was read in the same manner as Text 1, where the matrix was used in exactly the same manner. This resulted in Table 6 where the examples from Text 2 are presented at the right hand side of the table.

Table 6. Reading matrix for Text 2.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Main points</th>
<th>Examples from Text 2</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>What is the main claim and its reason(s)?</td>
<td>Teenagers do know what real love is contrary to what people think.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Are there any underlying assumptions? If so, what are they?</td>
<td>The assumption is that “teenagers can’t be in love or they don’t know what real love is” and it is addressed in the very first lines of the text.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>What evidence to support the reasons is given?</td>
<td>The author tells her own story of being in love with a boy. She ended the relationship after four months and “felt sad all the time” after that. STAR criteria of sufficiency and relevance apply.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Are there any evidence/arguments to support the underlying assumption?</td>
<td>Mandy was convinced by a friend that they “were too young to be in love”.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>In what ways might skeptics object?</td>
<td>Difficult to argue against personal experience.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Text 2, “Real Love”, commences with a clear statement that addresses the underlying assumption that “people think that teenagers can’t be in love or they don’t know what real love is” (Gustafsson et al., 2007, p. 20). The author’s claim is that they do indeed: “I am here to tell them that they are wrong” and she tells her own personal story as evidence to support the claim (p. 20). In this analysis the author of the text is assumed to be the teenage girl called Mandy P. This is however something that can be questioned and is brought up in the discussion further on.

The main claim is that she knows what love is because she has “been in love before” (Gustafsson et al., 2007, p. 20). The claim is then supported by Mandy’s story about how she met her first boyfriend and how they “loved being with each other” (p. 20). She then continues by explaining how she was persuaded to end the relationship by a friend who argued they “were too young to be in love” (p. 20). After losing the boyfriend she felt “sad all the time” and it took her a few weeks to “pull [herself] together” (p. 21).

The text is based on Mandy’s own life and no other evidence than that given by her experience is presented. Considering the STAR criteria on evaluating the evidence, the relevance and the sufficiency criteria can possibly be seen to be met. It is, however,
difficult to formally argue against personal experience. The reader is supposed to be convinced by the descriptions of her feelings of loss and sadness; however, while some will be persuaded, others might not be.

The assumption addressed at first in the text that “teenagers can’t be in love or they don’t know what love is” is put forward by Mandy’s friend. There are no reasons presented to support this statement other than Mandy’s own behaviour of ending the relationship after the advice from the friend. However, her giving in to peer pressure does not mean she does not know what love is. It can be argued, though, that she was too young to be in love considering how she ended the relationship.

Checking for fallacies in this text is not as straightforward as for Text 1. This is a recount of someone’s personal experience, on which the author based her claim, but there are no major mistakes according to the common fallacies described previously. One thing to consider is if the reader is convinced by the claim when the arguer is so inexperienced and only tells her own story.

4.1.3 Summary

Both texts argue for something and might for this reason be thought of as arguments. However, Text 1 is constructed in a somewhat strange way from an argumentative point of view. It presents only the positive sides to each claim and there are no counterarguments addressed. It is impossible to confront and validate the statements and opinions given as the author is unknown and the time referred to is just a vague reference. In evaluating the evidence in Text 1 it is evident that the criteria of accuracy fail as the data and the facts given cannot be validated. In this respect Text 1 also ticks the boxes of at least two of the common fallacies: there are a lot of generalisations and insufficient data.

Text 2 argues that teenagers do know what real love is, contrary to general opinion. This second text is wholly based on Mandy’s story and her personal experiences and feelings. If the reader is persuaded by her story her claim will be accepted. However, it is not equally simple to evaluate the evidence on this text as all it offers is her story. The argument needs the reader to accept her as an authority on the subject.

The arguments presented and the topics chosen are obviously adapted to its readers as are all the texts in the book which is a textbook for language teaching. Text 1 is however vague throughout and could have presented more than just positive views. As
the negative aspects are excluded it is difficult to see the point of the argument. Text 2 deals with the classic topic of love and the personal narrative leaves out any other views as well as makes the reasons for the argument relevant.

Both texts presume that the readers can identify with life and culture based in the Western world. Text 1 gives a lot of examples of the way of life that can be identified with from our point of view here in Western Europe. Text 2 also assumes that the reader can relate to teenage life and what that means in our part of the world. As these texts appear in a textbook produced for the Swedish school system, these presumptions are not surprising.

When considering the writers of the texts it is clear that the first text was written by one or more of the textbooks authors. It is in the textbook for a reason; the purpose is to teach English in school and the basic role of the writer is pedagogical. Text 2 is a little more difficult though; it clearly states it has an author called Mandy P. but this is most likely a fictitious author. This text is part of the textbook for the same reason as all the other texts: while many teenagers are able writers it is unlikely that this text has any other origin than being written by the authors of the textbook.
5 Some Reflections on the Readings

In this section some reflections on the readings of the two texts are made. The textbook and the text types it presents are also commented on. A discussion on the importance of understanding and learning about the argumentative text follows. Finally some suggestions on teaching argumentative texts are put forward.

5.1 Textbook Arguments

The new syllabus for English in compulsory school, in place from 1st of July, 2011, stresses the importance of teaching text types. One of these text types explicitly mentioned is the argumentative text. As this is something that Skolverket really puts focus on I wanted to see how well one of the textbooks used in school adheres to this demand. A survey done by Skolverket in 2006 clearly shows the extensive use of textbooks in English teaching. The aim for this essay was to see if the two texts in the textbook can be considered as good examples for teaching about the argumentative text. I needed to know what the characteristics of the argumentative text were in order to compare them to the two texts selected in the book. In this way I could find out how well the two texts corresponded to the features of the argument. A reading matrix for the main points of an argument was constructed in order to use for posing questions to or finding features in the texts that would fit into this matrix. A number of commonly made errors, called informal fallacies, were also investigated to see whether any of these were present in the texts. The readings show that the two texts do contain elements that fit into some of the conventions of an argument. They both argue for something but they lack major points that are needed for them to be seen as good examples of arguments according to the definition used in Section 2.2.2. The texts do not meet the demands of the classical argument and furthermore exhibit several of the common fallacies.
Text 1 is constructed around a number of vague statements about a past not specified and the evidence given is therefore not valid as it cannot be verified. The data provided is altogether insufficient and questionable. Statements such as “war always seemed to be far away” just raise a lot of questions instead of giving any answers (Gustafsson et al., 2007, p.12). As it is not made clear to whom these opinions belong they are impossible to confront. The text offers a number of positive statements and no counterarguments are presented whatsoever, contrary to what an argument should do. The text argues for two claims; life was better in the past and life is better now but no other opinions are presented, contrary to what a sound argument should do. This text would have benefited from presenting more views on life and offering both positive and negative aspects to be regarded as a good example of an argumentative text.

Text 2 is more straightforward in that it starts by arguing against a statement, or assumption, given. This text is portrayed as being written by a teenage girl, but this is arguably not the case. The very fact that the text appears in an English textbook with a pedagogical purpose is a reason to question if Mandy P really is the author. The author of the text is most likely one or more of the textbook authors. The analysis has, however, been made with the assumption as a point of departure that Text 2 was written by a teenage girl. This has no apparent effect on the analysis made here as the text can still be analysed from an argumentative point of view.

The arguments presented and the topics chosen are obviously adapted to its intended readers as are all the texts in the book (the book being a textbook for language teaching). Both texts presume that the readers can identify with life and culture in the Western world. Text 1 gives a lot of examples of the way of life that can be identified with from our point of view here in Western Europe. Text 2 also assumes that the reader can relate to teenage life and what that means in our part of the world. As these texts appear in a textbook produced for the Swedish school system, these presumptions are not surprising.

It is important to display a variety of text types in teaching materials. Skolverket now wants to make sure this happens by expressly naming the text types that should be taught: the argument is one of these. When it comes to What’s Up? Textbook 9, I would suggest that the two texts fail in the case of the argumentative text. According to the reading matrix the texts selected cannot be seen as good representations of argumentative texts. However, in its defence, this textbook was written a few years ago with the demands of the old curriculum in mind. This shows that there is a need for new textbooks that better adhere to the new requirements.
5.2 Arguments are Important

Even if these texts are not meant to be read as arguments it would be of great educational value to perform a text analysis with the help of similar matrices for these text types. This can be done on a number of different texts and should not be restricted to texts that seem to fit the type only. To look at texts from this view offers one way in which to dig into a text to get at the underlying structure and deconstruct it in order to learn how to write one. As Hellspong (2001) points out; to write an argumentative text helps to structure and form one’s own opinion and mind about something.

Another advantage to reading a text through an argumentative analysis is to develop pupils’ literacy and critical thinking. By using matrices similar to the one used in this study or parts of it pupils can learn how texts have been constructed and may discover unrevealed ideas and thoughts.

Schools must prepare pupils for the real world and give them the tools for reading and writing that they may need in the future. Going through the various texts in this textbook it is obvious that there is a heavy focus on fiction and stories. As shown above 18 out of 34 texts were of a fictional nature. Fiction is a very important genre that should play a major role in language teaching as it is creative and fun, but it must not be the only kind of text taught. Fiction and stories are a vital part of the teaching material and as such must remain, but not at the expense of other types of texts. Pupils in year nine are certainly ready to be presented to a number of different text types.

The major focus on fiction and stories in the textbook can pose problems for pupils. There is a risk of all texts being seen as stories or similar and that pupils might be led to believe that when it comes to writing in English, it will be enough to know how to write a story. Though there might be a number of future poets or novelists out there, the majority of pupils will never be asked to write a story again after finishing school.

Already in secondary school pupils need to know how to produce a number of different texts and compulsory school should prepare them for this. In further education, and in future working life it is of vital importance to know how to write according to various conventions. The argumentative text is important as it not only helps in the development of language skills as both Lundahl (2009) and Björk (2001) argue. It also
aids in forming one’s own opinions and ideas. It is a way in which to exercise one’s democratic rights and thus a tool for democracy.

5.3 Some Suggestions

The texts that have been analysed can be used in teaching about argumentative texts provided well-structured, good representations of arguments are also taught. The two texts can then be used to find flaws as well as good points. Structures of texts and text types are taught in Swedish class but this belongs equally in the English language classroom. As English is such a dominant language nowadays, pupils will be increasingly expected to be able to write well in a number of different contexts. There are several advantages to teaching about argumentative texts in English. Not only will it help pupils develop their language skills, and this could in itself be enough, but it will also prepare them for future writing as well as give them an opportunity to practice democracy.

Text conventions and the meta-perspective on texts and text structures is something that now definitely has a place in the teaching of English, according to the new syllabus. Teachers need to incorporate a number of text types into their teaching materials, if they have not done so already. From the 2006 survey about teaching materials used by English teachers it is without a doubt that textbooks are relied heavily upon (Skolverket, 2006). There might be several textbooks that do support the demands of the new syllabus but What’s Up? Textbook 9 does not. Fortunately argumentative texts are not difficult to find and this is a good opportunity to use authentic texts.

English teachers, as well as other teachers, need to be selective when it comes to teaching material. It is important to consider the demands of the curriculum and the syllabus to make sure the materials and texts used are sufficient and comply with all the requirements. If most textbooks keep the same focus on fiction as this one does, new textbooks are needed or need to be complemented with other texts. Hopefully there will be textbooks in the near future that offer a variety of different texts; not only stories, but also descriptions, instructions and arguments.
6 References


7 Appendix

Texts analysed:

Text 1: Life Past and Present

Text 2: Real Love by Mandy P.
Life PAST and PRESENT

GOOD OLD DAYS

Have you heard people talk about the good old days, saying that everything was a lot better then? They may be right. Here are some ideas to consider.

The environment was better - the air was clean and easy to breathe, the water was crystal clear in our rivers and lakes, there wasn't much traffic and in the shops you could buy healthy farm food. People took all that for granted - the word environment wasn't even invented.

Crime rates were much lower. You could walk the streets without being mugged or assaulted. Girls could walk home alone from a party without having to worry about being raped. Drugs and terrorist attacks were unheard of and war always seemed to be far away.

There was hardly any unemployment at all. After your compulsory nine years at school there was a job waiting for you, perhaps badly paid and no real job security but still a job. Only those who really wanted to went on to further studies.

There was hardly any stress at all and people had time to socialise. Families had most of their meals together. There was less competition among young people to get good grades at school and to look perfect. Getting a good job without a formal education was certainly a lot easier than it is today.

People seemed to be happier and more content with the life they had, they didn't ask for much and didn't always compete to get on in life whereas people today ask a lot and never seem to be satisfied - they keep asking for more and more.

In the good old days people had more time and cared more for each other. Perhaps they were more helpful, and not as egoistic as today.
Are you the kind of optimistic person who believes in a bright new world, that living today is actually better than ever before? Here are some ideas to support your point of view.

Life today is a lot easier and more comfortable, generally speaking. We have all the mod cons we need - refrigerators, food processors, computers, TVs, and all the rest of it. And don’t forget all the wonderful means of transport - nice cars, buses, trains, and airplanes.

A wonderful thing nowadays is all the medical research which has given us medicines to cure a number of contagious diseases, e.g. TB, cholera, typhus, pneumonia and malaria. Who knows, one day there might be a cure for cancer and AIDS?

Most people, at least in the western world, have more opportunities today than ever before. We are no longer restricted to the place where we were born - we can settle down in other parts of the world, travel almost wherever we like, study in a foreign country etc.

Today we live in a society where information is being spread more quickly and easily than ever before. This gives us a better knowledge of life and the society we live in. We also learn a lot more about other cultures, and probably have wider perspectives of life. The world has become a global village.

We all enjoy greater equality between men and women than before. Earlier women used to work at home, do the cooking and the cleaning, and look after the children. Today more and more women have their career outside the home while more and more men spend time with their children and do their fair share of the household chores.

There are lots of wonderful technical inventions for everyone. Just imagine what mobile phones have done to young people. It gives them freedom and independence, and a rich social life, out of their parents’ control.

**TALK ABOUT IT**

* In what ways do you think that life was better in the good old days? » In what ways do you think that life is better in our bright new world?
People think that teenagers can't be in love or they don't know what real love is. They think we are too young and inexperienced to be able to love another person for real. I am here to tell them that they are wrong. I'm only 16 and I have been in love before, but because I questioned that love, I lost it. His name is Dustin and he was my first; a love that I will never forget.

Last year I met this guy named Dustin. He was 3 years older than me. He was very interesting, cute, kind, fun, and he always made me laugh. Our attraction was instant and mutual and we quickly started dating.

We did everything together; I mean we loved being with each other. My mom even approved of him (and that was a big plus). My family considered him family and his family considered me family. He was not only my boyfriend; he was my best friend, a best friend who I was in love with.

One of my biggest failings is that sometimes I go along with my friends; you know, give in to peer pressure. If they say something, and work to convince me, I usually give in. Four months into my relationship with Dustin my friend Brie was telling me I should dump him. She pointed out all of his negative points and she convinced me that they were worse than his good ones. She convinced me that Dustin and I were too young to be in love and that he must have me fooled into
thinking our relationship was more than it was. I agreed with her but deep in my heart I knew what I was doing was wrong.

A few days later I called him up and told him it was over. He wanted to know why I was ending our relationship. I didn't really have a reason. How could I tell him that I was dumping him because my friend had told me to? So I told him a tremendous lie. I told him that I liked someone else and that I had cheated on him. I tried to hold back my tears as I whispered, 'Sorry.' I quickly hung up the phone and began to sob. After that I felt sad all the time. He kept on calling and calling, wanting to see me, but I couldn't bring myself to look him in the face after what I had done. A couple of weeks later the calls stopped and I never heard from him again.

It took almost a month for me to pull myself together. I tried to move on with my life. I tried to date but it was way too hard — I was still in love with Dustin. No one could ever compare to him. I knew he had moved on with his life and that I had nobody but myself to blame for my broken heart.

A while later I heard through the grapevine that Dustin had moved out of the state. My heart dropped. I started to cry fearing I would never get a chance to set things right. As the weeks passed I didn't hear anything from or about him. He was gone and I had to move on with my life.