Teaching and Learning Critical Reading with Transnational Texts at a Mexican University: An Emergentist Case Study

by

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“You must seek out the significance of your problems. Try to understand.”

Fortune cookie note I got right before my pre-defense meeting.
To my beloved wife, Rosy Sandoval Cruz.

To my grandmother, Hilda Dagdug Santiago.

To the memory of my great-grandmother, Eustaquia Santiago Flores.
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ABSTRACT

This dissertation project examines the implementation of a critical reading intervention in a Mexican university, and the emergence of target critical reading processes in Mexican college-level EFL readers. It uses a Complexity Theory-inspired, qualitative methodology. Orienting the selection and design of materials is a deep view of culture that focuses on competing ideologies as a site of cultural production. Also orienting the pedagogical design is a goal to enable readers to infer aspects of a text’s social and ideological context from deep examinations of its linguistic patterns and rhetorical strategies. The metalanguage and analytic procedures of Appraisal Theory (a subset of Systemic Functional Linguistics), Burkean rhetoric, and Toulmin analysis were used to design activities and discourse organizers aimed at promoting rhetorical inferences and ideological critique. Adapted versions of these concepts and analytic procedures were taught to students. The study focused on investigating the emergence of the target interpretive processes in the student population as well as identifying factors underlying observable student reading practices. Results from these analyses were used to inform the theorizations of learning and instruction underpinning the intervention. Findings show that previous, non-target genre and rhetorical knowledge strongly influenced some students’ initial implausible interpretations of authorial attitude and audience. However, the intervention was successful in helping students to produce plausible interpretations. Genre and rhetorical knowledge thus emerged as important elements of the theorizations of learning needs and outcomes, which led to modifications in the underlying instructional theory. Students learned to use the metalanguage of Appraisal analysis and reported that it was helpful in improving comprehension. Unexpectedly, students reported the emergence of an awareness of the need to monitor their comprehension. They also showed and reported increased ability to build richer, more plausible representations of texts in general after doing Appraisal analysis. Some students also reported internalizing the learned analytic procedures and applying them to other genres. These results have
implications for L1 and L2 reading pedagogy and contribute to understanding the processes involved in making rhetorical inferences and resisting ideology.
CHAPTER ONE
INTRODUCTION

Second language (L2)\(^1\) reading comprehension has been an area of interest for applied linguists working in L2 acquisition and language education. Specifically, a productive line of inquiry has examined the role of text structure awareness (Meyer, Brandt & Blooth, 1980) in improving text comprehension and memory. In general, these studies have replicated L1-reading findings (e.g., Meyer, Brandt & Blooth, 1980; Meyer & Poon, 2001) and shown that text structure awareness improves text comprehension and recall in L2 readers (Carrell, 1984, 1985, 1992; Lahuerta, 2002; Jiang & Grabe, 2007).

Specifically, Tang (1992) and Jiang (2007) have shown that the use of discourse organizers—graphic representations of text structure that L2 readers fill out with text information—helps L2 comprehension.

Studies of text structure awareness have contributed important insights into the role of awareness of textual patterns in L2 reading and its pedagogy. However, L2 reading scholars have not, to the best of my knowledge, addressed the role that awareness of textual patterns may play in enabling inferences of information not explicitly stated in texts. Specifically, previous studies have not explored one type of inference that I call “rhetorical inference.” Drawing on the work of Haas and Flower (1988), Martin & White (2005), and Wallace (2003), I define rhetorical inferences as those that pertain to aspects of texts such as unstated authorial positions and intentions, authorial alignment of other voices in the text, target audience, and the text’s social and ideological context.

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1 Throughout this text, a distinction is made between learning/teaching a Second Language (SL), and learning/teaching a Foreign Language (FL). SL is used to refer to language learning/teaching situations occurring in contexts where the target language is commonly used in daily life and spoken by large segments of society. The United States and India are examples of contexts where English is learned as second language (ESL). FL is used to refer to learning/teaching situations in contexts where the target language is not commonly used, as in learning English in Mexico or Japan. In these contexts, English is learned as a foreign language (EFL). I use “L2” to as an overarching term to mean any language additional to the mother tongue/s (L1s), be it a SL or a FL.
The ability to make rhetorical inferences by processing linguistic patterns at the discursive-textual level—rather than at the level of isolated words, phrases, or clauses—is relevant to L2 readers, and especially to FL (Foreign Language) readers, for a variety of reasons. Intrinsically, reading in a FL involves coming across texts containing information that is more or less highly specific to the FL cultural context (Bernhardt, 2011; Koda, 2005). Because FL readers do not learn the target L2 in that context, they may not hold enough cultural and topic knowledge to be able to approach FL texts in the ways that knowledgeable L1 readers would. That is, FL readers may not be able to activate the topic and cultural background knowledge that would enable them to situate the text in a rhetorical context simply because such knowledge might not be available in their previous discursive experience. As a result, they would need to rely more heavily on bottom-up language processing in order to make sense of those texts (Koda, 2005). This situation speaks to the importance that being able to draw rhetorical inferences from textual linguistic patterns holds for FL readers.

Despite their importance, rhetorical inferences do not appear to be addressed consistently in English as a Foreign Language (EFL) reading pedagogy. According to Han and D’Angelo (2007), and Grabe (2009), the prevailing way of teaching EFL reading consists of pre-teaching vocabulary and relevant background knowledge to students and then asking post-reading comprehension questions. This pedagogical approach, which is inspired by top-down models of comprehension, is problematic for several reasons. A comprehensive review of those is beyond the scope of this introductory chapter, so I will address only those that are most directly relevant to this study. First, the assumption that readers always and only process texts in a top-down manner has been challenged successfully by a number of studies (Stanovich, 1980; Gough & Wren, 1999; Bernhardt, 1991). Second, this pedagogical approach ignores research findings indicating that reading is a complex, adaptive process (see Koda, 2005; Larsen-Freeman & Cameron, 2008; and McNamara & Magliano, 2009 for reviews of these findings) that involves compensatory behaviors to process meaning in multiple ways at several levels (Bernhardt, 2011).

Third, there are limitations to the amount of background knowledge that can be taught in EFL courses. While the accretion of background knowledge makes it more likely that
learners’ background knowledge will be sufficient for some texts, it is obvious that learners will always encounter reading situations where their background topic and cultural knowledge will be insufficient to read in a top-down manner. Further, there is no guarantee that the background knowledge taught in EFL reading courses is retained.

A further limitation of a top-down pedagogical approach to EFL reading is that it ignores genre and register variation. Reading processes are likely to vary along genres and registers (McNamara & Magliano, 2009; Fang & Schleppegrell, 2007). An issue to consider in L2 reading is that equivalent genres and reading practices might not exist in the L1 cultural context. It is also possible that some L2 readers are introduced to certain genres and reading practices in the L2 first, and only then do they encounter those genres and reading practices in the L1. In these two cases, learners may not have developed the kinds of knowledge and interpretive processes required to meet the situated demands that reading such genres pose within the complex of literate cultural practices targeted by instruction. Yet, the role of genre variation in EFL reading comprehension remains under-researched (Grabe, 2009; Hyon, 1999; Swales, 1999) as does rhetorical inference making. Further, the potential connections between genre knowledge and rhetorical inferences have not been investigated.

In contrast with L2 reading research, L1 reading studies have considered some aspects of rhetorical inferences. A research agenda that has been active since the late 1970s has combined humanistic and cognitive approaches to investigate forms of reading involving rhetorical inferences that have been labeled variously as aesthetic reading (Rosenblatt, 1986), constructive-responsive reading (Pressley & Afflerbach, 1995), transactional reading (Rosenblatt, 1969), or rhetorical reading (Haas & Flower, 1998; Haswell et al., 1999).

These valuable and insightful interdisciplinary studies have been limited in ways that are relevant to this study. First, perhaps due to their specific L1-focus, they have not examined the role of language processing or genre variation in the generation of rhetorical inferences. Second, the existing studies show very limited, if any, engagement with the concept of ideology, or with examinations of the ways that aspects of ideology are operant in texts, readers, and reading. I propose that ideology needs to be addressed in intervention studies such as this one that seek to explore the role of rhetorical inferences.
in a critical reading pedagogical approach that intends to promote forms of global cultural consciousness (Kumaravadivelu, 2007, defined below). I will return to this point later.

When language processing has been examined in previous studies, such examinations have been limited to narrative genres. Specifically, Gygax and his colleagues (Gygax, Oakhill & Garnham, 2003; Gygax, Garnham & Oakhill, 2004; Gygax, Tapiero & Carruzzo, 2007) have considered the processing of affect-conveying language in making inferences about characters’ implied emotional states. Their results show the role of processing emotion-laden language in inferring implied information. However, the connection between this kind of language and inference-making in a different genre, journalistic opinion texts, has not been explored.

The need to investigate the relationship between language knowledge and inference making is highlighted by Perfetti, Marron and Foltz (1996). In this study, the authors found that some college-level L1 readers may fail to process language in a way that enables them to read political opinion texts critically due to gaps in their “knowledge about how language works” (158). As Perfetti et al. imply, the ability to make rhetorical inferences is key when reading this genre critically. In turn, the ability to read political opinion texts critically is crucial for participation in civic life and should be a goal of college-level education.

Despite the importance of rhetorical inferences and critical reading, they are currently under-researched in both L1 and L2 reading studies. The only existing empirical studies of L2 critical reading are Wallace’s (1992, 2003) studies of ESL critical reading in Britain.

In applied linguistics and related fields, “critical reading” has been the term of choice to designate a) a stance toward texts that involves a spirit of inquiry toward the message and attempts to place it in a social and ideological context, and b) the interpretive processes involved in deep examinations of texts’ underlying ideologies and the ways

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2 I have chosen the term “interpretive processes” to refer to the cognition involved in understanding texts, be it conscious and deliberately deployed or not. I prefer this term over the more commonly used terms “skills” and “strategies.” Besides the fact that these terms remain underspecified (Palincsar & Brown, 1988), the key distinction between them, namely that skills are automatic and strategies are purposeful and conscious, does not seem helpful for L2 readers. L2 readers engage in much more conscious and effortful processing than L1 readers do, which means that what are commonly thought of as skills in L1 reading can be strategies for L2 readers. It has also been shown that automatic processes can become deliberate in L1
texts attempt to impose those on readers by way of lexical, syntactic, or discursive choices. According to Wallace (1992, 1999, 2003), these interpretive processes include, among others, characterizing an author’s attitudes toward a text’s propositional content, examining the intended rhetorical impact of a text, and describing the ideal reader/audience constructed by it. These interpretive processes require rhetorical inferences as sometimes authors’ positions are not explicit, and texts generally do not explain explicitly what kind of audiences they address.

More recently, Wallace (2003) has expanded the scope of critical reading by incorporating the notion of meta-critical awareness, or a reader’s scrutiny of the reasons why she comes to interpret aspects of a message the way she does, as well as the possibility that diverging interpretations may be formulated by readers in different social-cultural positions.

Wallace’s studies, while insightful and pioneering, are limited in some ways. For example, they focused on ESL learners that had lived in Britain for some time and came from high-income countries in Western Europe and from Japan. Such populations can be presumed to have experienced some degree of enculturation into the British cultural context and engage in literate abilities and practices that help them with EFL critical reading. By contrast, there aren’t any published studies examining the teaching and learning of critical reading of authentic texts with EFL populations in less privileged countries, such as Mexico, where L1 literacies may not prepare students to tackle advanced forms of critical reading. Another limitation is that Wallace’s pedagogical interventions have tended to focus on texts that are not overtly ideological.

The pilot study motivating this dissertation as well as previous research suggest that Mexican college-level EFL learners may find themselves in a situation where their L1 literacy experiences may not have promoted the interpretive processes needed to read overtly ideological texts critically. This pilot study is presented below. It is followed by a brief review of the relevant literature and the specific questions addressed by this study.

1.1. THE PILOT STUDY
In the summer of 2009, during my second year as a doctoral student in the Joint Program in English and Education, I was asked to advise a group of teacher-researchers in my native country, Mexico, who were working on a text analysis project at the University of Central Mexico (UCM), one of the leading public universities in the country. One of these projects involved examining the reading comprehension texts and activities used to teach English at the Foreign Language Self-Access Center (SAC) of UCM’s main campus in the city of Puebla. The two teacher-researchers in charge of this project, Paula and Elba, had been lecturers of English as a Foreign Language (EFL) for over five years at the time I met them, and held MA s in EFL teaching granted by UCM. In addition, Paula had been a Fulbright exchange scholar at the University of Oregon in Portland, where she spent one year refining her English and taking courses in second language acquisition.

The project’s original goal was to characterize these texts’ generic structures using the genre analysis framework of the Sydney School of Systemic-Functional Linguistics (SFL). SAC teachers are responsible for selecting and, in some cases, editing authentic texts and designing comprehension activities based on them. The coupling of a text with the exercises created by the teachers is called a “práctica.” For this project, teachers were asked for permission to analyze their “prácticas,” and only those designed by teachers who consented were included in the study.

One of these “prácticas” that we got consent to analyze is based on an article called “Debut of the Amero.” Written by Canadian journalist Judi McLeod, this text was originally published in 2006 in Canada Free Press, a conservative news Web site that, despite its name, devotes most of its content to contentious U.S. political issues such as health care reform, the alleged communist nature of the Obama administration, the supposed global warming conspiracy, and assertions about the belittling of Sarah Palin by America’s liberal media. The text purports to unveil a conspiracy led by “enemies of America” (China, the United Nations, the Bush administration, the U.S. media) to create a North American Union between the three NAFTA countries of Canada, the United States,

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3 This, like all other names of teachers, students, and institutions involved in this study, is a pseudonym.
4 Puebla is Mexico’s fourth largest city and is an important hub for this country’s automotive, software, and healthcare industries. Founded in 1531, Puebla has been a center for higher education since UCM’s precursor institution, the College of the Holy Spirit, was established there in 1587.
5 SFL is a branch of linguistics that focuses on explicating the connections between language and social context. More information about it is provided below.
and Mexico, and replace their currencies with a new one: the amero. At the same time, American conservative activists such as Phyllis Schlafly and Jerome Corsi are praised for exposing the conspiracy. Below is the text’s opening paragraph:

The People's Republic of China, long lauded by America's enemies as the world's next economic power, will be the country that will force the creation of the 'North American Union' (NAU). Kofi Annan's former pointman, Canadian Maurice Strong, has been boasting from Chinese soil that China soon would be replacing America as economic king, using the lingo that's the official language at Turtle Bay.

I encountered this text when Paula and Elba began to email me the “prácticas” that they were analyzing. The text was developed into a “práctica” by one of the SAC teachers, Orlando. Orlando has a strong interest in politics and is known at SAC for his left-leaning views. He chose the text after it was recommended to him by a like-minded friend who is not a teacher. He reported that he chose the text because he “wanted to make students think about something different.” It seems that he was bored with the bland materials traditionally used in Mexican EFL pedagogy and intended to expose students to texts that would engage their thinking critically. However, he lacked the conceptual and pedagogical tools to encourage critical engagement with the text. He developed pedagogical activities that focus on learning vocabulary from the text. While he also developed questions asking learners to reflect on Mexico’s relationship with the United States, answering those does not require any engagement with the text’s message or ideology. The questions developed by Orlando merely ask students to focus on vocabulary and give their opinion about Mexico’s relationship with the U.S. and Canada.

As stated above, the project’s goal was to characterize the genres of the texts using the SFL taxonomy of elemental genres (Martin & Rose, 2007; Martin & Rose, 2008). During one of our online conversations, Paula and Elba told me that they thought this text was a discussion. In the SFL taxonomy, a discussion is a genre whose social purpose is “to present both sides of an issue and to make an informed recommendation” (Woodward-Krohn, 2005, 29). A discussion requires that careful consideration be given to the two or more positions being presented. Paula and Elba had coded most of the sentences in “Debut of the Amero” as instances of discussion.
I was taken aback by their coding as it was obvious to me that this text was extremely one-sided and ideologically charged. I was concerned that Paula and Elba were not grasping the ways that the text was working rhetorically to create an ideologically biased narrative intended to, among other things, raise fear in American and Canadian readers at the imagined impending merger of their countries with Mexico and the lower living standards and loss of cultural identity they would experience as a result of that union. Nor did they seem to be reflecting on the significance held by the fact that such a text was used to teach EFL in Mexico or the opportunities it afforded to teach critical reading. So, the coding was the focus of one of the on-line, typed conversations I sustained with Paula as part of my advising their project. Below is an excerpt of this conversation. These exchanges highlight Paula’s ability, when scaffolded, to grasp the author’s rhetorical intent. The line breaks signal our pauses when typing.

M: for example, with “Amero” most sentences are labeled as “discussion” and I can see why you did it that way

P: is it not a discussion?

M: the point is it would be a discussion if the arguments of two parties one in favor of the Amero and the NAU and the other one against were presented and a discussion is objective then, the question is what’s the purpose of this text? is it to consider two or more conflicting viewpoints? to analyze them carefully?

P: no, it’s someone’s opinion

In another line, Paula expressed that the text was difficult for her. So, I started laying out the claims made by the text, emphasizing what I saw as the text’s attempt to appear heteroglossic when in fact all the voices in it support one single perspective.

M: then it talks again about past events in this case the creation of the euro then it tells us what several people have predicted will happen in the US I think it is this inclusion of several voices that led you to classify these sentences
as discussion

P: yes

M: but the point is that
in a discussion
the writer presents several different perspectives, but here the dominant voice is
the writer’s

P: ok

“Debut of the Amero” presents the opinions of several right-wing commentators to
support its argument that there is an evil, government-led conspiracy to create the new
currency and the North American Union. For example:

“People in the U.S. are going to be hit hard,” says Bob Chapman publisher
of *The International Forecaster* newsletter. "In the severe recession we are
entering now, Bush will argue that we have to form a North American
Union to compete with the Euro."

These attributed citations led Paula to think that the text was discussing several sides of
the issue. She failed to realize that these voices were included to further buttress the
author’s argument that a conspiracy exists and is harmful to the people of the United
States. Part of the reason why she may have failed to do so stems from the fact that this
text uses only value-neutral reporting verbs (“say” in two instances, “explain” in one, and
“express” in another) to project others’ voices. Because the alignment between the voices
quoted and the author’s intent is not encoded in the reporting verb or in adjacent
adverbial markers (e.g. “rightly says…”), the construction of a more plausible
interpretation of the quotation’s rhetorical role requires Paula to read rhetorically
different parts of the text, such as the one below, and use them to interpret the authorial
purpose in quoting Chapman and others.

The cloak of the NAU, fashioned in secrecy, will be thrown over an
unsuspecting public, erasing the borders of the three countries. Mexico,
which already has legions of its citizens living and working inside
America, is, in effect already inside the NAU. Their governments will
inform the American and Canadian people that there is no option but the
bread line.
From a language-processing point of view, this process of rhetorical reading involves several inference-making processes working at the lexical, syntactic, and discursive levels as well as the capacity to hold concurrent representations of the evaluative meanings found in several parts of the text in working memory simultaneously.

Crucially, these interpretive processes depend on the capacity to infer the kinds of feelings that adjectival phrases, such as “fashioned in secrecy [by the government]” would elicit in the ideal audience for this text. This audience presumably consists of American conservative readers who tend to view their government with suspicion and are inclined to believe in conspiracy theories. While this inference would be easy to make for someone with some knowledge of U.S. politics, I propose that the text’s language itself offers enough cues to enable readers to construct a partial representation of the naturalized reading position\(^6\) constructed by the text—albeit a partial one—as long as they have the necessary linguistic-cum-rhetorical knowledge and skills to do so.

Paula did not seem to be that kind of reader. Despite being an advanced EFL learner as suggested by her background and qualifications, Paula wasn’t able to make the inferences needed to interpret the authors’ intent in bringing other voices into the text on her own. Nor was she able, without help, to make the inferences needed to identify who the author sees as enemies of America in the text’s first paragraph.

The People's Republic of China, long lauded by America's enemies as the world's next economic power, will be the country that will force the creation of the ‘North American Union’ (NAU). Kofi Annan's former pointman, Canadian Maurice Strong, has been boasting from Chinese soil that China soon would be replacing America as economic king, using the lingo that’s the official language at Turtle Bay.

Making the connection between “America’s enemies” in the embedded participial clause and United Nations representatives Kofi Annan and Maurice Strong as such enemies (and by extension the U.N. as an institution) requires identifying the author’s attitude and its projection across clauses. The processes involved in doing this include parsing the embedding of Strong’s positive attitude toward China within the author’s

\(^6\) The term “reading position” refers to more-or-less typified ways of approaching texts by “communities of readers positioned by specific configurations of gender, generation, class, ethnicity, and in/capacity” (Martin & White, 2005, p. 62). A reading position is naturalized to the extent that the text assumes the values of one such community as the “right” or only perspective on an issue or issues. As discussed below, evidence for such naturalization can be found in, for example, the value premises left unstated by writers.
negative evaluation thereof, and the linking of both backward to the lauding of China by “America’s enemies.” The conversation data above, Paula’s background as a proficient speaker and teacher of English, and her knowledge of situational aspects of the text (e.g. she knew that Kofi Annan was the UN’s Secretary General, she had heard of the amero before and she had analyzed the text carefully) suggest that Paula had the linguistic and conceptual tools needed to read this text critically, i.e. to engage in the processes of syntactic-semantic parsing and inference-making needed to successfully identify the “enemies” as well as the author’s rhetorical intent in bringing different voices into the text. However, her not making these inferences despite having read the text closely suggests that she is not engaging in certain contextually relevant interprettive processes and habits that are crucial for this kind of reading. The fact that the text makes extensive use of attitude-expressing language, or attitudinal language, highlights a) the role that this kind of language can play in creating patterns of coherence in texts, and b) the possibility that awareness of these patterns may play an important role in reading texts of this kind critically. I will return to these points later.

Considered in isolation, Paula’s case is perhaps of little or no significance. However, the pilot study conducted prior to this dissertation study indicates that other Mexican EFL instructors working in universities located in different regions of the country display reading patterns similar to Paula’s. A summary is offered here in order to further characterize the impetus motivating this dissertation study.

Paula’s difficulties with this text led me to wonder how other EFL teachers and students at UCM would read it. I decided that think-aloud protocols (TAPs) would be the most appropriate way to elicit initial information about this population’s ways of reading this text. Three UCM teachers and one UCM student participated in the study along with two teachers of the University of Southern Mexico (USM, the site where the dissertation study was conducted). The student was at the upper-intermediate level by UCM’s classification. The teachers were all EFL lecturers who also taught applied linguistics courses such as discourse analysis, and language courses such as L1 reading. Four of them had heard of the amero before. One of the teachers, Nicolette (a pseudonym), is French (France-born and France-educated). Orlando, the teacher who designed the “Debut of the Amero” practice, was also one of the participants.
The TAPs were conducted during the last week of November and the first week of December of 2009. All TAPs were elicited in Spanish. The participants were told that we were interested in learning how they interpreted this text and the difficulties they encountered when doing so. They were reminded to verbalize their thoughts every 60 seconds. Participants were provided with bilingual dictionaries and encouraged to use them whenever they encountered unknown words.

Analysis of these TAPs show that the five Mexican participants constructed implausible interpretations of the author’s attitude toward the amero and the NAU. They thought that the amero was being presented by the author as a solution to an ailing dollar and American economy. One of the teachers commented that the NAU and the amero were good ideas, implying that they would be good for Mexico. Apparently, these teachers and students also failed to identify the ideas being presented as the author’s opinions. Instead, they perceived them as truths, and did not question their validity.

Interestingly, Nicolette, the French teacher, adopted a more critical/rhetorical approach. She looked for the date and place of publication, expressed skepticism at some of the claims, and even laughed at places, suggesting that she found certain claims to be ridiculous. She later commented that education in France includes explicit training on critical reading; this characteristic of the French educational system was later confirmed by an independent French informant.

Together, these findings suggest that Mexican EFL teachers and students’ literacy practices when reading in English do not include attention to attitudinal meaning in texts, nor do they seem to prepare students to parse non-adjacent segments of attitudinal language or make rhetorical inferences. This absence of engagement with attitudinal language could also be due to gaps in vocabulary knowledge. For example, they may not know the meaning and connotation of words such as “laud,” “boast,” and so on. Against this hypothesis, however, it can be argued that, as advanced EFL learners and educated native speakers of romance languages, they would certainly know the word “enemy” and could infer the meaning of “laud,” both of which are cognates between English and Spanish. In addition, the student participant consulted the dictionary and the teachers did too on occasion.
1.1.1. JUSTIFICATION OF A TEXT-TO-CONTEXT APPROACH

The situation motivating this pilot study highlights another central theme in this project: the need to arm students with tools to be able to infer aspects of a text’s rhetorical context from close analysis of the text’s language as a way to defend themselves intellectually from ideological impositions. This need is made more pressing by the fact that journalistic opinion texts can be downloaded from the Internet and distributed to students in isolation from their context. This occurred at UCM, where Orlando downloaded “Debut of the Amero” upon a friend’s recommendation, and created a “práctica.” This act brought about circulation and multiple readings of the text, seemingly without ever questioning its ideological features.

It could be argued that the existence of a situation like this one is grounds to train students to “read” the Internet more contextually by, for example, seeking to contextualize the content of Web sites using search engines to find more information about aspects of it. Such a context-to-text approach is indeed a very valuable pedagogical approach. For this project, however, I chose to follow the opposite approach and attempted to teach students to infer contextual aspects such as author’s position and ideology from close text analysis. The reasons for my choice are explained below.

Even when students use a search engine to find out more about, for example, an author and her ideological positions, presumably they still need to read the texts found by the search engine more-or-less closely in order to develop a coherent representation of their content. However, at present, EFL pedagogy in general (Han & D’Angelo, 2007; Grabe, 2009) and in this intervention’s target setting in particular (Garza Pulido & Arellano Quintanar, 2005; Perales-Escudero, Hernández & De Ita, in press; Perales-Escudero, 2011) do not train students to engage deeply with the language of complex texts. Instead, EFL reading pedagogy tends to rely on giving students background knowledge and pre-teaching key vocabulary.

This pedagogical practice is both limited and limiting. Students who experience it will nonetheless encounter later in their lives reading situations involving processing difficult texts for which they have no or little background knowledge. Indeed, encountering such reading situations is part and parcel of being a student and, I would argue, a citizen of a globalized world. If students are not trained to infer information from that kind of text
using what they have at their disposal—that is, the text itself—they may be ill-prepared to tackle the demands of such reading situations. By contrast, a pedagogy that focuses on enabling student to infer unknown, implied information by closely scrutinizing the text’s language using discourse analytic principles may be more empowering for tackling the kind of reading situations I just described. This pedagogy might also empower students to read the texts they might obtain from Web searches of terms and/or names in other texts more effectively. Hence my choice to design and implement a text-to-context, rather than a context-to-text, pedagogy. This is not to say that context-to-text pedagogies are not valuable or necessary, but I have chosen not to pursue that route in this project for the reasons I just outlined.

Previous research suggests that the results of the pilot study may be explained in part by the literacy practices that obtain in the Mexican educational system. These are explored briefly below.

1.2. L1 AND L2 READING IN MEXICO

Research on reading practices in Mexican L1 and L2 education is limited. Nonetheless, the few existing studies suggest that critical reading is not promoted in either Spanish or English. For example, Peredo Merlo (2001) examined the L1 reading-to-write tasks used in a group of Mexican elementary and secondary schools and concluded that the literacy practices promoted by those were limited to memorization, localization of discrete information, and textual copy. Hernández (2008) found that many Mexican college-level students understand reading in uncritical terms as a passive, information-acquiring process. He suggests that these understandings stem from the reading practices typical of their previous schooling.

On the L2 front, Perales-Escudero, Hernández, and de Ita (in press) interviewed groups of Mexican EFL teachers and found that they lack knowledge of and training in the use of discourse analysis and text structures in reading comprehension. These teachers report that their reading lessons follow the top-down model that, according to Grabe (2009) and Han and D’Angelo (2007) is typical of EFL reading lessons around the world: first, knowledge activation activities are conducted, followed by vocabulary teaching and comprehension questions. As Gibbons (2002) has pointed out, this kind of lesson
includes neither deep engagement with the text’s syntax or discourse nor direct scaffolding of students’ while-reading processes. Moreover, the texts used to teach reading in the mostly British EFL textbooks used in Mexico intend to be politically safe and present an unproblematic, monolithic view of the cultures of English-speaking countries. These are typical features of global, mass-produced EFL textbooks (Gray, 2002).

Some studies of writing are relevant to this discussion as well. Studies of L1 and L2 writing have found that the writing tasks used in Mexican higher education focus overwhelmingly on description and explanation: students in Mexican public universities do not seem to write argumentative prose or be taught how to do so (Roux, 2006; Busseniers et al., 2011; Vidal & Perales-Escudero, 2011). These findings, together with those of the pilot study reported above, suggest that critical reading is not at present promoted by the literacy practices of schooling in Mexican education either in English or Spanish. The existing studies of critical reading, while important and pioneering, need to be extended on a number of fronts in order to better frame and address the design of critical reading interventions for Mexican college-level EFL readers.

1.3. EMPIRICAL STUDIES OF CRITICAL READING

Empirical research on critical reading or conceptual issues relevant to it has been conducted from several disciplinary perspectives such as TESOL/AL, composition-rhetoric, and cognitive psychology. These studies have tended to privilege either a social orientation (e.g. the ESL studies in Wallace, 1992; 2003) or a cognitive one (e.g. the L1 studies reported in Hass & Flower, 1988; Charney, 1993; and Perfetti, Marron & Foltz, 1996). This dichotomy between social and cognitive approaches is characteristic of much reading research (Stone, 2005). As a result, socially-oriented studies have shown limited engagement with the literature on the cognitive processes of L1 and L2 reading. Conversely, cognitive studies have not addressed the social processes that bear on reading-related cognition and have engaged with language processing only in a limited manner.

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7 TESOL stands for Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages. AL stands for Applied Linguistics. TESOL/AL refers to a field of studies in applied linguistics that focuses on the teaching of English as either a second or foreign language.
There is also a paucity of research dealing specifically with English-L2 critical reading, the only published studies being those by Wallace cited above. These applied linguistics studies are grounded in a Critical Discourse Analysis (CDA) perspective and report interventions aimed at teaching critical reading to adult ESL learners in Britain. Wallace has used the grammatical systems version of Systemic-Functional Linguistics to train students to analyze everyday texts for their covert ideological messages.

This CDA-grounded and applied linguistics-oriented work in ESL critical reading is significant and pioneering in many ways. It has drawn attention to the ways that attitudinal language works rhetorically to convey ideologies and authorial intent. Consequently, it has highlighted the importance of training students in methods to scrutinize the rhetorical and ideological patterns created by attitudinal language and has offered tools to do so. However, the analyses of attitude rely on a grammar-focused model of SFL that, while helpful, limits the conclusions that can be reached about a) the ways that attitudinal language contributes to creating cohesion in texts, and b) the characterization of the ideal reader a text creates. Along similar lines, this work does not incorporate perspectives from contemporary rhetoric that can add nuance and complexity to analyses of the textual devices and semiotic processes involved in suasion. Further, because of their social semiotic focus, CDA construals of critical reading have accorded very limited consideration to the role of inferences and text representation in critical reading, which obscures their potential to inform research and pedagogy.

Conversely, while the role of text structure knowledge in comprehension and recall has been long recognized in a strand of psycholinguistic studies of L1 and L2 reading (Meyer, Brandt & Blooth, 1980; Meyer & Poon; 2001; Carrell, 1984, 1985, 1992), the role that patterns of attitudinal language can play in structuring texts and promoting comprehension has not been addressed in psycholinguistic studies. Nor have studies examined how knowledge of these patterns can be co-constructed between teachers and learners in pedagogical contexts. In other words, there is an absence of comprehensive theorizations of critical reading that address it as a socio-cognitive and textual phenomenon without losing sight of the critical theory perspectives grounding critical reading definitionally and axiologically.

A further limitation of critical reading studies has to do with the text types used and
the contexts where the studies have been conducted. The CDA work has tended to privilege texts that are not overtly opinionated and ideological; rather, the focus has been on seemingly innocent texts that nonetheless operate ideologically in covert ways, such as advertisements and supposedly neutral news reports (Wallace, 2003). These choices seem to be predicated upon the premise that it would be pointless to analyze overtly ideological texts because they are transparent to advanced ESL readers. However, the results of my pilot study suggest that the picture might be different in EFL situations: the advanced EFL learners in the study seemed to have difficulty identifying the author’s attitudes toward the issue as well as her intent in citing others despite the presence of clear linguistic signals in the text. From a cognitive perspective, Perfetti, Marron and Foltz (1996) did use political opinion articles with clear linguistic encoding of authorial attitude, but did not use any linguistic or rhetorical framework in their analysis of these texts, nor did they address the role that language could play in enabling rhetorical inferences about them.

The published critical reading studies in both the social and psycholinguistic traditions have been conducted in English speaking countries, either with native speakers (Perfetti, Marron & Foltz, 1996) or with ESL learners who had lived in the setting for some time (Wallace, 1992, 2003) and thus can be presumed to have experienced some degree of acculturation into the L2 cultural context. Absent from these studies is a consideration of the phenomenon of transnational reading, or the reading of texts by overseas readers not acculturated into the national-cultural context where the text was produced. Transnational reading has been greatly enabled by the Internet and, as the results of the pilot study illustrate, can have important consequences for the ways that FL educators and applied linguists think about critical reading pedagogy and its intersections with globalization and the teaching of culture. For these reasons, research that examines the development of interpretive process for transnational texts in local, EFL contexts is needed in order to gain better understandings of the relationship between critical reading and culture. The next section explores views of culture in TESOL/AL.

1.4. CULTURE AND GLOBALIZATION
The role that culture plays in the L2 or FL classroom has for a long time been a concern of scholars and practitioners in language education. This issue seems particularly germane for the field of TESOL due to the dominance of English in the World Wide Web and the degree of circulation, penetration, and popularity held by several forms of English-language cultural products—academic research, literature, pop music lyrics, newspapers, blogs, wikis, and so on—all over the world. Yet, TESOL scholars have repeatedly complained that theorizations of culture in the field remain limited and inadequate to tackle the challenges posed by globalization (Atkinson, 1999; Kumaravadivelu, 2007). While somewhat sophisticated theorizations of culture in the L2/FL classroom have been put forward in the field (e.g. Kramsch, 1993), these have not sufficiently addressed perspectives that highlight the aspects of power and struggle involved in cultural production such as that of post-colonial theory (Pennycook, 2002).

Kumaravadivelu (2007) represents a valuable attempt to do so while at the same time sketching a pedagogical agenda predicated on the notions of cultural realism and global cultural consciousness. For Kumaravadivelu, cultural realism involves an awareness of culture as struggle, or, in his words “a true understanding of the competing forces of global, national, and individual realities” (157, emphasis added). Cultural realism thus echoes the views of culture as a dialectical process put forward by scholars in Post-Colonial Theory (PCT). Post-colonial theorist Homi K. Bhabha has suggested that culture tends to be theorized from either an epistemological orientation or an enunciative one. In his view, the epistemological perspective tends to characterize culture in monolithic terms. In contrast, the enunciative perspective “is a more dialogic process that attempts to track displacements and realignments that are the effects of cultural antagonisms and articulations” (Bhabha, 1994, 177-78). An enunciative perspective construes culture in dialectical terms as being produced in rhetorical and dialogic struggles: “culture is produced by partisans; it is the process of interaction, persuasion, and coercion” (Sánchez, 2005, 80). Then, from a perspective of culture-as-enunciation, culture is neither static nor monolithic, but can be located in, for example, the competition between political ideologies that plays out in print and electronic genres such as news reports and opinion pieces.

While global cultural consciousness remains under-specified as a theoretical construct,
Kumaravadivelu (2007) claims that this kind of consciousness

…requires the cultivation of a critically reflective mind that can tell the difference between real and unreal, between information and disinformation, between ideas and ideologies… developing global cultural consciousness is a complex process that requires constant and continual self-reflection (158, emphasis added).

Reading transnational texts critically offers rich opportunities to further theorize both cultural realism and global cultural consciousness and address them in the classroom. This work, however, necessitates that specific text-interpretive processes be researched with local populations. Specifically, the emphasis that global cultural consciousness places on self-reflection suggests that critical reading, and specifically metacritical awareness (Wallace, 2003), can play an important role in developing this kind of consciousness in at least two ways. First, a critical reading pedagogy can promote meta-reflections on the premises underlying one’s interpretations of texts. Second, such pedagogy may also increase awareness of how readers in varying sociocultural positions could use different premises to arrive at different interpretations of the same text. Such use of premises to produce interpretations of texts is an act of inference-making. Crucially, in transnational reading situations, readers may not have the kinds of culture-specific background knowledge required to fill in gaps in the text by retrieving knowledge from memory. Therefore, readers need to make inferences to produce plausible representations of the text. The following sections explore inference-making.

1.5. INFERENCES IN READING COMPREHENSION

There is some scholarly consensus that the ability to infer information that is not explicit in a text is an important aspect of comprehension (Cain & Oakhill, 2007). Inference making is particularly crucial in transnational reading situations. In these situations, the reader is not likely to possess enough culture-specific knowledge to fill in gaps in the text where such knowledge is required to make sense of the text. Thus, in order to formulate plausible interpretations of aspects such as audience and implied authorial position, the reader must use reasoning to infer these. This kind of inference involving an interpretive process of reasoning—rather than retrieval of information from memory or from elsewhere in the text—has been called “generative inference” (Kintsch, 1998). I propose
the term *rhetorical generative inference* for inferences of this kind that relate to rhetorical aspects of a text such as authorial position, authorial intent, and audience.

Research has been conducted on the interpretive processes involved in inferring the emotional states of characters in narratives (e.g. Gygax et al., 2003; Gygax et al., 2004; Gygax et al., 2007). This line of inquiry has considered the role of affect-expressing language (e.g. “sad,” “clenched his fist”) in inference processes. However, there is no published research on the language-interpretive processes underpinning rhetorical inferences when reading political opinion texts. Such research is needed for several reasons. First, as McNamara and Magliano (2009) suggest, reading processes are likely to vary across texts. Thus, examinations of the inference processes associated with multiple types of inferences and text types are needed to provide a fuller picture of comprehension. Second, as Hasan (2004) has shown, inference processes are likely to vary across social groups. Because of differences in their previous discursive experiences, groups of different Socio-Economic Status (SES) and racial backgrounds are likely to use different assumptions and knowledge when making inferences. This may result in very different inferences for the same text. Crucially, schooling privileges some kinds of inference-related reasoning over others. When privileged forms of reasoning and their differences with non-privileged forms are not examined in the open, such privileged inference processes become part of the hidden curriculum. This can have harmful consequences for learners and the educational system as a whole. Thus, it is important to examine the interpretive processes that students use when making rhetorical inferences and how they may differ from those used by teachers.

This kind of examination is particularly relevant for generative rhetorical inferences for two reasons. First, reading political opinion texts is one way that citizens engage in public life. If citizens fail to make plausible rhetorical inferences when reading this text type, they may fall prey to ideological impositions. Then, preparing students to identify and resist ideology, which involves inference making, is an important educational goal. Second, the widespread availability of opinion texts representing a variety of ideological positions in the Internet increases chances for such ideological impositions to occur. For transnational readers, their lack of culture-specific background knowledge means that they need greater linguistic and rhetorical resources to compensate for that lack. It is
therefore important for transnational readers to be equipped with the language-processing resources that can enable them to make inferences about a text’s social context from examinations of the text itself. Thus, this study uses a text-to-context approach to comprehension. The following section addresses compensatory models of comprehension and presents a view of reading from a Complexity Theory perspective.

1.6. COMPENSATORY MODELS IN READING COMPREHENSION

It is now well-accepted that reading comprehension involves a variety of kinds of processes and knowledge. According to compensatory models of comprehension (Stanovich, 1980; Bernhardt, 2011) when readers face shortcomings in one kind of knowledge or process, they are likely to activate a different kind of knowledge or process in order to compensate for such shortcomings. Compensatory models are compatible with a Complexity Theory (CT) perspective that views reading comprehension as a complex, dynamic system where multiple sub-systems—skills, strategies, knowledge, dispositions—interact in changing ways to produce interpretations of texts (Larsen-Freeman & Cameron, 2008). CT constructs afford a dynamic view of reading comprehension that may help to overcome the cognitive-social divide in comprehension research by placing the locus of learning “not in the brain/body or the social environment, but in the interaction between the two” (34).

Attractor states and control parameters are two CT constructs that are useful for classroom research purposes. Attractor states are behaviors that a dynamic system tends to display, or places it tends to occupy in its trajectory. Control parameters are elements of a system that exert considerable influence on its behavior. In critical reading, readers’ repeated behaviors when processing language, making inferences, or critiquing ideology can be seen as attractor states. The reasons explaining such behaviors are control parameters. Control parameters are important because knowing them is knowing what drives readers’ interpretations to certain attractor states, which in turn enables teachers and researchers to intervene in order to produce desired outcomes (Larsen-Freeman & Cameron, 2008).

Readers’ interpretive processes operate on texts, and texts vary in the kinds of linguistic exponents they use to accomplish social purposes. Political opinion texts
attempt to work rhetorically on readers by employing different forms of suasion. While CDA has used older versions of functional linguistic analysis in order to analyze the linguistic realizations of suasion, new versions of SFL are available that allow for deeper examinations of attitudinal language and the ways writers naturalize specific, value-oriented reading positions. Also helpful in characterizing the suasive strategies of texts are the analytic lenses of contemporary rhetoric. Combinations of these two perspectives can yield richer text analyses and inform the design of pedagogical interventions, but this potential has not been addressed so far by studies of critical reading. SFL, rhetoric, and possibilities for synergy between the two are explored below.

1.7. SYSTEMIC-FUNCTIONAL LINGUISTICS AND APPRAISAL THEORY
First developed by British linguist Michael Halliday, Systemic-Functional Linguistics, or SFL, is a branch of linguistics that construes language as a preeminently social phenomenon. At present, SFL is best described as a federation of theories unified by a common concern with designing linguistic models that account for the relationship between language and social contexts. One branch of SFL, the Sydney School, has developed models of language-in-context that have greatly influenced Australian and Brazilian K-12 literacy education (see Bawarshi & Reiff, 2010, for an historical review of SFL’s influences in these two countries). The pedagogical applications derived from these linguistic models have shown promise in improving students’ learning outcomes (Culican, 2006; Rose, 2006; Rose et al., 2007) and language arts teacher education (Brown, 2009).

The discourse-semantics model of coherence put forward by the Sydney School of SFL is well-suited for exploring the more rhetorical aspects of texts, but at present no published research has examined its pedagogical applications for critical or rhetorical reading. Concretely, the system of Appraisal, also called Appraisal Theory (Martin & White, 2005), offers a valuable tool for examining attitudinal language. As the pilot study has revealed, this kind of language can play an important role in creating patterns of coherence in biased political texts.

Appraisal Theory models the ways that authors construct various value positions and align themselves and readers vis-à-vis those while at the same time creating ideal, or
naturalized, reading positions for their texts. Appraisal Theory also addresses the ways that attitudinal language contributes to text coherence by examining how specific words and phrases “tend to color more of a text than their local grammatical environment circumscribes” (Martin & White, 2005, 63). As seen in the analysis of “Debut of the Amero” above, awareness of the ways that discrete vocabulary items, like “enemies,” influence the ways that other discursive participants located elsewhere in the text are evaluated is crucial to characterizing authorial intent.

Appraisal Theory then offers a systematic description and classification of the linguistic devices used by writers to exert forms of suasion that do not rely on appeals to logic. In this, it is compatible with contemporary rhetorical theorizations of non-rational forms of suasion such as identification (e.g. Burke, 1969). These connections, however, have not been explored so far, nor have these linguistic and rhetorical theories been transformed into actionable pedagogical interventions for the teaching of critical reading. Some aspects of the synergic potential between SFL and rhetoric for contributing to theorizing and teaching global cultural consciousness through critical reading are explored below.

1.8. RHETORIC AND IDENTIFICATION

Since it was first theorized as an art in classical antiquity, rhetoric has been concerned with persuasion. Some contemporary rhetoricians have problematized this focus on persuasion by putting forward the notion that much rhetorical action intends not to persuade those holding an opposite viewpoint via rational argument, but to move listeners/readers to specific thoughts and actions by promoting a feeling of commonality, or identification, with a message. Originally proposed by contemporary rhetorician Kenneth Burke, identification has been defined as a feeling of consubstantiality between the rhetor and her audience (Ratcliffe, 2005). Burke (1969) suggests that identification is a more fitting term than persuasion to describe “the ways in which the members of a group promote social cohesion by acting rhetorically upon themselves and one another” (p. xiv). Identification, then, is achieved by showing audiences that they and the speaker/writer are not Others but share a common Self. In political discourse, this commonality can be built by drawing on specific ideologies as instantiations of those in
texts can function to build consubstantiality with readers.

Specifically, a point of articulation between identification and SFL lies in the notion of presupposition, or taken-for-grantedness. From an Appraisal Theory perspective, Martin and White (2005) have defined presupposition as that which is taken for granted by writers. The premises underlying value claims are, when unstated, examples of this taken-for-grantedness. Martin and White argue that what is taken for granted is important when characterizing naturalized reading positions: presumably, writers’ choices of what to assume as shared between them and readers are a telltale sign of the kind of readers they are addressing. Along these lines, the absence of explanations of the ideological premises underlying value claims presumably naturalizes a reading position that shares those premises: the premises are not made explicit because the reader is presumed to share them. Because sharing value premises upon which judgments are predicated is an indication of consubstantiality between writer and reader, leaving premises unstated can be one of the mechanisms by which identification is attempted. Indeed, actual readers sharing the premises, or not trained in analyses of premises, might be more likely to be brought into the fold of the writer’s ideological position. Further, the analytic method of Appraisal affords examinations of value claims not explicitly presented as such, which may yield richer characterizations of identification mechanisms and the ideal readers constructed by writers. This affordance has not been addressed by previous studies.

1.9. THE STUDY AND RESEARCH QUESTIONS
To sum up, the two published empirical studies in critical reading (e.g. Wallace, 1992; Wallace, 2003) have done much to advance knowledge of what critical reading is and the features of classroom interventions that can support its emergence in L2 learners. Nonetheless, this work can be usefully expanded and complicated on a number of fronts as outlined above. As a result of those gaps, accounts of critical reading pedagogy remain partial. Specifically, it is not known how Appraisal and rhetorical text analyses can scaffold the emergence of critical reading strategies, or the cognitive and text-processing processes such strategies might involve. Along similar lines, no research study besides Wallace (2003) has addressed the development of pedagogical tools and interventions specifically focused on processing attitudinal language.
It is then unclear how SFL and rhetoric discourse analysis methods can be adapted when designing curricular interventions and pedagogical materials to promote critical reading using specific text types for specific populations. The critical reading learning needs of discrete L2 student populations such as Mexican college-level learners are also unexplored. Further, there are no published studies of transnational critical reading and its relationship to the teaching of L2 culture.

In this study, I address the limitations of previous research by exploring the emergence of critical reading processes in EFL college-level readers in the context of the implementation of a pedagogical intervention whose design combines SFL and rhetorical perspectives. I also report on the features of this intervention and the theoretical rationale guiding its design. The study takes a qualitative, exploratory case study approach as it attempts to provide a thick description of the emergence of reading abilities in a contextualized setting. The setting is a discourse analysis class taught to students of the B.A. in Modern Languages at the University of Southern Mexico (USM, a pseudonym).

This study contributes to the body of research in L2 critical reading and reading comprehension in a number of ways. First, the study undertakes a curricular design that integrates linguistic and rhetorical analyses into the design of an intervention to promote EFL transnational reading of overtly ideological opinion texts published online. The text selection is grounded on a post-colonial theorization of intercultural competence that centers on promoting meta-reflection and focuses on culture as the product of ideological struggle. Such grounding and integration of text analysis methods is necessary in order to elucidate the role of critical reading in foreign language education and the development of forms of global consciousness. To the best of my knowledge, this is the first study to propose this kind of integration, as discussions of L2 culture pedagogy tend to be theoretical (Kumaravadivelu, 2007).

Second, the study proposes a complexity theory perspective to the study of reading ability development in the context of the implementation of an intervention. In this, the study represents a refinement of previous attempts to examine critical reading development from an emergentist perspective\(^8\) (e.g. Wallace, 2003) that explicitly

\(^8\) Here, “emergentism” is used in a complex-systems theory (CT) sense, to refer to changes in one complex system originating in changes in another related complex system (Larsen-Freeman & Cameron, 2008, 59).
explores some aspects of cognition such as generative rhetorical inferences and the kinds of knowledge and processes underpinning them.

Specifically, this study addresses the following questions:

1. What patterns of interpretive processes emerge in students’ discourse organizers and written and oral classroom discourse?
2. What control parameters and attractor states operate in the emergence of target interpretive processes?
3. What SFL and rhetoric metalinguistic terms are produced by the students in oral and written discourse?
   3.1. How do students represent the role of metalanguage in learning how to read the target texts critically?
4. What differences exist between students’ pre- and post-intervention articulated understandings of the U.S. cultural context and critical reading?
5. How do the results of the intervention’s implementation inform the theories of learning and instruction underlying the intervention?

This research study, then, explores the emergence of critical reading abilities (questions 1-2), metalinguistic knowledge (question 3), and differences in articulated understandings of critical reading and the U.S. cultural context (question 4). The study also seeks to validate and extend the theoretical framework underpinning the design of the pedagogical intervention (question 5).

The study addresses gaps in the literature related to the kinds of metalinguistic knowledge and the reasoning processes that are needed to produce generative rhetorical inferences when reading political opinion texts (cf. Perfetti, Marron & Foltz, 1996). It is also the first empirical study of L2 culture teaching/learning to adopt a perspective grounded in the notion of ideological struggle as part of culture. The research site is the University of Southern Mexico (USM), a public university located in the Mexican state of Tabasco, which lies on Mexico’s southern border with Guatemala. The study was

To study critical reading from an emergentist perspective involves tracing changes in students’ cognition to changes in the social environment of the classroom.
conducted with students of the B.A. in Modern Languages majoring in EFL teaching as part of a summer discourse analysis course.

To investigate the emergence of knowledge and strategies in classroom interaction, the lessons were videotaped as they were being taught. Student groups were also video and/or audio-recorded in order to address student uptake of the intervention. Data were mined from these recordings by transcribing all recordings and then coding significant events and interactions showing evidence of emergence of the target interpretive processes, control parameters, and attractor states.

Besides video-recordings, other data sources were collected: 1) in order to explore changes in their knowledge of US culture, text coherence, and being a critical reader, students were asked to write short essays about these issues at the beginning and end of the course; 2) student artifacts such as discourse organizers completed in class and completed as homework were collected and scored, 3) written student feedback in the form of Likert-type questionnaires with comments were also collected.

This dissertation, then, consists of four integrated components. The first one, reported in chapter two, presents the theoretical framework on L2 critical reading that guided the design of the intervention. The second one, reported in chapter three, describes the research setting, the participating students, and the methods used to mine and analyze the data when investigating the emergence of the rhetorical inferences and ideological critique processes that I chose to target in my capacity as curriculum designer. The third component, reported in chapter four, presents the intervention’s curriculum, including an overview of its artifacts (lesson plans, presentations, assignments, discourse organizers). The fourth component, reported in chapter five, presents the classroom case study by providing a detailed analysis of the emergence of generative rhetorical inferences, ideological critique, metacritical awareness, and use of metalanguage in student discourse. Chapter five also discusses changes in students’ articulated understandings of the U.S. cultural context and critical reading. Finally, chapter six presents and discusses findings as they pertain to the specific research questions and discusses their implications for reading theory, Appraisal Theory, and the teaching of L2 culture from a global cultural consciousness perspective. It also discusses limitations of the study.
The analyses show that increasing awareness of attitudinal language patterns can scaffold students’ reconstruction of an author’s rhetorical intent and a text’s target audience. Importantly, several participants reported that the use of the SFL-inspired metalanguage and meditational means developed as part of the intervention had a positive impact on the ways they read other texts for other courses. Specifically, many of the participants’ ability to monitor their own comprehension of difficult L2 texts seems to have benefited from the intervention. Participants reported that the discourse organizers used during the intervention lead to the emergence of new interpretive processes. Interestingly, both of these aspects were reported by participants who also reported being unmotivated by the kinds of political texts that were the focus of this intervention.

However, data analysis also shows that students needed to be provided with relevant rhetorical knowledge and genre knowledge in order to be able to use the rich representations of texts gleaned with language analysis to make plausible generative rhetorical inferences. Some students’ interpretations of the first text used were initially driven to attractor states of implausible interpretations. This was due to the students’ applying knowledge of narrative and oral genres to the interpretation of political opinion texts. Further, students’ lack of rhetorical knowledge—i.e. their being unaware that texts index specific audiences also influenced their interpretations and led them to attractor states of implausibility. Instruction on genre and rhetorical aspects such as the role of attitudinal language in public discourse helped to produce plausible interpretations for the rest of the texts. These findings highlight the role of genre and rhetorical knowledge in reading comprehension.

Participant feedback strongly suggests that the study has high social and ecological validity: the participants rated the intervention as highly novel and reported that previous college courses in L1/L2 reading comprehension had not trained them to read critically. Analyses highlight the role that attitude parsing can have in determining authorial position, as well as the difficulties experienced by this population when identifying attitudinal scope across non-adjacent sections of texts. Also noteworthy is the finding that the intervention showed some local success in helping participants imagine how contested terms such as secularism and communism can elicit varying affective polarities in different sociocultural groups. At least one participant was able to objectify and analyze
the discursive roots of her own value position vis-à-vis secularism. These interpretive abilities did not seem to be a part some of these students’ habitus (Bourdieu, 1977). In general, the results validate the sociocultural theory hypothesis that novel cognitive operations emerge in interaction and are then internalized.

With regard to implications, the data strongly suggest that the role played by prior genre and rhetorical knowledge in reading comprehension needs further investigation. The results also suggest that aspects of existing SFL models need to be refined in order to better account for the ways that citation practices contribute to audience-related inferences. Further, the ability to objectify the varying attitudinal polarities elicited by politically charged words such as secularism and communism might hold potential to disturb the retrenchment into misperceptions and value positions that have been shown to be typical of adults when reading political discourse (Nyhan & Reifler, 2010). The connections between this ability and metalinguistic awareness also deserve further investigation.

Appendix one contains the lesson plans that constituted the initial curriculum. Appendix two contains the worksheets accompanying the lesson plans, some of which also worked as data collection instruments.
CHAPTER TWO
LITERATURE REVIEW AND THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

This dissertation study is framed by scholarship in critical reading, reading comprehension, intercultural competence, text coherence, rhetoric, and complexity theory. This chapter reviews scholarship in these areas in an effort to theorize the ways that the current status of scholarship in critical reading can be extended by a) putting the CDA, ESL critical reading scholarship in dialogue with the other disciplinary traditions mentioned above, and b) placing research in L2 reading within a Complexity Theory perspective. These steps aim at both extending current theorizations of critical reading and providing the axiological and conceptual foundation for the proposed curricular intervention discussed in chapter one. Specifically, five claims are made based on the review of past research.

First, the review of past CDA and cognitive research highlights a need to sharpen scholarly understanding of the linguistic knowledge that is required to read critically. Specifically, analyses of authorial position, ideal audiences, and persuasive strategies can be enriched by SFL’s Appraisal Theory and rhetorical scholarship on identification and claims analysis.

Second, while critical reading scholarship has addressed the connections between critical reading and intercultural competence, and while theorizations of culture in TESOL/AL have increasingly distanced themselves from unproblematic and monolithic understandings of culture, the field exhibits a paucity of accounts of pedagogical interventions that apply increasingly complex conceptualizations of culture to the English L2 classroom. In the context of applied linguistics’ theory-building goals, such accounts are needed in order to continue to interrogate and expand the field’s understanding of culture, intercultural competence, and the pedagogical practices that can promote it. Further, the SFL and rhetorical constructs alluded to above hold hitherto little-exploited potential to theorize L2 culture pedagogy in connection with L2 reading.
Third, the absence of empirical research in critical reading in local, expanding circle countries (Kachru, 1992) with their own L1 and L2 literacy dynamics and cultural practices speaks to the need to better document the design and implementation of critical reading interventions in specific EFL settings. As mentioned above, this study seeks to extend the conceptual and pedagogical tools used to theorize and teach critical reading by incorporating recent SFL theories and rhetoric to its study and pedagogy. This move, however, is unprecedented as formulated here, and therefore it is not known how the specific target population of Mexican EFL college readers would take up such intervention, or how the results of implementation analysis could inform the theorization of learning emerging from the pilot study and presented in this project.

Fourth, it is claimed that critical reading research needs to address aspects of cognition involved in comprehension in order to enhance theory and pedagogy in the field. Specifically, the usefulness of the constructs of reading skills and strategies has been critiqued and rejected in CDA critical reading scholarship. In parallel, some prominent SFL scholars such as Martin and Rose (2008) reject the notion of “the mind” itself. As it is discussed below, prevalent definitions of the constructs of skills and strategies are indeed questionable, but new ways of understanding them are available (e.g. Koda, 2005) that can prove useful in investigating and promoting learner critical reading acts in combination with Vygotskyan and CT approaches to cognition.

Fifth, it is argued that a CT perspective to reading research is needed if more comprehensive understandings of reading than those afforded by exclusively social or cognitive perspectives are sought. Specifically, the constructs of attractor state and control parameter are useful when attempting to characterize the aspects of cognition underlying observed reading behaviors. Further, the concept of emergence highlights the nature of learning as a response to the pressure to adapt to environmental changes.

The following sections review relevant empirical studies connected to critical reading and relevant models of reading comprehension to then offer a theoretical account of how Appraisal analysis and rhetoric provide means to scaffold critical reading.

2.2. DEFINITIONS OF CRITICAL READING
This section reviews previous definitions of critical reading. Underlying this discussion is a premise that critical reading as defined here is not intrinsically different from reading comprehension, or “the process of constructing meaning through interaction and involvement with the written language” (RAND group, 2001), and can hence be understood as a specific kind of reading comprehension activity. An implication of this premise is that critical reading need not be theorized in isolation from the cognitive and socio-cognitive studies of reading comprehension literature, which has tended to be the case so far.

Definitions of critical reading vary across scholarly traditions in language education. Most germane to this study is the critical reading scholarship derived from Critical Discourse Analysis (CDA) and framed by the Critical Language Awareness (CLA) movement. CLA is a primarily British pedagogical movement that draws on CDA work, especially that of Norman Fairclough, to advocate for critical forms of pedagogy. To the best of my knowledge, CLA scholar Catherine Wallace has produced the only published empirical studies of critical reading focusing on adult ESL learners.

As Wallace (1992) explains it, the common non-technical meaning of critical reading is “reading between the lines” or drawing inferences about what is not explicitly stated in a text. She claims that, in TESOL/AL, scholarly discussions of critical reading can be traced back to Widdowson’s (1984) distinction between assertive and submissive positions toward text. In this dichotomy, “submissive” refers to a passive, information-accumulation reader stance toward the text that fails to use the reader’s own background knowledge to animate the text. “Assertive” refers to the opposite: a stance involving a reader’s imposing of her own meanings upon those of the text, or “assert[ing] the primacy of his [sic] own conceptual patterns” (Widdowson, 1984, 91), which, if not balanced with information gathering, may lead to incomplete and distorted reconstructions of the text’s propositional content.

Wallace (1992) questions this dichotomy on several grounds. First, she claims that there are times when the goal of reading is to gather information, and at such times it is appropriate “to submit to the undoubted superior knowledge of the writer” (60). Second, she argues that readers may be unduly submissive to texts or may be placed in a position of submission by, for example, schooling. Third, she contends that Widdowson’s
dichotomy deals primarily with propositional knowledge. In this regard, Wallace (1992) argues that “as well as disputing the propositional content of texts one can challenge ideological assumptions” (61). For Wallace, challenging ideology is indeed the defining feature of critical reading, and metalinguistic awareness plays a key role in doing so:

Critical reading involves us challenging the ideological content of texts as evidenced in their salient discourses. These discourses are indicated through the linguistic choices of the writer. Central to the idea of critical reading is an awareness of the role that language plays in conveying not just a propositional message but an ideological one (p. 69).

According to Wallace (1992) the challenging of ideology, or ideological critique of texts, requires contextualizing the text in a situation involving readers, writers, and intentions. From her perspective a critical reader should ask the following questions about texts: who produced them?... for whom are they produced?... why has the text been produced?” (p. 66). In addition, Wallace draws on Scholes (1985) to claim that critical reading also involves placing a text in its historical context, or “the historical situation in which it was composed” (Scholes, 1985, 21). This aspect of critical reading resonates with Haas and Flower’s (1988) definition of rhetorical reading as an attempt to place a text in a social, discursive context.

More recently, Wallace (1999, 2003) has expanded the scope of the “critical” in critical reading by putting it at play with the notions of resistance and meta-critical awareness. The former move is presented by Wallace as a reaction against the emphasis on opposition that has been a feature of critical pedagogy. Such emphasis is

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9 Here, Wallace defines ideology as “common-sense assumptions which help to legitimate existing social relations and differences in power” (pp. 60-61) This definition is close to Charland’s definition of ideology, which I adopt here, as “a symbolic system, the discourse of which (1) is ‘false’ in the sense that it is based in the presuppositions of some ‘terministic screen,’ (2) denies its historicity and linguisticality—pretending to but present a naturally or self-evidently meaningful world, (3) denies or transforms contradictions, and (4) legitimates and structures power relations.” A terministic screen is a frame of reference we use to interpret the world, akin to Gee’s (1998) Discourse. In sense (1), all discourse is ideological because terministic screens are inherent to language (Burke, 1966). However, discourses can be more or less ideological depending on the extent to which they perform (2), (3) and (4). I use “ideology” to highlight those three aspects of discourse: the more a discourse performs (2), (3) and (4), the more ideological it is, and vice versa.
best summarized by Pennycook’s assertion that “a critical pedagogy of English needs to embrace a position oppositional to the central language norms and to the central discursive constructs” (1994, 296). By contrast, and drawing on the work of Giroux (1983), Wallace worries that opposition can be construed in an unreflective manner to be the default position to adopt toward any text when reading it critically. For Wallace, such a default pugnacious stance carries the risk of leading to ideological pre-judgments based on partial readings of texts.

Specifically, she claims that critical reading should not be understood as the unreflected adoption of an opposing, unduly criticizing stance towards texts as the default departure point for reading. To counter the possibility that critical reading be construed in that way, Wallace suggests the notion of resistance as a more productive one than opposition to characterize a fruitful orientation to text that can be taken when reading critically: “resistance, on the other hand, is a considered, reflected-upon, rational stance that is accompanied by justification and exemplification and open to the scrutiny of others” (Wallace, 1992, 102). In Wallace’s theorization of critical reading, resistance implies that text interpretation have to be warranted by the language of the text. In other words, interpretations move in a continuum from less to more plausibility, and the degree of plausibility is predicated upon the degree to which the reader’s interpretation is congruent with, or warranted by, the text’s semantic content as instantiated in its lexicogrammar. Justification, or the warranting of interpretations, is thus pivotal for critical reading from a CLA perspective. Of course, evidence for such justification can only be found in students’ verbalizations, whether spoken or written.

Wallace (2003) expands the definitional scope of critical reading by incorporating to it the notion of metacritical awareness: readers’ readiness to challenge their “own stance to the text, aiming to gain some overall distance on our interpretations and the likely reasons for them” (p. 42). For example, when readers decode the word “secular” within a larger segment such as “Pope John Paul II has repeatedly condemned the moral drift of secular Brussels” (McLeod, 2007), the word “secular” is likely to elicit varying affective responses and lead to different interpretations of this clause across readers depending on each reader’s ideological positions vis-à-vis church-state.
separation. If readers are aware of their own affective response as one possibility among many, and are aware of the discursive experiences shaping their response, they are metacritically aware.

Wallace’s definition of critical reading bears affinity with rhetorical reading as defined by Haas and Flower (1988). Indeed, these two approaches to reading share a common concern with understanding writers’ motivations, the target audiences they address and/or invoke for their texts, and contextual aspects indexed by texts. However, to date CLA scholars of critical reading have not availed themselves of the rich constructs afforded by rhetorical theory to theorize authorial purpose, audience, and their relationship to ideology and culture. Conversely, rhetorical reading as theorized by Hass and Flower and others in the field of composition-rhetoric has generally overlooked the notion of ideological critique that lies at the core of critical reading. The following section reviews empirical studies of critical reading and related areas. The need for a theoretical framework that integrates different theoretical strands is highlighted in this review, and a proposal for such a framework is then presented.

2.3. STUDIES ON CRITICAL READING AND RELATED AREAS
This section reviews descriptive and intervention studies investigating reading phenomena related to, or explicitly construed as, critical reading. These studies fall into three distinct yet overlapping scholarly traditions: cognitive-descriptive studies of reading comprehension framed within educational psychology, cognitive-descriptive studies framed within composition-rhetoric, and pedagogical intervention studies framed within CLA/Applied Linguistics. Specifically, the cognitive studies suggest that some L1 college students do not read certain genres rhetorically or, by extension, critically.

2.3.1. COGNITIVE STUDIES IN EDUCATIONAL PSYCHOLOGY
Perfetti, Marron, and Foltz (1993) report on the comprehension difficulties experienced by college-age, English-L1 readers when reading a journalistic political opinion text. The text in question was a political column written by George Will, “Ignorance, Anti-Semitism, and ‘Scholarship’” published in The Pittsburgh Post Gazette on August 30,
1993. In the piece, Will exposes and attacks the work of “pseudo-scholars” whose “research” supports the notion that the Holocaust did not occur. His attacks center on Max Weber, one such scholar. Perfetti, Marron, and Foltz found that three of their four subjects could not comprehend the text. Specifically, their analyses of participants’ think-aloud protocols and text segments shows that their participants’ had difficulty identifying the author’s overall position and his evaluation of other people and entities in the text. For example, when analyzing the comprehension failures of Subject 3, they assert that

She fails to establish adequate discourse referents, that is, representations of the people and their arguments. From this failure comes confusion that is never repaired. Second, she fails to represent the developing rhetorical structure of the text (153).

The authors conclude that the comprehension failures exhibited by their participants could be better explained by their lack of domain knowledge and absence of intent to engage in “deep processing.” Specifically, they suggest that “knowledge of how language works” is a kind of knowledge to be taken into account when explaining individual differences and failures in comprehension (158). The authors also suggest that readers’ goals and motivations are likely to be contextualized by readers’ positioning within social groups. Their discussion, however, does not theorize the kind of linguistic knowledge that readers need to understand texts, how such knowledge may vary across genres, how it may interact with topic knowledge during reading, or how it develops in individuals.

2.3.2. COGNITIVE STUDIES WITHIN COMPOSITION RHETORIC
Two cognitive studies of reading comprehension conducted within the disciplinary framework of composition-rhetoric (Hass & Flower, 1988; Haswell et al., 1999) suggest that rhetorical knowledge, or awareness of the notion that texts index rhetorical situations, plays a role in comprehension, and the extent to which such knowledge is brought to bear on texts by readers varies according to reader and text variables.

Haas and Flower (1988) conducted a series of think-aloud protocols with two groups of readers: graduate student readers, whom they called experienced readers,
and six first-year college students, whom they called student readers. The text they used was the preface to Sylvia Farnham-Diggory’s “Cognitive Processes in Education.” This text has a Problem-Solution structure and argues for an integration of psychological theory and practice. Haas and Flower’s interest lied in investigating the strategies that students use to read rhetorically, or construct a representation of the text as “the result of someone’s intentions, as part of a larger discourse world, and as having real effects on real readers” (170). Haas and Flower construe this way of reading as distinct from (but related to) reading for factual information contained in the text. Overall, the more experienced readers in their sample produce 13 times more instances of rhetorical reading strategies verbalizations, that is, comments related to authorial position, intended audience, effects on diverse audiences, and inferences about the text’s publication venue and time. Their use of rhetorical reading strategies occurred in tandem with inferences about implicit claims, which suggests to the authors that rhetorical awareness and rhetorical reading strategies may enable, or at least go hand-in-hand with, inference-making. While Haas and Flower recognize the role that recognition of textual cues play in reading rhetorically, they do not offer any account of what such cues are or how they contribute to text coherence. They also do not attempt to explain how readers develop rhetorical strategies or how they can be taught.

Haswell et al. (1999) set out to replicate the study reported by Haas and Flower (1988). They, however, introduced a different text in addition to the one used by Haas and Flower, and also used graduate and undergraduate readers from two different universities. The new text they used was a journalistic opinion text focusing on the discrimination experienced by female students in a local high school. While their results largely support Haas and Flower’s findings, the authors also found that reading a text with a more familiar topic (the new text) resulted in undergraduates’ using more rhetorical strategies than they did for the original Haas and Flower text, with rhetorical strategies accounting for 3.4% of all verbalizations for the latter and 12.9% for the former. Haswell et al. also found variation in the number of rhetorical strategies verbalized by students from different universities, suggesting that sociocultural factors are at play in rhetorical reading. Unfortunately, the study did not explore the impact of
specific genre and language features on comprehension, nor did it attempt to characterize the rhetorical knowledge of participants beyond stating that they showed awareness of audience and writing purposes.

2.3.3. STUDIES OF STUDENTS’ EPISTEMIC APPROACHES TO READING

Bogdan and Straw (1990) and Straw and Bogdan (1993) proposed that readers’ engagement with text can fall under three epistemic positions: the transmission model, the translation model, and the transactional model. The defining feature of the first two is that readers do not attempt to construct alternative interpretations and assume that meaning is as presented by the author. A transactional model, on the other hand, involves attending to the authors’ intentions, the conditions of text production, and readers’ own objectives and beliefs as brought to bear on the act of reading. These authors’ formulation of a transactional model suggests that readers holding a transactional model are more likely to read rhetorically than those holding transmission and translation models.

Schraw and Brunning’s (1996) quantitative investigation operationalized the transactional model in terms of responses to a reading beliefs questionnaire and the presence of thirteen kinds of statements in response essays, including specific types of text inferences, critical evaluations, and personal reactions. Interestingly, the students in Schraw and Brunning’s study sometimes adhered to both a transmission/translation model and a transactional model. This means that they thought the language of texts contained meaning and that such meaning needed to be carefully scrutinized, but at the same time they thought that they were free to challenge such meaning.

Hernandez (2008) draws on Schraw and Brunning’s (1996) quantitative work on epistemic models of reading to develop a qualitative framework of what he calls implicit theories of reading: reproductive reading, interpretive reading, and constructive reading. They roughly match Straw and Bogdan’s (1993) three epistemic models. Hernandez investigated the extent to which Mexican high school and college students in two disciplines (chemistry and literature) subscribed to the three theories. He found that the high school students were more likely to subscribe to the reproductive implicit theory. A division was apparent in the college students: the chemistry students were more likely to hold an interpretive implicit theory, while the literature students were more likely to
adhere to a constructive theory. Hernandez explains the first difference as a product of age and the kinds of reading tasks in the Mexican educational system, which, as other studies have found, do not typically address rhetorical forms of reading or writing (Peredo-Merlo, 2010; Vidal & Perales-Escudero, 2011). He explains the latter as a function of divergent disciplinary reading practices. Hernández’s model, however, does not explicitly place his three implicit theories of reading in conversation with other relevant theoretical bodies such as the literature on inference-making (e.g. Kintsch, 1998) or rhetorical reading.

2.3.4. CRITICAL LANGUAGE AWARENESS/APPLIED LINGUISTICS STUDIES
There are only two published studies documenting critical reading interventions in ESL settings. These are Wallace (1992) and Wallace (2003). In the first study, Wallace reports on the processes she used to design a critical reading unit within advanced, general English courses and MA in English Language Teaching courses at a British university. Her participating students were primarily from Europe or Japan, which may indicate an upper-level socio-economic status and well-developed L1 reading abilities. They were in three different groups, and one of the groups received SFL training. She and her students selected texts in a variety of genres, such as narrative articles, opinion articles, and advertisements. One of her student groups was trained in a simplified version of the Hallidayan grammatical model of SFL, using terms such as mood, modality, theme, and rheme. She reports that the SFL metalanguage enabled deeper analyses of texts, but those without training also showed an increased ability to think critically about the roles of texts and readers and the media. This study, while pioneering and important, is limited in several ways, and it is natural to expect that it should be so as it is the first one of its kind. Chiefly, it does not offer a systematic account of the evolution of students’ cognition over time. In addition, its descriptions of the target audience of texts tend to reify national culture, race, and gender by remaining focused on labels indexing those categories, such as “British White male.”

Wallace (2003) expands on the previous study by explicitly documenting the design and implementation of curricular materials, classroom interactions, and
students’ journals. The participants were undergraduate and graduate students enrolled in an optional module of a general English course, also from Europe. With regard to curricular design, her design framework remains centered on a grammatical, rather than discursive, model of SFL. The classroom interaction study focuses heavily on interpersonal negotiation of meaning. There is no explicit exploration of emergence of skills or strategies—other than meta-critical awareness—in participants as Wallace explicitly seeks to distance herself from cognitive or socio-cognitive approaches.

While Wallace’s (2003) study makes valuable contributions to our understanding of what it means to read critically in the classroom, the study continues to reify the same national, racial, and gender audience categories as her previous (1992) study. It also overlooks the kinds of reasoning involved in making inferences about authorial position from patterns of evaluation. The study’s implicit definition of ideological critique remains centered on either opposition or metacritical awareness, leaving other possibilities for what ideological critique might mean unexplored. Further, although the study addresses issues of cross-cultural dialog and global culture in passing, it does not explicitly explore the role of aspects of critical reading, such as inferences about audience, in the development of intercultural awareness, or what Kumaravadivelu (2007) has called “global cultural consciousness.”

The next section reviews aspects of well-known theoretical models that are relevant to this dissertation study, and highlights opportunities to question and expand these models.

2.4. MODELS OF READING COMPREHENSION

Reading comprehension is a multi-faceted, complex process. In accordance with such complexity, several models attempting to characterize it have emerged in the scholarly literature on reading. It is not my intention here to offer an exhaustive review of such models as doing so would be beyond the scope of this dissertation. Rather, this section offers a description of some well-known and relevant models of reading comprehension, including L2 comprehension, with the purpose of highlighting gaps that the theoretical framework offered in the following section contributes to filling.
Under the well-known and still useful (Koda, 2005, 162) comprehension-integration model of reading comprehension (C-I model, Kintsch, 1998), text comprehension is viewed as a mental representation, or situation model, resulting from the aggregation of two separate but related components: the textbase and background knowledge relevant to the situation presented in the text, where the textbase is that aspect of the mental representation that “comprises those nodes and links in the mental representation of the text that have direct correspondences in the text itself.”¹⁰ (McNamara & Kintsch, 1996, 251). According to McNamara and Kintsch (1996) developing a textbase requires syntactic and semantic knowledge, to which I add forms of discursive knowledge such as knowledge of domination patterns (Martin & White, 2005, defined in the next section) and text structure (Jiang & Grabe, 2008). The C-I model assigns great weight in comprehension to prior knowledge in the integration of the textbase into a coherent situation model, a notion widely supported by the literature.

Background knowledge, however, cannot explain reading comprehension on its own. Bernhardt (1991) reports on a series of studies of L2 readers that found that L2 readers differ in the extent to which they apply relevant background knowledge to reading and also on the efficacy with which they do so even when they do possess sufficient background knowledge. Thus, other components of cognition are involved in reading comprehension, a view that is well-accepted in the literature (Koda, 2005; Bernhardt, 2011). According to Bernhardt’s (2011) compensatory model of second language reading, these components include L1 reading abilities (skills and strategies, meta-cognitive strategies, alphabetic knowledge, L1 vocabulary knowledge, knowledge of text structures), L2 language knowledge (vocabulary, morphosyntax), and other sources such as motivation, interest, beliefs about reading and texts, and, of course, background knowledge.

I would like to propose the concept of “interpretive repertoire” as a metaphor to refer to the various forms of cognition that are involved in reading comprehension and are presumably targeted and affected by reading comprehension lessons. The concept of

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¹⁰ A complexity theory perspective challenges the nature of the situation model as postulated by Kintsch by suggesting that text comprehension, rather than being a static, unitary and telic (with a definite endpoint) representation, is an emerging and non-telic property of text-reader interaction.
interpretive repertoire highlights the potential for components of cognition and the social (and, perhaps, physical) environment to assemble in different, changing configurations during discrete acts of reading. In any given such act, components of the overall repertoire or system may remain inactive while others are activated and de-activated as the reading task proceeds. This concept also distinguishes between the system of comprehension (the overall repertoire) and instances of comprehension, or the interpretations of particular texts constructed by specific readers in specific situations. From this perspective, comprehension ability is not a stable constant; rather, it is an emergent property of the interaction between components of the interpretive repertoire and the reading task at hand, including text features, text-centered social interaction, and reading purposes.

From a components perspective to comprehension (e.g. Koda, 2005), the concepts of skills and strategies have been proposed to name those components of cognition that are active processing behaviors. Skills have been defined as automatic processes, while the term strategies has been applied to the conscious, reflective, and planned cognitive behaviors that expert readers deploy when they encounter comprehension difficulties (Schuder, 1994; Palincsar & Brown, 1984).

This distinction between skills and strategies is problematic for at least two reasons. First, the definitional criteria used to distinguish strategies from skills, namely deliberate deployment and conscious control, can lead to misguiding and counterproductive recommendations for L2 instruction and confound variables in L2 reading research (Koda, 2005). Second as Wallace (2003) has pointed out, this distinction tends to construe comprehension as a property of the individual rather than as a social act. The section below reviews Koda’s proposal to redefine skills and strategies and then places these constructs within a Vygotskyan sociocultural perspective.

The traditional definitional criterion that distinguishes strategies from skills is automaticity and speed versus purposeful, slow deployment. That is, the same reading behavior can be characterized as a skill if it is used automatically and unconsciously—as most lexicogrammatical parsing is for adult L1 readers—or as a strategy if it is used purposefully and consciously—as lexicogrammatical parsing is for beginning and intermediate L2 readers. Under these definitional criteria, the slow and laborious
lexicogrammatical processing of L2 readers can be construed as a purposeful, deliberate strategy, when in fact it is not. This construal can lead to misguided diagnoses and treatments of their comprehension difficulties (Koda, 2005), hence the problematic nature of the traditional distinction. Further, the strategies literature tends to label lexicogrammatical processing as skills, and therefore considers their teaching to be unworthy of pedagogical attention and even harmful for comprehension (as in Schuder, 1993). But for L2 readers, lexicogrammatical processing at the level of the clause and beyond can be quite helpful, and they may benefit from explicit instruction that raises their awareness of such processing, which necessarily involves looking at what’s being processed, namely lexicogrammar.

To address these problems, Koda (2005) posits that, for accounts of reading behaviors to be useful for planning and providing reading instruction, “it is imperative first to differentiate what readers can do from what they intend to do” (210) and suggests that the term “strategy” be reserved for intentions. Thus, analyses of skills would focus on success in accomplishing operations, whereas analyses of strategies would focus on readers’ plans and why they formulate them the way they do. According to Koda, this distinction between skills and strategies allows for “the study of the impact of one independent of the other, on comprehension performance” (211), to which I add that her distinction also affords examinations of how strategies (i.e. intentions) influence the emergence and deployment of skills.

Furthermore, conceptualizing strategies as intentions places strategies squarely in the domain of literacy as a set of cultural practices. As the literature in that field has shown, what readers intend to do with texts is structured by networks of practices and values that are characteristic of specific sociocultural groups (Heath, 1983; Rockwell, 2005; Hasan, 2004). These values and beliefs about texts structure people’s perceptions of what they can do with texts, which in turn influences what they plan to do with texts. That is, a community’s literacy practices are likely to contribute a great deal to shaping readers’ understanding of text interpretive possibilities, which in turn may plausibly influence their strategic behaviors as it can be difficult to plan to do something when one does not from experience know that that such action is possible.
Thus, strategic behaviors are likely to display regularities emerging from and feeding back into their locally situated, value-regulated discursive experiences. This is important for CT research as one of its goals is to account for learners’ previous experiences’ influences on observed learning. This understanding of strategies also invites sociocognitive examinations of reading by construing individual readers’ strategic behavior as connected to their community’s literacy practices. In this sense, Koda’s view of strategies is compatible with a Vygotskyan perspective that construes reading behavior as a collection of higher mental functions that emerge from socialization.

Recently, reading comprehension scholars have asserted that the interpretive processes involved in comprehension are likely to vary according to the type of text, or genre, being read (e.g. McNamara and Gagliano, 2009). Indeed, it is well-known that vocabulary and grammatical parsing play an important role in comprehension. Since both vocabulary and grammar vary in principled ways across text types, as shown by studies of register variation (Conrad & Biber, 2001; Halliday & Martin, 1993; Schleppegrell, 2004), it makes sense to suggest that lexicogrammar-related strategies and skills vary with text types. A similar point has been made by studies of text structure showing that knowledge of different text structures increases comprehension (Carrell, 1983; Meyer & Poon, 2001), which surely happens partly because text structure instruction enables readers both to plan to look for text structures and to find them. However, variation in lexicogrammatical processing skills across genres has been little studied. The distribution of strategic behaviors involved in the deployment of such skills across genres is also understudied.

Specifically, the lexicogrammatical processing skills and strategies involved in reading political opinion texts critically have been little explored. A first step toward examination of this reading practice from a genre perspective is to ask questions about the kinds of knowledge required when reading political opinion texts. Because genres index recurring rhetorical situations and accomplish rhetorical actions, exploring the skills and strategies that are specific to a genre requires not only knowledge of the linguistic means that

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11 After Miller (1984), I use the word “genre” to refer to typified ways of accomplishing rhetorical actions, or responding to recurring rhetorical situations. In my view, genres both respond to and shape recurring rhetorical situations. After Bitzer (1968), I define rhetorical situations as configurations of exigencies, audiences, communicative purposes, authorial intentions, and institutionalized forms of semiosis. In the case of political opinion articles, constructing and positioning distinct group identities seems to be one of the recurring form of rhetorical action that define this genre and are accomplished by it.
realize instances of a genre, but also rhetorical knowledge and genre knowledge, which are defined below.

By rhetorical knowledge, I mean a general awareness that texts are written with persuasive purposes, that they result from the intentions and agency of real persons and are usually intended to be read by specific audiences. Understanding that texts are located in temporal and social contexts is also a part of rhetorical knowledge. Other components of rhetorical knowledge as I define it here include rhetorical analysis abilities, such as Toulmin analysis or analysis of persuasion and identification, and knowledge about the distinctions between different discursive spheres, e.g. the public vs. private sphere (Habermas, 1989). These other components of rhetorical knowledge are defined in the section of this chapter corresponding to Appraisal Theory and rhetoric.

By genre knowledge I mean the instantiation of rhetorical knowledge of the kind above as it pertains to specific, culturally recognizable genres. For example, genre knowledge includes knowing that the exigencies, audiences, and rhetorical actions (or communicative purposes) typically indexed by a news report in *The Washington Post* or the Wall Street Journal are different from those indexed by an editorial in *The New York Times* or *The New Left Review*. Admittedly, the division between rhetorical knowledge and genre knowledge is somewhat artificial, but I think it is a useful one to tease out the learning needs of student populations and explore pedagogical alternatives in order to meet those needs.

Rhetorical and genre knowledge are components of the interpretive repertoire that have been given little attention in reading research (Swales, 1990; Hyon, 1999; Grabe, 2009). For example, situating genre within the domain of sociocultural factors, Grabe (2009) claims that “sociocultural factors are not well-understood by teachers and educational researchers [and] are seldom explored specifically for their impact on L2 readers” (139).

Importantly, genres and the rhetorical situations they index do not exist in cultural vacuum; rather, they are deeply immersed in cultural and subcultural contexts. This

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12 Readers should note that this construct is different from that of rhetorical knowledge as it has been defined in writing studies by, for example, Beaufort (2007) or Tardy (2006). Within that line of inquiry, rhetorical knowledge refers to knowledge of specific, local, real-world rhetorical situations. By contrast, the concept of rhetorical awareness as I use it here is a general one that does not include knowledge of specific situations.
cultural situatedness of the rhetorical situation suggests that attempts to characterize its elements (e.g. purposes and audiences) require culture-specific knowledge. This kind of knowledge includes ideational knowledge of entities in a L2 cultural context such as people, ideologies, recurring situations, and genres. Drawing on SFL terminology, I call this kind of knowledge “field” knowledge as it is knowledge of entities and activities. A problem for the reader of transnational texts is that, as McNamara and Kintsch (1996) recognize, any text assumes a degree of prior field knowledge and thus “the reader must add nodes and establish links between nodes from his or her own world knowledge and experience (e.g. schemas) to make the structure [of the situation model] coherent” (251). In other words, it is impossible for texts to present full situational models. This lack of elucidation of aspects of field knowledge is likely to be more pronounced in quality and quantity for texts that deal with highly culture-specific knowledge. Therefore, “L2 situation-model building may become progressively more difficult as the quantity of culture-specific information in a text increases” (Koda, 2005, 141).

A further complication may arise when L2 readers attempt to compensate for their lack of L2 culture-specific knowledge and repair the gaps in the textbase with L1 culture-specific knowledge or other sources of knowledge, a conceptual move that “could easily lead to misinterpretation, particularly when the two cultures have little in common” (Koda, 2005, 141). There is evidence suggesting that readers facing this kind of task may also end up building very incomplete textbases from their understanding of only a few local segments in the text (Young & Nakuma, 2009). Compensatory models of reading comprehension (e.g. Stanovich, 1980; Bernhardt, 2011) posit that the likelihood of the occurrence of these attempts at conceptual repairs increases with lesser levels of L2 knowledge and control. But compensatory models, along with the findings of some previous studies (e.g. Perfetti, Marron & Foltz, 1996; Wallace, 2003) also suggest that linguistic and rhetorical knowledge might make up for gaps in culture-specific knowledge.

Specifically, this dissertation study argues that linguistic, rhetorical, and genre knowledge can enable readers to make inferences about culture-specific aspects such as ideological positions, audiences, and implied authorial positions. The ways that these kinds of knowledge may enable these inferences are discussed later in this chapter. That
discussion, however, is preceded by a brief discussion of inferences, and more specifically, of Kintsch’s (1998) taxonomy of inference types in the paragraphs below.

There is some scholarly consensus that the ability to infer information that is not explicit in a text is an important aspect of comprehension (Cain & Oakhill, 2007). Many different taxonomies of inference types have been developed. As Grabe (2009) points out, “the most basic distinction [of inference types] is between bridging inferences and elaborative inferences.” The former involve connecting textual information to maintain coherence, while the latter involve “adding information that elaborates on the situation model” (Grabe, 2009, 69). In the C-I model, the latter type of inference is called “generative inference” as making such inferences requires a premise-based process of reasoning to draw conclusions that lead to repairing a gap in the text (Kintsch, 1998). According to this taxonomy, inferences about ideological positions, audiences, and implied authorial positions are generative inferences. Because they relate to aspects of the rhetorical situation indexed by a text, I call them rhetorical generative inferences.

Kintsch (1998), however, does not elaborate on the kinds of premises and reasoning stages involved in the reasoning processes required to generate a true inference. His model also ignores the role of readers’ culturally-situated experiences with discourse in shaping the kinds of sociocultural knowledge that readers can draw upon when making generative inferences. Accounting for these is an important task for, as Hasan (2004) shows, the mismatches in discursive experiences and sociocultural knowledge between teachers and students can produce negative learning experiences. As discussed by Hasan (2004), the discursive perspectives and forms of knowledge that teachers use and privilege can become part of the hidden curriculum, and hinder learning. Thus, it is important to make explicit the sources underpinning the interpretations of both teachers and students.

Doing so requires awareness of the ways different kinds of language are processed differently by different people when making inferences. Kintsch’s model, however, does

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13 In Kintsch’s taxonomy of inference types, inferences are classified according to the dimensions of retrieval vs. generation and automacity vs. control. Generation inferences, are those that require explicit reasoning rather than referring to a piece of knowledge in the text or prior knowledge. Inferences that involve the latter two kinds of behavior are retrieval, or bridging, inferences. For Kintsch, generation inferences are “true” inferences.
not address the role that metalinguistic knowledge can play in inference making. Perfetti, Marron, and Foltz (1996) have indicated such knowledge is critical to make what I have called rhetorical generative inferences. I suggest that, for this intervention’s target genre of political opinion articles, metalinguistic knowledge, genre knowledge, and rhetorical knowledge can contribute to a specification of the linguistic reasoning processes involved in inferring unstated authorial positions and intentions, and ideal audiences. Such knowledge might also enable readers to compensate for shortcomings in background knowledge. The section following the next one describes the kinds of conceptual knowledge and procedural operations that are involved in making this type of inference. As a frame for such discussion, however, the next section reviews work pertaining to the teaching of culture in TESOL/applied linguistics and positions this study within that line of inquiry.

2.5.CULTURE AND IDEOLOGY IN TESOL/APPLIED LINGUISTICS
Like anthropology, where many theorizations of culture originate, TESOL/AL has for the past twenty years struggled to define culture and its import in ESL/EFL teaching. However, a common perspective in the field, to which I adhere, views culture from a semiotic perspective, as “webs of significance” (Geertz, 1973, 4). Interestingly, published scholarship in the field has tended to distance itself from a received, monolithic view of culture to a more sophisticated understanding of the multiple manners that culture can be construed and the different affordances offered by these construals (Atkinson, 1999, 648). For example, Kramsch (2008) wonders

What kind of culture should we teach when we teach language: the historical culture of an ethnic or national community? The communicative culture of international exchanges? The hybrid culture of transcultural flows? And on what grounds can language users hope to achieve mutual understanding?”

From the related perspective of foreign language education, Crawford and McLaren (2003) have proposed a discourse approach to culture: “to speak of culture as discourse, is to situate it in what Foucault (1980) calls a discursive field” (35), which Weedon (1987) describes as “competing ways of giving meaning to the world and organizing social institutions and processes … [offering]… the individual a range of
modes of subjectivity” (35). This perspective is closely aligned to the post-colonial theory view of culture-as-enunciation, which construes culture as the product of textualized ideological struggles among partisans vying for hegemony in a discursive field (Sánchez, 2006).

These approaches highlight the plurality of cultural domains that characterizes named cultural communities such as “the United States.” As Kumaravadivelu (2007) puts it:

If we, as we must, go beyond the traditional approach to culture that narrowly associates cultural identity with national identity and take into consideration subcultural variations such as race, religion, class, and gender, then we realize that human communities are not monocultural cocoons but rather multicultural mosaics (5).

In alignment with this view, I use the label CC2s, or second cultural contexts, to refer to the cultural domains that are mediated by a foreign language. The webs of semiosis issuing from physical and virtual spaces identifying with the United States constitute one such collection of CC2s for Mexican learners of English as a Foreign Language, who are the focus of this study. Unfortunately, there are no published studies that report empirical accounts of pedagogical approaches to CC2 teaching disturbing the reification of national culture.

The proposal to disturb the reification of national cultures is one of a handful of recent developments in the theorizing of L2 culture pedagogy. Besides that proposal, Kumaravadivelu also takes issue with models of culture teaching/learning that emphasize assimilation, multiculturalism, and hybridity. The following sentences offer a summary of his positions, which I share. He rejects assimilation as a goal of culture teaching for the obvious reason that it oppresses and devalues original cultural identities. He rejects multiculturalism for its vagueness and lack of engagement with issues of power and ideology. He rejects a hybridity model as it focuses too much on the experiences of diasporic, sometimes privileged, communities in the developed West and too little on the potential of globalizing forces to disempower those who remain in the developing world. In other words, hybridity, like multiculturalism, obscures power struggles between groups. Because I share these critiques, I align this
project with Kumaravadivelu’s proposal to replace those models with the constructs of cultural realism and global cultural consciousness. The former is defined as

…the notion that any meaningful cultural growth in this globalized and globalizing world is possible only if individuals, communities, and nations adopt a pragmatic approach to identity formation that entails a true understanding of the competing forces of global, national, social, and individual realities, and make a genuine attempt to translate that understanding into actionable plans (Kumaravadivelu, 2007, 157-158, emphasis added).

Thus, cultural realism places an emphasis on the dynamic, generative power of semiotic struggle and how it contributes to shaping identities that are immersed in multiple CC2s. It is thus compatible with the discourse approach to culture that orients this dissertation project. For Kumaravadivelu, adopting a cultural realism perspective to culture pedagogy can enable the development of global cultural consciousness. In his words, this consciousness requires the cultivation of a critically reflective mind that can tell the difference between real and unreal, between information and disinformation, between ideas and ideologies… developing global cultural consciousness is a complex process that requires constant and continual self-reflection (164).

It is not hard to see that this characterization of global cultural consciousness bears affinities with critical reading pedagogy: both seek to discover and question ideology, and both seek to cultivate a meta-reflective stance, or, to use Wallace’s (2003) term, metacritical awareness of one’s own interpretive lenses and their roots in one’s socially-situated discursive experiences.

What Kumaravadivelu’s formulation of this concept does not bring to the fore, however, is the notion that self-reflection necessarily involves a reflection on the Other, for a crucial way to know oneself is to know what one is not. That place of negative identity, what-one-is-not, is filled by a presumably endless multiplicity of Other positions, of untaken options for selfhood. Importantly, those Other positions do not float adrift in cultural vacuum but are immersed in the multi-layered, ever-changing semiotic flows of cultural contexts. In many of these contexts, ideology plays an important role in
structuring identifiable patterns of semiotic activity that, in turn, shape and are shaped by
the social identities of groups of people.

In other words, ideology plays an important role in constituting the systems of
symbolization that we call culture(s). That is, there is no strict separation between the
ideological and the cultural. Rather, ideology is one perspective from which to analyze
the patterns of semiosis we call culture. An ideological perspective on culture, which is
one perspective on culture among many others, highlights aspects of culture that other
perspectives may not examine. For example, to examine culture from an ideological
perspective is to deconstruct the ways that such symbolic systems become naturalized
(cf. Gramsci, 2010). It is also to interrogate the ways that competing, more-or-less
naturalized, more-or-less oppressive systems of symbolization structure human relations
and power within and across cultural contexts.

Because I adhere to the perspective that all discourses, even “democratic” ones, are
ideological to some extent (cf. Althusser, 1971; Charland, 1987; Bérubé, 1996), I find it
useful to adopt Fairclough’s concept of ideological-discursive formations (IDFs) to refer
to named, identifiable patterns of semiotic activity indexing ideological positions. Some
names of these patterns in the U.S. cultural context include paleo-conservatism, neo-
conservatism, Marxist feminism, and radical feminism. I find the term ideological-
discursive formations useful to distinguish between a) the ideological positions people
take on issues—which I call “ideological positions”—without being affiliated with a
named ideology, and b) named ideologies, or culturally-recognizable clusters of
ideological positions such as neoconservatism, paleoconservatism, or Maoism. The latter
are IDFs. For example, people can be against Mexican immigration as an ideological
position without being affiliated with, or even knowing about, the IDF called
paleoconservatism, one of whose principles is opposition to non-White immigration.

I also find the term IDF useful to distinguish between the ideology-based groups the
term represents and other, also named but more diffuse patterns of semiotic activity such
as conservatism, liberalism, or Marxism. I call the latter “ideological systems.” I even
call “capitalism” an ideological system to highlight its value-based and semiotic
dimensions, although of course I recognize that it is also a conglomerate of material
practices. At any rate, a full theorization of these issues is beyond the scope of the study.
My intent here is merely to provide an outline of the terms I use to represent ideological phenomena.

From a critical reading perspective that focuses its gaze on ideology, to know a cultural Other is to be able to locate that Other in the semiotic landscape of a CC2’s ideologies. When reading transnational texts, the crucial question to engage in this exploration of the cultural Other is one of audience: “who does this text address?” However, asking this question in this manner presupposes that the reader-askee already knows the identity of a text-external audience in the CC2 that is being addressed by an author. Or, at the very least, the question presumes that the reader is in conversation with someone who knows such an audience and can supply the answer. These conditions of knowing, however, are not a given for readers of transnational texts, who may lack the culture-specific knowledge to answer the question satisfactorily, and may inhabit contexts where knowledgeable interlocutors are simply not available. The kinds of questions that these readers may answer, however, can be formulated as “what reading position(s) does this text construct?” and “how can it/they be inferred using forms of text analysis?” Further, the L2 teacher and/or scholar who pursues a cultural realism agenda may ask “what tools of text analysis are available to infer reading positions?” And, because to know reading positions is to know the ideologies that structure them, she may also ask “what are the affordances of these tools to analyze the ideological situatedness of reading positions, including the student’s own reading position?” The last phrase of this question is a reminder that to know oneself entails the ability to locate one’s sense of selfhood in the multi-layered semiotic landscapes of the cultural contexts one inhabits.

This research project attempts to address these so far little-explored questions. The project adopts a discourse approach to CC2s pedagogy that focuses not on what Page et al. (2003) call visible, surface level culture, i.e. aspects such as food and clothing, but on a less visible, “deeper” (i.e. related to values and beliefs [Page et al., 2003]) dimension of culture, namely political struggles among competing ideological-discursive formations (Fairclough, 1995). The project’s central proposal is that Appraisal Theory and forms of rhetorical analysis such as Toulmin analysis and analyses of the rhetorical strategy of identification provide valuable tools to teach critical reading of transnational texts in a manner that leads to the development of forms of global cultural consciousness. The
potential of these tools to achieve this goal has not been explored so far in the published literature. The closest attempt to do so is Wallace’s (2003) limited engagement with the notion of intercultural competence which, as we have seen, continues to reify national culture and racial and gender categories. The section below articulates the theoretical elements of this proposal.

2.6. APPRAISAL THEORY AND RHETORIC

In this section, I develop the view that Appraisal Theory and rhetorical analyses offer a metalanguage that aptly describes the interpretive processes involved in critical reading of transnational texts in the absence of relevant, cultural background knowledge. Because the Appraisal metalanguage is an apt description of these processes, it is also a useful means to make the processes visible and negotiable in classroom discourse in order to scaffold their development in learners. From a Vygotskian perspective, this metalanguage and the tools associated with it, such as the discourse organizers presented below, are symbolic meditational means (Werstch, 1993). That is to say, they are signs that both make visible some forms of cognition involved in comprehension and, by representing them, allow for their negotiation in interaction so that they can be further developed in learners’ cognition.

The analyses in the theoretical framework presented in this section also contribute to filling the gaps in the empirical research studies of critical reading and theoretical models of reading comprehension that were raised above. They do so by, for example, characterizing the kind of genre-embedded linguistic knowledge that can promote comprehension of the target genre, and sketching the reading skills and strategies associated with such knowledge.

The section is organized as follows. First, an overview of Appraisal Theory is provided. Then, connections are drawn between Appraisal Theory and rhetorical theory to highlight how the two theoretical perspectives can illuminate the language processing and rhetorical reasoning processes that underpin rhetorical inferences of authorial position and audience. The next section then places this theorization within a Complexity Theory approach to reading comprehension and design-based research.
In recent versions of SFL, the unity of texts (coherence, also called texture) is seen as a function of the interplay of various discourse-semantics textual systems emerging from lexicogrammar. Appraisal is the system that deals with interpersonal meaning. Martin and Rose (2007) define Appraisal as “the kinds of attitudes that are negotiated in a text, the strength of the feelings involved and the ways in which values are sourced and readers aligned” (25). In this formulation, Appraisal includes resources labeled elsewhere as stance and engagement (e.g. Biber & Finnegan, 1989; Hyland, 2004).

Whereas those other frameworks rely on the presence of specific linguistic exponents (e.g. adverbials, modal verbs, epistemic verbs) to analyze evaluation quantitatively, the appraisal framework allows for the fine-grained, qualitative study of implicit forms of evaluation in any clause via the sub-system of attitude and its divisions of affect (or emotion), judgment (evaluation of persons), and appreciation (evaluation of entities and qualities). In addition, the sub-system of engagement, explained further below, offers the possibility of analyzing the alignment and attribution of implicit attitude to various participants in a textualized rhetorical situation. Engagement as a sub-system of appraisal specifically affords analyses of the extent to which every clause opens or closes dialogistic space and constructs reading positions and audiences. The sub-system of graduation looks at the focusing and intensification of attitude.

Unlike other frameworks for the study of interpersonal meaning, Appraisal Theory explicitly accounts for the ways that attitude forms patterns that contribute to giving texture to a text. These are called “prosodic patterns” because, like phonological prosody, they operate above the level of discrete words, groups, or clauses: “this interpersonal meaning is strung throughout the clause as a continuous motif or colouring… the effect is cumulative” (Halliday, 1979, 66-67). The three basic prosodic patterns are saturation, intensification, and domination (Martin & White, 2005). Domination is the most relevant pattern for this study. The pattern of domination refers to associations where the head of a unit encodes appraisal, and the hypotactic clause that follows is colored by such encoded appraisal, as in

I cannot believe that his death and the murder of so many others in the past terrible weeks has not prompted an immediate response from the government (Martin & White, 2005, p. 23);
where the line indicates that the projected clause is dominated by the appraisal encoded in “I cannot believe.” A similar pattern, but at the discourse-semantics level, exists in the first two sentences of “Debut of the Amero.”

The People's Republic of China, long lauded by America's enemies as the world's next economic power, will be the country that will force the creation of the North American Union (NAU).

Kofi Annan’s pointman, Canadian Maurice Strong, has been boasting from Chinese soil that China soon would be replacing America as economic king, using the jingo that’s the official language at Turtle Bay.

In these sentences, the nominal group “America’s enemies” casts a negative judgment over anyone who has appraised China as a future economic power. Maurice Strong has expressed those views; thus, he is one of those enemies. The language of the texts points at his subordinate relationship to former UN Secretary General Kofi Annan (“pointman”), thus extending the scope of the negative judgment to Annan. By describing these expression as “jingo,” and having “jingo” dominate “the official language at Turtle Bay (the zone of Manhattan where the UN is located), the text extends the scope of the negative judgment of “enemies” to the United Nations, which it already had hinted at by highlighting the institutional relation between Annan and Strong.

This analysis has highlighted the ways that the domination pattern can contribute to make text coherent (Hood, 2006). This pattern can become a kind of formal schema: readers can be alert to the fact that meaning can be organized in this way and can use such knowledge to guide their interpretation of texts. Further, implicit in the analysis is the analysts’ mental activity, his (my) interpretive processes of drawing connections across text constituents. I call this process of assigning semantic roles to participants “attitude parsing.” According to Martin & White (2005), the semantic roles involved in attitude parsing are Appraiser (the discursive participant doing the appraising), Appraising item (the linguistic exponent instantiating appreciation), Appraised (the discursive participant being appraised) and Appraisee (the discursive participant to whom the appraising is communicated). Table 2.1 below shows the parsing of these semantic roles for the sentence from McLeod above.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Appraising item and polarity</th>
<th>Appraiser</th>
<th>Appraised</th>
<th>Appraisee</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>America’s enemies (-)</td>
<td>Judi McLeod</td>
<td>Maurice Strong, Kofi Anan, the UN</td>
<td>The reader</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 2.1. Appraisal semantic roles

A further consideration when parsing attitude is the identification of the affective charge in the appraising item, which can be positive or negative depending on the sense of the author’s attitude. Non-SFL studies have used the term valence to refer to the positive/negative sense of this affective charge (e.g. Gygax et al., 2007). Appraisal Theory itself does not offer a term to designate the sense of the affective charge. Martin and White (2005) just mention positive and negative attitude. Throughout this dissertation, I have chosen to use the term attitudinal polarity, or simply polarity to refer to the sense of the affective charge in attitudinal language segments because it makes intuitive sense and offers a meaningful characterization of the construct in focus. For pedagogical purposes, it is important to use terms that are intuitive. However, readers should note that the term has been used with a different meaning in SFL (see Eggins, 2004, 154 for a review of the meaning of polarity in SFL).

In Martin and White’s framework, there are two kinds of attitude: inscribed and invoked. Inscribed attitude exists when evaluation is directly encoded in discourse via the use of attitudinal lexis, like “enemies” above. However, there are other cases when non-attitudinal lexis takes up evaluative meanings depending on what Martin and White call “the social subjectivities” of writers and readers, that is, our belonging to communities that shape our attitudinal responses to ideational meanings in variegated ways. Consider for example the sentence from McLeod “the cloak of the NAU [North American Union], fashioned in secrecy, will be thrown over an unsuspecting public, erasing the borders of three countries.” From the perspective of radical U.S. conservatism, with its fear of government and penchant for conspiracy theories, the words “fashioned in secrecy” can plausibly be read as conveying a negative attitude toward both the (hypothetical) creation of a NAU and those who do it in secret. Invoked attitude can be very prominent in political opinion texts as in the example of the attitude in the word “secular” below.
The euro followed the same blueprint of stealth and surprise. It was already issued as replacement currency before the masses could coalesce to fight it. Who ever would have dreamed that the euro of a secular bureaucracy one day would be accepted for use at the Vatican? Pope John Paul II, who repeatedly condemned the "moral drift" of secular Brussels, sanctioned an official Euro for the Vatican.

In this segment, a combination of Appraisal analysis and CC2 knowledge can be used to infer that a negative polarity is being infused to the otherwise neutral word “secular” by the author. First, the creation of the euro is presented as something done in secret and harmful to “the masses.” Presumably, then, those who created the euro (the EU authorities) are being aligned as ‘the bad guys’ in this story. And it is those authorities that are referred to by the word “bureaucracy.” Further, the author seems to align with the Pope’s condemnation of this bureaucracy as being morally adrift. So, domination patterns seem to extend from those other segments to “secular bureaucracy.” From the CC2 knowledge side, it is well-known that some groups within American conservatism resist and resent the separation of church and state that is typical of secularism. As an analyst, I know that this is the perspective the author of this text, Judi McLeod, is writing from as she and other writers in her Web site identify elsewhere as paleoconservatives, a radical IDF within conservatism. Therefore, I can infer that this word is, in this particular text, infused with a negative polarity. This is one way that IDF's contribute to infusing non-attitudinal language with specific attitudinal meanings that are recognized by insiders, outsiders with some relevant background knowledge, and discourse analysts. But because these language exponents are destined to be recognized as attitudinal by insiders and arouse their affective responses, it can be said that this kind of language both is a product of and reinforces common group identity.

But besides inferring the attitudinal polarity with which the word is infused in this particular text, as a reader I am also free to infuse the word with a different polarity. As a radical secularist who is descended from three generations of secularist socialists, my instinctive affective response to the word “secularism” is a positive one. Importantly, I am aware of the discursive sources that structure this affective response. To use Wallace’s (2003) term, I am metacritically aware. When reading the passage above, this awareness engages in play with my metalinguistic and background knowledge to allow me to
identify the audience the text both constructs and addresses. Promoting this kind of reflection on the differential polarities that seemingly neutral words can be infused with from different reading positions is one way that Appraisal Theory, and specifically the construct of invoked attitude, can inform the pedagogy of global cultural consciousness.

Despite its power to model evaluation and how it contributes to textual coherence, Appraisal Theory is not without limitations. The paragraphs below explore one such limitation, namely Appraisal’s overreliance on lexicogrammatical realizations when exploring rhetorical aspects such as the role that information not presented in the text plays in the construction of ideal audiences, ideology, and author positions.

In Appraisal Theory, presenting claims of value as nominalizations (“betray – betrayal”) is considered a sign that the text presents the judgment or appreciation evaluated thus nominalized as not being open to discussion, but as a given. Martin and White (2005) call this textual property “taken-for-grantedness” and assert that such evaluative nominalizations “constructs for the text a putative addressee who shares [such] value position” (Martin & White, 2005, 101). Martin and White exemplify this ideological effect of taken-for-grantedness using the sentence below:

After nine years of the governments’ betrayal of the promised progressive agenda, Canadians have a gut feeling that their country is slipping away from them.

In their analysis, the nominalization “betrayal” indicates that the construction of the governments’ action as an act of betraying is “no longer at issue, “can be treated as given” and is presented in a “strongly ideological” manner (101). Martin and White’s analysis is grounded in SFL thought with regard to nominalizations, which sees nominalizations as condensations of processes that serve important discourse-structuring functions such as repackaging new information as given as the discourse unfolds. While this analysis offers valuable insight into the mechanisms whereby a reading position is naturalized, its reliance on the presence of nominalized attitude does not explain the kinds of assumptions that underpin evaluations such as that encoded in the sentence below:

The people’s Republic of China, long lauded by America’s enemies as the world’s next economic power, will be the country that will force the creation of the NAU (McLeod, 2006)
This segment encodes several assumptions, such as the idea that anyone who praises China is an enemy of the United States. Identifying and examining these assumptions is essential for critiquing ideology for, as Fairclough (2003) points out, what is left unsaid in text is often an important locus of ideology. A nominalization-focused analysis of taken-for-grantedness does not explain how these assumptions contribute to naturalizing reading positions and creating specific ideological, rhetorical effects. Martin and White (2005) use the concept of “presupposition” to talk about these non-nominalized assumptions, but offer neither a consistent definition of the term, which has been used in many ways in the semantics and pragmatics literature, nor a coherent and thorough analytic method to examine presuppositions. Both a definition and an analytic method seem needed if the concept is to be useful to explore ideology and audience. The sections below discuss how constructs of rhetoric can illuminate these issues.

2.6.1. RHETORIC
Aspects of rhetorical theory can sharpen analyses of the suasive effects of language, which is a concern of Appraisal Theory (Martin & White, 2005) and critical reading pedagogy (Wallace, 2003). Although the word “rhetoric” is often used in Appraisal Theory to refer to the suasive effects of text, the Appraisal literature has so far not engaged with the discipline of rhetoric. In this paper, I draw from the approach to rhetorical analysis proposed by contemporary rhetorician Kenneth Burke because his analytic framework is fitting for examining texts that are addressed to co-members within an ideological-discursive formation.

Burke defines rhetoric as “the use of words by human agents to form attitudes or induce actions in other human beings” (Burke, 1969, 41). Burke (1973) proposes the term ‘identification’ as an alternative to the traditional focus on persuasion that characterized rhetoric for much of its history. He defines identification as “one’s way of seeing one’s reflection in the social mirror” (ibid, 227) and suggests that it is a more fitting term than persuasion to describe “the ways in which the members of a group promote social cohesion by acting rhetorically upon themselves and one another” (1969, xiv). Burke then draws a difference between persuasion and identification, where the former is attempted by demonstrating the logical superiority or greater practical convenience of a claim to an
Other, and the latter is attempted by showing audiences that they and the rhetor are not Others but share, to varying degrees, a common Self. Of course, for identification to be possible, for the audience to recognize itself in the mirror held by the rhetor, the interpellated audience must already hold that image within itself, even if embrionically. An audience that identifies is an audience that is always already in the discourse, even if it needs the rhetor’s discursive action to realize this. Then, in Burke’s theorization, identification is the effect of a perception of consubstantiality, of there being a common essence or substance between rhetor and audience (Ratcliffe, 2005).

Rhetorical effects, or suasion, can then be achieved not only via persuasion but also via identification. The power of linguistic form, or what is said, to generate identification has been recognized by rhetoricians (Burke, 1969; Fahnestock, 1999). Less recognized, however, is the power of the unstated, of what is taken for granted and left unsaid in a specific piece of discourse. Consider again the sentence

The people’s Republic of China, long lauded by America’s enemies as the world’s next economic power, will be the country that will force the creation of the NAU.

The embedded participial clause “long lauded by America’s enemies…” contains an implicit claim of value that can be expressed as “those who say China will be the world’s next economic power are enemies of America.” This claim of value, however, is unsupported: neither the minor nor the major premises that would support it are provided. Using Toulmin’s (2003) model of argument analysis, the minor premise or datum supporting this claim (or “conclusion” in Toulmin’s model) could be stated as “the economic growth of China is harmful to the United States.” Thus, we would have a datum-conclusion pair like that represented in Figure 2.1 below. The arrangement of datum and conclusion can also be reversed, as in Figure 2.2 below. Toulmin’s model of argument analysis invites us to go further and examine the warrants, or propositions connecting the datum and the conclusion. In this case, the warrant could be stated as “saying that China will be the next economic power equals supporting China over the U.S.”
Crucially, neither the datum, hereafter called support, nor the warrant, hereafter called premise, are provided by the writer of this text. They are left unsaid. From a Bakhtinian dialogistic perspective, one where utterances are thought to be always situated against the backdrop of antecedent and simultaneous utterances, it can be hypothesized that the writer of this sentence assumes that the utterances encoding the premises behind this claim have been said before, and, importantly, heard and shared by the reader. After all, if the writer did not make this assumption, she would need to utter those premises.

2.6.2. THE IDEAL READER

According to Martin & White (2005), assumptions of this kind have the important ideological effect of naturalizing a reading position that shares what is assumed. It seems that readers do not need to be persuaded of the truthfulness of the claim, as the ideal reader that would conform to this message would be one who already knows what the support and premise are for this claim and shares them.

Thus, in Althusser’s (1971) terms, the value claim above is addressed to, or constructs, a reader who is already in the fold of the ideological-discursive formation indexed by the text. It is that kind of reader who would hail the discursive interpellation to accept this claim of value as truthful despite the absence of premises and support because s/he shares...
those premises and does not need to be convinced of their truthfulness. From a Burkean perspective, the rhetorical process that leads to the production of alignment with the clause’s meaning is one of identification: actual readers whose reading position corresponds to the one naturalized by this utterance would align themselves with its meaning because they see in it a reflection of their values. This kind of analysis affords a look at taken-for-grantedness that does not depend on the presence of nominalized attitude.

Importantly, this kind of analysis of unstated support and premises may produce a profile of audience that does not reify national culture or racial and gender categories like other analyses (e.g. Wallace, 1992, 2003) have done. This audience profile can be stated as a set of assumptions shared by the reader. Thus, based on the analysis of the sentence above and the rest of the text, the ideal audience for McLeod’s “Debut of the Amero” would be someone who

- believes China’s economic growth is harmful to the United States,
- believes that saying that China will be the next economic superpower makes the sayer an enemy of the United States,
- believes that praising someone’s perceived opponent makes the praiser an enemy of that someone,
- believes that the euro was created as part of a conspiracy to impose a secular, communist, universal republic,
- is against secularism,
- believes that a new currency called “amero” will supplant the US dollar,
- believes that the creation of such currency issues from the same conspiracy that created the euro.

I use the term “ideal reader” to describe this profile stemming from the study of assumptions that a reader would need to share with a writer in order to align with the meanings of a text. The ideal reader, as I define it, is a textualized, composite social identity that can be inferred from the values assumed to be shared by the reader and projects rhetorically to actual readers who conform to aspects of such identity. It shares features with, but it is not the same as, Thompson’s (2000) “reader-in-text,” Eco’s (1984) “model reader,” Ede & Lunsford’s (1984) “audience invoked” and Martin & White’s (2005) “naturalized reading position.” Because the ability to infer it from a text relies on analyses of the unsaid, and of identification, the construct of the ideal reader as presented
here is a way to analyze audience as a set of “fictionalized dis/identifications” (Ratcliffe, 2010, 187). This kind of audience analysis has been identified as an area of growing interest in contemporary rhetoric, and I hope that the construct of the ideal reader as defined here is a modest contribution in that direction.

McLeod and other writers in her Web site, Canada Free Press, present themselves as paleoconservatives. So, in the case of McLeod’s text, the ideal reader’s projection to the social context connects with paleoconservatism, an ideological discursive formation (IDF) that, although marginal in U.S. culture, has managed to insert aspects of its nativist ideology into mainstream political discussions (Ashbee, 2000). Figure 2.3 below represents this projection of the ideal reader outward to the CC2. The dotted line between the two outer circles in the figure represents the confluence between paleoconservatism as an IDF and the identities of actual readers that identify, wholly or partially, with that IDF.

Once they have inferred an ideal reader, readers may be provided with background knowledge, or attempt to gain it on their own, in order to more precisely locate this social identity in the discursive field of a CC2. Importantly, by analyzing Appraisal patterns and unstated support and premises, readers can also detect the presence of ideology. Knowing that ideology is operating in a text is a pre-requisite to the ability to challenge or critique such ideology. Further, inferring the ideal reader for a text may allow EFL readers to become aware that their identities and subjectivities are not those being hailed by the text. This ability has the potential to help readers like Orlando, the teacher who chose “Debut of the Amero” to teach EFL in Mexico, to defend themselves intellectually by not buying into the ideologies reproduced by this kind of online text, and to think in more principled terms about the materials they select and how they choose to exploit them pedagogically. This kind of self-defense is extremely important in today’s globalized world as it allows students and teachers to resist ideologies that are easily spread by online texts. It also holds potential to enable teachers to select and created pedagogical materials such as texts and worksheets in a more principled manner.

A specific kind of ideology that is important for this project is that involved in establishing nationhood. In discussing this issue, I use the concept of the nation as an
imagined community (Anderson, 1983). Anderson proposes that a nation as a community is an imagined one. It is imagined because the sense of common belonging that makes its members identify as co-nationals does not stem from face-to-face interaction among them. Instead, the sense of community is based on members’ holding in their minds a representation, or image, of their affinities. Crucially, this representation involves imagining the limits of the nation, as nations are defined by boundaries. When imagining the nation, the kinds of boundaries that are most interesting from a critical perspective are not the geographical ones, but the metaphysical boundaries that include and exclude people from the in-group that is the imagined nation.

An example of a particularly insidious imagining of the United States as a nation is found in one of the texts used in this study, William H. Calhoun’s “North American Union: It’s Coming.” In this text, Calhoun claims that a North American Union of the three NAFTA countries is impending. He argues that this Union will destroy the United States because Mexican immigration will unravel the purported racial and linguistic homogeneity of the nation. He presents his racist imagining of the nation in the second of the two paragraphs below.

To see the connection between free trade the dissolution of the USA under the North American Union, only need to read Karl Marx. On Jan. 9, 1848, in "On the Question of Free Trade," Marx said, "...in general, the protective system of our day is conservative, while the free trade system is destructive. It breaks up old nationalities and pushes the antagonism of the proletariat and the bourgeoisie to the extreme point. In a word, the free trade system hastens the social revolution. It is in this revolutionary sense alone, gentlemen, that I vote in favor of free trade."
Notice, Marx's celebration of the breaking up of "old nationalities." Such a statement is similar to GW Bush's claim that the USA is not an "actual place," but an "idea." Neocons celebrate this Marxist notion of a "propositional nation," because it removes the historic prerequisites of nationhood: borders; a common language, history and genealogy; blood and soil; kith and kin; and genophilia (instinctive attachment to family and tribe).

In the second paragraph, Calhoun’s mention of “a common blood and genealogy” is an unmistakable racial reference to whiteness. His mention of a common language is a clear reference to English monolingualism. Thus, whiteness and English monolingualism are the images that, for him and the paleoconservative ideology he openly represents (he defines himself as a paleoconservative at the bottom of his piece) define the ontological boundaries of the United States as a nation. These boundaries are drawn so that White European Anglophones are in. Others are out. This racial imagining of the American nation is, of course, highly ideological: it presents itself as self-evident and thus natural, and it seeks to preserve White privilege and racial and linguistic oppression. Crucially, because this imagining of the nation is presented as evident (i.e. no support or premises are supplied as to why the nation should be imagined in this way), Calhoun constructs an ideal reader that shares it.

Inferring an ideal reader as defined above, however, is not the only way in which Appraisal and rhetorical analysis can contribute to characterizing audience. The paragraphs below explore another construct, which I call the global reading position, that highlights the potential of combining Appraisal and rhetoric to make inferences about a text’s audience, to teach audience analysis, and to use such analysis to detect and challenge ideology.

2.6.3. THE GLOBAL READING POSITION
I define global reading position as the overall audience alignment (i.e. in favor, neutral, or against an author’s position) that can be inferred from patterns of attitude using premises of how ethos operates in public discourse. In other words, the global reading position is a more crude representation of audience alignment that constructs the audience as either assenting, dissenting, or neutral vis-à-vis the author. I will explain this construct through an analysis of Michael Barber’s text “Perez Hilton: The Foul Face of Gay Activism.” In
this text, political commentator Matt Barber offers highly graduated negative judgments of Perez Hilton, a newsmedia critic and gay activist, in the context of Hilton’s negative reactions to the answer about the acceptability of gay marriage given by Miss California in the 2007 Miss Universe beauty pageant. When asked about her views of gay marriage, Miss California (Carrie Prejean) explained that she was against it. Barber presents Hilton’s reaction as follows:

Evidently this was not the rooty-tooty-fresh-n’-fruity answer Hilton – the creepy valley girl wannabe with a five o’clock shadow – had hoped for. He promptly marked Prejean’s score card with a zero, plopped down in front of the television cameras and began blubbering away like a fussy little snot with a dirty diaper. Having already publicly called Prejean a “dumb b——,” he then yammered to a sympathetic Norah O’Donnell on MSNBC that he was refusing to apologize.

This segment contains highly graduated judgments of Hilton (“creepy valley girl wannabe,” “plopped down,” “blubbing away like a fussy little snot with a dirty diaper,” “yammered”). The word graduated here refers to the fact that the force of the judgment is amplified by the choice of adjectives: less amplified judgments of the same polarity as those above could have been made by choosing different adjectives. In Appraisal Theory, the subsystem of graduation deals with the amplification of attitude (Martin & White, 2005), as noted above. A line of reasoning grounded in the rhetorical notions of ethos and the public sphere can contribute to the ability to infer the ideal reader constructed by the highly graduated negative judgments in this segment.

The Greek word ethos has been used in Aristotelian rhetoric to refer to a persuasive device whereby the speaker/writer attempts to persuade the audience by presenting themselves as credible, sensible, and responsible. Ethos is also a means to achieve identification inasmuch as building ethos entails “assessing the characteristics of an audience and constructing the discourse in such a way as to portray oneself as embodying those characteristics” (Cherry, 1988, 388). According to Aristotle (in Cherry, 1988), a feature of ethos is ‘eunoia,’ or good will toward the audience. That is, writers engaging in forms of public discourse can be presumed to want to achieve ‘eunoia,’ or secure the good disposition of their audience towards their message. Thus, a way to infer a text’s
intended audience is to wonder what kind of audience would feel well-disposed toward the particular type of message in a text such as this one.

These considerations of ‘eunoia’ and audience intersect with scholarly discussions of the public sphere. Habermas (1989) first defined the public sphere as “the sphere of private people come together… to engage public authorities in a debate over the general rules governing relations” (27). More recently, Fraser (1992) defines it as “a theater in modern societies in which political participation is enacted through the medium of talk” (109) to which I would add writing. Per these definitions, some genres act in the realm of the public sphere, while others do not and yet others might cross boundaries between the public and the private spheres. Political opinion articles are intrinsically public.

Habermas’ original conceptualization of the public sphere as a space of rational discourse, and indeed of all public opinion as rational, has been strongly and widely contested. Rhetoricians have proposed that much public discourse is not rational in the manner envisioned by Habermas. Certainly, the kinds of negative judgments found in Barber above (“creepy valley-girl wannabe,” “began blubbering away like a fussy little baby”) lend credence to this view. To counter Habermas’ emphasis on rationality, Hauser (1998) proposes what he calls a rhetorical model of the public sphere, one where groups of people assemble around ideological positions and each group defines its own norms of dialog for both in-group and out-group consumption. To my mind, these confluences of positions and persons are analog to Fairclough’s ideological-discursive formations (IDFs). Under this perspective, the rhetorical force of an argument depends not on its rationality but on how well it resonates with a group’s concerns and shared meanings. Following this view, it is possible to wonder what groups would sympathize with the meanings encoded in Barber’s negative judgments of Hilton and those Barber aligns with him. The paragraphs below discuss how these principles can be used to infer a global reading position from Barber’s text.

For Barber’s segment above, it is possible to initially posit at least two different audience positions: a position of sympathy toward Perez Hilton and, more generally, toward gay marriage, or a position of sympathy toward Carrie Prejean and, more generally, against gay marriage. The highly graduated negative judgments of Hilton indicate that this textual segment does not show good will toward the former position.
Under Hauser’s (1998) principle that public sphere arguments are effective when they resonate with the concerns and alignments of specific groups, and under the principle that writers in public discourse generally attempt ‘eunoia,’ the presence of these highly graduated negative judgments indicates that it is not plausible for this text to be addressed to opponents (Hilton’s sympathizers) as no respect is accorded to Hilton. On the contrary, Hilton and those whom the authors align with him are judged in very harsh terms. This kind of harsh judgment is likely to be perceived as highly disrespectful and offensive by Hilton’s sympathizers.

Following the Aristotelian and public sphere postulates above, it is plausible to conclude that Barber’s use of highly graduated negative judgments implies that the audience he imagined for his text, and the global reading position that can be inferred from his textual choices, is one that shares the same values and negative judgments he makes of Paris Hilton. Thus, the global reading position is one that is in agreement with Barber. This characterization of audience also avoids the reification of national culture, race, and gender that has been characteristic of previous work. Note that, for pedagogical purposes, I propose that both the construct of the ideal reader and that of global position can be presented to students using only one concept, namely ideal reader.

The paragraphs below turn to the ways that another sub-system of Appraisal, engagement, can enrich analyses of authorial position and audience.

Engagement, a subsystem within Appraisal, offers another powerful tool to explore authorial positions and the construction of audience. Engagement is concerned with the ways that a writer “negotiates relationships of alignment/disalignment vis-à-vis the various value positions referenced by the text” (Martin & White, 2005, 95). Central to the modeling of engagement resources in Appraisal Theory is the Bakhtinian notion of dialogism, or the degree to which an utterance “recognize(s) that the text’s communicative backdrop is a diverse one” (Martin & White, 2005, 199). Some utterances present assertions as monologic, that is, they do not make room for alternative positions or acknowledge that such positions may exist. These are called “bare assertions” in the engagement system and are said to be monoglossic as they do not acknowledge other voices or perspectives and present propositions as facts. Other utterances, grouped under the category of heteroglossic resources, acknowledge different positions, but they differ
in the manner they do so. Some utterances explicitly “make allowances for dialogically alternative positions and voices… or alternatively acts to challenge, fend off, or restrict the scope of such” (Martin & White, 2005, 102). The first kind of utterances is said to be dialogically expansive, while the second is dialogically contractive. The diagram below shows the full engagement system network as presented by Martin & White (2005).

![Diagram of engagement system network](image)

Figure 2.4. The engagement system network (from Martin & White, 2005, p. 134).

Engagement is a relevant system for the intervention reported in this study because it allows for the modeling of the ways that writers align voices cited in the text. I call this alignment of voices “citation alignment.” The pilot study shows that advanced EFL learners need scaffolding to identify patterns of citation alignment and infer authors’ rhetorical intentions behind such alignments. The system options ATTRIBUTE and PROCLAIM:ENDORSE can provide a metalanguage that can be used by instructors to scaffold identification of citation alignment and rhetorical inferences of an author’s intentions behind such alignment.
In addition, identifications of patterns of monoglossia on the one hand and heteroglossia (dialogic contraction and expansion) on the other can contribute to characterizing a text’s audience and rhetorical strategy. For example, the presence of CONCEDE:COUNTER or AFFIRM:COUNTER can signal authorial attempts to persuade an opposing reader through rational arguments, as in the example below taken from David Blankenhorn’s (2008) opinion piece “Protecting Marriage to Protect Children”:

Many seem to believe that marriage is simply a private love relationship between two people [ATTRIBUTE:ACKNOWLEDGE]. They accept this view, in part, because Americans have increasingly emphasized and come to value the intimate, emotional side of marriage, and in part because almost all opinion leaders today, from journalists to judges, strongly embrace this position [ENTERTAIN]. But I spent a year studying the history and anthropology of marriage, and I’ve come to a different conclusion [COUNTER]. Marriage as a human institution is constantly evolving, and many of its features vary across groups and cultures [CONCEDE]. But there is one constant. In all societies, marriage shapes the rights and obligations of parenthood. [COUNTER] Among us humans, the scholars report, marriage is not primarily a license to have sex [DENY/ATTRIBUTE:ENDORSE]. Nor is it primarily a license to receive benefits or social recognition [DENY/ATTRIBUTE:ENDORSE]. It is primarily a license to have children [BARE ASSERTION].

In this paragraph, Blankenhorn is quite dialogically expansive: the first two sentences expand dialogic space. For example, the opening sentence acknowledges the existence of other voices without signaling where the author stands in relationship to the position advanced by those voices. Ideationally, the second sentence advances an explanation of the sources of the belief reported in the first one; interpersonally, this explanation is not asserted but qualified with “in part,” which allows room for alternative opinions on the origins of such beliefs. Together, these two sentences may be acting rhetorically as a kind of CONCEDE move where the writer admits that the view being presented exists and makes sense to those who hold it for specific historical reasons. These views are then countered by the third sentence, where the writer presents his own opinion. Thus, the writer creates a cycle of expansion and contraction that, coupled with the absence of highly graduated attitude, gives analysts grounds to infer that Blankenhorn is trying rationally to persuade a dissenting reader, one who does not share his views on gay
marriage. This examination of dialogic contraction and expansion is thus a way that engagement analysis enables the characterization of global reading positions.

The rhetorical strategy and engagement patterns in Blankenhorn contrast vividly with those employed by Joel Wendland’s (2006) “Immigration Reform: Bush and Republicans Appeal to White Supremacy.” Published in the Web site Marxist Thought Online, this article opens with a series of bare assertions and highly graduated negative judgments as seen below.

As the immigration policy debate heats up in Congress, the US public has been bombarded by a steady stream of racist, anti-immigrant sentiments [BARE ASSERTION]. Aside from false claims that immigrants “steal” jobs or public resources – corporations and corrupt politicians already have a tight grip on those criminal activities – right-wing pundits and Republican Party officials have turned up the heat against immigrants by appealing to white supremacist notions of race and culture [BARE ASSERTION]. Since the recent emergence of politically charged public debate on immigration reform, some right-wing pundits have fully opened the valves and are letting their noxious bile spew forth unchecked and uncensored [BARE ASSERTION].

According to Martin & White (2005), bare assertions deny dialogic diversity and thus can be presumed to construct a reading position that aligns with the writer. In this segment, this rhetorical effect is further signaled by the use of highly graduated negative appreciations of the sayings of those participants whom the author is arguing against (“false claims,” “noxious bile”).

The paragraphs above have sketched ways that Appraisal and rhetorical analyses can be combined to characterize authorial position, audience, and rhetorical strategies. With regard to the latter aspect, rhetorical strategies, this chapter has discussed how some Appraisal resources contribute to performing either identification or persuasion. The diagram in Figure 2.5 below summarizes the distribution of Appraisal and rhetorical resources between the two rhetorical strategies of identification and persuasion.

This diagram is by no means an exhaustive model of the linguistic and rhetorical resources of identification and persuasion. As Burke (1969) discusses, other rhetorical resources such as stylistic figures also play a role in identification, and so do other kinds of linguistic exponents such as reader pronouns (Thompson, 2000). I also do not mean this model to set up a dichotomy where texts operate with one rhetorical strategy to the
exclusion of the other. It is indeed possible and likely that most texts display combinations of these two strategies, and indeed the boundaries between identification and persuasion can be blurry in specific linguistic and rhetorical exponents. This diagram is merely an attempt to model these resources for the pedagogical purposes of this intervention study, namely to teach advanced EFL learners to identify rhetorical strategies in political opinion texts as part of teaching critical reading.

The section below turns attention to another kind of rhetorical inference: inferring an author’s unstated position on a topic.

2.6.4. INFERRING UNSTATED AUTHORIAL POSITION
Inferring an unstated authorial position is another case where Appraisal analysis is helpful but insufficient to draw this kind rhetorical inference. As I show below, genre knowledge can complement Appraisal analysis when inferring an author’s implied position on an issue. Consider the paragraphs from the edited version of Barber that was used with the participants in this research project. Attitudinal language has been underlined.

During the 2009 Miss USA beauty pageant, Perez Hilton asked the lovely and talented Miss California (Carrie Prejean) whether “every state” should legalize “same-sex marriage,” Prejean responded: “In my country, in my family … I believe that a marriage should be between a man and a woman. No offense to
anybody out there, but that’s how I was raised and that’s how I think it should be – between a man and a woman.” Evidently this was not the sanitized answer that Hilton—who is a creepy character—had hoped for. He promptly marked Prejean’s score card with a zero and began blubbing like a fussy little baby. Hilton’s response was hate-filled and misogynistic. The defense of that response by liberals in Hollywood, the media and organized homosexuality was disgraceful.

Table 2.2 below shows the parsing of the attitude in this paragraph.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Appraising item and polarity</th>
<th>Appraiser</th>
<th>Appraised</th>
<th>Appraisee</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Lovely (+)</td>
<td>Matt Barber</td>
<td>Carrie Prejean</td>
<td>The reader</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Talented (+)</td>
<td>Matt Barber</td>
<td>Carrie Prejean</td>
<td>The reader</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Creepy (-)</td>
<td>Matt Barber</td>
<td>Perez Hilton</td>
<td>The reader</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Blubbering… baby (-)</td>
<td>Matt Barber</td>
<td>Perez Hilton</td>
<td>The reader</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hate-filled (-)</td>
<td>Matt Barber</td>
<td>Perez Hilton’s response</td>
<td>The reader</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mysoginistic (-)</td>
<td>Matt Barber</td>
<td>Perez Hilton’s response</td>
<td>The reader</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Disgraceful (-)</td>
<td>Matt Barber</td>
<td>Defense of Hilton’s response</td>
<td>The reader</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 2.2. Attitude parsing for Barber.

This table presents a clear picture of the alignments the author makes of discursive participants. On the one hand, the two evaluations of Carrie Prejean (“lovely” and “talented”) are positive. On the other, all evaluations of Perez Hilton, his acts of saying, and those whom the author aligns with him (“liberals,” “the media,” “organized homosexuality”) are negative. As explained below, these clear couplings of discursive participants and attitudinal polarities align the author with Carrie Prejean.

The author does not state his stance on gay marriage, so it cannot be inferred using Appraisal alone. However, Appraisal patterns can themselves be analyzed using rhetorical
and genre knowledge to infer the author’s stance. Specifically, the political opinion article, as a rhetorical public sphere genre, is known to be used to establish positions on public issues. As seems to be the case in this article, some positions are established not explicitly but implicitly via patterns of evaluation of discursive participants like the one above, where the author aligns with Carrie Prejean. This alignment centers on the public issue of gay marriage. Therefore, the genre-based assumption that larger issues are at stake in political opinion articles can be used to infer that the author’s alignment with Carrie Prejean also represents an alignment with the position she stands for, namely against gay marriage.

2.6.3. SUMMARY OF INTERPRETIVE PROCESSES
Using Appraisal and rhetorical analysis, this section has discussed text-processing principles and behaviors (skills/strategies), underpinning inferences about audience and authorial position. These processes operate both as sets of principles (e.g. rhetorical knowledge) and procedures (e.g. Appraisal and rhetorical analysis). These principles and procedures can become part of an individual’s interpretive repertoire. For pedagogical purposes, I would like to call these procedures “interpretive processes” and taxonomize them as shown in Table 2.3 below. Notice that the label “lexicogrammatical/textual” is used to describe the processes in the first column. I do so to highlight the fact that, even though these processes center on discrete lexicogrammar, the unit of analysis is the whole text. This is so because the purpose of the analysis is to uncover patterns of Appraisal giving coherence to the text by, for example, constructing an overall authorial position.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Lexicogrammatical/Textual</th>
<th>Rhetorical</th>
<th>Critical</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Identifying inscribed and invoked attitude</td>
<td>1. Characterizing authorial position(s)</td>
<td>1. ideological critique</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Identifying the polarity of inscribed and invoked attitude</td>
<td>2. Characterizing a text’s naturalized reading position</td>
<td>2. Meta-critical awareness</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Identifying patterns of attitudinal polarity</td>
<td>3. Characterizing the imagining of others</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Identifying patterns of attitude-participant coupling</td>
<td>4. Identifying taken-for-grantedness in unstated premises</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Identifying the scope of attitudinal language exponents</td>
<td>5. Characterizing the rhetorical strategies (persuasion or identification) performed by authors.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. Identifying and tracking instances of attribution and endorsement</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. Identifying and tracking taken-for-grantedness in nominalizations</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 2.3. Kinds of interpretive processes in this intervention.
and global reading position. Notice too that I group under “rhetorical processes” the same processes that Wallace (2003) claims are involved in ideological challenge, namely characterizations of authorial position, intention, and audience. From my perspective, these processes do not so much “challenge” ideology as help to discover its presence. To me, the word “challenge” goes beyond the potential discovery of ideology that can emerge from rhetorical interpretive processes such as analyses of unstated premises. “Challenge” involves opposition, evaluation, or defiance of ideology, not just discovery of aspects associated to it such as overall authorial position, global reading position, or ideal reader. I use the term “ideological critique” in Table 2.3 to describe these interpretive processes. I have also classified Wallace’s (2003) meta-critical awareness as a critical interpretive process.

From an analysis of Appraisal patterns such as the domination pattern explained above, readers can identify the value positions constructed by an author. Then, using identification and Toulmin analysis, they can reconstruct a text’s ideal reader. In doing so, readers begin to map the ideological landscape of the U.S. cultural context, and acquire skills that allow them to gather a significant amount of information about the text’s rhetorical situation, such as author position, ideal reader, and the rhetorical strategies employed by the author (identification in this case). This process is represented in Figure 2.6 below.

Figure 2.6. The process of reading transnational texts critically.
The process mapped in this figure is not to be taken as a representation of a general, universal reading process. Actual processes are not likely to be linear and may occur in many different manners depending on individual readers, specific texts, and particular reading situations. For example, readers with relevant CC2 background knowledge and an intention to critique ideology may proceed in a more top-down—here, right-to-left—fashion. Readers without CC2 knowledge but with genre and rhetorical knowledge may proceed, as it were, from the middle-down and from the middle-up.

This figure represents the processing of readers without these sources of knowledge. Findings from the pilot study and previous research suggest that the target population of Mexican college readers matches the kind of reader presumed by this bottom-up representation of the critical reading process. This is a reader without sufficient relevant background knowledge who can compensate for that lack by analyzing texts in the target genre using Appraisal Theory and rhetorical constructs.

Then, the representation in Figure 2.6 is to be taken as a heuristic tool to speculate about how a reader without relevant CC2 knowledge may use metalinguistic knowledge, genre knowledge, and rhetorical knowledge to compensate for such absence of background knowledge to make plausible, generative rhetorical inferences about texts in the target genre. The model also posits that such inferences can then be used to map ideal readers to IDF's and engage in ideological critique. Notice that the process is presented as recursive, and that any of the squares in the figure may serve as an entry point to the process.

The theoretical framework outlined above lays the foundation for a Vygotskyan approach to the teaching of critical reading. It does so by providing a set of meditational means and analytic procedures that render visible some interpretive processes involved in critical reading. These meditational means then act as psychological symbolic tools (Wertsch, 1983:12) to scaffold both the emergence of these interpretive processes in interaction and, through such interaction, their development in the learners’ cognition. This theoretical framework constitutes the instructional theory that underpins the design of the intervention used by this study and discussed in chapter four. A central goal of this qualitative case study is to explore and question this theoretical framework by
implementing and studying the emergence of the targeted interpretive processes during implementation.

The section below introduces the two perspectives framing these project’s assumptions about learning and ways to investigate it: Vygotskyan sociocultural theory and Complexity Theory (CT).

2.7. VYGOTSKYAN AND COMPLEXITY THEORY VIEWS ON READING
This section introduces the two theoretical perspectives framing this project’s research methods. The first of these perspectives, Vygotskyan sociocultural theory, or cultural-historical psychology, provides a working framework for theorizing how reading skills and strategies develop in individuals’ cognition in connection with social interaction. The second perspective, Complexity Theory (CT) expands Vygotskyan views of learning by offering a conceptual framework that helps to characterize and explain the relationships observed between classroom discourse and the observable manifestations of individual cognition (e.g. verbalizations of reading strategies, answers to comprehension exercises) across time.

From a Vygotskyan perspective, reading comprehension abilities are higher mental functions: humans are not genetically endowed with them; instead, they are the result of cultural development\(^\textsuperscript{14}\) in a society and of the reproduction of that development in individuals via socialization. To develop, higher mental functions require “meditational means” or tools that allow meaning to be negotiated (Werstch, 1993, 12). When teaching or learning reading, language itself in the form of classroom discourse, texts, and pedagogical aids such as worksheets, is the mediational means intervening in the collective mental action leading to the development of the higher mental functions of reading.

Sociocultural theory provides a way to theorize and study the ways that individuals’ learning is shaped by social interaction. Complexity Theory, a theoretical paradigm originating in the mathematical and life sciences, offers constructs that can usefully

\(^{14}\) In Vygotsky’s words, “sociohistorical” development.
complicate our understanding of the processes of internalization of socially mediated forms of cognition.

CT deals with systems that consist of the non-linear interaction of multiple components or sub-systems. Such systems are said to be complex, dynamic systems. Larsen-Freeman & Cameron (2008) posit that reading can be viewed as a complex, dynamic system as it displays characteristics of such systems. For example, instances of reading comprehension are not self-contained, permanent entities; rather, “they exist only through the fluxes that feed them, and they disappear or become moribund in the absence of such fluxes” (Larsen-Freeman & Cameron, 2008, p. 31). They emerge from changing patterns of interaction of the interpretive repertoire’s multiple components or subsystems, which can themselves be complex and are influenced by other motivational, affective, and environmental factors. They are non-linear, i.e. observable behaviors in comprehension do not stem neatly from a linear cause-effect chain; accordingly, modifications at any entry point in the system may diffuse along multiple lines or sub-systems and have unpredictable effects in the behavior of the whole; for example, the parsing and interpretation of a sentence is not merely syntactic or semantic response to a local piece of text but also a product of factors such as motivation, reading position, interactions with others, and the emerging representation of the text as a whole. They are “open” in the sense that they do not have fixed boundaries: the representation of a text in cognition continues to change and be influenced by text-external factors even after a specific act of reading is over. They are dynamic and adaptable, i.e. in constant change due in part to the contextual forces exerting pressure on the system’s components; for example, the introduction of a new curriculum that makes unusual demands from the interpretive repertoire may lead the repertoire to adjust to those environmental pressure and produce new interpretive behaviors.

CT is chiefly interested in describing changes in complex systems by reconstructing their trajectory across time from a provisional endpoint backward. This process is called retrodiction (Larsen-Freeman & Cameron, 2008). CT posits that retrodiction is a more useful way than prediction to study complex systems due to the large “unknowableness” factor in complex systems (Larsen-Freeman & Cameron, 2008).
When two systems interact, changes in them can be described using the concept of emergence, or changes in one system that can be traced non-linearly to changes in another system (Larsen-Freeman & Cameron, 2008, 59). This study focuses on the emergence of targeted processes in participants’ interpretive repertoires (defined above) in connection with the introduction of a new curriculum with unfamiliar—for the group of learners I targeted, that is—reading comprehension tasks. Emergence is conceptually similar to the Vygotskyan conception of the affordances of interaction Zone of Proximal Development, or ZPD. In contrast with the Vygotskyan conception of the ZPD, however, emergence emphasizes not only the online, moment-by-moment surge of new forms of cognitive activity in interaction, but also the possibility that such cognitive activity might develop (or not) across time in non-linear, unexpected ways as it continues to interact with the social environment.

Two CT constructs are useful in investigating the emergence of new behaviors in a system: attractor states and control parameters. Attractor states are “particular modes of behaviors that the system prefers” (Larsen-Freeman & Cameron, 2008, 49). An example of an attractor state occurs when, for example, less proficient readers attempt to use top-down strategies, such as looking at headings and subheadings, when they have difficulty processing the lexicogrammar of a text, or merely as a default strategy because they have been taught to do so. This strategic behavior causes the interpretive repertoire to behave differently, to configure its resources differently, than it would if a different strategy was followed.

Control parameters are elements in a system that “have a particular influence [on] the collective behavior of the system” (Larsen-Freeman & Cameron, 2008, 53). Examples of control parameters in education include motivation and teachers’ actions and intentions as they may push classroom discourse and student learning in new directions. Control parameters are important in complex systems because “if they can be identified, then we know what drives the system and are able to intervene” to produce desired changes (Larsen-Freeman & Cameron, 2008, 54). Together, the concepts of attractor state and control parameter offer valuable heuristic metaphors to explore learning phenomena.

The section below discusses the perspective on the location of meaning that informs this dissertation study. Then, the final section of this chapter connects the instructional
theory outlined above with the learning needs identified in the pilot study motivating this project.

2.8. SOME REMARKS ON THE LOCATION OF MEANING

Generally speaking, there are two dichotomous positions on the location of meaning: either meaning resides exclusively in texts, or meaning resides exclusively in readers’ interpretations. A text linguistics semiotic perspective (e.g. Eco, 1990; Fiorin, 1997) posits that texts hold meaning and restrict the interpretive possibilities available to readers. The same perspective, however, considers text meaning to always be contextually bound by variables such as time, discourse community, rhetorical purposes, and so on (Fiorin, 1997). This is the perspective I align with.

Nevertheless, it cannot be denied that meaning issues from text-reader interaction (Motta-Roth, 1997). Clearly, the same text can provoke diverging interpretations and reactions in different readers. Acknowledging this fact, I suggest that the dichotomy above can be overcome by positing the existence of two distinct but related levels of interpretation: a level of text representation that corresponds to the textbase in the C-I model, and a level of text reception/appreciation that roughly corresponds to the C-I situation model.

At the level of representation, or textbase, meaning is derived from the lexicogrammar of a text. To the extent that speakers of a language share in the tacit agreement that assigns more-or-less stable meanings to that language’s lexicogrammar, texts restrict the range of meanings that can be plausibly derived from them. This is not to say that readers will always parse meaning in the ways that linguistic conventions would predict. At this level, readers can build either text-congruent or text-incongruent representations of meaning. Text-congruent representations, however, are preferable for reasons explained below.

Consider the paragraphs from Wendland below addressing the issue of Republican policies and discourse vis-à-vis undocumented migrants in the U.S.

President Bush’s proposal to militarize the US-Mexico border with the already overstretched National Guard may be a precursor for more dangerous policies
down the road. At best Bush’s announced plan is a blatant pandering gesture to extremists in his party that want drastic action. Since the recent emergence of politically charged public debate on immigration reform, however, some right-wing pundits have fully opened the valves and are letting their noxious bile spew forth unchecked and uncensored.

At the level of representation, this text clearly encodes Wendland’s attitude toward George W. Bush’s proposal (“dangerous”) and “right-wing pundits” (“are letting their noxious bile spew forth”). A representation that Wendland is in favor of right-wing pundits, holds favorable views of G.W. Bush’s immigration policies, or is racist against immigrants would be incongruent with the text’s lexicogrammatically encoded meanings. Most readers of English that read the text carefully would probably agree that a reader who built such a representation would severely distort the text’s meaning.

At the level of reception/appreciation, meaning issues not only from the text’s lexicogrammar and readers’ faithfulness to it, but also from readers’ emotional and evaluative reactions to it. These reactions are themselves systematically related to readers’ positions in the social structure: we read as liberals, conservatives, blue-collar workers, professors, CEOs, gendered persons, and so on. For example, readers who sympathize with the characters and positions judged negatively by Wendland and build a text-congruent representation of his text, would most likely judge him and his views negatively. By contrast, readers who do not sympathize with those characters and positions and do build a text-congruent representation will judge Wendland and his views favorably.

There can be consequences to developing text-incongruent representations. For the sake of argument, picture a Republican reader holding anti-immigrant views who builds a non-congruent representation of Wendland (i.e. understood that he favors the positions on immigration taken by the Bush administration, Glenn Beck, and the other Republican figures he derides). She might appreciate positively what she takes to be Wendland’s message. If Wendland ran for public office, this hypothetical reader might vote for him based on her text-incongruent representation of this text. That sympathy, however, would be unfounded. As a result, her political choice would be misguided, and her expectations from Wendland wouldn’t be fulfilled. This hypothetical and admittedly unlikely example
illustrates some of the potential consequences of readers’ building text-incongruent representations.

2.9. CONCLUDING REMARKS
This dissertation study proposes that Appraisal Theory offers a working model of lexicogrammatical-textual processing that represents some of the language-processing skills and strategies involved in critical reading. It also proposes that rhetorical constructs and analytic procedures such as analysis of rhetorical strategies, analysis of hidden premises, and analyses of the audiences constructed by textual choices, afford semiotic means to understanding critical reading skills and strategies. From a compensatory perspective, these lexicogrammar- and discourse-focused interpretive processes can be deployed strategically by readers to compensate for lacunae in background knowledge when reading unfamiliar, CC2 texts. As discussed above, these interpretive processes also hold potential to promote imaginings of Others, ideological critique and metacritical awareness, which are important aspects of global cultural consciousness. When coupled with the critical reading needs of Mexican readers of transnational texts that were identified in chapter one, they provide a theorization of learning needs, outcomes, and instruction.

Drawing on Edelson’s (2002) framework for design-based research, Table 2.4 in the next page presents a summative description of the learning needs, or problem analysis, identified as a result of the pilot study. They are coupled with the learning outcomes that I have established as desirable in connection with those needs. Together, these learning needs and outcomes constitute the intervention’s underlying learning theory. Then, these outcomes are presented along with the target interpretive processes and field knowledge that, as explained above and as represented in Figure 2.6, are hypothesized to be effective in addressing the problems identified in the problem analysis in a manner that will produce the desired outcomes. I refer to these theoretical means to achieve the desired outcomes as the intervention’s instructional theory.

The next chapter presents the methods that were used to investigate the emergence of the interpretive processes and field knowledge that I chose to target. Then, chapter four
reproduces and further elaborates upon the learning needs, outcomes, and instructional theory above and describes the specific curriculum that I designed in response to them.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Problem Analysis / Learning Needs</th>
<th>Learning Outcomes</th>
<th>Means to outcome / instructional theory</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Difficulty in identifying attitude patterns in target genre</td>
<td>• Participants will be able to identify and parse attitude patterns</td>
<td>• Analysis of inscribed and invoked attitude and scope/domination patterns (Attitude analysis)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>• Oral scaffolding (questions/comments)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Difficulty in inferring authorial position</td>
<td>• Participants will be able to infer authorial position</td>
<td>• Attitude analysis</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Construction of incomplete, implausible representations of authorial</td>
<td>• Participants will develop a habit to scrutinize and parse Appraisal patterns in</td>
<td>• Attitude analysis</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>text, and identify patterns of global Appraisal coherence (scope/domination)</td>
<td>• Oral scaffolding</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Difficulty in identifying source alignment</td>
<td>• Participants will be able to identify authorial alignment of sources</td>
<td>• Analysis of attribution options in the engagement system</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>• Oral scaffolding</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Difficulty in identifying ideology and situating ideological</td>
<td>• Participants will be able to infer global reading positions and ideological</td>
<td>• Toulmin analysis</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>positions within the discursive field of US culture</td>
<td>• Analysis of imaginings of the nation and social groups represented in texts</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Participants will engage in ideological critique</td>
<td>• Analysis of rhetorical strategies (persuasion vs. identification)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>• Ideological critique</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>• Declarative knowledge of US IDFs and institutions</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 2.4. Theorization of learning needs, outcomes, and instruction for the target population.
CHAPTER THREE
RESEARCH CONTEXT AND METHODS

This exploratory, qualitative, CT-inspired case study examines the emergence of rhetorical inferencing and critical reading abilities in Mexican college-level EFL readers in the context of the implementation of a curricular intervention. This chapter discusses the methods used to investigate the emergence of target interpretive processes in participating students. These include the instruments and methods used to collect, mine, and analyze classroom interaction data. The theoretical and pragmatic principles used in the selection, sequencing, and design of pedagogical tools such as texts, questions, and discourse organizers are discussed in chapter four. The research questions addressed by the study, presented in chapter one, are reproduced below.

1. What patterns of interpretive processes emerge in students’ written and oral classroom discourse?
2. What control parameters and attractor states operate in the emergence of target interpretive processes?
3. What SFL and rhetoric metalinguistic terms are produced by the students in oral and written discourse?
   3.1. How do students represent the role of metalanguage in learning how to read the target texts critically?
4. What differences exist between students’ pre- and post-intervention articulated understandings of the U.S. cultural context and critical reading?
5. How do the results of the intervention’s implementation inform the theories of learning and instruction underlying the intervention?

3.1. OVERVIEW OF THE DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY
This is an exploratory, qualitative intervention case study that explores the learning affordances of a pedagogical intervention designed to teach critical reading to the target population of Mexican, college-level EFL readers. Creswell (1998) defines case study as “an exploration of a ‘bounded system’ or a case over time through detailed, in depth data collection involving multiple sources of information rich in context” (61). This definition is consistent with CT’s emphasis on studying change in complex systems through time.

According to Yin (2003), a case study approach is appropriate for an exploratory study where many variables, some of them unknown, are at play in influencing participants’ observable, targeted behaviors. Indeed, a goal of the study is to explore such behaviors and unknown influences and generate hypotheses that attempt both to explain those phenomena for the intervention’s specific context and to inform the intervention’s underlying instructional and learning theories. These contextualized theory-generating goals are consistent with the orientation of qualitative research toward generating substantive theory, that is, a set of concepts and hypotheses that account for a substantive area or specific real-world situation such as concrete educational settings (Glasser & Strauss, 1967; Darkenwald, 1980). In this case, the concrete educational setting is a discourse analysis class at a Mexican university.

The study participants were 27 students in a written discourse analysis class of the B.A. in Modern Languages at the University of Southern Mexico (USM, a pseudonym). The intervention was implemented as part of an undergraduate discourse analysis course that the students were required to take during the months of July and August of 2010. I had originally planned to work with a selected group advanced EFL learners. However, it was not possible to do this due to USM-imposed restrictions that the intervention had to be implemented with an existing class and group of students. USM did not allow me to select which students would be enrolled in the discourse analysis class, so it was necessary to work with all the students that enrolled in it.

The data sources in this study can be classified in three kinds: pre-intervention, during-intervention, and post-intervention. The first kind of data source pertains to the pre-intervention conditions of the students’ reading beliefs and abilities and includes 1) Hernandez’s (2008) questionnaire of epistemic beliefs about reading, 2) a reading habits
questionnaire (found in appendix two), 3) PISA-English version\textsuperscript{15} reading test scores, 4) participants’ pre-intervention written reflections on U.S. culture, and 5) participants’ pre-intervention written definitions of critical reading. The second kind of data was collected during the implementation of the intervention and consists of 1) video-recordings of classroom lessons during implementation, 2) audio-recordings of small group interaction during implementation, 3) students’ assessments of their background knowledge of text topics, 4) students’ written answers to critical reading questions (worksheet 6, appendix two) focusing on authorial purpose and audience, 5) students’ completed discourse organizers (DOs) for each of the target texts, and 6) students’ written and oral feedback on aspects of the intervention. Post-intervention data sources included 1) students’ post-intervention written reflections on U.S. culture and critical reading, and 2) students’ anonymous feedback on the impact of the intervention on their reading practices. The first written reflections were collected on day one of the intervention. Then, the remaining data sources were collected during implementation of the intervention in the months of July and August of 2010.

The use of multiple data sources enhances the study’s trustworthiness in two ways. First, it affords a thick description of the case being studied that potentially contributes to the transferability of its findings. According to Denzin and Lincoln (1994) transferability refers to the extent to which a qualitative researcher’s working hypotheses and findings can be applied to another setting. Transferability is achieved by providing rich descriptions of a setting and data. Second, the use of several data sources enables the triangulation of data sources, which is a means to enhancing the confidence and credibility of qualitative research findings (Lincoln & Guba, 1985).

The logic of inquiry guiding this intervention is rooted in Complexity Theory (CT), and specifically, in the constructs of emergence and retrodiction. From a CT perspective, the term emergence refers to changes in complex systems across time that can be traced non-linearly to changes in other adjacent or related systems (Larsen-Freeman & Cameron, \textsuperscript{15} PISA stands for “Program for International Student Assessment.” This program is run by the Organization for Cooperation and Economic Development (OCED), and it consists of administering standardized tests in math, science, and reading to K-12 students in OCED countries. There are versions of these tests written in the different languages of OCED countries. The English version of the PISA reading test was administered to the students participating in this study as a way to obtain an indication of their English-L2 reading ability.}
In this case, the critical reading intervention proposed by the study diverges from the typical pedagogical practices of EFL reading in the target setting. It is hypothesized that this new pedagogy introduces “new” aspects in the learning environment that in turn lead to changes in the participating students’ interpretive repertoires. Such “new” aspects include the target texts, discourse organizers, analytic procedures, and questioning strategies; they are “new” in the sense that participating students are unlikely to be familiar with them and thus they constitute a change in their teaching-learning ecology. Such a change may create unfamiliar demands on students’ interpretive repertoires, which in turn may adapt by re-organizing existing interpretive processes and adding new elements to their interpretive repertoires in order to meet the environmental pressures introduced by the intervention.

As Larsen-Freeman (2007) has pointed out, CT is interested in retrodiction, or the retrospective description of the trajectory of a system “from which we try to reconstruct the elements, interactions, and change processes of the system” (Larsen-Freeman & Cameron, 2008, p. 231). This emphasis on retrodiction comes from the realization that complex systems involve a large “unknowableness” factor: the non-linearity of complex system such as individuals’ interpretive repertoires, and the invisibility of forces leading them to certain attractor states, make them “unpredictable in the conventional sense of predictability” (Larsen-Freeman & Cameron, 231). Thus, change in complex systems and the forces leading to it can be described only retrospectively, which is “the central goal of a complexity approach” (Larsen-Freeman & Cameron, 231).

This study focuses on learning processes and on retrospective accounts of changes that seek to describe a) unpredicted learning behaviors, and b) the process of emergence of the interpretive processes that I chose to target in my capacity as curriculum designer. I looked for evidence of unpredicted learning behaviors by using the concepts of attractor state and control parameter as heuristic tools that allow the researcher to look for traces of learners’ prior discursive experiences in their emerging interpretations of texts. I sought evidence of emergence in chronological changes in learners’ written and oral responses to questions focusing on authorial intent and audience, and in connections between those changes and aspects of the pedagogical intervention.
A mixture of summative content analysis and directed content analysis (Hsie & Shannon, 2005, explained in detail below) was used to mine and code the data sources consisting of student discourse: audio and video recordings, answers to worksheet questions, pre- and post-intervention written reflection on the U.S. cultural context and critical reading, and student feedback. For video and audio data in particular, a simple transcript was first produced. Then, interesting segments were identified using directed content analysis. Once interesting segments had been identified in the simple transcript, those segments were re-transcribed using some Jeffersonian conventions and further analyzed using the coding scheme explained below. Once the data set had been coded and relevant instances had been selected and analyzed, I looked for evidence of disconfirming cases by reading the data set several more times and considering alternative interpretations. When no more disconfirming cases or alternative procedures could be found, the analysis was considered “complete” for the limited purposes of this dissertation project. This procedure, called negative case analysis, also contributes to enhancing the study’s trustworthiness (Padgett, 1998; Strauss & Corbin, 1990).

The next section addresses the study setting and participants. Then, the following sections describe the participating students, the data sources, and the data mining and analysis methods.

3.2. SETTING
The setting of this study is the B.A. in Modern Languages at the University of Southern Mexico (USM, a pseudonym). USM is the largest public university in the state of Tabasco, which is located on the southeastern coast of the Gulf of Mexico. The state of Tabasco consistently ranks lowest in K-12 reading achievement amongst all thirty-one Mexican states (Díaz Gutiérrez, Flores Vázquez & Martínez Rizo, 2006).

USM’s BA in Modern Languages is a twenty-year old program with an enrollment of 1,126 full-time and part-time students as of January of 2009. Its staff consists of seven full-time tenured Professors and fifty-two, non-tenure track hourly lecturers. Only one of the Professors holds a doctorate. Of the remaining six, two hold MAs and the rest only BAs. Three of the hourly lecturers hold M.Ed. degrees, and six more are completing requirements toward a MA in English Language Teaching recently created by USM in
collaboration with the British Council. The rest of the hourly lecturers hold BAs awarded by USM itself. According to Garza & Minami (2010), the hourly lecturers teach most of the courses and often hold three or more jobs. They describe their teaching conditions as very stressful.

In an effort to further characterize the explicit L1 and L2 reading teaching practices in this setting, interview data from Perales-Escudero, Hernández, and De Ita (in press) are discussed below. In this study, key informants were interviewed with regard to their views and practices regarding the teaching of reading in English and Spanish in the BA in Modern Languages. The informants in that study were a) Professor Georgina Cinzontle (a pseudonym), Professor Emerita and former director of the BA in Modern Languages, b) Carla and Erika, lecturers who teach both general EFL and content area courses such as semantics, ESL methods, second language acquisition, and phonology, and c) Daniel, the instructor for the course “Lectura Intensiva en Español” or “Intensive Reading in Spanish.” All names are pseudonyms.

According to Professor Cinzontle, the British Council has provided consultancy in curriculum design for this BA program and has been involved both intensively and extensively in instructor training. This training prepares students in the BA to teach primarily oral skills, while much less attention is devoted to the teaching of literacy skills or to the development of trainee’s own advanced literacy. Professor Cinzontle’s assertions resonate with Busseniers’ (2009) claims that an emphasis on oracy over literacy is prevalent in Mexican EFL education. Professor Cinzontle also confirmed that the trainees are generally exposed to the kind of top-down model of teaching reading comprehension that Han & D’Angelo (2007) find to be prevalent in EFL teaching around the world. According to Professor Cinzontle, this is the approach that the British Council passes on to trainers (professor and lecturers in the BA program):

I think the Federal government just told the Council (.) that what was needed was practical people (.) people who could provide services to tourists (.) rather than people who could advance knowledge (.) so we ended up with this (.) way of teaching that’s (.) mostly (.) pre-teaching vocabulary and giving background knowledge (.) but we have seen that DOESN’T help students
Interviews with Carla and Erika, the EFL instructors, confirmed Professor Cinzontle’s views of the situation: when asked how they teach reading comprehension, these teachers said they pre-teach key vocabulary, provide or elicit background knowledge, and sometimes teach students to predict content from pictures or titles in EFL textbooks. They do not address issues of lexicogrammar, register, or genre, and do not attempt to teach reading comprehension explicitly in content-area courses that they also teach. They explained that their students have difficulty reading academic texts in English, which sometimes leads Carla and Erika to not assign any reading and explain all content orally instead.

Daniel (a pseudonym), the instructor for the course “Lectura Intensiva en Español” (Intensive Reading in Spanish) was asked how he teaches L1 reading. He replied by saying that he uses a book teaching an approach known in Spanish as “lectura bustrófeda,” which consists of moving one’s finger in a zigzag motion from the top to the bottom of a page and following that finger with one’s eyes while trying to take in as many words on the page as possible. He did not remember the name of the textbook he uses and did not at the time provide a copy of the syllabus for his class. He indicated that the one book that is read during the class is a Spanish translation of “Essays on Blindness,” a novel by Portuguese Nobel Prize winner José Saramago. Students who participated in this study confirmed that this was precisely the kind of instruction they received, and it was also the only explicit L1 reading instruction they received in college.

These kinds of L1 and L2 reading instruction contrast with the literacy needs suggested by Professor Cinzontle, Erika, and Carla above and by the results of a couple of reading-focused studies conducted with the target population. In an extensive survey of students’ reading habits conducted in 2005, students in this BA program reported not being used to reading academic or journalistic texts (Garza Pulido & Arellano Quintanar, 2005). A recent study (Perales-Escudero, 2010) found that approximately two thirds of the BA in Modern Languages students in the study’s sample failed to draw plausible inferences of authorial intent in a Spanish-language PISA test short story when those inferences required processing attitudinal language. These studies, while limited in number and scope, suggest that the needs of this population are similar to those identified
for the UCM population with whom the pilot study was conducted. Information about the specific participants in this dissertation study is provided in the next section.

3.3. THE CLASS AND THE PARTICIPANTS

The intervention was implemented in the context of a 45-hour summer course in written discourse analysis. The syllabus specifies that the class should meet during three three-hour meetings per week for a period of five weeks in the months of July and August. However, it is common practice that classes start fifteen minutes after the hour, end fifteen minutes before the hour, and stop for a 20-minute break in the middle. Further, in the last week of classes a school-wide festival was held that required the participation of most of the students in the class, which resulted in a substantial reduction of instructional time during that week. As a result, the actual total amount of instructional time was closer to 25 hours.

The participants in the study were the 27 students enrolled in the class. At the time of enrollment, they did not know that the class was going to be the setting for this study. The reason for this is that the university’s decision to allow use of the class as a research setting occurred after enrollment. Nevertheless, all students gave their consent to become participants. Absenteeism was prevalent during the intervention, so the actual number of participants present in any given class varied from 20 to 26. Further, the fact that enrollment could not be influenced by the researcher resulted in having participants with mixed abilities, several of whom were not at the target proficiency level of advanced learners of English. This meant that explanations and instructions often had to be repeated in Spanish to groups of less proficient participants. Nevertheless, a decision was made to include the data from less proficient participants when relevant because this enhances the ecological validity of the study: mixed ability groups are the norm in the target setting.

During the first week of classes, the English version of the released reading section of the Program for International Student Assessment (PISA) test was administered to participants in order to have a descriptor of their English reading ability. They were also asked to complete Hernández’s (2008) implicit theories of reading (ITR) questionnaire as a way to provide some initial understanding of their ability to read the target genre critically. My reading of Hernández’ taxonomy is that the readers described as
constructive should be able to read critically as these readers, unlike interpretive and reproductive ones, engage in evaluative practices when reading.

The PISA test was graded on a 16-point scale according to the guidelines accompanying the online released version of this test (INECSE, 2005). Students getting 14 points and above were considered to be of higher English reading proficiency, whereas students getting less than 14 points were considered to be less proficient. This cut-off point was established arbitrarily. Fourteen students were identified as HP and thirteen as LP.

Following the guidelines in Hernández (2008), students’ ITR questionnaires were marked with the letters C, I, or R according to whether they represented a Constructivist, Interpretive, or Receptive-Reproductive view of reading. The results of the PISA test and the implicit theories of reading questionnaires are summarized in Table 3.2. below. Note that HP stands for “higher English proficiency” and LP stands for “lower English proficiency.” All student names are pseudonyms.

As shown in Table 3.1 below, 14 of 27 participants are classified as HP per the arbitrary cut-off point described above. Continued oral interaction with the participants during implementation, however, suggests a more complicated picture of overall proficiency (rather than just reading proficiency).

Specifically, Laura, a HP/I in the classification above, is the most advanced learner: she commands an impressive lexical repertoire despite not having lived in an English-speaking country, can talk with ease about any school-related topic, and is an avid reader of young-adult fiction in English. She always came to class with one or more novels in that genre under her arm. From my interactions with them, Jaime, Luis (Laura’s boyfriend), Karen, Martha, Octavia, and Roberto also seemed to be more advanced learners of English than other students described as HP above. In general, they were willing to talk more for longer periods of time and also display what I perceive as a larger lexicon and target-like morphosyntax.

A majority of participants (15) are interpretive readers according to Hernández’s questionnaire. What this means is that they articulate an understanding that comprehension is subjective and the same text can produce different interpretations in
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Name</th>
<th>PISA</th>
<th>Proficiency</th>
<th>ITR</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Luis</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>HP</td>
<td>C</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Martha</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>HP</td>
<td>I</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Karen</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>HP</td>
<td>I</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Laura</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>HP</td>
<td>I</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Noelia</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>HP</td>
<td>RR</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Roberto</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>HP</td>
<td>RR</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Jaime</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>HP</td>
<td>I</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Patricia</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>HP</td>
<td>I</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mildred</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>HP</td>
<td>RR</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Octavia</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>HP</td>
<td>I</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Angela</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>HP</td>
<td>RR</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nayeli</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>HP</td>
<td>I</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Migdalia</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>HP</td>
<td>I</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gustavo</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>HP</td>
<td>I</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Alfredo</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>LP</td>
<td>I</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Melissa</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>LP</td>
<td>RR</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gladys</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>LP</td>
<td>I</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Leila</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>LP</td>
<td>I</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Yesenia</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>LP</td>
<td>RR</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Clara</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>LP</td>
<td>I</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ana</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>LP</td>
<td>RR</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Julia</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>LP</td>
<td>I</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Brígida</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>LP</td>
<td>RR</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Alejandra</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>LP</td>
<td>RR</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nadya</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>LP</td>
<td>I</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>María</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>LP</td>
<td>RR</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Isabel</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>LP</td>
<td>I</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 3.1. Participants’ PISA scores, proficiency descriptors, and ITR descriptors.

different readers even if they do not report engaging in evaluations of the text.\(^{16}\) To me, this ability suggests that these participants are likely to attempt rhetorical inferences about texts’ social/rhetorical context. A large minority (11) of the participants are Receptive-

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\(^{16}\) Classification in categories in the ITR questionnaire is not based on scores (it’s a qualitative questionnaire), but on the kinds of answers participants give to the questions “what does it mean to understand a text?”, “are there different ways of understanding texts?”, “can the same text generate the same interpretation in different readers?” and “what’s the function of texts?” Students who construe texts as having one single interpretation and represent their function as the transmission of information are
Reproductive readers. According to Hernández’s description of this category in his taxonomy, these participants think texts always produce the same interpretations and do not interrogate the veracity of texts or attempt to place them in a social/rhetorical context. Only one participant, Luis, was a constructive reader according to his ITR and can be predicted to engage in, for example, ideological critique of texts.

Participants also completed two reading habits questionnaires, found in appendix two. In general, the results of this questionnaire show that most participants are not familiar with or interested in reading the target genre of political opinion texts. Martha is the only exception as she reports reading political opinion articles and news reports occasionally. The kinds of texts that a majority of them report reading are school texts and short stories. They tend to evaluate the reading of school material as something they do hastily and without motivation, while reading short stories is interesting and fun for them. They do not report doing any kind of online reading, and do not read newspapers. Interestingly, when I asked them how they would read a hypothetical letter from the University’s President explaining a tuition increase, 24 participants responded they would not read it. These responses suggest that these students as a whole are not interested in literacy as a means of participation in civic life and might thus be unlikely to engage in the kinds of rhetorical and critical processing of texts that such participation entails. However, the findings from the ITR questionnaire, which place most students as interpretive, suggest that they might engage in one specific form of processing, namely imagining different interpretive possibilities for the same text. According to the same questionnaire, only one student, Luis, is likely to engage in ideological critique. The next section explains the data collection procedures for each individual source.

3.4. DATA SOURCES AND ANALYTIC PROCEDURES
The sub-sections below address the specific data sources for this study.

3.4.1. KNOWLEDGE AND FAMILIARITY QUESTIONS

classified as Receptive-Reproductive. Students who indicate that comprehension is a subjective experience and that texts can have multiple interpretations and functions are classified as Interpretive. Students who, in addition to the interpretive functions, indicate that one of the functions of texts is to be evaluated or critiqued are classified as Constructive.
In order to be able to make some claims about the participating students’ ability to make generative rhetorical inferences despite insufficient background knowledge, participants were asked to rate their level of familiarity with and knowledge about the intervention texts’ topics using a Likert-type scale. They were also asked specific questions about key ideational knowledge items such as names of article authors and names of persons and pieces of legislation mentioned by authors in the target texts. An example of this instrument can be found in appendix two, worksheets 4 and 7. The purpose of doing this was to have some descriptors of participants’ background knowledge. Their answers were used to make tentative statements about their degree of background knowledge on a given topic as a way to frame the presentation and interpretation of classroom data. It should be emphasized that these questionnaires do not constitute a formal measurement of background knowledge. My interpretations of their results should be taken with the appropriate measure of caution.

3.4.2. STUDENT DISCOURSE DATA
By “student discourse data” I mean data sources containing student-generated oral and written discourse: transcripts of classroom and small group interaction, students’ written answers to worksheet questions, students’ feedback, and students’ written reflection on the U.S. cultural context and critical reading. These data sources are discussed together because they were mined using summative content analysis (Hsieh & Shannon, 2005) and analyzed with a common coding scheme that was developed using directed qualitative analysis (Hsieh & Shannon, 2005). While students’ completed DOs are also part of student-produced discourse, they were analyzed differently. DO and DO analysis are then reported in a different section. Below, the individual data sources in this section are described. Then, the data recording, mining and analysis procedures are described in detail.

3.4.2.1. VIDEO AND AUDIO DATA
During intervention, instruction was digitally videotaped with a domestic digital video-camera. Small group interaction was in some cases videotaped and in some cases audio-recorded with a voice recorder. All these recordings were digitized. Recordings were
reproduced using Windows Media Player© and simple transcripts were produced in Microsoft Word ©. It is worth noting that only a couple of the small group recordings were of sufficient quality to be used effectively.

3.4.2.2. PARTICIPANTS’ WRITTEN ANSWERS TO CRITICAL READING QUESTIONS

A critical reading questions worksheet was given to participants after reading each text. The worksheet’s questions referred to authorial position and target audience. This is worksheet 6 in appendix two. Participants were instructed to use the language they felt most comfortable with when answering these questions, either English or Spanish. Participants’ answers were analyzed using manifest content analysis (Erickson, 2006) for what they could reveal about evolving understandings of and abilities to infer authorial position, global reading position, and ideal readers.

3.4.2.3. PARTICIPANTS’ WRITTEN REFLECTIONS ON CRITICAL READING AND U.S. CULTURE

During day one of the intervention, participants were asked to free-write about their views on U.S. culture and their understanding of critical reading. The prompt used was “when you think of U.S. culture, what sorts of things come to your mind?” and “when you think of critical reading, what sorts of things come to your mind?” At the end of the intervention they were asked to write on these topics again using the same prompts. In both cases, they were given the choice to use the language they felt most comfortable with. Participants’ answers were analyzed using inductive qualitative analysis (Patton, 2002): themes emerging from the data were identified and categorized and interpretations for these were sought.

3.4.2.4. STUDENTS’ FEEDBACK

17 By making reference to “U.S. culture” in the singular, I might have inadvertently re-inforced the very reification of national culture that I was trying to resist. This faux-pas of mine speaks to the strength of such reification and the difficulties involved in moving away from it to a more pluralistic and nuanced representation of the relationship between culture and nation.
As the intervention was being implemented, participants were asked to provide feedback on their learning experience as a means to further characterize the emergence of the interpretive processes I targeted. An example of the instrument used to collect this feedback can be found in appendix two. This ongoing feedback wasn’t anonymous because I, as a teacher, wanted to be able to explore variations in the answers of LP and HP students.

Besides that kind of feedback, at the end of the intervention I asked students to anonymously answer the following three questions: “Would you recommend this class to a friend? Why or why not? What suggestions do you have for improving this class? Has what you learned in this class influenced the ways you read other texts? If so, explain how.” Students were asked to type and print their answers without including their names so that they could not be identified by their handwriting. Students’ answers were analyzed using a combination of summative and directed qualitative analysis. On the one hand, the data were analyzed using pre-determined coding categories (explained below) for what they could reveal about changes in their interpretive repertoires in connection with the intervention. On the other, themes emerging from the data not fitting into those categories were identified and categorized as well.

3.4.3. DATA MINING AND ANALYSIS PROCEDURE

Students’ written discourse—e.g. written answers to questions, feedback, pre- and post-intervention reflections—was organized in an Excel book where it was entered into spreadsheets according to date, source type (e.g. answer to worksheet question vs. written reflection vs. anonymous feedback), and student name where applicable.

After all student discourse data sources had been digitized, summative content analysis was used to make a first pass at the data. According to Hsieh and Shannon (2005), summative content analysis consists of looking for and counting instance of keywords in text data; once located, the surrounding text can be analyzed for latent themes. In this case, I used a mixture of regular reading and using the automated search functions of Microsoft Word and Microsoft Excel to mine the data for the following terms: culture, ideal reader, target audience, polarity, attitude, align, author position, contract, expand, persuasion, identification. As I found these terms in the Word and Excel files, I read the
surrounding co-text and began to code printed versions of the files/texts according to the following coding categories that I, in my capacity as investigator, decided would be of interest according to the theoretical framework that I put together and explained in chapter two: ATTITUDE PARSING, POLARITY, ENGAGEMENT, IMPLICIT AUTHORIAL POSITION, GLOBAL READING POSITION, IDEAL READER, RHETORICAL STRATEGIES, IDEOLOGICAL CRITIQUE, META-CRITICAL AWARENESS, CULTURE-AS-DISCOURSE. Because I wanted the coding to remain flexible, I added new categories as they emerged. One new category that emerged was METACOGNITION and it was found only in the anonymous feedback data. Other categories that emerged in students’ definitions of critical reading were RHETORICAL INFERENCES, USING TEXTUAL EVIDENCE, ANALYSIS, and GIVING ONE’S OPINION. This kind of coding that begins with pre-determined categories from a theory but allows for new ones has been called directed qualitative coding (Hsieh & Shannon, 2005).

According to Hsieh and Shannon, one of the main purposes of directed qualitative coding is to validate or extend a conceptual framework or theory. In this case, the conceptual framework I intend to extend and whose validity I seek to explore is that outlined in chapter two. By “validity” in the previous sentence I mean the extent to which qualitative evidence shows whether my learning theory matches the needs in the setting and whether my instructional theory scaffolds the kinds of interpretive processes in the manner I expect. Recall that the main points of this theoretical framework posit that readers with insufficient background knowledge can make plausible generative rhetorical inferences by using Appraisal and rhetorical analyses to read political opinion texts closely.

Once the relevant themes had been identified, I looked for the following properties in the themes: PLAUSIBILITY, IMPLAUSIBILITY, DIFFICULTY, EASE/CONTROL, CHANGE ACROSS TIME, PERSISTENCE ACROSS TIME, PERSISTENCE ACROSS DATA SOURCES. These properties are predicated upon CT’s concern with the chronological dimension of emergence, and my expectation coming from the pilot study and problem analysis was that students would experience difficulties reading and analyzing the texts and would produce implausible interpretations. A chief interest of the
study is to identify those instances of difficulty and implausible interpretations in order to examine their potential sources in an effort to develop pedagogical treatments.

I read the printed version of the digitized student discourse and conducted word searches several times in order to look for other patterns and disconfirming evidence. Besides this procedure, other specific procedures were followed for specific data sources. These are explained below.

In transcripts of oral data, once relevant segments had been identified using the coding above, they were further transcribed using some Jeffersonian conventions.\(^\text{18}\) The resulting Jeffersonian transcripts were analyzed for the presence of attractor states and control parameters in students’ emerging interpretations of texts. I did this in an effort to examine the sources of students’ (im)plausible interpretations and difficulties so that they can be theorized and so that a foundation for future pedagogical treatment can be established.

Plausible and implausible answers to worksheet questions focusing on authorial position and global reading position were quantified for each text and tables were created to show changes in the numbers of plausible answers across time. This was done to explore emergence of new interpretive processes across time.

After the data had been coded using the themes and properties above, I selected the pieces of data that would be most relevant to addressing the research questions. Below I explain how I treated the data coming from students’ completed DOs.

3.4.3.1. STUDENTS’ DISCOURSE ORGANIZERS
Students completed attitude DOs for the five target texts and engagement DOs for three of them. The analytic procedure was as follows. Due to the difficulty to carefully analyze the DO’s of all participants within the limited timeframe of the study, the DOs of three students were chosen as rich cases whose analysis might provide insight into the whole group’s experiences with Appraisal analysis. These three students were Jaime, Karen, and Nayeli. They were chosen on the basis of their proficiency; they are HP participants per

\(^{18}\) (. ) = one second or shorter pause, (# sec) = a pause longer than one second, (words) = the segment between single curved parentheses isn’t clearly audible, so what’s written is the transcriber’s best guess of what was said, ((cursive)) = non-verbal data such as movements, CAPITALS = rise in volume, ? = rise in pitch at the end of an intonational contour, :::: = elongation of the sound place before the successive colons.
their PISA scores, although Nayeli exhibited less oral proficiency and did not participate in whole-class discussions. These students thus represent some variation in L2 ability within the group of HP students that were my original target population.

These students’ DOs were scored for plausible identification of polarity and parsing of attitude and engagement patterns. In order to explore connections between Appraisal analysis and rhetorical inferences, special attention was paid to instances of implausible analysis and how those related to (im)plausible rhetorical inferences for each text. This was done by comparing DO completion with these three participants’ answers to critical reading questions. Further, once recurrent instances of implausible analysis had been identified in the DOs of these three participants, the DOs of all other participants were scanned to find out whether the same kind of implausible analysis had occurred.

3.6. STRENGTHS AND LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY DESIGN
This study addresses three understudied areas in applied linguistics and literacy studies: critical reading, the teaching/learning of global cultural consciousness, and the connection between the two. The latter two areas have not been investigated empirically, so no accounts of interventions exist so far. The study also provides an account of the development and implementation of a bottom-up, text-to-context approach to reading comprehension that is quite different from the top-down approaches that are prevalent in EFL reading pedagogy.

Besides the relevance that is inherent to the study’s novelty, a strength of its methods is the integration of a multiplicity of data sources: students’ DOs, written answers, transcripts of classroom discourse, students’ explicit feedback, and lesson plans and instructional materials. This variety of sources allows for a thick description of the phenomena under investigation. To the best of my knowledge, this is also the first applied linguistics study to use the CT constructs of co-adaptation, attractor states, and control parameters as heuristic tools to investigate teaching and learning phenomena. These constructs enable examinations of learners’ agency and stretch the interpretive scope slightly beyond the ecological circuit of the classroom.

This study is limited in that it does not include a systematic look at patterns of classroom interaction or non-verbal communication. As a result, changes in teacher-
student dialogic roles, talk patterns, or gestural patterns are not addressed. Significant insights on attractor states, emergence of new behaviors, control parameters, and co-adaptation patterns in classroom discourse could be gained from future examinations of these discursive aspects.

Another important limitation of the study is the lack of measures of L1 ability for the target genre. As Bernhardt (2010) has pointed out, such measures are important to be able to determine whether the needs of readers are reading needs or L2 needs (i.e. vocabulary, syntax). While the fact that the participants in the pilot study and some in the dissertation study were very advanced learners suggests that the needs identified in the learning needs theory pertain to interpretive processes rather than knowledge of English vocabulary and syntax, this cannot be confirmed from the limited data.

A further limitation of the study is the absence of control over external variables that might have influenced the emergence of interpretive processes in classroom discourse. For example, some participants were taking translation courses simultaneously with the intervention’s course, and it is possible that the kinds of text processing practices occurring in those courses might have influenced student learning outcomes to some extent. Future research extending the present study might benefit from addressing this kind of variable.

An aspect of the study that can be construed as both a strength and a limitation is the fact that I played multiple roles in it. Besides being the investigator, I was also the curriculum designer and the instructor. As a curriculum designer, I determined the instructional objectives to be attained, theorized the learning needs and outcomes underpinning those objectives, and developed the curricular procedures and instruments to be used to meet them. While I received some input from my dissertation co-chairs during this process, there was a high degree of subjectivity. There are some affordances to playing the dual role of designer and instructor. First, as a designer-instructor, I had a better understanding of the instructional approach than another instructor would. Presumably, this might have led me to be more faithful to the intervention’s goals and procedures. However, my personal agenda to arm students with discourse-analytic tools to resist ideology might have prevented me from considering other pedagogical options not included in my design. Examples of those include giving greater pedagogical
consideration to background knowledge and to the use of Internet tools to gain contextual information about texts.

As a teacher, I was of course in charge of instruction. From the perspective of an investigator, my also being the teacher allowed a high degree of familiarity with the data. As a consequence, it was perhaps easier to develop impressionistic memories of relevant pieces of data such as instances of classroom discourse. In turn, the fact that these memories were formed during face-to-face interaction made them easier to retrieve during analysis. I also developed a higher degree of familiarity with the participating students than I would have had I not been the instructor. My playing these two roles, however, entailed some loss of the critical detachment from the data and interpretations that is required by the analytic tasks of an investigator. Being the teacher might thus have been detrimental to some extent to my role as investigator.

Further, my asymmetrical relationship with the students might have affected their responses in instances of non-anonymous feedback. In other words, the power asymmetry might have led students to produce answers that would please the teacher. I should add here that the reason why I collected non-anonymous feedback during the intervention was to be able to investigate any differences between LP and HP students’ reactions to the intervention. This distinction turned out to be irrelevant, and thus it constitutes a further limitation of the study. If all instances of student feedback had been anonymous, they would have been a more trustworthy data source.
CHAPTER FOUR
FEATURES OF THE CURRICULAR INTERVENTION

This chapter describes the intervention’s curriculum. After reproducing and summarizing the theorizations of learning and instruction found in chapter two, this chapter presents an explanation of the sequencing of the target outcomes and processes and the meditational means used to promote their development, that is, the selected texts, DOs and visual presentational materials. Then, it outlines the aspects of the curriculum that were actually implemented and briefly describes the most important modifications made to the curriculum as it was implemented.

The curriculum consists of a series of ten, two-hour lesson plans for a total of twenty hours of instruction. Instruction is organized in three phases: phase one focused on attitude, authorial position, and global reading position; phase two focused on engagement; and phase three focused on rhetorical and ideological analysis and the ideal reader. Full lesson plans can be found in appendix one. The sections below describe the different components of the initial design solution and their rationale.

4.1. THEORIZING OF LEARNING NEEDS, OUTCOMES, AND INSTRUCTION

The overarching goal of the design solution is to enable participants to read English language journalistic political opinion texts critically. Contrary to many reading comprehension interventions that follow a context-to-text approach aimed at using context knowledge to gain knowledge of a specific text, this intervention follows a text-to-context approach that seeks to use close scrutiny of a text’s language in order to reconstruct aspects of its social context. The rationale for this kind of approach has been discussed in the introductory chapter and will not be addressed here. Within this larger goal, the intervention aims at addressing the problems identified during the pilot study by enabling students to perform Appraisal analysis, rhetorical analyses and ideological critique. The meditational means to achieve these goals constitute the intervention’s
curriculum, and also put in action the elements of the instructional theory. For this reason, the curriculum can also be called “theory-in-action.” Table 4.1 below takes up the learning and instructional theorizations presented in Table 2.4 of the previous chapter and presents the specific meditational means used during instruction in the far-right column.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Problem Analysis / Learning Needs</th>
<th>Learning Outcomes</th>
<th>Means to outcome / Instructional Theory</th>
<th>Meditational means/Theory-in-Action</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Difficulty in identifying attitude patterns in target genre</td>
<td>• Participants will be able to identify and parse attitude patterns</td>
<td>• Analysis of inscribed and invoked attitude and scope/domination patterns (Attitude analysis) • Oral scaffolding (questions/comments)</td>
<td>• Texts • Attitude DO • Oral scaffolding • Attitude visuals</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Difficulty in inferring authorial position</td>
<td>• Participants will be able to infer authorial position</td>
<td>• Attitude analysis</td>
<td>• Texts • Attitude DO • Verbal scaffolding</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Construction of incomplete, implausible representations of authorial attitude</td>
<td>• Participants will develop a habit to scrutinize and parse Appraisal patterns in texts, and identify patterns of global Appraisal coherence (scope/domination)</td>
<td>• Attitude analysis • Oral scaffolding</td>
<td>• Texts • Attitude DO • Alignment DO • Scope visuals • Verbal scaffolding</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Difficulty in identifying source alignment</td>
<td>• Participants will be able to identify authorial alignment of sources</td>
<td>• Analysis of attribution options (alignment analysis) • Oral scaffolding</td>
<td>• Texts • Attitude DO • Alignment DO • Verbal scaffolding</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Difficulty in identifying ideology and situating ideological positions within the discursive field of US culture</td>
<td>• Participants will be able to infer global reading positions and ideological formations and draw connections between those and ideological-political discourses in US culture. • Participants will engage in ideological critique</td>
<td>• Analysis of taken-for-grantedness • Analysis of imaginings of the nation and social groups represented in texts • Analysis of rhetorical strategies (persuasion vs. identification) • Ideological critique • Declarative knowledge of US IDF and institutions</td>
<td>• Texts • Vertical scaffolding • Visuals</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 4.1. Learning theory, instructional theory, and meditational means.

As can be seen in Table 4.1, the theorization of learning for this intervention includes both procedural knowledge, or interpretive processes, and declarative knowledge, or knowledge in the fields of critical reading and US ideological-discursive formations (IDFs). Because the focus of this intervention is on text-to-context reading rather than context-to-text reading, and because it is contextualized as a critical reading/discourse analysis course and not a political theory course, its main focus is on the development of the target processes and associated metalanguage rather than field knowledge of U.S. ideologies or critical reading. Thus, the intervention is organized around the target
interpretive processes and analytic constructs (metalanguage), whereas knowledge of specific U.S. ideological positions and critical reading is organized around such processes. Underlying this initial curriculum is a hypothesis, central to the instructional theory, that Appraisal and rhetorical analysis will scaffold the target skills and strategies needed to produce the desired outcomes.

It is important to note here that my initial instructional theory and theory-in-action did not include some components of critical reading comprehension identified in the theoretical framework presented in chapter two.

These components are metacritical awareness, the ideal reader (as different from the global reading position), genre knowledge, and three components of rhetorical knowledge: knowledge of ‘eunoia,’ public sphere, and Toulmin analysis. Metacritical awareness was not included in order to limit the scope of the intervention.

Genre knowledge and the aspects of rhetorical knowledge mentioned before were not included because I did not consider their role as learning needs until implementation. That occurred in the case of Toulmin analysis and ‘eunoia.’ In the case of genre and public sphere knowledge, I did not come to consider their role until post-implementation data analysis. It was only then that the important role played by these two constructs became clear.

4.1.1. INTERPRETIVE PROCESSES AND ANALYTIC CONSTRUCTS
The intervention aimed at promoting interpretive processes of three inter-related types: lexicogrammatical-textual processes, or those that lead the construction of plausible and comprehensive textbases for texts in the target genre (journalistic texts written in commentator key); rhetorical processes, or those that lead to the reconstruction of rhetorical aspects such as authorial position, the ideal reader, and the rhetorical strategies used by a text; and critical processes, or those that evince ideological critique, or metacritical awareness.

Table 4.2 below summarizes the three kinds of target interpretive processes. It should be noted that lexicogrammatical/textual processes 1-5 focus on attitude and are referred to hereafter as attitude-focused processes. These interpretive processes are divided into three categories: lexicogrammatical/textual, rhetorical, and critical.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Lexicogrammatical/Textual</th>
<th>Rhetorical</th>
<th>Critical</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Identifying inscribed and invoked attitude</td>
<td>1. Characterizing authorial position(s)</td>
<td>1. Engaging in ideological critique</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Identifying the polarity of inscribed and invoked attitude</td>
<td>2. Characterizing a text’s naturalized reading position</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Identifying patterns of attitudinal polarity</td>
<td>3. Characterizing the imagining of others</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Identifying patterns of attitude-participant coupling</td>
<td>4. Characterizing the rhetorical strategies (persuasion or identification) performed by authors.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Identifying the scope of attitudinal language exponents</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. Identifying and tracking instances of attribution and endorsement</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. Identifying and tracking taken-for-grantedness in nominalizations</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 4.2. Initial formulation of target interpretive processes

Notice that the initial formulation of the target processes did not include the following elements of the instructional theory: engagement options not related to attribution, “engagement” itself as an analytic construct, dialogistic contraction and expansion, Toulmin analysis, or meta-critical awareness. As a result, in this initial formulation, analysis of identification relies on identifying and analyzing taken-for-grantedness. It should also be noted that, at this point in my thinking, I was construing analysis of taken-for-grantedness in terms of the nominalization and presupposition analyses proposed by Martin and White (2005). I had not yet thought of Toulmin analysis as a more fruitful way to analyze taken-for-grantedness and thus ideology. Chapter five briefly addresses why and how these other elements of the theoretical framework were incorporated to the implemented design solution and the resulting domain theory.

Further, the processes in the Table 4.2 are represented using SFL, rhetoric, and critical theory metalanguage, but not all this metalanguage was used with learners. Some terms were modified and others were discarded in an attempt to reduce the information-processing load while preserving the usefulness of these metalinguistic terms to represent and negotiate the target interpretive processes in interaction. The initial instructional theory also does not include explicit teaching of the target critical processes as declarative field knowledge: there was no explicit teaching of the term “ideological critique” because this is not analytic constructs that students need to internalize. Rather, it is a desirable student outcomes that can and does occur without student metalinguistic awareness of it. In addition, metacritical awareness, identified by Wallace (2003) as a component of
critical reading, was not initially included as a target critical process in order to limit the scope of the intervention.

Table 4.3 below pairs the target lexicogrammatical/ textual and rhetorical processes with the metalanguage that was used to represent them. The planned modifications to the metalanguage included using “ideal reader” for both “global reading position” and “ideal reader” as defined in chapter two, and substituting “alignment” for “attribution” and “endorsement.” The next section explains the field knowledge goals.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Lexicogrammatical/Textual Processes</th>
<th>Metalanguage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>• Identifying inscribed and invoked (provoked/flagged/afforded attitude</td>
<td>• Attitude</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Identifying the polarity of inscribed and invoked attitude</td>
<td>• Polarity</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Identifying patterns of attitudinal polarity</td>
<td>• Inscribed attitude</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Identifying patterns of attitude-participant coupling</td>
<td>• Invoked attitude</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Identifying the scope of attitudinal language exponents</td>
<td>• Scope</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Identifying and tracking instances of attribution and endorsement</td>
<td>• Domination</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Identifying and tracking taken-for-grantedness</td>
<td>• Alignment</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Identifying and tracking interactional language exponents</td>
<td>• Taken-for-grantedness</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Rhetorical processes</th>
<th>Metalanguage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>• Characterizing authorial position(s)</td>
<td>• Author’s position</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Characterizing a text’s naturalized reading position</td>
<td>• Ideal reader</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Characterizing the imagining of the nation of others</td>
<td>• Imagining the nation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Characterizing the rhetorical strategies (persuasion or identification) performed by authors.</td>
<td>• Identification, persuasion</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 4.3. Target interpretive processes and their associated metalanguage.

4.1.1.2.DECLARATIVE (FIELD) KNOWLEDGE

Recall that I use the term “field” in “field knowledge” to refer to knowledge of entities and activities. In terms of field knowledge, the intervention aimed at developing students’ declarative knowledge of a) critical reading, b) engagement and rhetoric analytic constructs/metalanguage, and c) the current U.S. ideological landscape and controversial issues. As explained above, metalinguistic knowledge goals are discussed in connection with the target interpretive processes. The goals with regard to US ideologies are necessarily modest in scope as the intervention’s aims focus on lexicogrammatical/ textual, rhetorical and critical interpretive processes, and the course framing the intervention is not a political theory course but a discourse analysis course. Table 4.4 below summarizes the field knowledge goals as were initially planned and in the language that was used to present them to students.

With regard to critical reading, the curriculum aims at developing declarative knowledge of critical reading as an activity that involves identifying authorial attitude, the
Table 4.4. Initial formulation of field knowledge.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Field knowledge goals</th>
<th>Critical reading</th>
<th>US politics</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>• Inferring authorial position</td>
<td>• Immigration issues</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Inferring rhetorical intent</td>
<td>• Mexico-US relations</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Reconstructing the ideal reader</td>
<td>• Gay marriage</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Close scrutiny of language</td>
<td>• Paleoconservatism</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Supporting opinions with textual evidence</td>
<td>• Neoconservatism</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Radical feminism</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

rhetorical strategies used by a text, and the ideal reader the text constructs, as well as examining and, when desired, critiquing the ideologies in a text. The initial curriculum solution also intends to impress upon students that critical reading involves close examinations of a text’s language in order to be able to support one’s interpretations with evidence from the text.

Within its limited scope in the area of US ideologies and controversial issues, the project aims at highlighting differences across and within liberal and conservative ideological positions around the following issues: Mexico-US economic integration, Mexican immigration to the US, and gay marriage. A concern with developing global cultural consciousness underpinned the rationale for choosing the first two issues. Presumably, they are of interest to participating students as citizens of Mexico because they directly elicit attitudes and perceptions of the US about issues that are potentially important to Mexicans. Further, these topics lend themselves to reflections on global citizenship subjects such as nationhood, the role of bi-national cooperation in addressing global issues, and the roles of the state and the private sector in the creation and solution of transnational problems. In addition, plenty of texts exist about these topics that afford opportunities to highlight culture-as-enunciation due to the many nuanced and contradictory positions that exist about them in US political discourse.

The topic of US gay marriage debates was chosen because of the opportunity it afforded to illuminate Mexican debates about gay marriage. At the time of the intervention, Mexico’s Supreme Court was on the verge of deciding on the constitutionality of gay marriage (it was ruled constitutional) and the issue was being intensely debated throughout the country (although, as it turns out, the participants in this study showed little interest in debating it).
Then, my aim in selecting ideological positions was to foster awareness of the nuances involved in rightist and leftist ideological positions and promote understanding of the internal conflicts, contradictions, struggles, and potential affinities across the traditional right-left divide. Specifically I aimed for participants to learn about the divides between neo- and paleo-conservatism as highlighted by free trade and immigration issues, and the debates between Marxist and radical feminist positions on the subject of gay marriage.

Paleoconservatism was chosen because the postulates, internal contradictions, and nuances of this ideological position afford rich opportunities for practicing the target interpretive processes. Paleoconservatism is a complex, fringe but influential strand of US conservatism that is based on the writings of political theorists James Burnham and Samuel T. Francis. Pat Buchanan and Tom Tancredo are some of the politicians whose names are associated with paleoconservatism. Although Francis’ openly anti-capitalist and racist stances set paleoconservatism in the fringes of the American right, paleoconservatism has, through ideological convergences and alliances with other forms of conservatism, managed to gain broader circulation for some of its postulates (Ashbee, 2000).

More concretely, paleoconservatism values and advocates nativism, isolationism, local forms of governance, the protection of small local economic units, the protection of unionized labor and the elderly, and the preservation and cultivation of White cultural diversity, while opposing corporate capitalism—particularly its financial branch—free trade, and globalism (Francis, 1993). Thus, as Ashbee (2000) has noted, there are affinities between paleoconservatism and the left/liberalism. Paleoconservative ideologues use these issues to distance themselves from neoconservatism, which they represent as taking the opposite stances around those issues, namely active involvement of the US in foreign affairs, protection of corporations and financial capitalism, anti-union stances, and the promotion of multi-racial multiculturalism.

Paleoconservative opinion texts thus afford interesting opportunities for the practice of the target interpretive processes. For example, the prevalence of strongly graduated attitude provides plenty of chances to practice identifying attitude and polarity. Also, the fact that, in paleoconservative discourse, certain non-intrinsically attitudinal words such as “socialism” or “secularism” or “White” acquire attitudinal polarities that are rooted in
specific ideological positions and imaginings of the nation, affords pedagogically interesting opportunities for the practice of rhetorical and critical interpretive processes. Further, paleoconservatism’s affinities with Marxism afford examinations of and reflections about nuanced positions, the importance of recognizing those, and the relevance of cultivating nuances in one’s own responses to texts.

I aimed for participants to learn about radical feminism and Marxism for reasons that mirror those outlined above. Radical feminism differs from classical Marxism in that it considers patriarchy, rather than private ownership of means of production and capital accumulation, to be the primary source of social structure and social oppression (Willis, 1984). Consequently, it locates the potential for social liberation in gender struggle, rather than class struggle. As a result, words bearing connections to gender roles as traditionally construed by patriarchal norms, such as “marriage” and “traditional family,” acquire negative polarities when used by radical feminists. These negative polarities reflect the underlying values of adherents to this ideological position. Further, ongoing debates between Marxists and radical feminists on the subject of gay marriage—radical feminists oppose marriage of any kind, while many Marxists support gay marriage as a matter of equitable access to social goods—provide excellent examples of discussions where ideological premises are disclosed and scrutinized, therefore offering the chance to analyze premises and compare with other texts where premises are left unstated.

It was anticipated that paleoconservatism, neoconservatism and radical feminism would be introduced to students explicitly. However, other related ideological systems and IDFs, as well as their associated descriptive terms (e.g. Marxism, socialism, communism, capitalism, corporate capitalism, Democrat, Republican, right-wing, left-wing) were anticipated to be part of students’ prior knowledge. Therefore, there were no plans to introduce them explicitly. The section below describes the texts selected and their sequencing.

4.1.2. SEQUENCING OF TARGET ANALYTIC CONSTRUCTS/INTERPRETIVE PROCESSES AND FIELD KNOWLEDGE

Sequencing decisions had to be made with regard to interpretive processes, field knowledge, and selected texts. Because the interpretive processes are the focus of the
intervention, its sequencing led to decisions about the arrangement of the other two dimensions (field knowledge and texts). Thus, interpretive processes sequencing is explained first.

The sequencing of the target interpretive processes was predicated on the assumption that rhetorical and critical processes emerge from lexicogrammatical/textual processing and therefore the latter need to be introduced and practiced first. The sequencing was also guided by the principle of less to more information processing loads. Based on this principle, it was concluded that attitude needed to be addressed before engagement and interactional features because a) attitude focuses on discrete lexicogrammar and thus requires less processing, and b) the ability to analyze attitude is a prerequisite in order to examine aspects of engagement such as authorial alignment. That is, attribution and endorsement options cannot be characterized unless authorial attitude toward the sources being cited is first identified. Further, inscribed attitude needs to be addressed before invoked attitude as the association of the former with discrete and clearly attitudinal language exponents suggests that both the concept and the analysis would be more easily understood by participants. Figure 4.1 shows the sequencing of the teaching of lexicogrammatical/textual (LT) processes:

![Diagram of sequencing of lexicogrammatical/textual processes]

Figure 4.1. Sequencing of lexicogrammatical/textual processes.

It was assumed that, for LT processes to support ideological critique, rhetorical processes and background knowledge needed to be presented. That is, rhetorical processes and background knowledge mediate between LT and ideological critique. Thus, rhetorical processes were presented after LT processes. This sequencing principle is illustrated by Figure 4.2 below.

It should be noted that I am not claiming actual cognitive processing occurs in this specific manner from lexis to ideological critique for all readers. In other words, I do not
adhere to a bottom-up model of reading. What I claim is that this manner of understanding and sequencing the relationships among types of interpretive processes makes sense in the context of this intervention’s overarching goal and target population. Recall that the problem analysis shows that the target population is likely to experience problems in building local and global coherence from attitudinal lexicogrammar and using such lexicogrammar to draw contextual inferences. Recall too that the intervention’s goal to enable participants with little background knowledge to infer contextual (i.e. rhetorical and ideological) aspects of difficult, transnational texts by engaging in close linguistic analysis of these texts. The text-processing of this kind of reader with little to no topic knowledge is likely to be driven by lexicogrammar (Koda, 2005). In contrast, in skilled readers with background knowledge, processing is likely to proceed in a more top-down fashion. However, that is not the kind of reader targeted by this intervention. Of course, once low-knowledge readers engage in rhetorical inferences and ideological critique, the understandings generated from those can feed back into the interpretation of discrete lexicogrammar and smaller discourse units, making the reading process interactive (Rumelhart, 1977; Stanovich, 1980). This interaction is captured by the feedback loop going from ideological critique to rhetorical processing to LT processing in Figure 4.2 above.

Based on the premise that the target readers need scaffolding from the lexicogrammar up, it was posited that attitude processing can enable characterizing authorial position,
and engagement processing can enable characterizing rhetorical strategies and engaging in ideological critique. This is not to say that attitude processing is not needed for characterizing rhetorical strategies and ideological critique. Rather, this is to say that the concept of rhetorical strategies and ideology, particularly identification, can be more easily scaffolded using engagement analyses such as analyses of taken-for-grantedness and reader pronouns. Then, once these analyses and constructs have been presented, attitude analysis can be brought to bear on rhetorical strategy analysis.

It was also posited that both attitude analysis and engagement analysis enable the reconstruction of naturalized reading positions. When coupled with field knowledge, both can support ideological critique. This sequence—from attitude to authorial position to engagement to rhetorical strategies to ideological critique—was the foundation for text selection and subject matter sequencing. As will be reported in chapter five, the usefulness of this sequencing and the connections it assumes between constructs were supported by the data. However, it was also found that invoked attitude analysis can lead directly to metacritical awareness and ideological critique.

Because each new analytic construct and process is supported by continued practice of the previously introduced one, the arrangement of interpretive processes followed an orbital curricular structure (Christie, 2002), which is summarized in Table 4.5 below. In these tables, a capital “O” marks a class where the relevant construct is introduced, whereas a lower case “o” marks a class where the construct continues to be practiced. The numbers in the uppermost row are lesson numbers. These lessons are organized in phases. The letters in the left-most column categorize the kind of construct/process (LT = lexicogrammatical/ textual, R = rhetorical, C = critical).

This sequence can be characterized more succinctly as consisting of three overlapping phases. Phase 1 focuses on attitude, authorial position, and the ideal reader. Phase 2 focuses on engagement analysis, and phase 3 focuses on rhetorical strategy analysis and ideological critique. These phases are represented in Figure 4.3 below. The phases are overlapping because the beginning of a new phase does not mean that the analytic activities pertaining to the new one stop. That is, attitude and authorial position continue to be practiced at the same time as engagement analysis is introduced, and so on.

It should be noted that the construct of ideal reader was introduced in each phase. This

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Table 4.5. Planned sequencing of target constructs and interpretive processes

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Kind</th>
<th>Construct/Process</th>
<th>Phase One</th>
<th>Phase Two</th>
<th>Phase Three</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>LT</td>
<td>Inscribed attitude</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>7</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>10</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LT</td>
<td>Polarity</td>
<td>O</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LT</td>
<td>Invoked attitude</td>
<td>O</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LT</td>
<td>Attitude + participant coupling</td>
<td>O</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LT</td>
<td>Scope/domination</td>
<td>O</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LT</td>
<td>Authorial position</td>
<td>O</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LT</td>
<td>Alignment</td>
<td>O</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LT</td>
<td>Taken-for-grantedness</td>
<td>O</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LT</td>
<td>Reader pronouns / expressions</td>
<td>O</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>R</td>
<td>Imagining the nation</td>
<td>O</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>R</td>
<td>Identification</td>
<td>O</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>R</td>
<td>Persuasion</td>
<td>O</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C</td>
<td>Ideological critique</td>
<td>O</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C</td>
<td>Constative speech</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C</td>
<td>Ideal reader</td>
<td>O</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Figure 4.3. Phases in the curricular intervention.

Apparent repetition is due to the fact that a text’s naturalized reading positions can be constructed from attitude analysis, engagement analysis, and rhetorical strategy analysis. Each new kind of analysis expands the definitional scope and analytic depth of the construct “ideal reader,” hence the need for its iterative introduction to students.

A further important consideration in the planning of the curricular sequence was the selection of texts. Two criteria guided text selection. First, to be included, texts needed to represent the target ideological positions and issues. Second, the texts’ language needed to lend itself to practicing the target LT interpretive processes; that is, they needed to contain abundant linguistic exponents of the kind being targeted by instructional activities (Wallace, 2003). With these goals in mind, Internet searches were conducted using the target issues and ideological positions as search terms. Care was taken to include texts from both left-wing and right-wing Web sites. Once selected, the texts were arranged in a
sequence according to the lexicogrammatical exponents they feature prominently and the interpretive process whose development they can be used to promote. Table 4.6 below provides an overview of the texts initially chosen, the way they were sequenced, and the rationale guiding the choice.

As shown in Table 4.6, the text sequencing mirrors the sequencing of interpretive processes from inscribed to invoked attitude to engagement to interactional features to rhetorical strategies to ideological critique. With the exception of the first one, the texts are arranged in a sequence that highlights opposition and nuances within and across ideological positions. With regard to the first text, Barber, an arrangement strictly by topic would have placed it with the other texts about gay marriage.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Text Title</th>
<th>Author, Place and Year of Publication</th>
<th>Ideological position</th>
<th>Rationale</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Perez Hilton, The Foul Face of Gay Activism</td>
<td>Matt Barber, Conservative News Service, April 24 2009</td>
<td>Conservative, against gay marriage</td>
<td>Salient, easy to identify canonical, non-canonical, and inscribed attitude, polarity clearly coupled with specific participants</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Debut of the Amero</td>
<td>Judi McLeod, Canada Free Press, Dec 14 2006</td>
<td>Paleoconservative, against free trade, the Bush administration, and Mexican immigrants</td>
<td>Salient inscribed attitude, salient and frequent invoked attitude, domination patterns, Taken-for-grantedness</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>North American Union, It’s Coming</td>
<td>William H. Calhoun, Canada Free Press, March 21 2007</td>
<td>Paleoconservative, against corporate capitalism, the Bush administration, and Mexican immigrants</td>
<td>Salient ENGAGEMENT patterns, explicit imagining of the nation, explicit anti-corporate stance, explicit differentiation between paleo- and neo-conservatism</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Immigration Reform: Bush and Republicans Appeal to White Supremacy</td>
<td>Joel Wendland, Political Affairs: Marxist Thought Online, May 16 2006</td>
<td>Marxist, against corporate capitalism and the Bush administration, in favor of immigrants</td>
<td>Imagining of the nation is opposed to that of McLeod and Calhoun, but shares anti-corporate stance with them</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Protecting Marriage to Protect Children</td>
<td>David Blankenhorn, Los Angeles Times, Sept 19 2008</td>
<td>Liberal Democrat, against gay marriage</td>
<td>Great example of illogical unstated premises, also highlights nuances in liberal positions</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Can Queer Love Fit Marriage Heteronorms?</td>
<td>Parker Cronin, Consider Magazine, Feb 17 2010</td>
<td>Radical feminist, against the institution of marriage</td>
<td>This text and the next highlight nuance and disagreement within the leftist spectrum</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Marriage Equality Now</td>
<td>Sarah Burke, Consider Magazine, Feb 17 2010</td>
<td>Marxist, pro-gay marriage in the context of class struggle and right to access</td>
<td>This text offers a direct counterpoint to previous one, further highlights nuances and conflict within the left</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 4.6. Features of the target texts.
However, it was placed at the beginning of the curricular sequence because its textual features facilitate the practice or recognizing inscribed attitude, which is the first target interpretive processes and analytic constructs in the sequence.

4.1.3. TEXT-ANALYTIC MEDIATIONAL MEANS

Three different kinds of meditational means were included in the curriculum: discourse organizers (DOs), worksheets, and visual presentational materials. Table 4.7 below provides an overview of the planned meditational means and those actually used. The different meditational means are shown in the figures in this section.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>DOs</th>
<th>Worksheets</th>
<th>Presentation visuals</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>• Attitude DO</td>
<td>• Critical reading questions</td>
<td>• Attitude taxonomy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Alignment DO</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Interactional Features DO</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 4.7. Written meditational means.

Table 4.8 below summarizes the purpose of these different meditational means

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Mediational means</th>
<th>Purpose</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Attitude taxonomy</td>
<td>Introduce taxonomy of inscribed and invoked attitude</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Attitude DO</td>
<td>Promote identification and tracking of attitude, attitudinal polarity, and attitude patterns</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Alignment DO</td>
<td>Promote identification and tracking of authorial alignment of quoted sources</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Critical reading questions</td>
<td>Promote target rhetorical and critical processes</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 4.8. Purpose of the written meditational means.

Figures 4.4, and 4.5 show the different kinds of DOs that were initially planned. Figure 4.4 below is the attitude DO.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Attitude word/phrase and polarity</th>
<th>Source</th>
<th>Focus</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Foul (-)</td>
<td>Matt Barber</td>
<td>Perez Hilton</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Figure 4.4. Attitude DO for Barber.
The attitude DO above parses the phrase “Perez Hilton: The Foul Face of Gay Activism,” which is the tile of Barber’s text. Filling the DO requires students to parse the grammar of attitude; that is, they have to identify the word or phrase carrying attitude and its polarity (Appraising item, column one), the source (Appraiser, column two), and the focus (Appraised, column three). Figure 4.5 below represents the citational alignment DO.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Language exponent</th>
<th>Citational purpose</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>“By permitting his image on the flipside of the coin, Pope John Paul II has given a powerful stimulus to the creation of the Universal Republic”</td>
<td>Support author’s point</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Figure 4.5. Citation alignment DO.

The DO in Figure 4.5 represents the purpose of the citation in McLeod shown below.

Who ever would have dreamed that the euro of a secular bureaucracy one day would be accepted for use at the Vatican? Pope John Paul II, who repeatedly condemned the "moral drift" of secular Brussels, sanctioned an official Euro for the Vatican.

In appearance, the Vatican coin looks very much like other Euro coins. But on the flip side of the coin, the image of Pope John Paul II faces left. "By permitting his image on this new coin, John Paul II has given another symbolic and powerful stimulus to the European Union, which with the issuance of the Euro, is taking an important step towards the Universal Republic," said Atila Sinke Guimarnes in Daily Catholic.

In this DO, the column on the left is to be filled with the language performing a quotation, and the column on the right is to be filled with a brief explanation of the function of that quotation with regard to the author’s position(s). It should be noted that this DO was not actually used once the intervention was implemented as a decision was made to design a DO that provided a more comprehensive tool to analyze patterns of engagement and interaction.

Figure 4.6 shows the visuals and examples developed to introduce kinds of attitude. In figure 4.6, the first sentence represents inscribed attitude, that is, a linguistic segment with an unmistakably attitudinal meaning, encoded in “excellent.” The second sentence,
Inscribed – that’s an excellent class

Invoked

that’s a class you wouldn’t want to miss

Provoked – that’s a leftist class

Figure 4.6. Presentation visual for inscribed vs. invoked attitude.

“that’s a class you wouldn’t want to miss” shows a less explicit encoding of attitude. In that sentence, there isn’t a one-word attitudinal evaluation of the class. Instead, identifying the speaker-writer’s attitude toward the class requires parsing the evaluation implicit in “you wouldn’t want to miss.” This interpretation requires some cultural knowledge in order to be made. However, there is room for ambiguity when interpreting the polarity of such evaluation. First, a class that one wouldn’t want to miss is allegedly a good one, and that gives readers grounds to infer a positive attitudinal polarity. However, it is conceivably possible that the speaker-writer has used sarcasm in his/her evaluation of the class, in which case the polarity would be negative. Because the attitudinal nature and polarity of the clause evaluating the class is unclear, it is invoked. Finally, I use the label “provoked” to refer to instances of evaluation where the attitudinal nature and polarity of a segment is entirely dependent on the reader’s reading position. In the example above, “leftist” can elicit varying affective responses, or no response at all, from different readers depending on their political alignments. In Martin and White’s taxonomy of attitude, this kind of attitude is called “afforded.” For pedagogical purposes, I have used the label “provoked” for this kind of attitude because it seems more intuitive to me.

Below are some of the questions asked in the critical reading worksheet, which were asked for all texts. The complete worksheet can be found in appendix two:

1. What can be inferred about the authors’ position?
2. What can be inferred about the target audience? Is the text written for those who would agree with the authors’ attitude toward the different foci? Or is it written for those who would hold views different from the author’s? How do you know?
Table 4.10 in the next page shows an overview of the intervention’s curriculum as it was initially designed. However, several changes were made during implementation, the most important of which involved the creation of a new engagement DO and developing appropriate presentational materials capturing the engagement system in its entirety, not just citation alignment. Continued difficulties with attitude parsing and polarity identification led to the development of new presentational materials for attitude. Unexpectedly, meta-critical awareness emerged from invoked attitude analysis in lesson four.

4.2. THE IMPLEMENTED CURRICULUM

Table 4.11 in the page after next represents the curriculum as it was actually implemented. Table 4.9 below summarizes the modifications that occurred during implementation and outlines the rationale leading to them as well as some of the consequences.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Modification</th>
<th>Rationale</th>
<th>Result</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Allocation of more time to attitude analysis</td>
<td>Learning attitude analysis proved more difficult and time-consuming than expected</td>
<td>Not enough time was available to read on and discuss Marxist and feminist perspectives on gay marriage.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Inclusion of a model, non-authentic text in two different versions to present engagement options</td>
<td>Student feedback</td>
<td>It was possible to introduce all engagement options in one session. Students evaluated this activity very positively. Classroom discourse indicate students were able to control this metalanguage and analysis with varying success.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Inclusion of all engagement systemic options, subsuming citation alignment</td>
<td>Reassessment of requirements to engage in deeper characterizations of naturalized reading positions</td>
<td>Student feedback indicates that this manner of presentation was useful and easy to follow. However, data analysis does not support its usefulness to scaffold characterizations of global reading position or rhetorical strategies</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Replacement of alignment DO by engagement DO</td>
<td>Inclusion of new engagement goals, time constraints</td>
<td>Student feedback indicates that this manner of presentation was useful and easy to follow. However, data analysis does not support its usefulness to scaffold characterizations of global reading position or rhetorical strategies</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Provision of basic knowledge about Marxism, communism, capitalism, and rightist/leftist political positions</td>
<td>Perception of students’ need for this knowledge</td>
<td>Unclear</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>New presentation of kinds of attitude</td>
<td>Perception of student difficulties and confusion</td>
<td>Students rated this new presentation highly in terms of usefulness and clarity, the new presentation will replace the previous presentation in subsequent implementation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Inclusion of Toulmin analysis of claims and premises to replace analysis of taken-for-grantedness</td>
<td>Prediction that this kind of analysis would be more useful than analyses of taken-for-grantedness</td>
<td>Student feedback indicates that they found this analysis very useful.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 4.9. Summary of modifications to the initial curriculum.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Lesson Number</th>
<th>Target text</th>
<th>Target constructs</th>
<th>Mediation means</th>
<th>Interpretive process goals</th>
<th>Field knowledge goals</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| 1             | NA          | • Critical reading  
• US culture-as-enunciation | Worksheet 1  
Worksheet 2  
Worksheet 3 | N/A | • Eliciting ss’ understandings of critical reading  
• Eliciting ss’ understandings of US culture |
| 2             | Barber      | • Inscribed attitude  
• Canonical vs. non-canonical attitude  
• Polarity | Attitude DO  
Critical reading worksheet | • Identifying inscribed canonical and non-canonical attitude  
• Identifying polarity | • Building knowledge of attitude metalanguage |
| 3             | McLeod      | • Inscribed vs. invoked attitude  
• Scope and domination. | Attitude DO | • Identifying invoked attitude  
• Identifying domination patterns and their scope | • Building knowledge of attitude metalanguage |
| 4             | McLeod      | • Kinds of invoked attitude.  
• Alignment  
• Participant tracking  
• Ideal reader | Alignment DO  
Critical reading worksheet | • Identifying kinds of invoked attitude  
• Identifying source alignment  
• Re-constructing naturalized reading position based on attitude analysis | • Building knowledge of US culture: differential attitudes toward secularism and socialism  
• Building knowledge of engagement metalanguage: alignment |
| 5             | McLeod      | • Taken-for-grantedness | N/A | • Identifying taken-for-grantedness | • Building knowledge of engagement metalanguage: taken-for-grantedness |
| 6             | Calhoun     | • Imagining the nation  
• Identification | Attitude DO  
Alignment DO | • Identifying language exponents and patterns of writer-reader interaction  
• Identifying how writers imagine nationhood  
• Characterizing identification  
• Engaging in ideological critique | • Building knowledge of rhetorical metalanguage: imagining, identification |
| 7             | Wendland, Calhoun | • Ideology  
• Persuasion vs. Identification | Attitude DO  
Alignment DO | • Practice of all of the above | • Building knowledge of CDA metalanguage: ideology  
• Building knowledge of rhetorical metalanguage: persuasion  
• Building field knowledge: Marxism & paleoconservatism |
| 8             | Blankenhorn | • Practice of all of the above | Attitude DO  
Alignment DO | • Practice of all of the above | • Practice of all of the above |
| 9             | Cronin, Esteven | • Practice of all of the above | Attitude DO  
Alignment DO | • Practice of all of the above | • Practice of all of the above |
| 10            | Ss’ own texts | • Practice of all of the above | Attitude DO  
Alignment DO | • Practice of all of the above | • Practice of all of the above |

Table 4.10. Overview of the intervention’s curriculum.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Lesson</th>
<th>Target text &amp; Topic</th>
<th>Target constructs</th>
<th>Mediational means</th>
<th>Interpretive process goals</th>
<th>Field knowledge goals</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| 1      | NA                  |  ● Critical reading  
  ● US culture-ass. enunciation                                                         | Worksheet 1  
Worksheet 2  
Worksheet 3 | N/A |  ● Eliciting ss’ understandings of critical reading  
  ● Eliciting ss’ understandings of US culture |
| 2      | Barber  
Gay marriage |  ● Acronyms and US culture  
  ● Inscribed attitude  
  ● Canonical vs. non-cano- nal attitude  
  ● Polarity  
  ● CDA process | Attitude DO  
Worksheet 5 |  ● Identifying inscribed canonical and non- canonical attitude  
  ● Identifying polarity |  ● Building knowledge of attitude metalanguage |
| 3      | Barber  
Gay Marriage |  ● Ideal reader  
  ● Invoked attitude  
  ● CDA process | Attitude DO |  ● Identifying ideal reader from graduation of attitude  
  ● Identifying inscribed and invoked attitude |  ● Building knowledge of CDA logic of inquiry using the Internet |
| 4      | McLeod  
Video “Amero Watch”  
Amero, North American Union, Mexico-US refs. |  ● Canonical vs. non-canonical attitude  
  ● Kinds of invoked attitude  
  ● Embedded attitude  
  ● Scope and domination | Alignment DO |  ● Identifying canonical vs. non-canonical attitude  
  ● Identifying kinds of invoked attitude  
  ● Identifying variations in polarity according to reading position  
  ● Imagining ideal reader from invoked attitude  
  ● Identifying embedded attitude |  ● Building knowledge of US culture  
  ● Building knowledge of attitude metalanguage |
| 5      | McLeod  
Amero, North American Union, Mexico-US refs. |  ● Canonical vs. non-canonical attitude  
  ● Kinds of invoked attitude  
  ● Embedded attitude  
  ● Scope and domination | Alignment DO |  ● Identifying canonical vs. non-canonical attitude  
  ● Identifying kinds of invoked attitude  
  ● Identifying variations in polarity according to reading position  
  ● Imagining ideal reader from invoked attitude  
  ● Identifying embedded attitude |  ● Building knowledge of US culture  
  ● Building knowledge of attitude metalanguage |
| 6      | Escudero, Calhoun  
Superheroes, North American Union, Mexico-US refs. |  ● Dialogism (engagement)  
  ● Imagining the nation | Dialogue DO |  ● Identifying engagement options |  ● Building knowledge of engagement metalanguage  
  ● Building knowledge of US culture: paleoconservatism vs. neoconservatism |
| 7      | Calhoun  
North American Union, Mexico-US refs. |  ● Dialogism (engagement)  
  ● Imagining the nation | Dialogue DO |  ● Identifying engagement options |  ● Building knowledge of engagement metalanguage  
  ● Building knowledge of US culture: ways of imagining the nation |
| 8      | Wendland  
US immigration debates |  ● Re-introduction of inscribed vs. invoked attitude  
  ● Identification vs. persuasion  
  ● Premise  
  ● Premise | Attitude DO  
Engagement DO |  ● Identifying engagement options  
  ● Identifying inscribed vs. invoked attitude  
  ● Identifying rhetorical strategies |  ● Building knowledge of rhetorical metalanguage |
| 9      | Wendland  
US immigration debates |  ● Ideological positions in the right and the left  
  ● Ideal reader based on unstated premises | Attitude DO  
Engagement DO |  ● Identifying the ideal reader by looking at unstated premises |  ● Building knowledge of the political spectrum |
| 10     | Wendland, Blanken- horn, Calhoun |  ● Ideal reader based on unstated premises | Classroom talk |  ● Identifying the ideal reader by looking at unstated premises |  ● Building knowledge of US culture: ways of imagining the nation |
| 11     | Blankenhorn  
Gay marriage |  ● Evaluative claim  
  ● Premise  
  ● Claim-support premise analysis | Worksheet 6  
(premise analysis) |  ● Identifying claims, support, and premises |  ● Building knowledge of US culture: ways of imagining the nation |

Table 4.11. Overview of the intervention as it was implemented.
As seen in Table 4.12 below four new interpretive process goals were added during implementation that had not been addressed in the initial plan: one at the lexicogrammatical/textual level, two at the rhetorical level, and one at the critical level. With regard to the first level, the goal of “identifying patterns of dialogistic contraction and expansion,” or engagement patterns, was added; it encompasses and expands the goals of “identifying and tracking authorial alignment of sources.”

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Interpretive processes</th>
<th>Lexicogrammatical/Textual (LT)</th>
<th>Rhetorical</th>
<th>Critical</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Planned</td>
<td>Actual</td>
<td>Planned</td>
<td>Actual</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Identifying inscribed and invoked attitude</td>
<td>• Identifying inscribed and invoked attitude</td>
<td>• Characterizing authorial position(s)</td>
<td>• Characterizing authorial position(s)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Identifying the polarity of inscribed and invoked attitude</td>
<td>• Identifying the polarity of inscribed and invoked attitude</td>
<td>• Characterizing a text’s naturalized reading position</td>
<td>• Characterizing a text’s naturalized reading position</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Identifying patterns of attitudinal polarity</td>
<td>• Identifying patterns of attitudinal polarity</td>
<td>• Characterizing the rhetorical strategies (persuasion or identification) performed by authors.</td>
<td>• Characterizing rhetorical strategies (persuasion or identification) performed in texts.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Identifying patterns of attitude-participant coupling</td>
<td>• Identifying patterns of attitude-participant coupling</td>
<td></td>
<td>• Identifying claim-support pairs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Identifying the scope of attitudinal language exponents</td>
<td>• Identifying the scope of attitudinal language exponents</td>
<td></td>
<td>• Identifying premises underlying claim-support pairs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Identifying taken-for-grantedness in nominalizations</td>
<td>• Identifying patterns of dialogistic contraction and expansion (engagement)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Identifying and tracking authorial alignment of sources</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 4.12. Comparison of planned and actual interpretive processes.

I added this goal thinking that characterizations of all engagement options would support inferences of global reading position and rhetorical strategies. To that end, I created a simplified representation of the engagement sub-system and an engagement discourse organizer. These are shown in Figures 4.7 and 4.8 below. Table 4.13 also in the next page shows the relationship between the terms used in this system network and the original SFL metalanguage for the engagement sub-system.

With the goal of simplification, the term “dialogism,” rather than “engagement” was chosen as the entry-level term in the system network. To accompany this presentational material, a new DO, called dialogism DO, was designed and is shown in Figure 4.8 below completed for the following sentence from Wendland:
President Bush’s proposal to militarize the US-Mexico border with the already overstretched National Guard may be a precursor for more dangerous policies down the road.

Here is the dialogism system network:

```
Dialogism

contraction
  - bare assertions
    - denials/counters
    - citations aligned with authorial position
    - other support for authorial position

expansion
  - concessives
  - probabilistic modals/expressions
  - subjectivity expressions
  - citations not aligned with authorial position
```

Figure 4.7. Dialogism system network as presented to participants

And here is the table showing the adaptation of the metalanguage:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Adapted term</th>
<th>Original term</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Dialogism</td>
<td>Engagement</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Citation aligned with authorial position</td>
<td>PROCLAIM:ENDORSE</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Probabilistic modals/expressions</td>
<td>ENTERTAIN</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Subjectivity expressions</td>
<td>ENTERTAIN</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Citations not aligned with authorial position</td>
<td>ATTRIBUTE:DISTANCE</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 4.13. Adaptation of engagement metalanguage.

Below is the dialogism DO completed for the excerpt from Wendland above. In this DO, the column “dialogistic function” is intended to be filled with the leftmost, or less delicate, options in the dialogism system network: contraction and expansion.
The column “dialogistic intention” refers to rhetorical intent in a general manner; I planned for this column to be filled in initially with colloquial concepts such as inform, persuade, warn, and so on. I planned to require students to write identification or persuasion in this column once I had introduced this metalanguage.

At the rhetorical level, two new interpretive processes were introduced: “identifying claim-support pairs” and “identifying premises underlying claim-support pairs.” These interpretive processes represent Toulmin analysis. Toulmin analysis was added when I came to conceptualize the ideal reader as defined in chapter two and realized that Toulmin analysis allows operationalization of this construct. I also added Toulmin analysis as a way to operationalize Martin & White’s (2005) unclear but potentially useful focus on presuppositions to uncover ideology. The one added critical interpretive process, “engaging in meta-critical awareness,” while not originally considered, occurred naturally during phase one. The context and rationale for these modifications is discussed in the sections below focusing on each phase of the intervention.

The modifications above led to changes in the planned sequence, resulting in a different actual sequence of the target interpretive processes. Table 4.14 below shows the actual sequence. In Table 4.14, a capital “O” marks a session where the relevant construct is introduced, whereas a lower case “o” marks a session where the construct is practiced. Shades of grey indicate the presentation of a construct’s level of complexity in terms of

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Language exponent</th>
<th>Kind of exponent</th>
<th>Dialogistic function</th>
<th>Dialogistic intention</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>President Bush's proposal to militarize the US-Mexico border with the already overstretched National Guard may be a precursor for more dangerous policies down the road</td>
<td>Probabilistic modal</td>
<td>Expand</td>
<td>Warn</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Figure 4.8. Sample completed dialogism DO.
details and examples: the presence of (a stronger shade of) grey when the previous presentation was either unmarked (white) or colored with a lighter shade of grey shows that the presentational instance marked with a stronger shade was more detailed and involved more examples and controlled practice.

Chapter five presents and discusses the emergence of interpretive processes, metalanguage use, and field knowledge in students’ discourse. Specifically, the presentation of interpretive processes focuses on instances when generative rhetorical inferences, ideological critique, and metacritical awareness emerged and were negotiated in classroom discourse.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Target Construct</th>
<th>Class number</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Inscribed attitude</td>
<td>O</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Polarity</td>
<td>O</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Invoked attitude</td>
<td>O</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Attitude + participant coupling</td>
<td>O</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Scope/domination</td>
<td>O</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Embedded attitude</td>
<td>O</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dialogism (engagement)</td>
<td>O</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Authorial position</td>
<td>O</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ideal reader</td>
<td>O</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Imagining the nation</td>
<td>O</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Identification</td>
<td>O</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Persuasion</td>
<td>O</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ideological critique</td>
<td>O</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Premises</td>
<td>O</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Evaluative claim-support</td>
<td>O</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Constative speech</td>
<td>O</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Meta-critical awareness</td>
<td>O</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

CHAPTER FIVE
EMERGENCE OF TARGET PROCESSES AND KNOWLEDGE
This chapter presents and discusses evidence from the different data sources that is related to the study’s first four research questions, reproduced below.

1. What patterns of interpretive processes emerge in students’ discourse organizers and written and oral classroom discourse?
2. What control parameters and attractor states operate in the emergence of target interpretive processes?
3. What SFL and rhetoric metalinguistic terms are produced by the students in oral and written discourse?
   3.1. How do students represent the role of metalanguage in learning how to read the target texts critically?
4. What differences exist between students’ pre- and post-intervention articulated understandings of the U.S. cultural context and critical reading?

The chapter is organized as follows. First, a brief summary of the main findings is presented. Then, an explanation is offered of the ways that a) the intervention was introduced to students, and b) instruction typically occurred. After that, data on emergence is presented and discussed according to the following themes: generative rhetorical inferences, ideological critique, metacritical awareness, metalanguage use, and field knowledge. Attractor states and control parameters are discussed in connection with rhetorical processes, critical processes, and metalanguage use.

5.1. SUMMARY OF FINDINGS
The data discussed in the paragraphs below contribute to explicating the genre and rhetorical knowledge underpinning inferences of unstated authorial position and target
audience for journalistic political opinion texts. The data show that genre knowledge and rhetorical knowledge can act as control parameters driving emergent interpretations of texts. When students’ genre and rhetorical knowledge is not a good match for the target genre, the resulting interpretations are implausible. According to Grabe (2009), these kinds of knowledge are sociocultural factors influencing reading comprehension that are severely under-researched, so the findings below are an important contribution to clarifying their role in comprehension.

Classroom discourse data related to analyses of the first text (Barber) suggests that the initial condition of some participating students’ interpretive repertoires did not include the kinds of genre knowledge and rhetorical knowledge that is conducive to making plausible inferences of authorial position and global reading position. That the lack of these kinds of knowledge is the main explanatory factor behind implausible inferences is suggested by the fact that one of the students making those, Jaime, had completed the attitude discourse organizer for Barber correctly. That is, he had identified and parsed attitude in the text correctly but was still making implausible rhetorical inferences about the text. Analysis of his interaction with me shows that these implausible rhetorical inferences were driven by his application of assumptions that the text being read was narrative and/or informative. This assumption thus acted as a control parameter driving Jaime’s inferential processes. There is evidence that other students held similar assumptions and used them when making rhetorical inferences during the intervention. Assuming that making plausible guesses about information not explicit in the text is not possible or valid was also a control parameter in at least one student’s emerging interpretation of Barber.

Many students were unaware that texts are addressed to specific audiences. Some students brought knowledge of oral and/or private sphere genres to bear on their interpretations of authorial position and global reading position. Specifically, they assumed that the target texts were merely informative, or similar in intent to oral scolding. These assumptions and knowledge sources acted as control parameters initially driving the systems of their emerging interpretations to attractor states characterized by implausible interpretations.

Nevertheless, impromptu unplanned explanations were effective in producing the learning outcomes I had established as a curriculum designer: most students’
interpretations of authorial and global reading positions in the subsequent texts (McLeod, Calhoun, Wendland, Blankenhorn) were plausible. These reciprocal, mutually responsive changes are evidence of emergence, i.e. changes in the environment appear to lead to the emergence of new reading behaviors, which in turn provides indirect evidence of new states of organization emerging in some students’ interpretive repertoires. Further, these data shed light on the knowledge base and reasoning processes needed to make generative rhetorical inferences when reading the target genre. In this way, the findings expand the body of knowledge on generative inferences in the reading comprehension literature.

At the lexicogrammatical/textual (LT) level, students showed good control of attitude metalanguage and attitude parsing for inscribed attitude. By contrast, the parsing of invoked attitude displayed an attractor state characterized by a tendency to rely on syntactic parsing instead of semantic parsing, which produced some instances of non-target-like completion of DOs. A habit to parse language syntactically (subject-verb-object) appears to be the attractor state driving their parsing of attitude to this attractor state. Another attractor state was difficulties in identifying layers of embedded attitude.

Despite these difficulties, the data indicate that some students’ interpretive repertoires moved to a new state of organization apparently in connection with use of the DOs and metalanguage. Specifically, self-report data suggest that the initial condition of some participants’ repertoires was set in an attractor state characterized by the construction of incomplete, superficial textbases. Importantly, students report that use of the DOs led them to realize the need to engage with texts more deeply before making rhetorical inferences. Presumably, this awareness can lead to a strategic behavior consisting of intending to read more closely. Along similar lines, several students reported that use of the DOs and Appraisal metalanguage led them to develop new skills for parsing attitude.

These pieces of data provide some evidence that the assumptions of the instructional theory—namely that Appraisal and rhetorical analyses can lead to the emergence of the targeted LT, rhetorical, and critical processes—held true for some students. The relevant data are presented and examined in the sections below.

5.1. INTRODUCTION OF GOALS AND ASSESSMENT OF FIELD AND BACKGROUND KNOWLEDGE
The first lesson of the design solution was devoted to introducing the intervention and collecting data on participants’ initial articulated understandings of relevant field knowledge: US culture and critical reading. In addition, information on their reading practices was also collected. The intervention’s goals were presented deductively as follows:

(1) T: the purpose of this course is to develop critical reading using discourse analysis (.) and a specific discourse analysis (.) technique called Systemic-Functional Linguistics (.) then we will learn how to analyze a certain kind of texts (.) political opinion texts (.) that I call transnational texts because they are written in the US (.) but WE will read it (.) we who are Mexicans (1 second pause) the expected benefit for you in this course (.) by taking this course (.) is that you will become better readers (.) and also you will learn a method to analyze written discourse

A definition of critical reading was co-constructed with participants by asking them to define critical reading in writing, compare their definitions in small groups, and then having a whole-class discussion focused on their answers. Participants were also asked to free-write about their understanding of US culture. This information is discussed at the end of this chapter in contrast with the data collected on the same aspects on the last day of the intervention in order to highlight changes, and lack thereof, in participants’ field knowledge.

Likert-type questionnaires show that, with the partial exception of immigration, participants were familiar but not knowledgeable of these issues: they had heard of them but could not name specific related participants or pieces of propositional knowledge. Approximately seventy-five percent of participants opposed gay marriage. About fifty percent of participants expressed negative views toward the amero and the North American Union. All participants articulated negative stances toward US immigration policy vis-à-vis Mexican immigrants in that country.

5.3. BRIEF DESCRIPTION OF THE LESSONS
Phase one consists of three overlapping sub-phases. The first two sub-phases comprise classes 2-4 and 8 and include explicit teaching of attitude. The first sub-phase is characterized by a focus on inscribed attitude and Barber (classes 2-3). The second sub-phase focuses on invoked attitude and McLeod (classes 3-4 and eight). The third sub-
phase (classes 5, 6, and 9-11) is characterized by practice of attitude without explicit, whole-class teaching of attitude. There is no explicit, whole-class teaching of attitude during the third sub-phase because instruction during those classes was devoted to engagement and rhetorical and critical processes. During the third sub-phase, occasional scaffolding of attitude parsing processes happened, and students’ DOs continue to show evidence of their evolving understandings of attitude metalanguage and parsing processes.

Phase two, focusing on engagement, consists of two sub-phases. The first sub-phase comprises lessons six and seven and consists of explicit, engagement-focused teaching and practice. The second sub-phase comprises lessons eight through eleven, where engagement continued to be practiced and referred to in classroom discourse in combination with the focus of phase three: identification and persuasion.

Phase three consisted of two overlapping sub-phases: explicit teaching of identification and persuasion in combination with attitude and dialogism (classes 8 through 10), and teaching of Toulmin analysis combined with ideological critique and analysis of culture-discourse (classes 9 through 11). Toulmin analysis was an addition to the instructional prototheory that proved useful to identify the ideal reader and critique ideology. The target texts were Wendland, Blankenhorn, Calhoun, and McLeod. Toulmin analysis was taught so participants could characterize the ideal reader as a composite social identity that can be inferred from unstated premises in a text and projects outward to IDFs in the CC2, and also so they could critique ideology.

After the first lesson, which was devoted to collecting students’ reflections on critical reading and the U.S. cultural context, lessons in all phases developed following this structure roughly: the target constructs and text would be presented in a lesson, target vocabulary was taught; students were given time to read the text without doing DO analysis and would write down their initial understanding of the text; students would work on the first couple of paragraphs while I circulated offering help as needed but also recording interesting instances of interaction; students would then finish completing DOs and answer critical reading questions at home. In the next lesson, I would collect copies of the DOs completed as homework, and then instruct student groups to prepare presentations of specific paragraphs. Students would present their analyses by completing
DOs for specific sections of the texts on the board and explaining their choices. The whole class would discuss and critique these choices.

5.4. METALANGUAGE USE

Data from small group interaction and students’ feedback suggest that the metalanguage was helpful in helping student develop schemata to know what language exponents to look for in a text and how to identify and parse the semantics of Appraisal sequences.

In example 2 below, Jaime, Migdalia, Mildred, and Nayeli are completing the attitude discourse organizer for the segment from McLeod below

The billions of dollars China has invested in the flagging American economy will be worthless. They will have to negotiate the exchange rate to the new amero. This will then force the creation of the North American Union. The cloak of the NAU, fashioned in secrecy, will be thrown over an unsuspecting public, erasing the borders of three countries. Mexico, which already has legions of its citizens living and working inside America, is, in effect already inside the NAU. Their governments will inform the American and Canadian people that there is no option but the bread line. Unfortunately, the plan, which has been in place for some time, now, has been all but ignored by the mainstream media.

Here is their conversation:

(2) 1 Jaime: worthless (.) the polarity (1 sec) is negative
    2 Mildred: yes (.) and the author is is the source (2 sec) but what’s the focus?
    3 Jaime: I think (.) it’s the billions of dollars (.) that China has invested (4 sec)
        secrecy (1 sec)
    4 Migdalia: I think that’s invoked (.) because it doesn’t have to be something bad

In this example, students use the metalanguage in a target-like way. In turn 1, Jaime identifies the polarity in “worthless.” In turn 2, Mildred correctly identifies the author as the source of the attitude. In turn 3, Jaime replies to Mildred’s question about the focus correctly by parsing “the billions of dollars” as the Appraised. In turn 4, Migdalia shows understanding of invoked attitude and correctly labels the attitude in “secrecy” as invoked.
This use of metalanguage illustrates an affordance of what Vygotsky calls “scientific concepts” (1987) or concepts that issue from a systematic, theoretical way of looking at a segment of reality. By being able to name linguistic phenomena such as “attitude,” “polarity” and “invoked,” the students are able to negotiate their understanding of a text in a deeper way than they might have without the metalanguage. There is some evidence, discussed in the paragraphs below and in the next section, that metalanguage use was related to longer-lasting changes in students’ way of thinking about texts and reading.

Students also used the target metalanguage in their anonymous post-implementation feedback. An example is below.

(3) Now, when reading an article, my mind subconsciously analyzes the important points like attitudes or feelings

Interestingly, the comment in example 3 makes references to one metalinguistic word learned in class, namely attitude. Ten of twenty-one students made references to attitudinal metalanguage in their anonymous post-intervention feedback. In all cases, they made references to the metalanguage in connection with better comprehension. Below are some examples.

(4) I can recognize the polarity of words and that helps to know the author’s position

(5) The subject is interesting and I learned something about the polarity that the other person can think

(6) The student can identify that in a simple paragraph there is a source and a focus of attitude

While polarity was the most widely mentioned word by these ten students, at least one student mentioned metalanguage pertaining to attitude parsing, namely source and focus (example 6). Other students also mentioned attitude and author position in connection with claims of improved comprehension.

5.4.1. IMPACT OF APPRAISAL ANALYSIS ON METACOGNITION
Closely connected to metalanguage use is the use of discourse organizers to analyze Appraisal patterns in texts. Unexpectedly, some students reported that the use of the discourse organizers had an impact on an aspect of metacognition: they went from constructing incomplete textbases based on superficial readings to becoming aware of the need and the possibility to process meaning more deeply and build more complete, text-congruent textbases.

As will be explained in the next section, building implausible interpretations of textual aspects such as authorial position was an attractor state in some participants’ interpretations. Students’ comments that such interpretations were the result of superficial reading suggest that they built poor textbases perhaps because they were not used to processing textual patterns of coherence. For example, Luis (HP) wrote in his feedback that, upon a brief reading of Barber—which is only two paragraphs long—he had thought the author was in favor of gay marriage, but attitude analysis with the DO changed his interpretation:

(7) It [the analysis with the DO] changed my mind; I had another opinion which was not really accurate. It was a good way to find attitude with texts that are not so explicit about author’s opinions.

Students also report that superficial reading was a habit of theirs that changed in connection with the intervention. Specifically, using the DOs appears to have generated a realization that it is possible to extract more meaning from texts and that emerging interpretations need to be checked against the text’s language. This is a metacognitive behavior that’s characteristic of good readers (Brantmeier & Dragiyski, 2009). That this form of metacognition emerged during the intervention is supported by students’ anonymous post-intervention feedback comments. In those, six students reported that the intervention made them shift from reading superficially to reading closely and checking their interpretations against evidence from the text. Examples of such comments are below.

(8) This class influenced the ways I read texts, because as a reader, I used to read texts superficially and I only accepted what I could understand. What I could not I just skipped. I used to answer comprehension questions in a simple way.
But now, the teacher and the class have made me think that it is not always possible to catch a text's important points at once. I have to infer and look deeply into the text in order to understand.

(9) I never thought you could learn so much from looking at a text carefully.

(10) After the course and the analyses, I have paid much more attention to my way of understanding and translating a text.

(11) I used to read very superficially. My understanding of how I read has changed.

Metacognition about reading, or the ability to reflect on one’s ways of reading, is an important strategy used by good L2 readers (cf. Brantmeir & Dragiysky, 2009). Its development in connection with this study was an unexpected and important outcome. Like the student in example 8 above, other students explained that they were not used to reading deeply. Apparently, they were used to making interpretations from impoverished textbases due perhaps to an absence of skills to engage more deeply with texts. Some students reported that use of the attitude DOs and metalanguage contributed to their development of new strategies and skills (example 12), and they report using those when reading other texts (examples 12 and 13).

(12) During the summer term I also took two translation courses, then this course helped me a lot because, even though I didn’t write the DOs for the articles we had to translate, I did the DOs mentally when I was reading the texts and so I realized what the author meant and it was easier to translate

(13) Now when I’m reading news or novels I pay attention to attitude and polarity.

5.4.2. PERSISTENT DIFFICULTIES WITH APPRAISAL ANALYSIS
The positive outcomes reported above notwithstanding, analysis of students’ completed discourse organizers show evidence of implausible attitude parsing. Three kinds of difficulties are observable in students’ discourse organizers (DOs): implausible identification of polarity, difficulty in parsing layers of embedded attitude (author-participant evaluation vs. participant-participant evaluation vs. author evaluation of participant-participant evaluation), and difficulty to parse the focus (appraised) of
invoked attitude. Below are examples taken from the three focal participants: Nayeli, Jaime, and Karen.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>attitude</th>
<th>source</th>
<th>focus</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>plans to create a NAU...</td>
<td>(+)</td>
<td>the NAU</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>the author</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Figure 5.1. Excerpt from Nayeli’s attitude DO of Calhoun.

In Figure 5.1, Nayeli misidentifies the polarity in Calhoun’s sentence “plans to create a NAU are already under way.” While there is afforded invoked attitude in this clause, the polarity intended by the author is negative as can be inferred from the fact that, elsewhere in the text, he praises Congressmen who oppose the NAU as “patriotic” and calls on Americans to show massive opposition to the NAU. This implausible identification of polarity suggests that Nayeli was not, in this specific instance, using non-local segments of the text to identify local attitudinal polarity. Other students, however, did this successfully.

Difficulty in parsing layers of embedded attitude is apparent in Jaime’s parsing of the paragraph from Wendland below. The relevant segment is underlined:

President Bush's proposal to militarize the US-Mexico border with the already overstretched National Guard may be a precursor for more dangerous policies down the road. At best Bush's announced plan is a blatant pandering gesture to extremists in his party that want drastic action. Most likely, it is a preparation for more dangerous steps. Bush brags about having deported 6 million people – mainly immigrants from Central and South America. In a televised speech on Monday, he promised to increase federal government internal surveillance on working people and called for a "guest worker" program for undocumented workers, widely regarded as a legal license for employers to manipulate and control immigrant workers in a climate of fear without restraint. Congressional Republican proposals include criminalization of undocumented workers, their families, and those who aid them. These proposals also include requiring local law enforcement forces to become immigration police.

Figure 5.2 shows Jaime’s DO completion for the sentence underlined in the segment above.
In this DO, the focus (appraised) should have been Bush’s immigration reform, not the immigrant workers. As seen in the excerpt from Wendland above, “to manipulate and control immigrant workers” are presented by the author as the actions that employers will be enabled to take thanks to Bush’s proposed immigration reform. Therefore, the segment invokes a negative polarity attitude toward both the employers and the reform.

Instances of this kind of misidentification of focus (Appraised) appears in all DOs by all participants and seems to be driven by the students’ engaging in syntactic, rather than semantic, parsing. The habit of syntactic parsing appears to operate as a control parameter driving students’ attitude parsing to an attractor state where a) the grammatical object of clauses tends to be identified as the focus (appraised), or b) the subject is identified as the focus (appraised) in clauses without an object. As shown in the theoretical framework, the appraised of an invoked attitude segment may be situational and not encoded in the local nuclear relation structure of a clause, but current formulations of the Appraisal framework are limited in their accounts of this phenomenon. The confusions experienced by participants in this project speak to a need to further clarify the possibilities for identifying the appraised in invoked attitude segments. This issue will be further discussed in the conclusions chapter.

Misidentification of the source of a judgment shows up in Karen’s parsing of the attitude in the segment from McLeod below.

Who ever would have dreamed that the euro of a secular bureaucracy one day would be accepted for use at the Vatican? Pope John Paul II, who repeatedly condemned the "moral drift" of secular Brussels, sanctioned an official Euro for the Vatican.

Figure 5.3 shows Karen’s completion of the DO for this segment. In the excerpt shown in Figure 5.3, Karen misidentifies the source of the judgment in “moral drift.” The source is not the author (McLeod) but Pope John Paul II. This is indicated by the use of quotation marks in “moral drift” which signal the attribution of these words to Pope John Paul II.
These three kinds of non-target parsing of attitude (implausible identification of polarity, difficulty in parsing layers of embedded attitude, and difficulty to parse the appraised in invoked attitude segments) are present in all DOs by all participants, except in Barber due to the fact that the completion of the DO for Barber was heavily scaffolded. Nevertheless, the fact that most students inferred the authorial position of subsequent texts correctly (discussed in the next section) indicates that these persistent problems with attitude parsing did not affect the construction of plausible interpretations of authorial position.

This phenomenon (correct inference of authorial attitude despite inaccuracies in attitude parsing) can be explained by the possibility that the engagement analyses performed on Calhoun, Wendland, and Blankenhorn as part of phase two and phase three activities helped participants to generate plausible interpretations of authorial attitude even when difficulties with attitude parsing remained. It is also possible that authorial position can be correctly inferred from the accurate identification and parsing of only a few specific attitude segments that create domination patterns extending their scope throughout larger text segments, which rules out the need to accurately parse all instances of attitude. The use of domination patterns is discussed below.

5.4.3. USE OF DOMINATION PATTERNS

Such use of scope and domination to identify overall authorial position was explicitly taught using McLeod. Below is an excerpt from a discussion of the polarity in McLeod’s use of the word *secular* in “secular Brussels” where Migdalia appears to plausibly identify a domination pattern extending its scope to “secular Brussels”:

---

19 A domination pattern exists when a segment of attitudinal language extends its semantic influence to other parts of the text, allowing for inferences of authorial attitude even in segments where such attitude is not encoded in the segment’s local lexicogrammar.
The euro followed the same blueprint of stealth and surprise. It was already issued as replacement currency before the masses could coalesce to fight it. Who ever would have dreamed that the euro of a secular bureaucracy one day would be accepted for use at the Vatican? Pope John Paul II, who repeatedly condemned the "moral drift" of secular Brussels, sanctioned an official euro for the Vatican.

In the exchange between Martha and Migdalia shown in example 14 below, Migdalia identifies a domination pattern and uses it to counter Martha’s misidentification of polarity.

(14) Martha: mmm (.) well I think, I understand that (. ) uh (. ) she describes this like something that (. ) like (. ) secular bureaucracy is something good like for the government (. ) for the people (. ) and something like that

Migdalia: I don’t agree with Martha because (. ) we can see at the first question that the author asks, I think it’s like an irony (. ) according to what we said in our group, all the negative adjectives that the author used (. ) the author is like (. ) how can I say it? (. ) The author (. ) uh (. ) never gives a positive comment to evaluate the bureaucracy of Brussels (. )

Migdalia justifies her interpretation of a negative polarity by explaining that she identified a domination pattern in the question “who ever would have dreamed…?” that extended its scope to secular. Her comment that the author uses “negative adjectives” and “never gives a positive comment to evaluate the bureaucracy of Brussels” suggests that she is probably identifying the negative polarity in “stealth,” “before the masses could coalesce to fight it,” and “moral drift” and parsing those as appraising items that extend the author’s negative appreciation of the euro to the “secular bureaucracy” that, according to the author, is guilty of imposing the euro stealthily on the masses that would have fought it. Seven other instances of student identification of domination patterns and their scope and use of this identification to determine polarity are found in transcripts of whole-class and small-group interaction. Specifically, identifying and parsing domination patterns was useful when identifying citation alignment as will be discussed in the corresponding section below.
5.4.4. ENGAGEMENT METALANGUAGE

Students were able to identify dialogistic contraction and expansion with accuracy, but they showed less ability to identify the more delicate options for contraction and expansion accurately. That is, they were able to identify accurately when a language segment is dialogically contractive or expansive (e.g. they filled the “dialogistic function column” well) but tended to misidentify the kind of exponent (e.g. wrote “bare assertion” when the segment is actually a denial or citation aligned with authorial position). This pattern of correct identification of dialogistic function along with incorrect characterization of the kind of exponent occurred in the DOs of all students to some extent. However, it does not affect their characterizations of global reading positions, leading me to question the necessity to supply the full range of engagement metalanguage. The paragraphs below discuss these issues.

Analyses of dialogism DOs show that Nayeli, Karen and Jaime misidentified certain options such as probabilistic modals and concede/counters. For example, when analyzing the segment from Wendland’s second paragraph below, Nayeli misidentifies the underlined segment as a citation not aligned with authorial position, as shown in Figure 5.4.

President Bush’s proposal to militarize the US-Mexico border with the already overstretched National Guard may be a precursor for more dangerous policies down the road.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Language exponent</th>
<th>Kind</th>
<th>Dialogistic Function</th>
<th>Intention</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>President Bush... the road</td>
<td>citation not aligned with authorial position</td>
<td>Contract</td>
<td>Inform</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Figure 5.4. Excerpt from Nayeli’s dialogism DO for Wendland.

In this excerpt from Wendland, Nayeli mislabels the segment “President Bush's proposal to militarize the US-Mexico border with the already overstretched National Guard may be a precursor for more dangerous policies down the road” as a citation not aligned with authorial position. I read it as an ENTERTAIN option based on the presence of the modal “may.” Following the simplified version of engagement presented to students, this
segment should have been coded as \textit{probabilistic modal}. Nayeli’s coding is probably driven by the attribution of the proposal to President Bush, which makes her think that this segment is a citation. In my reading of the engagement sub-system, however, the fact that Bush’s act of saying is treated as a nominalization (“President Bush’s \textit{proposal}” instead of “President Bush \textit{proposed that}…””) indicates that Bush’s words are not treated by the author as an externalized vocalization to which he is opening the floor, but as a “fact in the world” that, by virtue of being nominalized, can be discussed and qualified. I base this reading on the fact that all the examples of attribution discussed by Martin and White (2005) involve reporting verbs encoding the vocalization of a subject. Martin and White (2005), however, do not discuss this distinction. Unfortunately, my presentation of the simplified engagement sub-system to participants did not include an explanation of nominalized acts of saying and their status as non-attributions.

Interestingly, both Karen and Jaime also mislabeled this segment, but, unlike Nayeli, they thought it was a bare assertion. The DOs of four other HP students and thirteen other LP students display similar miscodings. These miscodings suggest that more systematic attention needs to be paid to the identification of probabilistic modals and entertain options in general, and to nominalized attributions too by including discussions and exercises that focus specifically on those and on their rhetorical impact on text interpretation.

The next paragraphs discuss Karen’s coding of the segment from Blankenhorn below.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Language exponent</th>
<th>Kind</th>
<th>Dialogistic Function</th>
<th>Intention</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>marriage... parenthood</td>
<td>bare assertion</td>
<td>Contract</td>
<td>Inform</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Figure 5.5. Excerpt from Karen’s dialogism DO for Blankenhorn.

Figure 5.5. above shows Karen’s coding of the segment “marriage as a human institution is constantly evolving, and many of its features vary across groups and cultures. But there is one constant. In all societies, marriage shapes the rights and obligations of parenthood.” Both Karen and Nayeli coded the entire segment as a bare assertion, as did another five HP students and eighteen LP students. None of the participants coded this segment
plausibly as “concede” (“marriage… cultures”) then “counter” (“but there is one constant”) then “bare assertion” (in all societies… parenthood).

Interestingly, all the instances of implausible coding above do not seem to interfere with participant’s plausible characterization of the global reading position. Below is Karen’s description of the global reading position for Blankenhorn:

(15) I think it’s someone who is favor same-sex marriage because the kind of vocabulary used in the text is neutral and the author gives a lot of information to support his opinion

Karen’s answer includes textual evidence (“because the kind of vocabulary is neutral and the author gives a lot of information”) to support her characterization of the global reading position for Blankenhorn. Similarly, Jaime and Nayeli also mentioned the fact that the author supports his opinion with evidence and uses “neutral vocabulary” to justify their characterization of the global reading position as someone who favors same-sex marriage and needs to be convinced to oppose it. They did not use any engagement metalanguage. Instead, their use of “neutral vocabulary” indexes an understanding of the rhetorical role of attitudinal graduation in aligning and appealing to readers. These pieces of data suggest that the engagement metalanguage was not necessary for these students when characterizing the global reading position. Rather, attitudinal metalanguage and the little rhetorical knowledge I supplied were sufficient.

Further, there is evidence that an aspect of the engagement framework as presented by Martin & White (2005) hinders students’ identification of global reading positions. This aspect is the use of the label ATTRIBUTE:ACKNOWLEDGE to code citations where authors use value-neutral verbs such as “say” and the consequent consideration of such segments as dialogically expansive. This issue is discussed in the sub-section corresponding to global reading position inferences in the next section, which turns attention to the emergence of generative rhetorical inferences.

5.5. GENERATIVE RHETORICAL INFERENCE
This section presents and discusses evidence related to the emergence of generative rhetorical inferences and the attractor states and control parameters associated with them.
Three kinds of generative rhetorical inferences are discussed: unstated authorial position, citation alignment, global reading position, and ideal reader.

5.5.1. IMPLIED AUTHORIAL POSITION
The data show that some students needed scaffolding in making plausible inferences of unstated authorial position. They also show that Appraisal analysis and/or rhetorical knowledge were useful to provide such scaffolding; this contributes to validating my claim that these forms of knowledge can help readers to make plausible generative rhetorical inferences in the absence of relevant background knowledge.

The examples below come from classroom interaction about the first text, Barber. In this text, the author focuses on the controversy created by Carrie Prejean’s answer to a question about the acceptability of gay marriage during the 2007 Miss USA beauty pageant. Her answer against gay marriage provoked negative comments from one of the judges, Perez Hilton, a gay man, media critic, and gay-rights activist. The author aligns with Prejean and presents strong, negative judgments of Hilton and the gay community without explicitly endorsing Prejean’s stance against gay marriage. With regard to background knowledge, all students reported not knowing who Carrie Prejean or Matt Barber are. One student, Martha, knew who Perez Hilton was.

After completing the first DO, participants responded to the critical reading questions focusing on authorial position and ideal reader. Concretely, six HP participants and four LP participants showed difficulty and/or reluctance to infer implied authorial attitude toward the topic (in this case, gay marriage) even after accurate attitude patterns had been identified in a whole-class conversation. Analysis of students’ answers and classroom interaction reveal that the initial conditions of some participants’ interpretive repertoires did not include the kinds of public-discourse related rhetorical knowledge and genre knowledge required to make plausible inferences of authorial position. As a result, they applied knowledge of other genres such as “neutral” newsreports and narratives to the interpretation of Barber’s implied position. That is, they assumed the target genre to share features of those other genres, which to them do not include authorial positioning. Some also assumed that guessing information not explicitly stated in the text was not allowed or possible. Implausible interpretations of authorial position were also influenced by some
students’ partial reconstructions of the textbase. All these factors acted as control parameters driving their interpretations to attractor states of implausibility. These phenomena are illustrated in the paragraphs below.

That students’ initially based their representations of textbases on superficial readings was evinced by Patricia and Luis’ comments about the DO analysis. Both reported that the DO analysis had changed their interpretation from initially thinking that Barber supported gay marriage to noticing he did not.

(16) It changed my mind about the text. I first thought that the author was in favor of gay marriage.

(17) When I read the text, I thought the author agreed with gay marriage. But when I was doing the analysis, I realized he didn’t.

For these two students, the analysis of attitude using the attitude DO was enough to help them to infer an unstated authorial position. Other students, however, needed further oral scaffolding to make this kind of inference. Examples 18 and 19 below illustrate students’ difficulties when inferring unstated authorial positions.

Immediately prior to the exchange in example 18, I had noticed that Jaime had answered “he is for gay marriage” in response to the question about authorial position in the critical reading worksheet (worksheet 6 in appendix one) despite having an accurately completed DO on his desk. Further, the worksheet showed that he had previously written “he is neutral” and then erased this answer and replaced it with the new one. When I asked him why he thought the author was in favor of gay marriage, he replied

(18) Jaime: he’s not giving any uh comment for or against Prejean’s comments (.) but uh (. ) for me (. ) he’s trying to (. ) say all the negative things that she said (. ) without helping her

It seems that Jaime’s emerging interpretations of authorial position were driven to attractor states of uncertainty and then misidentification about authorial position because of the absence of positive authorial endorsements of Prejean’s comments. Three control parameters might be operating to produce these attractor states: a) Jaime’s application of non-target genre knowledge, itself explained by his lack of familiarity with the target
genre, b) Jaime’s focus on local aspects of the text rather than global coherence, and c) Jaime’s own position in favor of gay marriage (he later told me he supports gay marriage), which might have led him to impose his own views on the author’s. The existence of control parameters a) and b) is suggested by the analysis of the exchange between Jaime and me shown in example 1 below, which shows my scaffolding of the processes leading to a more plausible characterization of authorial attitude.

(19) 1 T: ok but what is his attitude toward her? 
2 Jaime: well for me it’s negative 
3 T: toward Carrie Prejean? From the author 
4 Jaime: [nods] 
5 T: so look at the chart… whenever Carrie Prejean is the focus and the author is the source… what is the author’s attitude like? (. ) how does the author treat Carrie Prejean? 
6 Jaime: almost all of them are positive 
7 T: yeah so the author (. ) when he talks about Carrie Prejean he’s always positive (. ) what about (. ) what’s the author’s attitude when he evaluates those who criticize Carrie Prejean? 
8 Jaime: negative 
9 T: it’s negative so his evaluation of Perez Hilton is negative (. ) his evaluation of the critiques of Carrie Prejean is negative (. ) so who do you think he is in favor of? Perez Hilton or Carrie Prejean? 
10 Jaime: by analyzing all those elements (. ) I would say it’s uh (. ) in favor of (1 sec) 
11 T: of what? 
12 Jaime: in favor of Carrie Prejean 
13 T: he’s in favor of Carrie Prejean (. ) so can that be grounds to infer his position about gay marriage? 
14 Jaime: well he might agree with Carrie Prejean but (1 sec) I don’t know but I::: (1 sec) 
15 T: he’s not explicit 
16 Jaime: yeah
17 T: he’s not explicit about it right?

18 Jaime: Right

19 T: but (.) is it justified to infer that he agrees with Carrie Prejean?

20 Jaime: no

21 T: so that’s your opinion. (.) maybe or maybe not.

(Jaime looks back at the DO and the text) (4 secs)

22 Jaime: OH::: YEAH::: (.) it’s just that that when I read the text (.) I thought he was neither in favor nor (.) against Carrie Prejean’s comments (.) but (.) as you said if we analyze the (.) uh the chart and the (text) (.) well (.) it shows that he’s (.) uh (.) all his comments about Carrie Prejean are positive so he might be (.) uh he may agree with her

23 T: so what we can say is that, as you said, it is possible that he agrees with CP, if you had to choose between saying the author is in favor of gay marriage and the author is against gay marriage (.) based on the text (.) which one is more likely? (.) that the author is in favor of gay marriage or that the author is against gay marriage?

24 Jaime: based on the text?

25 T: yeah

26 Jaime: he would be against gay marriage (.) but I (.) can’t say it (for sure)

27 T: you can’t say it’s for sure [Jaime: yeah] because he’s not explicit about it but is it fair to suppose that he might be against gay marriage?

28 Jaime: yeah

29 T: possibly (.) I think it’s a plausible interpretation

30 Jaime: yeah

31 T: of course he doesn’t say as much right? But it seems (.) from the analysis of the text [Jaime: yeah] (.) it seems that he probably is against gay marriage because he aligns himself with CP who is against gay marriage herself

32 Jaime: yeah (.) my first impression was (.) that he’s only narrating without taking a position but uh (.) well (.) having analyzed it (.) it changes
After asking questions about the coupling between participants and attitudinal polarity (turns 1-8), I asked Jaime who he thought the author aligned with (turn 9). His answer (“by analyzing…,” turn 10) suggests that he had not previously examined these participant-attitude couplings, that is, he had not parsed the global coherence pattern created by them despite having engaged in parsing each individual instance of attitude with accuracy. The one-second delay in his answer (turn 10) suggests that he is still reluctant to draw this inference in the absence of an explicit endorsement from the author, which he overcomes in response to my request to indeed make this inference (turns 11 and 12). The pauses, false starts and hedged answers in turn 14 show reluctance to infer the author’s position about gay marriage, which is resolved in turn 20 with a negative answer to my question about the plausibility of an inference that the author agrees with Carrie Prejean’s views on gay marriage.

My response (turn 21) was to suggest that alternative possibilities might exist. In hindsight, the phrasing of my response is problematic because by saying “that’s your opinion” I represented that I adhered to the notion that text interpretation is a matter of opinion without absolute answers, which is indeed not my position (see my discussion of the locus of meaning in chapter two). Further, this wording might have led Jaime to simply accept the status quo that such wording presented to him (i.e. “your opinion is as valid as mine”), which would have been detrimental to the intervention’s goals. Fortunately, in turn 22 he takes up my statement as an offer to further reflect on his interpretation, which he does as indicated by his looking back at the DO and the text. The increased volume and lengthened duration of the expletive framing his response (“oh yeah,” turn 22) suggests that indeed he came to realize that it was plausible to generate the target inference (the author, like Carrie Prejean, disapproves of gay marriage) from the existing data (“if we analyze the chart and the text”). Nonetheless, his verbalization of the inference in turn 21 remains hedged (“he might be (.) he might agree with her”).

Nevertheless, I used that verbalization as an opportunity to highlight that it is appropriate to generate plausible inferences about authorial position from authorial judgment of participants (turns 23 to 31). His allusion to an initial interpretation of the text as narrative (turn 32) suggests that Jaime assumes that journalistic texts are narrative, presumably because of a lack of awareness of the rhetorical practices and purposes
indexed by the target genre (he indicated he’s not interested in and does not read political opinion texts in the reading habits survey). This inaccurate assumption might be operating as a control parameter influencing his interpretations of this text.

Like Jaime, seven other participants (Patricia [HP], Luis [HP], Migdalia [HP], Mildred [HP], Yareli [LP], Leydi [LP], Alfredo[HP]) constructed implausible reverse interpretations of authorial position, that is, interpretations that are the opposite of the plausible interpretation, which in this case is that the author opposes gay marriage. Three LP participants (María, Nálida, and Gisela) responded that the author was neutral. However, as explained above, use of the DO was enough for Patricia and Luis to construct plausible interpretations of Barber’s unstated position on gay marriage. It is possible then that the interpretive repertoires of these two and perhaps other students included the kinds of genre and rhetorical knowledge needed to make this inference plausibly.

It could be hypothesized that Jaime’s misinterpretation of authorial position may stem from his not paying sufficient of attention to explanations and to the text itself, but this is unlikely as audio and video recordings show that he participated actively in small group and whole-class completion of the DO and had recorded the accurate parsing resulting from the latter. Further support that, similarly to Jaime, other students used an assumption that journalistic texts are merely informative to interpret authorial intent is found in the example below.

(20) Patricia: about the intention (.) it’s just to inform (.) because it’s no longer trying to convince because it is supposed that they already have knowledge about (2 second pause)

Yesenia: as a matter of fact (.) already (.) the ideal reader already identifies with the NAU thing (.) and with what is happening with the amero (.) the author is only informing all readers about the things that are happening because of the amero

These examples occurred in the context of a whole-class discussion of the rhetorical strategies used by Judi McLeod in “Debut of the Amero.” Both Patricia and Yesenia characterize that strategy as “just to inform” or “only informing” despite instruction
focusing on the suasive nature of the rhetorical strategy used by McLeod, namely identification.

The role of students’ insufficient relevant background knowledge in making implausible rhetorical inferences cannot be overlooked. After all, if they knew more about the authors of these texts, the issues they address, and the IDF's they represent, they wouldn’t need to make rhetorical generative inferences. The students’ articulating the author’s position, intention, and audience would rely more—though perhaps not exclusively—on retrieving previous knowledge from memory.

After the exchange with Jaime above and the whole-class discussion of students’ answers to critical reading questions for Barber, I brought it up to the whole class that inferring authorial position, even when it is not stated, is appropriate as long as inferences are plausible and backed with textual evidence. I explained to them that systematic authorial judgment of participants can be grounds to infer authorial positions vis-à-vis other ideological positions such as opposition to gay marriage: because participants can stand for those positions (e.g. Carrie Prejean represents opposition to gay marriage), systematic judgments of participants can imply judgments of the ideological positions they stand for. I see these explanations as contributing to building rhetorical knowledge.

In hindsight, however, these explanations did not actually contribute to building the students’ genre knowledge; we did not talk specifically about the genre represented by Barber’s text, its communicative purpose and positioning in the public sphere, or how it differs from other genres. As I explained in chapter four, genre knowledge was not part of my theory-in-action; its role in making the rhetorical inferences I targeted emerged more clearly only after data analysis.

Nevertheless, use of the DOs and the explanations about the possibility to infer authorial attitude seem to have been powerful enough to shift participants’ strategic behavior for the target text type during the remainder of the intervention period. Written and oral answers to critical reading questions for the subsequent texts show a reduction in the number of participants that constructed implausible representations of authorial position. Table 5.1 below shows the names of participants who produced implausible representations of authorial positions for the rest of the texts. Bear in mind that students reported holding little background knowledge for these texts.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Text</th>
<th>Participants producing implausible representations of authorial position</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>McLeod</td>
<td>None</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Calhoun</td>
<td>None</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Wendland</td>
<td>Natividad, Patricia, Nancy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Blankenhorn</td>
<td>Gladys</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 5.1. Participants who produced implausible representations of authorial position.

Patricia was the only participants in the implausible reverse interpretation group who constructed one such interpretation one more time. None of the others did. Gladys was also the only participant who had first responded that the author was neutral who did so again. It appears that awareness of new interpretive possibilities for this text type emerged in most participants, leading them to generate rhetorical intentions/strategies that, coupled with attitude parsing, generated text-congruent interpretations of authorial position. However, it is not possible to determine the extent to which these modifications were connected to just DO use versus DO use and oral scaffolding of rhetorical knowledge in individual students. Despite this limitation, these data provide some evidence validating the study’s claim that Appraisal analysis and rhetorical knowledge support the making of plausible generative rhetorical inferences in readers without sufficient background knowledge.

5.5.2. CITATION ALIGNMENT
As predicted by the theorization of learning needs, students experienced difficulties when characterizing citation alignment plausibly. These difficulties can be characterized in terms of an attractor state in their reading behavior consisting of focusing on local, clause-level segments when what they need in order to characterize citation alignment plausibly was to identify extra-clausal domination patterns. It is possible that the
operating control parameter behind this attractor state is internalized advice from vocabulary-focused instruction that leads students to direct attention to local segments of the text. Importantly, however, there is evidence that environmental pressures led to the emergence of new interpretive processes in students’ interpretive repertoires. Specifically, impromptu questions pushing participants to identify instances of judgment extending their scope to citations were effective in scaffolding plausible characterizations of citation alignment. And, importantly, some students reported internalizing this questioning strategy. These data contribute to validating the instructional theory’s core hypothesis that analysis of Appraisal patterns in texts can lead to making plausible generative rhetorical inferences and also to changes in readers’ interpretive repertoires.

Small group interaction reveals that both HP and LP students, with the exception of Laura, needed oral scaffolding to identify whether citations were aligned with the author’s position in the segment from Calhoun below. First, my analysis of the relevant segment is presented and then classroom interaction about this segment is presented and discussed.

Outraged by this plan, four patriotic Congressmen (Reps. Virgil H. Good, Walter B. Jones, Ron Paul, and Tom Tancredo) introduced H. Con. Res. 487, which states that "the United States should not engage in the construction of a North American Free Trade Agreement (NAFTA) Superhighway System or enter into a North American Union with Mexico and Canada." In the last few weeks, patriot Americans from all over the United States have been telephoning their Congressmen demanding that legislation like this be passed in 2007. Nevertheless, cheerleaders for the Bush Administration deny that any plans for a North American Union exist. Neocon Michael Medved says that "there's no reason at all to believe in the ludicrous, childish, ill-informed, manipulative, brain dead fantasies about a North American Union. The entire chimera has been conjured up to scare people over nothing...."

If there are no plans for a North American Union, then why did four of the most patriotic Congressmen see it necessary to introduce H. Con. Res. 487? And if it is not real, then what would H. Con. Res. 487 harm? Legislation preventing a "chimera" certainly cannot present any danger. Why are neocon Trotskyites like Medved becoming so emotionally unstable over a bill to prevent a "chimera"?

In this segment, I interpret Calhoun’s evaluation of the Congressmen introducing H. Con. Res. 487 as “patriotic” as having a positive polarity and thus aligning Calhoun and the Congressmen together around the same value position: opposition to the NAU. By
contrast, the nominal group “cheerleaders for the Bush Administration” is used to evaluate those who deny the plans to create a NAU negatively. In this nominal group, “cheerleaders” realizes an evaluative metaphor of sarcasm that intensifies the force of Calhoun’s evaluation.

I read the use of “cheerleader” here as metaphorical and sarcastic since clearly those denying plans for the NAU are not cheerleaders. According to Martin and White (2005, 147) metaphor is one of the processes by which attitude is intensified. It is well-established in the literature on sarcasm that sarcasm involves using figurative language that involves the use of semantic opposites to pass negative judgments (Quintilian, 1966; Grice, 1971, 1978; Sperber & Wilson, 1981). In this case, the supporters of the Bush administration probably take themselves seriously and see their statements as factual. Calhoun’s use of “cheerleaders” brands them with an identity that is in some ways opposite from the one they probably hold for themselves. The use of “cheerleaders” serves the double purpose of casting them as unserious and evaluating their statements as partisan, part of team-supporting, and thus non-factual. Thus, by characterizing their utterances as those of “cheerleaders,” Calhoun presents those utterances not as the truthful saying of politically responsible and well-informed citizens but as the biased utterances of immature adolescent girls.

The evaluative scope of “cheerleaders” extends to Michael Medved and his utterance in the clause following the one where “cheerleaders” occurs. Further, the third paragraph in this segment contains a new intensified negative judgment of Medved and Bush supporters in “Trotskyite” and “emotionally unstable.” The former term evokes Communism and is likely to elicit a strong affective response in the target audience of conservative American readers.

This analysis shows that Calhoun aligns strongly with those opposing the NAU (the “patriotic Congressmen”) and distances himself from those voices who deny plans for a NAU (e.g. Michael Medved) while aligning them with the Bush Administration and portraying them as untrustworthy sycophants for that Administration (“cheerleaders for the Bush Administration”). The examples below show that students needed scaffolding in order to identify these attitudinal polarity and domination patterns.
As shown by examples 21 and 22 below, the students in this group (Jaime, Migdalia, Mildred, and Angela) needed oral scaffolding from a more knowledgeable partner in order to engage in the desired processes and produce plausible text interpretations. This conversation happened after I realized that they were having trouble identifying the engagement option in the sentence “outraged by this plan, four patriotic Congressmen introduced H.Con.Res. 487, which states that ‘the United States should not engage in the construction of a NAFTA superhighway system or enter into a North American Union with Mexico and Canada’” (Calhoun). Specifically, they were having trouble deciding whether this quotation was aligned with the author’s position. In their engagement DOs, Jaime and Migdalia had written that this citation was not aligned with the author’s position, which is implausible per the analysis above.

(21) 1  T: so (.) is this citation aligned with the author? (4 second pause)
     2  Migdalia: we don’t really now
     3  T: Let me ask you another question, what’s the author’s position?
     4  Mildred: he is against [the creation of the NAU]

The four-second pause after my question, Migdalia’s answer (“we don’t really know”) and the fact that Migdalia and Jaime had interpreted the citation implausibly as not aligned with the author’s position made me think that the students needed further scaffolding in order to identify the alignment of that citation. As a first step, I asked students to identify the author’s position (turn 3). After obtaining a plausible interpretation of the author’s position from the participants (turn 4), I went back to focus on the segment about the patriotic Congressmen.

(22) 1  T: so (.) what attitude (.) what attitudinal language does the author use to evaluate the people that oppose the creation of the NAU?
     2  Jaime: patriotic
     3  T: what’s the polarity of that word?
     4  Jaime: positive

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T: so (. ) if he evaluates positively those who oppose the creation of the NAU (. ) what can be inferred about his own position toward the NAU?

Jaime, Mildred and Angela: he’s against it

T: the author is against the creation of the NAU (. ) yes (. ) so (. ) is this citation not aligned with his position?

Ss: it’s aligned

As seen in turns 1-4 in example 22, Jaime is capable of identifying “patriotic” as an evaluative term and also correctly identifies its polarity. These steps are needed to determine citation alignment, which Jaime had done implausibly (in his DO he had written that this citation was not aligned with the author’s position). This suggests that he and the rest of the team needed my questions: the written meditational means were not enough to meet them at the Zone of Proximal Development (ZPD) and scaffold the target processes.

Having established the polarity of the evaluation, I asked them to infer the author’s position again from the positive evaluation of the Congressmen and the author’s implicit alignment with their position (turn 5). Once they had answered this question plausibly (“he is against it,” turn 6), the terrain was ready for me to ask whether the citation was aligned with the author’s position (turn 7), to which they supplied a plausible answer (“it is aligned,” turn 8). Interestingly, the use of “polarity” and “positive” in turns 3 and 4, and the use of “aligned” in turns 7 and 8 shows that the metalanguage is useful to represent and negotiate the target skill, namely identifying citation alignment. That students use the terms accurately shows they understand the metalanguage and can use it conceptually to guide their interpretations.

The data from this group of students suggest that awareness of attitudinal polarity toward sources and how such polarity is influenced by domination patterns leads students to reconstruct authorial attitude and alignment of sources more plausibly. They also suggest that several of the focal students were at the ZPD for these inferential processes, but written meditational means were not sufficient to meet most of them at the ZPD. It is important to note that the phenomena in Jaime’s group were observed in all groups of students. That is, all students, except Laura, the most proficient student, needed oral
scaffolding via asking guiding questions. The excerpts above indicate that questions focusing on polarity and scope (turns 1, 3, 5 and 7 in ex. 22) are effective at scaffolding these target interpretive processes.

That questions were helpful was confirmed by students’ feedback during the feedback session after class 6. Students from both groups thought the kinds of questions above were helpful in determining the alignment of a source.

(23) 1 Migdalia: something very important was your questions
2 T: and how were my questions helpful?
3 Migdalia: to guess the author’s position (.) if he was in favor or against what was being said
4 Angela: at the beginning (.) I thought that he was ne (.) that he was neither in favor nor against (.) that he was neutral ((Mildred and Migdalia nodded, other students said “yes”)) and then with the questions I saw that they were in favor (inaudible) but that means that he is against the (North American Union)
5 T: ok (.) then what do you think you need to do when doing this kind of analysis?
6 Roberto: analyze the context where the words are
7 Migdalia: and we can ask ourselves the same questions

Roberto’s answer in turn 6 indicates he’s increasingly aware of the need to examine the co-text in order to resolve interpretive impasses or dilemmas. In other words, the questions asked seem to promote his awareness that he needs to use adjacent, and perhaps non-adjacent, segments of the text to make sense of the polarity of discrete words. In turn 7, Migdalia adds that a strategy she and her fellow students can follow is to ask themselves the same kind of questions I had asked regarding how sources were being evaluated by the author. Her utterance indicates that she is internalizing asking attitude and domination tracking questions as a heuristic procedure that assists in determining source alignment.

Taken together, these instances of student feedback (ex. 20) and classroom discourse (ex. 18 and 19) suggest that this aspect of the intervention—questions focusing on attitude, polarity, and domination patterns (e.g. from “cheerleaders” to “Michael Medved”) aimed at helping students determine citational alignment—was needed and had
some effect in restructuring the students’ attitude- and engagement-focused interpretive processes. However, no further evidence is available that these specific interpretive behaviors concerning citation alignment continued to develop in these learners. Had the intervention been longer, this kind of evidence might have surfaced.

5.5.2.1. NEED TO MODIFY THE ENGAGEMENT SUB-SYSTEM

The segment above where Calhoun quotes Michael Medved illustrates what I believe is a need to modify the engagement sub-system. Under the present model of engagement (Martin & White, 2005), the segment

Neocon Michael Medved says that "there's no reason at all to believe in the ludicrous, childish, ill-informed, manipulative, brain dead fantasies about a North American Union. The entire chimera has been conjured up to scare people over nothing...."

should be coded as an instance of ATTRIBUTE:ACKNOWLEDGE because the reporting verb Calhoun used to quote Medved, “say,” is neutral. Nevertheless, the same segment can be read as an ATTRIBUTE:DISTANCE once it is considered as being within the scope of Calhoun’s negative evaluation of Bush administration officials as “cheerleaders.”

In Martin and White’s (2005) formulation of the sub-system of engagement, ATTRIBUTE:DISTANCE is a dialogically expansive choice. Following their logic, I labeled the corresponding category in my simplified version (“citation not aligned with authorial position”) as a dialogically expansive choice too. I explained to students that the presence of dialogically expansive choices indicates that an opposing reader is being addressed. Operating within this logic, Migdalia and Angela wrote that, although the text was primarily directed to readers in agreement with Calhoun, this section of the text was addressed at opposing readers.

This inference, however, is at odds with an inference that could be drawn from Calhoun’s highly graduated negative evaluation of this position (“cheerleaders,” “emotionally unstable”) using the rhetorical premise that writers seeks to show good disposition toward their audience. Under that premise, the presence of highly graduated negative attitude cannot signal that an opposing reader is being addressed. Rather, from a
perspective of identification, these instances of highly graduated negative attitude can be read as implicit claims of value whose premises are not made explicit by the author.

Calhoun does not say why a denial of plans for a North American Union is a sign of emotional instability. This omission is grounds to infer that this segment of the text constructs a reader already in agreement with his position. This claim is further reinforced by the strong sarcasm in “cheerleaders”: readers that sympathize with the Bush administration would not read this word as evidence that that Calhoun is well-disposed to their ideological alignment. This analysis leads me to suggest that the engagement option ATTRIBUTE:DISTANCE should be modeled as a dialogistically contractive option rather than an expansive one. The next section deals with inferences of global reading position.

5.5.3. GLOBAL READING POSITION
I will now discuss inferences related to the global reading position. First, I will discuss instances of implausible inferences when working with Barber. Some students’ answers to the ideal reader question suggest that their initial characterization of a global reading position from attitude analyses was mediated by inadequate assumptions about the target genre that are explained by absence of relevant knowledge of the rhetorical public sphere, its genres, and the audience-related functions of evaluation in those. These students compensate for the lack of such knowledge by bringing to bear the genre and rhetorical knowledge they have developed from previous experiences with discourse. This compensatory behavior led to implausible interpretations of global reading position.

The critical reading worksheet included a question asking students to characterize the text’s intended audience. At this point (phase 1, lesson 2, Barber), no explicit instruction about global reading position or ideal reader had been provided beyond explaining that ideal reader referred to the kind of audience a text is addressed to. The goal of this question and explanation was to characterize students’ initial, intuitive understanding of the construct and to follow Wallace’s (2003) recommendation to initially introduce the notion of ideal reader using the concept of a real audience that a text addresses.

My own interpretation of the ideal reader constructed by Barber is of someone who aligns with his anti-gay marriage stance and shares his strong defense of Carrie Prejean
and strong negative judgments (e.g. “blubering like a fussy little baby”) of Perez Hilton.
My interpretation is guided by the following assumptions: a) writers try to show good will
(‘eunoia’) towards their target audience(s) as a way to succeed in advancing their
arguments; b) journalistic political genres operate in the rhetorical public sphere (Hauser,
1998); c) as a consequence of b), the arguments in these genres, which strong judgments
contribute to create, depend for their success on how well they resonate with the groups
discussing the issue at hand (Hauser, 1998).

Based on these premises, I infer a global reading position that already agrees with
Barber rather than one who would dissent with him. I read the strong negative judgments
of Hilton and those whom the author aligns with him—“liberals in Hollywood, the media,
and organized homosexuality”—as expressions of outrage and attempts to perform
identification with an audience that would feel similarly outraged by Perez Hilton’s
comments. This is the kind of group with whom Barber’s judgments would resonate well.

Interestingly, only six of twenty students present in the class characterized the ideal
reader as aligned with the author. Seven students (Karen [HP], Octavia [HP], Mildred
[HP], Migdalia [HP], Angela [HP], Yareli [LP], and Yuliana [LP]) thought that the text
was written for a dissenting audience, i.e. those who would align with Hilton and favor
gay marriage. Another seven students (Luis [HP], Gustavo [HP], Leydi [LP], Nancy [LP],
Nálida [LP], Gladys[LP], and Alfredo[LP]) answered that the text was written for anyone.

The global reading position construals of these diverging groups appear to emerge
from different assumptions about the public nature of this text. Those positing an
opposing ideal reader did so because of their assumption that negative judgments of a
discursive participant signal that those sharing such position are being addressed. Below
are Octavia’s and Karen’s answers:

(24) The author is focusing on an audience that agrees with Perez Hilton’s attitude. I
think he’s trying to persuade the people that share Perez Hilton’s opinions in order
to change their minds and make them realize about the Perez Hilton’s wrong
comments [Octavia’s answer to question 4, critical reading worksheet, class 3].

(25) I think the text is written for those who are against the author’s attitude because
he is always evidencing the bad behavior of people who agree with Perez Hilton
[Karen’s answer to question 4, worksheet 4, critical reading worksheet, class 3].
By contrast, Luis, who answered that the text was written for anyone, did so guided by the assumption that “careless” use of language, by which he probably means highly graduated negative judgment, signals a lack of engagement with a specific audience:

(23) I don’t think that he’s aiming at a specific audience. I know this because he’s not being careful about what he says… it’s like a TVNotas article. [Luis’ answer to question 4, critical reading worksheet, class 3].

Luis’ assertion is discussed in more detail below. During oral feedback, Karen and other students volunteered that the notion that texts were addressed to specific audiences was new to her.

(26) Karen: the concept of ideal reader was new to me (.) I had never thought about that before.

She appears to have held a tacit assumption that texts are written for anyone who reads them. Yet, she answered that the text is written for an audience that would sympathize with Perez Hilton because the author is trying to highlight to them Perez Hilton’s wrong behavior (example 25 above). This kind of exchange where discursive participants who are judged negatively are the target audience for the text is typical of, for example, scolding. In instances of scolding, the Appraised, or object of attitude, and the Appraisee, or hearer of the attitudinal message, are conflated as shown in Figure 5.6 below.

**Figure 5.6. Conflation of Appraised-Appraisee in oral scolding.**
This kind of conflation of Appraised and Appraisee strikes me as infrequent in public, journalistic political discourse, but is perhaps more characteristic of non-political, non-journalistic, oral genres such as oral scaffolding and church sermons.

Karen’s contributions suggests that, when exposed to an unfamiliar task whose reasoning parameters they did not know, participants generated inferences that were presumably based on their previous discursive experiences with texts (both oral and written) containing the kind of highly graduated negative judgments found in Barber. These texts perhaps included oral scolding and sermons.

Students’ knowledge of other genres and its application to this reading task thus acted as a control parameter driving their interpretations of global reading position. For example, Luis said that he saw similarities between Barber’s prose style and that of the popular Mexican yellow-press magazine TVNotas (example 23 above). He reported believing that this writing style is aimed at generating controversy and scandal in all kinds of readers, without addressing any specific reading position. This is a fair assumption: TVNotas cannot be said to be part of the rhetorical public sphere as its writers and texts do not take positions on public issues. What Luis does not perceive is that the target text, unlike TVNotas articles, does partake in the rhetorical public sphere and thus different assumptions apply when interpreting its rhetorical context.

His beliefs further indicate that students use notions of dialogic exchange and genre knowledge rooted in previous discursive experiences as thinking parameters to meet the demands of this unfamiliar task. Students’ reported lack of engagement with the target genre explains this phenomenon. These assumptions and their sources should have been explored more explicitly in oral classroom discussion. Unfortunately, that kind of discussion did not occur.

In the discussion that followed individual answering of the critical reading questions, I explained that a goal of critical reading is to generate plausible inferences that can be verified from the text’s language. I also explained explicitly during lesson three and subsequent lessons that the presence of strong evaluations signals the construction of an audience aligned with the author, especially when the grounds for such evaluations are not explicit and therefore assumed to be shared.
Unfortunately, I did not use the opportunity afforded by the discrepancies between my and participants’ competing interpretations to explore the genre knowledge and rhetorical knowledge underpinning those differences. I did not at the time realize that our assumptions based on different prior genre and rhetorical knowledge were acting as control parameters driving our diverging interpretations. This is a limitation of the study.

Nevertheless, the explanations of plausibility and global reading position above appear to have been powerful enough to generate new strategic behaviors in participants. None of the participants who thought that there was no specific audience for Barber responded similarly to questions about the ideal reader constructed by the subsequent texts. Further, although their characterizations of the ideal reader varied in complexity, Karen and the other participants who constructed implausible representations of the global reading position constructed by Barber showed success in constructing plausible representations of global reading positions in subsequent texts and supported their interpretations with evidence concerning the graduation of attitude. That is, after the analysis of Barber, there were no further examples of implausible characterizations of the global reading position.

This new behavior—using linguistic and rhetorical assumptions to make plausible inferences of global reading position—was further scaffolded by a new presentation of the connection between highly graduated attitude and the construction of an aligned audience in the context of explaining identification in classes seven and eight. For instance, in example 15, reproduced again below, is Karen’s answer to my question regarding the ideal reader in Blankenhorn during class eleven. Blankenhorn opposes same-sex marriage.

(15) Karen: I think it’s someone who is in favor of same sex marriage because the kind of vocabulary used in the text (.) is neutral

During oral feedback after class five, Karen explained that the notion that the ideal reader could be inferred from the graduation of attitudinal language was new to her:

(28) Karen: I didn’t know that you could infer the ideal reader by looking at how strong the language is (.) that’s new for me

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The differences between this answer and her answers in examples 15, 25, and 28 suggest that it was the intervention which led her to develop a new assumption about public discourse. While she first understood that highly graduated judgment signals that the appraised of such language is being addressed (see example 25 above), she switched to an assumption, aligned with that promoted by the intervention, that the presence of such language is grounds to infer that a reader aligned with the author is being constructed. In other words, her interpretive repertoire changed in response to instruction (see example 15). Therefore, this is evidence of emergence of the targeted processes and contributes to validating the core hypothesis of the instructional theory, namely that Appraisal and rhetorical analyses can support the making of plausible rhetorical inferences.

5.5.4. TOULMIN ANALYSIS AND IDEAL READER

During class nine, after the basics of Toulmin analysis had been introduced, students produced interesting, plausible characterizations of the ideal reader in Wendland and indicated feeling more at ease with the concept. I wrote the following phrase on the board: “the ideal reader constructed by this text is someone who…” and asked students to come to the board and write phrases completing this sentence. Luis (HP) wrote “is an immigrant;” Martha (HP) wrote “is against conservative ideas;” and Mildred (HP) wrote “is a pro-immigrant rights activist.” They all supported their claims plausibly, but did not fully use unstated premises to support their characterizations of the ideal reader. In the activity that followed, however, Laura did use unstated premises to identify the ideal reader in McLeod and Calhoun as shown in the two examples below.

During small-group conversation to answer my question about the ideal reader and rhetorical strategies in McLeod and Calhoun, she said the following about Calhoun’s segment below.

Neocons celebrate this Marxist notion of a "propositional nation," because it removes the historic prerequisites of nationhood: borders; a common language, history and genealogy; blood and soil; kith and kin; and genophilia (instinctive attachment to family and tribe).

(29) Laura: but in that part of the ideal reader (.) the ideal reader also believes that nationality is based on race
Calhoun makes a claim that nationality is based on race but does not support this idea. By this point, it had been explained to students that this absence of support and/or premises is grounds to infer that the ideal reader shares the support and premise for this claim; that is, the ideal reader identifies with the author. Laura’s interpretation of the ideal reader as someone who “also believes that nationality is based on race” follows this reasoning. Further evidence that this ability to infer the ideal reader based on unstated premises comes from the segment below, where she and I talked about the ideal reader in McLeod.

(30) 1 T: but this person believes that if you praise China you’re an enemy (. ) is that premise explicit (. ) is it spelled out somewhere?

2 Ss: no

3 T: what does that tell us about the ideal reader?

4 Laura: it’s someone who already agrees with that

5 T: it’s someone who already agrees (. ) right

6 Laura: there is no need to convince

7 T: right (. ) so if there’s no need to explain [inaudible] so the ideal reader is someone who already shares that premise

8 Yes (. ) I mean (. ) someone who already believes that (. ) someone who is against the United States not being the world superpower anymore (. ) and anyone who thinks otherwise is an enemy (. ) someone who knows about economics (. ) who already has a defined political opinion (. ) and opposes the European Union.

It is plausible to think that the explanation of what the ideal reader is and how to infer it led to this text-based understanding of the ideal reader as “as fictionalized dis/identifications” (Ratcliffe, 2010, 187) created by the author, in this case by omitting premises. That is, the unstated premises operate rhetorically as a series of identificational moves performed by the author. These unstated premises also operate rhetorically to naturalize McLeod’s ideological position. However, I did not use this textual feature to discuss such naturalization and its power effects with students, which is a shortcoming of the intervention. This kind of discussion could have taken place if more time had been available to continue to implement the curriculum.
Further evidence that this behavior in Laura’s interpretive repertoire emerged in connection with the intervention is found in her feedback comment that she had not thought about audience in this way before. The excerpt above also shows that she clearly understands what “premise” means, evincing receptive control of this metalinguistic term. The other students, however, do not show as clear evidence of constructing representations of the ideal reader based on omitted premises.

The examples and discussion above have shown that genre knowledge and rhetorical knowledge can act as control parameters when making rhetorical inferences. This finding contributes to illuminating the role of these kinds of sociocultural knowledge in comprehension, which Grabe (2009) has identified as an area in need of more research. The findings also contribute to clarifying the reasoning process involved in these attitude-related, generative inferences. In doing so, they contribute to an ongoing line of research that seeks to clarify such processes (e.g. Graesser et al, 1998; Gygax et al, 2004, 2007) and shed light on the generative inferential processes outlined by Kintsch (1998).

5.6. CRITICAL PROCESSES AND CULTURE-AS-DISCOURSE
This section focuses explicitly on the interpretive processes I have labeled as “critical,” namely meta-critical awareness and ideological critique. I do not mean to say that these are the only kinds of processing that count as critical or ideology-focused. As I have discussed briefly above and will show again below, inferring an ideal reader from unstated premises is a way to engage with the ideological dimension of culture. I also do not mean to say that ideology and culture are dichotomous. What I mean to say is that, in addition to the ideal reader-culture connection, the instances of classroom discourse below focus more explicitly on the kinds of interpretive behaviors that have been previously called “critical,” namely meta-critical awareness and ideological critique. From a perspective of culture-as-discourse, any discussion of ideology is a discussion of culture in its ideological dimension. If I use the term “ideology” without mentioning “culture” next to it, I do so only for the sake of brevity and convenience, but I do not mean to set up a dichotomy between these two at the conceptual level. The next paragraph summarizes the main findings discussed in this section.
Characterizing the ideal reader probably had an impact on at least three students’ understanding US culture-as-discourse. Interestingly, some students display meta-critical awareness in their discourse despite the fact that it wasn’t targeted by instruction. Ideological critique happened in the form of evaluations of the oppressive power of ideology. However, only a few instances of ideological critique happened and they tended to be teacher-led. This was partly a result of students’ insufficient background knowledge of ideological systems such as communism and capitalism, and also a result of the limited time available to implement the intervention. That kind of background knowledge surfaced as an important element to consider in the instructional theory informing this intervention.

5.6.1. IMPACT OF IDEAL READER CHARACTERIZATION ON IDEOLOGICAL CRITIQUE AND UNDERSTANDING OF U.S. CULTURE

Martha’s comments during the feedback session after class nine shows that she probably came to imagine Americans differently as a result of the analysis of Wendland’s ideal reader.

(31) Martha: I think it was clear because many times we focus only on one part (.) for example someone said it was for immigrants (.) but it can also be for white Americans that are pro-immigrant

The comment above also suggests that Martha is increasingly aware of the existence of contradictory ideological positions on immigration within US political discourse, which speaks to an awareness of culture-as-discourse. Further evidence of this awareness is found in her summary of learning about American culture, where she wrote

(32) The US has changed culturally, from being a country where a majority of the population was racist, with slavery, it is now a partially multicultural country. The Arizona Law SB1070 has provoked a separation of the country into two groups: those who support this law and those who are pro-immigrant.

This description of US culture contrasts with her initial reflection on US culture, where she mentioned the construction of the wall along the Mexico-US border as a sign of
racism and also wrote about her concern for her relatives living in the US. In that initial reflection, there was no evidence of awareness that a part of the US population is pro-immigrant and favors multiculturalism. I am of course not claiming that her seemingly new awareness of this fact is entirely due to the intervention, but her oral comments about Wendland farther above (“many times we focus only on one part,” referring to the attention given to anti-immigration positions in the media) suggest that the intervention did play a role in making her (more) aware of the existence of the “other part” that is not “focused on”: pro-immigrant positions taken by Americans. Because awareness of culture-as-discourse entails awareness of multiple ideological positions in a cultural context, these instances of Martha’s discourse can also be taken as instances of growing awareness of the ideological dimension of culture. The section below explores instances of meta-critical awareness.

5.6.2. META-CRITICAL AWARENESS

The emergence of meta-critical awareness is another phenomenon informing the learning and instructional prototheories. Not initially considered as one of the design solution’s goals, meta-critical awareness emerged unexpectedly in classroom discourse during the whole class discussion of McLeod. Specifically, a discussion of the polarity in secular seems to have triggered emergence of meta-critical awareness in Martha. She described her parsing of the polarity in secular as positive. When asked why she thought so, she replied that is was positive as show in example 18 which is reproduced below:

(33) Martha: mmm(.) well I think(.) I understand that(.) uh(.) she describes this like something that(.) like(.) secular bureaucracy is something good like for the government(.) for the people(.) and something like that

As shown above, Martha’s turn was followed by Migdalia’s voicing of her objection to Martha’s interpretation and her own explanation:

(34) Migdalia: I don’t agree with Martha because(.) we can see at the first question that the author asks, I think it’s like an irony(.) according to what we said in our group, all the negative adjectives that the Pope used(.) the author is like(.)
how can I say it? The author (.) uh (.) never gives a positive comment to evaluate the bureaucracy of Brussels (.)

This reply was followed by the following exchange with the group

(35) 1  T: now we have to distinguish between the polarity attitude provoked in us by words, and the kind of polarity intended by the author (.) what kind of attitude is provoked in you when you read that the government must be secular?

2  Ss: positive

3  T: everyone? ((ss raise their hands)) most of you (.) and (.) why do you think that is? Why do we have that positive attitude?

4  Laura: because of our experiences and the values that are common here in Mexico

Laura’s answer in turn 4 shows that she is aware of the discursive sources (“experiences”) informing her own reading position, ideological lenses, and interpretations. This is a key characteristic of metacritical awareness. After Laura said this, I asked students how many of them had attended a religious school, which none had. Then I asked if their values and attitude toward secularism would be different had they attended that kind of school, to which they nodded. By doing this, I engaged students with an aspect of ideology as defined by Charland (1987), namely that terministic screens create value-based assumptions that we use to interpret reality. Further, Laura’s bringing the origin of these terministic screens to the fore (“our experiences”) incipiently disturbs the naturalization of the secular perspective that was characteristic of us as a class. However, the conversation could have been richer had we as a class explored more fully the concept of naturalization and terministic screens. Doing so would not have necessarily involved using those terms, but I as a teacher could have asked questions leading students to reflect more on the power of naturalization and terministic screens to obscure and close dialog with non-secularist perspectives.

Nevertheless, the dialogic exchange above seems to have had an impact in Martha’s interpretive processes. In the following example, which happened when discussing
Wendland in class seven, she shows awareness of the potential of communism to elicit different attitudinal polarities depending on one’s reading position. I asked what the polarity of communism, which other students had identified as attitudinal, was.

(36) 1 Martha: invoked

2 T: yes, why?

3 Martha: it’s because for some people it’s going to be something good and for others it’s going to be something bad (.) depending on the point of view (.) for me (2 second pause) for example (.) if I am a businessman (.) for example (.) for my business it’s going to be something bad

Martha’s answer in turn 3 evinces her ability to infer the different polarities elicited by the word communism in readers according to their social identities. That is, she is able to imagine different reading positions in a social structure. Such imagining requires that she sees her own position as one of a variety of interpretive approaches and at the very least knows that her own ideological biases would be different from those of other readers, even if in this specific piece she does not delve into what her own position and biases are. Therefore, I interpret this segment as an instance of metacritical awareness.

This segment also shows Martha’s awareness of an aspect of ideology, namely the existence of terministic screens leading people to react to specific language segments in different ways according to their value and social positions in a cultural context. As a teacher, I could have used her contribution to make the class further reflect on terministic screens, their connections to culturally contextualized values and social positions, and their potentially oppressive effects. I, however, missed this opportunity.

Nevertheless, the discursive interactions above appear to have influenced Martha’s ideational knowledge about critical reading in a way that led her to consider the concept of metacritical awareness, without using that specific term. In her explicit definition of critical reading at the end of the course, Martha emphasized that critical reading involved going beyond literal meanings and one’s interpretation to see alternative interpretations. This interpretation is suggested to me by her assertion that critical reading involves going beyond the literal “to learn about different ways of thinking”:
Critical reading is seeing beyond what is explicit in the text, think carefully about what each clause says and stop thinking that everything that’s written is literal in order to learn about different ways of thinking (Martha’s post-intervention reflection on the meaning of critical reading).

This definitional aspect had not been included in her initial definition of critical reading. The difference between her pre-intervention and post-intervention definitions of critical reading suggests that the exchanges above (example 18) led to the emergence of meta-critical awareness as a new interpretive process for her, driving the system of her interpretive repertoire (the collection of interpretive processes, assumptions, and knowledge about them available to her) to a new state of organization.

There is evidence that another student, María, developed meta-critical awareness. Below is a segment of her final reflection on the meaning of critical reading:

(38) María: each reader have their own understanding depending on the culture and environment where they live

That María chose to emphasize the situatedness of meaning according to reading positions suggests to me that she became aware that her own reading position is one among many. Even though she may not be aware of the discursive features and origins of her reading position, her being conscious of other interpretive possibilities can be understood as an initial step toward meta-critical awareness. Further, the connection she draws between a reading position and its cultural environment speaks to a growing awareness of culture-as-discourse. There is no evidence in classroom discourse that other students besides Martha, Laura, and María developed meta-critical awareness, which points to a need to scaffold this process more explicitly and use meditational means and data collection instruments to promote and record its emergence in all participating students. Longer time and deeper engagement than what was possible within the time constraints of this intervention may also help to further promote meta-critical awareness.

Interestingly, meta-critical awareness can be theorized as an aspect of metalinguistic awareness. The fact that, in examples 35 and 36, Laura and Martha came to consider the
varying attitudinal polarities that can be elicited by the words *secular* and *communism* indicates that they have come to consciously reflect on, or objectify, attitudinal polarity as an aspect of word meaning. They are capable of analyzing these words as objects of study and consider the varying attitudinal polarities they may elicit in different reader-listeners. They are also capable of recognizing and reflecting on the discursive sources of their own affective responses to the words. These abilities can be seen as signs of a kind of pragmatic competence that involves recognizing the culturally situated meanings that particular words (forms) may have, which for Jessner (2006) is a dimension of metalinguistic awareness. Further, both Laura's and Martha’s explanations of why the polarities of the words *secular* and *communism* may vary according to a social group’s discursive experiences also involve explaining “why a word has a particular function,” which for Jessner (2008, 277) is a sign of metalinguistic awareness.

The section below turns attention to instances of classroom discourse where ideology was evaluated, or ideological critique.

5.6.3. IDEOLOGICAL CRITIQUE

Contrasts between the positions on undocumented immigration represented by Wendland and Calhoun/McLeod, and Blankenhorn’s fallacious argument against gay marriage, afforded rich opportunities for ideological critique and analysis of culture-as-discourse that were seized by some HP participants (e.g. example 35 and 37). Specifically, Toulmin analysis-grounded ideological critique produced a change in participants’ reactions to Blankenhorn, one of the texts used during the second sub-phase (examples 39-42). These data show that Toulmin analysis is a valuable addition to the instructional theory. However, participants’ final expositions of ideational field knowledge suggest that only three students’ understandings of American culture were influenced by the view of culture-as-discourse afforded by comparisons of the ideological positions in Wendland vs. Calhoun/McLeod (examples 32-34 and 37). This finding highlights the need for more explicit instruction on culture-as-discourse.

Written from an explicitly Marxist perspective, Wendland criticizes the Bush administration’s immigration reform proposals as a way to further control and disenfranchise undocumented migrants and lambasts right-wing commentators for their
racist tirades against immigrants. He blames corporations and free-trade policies for
destroying local economies and driving immigrants out of their communities. This text
contains many opportunities to analyze ENTERTAIN, CONCEDE, COUNTER, and
ATTRIBUTE:DISTANCE options as well as inscribed and invoked attitude. Students
reported being very familiar with the subject of US immigration debates and most of them
could name the Arizona immigration law being discussed at the time.

Blankenhorn argues against gay marriage claiming that a) marriage is a license to
procreate, and b) adoption by gay couples constitutes a violation of children’s rights to be
raised by their two biological parents. Unlike previous texts, which display highly
graduated negative judgments and identification, Blankenhorn is dialogically expansive,
non-judgmental, and uses argument from authority and rational persuasion of an opposing
reader as its overall rhetorical strategy. His arguments, however, are fallacious: current
US law does not construe marriage as a license to procreate, and children adopted by gay
couples have typically lost their biological parents, so their rights, as construed by
Blankenhorn, are not violated by the couples adopting them. Therefore, Blankenhorn
offers opportunities to practice Toulmin analysis and ideological critique. Students
reported being familiar but not knowledgeable about US gay marriage debates, and a
large majority of them are against gay marriage.

Two instances of ideological critique are discussed here. First, Luis produced the
instance below during small-group work.

(39) Luis: well (.) something else is that the solution for them is ((looks for words
in the text then reads)) cleansing by means of mass deportation of illegals to
solve the problem (.). so (.) they don’t propose any solution (.). to help both
sides of this problem (.). just to keep them out

His comments in the last two lines above evaluates the right-wing positions discussed
by Wendland by finding questionable points in it (“they don’t propose any solution”) and
exposing a negative effect (“just to keep them out”). Luis’ comments address the
oppressive aspect of ideology. Unfortunately, I did not exploit his comments to
continue to reflect on that dimension of ideology with the whole class.

Also during small-group work but in class ten, when I asked students to compare
Wendland to Calhoun and McLeod, Laura produces speech that evinces an awareness
of the nuanced and conflicting positions between paleo-conservative and leftist positions on immigration:

(40) 1 Laura: the other guy ((Wendland)) also says that the big corporations are guilty of affecting immigrants and taking advantage of them

2 T: yeah (.) they do have that in common (.) and how are they different?

3 Laura: uh (.) in the group of people they support (.) the NAU authors ((Calhoun and McLeod)) say the corporations are responsible (.) that the immigrants are affecting white people (.) and the other guy ((Wendland)) says that big corporations are responsible for taking advantage of the immigrants (.) they blame the same corporation (.) but one is racist

Laura’s act of contrasting the positions of the two texts in turn 3 accurately identifies the commonality between Wendland and Calhoun (“they blame the same corporations”). Her identification of the racist position that distinguishes Calhoun and McLeod from Wendland (“one is racist”) can be interpreted as a negative evaluation, and thus a critique, of the underlying ideology in Calhoun and McLeod. Laura’s plausible identification of commonalities and differences between these IDFs (paleconservatism and Marxism as represented by Calhoun/McLeod and Wendland respectively) suggests a developing awareness of culture-as-discourse, which is also awareness of the ideological aspect of culture. Further evidence for Laura’s emerging awareness of culture as a field of contrasting ideological positions comes from her post-implementation summary of learning about American culture:

(41) One of the first things that it is possible to realize from reading these texts is that, although the country is divided into two big factions or political parties, liberals and conservatives, these are also divided into smaller groups with radically different ideas… there are many diverse viewpoints about certain controversial issues

Her assertion that political factions “are also divided into smaller groups with radically different ideas” and that “there are many diverse viewpoints about certain controversial issues” is evidence of her emerging awareness of culture-as-discourse since her comments reveal an understanding of culture as “competing ways of giving meaning to
the world and organizing social institutions and processes” (Weedon, 1987, 35) which for Crawford and McLaren (2003) is the defining characteristic of a view of culture-as-discourse. This is also an ideological understanding of culture as Crawford and McLaren (2003) is the defining characteristic of a view of culture-as-discourse. This is also an ideological understanding of culture as Laura came to represent for herself how power-oriented symbolic systems manage to structure groups of people around the value systems they index. This understanding was not apparent in her pre-implementation reflection on U.S. culture, where she explained that she associated U.S. culture with advanced technology and pop culture. It is therefore possible that Laura’s ideological understanding of culture emerged in connection with the intervention.

5.6.4. TOULMIN ANALYSIS AND IDEOLOGICAL CRITIQUE

During class eleven, the class discussed Blankenhorn. In this text, the author claims that gay marriage violates children’s rights. His arguments are fallacious as explained below. The students had completed attitude and engagement DOs for Blankenhorn as homework. In class, I asked them to talk about the author’s position, rhetorical strategy, claims, and the premises behind his claims.

Transcripts of small group conversations in Laura’s group show that their views were aligned with Blankenhorn and they had not seen the fallacies in his reasoning.

(42) Laura: [inaudible] he’s against gay marriage and gay parenthood (.). and the support is children need both biological parents to be raised

Olympia: that makes sense

Laura: [laughs] that makes sense

I provided some scaffolding to Laura’s group when they were determining what Blankenhorn’s claims were. Their answers to my questions further reveal their alignment with Blankenhorn and absence of critical engagement with his claims.

(43) 1 T: having kids (.). right (.). the ability to procreate (.). so (.). if we had to summarize this claim (.). we could say (.). claim (.). gay marriage is not valid (.). support (.). because the goal of marriage is procreation (.). so what is the premise (.). a valid marriage is

2 Laura: one that involves kids
In turn 9, my question intended for Laura and others in her team (Luis, Roberto, and Octavia) to see the fallacy in Blankenhorn’s claim that children adopted by gay parents are denied their birthright to be raised by their two biological parents. Presumably, the support to this claim is the notion that all children have a right to be raised by their two biological parents. The premise that would make this claim-support pair logical is that children adopted by gay couples have living biological parents that they are taken away from. Obviously, this is fallacious to the extent that many children who are put up for adoption no longer have living biological parents, so their right to be raised by those can be neither upheld nor violated. Therefore, the adoption of orphan children by gay parents does not constitute a violation of that right. The exchange between Luis and Laura in turns 11 and 12 (“I agree with the premises,” “it’s bad for children’s minds” and Luis’ junkie analogy), however, shows that my question was insufficient to lead them to see this fallacy.

During the whole-class discussion that followed small-group work, the students wrote the following claim-support pairs on the board:
1. Gay marriage is a bad idea because it is against children’s rights.

2. Gay marriage is not a naturally valid marriage because it doesn’t include procreation.

3. A valid marriage is one that can procreate because the goal of marriage is procreation.

I pointed out to students that the third claim was the premise behind claim 2 and asked them if they saw any problems with its logic. Students wouldn’t answer this question, perhaps indicating that they did not see any and were resisting my attempts to make them see one. I asked them if they shared the premise and several of them nodded and said “yes.” Mildred, however, said “no.” I had talked with her group and had had them consider the situation of heterosexual couples with fertility problems. After she said “no,” I asked her to tell the class why

(44) Mildred: it’s like we talked about (. ) that (. ) uh (. ) the fact that they are a man and a woman (. ) does not mean that they can have children (. ) it is possible that in a marriage between a man and a woman they can’t have children

After this comment, I asked the class to consider the implications of accepting Blankenhorn’s premise for couples who can’t procreate. This was a teacher-induced act of ideological critique.

(45) T: stop there (. ) so yeah that’s a very important point (. ) so Mildred is saying that in some marriages (. ) who is a man and a woman (. ) they can’t have children (. ) so (. ) if we shared the premise that the only valid marriage is one that can procreate (. ) what would this mean for people who can’t procreate?

Ss: ((inaudible because many students speak at once))

T: ((vocalizing the answer of some students)) that they wouldn’t be able to get married (. ) so that means people who can’t procreate would be denied the right to marry

My question “what would this mean for people who can’t procreate?” is an example of the kind of open-ended question focusing on the effects of ideology that can produce true
dialog. That so many students spoke at once in response to it suggests that they were in a state of agitation at realizing that their acceptance of the premise, or their buying into the ideology proposed by Blankenhorn, would have consequences that they had not thought about and would probably consider undesirable. This interpretation is further supported by students’ written feedback on the activity, where they unanimously expressed that they had come to disagree with Blankenhorn despite having agreed with him at first. However, it is also possible that they answered in this way to please me in my capacity as their teacher.

Similarly, I also led the class to question Blankenhorn’s argument from authority—he cites Bertrand Russell and other prominent intellectuals to defend his claim that marriage is a license to procreate. I led student to discover the premise, namely that these authorities have the right to decide what marriage should be for the rest of humanity. Then I asked them how many shared that premise, and nobody did. Finally, I led them to question Blakenhorn’s assertion that gay marriage violates the right of children to be raised by their two biological parents. I asked them what kinds of children are usually put up for adoption, to which they answered that these are usually children whose parents have died. I asked them if this specific right was being violated by gay adoption, to which they answered that it was not.

Jaime then asked if it was still possible to agree with Blankenhorn’s claim that the rights of children should be protected and that they are violated by gay adoption even if one does not agree with his premises. I replied that that was perfectly possible, but different support and premises would have to be used to support that claim. I see this as a significant moment to my own ethics as a teacher. My purpose is not to impose a specific worldview on students but to enable them to question received views in a principled manner.

This activity contributed to making students aware of the oppressive power held by their naturalized beliefs. However, I did not use the opportunity afforded by their reactions to more explicitly explore both of these aspects, or their cultural situatedness. That is a limitation in my pedagogical treatment of ideology, and also a result of the limited time available to implement the intervention.
In written feedback, all students said that this activity changed their perception of Blankenhorn. They also wrote that this kind of reasoning would help them adopt more principled positions on opinion texts. Karen put it as follows:

(46) The activity will help me to have a more reasoned, more supported opinion on things.

The next section addresses the role that students’ lack of relevant background knowledge played in classroom ideological critique.

5.6.5. BACKGROUND KNOWLEDGE AND IDEOLOGICAL CRITIQUE

An unexpected occurrence was the need to supply background knowledge about issues that I assumed would be common knowledge to students, such as the identity of Leon Trotsky and the meaning of communism. These items of field knowledge were part of my high school education, and I assumed they were for the participants in this study as well. However, in the segment below, I found myself having to explain the meaning of communism in the context of analyzing a segment in Calhoun that links the group La Raza to Marxism because the founder of La Raza has, in Calhoun’s words “called for the elimination of the White race.”

(47) T: do you think calling for the elimination of the White race is a communist idea? What kind of ideology is communism? (4 second pause) what is its foundation? (2 second pause) what is its main idea?

Karen: that people must be united by their thoughts and that kind of thing

Martha: no (.) there must be a uh (5 second pause)

T: communism focuses on equality (.) on equal distribution of wealth and collective property of the means of production (.) like factories

The long pauses after my questions are significant because they suggest that students were not ready to answer those, which in turn indicates that a basic knowledge of Marxism, needed to engage in ideological critique of this text, cannot be assumed in this population. After this segment, I drew attention to the inconsistency of Calhoun’s position
that equates perceived anti-White stances with communism. Students agreed that such position is inconsistent. However, they probably agreed with me simply because they did not have enough knowledge to issue a grounded opinion of their own.

The students’ lack of relevant background knowledge helps to explain the prevalence of Initiation-Response-Feedback and teacher exposition dialog patterns in classroom discourse. These talk patterns characterized segments of classroom discourse where the topics being discussed lent themselves to ideological critique. Students were reluctant to participate perhaps because their lack of relevant knowledge made them unconfident. This, in turn, led me to assume a very directive and evaluative role in classroom discourse. Example 48 below exemplifies this phenomenon.

(48) 1 T: then here we see a contrast between two ways of imagining what?

2 Karen: the nation

3 T: ok and the old one is based on what?

4 Karen: soil(.) blood and family?

5 T: ok(.) what is he talking about when he writes blood?

6 Karen: race

7 Martha: the white race

8 T: in this case the white race(.) so what imagining of the nation do we have in Mexico? Do we have a concept of race based on borders and blood or one based on ideas? (3 second pause) let me ask another way(.) uh(.) what are the requirements to be Mexican?

9 Martha: to be born in Mexico

10 T: to be born in Mexico(.) does your race or your parents’ nationality matter?

11 Ss: no

12 T: what about in the US?

13 Ss: yes it does

14 T: ((shakes his head))
These pieces of data speak to the need to hold sufficient background knowledge in order to be able to engage in ideological critique. It also speaks to the need for instruction in critical reading to support background knowledge of ideological systems explicitly when working with student populations who have grown up in a post-Cold War world. It appears that, in this kind of reality, capitalist perspectives have become increasingly naturalized in the absence of strong representations of alternative positions. Further, interventions like the one I implemented need to allow for sufficient time for this kind of knowledge to develop. The next section examines evidence for the development of knowledge about critical reading and the U.S. cultural context.

5.7. DEVELOPMENT OF FIELD KNOWLEDGE
Students’ articulated understandings of critical reading and US culture were elicited at the beginning and at the end of the intervention. Participants were asked to answer the questions “what’s critical reading? What do you know about US culture?” Eighteen students provided written answers to these questions at the beginning of the intervention, while nineteen did so at the end. The latter number includes all the original eighteen students plus one more. Their answers to both pre- and post-intervention questions are examined below.

5.7.1. KNOWLEDGE OF CRITICAL READING AND BEING A CRITICAL READER
Some differences exist between participants’ initial and final explicitly articulated understandings of critical reading. At the onset of the intervention, a majority (11 of 18 definitions) of the participants’ definitions of critical reading focused on the readers’ ability to give their own opinion about an issue. The second most common definitional element was analysis, with eight participants including it in their definitions. The third most common definitional element was the notion that critical reading requires close, deep attention to the text, which was mentioned by four participants. Two participants mentioned understanding the author’s intentions as a further definitional element of
critical reading. Getting the main idea and having previous knowledge about a text were each mentioned by one participant.

An analysis of the participants’ articulated understandings at the end of the intervention reveals a shift toward conceptualizing critical reading less in terms of issuing one’s own opinion on a text and more in terms of engaging with the text itself. This emphasis on the text is apparent in the relatively high frequency with which making rhetorical inferences was mentioned as a definitional criterion (9 of 19 definitions). Under this category, I grouped references to rhetorical aspects such as authorial attitude, authorial intention, and the ideal reader. Patricia and Karen’s comments below best summarize this category.

(49) Patricia: Critical reading involves not only understanding the author’s main ideas but also why they are being expressed and how, the intentions behind the writing...

(50) Karen: Critical reading involves going beyond the literal sense, it is necessary to identify the author’s intention and who the text is addressed to, as well as the social and temporal context.

Making rhetorical inferences was followed by a focus on the text’s language, which was mentioned by ten participants. Examples of these comments are below.

(51) Yesenia: A careful, reflective, analytical reading that requires mastery of the language and comprehension strategies.

(52) Patricia: a critical reader evaluates the text and its purpose, and examines the author’s language to find out if it’s coherent

Other definitional aspects included evaluation and interrogation of the text (6 students), analysis and reflection on a text (5 students), taking a stand on the text (2 students), awareness of different reading positions (2 students) and supporting interpretations with textual evidence (2 students). Below are examples of the latter two aspects.

(53) Martha: critical reading… allows us to understanding different ways of thinking.
(54) María: each reader have their own understanding depending on the culture and environment where they live.

(55) Nancy: critical reading consists of being able to analyze a topic deeply to know what the author means and be able to give a well-supported opinion.

That only two participants included supporting interpretations with textual evidence as a definitional feature of critical reading suggests a need to be more explicit about the role of textual evidence as a constitutive feature of critical reading. The section below reviews participants’ initial and final understandings of US culture.

5.7.2. ARTICULATED UNDERSTANDING OF THE U.S. CULTURAL CONTEXT
At the beginning of the intervention, a majority of participants’ definitions construed U.S. culture in terms of technological advancement and popular media culture. All nineteen definitions highlighted technological advancement as a feature of US culture. Seventeen definitions mentioned aspects of pop and media culture such as Hollywood movies, TV shows, and pop and rock music. Eight definitions highlighted the imperialist aspects of US culture, such as initiation of wars in Iraq and Afghanistan. Four definitions emphasized racism against immigrants as a feature of US culture.

At the end of the intervention, more participants (17 of 19) brought up racism as a dimension in their understanding of US culture. This is rather unsurprising given the nature of several of the texts that were read. However, ten of the final articulated understandings referred to diversity as a feature of US culture. Diversity, however, was only briefly mentioned in these definitions and not explained in detail. Rather surprisingly, only three students, Martha, Laura, and María, wrote articulated understandings that reflected a view of culture-as-discourse.

María’s reflection, found in example 38 above, is reproduced below:

(38) Each reader have their own understanding depending on the culture and environment where they live (María’s post-intervention reflection)

Importantly, María’s comment highlights the connection between imagining different reading positions and global cultural consciousness: it is this very ability that allows
people to begin to represent to themselves the identities of multiple Others and how those identities are shaped by many competing ideological forces in their cultural-semiotic contexts.

Martha’s and Laura’s post-intervention reflections also evince some understanding of the ideological aspects of culture and the multiplicity of ideological positions in the U.S. cultural context. Below is a segment from Martha’s reflection that was presented before.

(32) The US has changed culturally, from being a country where a majority of the population was racist, with slavery, it is now a partially multicultural country. The Arizona Law SB1070 has provoked a separation of the country into two groups: those who support this law and those who are pro-immigrant.

In this segment, she represents two ideological positions in the U.S. cultural context: anti-immigration and pro-immigration. As has been discussed above, presumably, her representation of these two positions in her reflection is connected to classroom discussions of some of the target texts such as Wendland, Calhoun, and McLeod. These texts represented the dichotomous positions that Martha represented in her reflection.

Laura’s reflection below shows a similar, and perhaps more complex and nuanced, understanding of the multiplicity of ideological-discursive formations (IDFs, Fairclough, 1995) in the U.S. cultural context.

(41) One of the first things that it is possible to realize from reading these texts is that, although the country is divided into two big factions or political parties, liberals and conservatives, these are also divided into smaller groups with radically different ideas... there are many diverse viewpoints about certain controversial issues (Laura’s post-intervention essay).

In this segment, Laura represents her understanding that that there are two major ideological system in the U.S. cultural context: liberalism and conservatism. Interestingly, however, she goes beyond this dichotomy to represent an understanding of the multiplicity of IDFs in that CC2 when she says that “these are also divided into smaller
groups with radically different ideas.” She also represents that this diversity of IDFs gives rise to, or co-exists with, a multiplicity of ideological positions by asserting that “there are many diverse viewpoints about certain controversial issues.”

In stark contrast to the kinds of learning evinced by the three students above, two other students wrote that they had learned nothing new about US culture. That no more evidence is available indicating that more participants developed an understanding of US culture-as-discourse points suggests the intervention feel short of its goal to promote learning of culture-as-discourse. My failure to engage students in exploring and discussing aspects of ideology and their connections to culture, as well as time constraints, may explain this shortcoming.

This section has shown that there was significant change between students’ initial and final definitions of critical reading. These changes reflect the kinds of teaching and learning that occurred in the classroom. Changes in understanding of U.S. culture were less significant. Nevertheless, the reflections of at least three students show a shift toward the understanding of U.S. culture as culture-as-discourse that I chose to target as a goal in my curricular design. These shifts are evidence of greater global cultural consciousness since this kind of consciousness includes “a true understanding of the competing forces of global, national, and individual realities” (Kumaravadivelu, 2007, 157).

5.8. CONCLUDING REMARKS
This chapter has shown evidence that emergence occurred for several of the textual, rhetorical and critical processes and ideational knowledge that I targeted when designing the intervention. This emergence, however, was uneven and particularly limited for the targeted critical processes and knowledge of culture-as-discourse. The chapter has also discussed limitations in my instructional engagement with genre and rhetorical knowledge and aspects of ideology. These issues as well as the data showing emergence are discussed in connection with the study’s research questions in the next chapter. The next chapter also discusses implications of the data and findings for reading theory, Appraisal Theory, and the teaching and learning of global cultural consciousness.
CHAPTER SIX
DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSIONS

This dissertation makes contributions in several areas. It contributes to closing the gap in our knowledge identified by Perfetti, Marron, and Foltz (1996) with regard to the kinds of knowledge students need in order to make what I’ve called generative rhetorical inferences when reading political opinion texts.

The data showed that the participating students needed some attitudinal language processing to develop text-congruent representations (examples 16 and 17). However, for some participants, language processing was not sufficient and needed to be accompanied by genre knowledge and rhetorical knowledge for plausible rhetorical inferences to be made. Evidence for the importance of genre knowledge comes from the fact that some students, like Jaime, completed DOs perfectly but still did not draw plausible inferences about authorial position (examples 18, 19). Apparently, Jaime’s application of narrative genre knowledge and/or his assumption that journalistic texts are informative were acting as control parameters driving him, and perhaps other students, to not making plausible rhetorical inferences of authorial position. Further evidence for the importance of genre knowledge is found in, for example, Luis’ use of his knowledge of a different genre, yellow press articles focusing on media personalities like those in the Mexican magazine TVNotas, to make implausible inferences of target audience (example 23 in chapter five).

Non-target genre knowledge, activated in the absence of rhetorical knowledge about how to infer a global reading position, might have acted as a control parameter when making this kind of inference. For example, Karen reported that the idea that texts are addressed to or construct specific audiences was new to her. I infer that, because of this absence of rhetorical knowledge, she and other students used their experience with prior genres using highly graduated judgment (oral scolding, sermons) to make implausible inferences of target audience (see examples 21, 22, 24 and 25 in chapter five).
Then, the study furthers understanding of the knowledge and processes involved in generative inference making (Kintsch, 1998) for the target genre of political opinion texts. Understanding the role of language processing in generative inferences related to emotion has been a concern of scholars studying narratives (e.g. Gygax et al., 2003; Gygax et al., 2004; Gygax et al., 2007). This study makes a contribution in a different genre and a different domain: the political opinion text and rhetorical inferences. These findings contribute to addressing the growing concern with characterizing the impact of genre differences on reading comprehension (McNamara & Magliano, 2009).

The examples discussed above show that students’ application of non-target genre knowledge and rhetorical assumptions can produce interpretations that differ from those privileged and/or expected by the instructor. This finding contributes to the ongoing SFL-inspired research on literacy that seeks to characterize differences in the ways that people in different social positions process texts differently (e.g. Hasan, 2004) and how some ways of processing are privileged over others. Thus, this finding has the potential to contribute to the advancement of explicit, visible literacy pedagogies (Bernstein, 1990; Martin, 1999) by making scholars, instructional designers, and teachers aware of these potential interpretive mismatches, their sources, and potential treatments.

While Appraisal analysis was not sufficient to enable some students to make generative rhetorical inferences, the role of Appraisal in promoting the target processes is supported by data showing that doing Appraisal analysis on its own changed some students’ understanding of authorial positions (examples 4 and 8) and by students’ reports of the usefulness of the Appraisal metalanguage and analysis (examples 5 through 10).

There is some evidence that Appraisal analysis with the attitude DO helped students to build text-congruent representations of the target texts. For example, both Luis and Patricia said that, upon a first reading of Barber without the DO, they thought that the author was in favor of gay marriage, but the attitude analysis with the DO changed their minds (examples 16 and 17 reproduced below).

(16) It changed my mind about the text. I first thought that the author was in favor of gay marriage.

(17) When I read the text, I thought the author agreed with gay marriage. But when I was doing the analysis, I realized he didn’t.
These two specific cases illustrate a more general trend identified in students’ anonymous post-intervention feedback: ten students reported that, prior to the intervention, they were used to and satisfied with superficial readings, and constructed representations from a few, shorter text segments. The accuracy of these self-reports is supported by classroom interaction showing that students needed scaffolding to parse domination patterns involved in the characterization of citation alignment (see examples 18-20 in chapter five).

Students’ feedback and their definitions of critical reading indicate that aspects of the intervention such as use of the DOs, instructor scaffolding with attitude and domination-focused questions, and metalanguage, increased their ability to engage deeply with texts’ lexicogrammar and build more text-congruent representations. Examples supporting this claim are reproduced below:

(3) Now, when reading an article, my mind subconsciously analyzes the important points like attitudes or feelings

(4) I can recognize the polarity of words and that helps to know the author’s position

(20) 1 Migdalia: something very important was your questions  
2 T: and how were my questions helpful?  
3 Migdalia: to guess the author’s position (. ) if he was in favor or against what was being said  
4 Angela: at the beginning (. ) I thought that he was ne (. ) that he was neither in favor nor against (. ) that he was neutral (Mildred and Migdalia nodded, other students said “yes”) and then with the questions I saw that they were in favor (inaudible) but that means that he is against the (North American Union)  
5 T: ok (. ) then what do you think you need to do when doing this kind of analysis?  
6 Roberto: analyze the context where the words are  
7 Migdalia: and we can ask ourselves the same questions
Unexpectedly, the same ten students that reported reading superficially before the intervention also reported that the intervention made them aware of the need to check their emerging interpretations against evidence from the text. An example of this is below.

(8) This class influenced the ways I read texts, because as a reader, I used to read texts superficially and I only accepted what I could understand. What I could not I just skipped. I used to answer comprehension questions in a simple way. But now, the teacher and the class have made me think that it is not always possible to catch a text’s important points at once. I have to infer and look deeply into the text in order to understand.

I interpret this kind of self-report as evidence of the emergence of a new strategic behavior in their interpretive repertoire as these students explained that they did not read in this way prior to the intervention. Some students explicitly said that this strategic behavior is linked to having internalized the procedures used to complete DOs.

(12) During the summer term I also took two translation courses, then this course helped me a lot because, even though I didn’t write the DOs for the articles we had to translate, I did the DOs mentally when I was reading the texts and so I realized what the author meant and it was easier to translate

It is therefore plausible to speculate that critical reading questions, use of the DOs and oral scaffolding increased some students’ awareness of the need to parse more of the language in a text more extensively and intensely in order to build text-congruent representations. The students report that aspects of the intervention also increased their ability to do so. From that awareness and ability, an intent to monitor comprehension by checking representations against evidence from the text—that is, a new strategy—appears to have emerged. The study is the first to provide evidence that this useful metacognitive strategy (cf. Brantmeier & Dragiysky, 2009) can be promoted by a SFL-inspired reading comprehension intervention.

Importantly, students use attitude and rhetoric metalanguage to characterize their learning gains (examples 3 through 6, 13). Also, instances of classroom interaction (examples 2, 18-20) shows that these kinds of metalanguage plus that related to citation alignment are useful to negotiate the target interpretive processes and abilities.
The fact that both ideological critique (e.g. Luis’s critique of Calhoun in example 26, Laura’s critique of Calhoun in example 37) and meta-critical awareness (e.g. Laura, Martha and Maria’s instances of meta-critical awareness in examples 32-35) occurred shows that examinations of ideology can go hand in hand with imaginings of multiple cultural Others in ways that transcend the reification of national, racial, and gender labels that has characterized previous critical reading studies (e.g. Wallace, 1992, 2003). The specific pedagogical practices related to these examinations offer much a much needed form of empirical operationalization of L2 culture teaching for, as Kamberlis (2001) and Kumaravadivelu (2007) point out, scholarly discussions of L2 culture teaching are almost exclusively theoretical.

Further, the specific form of culture teaching promoted by this study also operationalizes the concerns with reflection and power that characterize a cultural realism and global cultural consciousness approach (Kumaravadivelu, 2007). It does so by showing specific ways to promote metacritical awareness and ideological critique using Internet texts. In doing so, this is, to the best of my knowledge, the first empirical study to heed Kumaravadivelu’s (2007) call to exploit the potential of Internet texts to teach culture with a cultural realism/global cultural consciousness approach. The study also contributes to specifying the meaning of ideological critique by presenting cases of its operationalization in acts of reflection on the effects of ideology and evaluation of ideology. These operationalizations can be useful for other teachers and scholars of critical reading.

The study paints a picture of the challenges associated with teaching and learning to read transnational opinion texts critically in a local setting. Some of these challenges include the absence of relevant background knowledge regarding ideological and political systems and L1 reading practices, as discussed in chapter five. Further, this setting is characterized by top-down practices in the teaching of L1 and L2 reading that may bear affinities with those in many other EFL settings around the world. The profiles provided of the participating students themselves, and specifically their lack of interest in and knowledge of political issues, are also likely to resemble the profiles of other college-age learners elsewhere in the world. Thus, readers who find such similarities with their own
contexts may find it useful to extrapolate and apply the lessons presented here to their own teaching and research situations.

The comments of some students suggest that students’ lack of relevant genre and rhetorical knowledge are connected to their educational experiences. These participants explained that the kinds of linguistic, textual, rhetorical, critical, or ideational knowledge targeted by this intervention are not currently promoted in the curriculum of the BA in Modern Languages at USM. Another factor influencing the absence of rhetorical knowledge is that participants report little or no prior experience with the target genre. Further, their incipient ideational knowledge of political issues (both US-specific and general) both contribute to explain their lack of critical and rhetorical engagement with the texts and highlight the need for instruction that targets such knowledge and puts it at play with rhetorical knowledge. The principled integration of linguistics knowledge, genre knowledge, rhetorical knowledge, and political knowledge seems thus crucial for the teaching and learning of critical reading and global cultural consciousness. This study shows some ways that such integration can occur.

This study also shows the potential of CT constructs and CT’s emphasis of retrodiction (Larsen-Freeman & Cameron, 2008) to accomplish several research and pedagogical goals. For example, the constructs of control parameters and attractor states were helpful to identify instances of comprehension difficulties and explore their sources. Second, emergence was a useful conceptual framework in tracing the development of learners’ interpretive repertoires and the ways such development informed and shaped instruction both in theory and practice. The study highlights the usefulness of these constructs as heuristic tools to investigate and theorize comprehension, and provides a methodological and conceptual foundation for future studies that may take a CT approach to reading comprehension. The next section discusses the findings in connection with the specific research questions addressed by the study.

6.1. RESEARCH QUESTION ONE. WHAT PATTERNS OF INTERPRETIVE PROCESSES EMERGE IN STUDENTS’ WRITTEN AND ORAL CLASSROOM DISCOURSE?
This question addresses student learning in connection with the implementation of the design solution. The data indicate that the initial conditions of some students’ interpretive
repertoires did not include the targeted lexicogrammatical, rhetorical, or (some) critical processes. The data suggest that use of DOs and worksheet questions were enough to scaffold the targeted lexicogrammatical and rhetorical processes for some students, but others required oral scaffolding. All students required oral scaffolding for one process: using Toulmin analysis to uncover and critique ideology. Students experienced recurring difficulties with Appraisal analysis, but those did not seem to interfere with their ability to make plausible rhetorical inferences. Nevertheless, classroom discourse and student feedback show that Appraisal analysis was helpful in producing text-congruent representations and leading to the emergence of comprehension monitoring.

With regard to lexicogrammatical processes, Luis’ unsolicited feedback occurring after the first exposure to the attitude DO was that “this way of reading is difficult because it is not taught in Mexico.” He and Patricia wrote that analysis of attitude with the DO helped to change their understanding of Barber’s position vis-à-vis gay marriage; they first thought he was in favor but, during the analysis, realized he was against. The examples are below.

(16) It changed my mind about the text. I first thought that the author was in favor of gay marriage.

(17) When I read the text, I thought the author agreed with gay marriage. But when I was doing the analysis, I realized he didn’t.

Then, for these two participants and perhaps for others, DO use was enough to lead them to make plausible inferences of implied authorial position. However, for other participants, like Jaime, use of the DO was not enough. Despite his accurate completion of the attitude DO for Barber, he needed explicit scaffolding in the form of a discussion of the plausibility to infer an unstated authorial position based on patterns of judgment of discursive participants. A segment of example 19 is reproduced below.

23 T: so what we can say is that, as you said, it is possible that he agrees with CP, if you had to choose between saying the author is in favor of gay marriage and the author is against gay marriage… based on the text, which one is more likely, that the author is in favor of gay marriage or that the author is against gay
marriage?

24 Jaime: based on the text?

25 T: yeah

26 Jaime: he would be against gay marriage (. ) but I (. ) can’t say it (for sure)

27 T: you can’t say it’s for sure [Jaime: yeah] because he’s not explicit about it but
is it fair to suppose that he might be against gay marriage?

28 Jaime: yeah

29 T: possibly (. ) I think it’s a plausible interpretation

30 Jaime: yeah

31 T: of course he doesn’t say as much right? But it seems (. ) from the analysis of
the text [Jaime: yeah] (. ) it seems that he probably is against gay marriage
because he aligns himself with CP who is against gay marriage herself

32 Jaime: yeah (. ) my first impression was (. ) that he’s only narrating without taking
a position but uh (. ) well (. ) having analyzed it (. ) it changes

As will be discussed below, Jaime’s use of narrative genre knowledge and/or an
assumption that journalistic texts are informative seems to have driven his interpretation
that the author was neutral or in favor of gay marriage. Other students also made this kind
of implausible inference, but the reasons they did so are unknown. Nevertheless, my
explanation about the plausibility of drawing inferences based on patterns of judgment of
discursive participants seems to have made an impact in students’ interpretive repertoires.
After the first text, the number of students making implausible inferences of unstated
authorial position reduced drastically as shown in Table 6.1. The numbers of students are
given as percentages of the total number of participants present during a class when
critical reading questions were answered, but recall that this number fluctuated due to
absenteeism.

However, as an instructor, I did not really engage students with the concept of genre and
genre variation. We did not compare samples of different narrative and non-narrative
genres to develop their knowledge of journalistic opinion genres or the differences
between private-sphere and public-sphere genres.
Table 6.1. Authorial position inferences.

Students’ answers to questions focusing on the global reading position constructed by texts also evince emergence. As discussed in chapter five, when working with the first text, fourteen participants produced implausible characterizations of the global reading position. However, for the subsequent texts, none did. This is shown in Table 6.2 below. The numbers of students are given as percentages of the total number of participants present during a class when critical reading questions were answered, but recall that this number fluctuated due to absenteeism.

Table 6.2. Global reading position inferences.

As with authorial attitude, oral explanations were needed in addition to questions and lexicogrammatical processing for participants to make plausible inferences of the global reading position. These explanations focused on the impact of highly graduated judgments on different readers and were inspired in Hauser’s theory of the rhetorical public sphere. These explanations helped at least one participant, Karen, to construct text-congruent representations and make plausible rhetorical inferences based on identifying the graduation of attitudinal words.

In the comment in example 15, reproduced below and made in the context of analyzing Blankenhorn, Karen shows that she aligns with my assumption that highly graduated negative judgments signal an agreeing reader and the use of the rhetorical strategy of
identification, while the use of more measured judgment and appreciation signals an attempt to persuade an opposing reader:

(15) Karen: I think it’s someone who is in favor of same sex marriage because the kind of vocabulary used in the text (.) is neutral

Karen reported that, prior to the intervention, she had never thought that texts had specific audiences.

(24) Karen: the concept of ideal reader was new to me (.) I had never thought about that before.

She also said that the explanation that the graduation of attitudinal lexis could be used to infer audience was new to her.

(17) Karen: I didn’t know that you could infer the ideal reader by looking at how strong the language is (.) that’s new for me

Therefore, it seems that her ability to infer a global reading position from attitude emerged from her exposure to the intervention.

Nevertheless, similarly to authorial position, my explanations on the use of highly graduated attitudinal lexis did not exploit genre knowledge or rhetorical knowledge of the public sphere. This is a limitation of the intervention.

At least four students made plausible ideal reader inferences that went beyond reification of racial, gender, or national categories. For example, for Wendland, Luis wrote that the ideal reader “is an immigrant;” Martha wrote that the ideal reader “is against conservative ideas;” and Mildred wrote “is a pro-immigrant rights activist.” However, Laura was the only participating student who inferred the ideal reader from unstated premises and represented the ideal as a set of identifications, as show in example (37), reproduced again below.

(37) 1 T: but this person believes that if you praise China you’re an enemy (.) is that premise explicit (.) is it spelled out somewhere?
In this example, Laura reconstructs the ideal reader from unstated premises in McLeod. Her reconstruction of the ideal reader can be characterized as a set of identifications, or meanings shared between the writer and the reader (Burke, 1969; Ratcliffe, 2005, 2010), as follows:

- Someone who already believes that if you praise China you’re an enemy.
- Someone who is against the United States not being the world superpower anymore.
- Someone who knows about economics.
- Someone who opposes the European Union.

This ideal reader projects outward to a paleoconservative identity and to paleoconservatism as an IDF. Thus, Laura is engaging in the process first modeled in Figure 2.1, which is reproduced below. Recall that in this figure the dotted line represents that actual readers-qua-reading positions are immersed in the ideological discursive field of the second cultural context. The arrows represent the connections enabled by this inferential process, from the ideal reader inferred textually (inner circle) to actual readers (middle circle) immersed in the second cultural context (outer circle).
While this study did not control for external variables that may have influenced participants’ emerging text interpretation and reading behaviors, participant’s feedback, changes in their pre- and post-intervention definitions of critical reading, and instances of classroom discourse analysis suggest that this shift from implausible to plausible generative rhetorical inferences was connected to oral scaffolding, metalanguage, Appraisal analysis, and the use of written meditational means. For example, in response to the post-intervention question “has the class influenced the ways you read other texts?” eight participants responded that the intervention had helped them to identify authorial attitude. Below are some examples of this kind of answer, one of which (4) had been presented in chapter five.

(56) I can obtain my own conclusion about the text, at the moment to write the author has an objective and I must be able to identify it

(4) I can recognize the polarity of words and that helps to know the author’s position

(57) Here I learned very important things like how to identify the author’s opinion and whether the attitude of the author is positive or negative
The references to authorial intentions and positions above as well as students’ references to the intervention (“here I learned…,” “I can now…,” “the class influenced…” also show evidence of emerging rhetorical knowledge in the form of rhetorical awareness. I’ve defined this term above as awareness that texts index rhetorical situations. Because authorial intentions and positions are part of the rhetorical situation, these examples can be said to show increased rhetorical awareness and knowledge.

In their anonymous post-intervention feedback, twenty of twenty-one students report improved comprehension and the emergence of new, text-focused skills and strategies resulting from the internalization of target analytic processes. Importantly, all twenty-one student also report using those skills and strategies with other kinds of texts and reading contexts with productive results. Of these twenty-one students, four mentioned specific types of texts such as novels and articles used in translation course.

(58) I’ve learned things that help me when I read any kind of text carefully. When I read, I know how to analyze the text in order to understand the context.

(59) Using polarity is very useful when reading novels or watching news but also for translating, because I can understand not only the words but the author’s position.

(12) During the summer term I also took two translation courses, then this course helped me a lot because, even though I didn’t write the DOs for the articles we had to translate, I did the DOs mentally when I was reading the texts and so I realized what the author meant and it was easier to translate

These comments indicate that the state of some learners’ knowledge is such that it transcended the context of the classroom intervention and its target genre. It appears that these students perceived similarities between the reading situations they experienced during the intervention and other extra-intervention reading situations. Consequently, they probably thought their extra-intervention reading could benefit from their applying what they learned during the intervention (cf. Greeno, 1997; Lobato, 2006).

Further, according to participants’ anonymous feedback, forms of metacognitive awareness of reading emerged for some participants, such as the ability to monitor their own comprehension, which participants report to be connected to learning and teaching
occurring during the intervention. Some examples of the nine comments in this direction
are below.

(8) This class influenced the ways I read texts, because as a reader, I used to read
texts superficially and I only accepted what I could understand. What I could not
I just skipped. I used to answer comprehension questions in a simple way. But
now, the teacher and the class have made me think that it is not always possible
to catch a text's important points at once. I have to infer and look deeply into the
text in order to understand.

(11) I used to read very superficially… my understanding of how I read has
changed.

This phenomenon resonates with recent CT research in applied linguistics indicating that
metalinguistic awareness is an emergent property of L2 learning (Herdina & Jessner,
2002; Jessner, 2008). In this case, the participants’ growing awareness of and ability to
engage with lexicogrammatical patterns in texts, or metatextual awareness, seems to have
led some of them to realize that their interpretations can be implausible or partial. That is,
in these participants, metacognitive comprehension monitoring appears to have
emerged—non-linearly, of course—in connection with metatextual awareness.

Students’ realization of the need to monitor their comprehension suggests that
students’ interpretive repertoires moved to a new state of organization that both includes
metacognitive awareness and might be further changed by it. In addition, the realization
that one’s interpretations need checking is a pre-requisite for the ability to monitor one’s
own ongoing comprehension, which is a key behavior of good L2 comprehenders (cf.
Brantmeier & Dragoiysky, 2009). The intervention then appears to promote this behavior
despite the fact that this was not originally one of its planned outcomes.

Importantly, meta-critical awareness emerged in classroom discourse despite the fact
that it was not a planned goal of the intervention. Example 35, reproduced again below,
shows this in the context of a discussion of the polarity invoked by secular. This word
elicited a positive affective reaction in some students, and they thought the author used it
with a positive polarity despite textual evidence to the contrary (example 34 in chapter
five). In example 35 below, Laura reflects on the reasons why she and others reacted
positively to the word secular.
(35) 1 T: now we have to distinguish between the polarity attitude provoked in us by words, and the kind of polarity intended by the author. What kind of attitude is provoked in you when you read that the government must be secular?

2 Ss: positive

3 T: everyone? ((ss raise their hands)) most of you and why do you think that is? Why do we have that positive attitude?

4 Laura: because of our experiences and the values that are common here in Mexico

In example 36, Martha shows an ability to consider that the word communism can elicit varying attitudinal polarities across reading positions.

(36) 1 Martha: invoked

2 T: yes, why?

3 Martha: it’s because for some people it’s going to be something good and for others it’s going to be something bad depending on the point of view. For me (2 second pause) for example if I am a businessman for example for my business it’s going to be something bad

As has been discussed in chapter five, this ability to objectify an aspect of word meaning and/or usage—attitudinal polarity—and explain its cultural situatedness is also an aspect of metalinguistic awareness per Jessner’s (2006, 2008) definition of metalinguistic awareness. It is possible that meta-critical awareness is an aspect of metalinguistic awareness, though more research and theorizing is needed in this area.

6.2. RESEARCH QUESTION TWO. WHAT ATTRACTOR STATES AND CONTROL PARAMETERS OPERATE IN THE EMERGENCE OF TARGET PROCESSES AND FIELD KNOWLEDGE?

This question focuses on the attractor states characterizing participants’ emergent processing and interpretations and the control parameters leading to those states.
Characterizing attractor states and control parameters is important because attractor states present a picture of what the learners tend to do, and control parameters help to explain why they do it and what can lead to changes. Thus, characterizing attractor states and control parameters is helpful in determining learning needs and the sources of those needs, which in turn helps to plan instruction. Analyses of attractor states and control parameters contribute to refining this intervention’s learning and instructional theories.

At the lexicogrammatical level, an attractor state is students’ tendency to conflate grammatical object with the focus of attitude, or Appraised. The control parameter driving this is most likely a habit to parse language grammatically rather than semantically, which might be influenced by previous instruction.

Another attractor state that is apparent in students’ interaction with texts and DOs at the lexicogrammatical/textual level consisting of persistent difficulties when inferring citation alignment. A control parameter that can be inferred is a habit to process only local, clause-level meanings to the detriment of more global forms of text processing. This is a well-known behavior of less advanced L2 readers (Grabe, 2009; Koda, 2005) but even students classified here as HP displayed it. This habit might be a result of previous L2 reading instruction focusing on discrete vocabulary and, in general, absence of previous reading experiences where identifying citation alignment was targeted or needed. Nevertheless, questions leading participants to identify domination patterns impinging upon citation alignment were helpful in driving participants’ emerging interpretations to reorganizations of their interpretive repertoire. These questions thus acted as a control parameter driving the systems (i.e. students’ interpretive repertoires) to a new state of organization. Example 23, reproduced again below, supports this claim.

(23) 1 Migdalia: something very important was your questions

2 T: and how were my questions helpful?

3 Migdalia: to guess the author’s position (.) if he was in favor or against what was being said

4 Angela: at the beginning (.) I thought that he was ne (.) that he was neither in favor nor against (.) that he was neutral ((Mildred and Migdalia nodded, other students said “yes”)) and then with the questions I saw that they were in favor (inaudible) but that means that he is against the (North American Union)
T: ok (.) then what do you think you need to do when doing this kind of analysis?

Roberto: analyze the context where the words are

Migdalia: and we can ask ourselves the same questions

In this example, Migdalia shows awareness that she can internalize the questioning strategy that I used. Roberto’s reference to analyzing the context where words are shows awareness of the need to use adjacent, and perhaps non-adjacent, sections of a text to construct plausible representations when parsing discrete attitudinal language segments. These seem to be new elements in their interpretive repertoire for the target genre, which supports the claim above.

Similarly, another attractor state is students’ lack of deep engagement with texts and the construction of impoverished textbases as a result. This can be inferred from the implausible interpretations of authorial position reported in chapter five, and from students’ feedback indicating that they used to read other texts superficially. Student feedback and the change to plausible inferences show that aspects of this intervention acted as control parameters driving their systems to new behaviors.

At the rhetorical level, early in the intervention some students’ interpretations were driven to attractor states characterized by implausible constructions of authorial position and audience. Their interpretations could be driven to these states by the application of rhetorical notions stemming from previous discursive experiences with other genres as well as the construction of impoverished textbases mentioned above. These attractor states can be inferred from participants discursive behavior. Examples of such notions include a) that strong negative judgments indicate that the appraised is being addressed, as in scolding (examples 24 and 25), b) that journalistic texts are informative and/or narrative (examples 19 and 20) , c) that it is not possible or valid to infer information not stated explicitly in the text (example 19).

These notions acted as control parameters driving some participants’ interpretations to the attractor states above at the beginning of the intervention and thus can be said to constitute the initial conditions of their interpretive systems. In addition, the implausible inferences above are related to background knowledge. After all, if students had known
the identities of the authors of the target texts and the people and issues mentioned in
them, they wouldn’t have needed to make any kind of rhetorical inference to know
authorial position or target audience. Those could have been retrieved from memory.
However, I do not think the absence of relevant background knowledge can be called a
control parameter. A control parameter is an aspect of a system. The relevant background
knowledge in this case was absent, and therefore was not an element in the students’
interpretive repertoire.

Instances of teacher-student interaction as well as student feedback show that
instruction played a role in disturbing these held notions and driving some of the
participants’ interpretive repertoires to new states of organization when reading texts in
the target genre.

The application of these CT constructs (attractor states and control parameters) to this
research project was useful in that it enabled inferences to be drawn about how influences
beyond the immediate environment of the classroom (e.g. participants’ previous
discursive experiences) may have played a role in participants’ emerging interpretations
and interpretive processes and in describing changes in participants’ knowledge and
processing in terms of new states of organization of their interpretive repertoires

6.3. RESEARCH QUESTION THREE. WHAT SFL AND RHETORIC
METALINGUISTIC TERMS ARE PRODUCED BY THE STUDENTS IN ORAL AND
WRITTEN DISCOURSE?

Students produced several Appraisal terms such as *attitude*, *polarity*, and *focus*. They also
used the term *ideal reader*, *identification*, and *persuasion*. Some instances of classroom
discourse show that citation alignment, attitude metalanguage, and rhetoric metalanguage
were useful to represent and negotiate the target interpretive processes. For instance, turns
4 and 8 in example 22, which is reproduced below, shows students’ understanding and
uptake of polarity and citation alignment.

(22) 1  T: so (.) what attitude (.) what attitudinal language does the author use to
evaluate the people that oppose the creation of the NAU?

2  Jaime: patriotic
T: what’s the polarity of that word?

Jaime: positive

T: so if he evaluates positively those who oppose the creation of the NAU, what can be inferred about his own position toward the NAU?

Jaime, Mildred and Angela: he’s against it

T: the author is against the creation of the NAU, so is this citation not aligned with his position?

Ss: it’s aligned

Example 2, reproduced below, shows students’ uptake of attitude metalanguage and its usefulness in helping students represent and negotiate attitude parsing.

(2) Jaime: worthless the polarity (1 sec) is negative

Mildred: yes and the author is the source (2 sec) but what’s the focus?

Jaime: I think it’s the billions of dollars that China has invested (4 sec), secrecy (1 sec)

Migdalia: I think that’s invoked because it doesn’t have to be something bad

Other examples discussed in chapter five show accurate use of the term ideal reader (ex. 36, 38).

6.3.1. RESEARCH QUESTION THREE POINT ONE. HOW DO STUDENTS REPRESENT THE ROLE OF METALANGUAGE IN LEARNING HOW TO READ THE TARGET TEXTS CRITICALLY?

This question addresses the connection between metalanguage and student learning. The answer to this question may contribute to clarifying the role that metalinguistic awareness may play in specific forms of reading comprehension, in this case critical reading of political opinion texts. The answer to this question also provides some evidence about the specific kinds of Appraisal and rhetorical metalanguage that support critical reading.

Students used attitudinal and rhetorical metalanguage in their anonymous post-implementation feedback, and such use is connected to positive perceptions of learning.
Example 9 below shows that this student can use polarity to think about metacritical awareness

(9) The subject is interesting and I learned something about the polarity that the other person can think

In example 6, there is evidence that the student can use metalanguage to talk about attitude parsing:

(6) The student can identify that in a simple paragraph there is a source and a focus of attitude

These examples also suggest that the metalanguage of Appraisal helped students to think in new ways about how attitudinal language contributes to text coherence and reading comprehension. In example 56, the student connects rhetorical metalanguage to the ability to derive information from the text on his/her own.

(56) I can obtain my own conclusion about the idea of the text, at the moment to write the author has an objective and could be: persuade, identify, or only inform. In this class I learned that I must be able to identify all of them in each text, and I must be autonomous in my reasoning.

These examples indicate that Appraisal and rhetorical metalanguage was taken up by participants and it was useful in representing and negotiating the target interpretive processes and developing new understandings of coherence and reading.

6.4. RESEARCH QUESTION FOUR. WHAT DIFFERENCES EXIST BETWEEN STUDENTS’ PRE- AND POST-INTERVENTION ARTICULATED UNDERSTANDINGS OF THE U.S. CULTURAL CONTEXT AND CRITICAL READING?

This question addresses changes in students’ field knowledge. Field knowledge of the U.S. cultural context is important because a goal of the intervention is to develop greater understanding of the ideological dimension of the second cultural context. Field knowledge also became more relevant as a result of implementation, when it became apparent that field knowledge of ideological systems (e.g. conservatism, liberalism,
Marxism) needed to be provided so that students would be able to critique ideology. Field knowledge of critical reading is important because students, as teachers, need to be able to define this way of reading in order to understand it and promote it in their own future teaching. Thus, this question sheds light on the ways that these relevant kinds of field knowledge developed, or failed to do so, in connection with the design solution. Analyses of the data pertaining to this question shed light on how these kinds of knowledge can be further promoted.

Participants’ initial and final reflections on critical reading and U.S. culture afford an examination of changes in their articulated understanding of these fields of knowledge. Some of these changes can be traced back to specific discursive events that occurred during the implementation of the intervention.

As discussed in chapter five, students’ articulated understandings of critical reading shifted from a focus on taking a stand on the text to a focus on careful analyses of the text’s language (examples 49-55). While these changes appear to be connected to the intervention, it is possible that, for some participants, this articulation of an increased focus on close text analysis has been influenced by the translation courses that they were taking simultaneously during the intervention.

For most participants, views of US culture remain centered on racism and material aspects such as technology, which are the concepts that most of them used in their pre- and post-intervention definitions of U.S. culture. Although several participants used the word “diversity” in their latter characterizations of US culture, Laura, Martha and Maria were the only participants whose writing reveals an understanding of the ideological aspect of culture, as evinced by excerpts from their post-intervention essay responses below:

The US has changed culturally, from being a country where a majority of the population was racist, with slavery, it is now a partially multicultural country…. The Arizona Law SB1070 has provoked a separation of the country into two groups: those who support this law and those who are pro-immigrant (Martha’s post-intervention essay).

One of the first things that it is possible to realize from reading these texts is that, although the country is divided into two big factions or political parties, liberals and conservatives, these are also divided into smaller groups with radically different
ideas… there are many diverse viewpoints about certain controversial issues (Laura’s post-intervention essay).

That only these three participants exhibited the desired understanding indicates a need to place more explicit emphasis on the role of ideological contestation and nuance in the formation of culture in future iterations of the intervention.

6.5. RESEARCH QUESTION FIVE. HOW DO THE RESULTS OF THE INTERVENTION’S IMPLEMENTATION INFORM THE THEORIES OF LEARNING AND INSTRUCTION UNDERLYING THE INTERVENTION?

The data above suggest the need to make changes to the linear representation of reading processes underlying the instructional theory that was first presented in Figure 2.3 in chapter 2 and is reproduced below. As explained above, it is apparent that genre knowledge, rhetorical knowledge, and field knowledge of ideological systems and IDFs need to be scaffolded early on in the intervention and simultaneously. Thus, a revised version of this model that incorporates this realization is presented in Figure 6.1 below.

This model recognizes the need for linguistic and rhetorical dimensions to be presented in combination to learners, as well as the role of supplying and foregrounding basic field knowledge for the three kinds of processes. But the arrow pointing back to field knowledge from those processes also represents the role that linguistic and rhetorical processes and knowledge play in developing field knowledge, which is one of the points of the text-to-context approach that I have espoused in designing and implementing this project.

Important changes to the learning theories have to do with lexicogrammatical/ textual processing and metacognition. Although the initial problem analysis already suggested that the target population might display limited engagement with the lexicogrammar of texts and limited metacognitive strategies, these learning needs became clearer from participants’ assessment of their learning experiences. Interestingly, when participants characterize their reading practices prior to the intervention in terms of superficial, unmonitored reading, they construe that kind of reading in general, rather than genre-specific, terms. Since they report that they did not read political opinion texts prior to the
intervention, it is plausible to infer that the superficial, unmonitored reading practices they report had to do with other kinds of texts. Therefore, it is possible that the effects of the intervention that they report experiencing (increased engagement with text, new metacognitive strategies) might extend to the reading of other genres.

Indeed, some participants report using these new skills and strategies with other texts, as in examples 58 and 59. This involves a modification to the learning outcomes theory, namely that students like those in this study that participate in this kind of intervention will increase their ability to produce rich textbases and monitor their comprehension of other genres. These findings are also significant in that they provide evidence, albeit preliminary and indirect evidence, that SFL-inspired interventions can lead to improved comprehension.

Other important adaptations of the instructional theory include oral scaffolding of citation alignment as described in examples 23-26, and oral scaffolding of ideological critique as described in examples 44 and 45. Another important way that implementation informs the learning and instructional theories has to do with field knowledge: more field knowledge of ideological systems such as communism and capitalism, U.S. IDFs, and perhaps of the concept of ideology itself is needed for students to engage in more meaningful ideological critique and re-construction of the ideological discursive field of the U.S. second cultural context.

Table 6.3 in the next page represents the modifications to the learning and instructional theories that result from the data analysis. Additions to the original theories are highlighted in grey.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Learning Needs Theory</th>
<th>Learning Outcomes Theory</th>
<th>Instructional Theory</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Learners are not used to engaging deeply with non-narrative texts; as a result, they developed impoverished textbases</td>
<td>• Students will engage deeply with non-narrative texts and construct richer textbases</td>
<td>• SFL-inspired meditational means to analyze lexicogrammar and textual patterns helps learners to develop the strategies and skills required to construct richer textbases</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
| Learners apply knowledge of other genres to interpret the target genre; Learners need appropriate rhetorical and genre knowledge to make plausible rhetorical generative inferences | • Students will develop relevant rhetorical and genre knowledge  
• Students will be able to articulate the connections between texts and rhetorical situations that characterize a variety of journalistic and non-journalistic genres | • Guided discovery of rhetorical differences across genres helps to attain outcome; 
• Explanations of relationships between attitude, ethos, public sphere, and genre help to attain outcome; 
• Explanations of the plausibility of rhetorical generative inferences help to attain outcome; |
| Learners need to discover the different rhetorical intentions associated with journalistic genres so they will not assume that all journalistic genres are merely “informative.” | • Students will characterize the rhetorical strategies of texts in different journalistic genres plausibly. | • Comparisons of fabricated texts on the same topic in different journalistic genres helps to attain outcome; |
| Learners experience difficulty in identifying attitude patterns in target genre | • Participants will be able to identify and parse attitude patterns | • Analysis of inscribed and invoked attitude and scope/dominance patterns (Attitude analysis)  
• Oral scaffolding (questions/comments) |
| Learners experience difficulty in inferring authorial position | • Participants will be able to infer authorial position | • Attitude analysis |
| Learners are not aware of the need to check their interpretations against evidence from the text | • Students will check their interpretations against evidence from the text | • Attitude metalanguage and attitude DOs scaffold the emergence of metacognition by providing a means for checking interpretations |
| Learners experience difficulty in identifying source alignment | • Participants will be able to identify authorial alignment of sources | • Analysis of attribution options (alignment analysis)  
• Oral scaffolding |
| Difficulty in identifying ideology and situating ideological positions within the discursive field of US culture | • Participants will be able to infer global reading positions and ideological formations and draw connections between those and ideological-political discourses in US culture.  
• Participants will engage in ideological critique | • Toulmin analysis  
• Analysis of imaginings of the nation and social groups represented in texts  
• Analysis of rhetorical strategies (persuasion vs. identification)  
• Ideological critique  
• Declarative knowledge of US IDFs and institutions |
| Learners do not characterize the ideal reader using unstated premises | • Students will use unstated premises to characterize the ideal reader | • Meditational means need to be designed to help students explore unstated premises and make the connection between unstated premises and target audience more apparent. This would help to attain outcome |
| Learners lack basic knowledge of ideological systems (Marxism, conservatism) necessary to engage in ideological critique of specific ideological positions and/or IDFs | • Learners will be able to articulate basic definitions of these systems and describe their differences | • Written and oral explanations and guided self-discovery activities help to achieve outcome; |
| Learners experience difficulty in identifying and evaluating ideology with Toulmin analysis | • Learners will be able to identify and evaluate ideology using Toulmin analysis | • Oral scaffolding and more intensive practice of Toulmin analysis can help to achieve outcome; |
| Learners do not initiate ideological critique, instances of ideological critique are teacher-led and follow an I-R-P sequence | • Learners will initiate ideological critique and engage in learner-teacher and learner-learner dialog about it | • Open-ended questions leading students to reflect on the effects of ideology can help to achieve outcome; 
• Explicit explanation and discussion of the meaning of ideology can help to achieve outcome; |

Table 6.3. Modifications to the intervention’s leaning and instructional theories resulting from post-implementation analysis.
6.6. IMPLICATIONS OF THE STUDY FOR READING COMPREHENSION THEORY

This dissertation has provided an initial characterization of the kinds of systematic reasoning and premises involved in making kinds of generative inference (Kintsch, 1998), namely rhetorical inferences of authorial position, global reading position, and ideal reader for the target genre (other genres are likely to follow other kinds of premises and reasoning procedures). Kintsch (1998) classifies inferences into two broad types: those involving retrieval of knowledge from working memory and/or prior segments in the text, and those involving generation of knowledge not present in the text. Kintsch (1998) postulates that the latter type of inference, which he calls generative inferences, involve a conscious process of reasoning under some set of premises (189). His taxonomy of inference types, however, does not delve any further into the specifics of such premises and reasoning processes and how they may vary for different genres and reading situations.

This dissertation has discussed the premises and processes involved in two specific kinds of generative inferences for the target genre: inferring authorial position and inferring the ideal reader. In the target genre, inferring the author’s position involves an examination of any systematic couplings of author-projected attitudinal polarity and discursive participants, under the premise that the distribution of systematic participant evaluation patterns provides grounds to infer the author’s positions toward the positions those participants stand for or are aligned with by the author. In the target genre, inferring the ideal reader involves identifying the force of authorial attitude and instances of dialogic contraction and expansion.

The premise behind the former kind of reasoning is that the presence of highly graduated negative attitude signals that a reader aligned with the author is being constructed /addressed. This is predicated on the assumption that authors of public prose try to secure the good will of the audiences they intend to address. Therefore, those whose goodwill can be secured by displays of highly graduated negative attitude are not those who align with the positions thus appraised; instead, such kinds of attitude are likely to gain the good will (e.g. identification) of those who share the polarity and force of the attitude, that is, those who align with the author. Thus, an author-aligned reader can be inferred.
Obviously, engaging in these kinds of reasoning requires knowledge of the premises presented here as well as knowledge of the textual features to be identified and processed in order to follow such courses of reasoning. It turns out that systemic knowledge of the language, textual knowledge, rhetorical knowledge, and genre knowledge need to be addressed when theorizing reading comprehension ability as they are part of the interpretive repertoire of which such ability is an emergent property. It follows that the role of these kinds of knowledge needs to be addressed more explicitly in reading comprehension theory.

It is well established that L2 reading ability feeds from many sources including chiefly L2 grammatical and lexical knowledge, L1 literacy, background knowledge, strategies, and a series of aspects that Grabe (2009) calls “social and cultural” such as genres and reading habits. Bernhardt’s (2011) review of a series of L2 reading studies suggests that L1 literacy accounts for up to 20 percent of the variance in L2 reading ability, while L2 knowledge accounts for up to thirty percent of it. Bernhardt claims that the remaining 50 percent of the variance is unaccounted for but includes factors such as motivation and topic knowledge. I would like to suggest that, in addition to those, rhetorical knowledge and genre knowledge need to be considered as important components of the interpretive repertoire from which reading ability emerges.

By rhetorical knowledge I mean awareness that, as Haas and Flower (1988) put it, texts occurs in social context and are “the result of someone’s intentions” and have “real effects on real readers” (170). That is, rhetorical knowledge includes a general awareness that texts index contextualized exigencies, serve contextualized authorial purposes and construct/address certain reader groups. I also include in rhetorical knowledge the awareness that it is possible to infer these rhetorical aspects from the text’s lexicogrammatical patterns even when the rhetorical aspects are not explicit in the text.

By genre knowledge I mean an awareness of the typical rhetorical functions of a genre, including the audiences it typically constructs and how such audiences use it. That is, while rhetorical knowledge involves a general awareness of the rhetoricity of texts and forms of rhetorical analysis and rhetorical theory, genre knowledge includes an awareness of the recurring rhetorical aspects associated with certain text types, such as recurring exigencies, audiences, indexed power relations, and so on. From this perspective,
rhetorical reading—and, by extension, critical reading—is always genre-based as the texts we read are always instances of one or more genres.

Swales (1990) has called for greater attention in reading research to a genre perspective that addresses not only the formal features of genres but also their rhetorical purposes. I hope this intervention is a modest attempt in that direction. From a genre perspective, genres index certain reading practices within the communities that use them, and users of genres vary in how they read genres depending on their degree of expertise as users (Charney, 1993; Schwegler & Shamoon, 1991). These reading practices include assumptions about the rhetorical purposes of language exponents in the genre as well as actions that fit those purposes. For example, adherents of paleoconservatism that read “news” articles (actually opinion pieces) from Canada Free Press, the Web site that published McLeod and Calhoun, probably share my assumption, albeit unconsciously, that it is they and not liberals who are being hailed by the highly graduated negative judgments there. Yet, they probably assume, like some of my participants, that the texts’ purposes are purely informative and do not reflect on their opinionated nature and their \textsuperscript{20}IDF\textsuperscript{21}-group identity construction functions, which they perform via rhetorical identification. However, they probably do use the genre for those very functions when, for example, they post comments to the “news” that reflect their alignment with the authors, when they talk about these “news” with like-minded readers, and in general whenever they use the ideational and interpersonal content from the “news” to establish the distinctiveness of their political positions.

Political discourse analysts like me take our reading practices of this genre (political opinion articles) up a notch and are aware of these rhetorical functions, which enables us to critique them and also, potentially, to be mindful of our own target-like uses of the genre to build our own group identities when we read instances of the genre that happen to represent the positions that we align with. But we operate with the same raw material, namely the communicative-qua-rhetorical functions of the genre. And, it is our awareness

\textsuperscript{20}IDF: Ideological Discursive Formations.
\textsuperscript{21}Although I am aware of the potential of “group identity” here to evoke the concepts of sociolinguistic speech community and discourse community, I am hesitant to use either one because it seems to me that these IDF groups share features of both kinds of communities as defined in the literature (e.g. Swales, 1990).
of the genre’s functions that enables us to engage in intentional, strategic behaviors when reading the genre.

As shown by my dialog with Jaime in examples 18 and 19, textual analysis may not suffice to produce inferences of authorial attitude. Despite completing the DO correctly, Jaime does not infer authorial attitude until a) he becomes aware that it is possible to do so, and b) he realizes that, unlike narratives (his word), this text intends to signal a position. It is these realizations of possibility and purpose that allow him to connect form to function and then infer authorial position.

This finding indicates that, in addition to text analysis, one needs to know that inferences are possible and also how to draw such inferences within the parameters of a genre. The first kind of knowledge is rhetorical. The knowledge that in certain texts one can draw these inferences from analyses of attitude and participant couplings, however, is genre knowledge as it involves identifying the typical textual instantiation of a recurring communicative purpose and drawing connections between the textual instantiations and that purpose following premises like those discussed above.

These kinds of knowledge support and frame the deployment of reading strategies (e.g. intentional behaviors): one needs to know the interpretive possibilities afforded by a text and how to fulfill them in order to actually fulfill them. I suggest that rhetorical and genre knowledge enable the emergence of strategic behaviors that trigger textual processing and guide it to proceed according to the reasoning principles that are part of genre knowledge, which in turn enables the generation of plausible inferences of authorial position, global reading position, and ideal reader(s).

Genre knowledge is also necessary in order to imagine how others would fulfill the interpretive possibilities available to them as users in positions different from one’s own, which is key in critical reading and also in the promotion of global cultural consciousness, as discussed in the corresponding section farther below.

6.7. IMPLICATIONS OF THE STUDY FOR THE MODELING OF APPRAISAL
This dissertation study contributes to the modeling of the Appraisal system in two different ways. First, it makes a contribution to clarifying the analysis of invoked attitude. Second, it suggests modifications to the engagement subsystem. Problems with the unit of
analysis for invoked attitude, the parsing of invoked attitude, and the dialogically contractive vs. expansive status of engagement options have been show in chapter five. These issues and their relationship to the current model of Appraisal are discussed below, and proposals to modify the modeling of the Appraisal system are presented.

As has been shown in chapter five, attitude parsing can be complicated when segments of text include multiple, embedded layers of invoked attitude as in the excerpt from McLeod below.

The People’s Republic of China [participant 1], long lauded by America’s enemies [participant 2] as the next world economic power, will be the country that will force the creation of the amero.

Figure 6.3 below summarizes the layers of evaluation found in this excerpt. The examples used by Martin and White (2005) currently do not take into account the possibility that one single clause may contain multiple instances of attitude where what is appreciated positively by one participant (“China… world’s next economic power”) is appreciated negatively in an invoked manner by the author as indicated by attitudinal prosody (“enemies”). This is not a shortcoming in the principles of Appraisal analysis but rather an area that is in need of further clarification. This study has highlighted this need and it is hoped that the diagram in Figure 6.2 below is a contribution in that direction.

Text analyses and participants’ difficulties with it also suggest that aspects of the current model of engagement as proposed by Martin and White (2005) need to be reconsidered. Specifically, the reliance on the semantics of discrete reporting verbs as the criterion for coding attributions as either DISTANCE or ACKNOWLEDGE is incongruent with the purpose of Appraisal—of which engagement is a sub-system—as a system that models textuality at the discourse-semantics. Further, the labeling of ATTRIBUTE:DISTANCE and ATTRIBUTE:ACKNOWLEDGE as dialogically expansive options based on discrete reporting verbs is incongruent with analyses of naturalized reading position that take a discourse-semantics, or text-level, view of authorial persuasive intent as the saying of others can be projected using “neutral” verbs that nonetheless fall under the scope of non-neutral domination patterns.
Below is a discussion of the specifics of the current model followed by an illustration of the problems caused by its inconsistencies and a proposal for a new model of engagement.

At present, classification of attribution as DISTANCE or ACKNOWLEDGE depend on the reporting verb used in a clause. Thus, verbs that do not encode authorial stance with regard to the proposition being attributed, such as *say, report, state, announce,* and *declare* signal instances of ATTRIBUTE:ACKNOWLEDGE, while verbs that disalign the author with the voice being projected, such as *claim,* signal instances of ATTRIBUTE:DISTANCE. The model does not take into account the role of domination patterns in creating patterns of judgment and appreciation extending their scope to attributions, as illustrated by the segment from Calhoun below.

Nevertheless, cheerleaders for the Bush Administration deny that any plans for a North American Union exist. Neocon Michael Medved says that "there's no reason at all to believe in the ludicrous, childish, ill-informed, manipulative, brain dead fantasies about a North American Union. The entire chimera has been conjured up to scare people over nothing...." If there are no plans for a North American Union, then why did four of the most patriotic Congressmen see it necessary to introduce H. Con. Res. 487? And if it is not real, then what would H. Con. Res. 487 harm? Legislation preventing a "chimera" certainly cannot present any danger. Why are neocon Trotskyites like Medved becoming so emotionally unstable over a bill to prevent a "chimera"?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Exponent</th>
<th>Appraiser</th>
<th>Appraised</th>
<th>Polarity</th>
<th>Kind</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Laundered as next world economic power</td>
<td>Participant 2</td>
<td>Participant 1</td>
<td>+</td>
<td>Inscribed</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Enemies</td>
<td>Author</td>
<td>Participant 2</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>Inscribed</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Long lauded by America’s enemies as the next economic power</td>
<td>Author</td>
<td>Participant 1’s appreciation of Participant 2</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>Invoked</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The PROC…amero.</td>
<td>Author</td>
<td>Participant 2</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>Invoked</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Figure 6.2. Layers of attitude in McLeod’s opening sentence.
In this segment, the voice of Michael Medved is projected via a “neutral” reporting verb, *say*. Under the current premises for coding engagement options, Medved’s utterance should be coded as ATTRIBUTE:ACKNOWLEDGE and also as a dialogically expansive choice since the neutrality of the reporting verb signals the absence of authorial alignment vis-à-vis Medved’s utterance and thus allows readers maximal freedom to develop their own stance toward the utterance. However, this coding (ATTRIBUTE:ACKNOWLEDGE) ignores the anaphoric domination pattern stemming from “cheerleaders for the Bush administration” and the cataphoric domination pattern stemming from “Neocon Trostkytes like Medved becoming so emotionally unstable…” both of which extend their scope to Michael Medved and his utterance. Attending to these domination patterns when coding engagement options is congruent with the intent for Appraisal to model the resources that give unity to text at the discourse-semantics level. Under the premise that attitudinal domination patterns should be taken into account when coding engagement options, this instance of attribution would be coded as ATTRIBUTE:DISTANCE rather than ATTRIBUTE:ACKNOWLEDGE.

This new premise for coding and the result of its application, however, do not yet resolve the inconsistencies created by the modeling of ATTRIBUTE:DISTANCE as a dialogically expansive choice. Recall that Martin and White justify this choice by positing that ATTRIBUTE:DISTANCE signals that the writer rejects the utterance being attributed and thus leaves readers at liberty to take it up as they wish. Against this view, a rhetorical reading of Calhoun’s segment above suggest a very different authorial intent in Calhoun’s taking distance from Medved: the presence of highly graduated judgments of Medved (“cheerleaders,” “emotionally unstable”) one of which brands him with a particularly undesirable identity for the target audience of American conservatives (“Trostkyite,” that is, communist) signals to me a clear intent to align the reader against Medved and those he represents, namely the Bush administration and Neoconservatives. Thus, it is plausible to suggest that the authorial voice here does not actually seek to maximize readers’ possibilities to develop their own stances toward Medved’s utterance; instead, the author closes dialogic space by using strongly graduated negative judgments that signal to the reader how s/he is to judge Medved’s character (i.e. Medved is an emotionally unstable Communist [“Trostkyite”] that is a sycophant [“cheerleader”] to
George Bush). Further, the absence of support for these value claims about Medved naturalizes a reading position (i.e. creates an ideal reader) that is already inside Calhoun’s instantiation of paleoconservative discourse, that is, a reader that already shares the author’s judgments. From a perspective of identification, real readers matching the naturalized reading position are the kind of reader that would align with Calhoun’s judgments by seeing in those a reflection of their own values.

This analysis has shown that it makes discursive-semantic sense to code Calhoun’s projection of Medved’s utterance as an instance of dialogical contraction. However, the possibility that, in some cases, the authorial voice might indeed distance itself from an attribution but leave readers at liberty to construct their own stance toward that attribution, suggests a need to create a different engagement option for the kind of attribution seen in Calhoun above. ATTRIBUTE:CRITIQUE is a label that could be used to distinguish this kind of dialogically contractive attribution that seeks to disalign a reader vis-à-vis a third party’s utterance from the kind attribution in ATTRIBUTE:DISTANCE, which gives readers dialogic space to take up the third party’s utterance as they wish.

6.8. IMPLICATIONS OF THIS STUDY FOR THE TEACHING OF CULTURE AND GLOBAL CULTURAL CONSCIOUSNESS IN EFL SETTINGS.

This dissertation documents the implementation of an approach to the teaching of culture through critical reading with an understanding of culture-as-discourse. Such view of culture is, to my mind, an example of the cultural realism approach to the teaching of culture advocated by Kumaravadivelu (2007). From his perspective, a cultural realism approach “entails a true understanding of the competing forces of global, national, social, and individual realities” (157-158). The emphasis on competing forces resonates with a view of culture-as-discourse which locates culture in “competing ways of giving meaning to the world and organizing social institutions and processes … [offering]… the individual a range of modes of subjectivity” (Weedon, 1987, 35). To explicate the ways that the phenomena observed during the intervention may further the field’s knowledge of what it means to teach and learn about culture from this perspective, several points are worth discussing. These include the relationship between ideal reader and ideology, the
tension between intellectual self-defense and self-reflection in the intervention’s planning, the limited success of the intervention in promoting the desired view of culture-as-discourse, moments when such views emerged, and the culture-teaching implications of the sub-cultural identity structuring and maintenance function served by the target genre that was mentioned above.

As discussed in chapter two, patterns of unstated premises can be used to characterize the ideal reader constructed by a text. At the same time, those unstated premises are signals of a text’s ideological assumptions. Evidence was presented in chapter four that students can recognize these unstated premises and use them to characterize the ideal reader. The specific example is reproduced again below.

(37) 1 T: but this person believes that if you praise China you’re an enemy (. ) is that premise explicit (. ) is it spelled out somewhere?
2 Ss: no
3 T: what does that tell us about the ideal reader?
4 Laura: it’s someone who already agrees with that
5 T: it’s someone who already agrees (. ) right
6 Laura: there is no need to convince
7 T: right (. ) so if there’s no need to explain [inaudible] so the ideal reader is someone who already shares that premise
8 Yes (. ) I mean (. ) someone who already believes that (. ) someone who is against the United States not being the world superpower anymore (. ) and anyone who thinks otherwise is an enemy (. ) someone who knows about economics (. ) who already has a defined political opinion (. ) and opposes the European Union.

In this example, Laura reconstructs the ideal reader from unstated premises in McLeod. This ideal reader projects outward to a paleoconservative identity and to paleoconservatism as an IDF. Thus, Laura is engaging in the process first modeled in Figure 2.1, which is reproduced below.
This inference, combined with the knowledge supplied about American conservatism, appears to have led Laura to understand the target CC2 from a culture-as-discourse perspective. Tellingly, Toulmin analysis of the ideal reader also related to her critique of the paleoconservative ideology represented by Calhoun as racist. In example 64, she characterizes the ideal reader in Calhoun as someone who shares Calhoun’s premise that nationality is based on race.

(64) Laura: but the ideal reader (.) also thinks that nationality is based on race

Then, in example 65, when comparing Wendland and Calhoun, she is aware of their commonalities but critiques the ideology in Calhoun as racist.

(65) Laura: both are against corporations but one of them is racist

This discussion has shown how Toulmin analysis affords simultaneous engagement with cultural Others and engagement with ideology. This pedagogical procedure and effects contribute to operationalize and enrich the teaching of L2 culture from a cultural realism/global cultural consciousness perspective that highlights ideological critique, but somewhat obscures engagement with cultural Others. The next paragraphs turn attention
to the tensions between self-defense and self-reflection existing in the prototheories and design solution.

A tension between the goals of promoting intellectual self-defense as well as self-reflection runs through this intervention. Both have been established as goals of critical pedagogy (Pennycook, 2002). This study’s initial impetus stems from a desire to arm students with tools to identify and critique the ideologies of de-contextualized online texts that are sometimes given to them by teachers. This is self-defense. Following this emphasis on self-defense, metacritical awareness, a kind of self-reflection, was not at first formulated as a curricular goal, and no specific activities promoting it were planned.

However, metacritical awareness occurred naturally during the intervention (examples 19-21) albeit in only two participants (Martha and Laura). Another moment of self-reflection occurred when discussing the potential effects of Blankenhorn’s unstated premises (example 43). That is, self-reflection occurred without planning and appears to be a natural complement of intellectual self-defense. This should give the field collective hope that the dichotomy between self-defense and self-reflection set up by Pennycook (2002) is not insurmountable in practice. It also means that self-reflection should be explicitly addressed by future iterations of this intervention via the planning and execution of activities explicitly aimed at promoting it and recording its emergence.

Further, the analyses of the varying attitudinal polarities of secular and communism that Laura and Martha engaged in (examples 35 and 36) allowed them to objectify their own value positions, as Laura does with her reactions to secular (example 35). This ability is of great pedagogical significance when considered against the backdrop of recent cognitive studies investigating ideological reactions to texts. Specifically, Nyhan and Reifler (2010) and Nyhan (2010) have found that, when confronted with texts that contradict—indeed, correct—their own ideological misperceptions, adult American readers tend to retrench into their misperceptions and value positions. Along similar lines, recent cognitive research on argumentation suggests that human argumentation displays a genetically and socially reinforced tendency to work in non-dialogical ways to merely reinforce already existing ideological positions (Mercier & Sperber, in press). This phenomenon, called belief perseverance, is “one of social psychology’s most reliable phenomena” (Gunther & Alicke, 2008, 706).
I can’t help but speculate that one of the interpretive processes the readers in Nyhan and Reifler (2010) and Nyhan (2010) did not engage in was being meta-critically aware of their own reactions to attitudinal language. If that were true, then it is possible that the kind of meta-critical awareness that was promoted using Appraisal analysis in this intervention might help to develop forms of political consciousness—indeed, of citizenship—that are more open to engaging in dialog with competing alternatives and changing positions in the face of satisfactory evidence. It seems to me that this is a desirable form of consciousness in modern democracies. It is also one that, when put at play with global issues, may become a kind of global cultural consciousness.

Another important finding is the emergence of an understanding of culture-as-discourse in three participants: Laura, Martha, and María. This suggests to me that these three students were the only participants that were at the ZPD for this kind of learning and for the kind of scaffolding of it offered by the intervention. Martha is the only participant who mentioned having an interest in political discourse, which presumably means that she has more prior knowledge of general political constructs than the rest of the class and greater motivation to pay closer attention to discussions involving politics. Laura, as the most avid reader in the class, probably has a wider knowledge of the world and a greater facility to process new knowledge found in texts than other participants do. It seems then that other participants would have needed a greater exposure to ideational knowledge about politics earlier in the intervention as well as more explicit and repeated exposure to the ideas underlying the construct of culture-as-discourse (if not to the construct itself) in order to achieve the desired outcome.

This finding is relevant for the teaching and learning of culture from a cultural realism/global cultural consciousness approach. It suggests that students’ prior knowledge and motivations need to be carefully assessed and scaffolded in order to maximize the desired learning gains. Further, the participants’ need for explanations of what were assumed to be general knowledge terms such as communism suggests that even such baseline level of knowledge cannot be assumed for some populations and might need to be provided depending on the specific goals of culture-oriented interventions.

The role of genre awareness in the teaching of culture is another relevant aspect to be discussed. Above I mentioned the function that certain genres such as political opinion
texts may play in structuring and maintaining the identities of sub-cultural groups. If we put awareness of this function of genre at play with the perspective that a goal of teaching in culture is to help language learners develop an awareness of the forces structuring global, social, and individual identities (Kumaravadivelu, 2007), then we may see that helping learners to not only imagine the kinds of identities constructed by those genres but also to become aware of the identity-structuring functions of genres is a way to move forward in the teaching of global cultural consciousness. Further, the specific angle from which this intervention has approached culture, that of culture-as-discourse, offers a path to promoting interculturality that usefully disturbs the reification of national cultures. It does so by emphasizing the diversity of IDFs within a culture, as well as the differences and at times surprising affinities existing between competing IDFs.

6.9. LIMITATIONS AND SUGGESTIONS FOR FURTHER RESEARCH
This study has several limitations in content, scope, and methods. One limitation has to do with my fulfilling different roles as investigator, curriculum designer, and teacher. While this fact may have afforded more intimate knowledge of the data, it has also been detrimental to the critical distance from the data that is required of a qualitative researcher.

In another limitation, the specific kind of culture-centered genre awareness suggested above was not addressed because it had not entered my thinking until after the data had been analyzed. Future iterations of the intervention should address it more explicitly by incorporating activities and conversations that highlight the identity building functions of the genre and study their effects on participants’ development of intercultural awareness.

Also limited was the engagement with the concepts of genre and rhetorical knowledge during implementation. My explanations on the plausibility to infer authorial position from judgment of discursive participants and global reading position from the graduation of attitudinal lexis fell short from engaging students in explorations of genre diversity. These explanations also did not promote reflections on the differences and similarities between public and private spheres, or the possibility that some genres may cross the lines between those.
Along similar lines, the study also fell short of promoting reflections on students’ own sub-culture(s). Although moments of reflection occurred that could have been used as opportunities to explicitly explore the sub-cultural frames guiding students’ interpretations (e.g. Martha and Laura’s metacritical awareness in examples 18-21 and students’ realization of the effects of Blankenhorn in example 47), they were not taken advantage of for that purpose. This limitation is due to the fact that reflection was not initially formulated as a goal of the intervention, but the fact that it occurred strongly suggests that it should be addressed in future interventions.

The study also did not address the issue of the intervention’s potential to influence shifts in participants’ representations of their identities as readers. Changes in their definitions of critical reading, as well as the growing metacognitive awareness of their own reading practices, suggest that investigating changes in how they view themselves as readers might be a fruitful direction for further research. Along similar lines, investigations on the interventions’ effects in students’ perceptions of self-efficacy as readers seem warranted by the results of this study.

Although some participants reported an emerging awareness of the need to examine their own reading process, the intervention did not address comprehension monitoring explicitly. As a result, it is not known what kinds of specific effects its different components might have had on such monitoring, although some speculation can be made from instances of scaffolding such as those found in examples 18 and 19. Students might have been prompted to check their local interpretations against more global patterns such as domination patterns, and also against different sets of assumptions about the functions of the target genre and the relationship between attitudinal graduation and target audience. Pre-and post-intervention think-aloud protocols can be incorporated to future studies in order in to characterize changes in patterns of comprehension monitoring behaviors and their relationship to scaffolding events and meditational means more accurately.

Another important limitation of the study is the absence of control of contextual variables that might have influenced the emergence of the desired behaviors independently of, or in connection with, this intervention. An example of such kind of variable is the translation courses that some students reported having taken.
simultaneously with the intervention. It is possible that some forms of discourse analysis occurring there might have exposed students to discursive processes similar to those promoted by the intervention and thus reinforced their emergence.

The limited characterization of the participants’ L1 reading proficiency is also a methodological limitation of this study. Although their self-reported reading practices provide some cues that a majority of them are unfamiliar with the genre and thus presumably would not be expert readers of it in the L1, this cannot be ascertained in the absence of tests or think-aloud protocols using L1 versions of the genre. An area of research here is the extent to which the sub-genre of political opinion texts written in commentator key even exists in Mexican culture. Of course, political opinion texts are published on a daily basis in Mexican print and online media. However, my own experience as an avid reader of political opinion articles suggests that the version of this genre containing highly graduated attitude is not frequent, and perhaps is even rare, in the Mexican media: I cannot recall ever reading one example that matches the level of attitudinal force found in McLeod, Wendland or Calhoun. This might in itself be an interesting area for contrastive rhetoricians to research.

The fact that the group of participants included a very wide range of abilities has made it harder to make inferences about all but a handful of participants. LP participants simply did not talk as much because they did not have the English proficiency to do so. Further, untold in this dissertation is the story of how much I had to recast in Spanish to LP groups during small group activities explanations that had been given to the whole-class in English so they would be able to understand the concepts and do the activities. Also unreported are differences in socio-economic status and ethnicity that inevitably influence reading abilities. Although I did not collect data on SES, clear differences existed in SES between most HP and LP participants that were apparent in the quality of their clothes, the cell phones they owned or did not own, the fact that Karen was the only person with a laptop and broadband WiFi access, the pricey new books that Laura carried around all the time, or the fact that Jaime was the only participant to have lived in an English-speaking country.

I also did not collect data on ethnicity and this is not typically done in Mexican educational settings, so no data on ethnicity is available from USM. I suspect, however,
that several LP participants were members of indigenous tribes or had members of indigenous tribes as parents or grandparents. I ground this hypothesis in my insider knowledge of the subtle phenotypic features, speech cues and bodily mannerisms that we Mexicans are used to seeing in the indigenous peoples of our country that, unlike the majority of us, have no European ancestry and have not adopted mainstream, non-indigenous ways. It is also no accident that several HP participants had lighter skin tones and family names suggesting ancestries other than Spanish or indigenous. These to me are markers of social identities that signal increased opportunities to access valued forms of literacy, in this case the English language itself. Such increased access may help explain proficiency differences as well as the dominance of HP participants in classroom conversation and thus in representation in the data reported here. Future studies should look at the influence of these SES and ethnic variables in the construction of readerly identities and values and their relationship, if any, to English-language reading proficiency. There would be value too in examining differences between diverse intra-homogenous groups in order to tailor interventions based on the principles of the one reported here to the needs of different population groups in the target setting.

Finally, the fact that I did not research the group of readers who, since day one of implementation, made plausible rhetorical inferences is an important limitation of the study. That such readers existed is a form of negative evidence suggesting that the needs of a part of the target population are not addressed by this study’s learning and instructional theories. Future studies of literacy practices in the target setting would benefit from examining the sociocultural histories of diverging groups of readers in the setting in order to better characterize the needs of different groups of learners.

6.10.FINAL REMARKS ON A TEXT-TO-CONTEXT VS. A CONTEXT-TO-TEXT APPROACH.

That the students’ absence of background field knowledge appears to have hindered their ability to make plausible rhetorical inferences can be read as justification for an approach to teaching comprehension that emphasizes background knowledge and context-to-text reading over language scrutiny and text-to-context reading. I would like to clarify that I do not oppose the former kind of approach. I think it is warranted and needed. However, I
believe a text-to-context approach is equally valuable and needed, and I think the data I have presented and discussed here support this position. After all, the relationship between reading ability and knowledge is a reciprocal, bi-directional one—at some level, they might be indistinguishable from one another. I have chosen to highlight one direction of this relationship, that going from reading to knowledge, or text to context, because I think it is the less traveled one in pedagogical practice. I also think it needs to be examined more with the eyes of a designer and practitioner in order to further knowledge of reading pedagogy, and of reading itself. Reading Internet text, or any text, of course involves operating in the opposite direction too, from background or context knowledge to text. I hope others will continue to research reading comprehension from that perspective, and I might do so myself in the future.
Lesson 1

Text: No text

Guiding constructs: emic understandings of critical reading, imagining of US culture

Metalanguage: none

Target vocabulary: none

Vocabulary introduced by T: none

Materials:

- Worksheet 1, different kinds of reading
- Worksheet 2, US culture
- Worksheet 3, online reading practices

Teacher goals

- Introduce research project, explain students’ roles.
- Develop students’ awareness of different kinds of reading.
- Collect data on students’ understanding of critical reading, online reading practices, and US culture.
- Lead students to construct a definition of critical reading.
- Lead students to reflect on online reading practices.
- Lead students to reflect on US culture as represented online.

Student goals

By the end of the lesson, ss will have

- Written a brief reflection with their own understanding of critical reading (worksheet 1).
- Written about their understanding and knowledge of US culture (writing activity).
- Written about their online reading practices (worksheet 2)
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Stage &amp; material</th>
<th>Goal &amp; target language</th>
<th>Procedure</th>
<th>Participant structure &amp; time</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Introductions</td>
<td>Introduce project</td>
<td>T welcomes ss to the course. After introductions, T explains the nature of the project and the importance of student participation to its success. T addresses any questions ss may have. T explains that he will always be collecting the artifacts ss will produce on each class and returning them to ss on the next session.</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Whole class, 5 min</td>
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<tr>
<td>Warm Up</td>
<td>Activating prior knowledge about different kinds of reading</td>
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<td></td>
<td>T explains that the first activity will be a reflection on different kinds of reading practices. T asks “do you read in the same way any time you read?” After eliciting and discussing some answers, T gives ss worksheet 1.</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Whole class, 5 min</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Presentation: different kinds of reading Worksheet 1</td>
<td>Elicit ss’ understanding of reading practices</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>T makes sure ss understand questions and asks asks ss to work individually answering questions 1 and 2. Once most ss seem to have finished, T has ss share their answers in groups. T asks groups to prepare a report talking about similarities or differences in members’ ways of</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Small groups, 10 min</td>
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</tbody>
</table>
Eliciting ss’ understandings of critical reading

- Approaching texts. T conducts whole-class discussion of group reports.

- Then, T asks ss to work individually on question 3. When most ss are done, ss discuss answers in small groups. T conducts a whole-class discussion. T has a volunteer write down the different attributes of critical reading that ss have agreed upon. T asks ss to make notes about these in their journals.

- At this point, T intervention in shaping ss’ understanding is kept to a minimum, as the goal is to gather data about their emic perceptions.

Presentation: reading to get familiar with target culture

Eliciting ss’ understandings of US culture

- T explains that an important aspect of reading is getting to know about other cultures. T explains that the next activity is a free writing activity about the United States. T asks ss to write down anything that comes to their mind when they think about the United States and its culture. If ss have trouble getting started, T can ask questions like “what aspects of US culture...”

- Whole class, 10 min

- Individual work, 5 min

- Small groups, 5 min

- Whole class, 15 min

- Whole class, 2 min

- Individual work, 10 min
| Worksheet 2 | Presenting the relevance of sociopolitical issues to understanding other national cultures | are you familiar with?“ what aspects of US culture do you like/dislike?” After about 10 minutes, T asks them to stop and share answers in small groups. Then, T asks ss to paste the sheets with their answers on the classroom walls. T asks ss to circulate, reading others’ writing and taking notes about anything they find interesting. T elicits ss’ reactions about others’ opinions as a whole-class activity. | Small groups, 10 min |
| Worksheet 3 | Finding out about ss online reading practices | It is expected that some sociopolitical issues will come up as a result of the previous activity. T explains that an important part of getting to know another country’s culture is becoming familiar with some important issues and positions in that culture. A way of doing that is reading about them online. T gives ss worksheet 2, which has questions about their online reading habits. Ss answer individually. Then, T gives ss worksheet 3, which asks them to conduct Web searches for the terms “gay marriage” | Whole class, 5 min |

Individual work, 5min | Individual work, 10 min |
and “illegal immigration” and explore some of the Web sites they find (this class will take place in a computer lab). When they’ve completed the activity, T has them share answers with the whole class. At the end of the lesson, T collects all student artifacts.
Critical Reading Project
Lesson 2

Text: Practice Text 1, “Perez Hilton: The Foul Face of Gay Activism.”

Guiding constructs: inscribed attitude, canonical (adjectival) vs. non-canonical realizations of attitude, polarity, imagining.

Metalanguage: attitude, canonical vs. non-canonical realizations of attitude, polarity.

Target vocabulary: foul, sanitized, creepy, fussy, disgraceful, hateful, hate-filled, boast, blubber, yammer.

Vocabulary introduced by T: foul, boast.

Materials: Practice Text 1, Worksheet 4 (attitude discourse-structure/graphic organizer, or DSGO), Worksheet 5 (rhetorical inference and critical reading questions)

Teacher goals

- Introduce the concept of critical reader, operationalized here as a reader who is able to recognize attitudinal meaning in isolated words and attitude patterns across texts.
- Introduce the concept of attitude.
- Introduce some target vocabulary.
- Introduce the concepts of canonical (adjectival) vs. non-canonical realizations of attitude.
- Introduce attitude DSGO (Worksheet 1) and the concepts of attitude source and attitude focus.
- Introduce rhetorical inference and critical reading questions using worksheets 2 and 3.
- Foster constative speech-resistance through questioning and recasting ss’ output.

Student goals

By the end of the lesson, students will be able to identify inscribed attitude-signaling lexis, both canonical and non-canonical (processes), its sources and foci.

Student outcomes

By the end of the lesson, students will have

- Completed an attitude discourse organizer for practice exercise 1 with teacher (Worksheet 1).
- Answered rhetorical inference (Worksheet 2) and critical reading questions using constative speech-resistance (Worksheet 3)

**Lesson Description**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Stage &amp; material</th>
<th>Goal &amp; target language</th>
<th>Procedure</th>
<th>Participant structure &amp; time</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Pre-reading</td>
<td>Introduce concept of attitude and prototypical realization of attitude</td>
<td>T explains that an important part of reading critically is figuring out writers’ attitudes as expressed in texts. T asks ss to think of some words that express attitude. After listing the words, T asks ss to name the words’ grammatical category. It is expected that these words will be adjectives. T explains that adjectives are the prototypical attitude-expressing words. T introduces the concept of polarity by asking ss to think about the positive/negative charge of these words and explaining that this is called “polarity.” T explains that ss will have some practice identifying adjectives in a short text about gay marriage. Before giving them the text, T gives them worksheet 4, which asks questions about familiarity with US debates about gay marriage.</td>
<td>Whole class, 10 min</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Worksheet 4</td>
<td>Practice identifying</td>
<td>T gives ss practice</td>
<td>Individual, 5 min</td>
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<tr>
<td>Activity</td>
<td>Task</td>
<td>Time</td>
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<tr>
<td>Familiarity with US gay marriage debates</td>
<td>canonical realization of attitude</td>
<td>exercise 1 and asks them to underline all adjectives. T exemplifies this with “foul,” introducing the meaning. Ss should look up unfamiliar adjectives in their dictionaries.</td>
<td>Whole class, 5 min</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><em>Foul, sanitized, creepy, fussy, disgraceful, hateful, hate-filled</em></td>
<td>T elicits answers and checks that ss understand adjective meanings.</td>
<td>Whole class, 10 min</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Introducing non-canonical realizations of attitude</td>
<td><em>Boast</em></td>
<td>Then, T explains that words belonging to grammatical categories other than adjective, such as verbs, also encode attitudes. T writes down an example sentence on board including the verb “boast,” asks ss to identify and underline the process. Then, T has ss look it up in the dictionary and asks what the attitudinal polarity encoded by the verb is. T explains that the dictionary entries provide this information using the label {derog}.</td>
<td>Whole class, 10 min</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Practice identifying non-canonical realizations of attitude</td>
<td><em>Boast</em></td>
<td>T asks ss to underline all processes (verb groups) in the text. They should also look up new ones and identify attitude using their dictionaries.</td>
<td>Individual, 10 min</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

T elicits answers and makes sure ss

Whole class, 5 min
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Activity</th>
<th>Description</th>
<th>Time</th>
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</table>
| While-reading Worksheet 5, attitude DSGO                                 | Introduce attitude DSGO. T explains that all attitude has a source and a focus, that is, attitude words encode someone’s attitude toward something or someone. T explains that it is important in critical reading to identify not only writers’ attitudes but the source and the focus of the attitude. T draws the three column graphic organizer on board and asks ss to say the first attitude word (“foul”). T asks who the source and the focus is, and writes down answers on board. T gives SS a DSGO worksheet and asks them to fill it out in small groups. T encourages ss to talk through any questions or decision-making comments with their peers. T circulates providing guidance as needed. T asks ss to come to the board and fill out the DSGO. T guides-corrects as needed. | Small group, 10 min  
Whole class, 10 min  
Small groups, 15 min |
<p>| Attitude DO                                                              | Reconstructing. When DSGO is full, T asks ss to reflect on |</p>
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Worksheet 6</th>
<th>Critical reading questions</th>
<th>patterns of attitude-source-focus</th>
<th>Answering rhetorical inference questions</th>
<th>overall patterns. T gives ss Worksheet 6, asking them to focus on questions 1-5: Who is the predominant source of attitude? Who are the foci? How is attitude toward one focus (Prejean) different from the attitude toward the other foci (Hilton and his actions, liberals, the media)? What can we infer about the authors’ position vis-à-vis gay marriage? What can we infer about the target audience? What can we infer about different positions existing in US society? T checks that ss understand the questions and has them work in small groups to answer them. T explains that assertions in the answers must be justified by references to text language. T elicits answers, pushes ss to ground them on text language and use metalanguage, recasts as necessary. T asks ss to focus on the remaining questions on worksheet 6: What other positions vis-à-vis</th>
<th>Whole class, 15 min</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Post-reading</td>
<td>Answering critical reading questions</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Small groups, 10 min</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Worksheet 6

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>vis gay marriage are there/can there be? How would the text be different if it had been written from one of those other positions? How would the attitude be different? Ss work in small groups. T elicits answers, recasts using metalanguage as needed, pushes for resistance-constative speech. At the end of the lesson, T collects all student artifacts.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Whole class, 10 min</td>
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</tbody>
</table>
Lesson 3

Text: “Debut of the amero”

Target constructs: inscribed attitude, invoked attitude, domination, imagining

Target vocabulary: laud, pointman, boast, lingo, Turtle Bay, cloak, bread line, all but ignored, the Fed, greenback, stealth

Inscribed attitude: enemies, boast, flagging, unfortunately, moral drift, American icon

Invoked attitude: secular, universal republic, fashioned in secrecy, unsuspecting public, before the masses could coalesce to fight it, John Paul II faces left, the collapse of the dollar.

Prosody patterns

Domination: “enemies” dominates the portrayal of Annan and Strong’s actions. “stealth” colors paragraphs 8-12, affording an inference that the euro and the EU are portrayed negatively. “Moral drift” also colors the discussion of the Vatican’s adoption of the euro

Teacher goals

- Introduce the concept of critical reader, operationalized here as a reader who is able to recognize attitudinal meaning in isolated words and attitude patterns across texts
- Introduce the concepts of inscribed and invoked attitude
- Introduce the concept of domination as a prosody pattern.

Student goals

By the end of the lesson, students will have

- Completed a DO for this text.
- Identified instances of invoked attitude in that DO.
- Identified domination patterns by drawing arrows in their texts.
- Identified authorial attitude toward issues.
- Support their inferences about authorial attitude with evidence from the text
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Stage &amp; material</th>
<th>Goal &amp; target language</th>
<th>Procedure</th>
<th>Expected student output</th>
<th>Participant structure &amp; time</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Setting goals</td>
<td>Introduce invoked attitude</td>
<td>T checks that ss understand the differences between canonical and non-canonical realizations of attitude. T elicits a few examples. Then, T explains that the goal for this lesson is to look at another kind of non-canonical realization of attitude called invoked attitude. T explains with an example, contrasting the sentences “that’s an excellent class” vs. “that’s a class you wouldn’t want to miss.” T presents a definition of inscribed and invoked attitude from Martin &amp; White (2005).</td>
<td></td>
<td>Whole class, 10 min</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Setting goals</td>
<td>Introduce domination</td>
<td>T explains that another goal of the session is to look at ways that attitudinal lexis in specific parts of texts create patterns that impose that attitude over other parts of the text. For example, in the sentences “People who talk a lot about themselves</td>
<td></td>
<td>Whole class, 20 min</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pre-reading</td>
<td>While reading</td>
<td>Whole class, 10 min</td>
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<tr>
<td>Elicit background knowledge about issue</td>
<td>Strike me as arrogant. Michael talks a lot about himself” the adjective “arrogant” colors the attitude toward Michael, even though Michael is not in the same sentence and is not directly qualified as arrogant. T explains that this extension of an attitudinal meaning to other parts of the text is called domination.</td>
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<tr>
<td>Introducing vocabulary</td>
<td>T explains that now the class will switch to text analysis. T writes the word “amero” on board and asks ss if they had ever heard it before. After eliciting some answers, T introduces target vocabulary.</td>
<td>Whole class, 10 min</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Re-introduce domination</td>
<td>T gives ss the target text and an attitude DO. T checks with the whole class that they remember how to complete it. Then, T asks ss to work in groups to complete the DO for paragraphs 1 through 3. T circulates as ss complete the DO in groups. Then, T elicits answers. T makes sure that the domination pattern (“enemies-Kofi</td>
<td>Small groups, 15 min</td>
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<td>Whole class, 5 min</td>
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<tr>
<td>Activity</td>
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<tr>
<td>Introducing the concept of the invoked attitude</td>
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<tr>
<td>Building knowledge about being a critical reader</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

Annan, Maurice Strong) comes up in the discussion. T introduces the concept of domination using M&W’s definition. T projects Figure 1 to explain the concept graphically.

Then, T asks ss to focus on paragraph 4. After making sure that ss understand “cloak” and “fashion,” T asks ss what kind of attitude is being invoked here: “what kind of attitude do you think the author is conveying by using expressions like ‘fashioned in secrecy’ and ‘an unsuspecting public’“? What kind of light is this author portraying these events under?” T uses ss answers to reinforce the concept of invoked attitude.

T explains that a critical reader pays attention to invoked attitude, contrasts the kind of attitude invoked by the author with his/her own attitude, and wonder what kind of reader would feel the same attitude as the author. This

Whole class, 15 min

Whole class, 5 min

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| Practice identifying invoked and inscribed attitude patterns | reader is the ideal reader. T asks ss to reflect about the ideal reader for this passage. T elicits answers, pushing ss to support their interpretations. | Small groups, 20 min |
| Practice identifying domination | T asks ss to continue to work in small groups to complete the attitude DO. A potential modification here if they didn’t talk much is having them work first individually and then compare differences. Another possibility involves having them work in different sections of the text and then share their work. T asks them to pay special attention to invoked attitude and domination patterns. T asks ss to mark the domination patterns in their texts using arrows like those in Figure 1. They should write [inv] next to instances of invoked attitude. | Whole class, 20 min |
| Fostering talk about DO | T asks groups to come to the board to complete DOs for different sections of the text. T encourages questioning and discussion of decisions. T asks questions as needed | |
| attitude | to include missing instances of attitude. T makes sure to direct attention to the evaluation encoded in “experts.” Then, T asks ss if they found any domination patterns. T asks what the author’s attitude is toward the creation of the euro and the European Union. T leads a discussion, pushing ss to support their answers with evidence from the text. |  |

Focusing on stealth-Euro domination pattern and invoked attitude |  |  |
Lesson 4

Text: “Debut of the amero”

Target constructs: invoked attitude, ideal reader, alignment, participant tracking

Metalanguage: participant tracking, citational purposes, alignment

Target vocabulary: secular

Inscribed attitude: not the focus of this lesson

Invoked attitude: secular, the Universal Republic, the Pope faces left

Prosody patterns: domination “stealth-discussion of the Euro”

Teacher goals

- Foster reflection on differential effects of invoked attitude over different groups of people.
- Introduce alignment DO.
- Teach participant tracking and identification of source alignment.
- Foster imagining of an ideal reader, to be used to reconstruct imagining of the ideal reader.

Student goals

By the end of the lesson students will have

- Answered questions about differences in the effects of invoked attitude over themselves and an ideal reader. This will provide evidence of their imagining of the imagining of others in the target culture;
- Completed an alignment DO tracking other discursive participants and the author’s purposes in citing them.
- Answered questions about patterns in that DO. This will provide evidence of their ability to identify author’s citational purposes and author’s alignment of participants.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Stage &amp; material</th>
<th>Goal &amp; target language</th>
<th>Procedure</th>
<th>Expected student output</th>
<th>Participant structure &amp; time</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Setting goals</td>
<td>Activate invoked attitude</td>
<td>T asks ss what invoked attitude is and elicits some examples. T explains that one of today's goal is to keep looking at invoked attitude in “Debut of the amero”</td>
<td>Definition of invoked attitude, examples</td>
<td>Whole class, 10 min</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pre-reading</td>
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<tr>
<td>While-reading</td>
<td>Promote reflection on institutional/ideological</td>
<td>T gives ss a worksheet asking “what kind of attitude do the words ‘secular’ and ‘the Universal Republic’ invoke for you? Does it mean anything to you that “the image of Pope John Paul II faces left” on the Vatican’s Euro? What do you think is the author’s attitude toward those? What kind of reader do you think the author has in mind: one who feels like her or one who feels differently? What makes you think that?” Ss work individually to complete their worksheets. Then, T asks them to share answers in “secular,” and “universal republic” will invoke mostly positive and neutral responses from the students. The Pope’s facing left will mean nothing to them. The author’s attitude is negative. The author has in mind a reader who feels like her, that is, a reader who thinks secularism and a world government are bad ideas. By contrast, this reader is in favor of a strong presence of religion in society. It is also a reader who disapproves of leftist thinking and believes that the Pope’s facing left is evidence of Individual work, 10 min</td>
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<tr>
<td>Worksheet 8</td>
<td>rooting of invoked attitude</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Focusing on identifying an ideal reader</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Small groups, 10 min</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
| Citation alignment DO | Focusing on citation alignment
<table>
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<tr>
<td>small groups. T explains that it’s ok to change the answers in their individual worksheets if they’re persuaded by different opinions in the group. Finally, T elicits answers in a whole-class discussion. T makes sure to highlight the construct of ideal reader as well as the ways that invoked attitude is rooted in specific ideologies. T also highlights that being a critical reader also involves reflecting on one’s perceptions of invoked attitude vs. those projected by the author for an ideal reader. T explains that ss will now do a different kind of analysis. T introduces the alignment DO. The purpose of this DO is to track other discursive participants, their processes, and their (dis)alignment with the author’s views. T explains that another important strategy of a critical reader</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>a leftist conspiracy. There is no explanation about why secularism and a universal republic are bad ideas. So, presumably, there is no need to explain this to readers because they already think this way.</td>
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<tr>
<td>Reasons to cite others: to support one’s point, to illustrate an opposing point of view, to distance oneself from criticize the source cited, to bring up the source’ point for discussion.</td>
<td>Whole class, 10 min</td>
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<td>Whole class, 10 min</td>
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</table>
is to identify other voices in a text and why the author cites them. T asks the class to brainstorm what could be some reasons to cite someone. After eliciting some of those reasons, T illustrates the use of the DO with a couple of examples. T makes it clear that relationships between participants should be marked with a line, as in “enemies” to Strong and Annan.

Ss work in small groups completing the DO. T circulates and provides help as needed.

Then, T has groups come to the board to complete different parts of the DO. T leads a whole-class discussion after the completion. The purpose of this discussion is to discover patterns in the participants, processes, and citational purposes. T can ask questions like “how is the identity of other participants correct completion of the DO supported statements justifying coding.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Worksheet 10</th>
<th>Focus on premises behind judgment of participants</th>
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<td>explained? do most sources align with the author? What seem to be the predominant citational purposes?”</td>
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<td>T focuses on the identification of other participants, like “Maurice Strong – Kofi Annan’s former pointman” and “Bob Chapman-expert, publisher of <em>The International Forecaster</em>.” T asks ss to focus on the evaluation that is implicit in the nouns used to identify these participants. T gives ss worksheet 10 with the questions: what is the purpose of the evaluation? What kind of attitude is signaled? Do ss share it? What are the premises behind these evaluations? Are they explained?” Ss work in groups to complete the worksheet. T leads a whole class discussion. Then, T asks ss to think about the same questions for the other participants. Ss work individually, then T</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>The identity of participants is often explained in appositives or adjective. The predominant citational purposes are to criticize other and to support author’s points.</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Answers that are plausible and use evidence from the text</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Whole class, 10 min</td>
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<td>Small groups, 15 min</td>
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<td>checks answers with the whole class.</td>
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</table>
Lesson 5

Text: “Debut of the amero”

Guiding constructs: taken-for-grantedness, ideal reader, imagining, inference

Metalanguage: taken-for-grantedness, imagining, inference, ideal reader, invoked/inscribed attitude, alignment, participant tracking, domination

Target vocabulary: none

Vocabulary I will introduce: none

Vocabulary ss will search: none

Inscribed attitude: not applicable

Invoked attitude: not applicable

Prosody patterns: not applicable

Teacher goals:

- Teach the concept taken-for-grantedness and how to identify taken-for-grantedness.
- Teach how to infer features of the ideal reader.
- Teach the concept of imagining.
- Foster reflection on how linguistic analysis leads to making inferences about the ideal reader.
- Foster further reflection on the meanings of being a critical reader and critical reading.

Student goals

By the end of the lesson, ss will have

- Identified taken-for-grantedness in the text;
- Produced a series of statements characterizing the ideal reader for this text;
- Conducted Web searches of people and issues mentioned in the text;
- Produced constative speech evincing their understanding of the connections between the text and the social structure (ideal reader-groups with specific political positions);
- Produce a list of the metalanguage used so far to describe features of texts and analytic procedures;
- Articulated their understandings of critical reading and being a critical reader incorporating learning from this and past sessions;
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<tr>
<th>Stage &amp; material</th>
<th>Goal</th>
<th>Procedure</th>
<th>Expected student output</th>
<th>Participant structure &amp; time</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Setting goals</td>
<td></td>
<td>T explains that the goal in this session is to work with taken-for-grantedness and then continue to reflect on the ideal reader and the meaning of critical reading.</td>
<td>“Those who praise China as the next economic superpower are the enemies of America, there is no explanation as to why that praising makes them enemies”</td>
<td>Whole class, 5 min</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pre-reading</td>
<td>Introduce the concept of taken-for-grantedness</td>
<td>T asks ss if they know what “taken for granted” means. After eliciting some answers, T introduces the concept of taken-for-grantedness using the clause “long lauded by America’s enemies.” T asks “who are the enemies?” The expected answer is “those who praise China as the next economic superpower.” T asks “is there any explanation anywhere in the text about why that praising makes those people enemies of America?” The expected answer is “no.” T can then explain that this statement is taking the explanation for granted; it is making an assertion that requires an explanation to be justified but the explanation is not included in the text. This quality is called “taken-for-grantedness.”</td>
<td></td>
<td>Whole class, 10 min</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>While-reading</td>
<td>Practice identifying taken-for-grantedness</td>
<td>T asks ss to work in small groups identifying taken-for-grantedness. After a few minutes, T elicits explains that he will have groups come to the board to list some of the taken-for-grantedness they’ve found, and they need to be ready to justify their choice. T gives ss time to</td>
<td>Paragraph 1, “lauded by America’s enemies” Paragraph 3, “the flagging American economy” Paragraph 8, “the euro”</td>
<td>Small groups, 25 min</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Focusing on the connections between taken-for-grantedness and the ideal reader</td>
<td>prepare for their short presentations as needed. Groups take turns coming to the board to write down and explain the taken-for-grantedness they’ve found. T gives guidance and/or asks questions as needed, pushing ss to produce constative speech. T asks ss to remember the instances of invoked attitude that they worked with last class (“secular,” “the Universal Republic,” “the Pope faces left”). Can those be counted as taken-for-grantednesss? T leads a class discussion pushing ss to support their answers with evidence from the text. T explains that the goal now is to reflect on what the presence of taken-for-grantedness means for understanding a text’s ideal reader. So, T asks, “what kind of audience or reader is implied by the presence of a taken-for-grantedness?” T elicits answers from the class. T explains that the presence of taken-for-grantedness evinces an ideal reader that is in agreement with the author’s views: there is no need to explain or persuade the audience that the author’s views are correct because the ideal reader is already in alignment with those views. T explains that a critical reader tries to infer who the ideal reader for a text is by looking at, among other things, taken-for-grantednesss.</td>
<td>followed the same blueprint of stealth and surprise” Paragraph 9 “the masses could coalesce to fight it” Paragraph 11 “with the issuance of the euro, is taking an important step toward the Universal Republic” “This is a taken-for-grantedness because…” “If the author did not explain something, this allows the reader to infer that the author’s ideal reader is someone who doesn’t need the explanation because he/she already knows the unexplained information or shares the author’s opinion”</td>
<td>Whole class, 10 min</td>
<td>Whole class, 10 min</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Post-reading</td>
<td>Introducing the concept of inference</td>
<td>The ideal reader for this section is someone who thinks that society shouldn’t be secular, who believes that a Universal Republic would be a bad thing, who agrees that the euro was created in secrecy and imposed to a population that would have fought it if they had known about it.</td>
<td>Whole class, 10 min</td>
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T writes on board “the ideal reader for the section about the euro is someone who...” T says something like: “so, we have been talking about the kind of ideal reader that this text is addressing. We can think of this ideal reader as someone who shares the perspectives a writer presents in a text. Based on your previous answers about the ideal reader for the section about the euro, can you think of ways to complete this sentence?” T elicits a few answers from the class and writes them down.

Then, T changes the opening of the sentence to “the ideal reader for this text is someone who...” and asks ss to work in groups to find other ways to complete the sentence. After a few minutes, T elicits answers, and has ss write them down on the board. Ss take turns reading their answer aloud. T pushes them to support their answers. T also asks them to write down to what extent they think they match this ideal reader. Then, ss do some sharing in groups and then with the whole class.

T says: “Did you know all this about the ideal reader when you first read the text? How did we come to this knowledge?” T has ss think about these questions and uses their answers to introduce the concept of inference. T explains that an inference is a piece of

Other plausible answers.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Worksheet 11</th>
<th>Focusing on connecting the text to the social structure</th>
<th>Reading the Web with a critical orientation</th>
<th>Whole class, 10 min</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
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<td></td>
<td>Knowledge that is not present in the text and that is arrived at through a process of reasoning based on the text’s language. Ss take notes. T asks ss to work individually listing the kinds of discourse analytic methods that have been using so far. Then, T asks volunteers to come to the board to write down some of these. T emphasizes that these are all text-processing strategies that critical readers use to engage with texts more deeply. T explains that another stage in discourse analysis involves looking at information from other texts in order to relate a particular text to the social groups that it is relevant to.</td>
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<td>T says: we have generated a set of hypotheses about who the ideal reader is for this text. What would you need to do to have more knowledge about the social group or groups that this kind of ideal reader would belong to? T elicits answers. T suggests that some ways are to do Web searches of the sources cited as credible or who are otherwise evaluated positively, as well as authors themselves. Other ways are to do Web searches of key terms such as “secularism” and “universal republic.” T has ss do a few Web searches in groups and report their findings to the class. T asks “what would a critical reader do with this knowledge?” T leads a whole class discussion.</td>
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<td></td>
<td>T gives ss worksheet 11,</td>
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<td>Answers that evince reflection on the meaning of critical reading and the importance of drawing connections between text and social context</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Individual work, 10 min</td>
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<tr>
<td>Answers that are plausible,</td>
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</table>
### Focusing on the meanings of critical reading

| **Asking the following questions:** What kind of country would the ideal American readers of “debut of the Amero” want? How do they feel about religion and government? How do they feel about NAFTA? How do they feel about Mexico as a country and the European Union as an institution? What does it mean for you to read this text critically?” Ss work individually and then share with the whole class. After this, T has ss generate a list of critical reader-critical reading features and take notes about it. |
| **Evidence reflection on text-context connections, and are supported with evidence from the text** |

**Whole-class, 10 min**

Two aspects of critical reading must be covered: ideal reader positions, and intellectual self-defense.
Lesson 6

Text: “North American Union: It’s coming” by William Calhoun

Guiding constructs: presupposition, ideal reader, imagining, inference

Metalanguage: imagining the nation, identification

Target vocabulary: outraged, cheerleaders, ludicrous, NASCO, undermine, neocon, paleoconservatism, adamantly

Teacher goals:

- Teach the concept of imagining the nation
- Teach the concept of identification
- Teach textual signals of identification:

Student goals

By the end of the lesson, ss will have

- Analyze attitude in this text using the attitude DO
- Identified domination patterns in the text
- Inferred the author’s position
- Inferred the ideal reader for this text
- Characterize and evaluate the author’s imagining of the nation
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
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<th>Procedure</th>
<th>Expected student output</th>
<th>Participant structure &amp; time</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Setting goals</td>
<td>Introduce Calhoun, motivate reading</td>
<td>T explains that the topic of today’s lesson is to explore the concept of nationality. T asks ss to define what nationality means for them. Ss work in small groups for a couple of minutes. T elicits answers. Then, T asks class what the requirements are to be a Mexican national. T asks how these requirements came to be, uses answers to introduce the notion of imagining the nation. T explains to students that they will read a text presenting one way of imagining nationality in the US. The text deals with the issue of the North American Union. Ss need to identify attitude patterns, citation alignment and the author’s position on the issue. Ss work in small groups completing attitude DOs and citation alignment DO for different section of the text. Then, groups share their analyses with the class. T asks ss to write down answers to critical reading questions after they’ve analyzed the text. The whole class shares their answers.</td>
<td>Definition of nationality Explanation of requirements to be a Mexican citizen</td>
<td>Whole class, 2 min Small group, 5 min Whole class, 10 min Whole class, 5 min Small groups, 20 min Whole class, 20 min Whole class, 15 min</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pre-reading</td>
<td>Reading instructions</td>
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<tr>
<td>While-reading</td>
<td>Characterize attitude, citation alignment patterns, authorial position, and audience</td>
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<tr>
<td>Attitude DO</td>
<td>Preparing for ideological</td>
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<tr>
<td>Citation alignment DO</td>
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<tr>
<td>Critical reading questions</td>
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<tr>
<td>Post-reading critique</td>
<td>T asks ss to focus on the ways that Calhoun imagines the nation, how does he do so? What do they think about it? T asks ss to compare this imagining with the current ways of imagining nationality in Mexico. After discussion, T makes sure to explain that Calhoun’s views aren’t the legal imagining of the nation in the US, which is similar to that of Mexico. T also explains the differences between neoconservatism and paleoconservatism.</td>
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<tr>
<td>Spotting identification</td>
<td>T asks ss how Calhoun support his claim about the racial foundation of the nation. T uses answer to present the concept of identification. T explains that another way to spot when a writer is using the rhetorical strategy of identification is to look at the force of attitude evaluating discursive participants. T asks ss to identify words Calhoun uses to evaluate those in the opposing camp. How strong are those words? How would the rhetorical effect be different if less strong words had been used? T defines and discusses persuasion vs. identification with students.</td>
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<tr>
<td>Identification vs. persuasion</td>
<td>T asks ss to go back to McLeod and Barber and identify the rhetorical...</td>
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<tr>
<td>strategies in those. T asks ss to take notes about the language in the text that will help them support their interpretations. Ss work in small groups, and then T elicits opinions from the whole class.</td>
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</table>
Lesson 7


Guiding constructs: persuasion, identification, ideology

Metalanguage: persuasion, identification, ideology, imagining the nation

Target vocabulary: tight grip, right-wing pundits, turn up the heat, ethnic cleansing, hate crimes, welfare queens, enlightened, noxious bile

Teacher goals:

- Teach the concept of ideology
- Teach the concept of persuasion
- Contrast persuasion and identification
- Contrast paleoconservatism and Marxism

Student goals

By the end of the lesson, ss will have

- Analyzed attitude in Wendland using the attitude DO
- Inferred Wendland’s position on immigration
- Characterized and evaluate Wendland’s imagining of the nation
- Contrasted Wendland’s imagining of the nation with Calhoun’s
- Contrasted Wendland’s and Calhoun’s positions on immigration and corporate capitalism
## Lesson description

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Stage &amp; material</th>
<th>Goal &amp; target language</th>
<th>Procedure</th>
<th>Expected student output</th>
<th>Participant structure &amp; time</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Setting goals Pre-reading</strong></td>
<td>Introduce Wendland, motivate reading</td>
<td>T explains that the topic of today’s lesson is to contrast different concepts of nationality. T asks ss to re-articulate Calhoun’s imagining of the nation. T asks Ss to evaluate it.</td>
<td>Calhoun’s racist imagining of nationhood</td>
<td>Whole class, 20 min</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Characterize attitude, citation alignment patterns, authorial position, and audience</td>
<td>T explains to students that they will read a text presenting another way of imagining the nation. T presents target vocabulary. Then, T presents the target text. T asks ss to complete DOs and critical reading worksheet for the text.</td>
<td>Plausible characterizations of Appraisal patterns, authorial attitude, and ideal reader</td>
<td>Small groups 40 min</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>While-reading</strong></td>
<td>Preparing for ideological critique</td>
<td>Ss work in small groups completing attitude DOs and citation alignment DO for different section of the text. Then, groups share their analyses with the class. T asks ss to write down answers to critical reading questions after they’ve analyzed the text. The whole class shares their answers.</td>
<td>Calhoun and Wendland present opposing viewpoints on immigration. Calhoun is against immigrants and Wendland is pro-immigrant. However, they are both against corporate capitalism. They both blame corporate capitalism for bringing immigrants to the US, but Wendland presents immigrants as victims of</td>
<td>Whole class, 25 min</td>
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<tr>
<td>Attitude DO Citation alignment DO</td>
<td>Build knowledge of US ideologies</td>
<td>T asks ss to focus on the ways that Wendland and Calhoun evaluate immigrants and corporations. How are they similar or different? Ss talk in</td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>While-reading</strong></td>
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<tr>
<td>Defining and critiquing ideology</td>
<td>Practicing characterizing identification vs. persuasion</td>
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<tr>
<td>small groups, then T elicits answers. T uses students answers to lead a discussion on the similarities and differences between the Marxist position on immigration represented by Wendland and the paleoconservative position represented by Calhoun. T uses these answers to teach a definition of ideology that highlights the aspects of naturalization and oppression of this construct. T then asks ss to focus on the force of the attitude in different segments of Wendland. T asks ss to characterize the rhetorical strategies signaled by differences in attitude in terms of persuasion and identification. T introduces the idea that identification operates when attitude is strong, whereas persuasion is operant when attitude is less strong and arguments are put forward.</td>
<td>corporations, while Calhoun presents them as invaders. Attitude is stronger in the first two pages of Wendland, less strong in the last page. The last page also advances more arguments.</td>
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</table>
Lesson 8


Guiding constructs: all

Metalanguage: all

Target vocabulary: embrace, underpin, parenthood, bestow, wed, worthy, stick around

Teacher goals:

- Promote practice of all target interpretive processes

Student goals

By the end of the lesson, ss will have

- Analyzed attitude and alignment in Blankenhorn using DOs
- Analyzed taken-for-grantedness in Blankenhorn
- Characterized and evaluated the ideology in Blankenhorn
- Characterized the rhetorical strategies in Blankenhorn
- Contrasted the rhetorical strategies used by Blankenhorn and Barber
### Lesson description

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Stage &amp; material</th>
<th>Goal &amp; target language</th>
<th>Procedure</th>
<th>Expected student output</th>
<th>Participant structure &amp; time</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Setting goals Pre-reading</td>
<td>Introduce Blankenhorn, motivate reading</td>
<td>T explains to ss that the goal of this lesson is to practice all the concepts introduced throughout the class using the topic of gay marriage. T asks ss to think about positions on gay marriage and the support for the different positions.</td>
<td>Students will describe a variety of positions on the issue of gay marriage and the support provided by proponents of the different positions.</td>
<td>Whole class, 20 minutes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>While-reading</td>
<td>Characterize attitude, citation alignment patterns, authorial position, and audience</td>
<td>T explains to ss that they will read a text presenting a specific set of reasons to oppose gay marriage. T asks ss to analyze the text using the attitude DO, the alignment DO, and then answer the critical reading worksheet. Groups of ss take turns presenting the results of their analyses. Then, T asks ss to focus on taken-for-grantedness, what does this text take for granted?. Then, T gives ss the critical reading worksheet. Ss answer it individually. T leads discussion on critical reading questions</td>
<td>Ss will produce plausible parsings of attitude and alignment</td>
<td>Whole class, 50 min</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Attitude DO Citation alignment DO</td>
<td>Practicing characterizing identification vs. persuasion</td>
<td>T asks ss to compare Barber with Calhoun. How do they differ? What kinds of rhetorical strategies do they use?</td>
<td>Blankenhorn takes for granted the authority of scholars to define marriage for the rest of us</td>
<td>Whole class, 20 min</td>
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<td>Blankenhon opposes gay marriage, constructs a dissenting or neutral reader</td>
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</tbody>
</table>
Lesson 9


Guiding constructs: all

Metalanguage: all

Target vocabulary: heteronormativity, patriarchy, queer, bigot, sanction

Teacher goals:

- Promote practice of all target interpretive processes
- Teach about radical feminism and how it contrasts with Marxism

Student goals

By the end of the lesson, ss will have

- Analyzed attitude and alignment in Cronin and Esteven using DOs
- Analyzed taken-for-grantedness in Cronin and Esteven
- Characterized, evaluated, and contrasted the ideologies in Cronin and Esteven
- Characterized and contrasted the rhetorical strategies in Cronin and Esteven
- Articulated a definition of radical feminism
### Lesson description

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Stage &amp; material</th>
<th>Goal &amp; target language</th>
<th>Procedure</th>
<th>Expected student output</th>
<th>Participant structure &amp; time</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Setting goals</td>
<td>Introduce Cronin and</td>
<td>T explains to ss that the goal of this lesson is to continue to practice all the concepts introduced throughout the class using the topic of gay marriage. T explains that the target texts approach the issue from two perspectives: radical feminism and Marxism. T asks ss if they know what radical feminism is. T explains that Cronin’s text is written from that perspective. Can ss characterize radical feminism from reading Cronin? How is it different from the Marxist position represented by Burke? T writes these questions on the board as orienting questions. T then presents vocabulary.</td>
<td>Ss will not know what radical feminism is</td>
<td>Whole class, 20 minutes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pre-reading</td>
<td>Burke, motivate reading</td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>While-reading</td>
<td>Characterize attitude,</td>
<td>T asks groups to analyze Cronin and Burke using the attitude DO, the alignment DO, and critical reading worksheet. T also asks ss to focus on taken-for-grantedness, what do these texts take for granted?. Groups present their analyses of local segments of the text. T leads</td>
<td>Ss will produce plausible parsings of attitude and alignment. Cronin takes it for granted that readers will understand what patriarcy is and why it is harmful. Radical feminism sees patriarcy as the root of social evils, while Marxism sees</td>
<td>Small groups, 45 min</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Attitude DO</td>
<td>citation alignment</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Citation</td>
<td>patterns, authorial</td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>alignment</td>
<td>position, and audience</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DO, critical</td>
<td>ideological critique</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>reading worksheet</td>
<td></td>
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</tbody>
</table>

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| Practicing characterizing identification vs. persuasion | discussion of orienting questions  
T asks ss to compare Barber with Calhoun. How do they differ? What kinds of rhetorical strategies do they use?  
T asks ss to do the following in groups: find two opinion texts dealing with one issue that interests you from different perspectives and bring them to class for analysis. | inequitable distribution of resources or forms of capital as social evils. Both texts use primarily persuasion. |
Lesson 10

Texts: Ss own texts

Guiding constructs: all

Metalanguage: all

Teacher goals:

- Promote practice of all target interpretive processes
- Teach about radical feminism

Student goals

By the end of the lesson, ss will have

- Analyzed attitude and alignment in their texts
- Analyzed taken-for-grantedness in their texts
- Characterized, evaluated, and contrasted the ideologies in their texts
- Characterized and contrasted the rhetorical strategies in their texts
### Lesson description

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Stage &amp; material</th>
<th>Goal &amp; target language</th>
<th>Procedure</th>
<th>Expected student output</th>
<th>Participant structure &amp; time</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Setting goals Pre-reading</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>While reading, DOs, critical reading worksheet</td>
<td>Characterize attitude, citation alignment patterns, authorial position, audience, taken-for-grantedness, rhetorical strategies ideological critique</td>
<td>T explains to ss that the goal of this lesson is to continue to practice all the concepts introduced throughout the class. T asks student groups to report on the issues and texts they have chosen. T lists those on the board. T asks ss to explain why they chose those issues, what’s at stake for them. T explains that ss will analyze the texts and then will present the results to the class. Based on the topics and the explanation of the stakes for each, T asks groups to think about questions to ask to the other groups. Groups write down their questions.</td>
<td>Ss will not know what radical feminism is</td>
<td>Small groups, 40 min Whole-class, 40 min</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Post-reading</td>
<td></td>
<td>Ss work in groups analyzing the text using all the analytic procedures learned during class. Groups present the results of their analyses and ask one another questions. T leads discussion.</td>
<td>Explanations of reasons to choose texts, stakes in the issues Questions for other groups</td>
<td>Individual work, 20 min</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>T asks ss to write reflections on what they learned about critical reading and US culture.</td>
<td>Ss will produce plausible characterizations of authorial positions, ideal reader, taken-for-grantedness. Ss will critique ideology.</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>regard to initial understandings.</td>
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</tbody>
</table>
APPENDIX TWO
WORKSHEETS

Critical Reading Project
Worksheet 1, Ways of Reading

1. What would your expectations and dispositions be when approaching each of the following texts? How closely would you want to read? How would you react? Please write a short answer to these questions for each text, and then write a final reflection about the differences in your ways of approaching each text.

   a) A short story in a genre you like in Spanish.

   b) A book chapter in English you have to read for a test.

   c) A report about your performance written by your teacher in Spanish.

   d) A letter from the University’s president justifying a tuition increase in Spanish.

   e) A political opinion text in Spanish.

   f) A political opinion text in English.

2. Write a short reflection about the differences in your ways of approaching each text.

3. Please define critical reading as you understand it. Which of the ways of reading above would count as critical reading, if any?

4. What culture or country do you associate the most with the English language?
Critical Reading Project
Worksheet 2, US culture and online reading

1. When you think about the United States, what sorts of things come to your mind?

2. What is US culture to you? What is your understanding of US culture?

3. In your opinion, how familiar are you with US culture?

4. How often do you read texts in English online?

5. What kinds of texts do you read? For what purposes?

6. Are some of the texts you read related to the US? If so, please explain.
Worksheet 4
Familiarity with and knowledge of US gay marriage debates

1. How much, if anything, have you heard about the debates about gay marriage in the United States? 1 = a lot, 5 = nothing at all.

2. How much do you know about the gay marriage debates in the United States? 1 = not familiar at all, 5 = very familiar.

3. Can you name some specific names of people, institutions, or pieces of legislation pertaining to the issue of gay marriage in the United States?

4. Do you know who Perez Hilton and Carrie Prejean are?
### Critical Reading Project

**Worksheet 1, Attitude Discourse Organizer**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Attitudinal language (polarity)</th>
<th>Source</th>
<th>Focus</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Foul (-)</td>
<td>Author</td>
<td>Perez Hilton, gay activism</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lovely (+)</td>
<td>Author</td>
<td>Carrie Prejean</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Talented (+)</td>
<td>Author</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No offense (+)</td>
<td>Prejean</td>
<td>Prejean’s answer</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sanitized (-)</td>
<td>Author</td>
<td>Hilton’s expected answer</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Creepy (-)</td>
<td>Author</td>
<td>Hilton</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Blubber (-)</td>
<td>Author</td>
<td>Hilton</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fussy little baby (-)</td>
<td>Author</td>
<td>Hilton</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hate-filled (-)</td>
<td>Author</td>
<td>Hilton’s response</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mysoginistic (-)</td>
<td>Author</td>
<td>Defense of Hilton’s response by liberals, the media, and organized homosexuality</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Disgraceful (-)</td>
<td>Author</td>
<td>Prejean</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dumb bitch (-)</td>
<td>Hilton</td>
<td>Prejean</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Yammered (-)</td>
<td>Author</td>
<td>Hilton</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sympathetic (-) (invoked)</td>
<td>Nora O’Donnell</td>
<td>Hilton</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Insult (-)</td>
<td>Hilton</td>
<td>Prejean</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Vile (-)</td>
<td>Author</td>
<td>Hilton’s thought of insulting Prejean</td>
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<tr>
<td>Bash-fest (-)</td>
<td>Author</td>
<td>Criticism of Prejean</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Criticize (-)</td>
<td>Norah O’Donnell</td>
<td>Prejean</td>
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</table>
Critical Reading Project
Worksheet 6, Critical Reading Questions

3. Who is the predominant source of attitude? Who are the foci?

4. How is attitude toward some foci different from the attitude toward others?

5. What can be inferred about the authors’ position?

6. What can be inferred about the target audience? Is the text written for those who would agree with the authors’ attitude toward the foci? Or is it written for those who would hold views different from the author’s? How do you know?

7. What does the author assume that the readers already know, think, or feel?
Worksheet 4
Familiarity with and knowledge with the topic of the amero

1. How familiar are you with US public conversations about the amero and the North American Union? Circle the number that best captures your degree of familiarity with that issue. 1 = not familiar at all, 5 = very familiar.

   1    2    3    4    5

2. How much do you know about US conversations regarding the amero and the North American Union? Circle the number that best captures your degree of knowledge about that issue 1 = know nothing, 5 = know a lot.

   1    2    3    4    5

3. Can you name some specific names of people, institutions, or pieces of legislation pertaining to the issue of the amero and the North American Union?

4. Do you know who Judi McLeod, Tom Tancredo, Ron Paul, Phyllis Schlafly or Jerome Corsi are?
Critical Reading Project
Worksheet 8, Invoked attitude

1. What kind of attitude do the words “secular” and “the Universal Republic” invoke for you?

2. Does it mean anything to you that “the image of Pope John Paul II faces left” on the Vatican’s euro coin?

3. What do you think is the author’s attitude toward secularism, “the Universal Republic” and the fact that the Pope faces left in the Vatican’s euro coin? What makes you think that way?

4. What kind of reader do you think the author has in mind: one who feels like her or one who feels differently? What makes you think that?”
Worksheet 9, Alignment Discourse Organizer

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Participant</th>
<th>Participant identification/evaluation</th>
<th>Citational Purpose</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
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Critical Reading Project,
Worksheet 10, evaluative premises

Look at the attitudinal lexis that is used with the discursive participants you identified using the alignment DO. For each participant, answer the following questions.

1. What kind of attitude is signaled? Do you share it?

2. What is the author’s purpose in evaluating the participant in such a manner?

3. What are the premises behind these evaluations? Are they explained?
Critical Reading Project,
Worksheet 11, imagining the nation, the ideal reader, and critical reading

Answer the following questions about “Debut of the Amero.” Remember to support your answers with evidence from the text.

1. What kind of country would the ideal American readers of “debut of the Amero” want?

2. How do they feel about religion and government?

3. How do they feel about NAFTA?

4. How do they feel about Mexico as a country and the European Union as an institution?

5. What does it mean for you to read this text critically?
Toulmin Analysis Worksheet

What would be the premises behind the following claim-support pairs?

1. Yellow is the most beautiful color. It’s warm and bright.

2. Black is the most beautiful color. It goes well with everything.

3. Capitalism is the best system because it gives free rein to individual creativity and people earn what they deserve.

4. Socialism is the best system because it combines the best of communism and capitalism.

5. Communism is the best system because everyone is equal.

Implicit, taken-for-granted claims (not in isolated sentence form)

1. Long lauded by America’s enemies as the next economic power, the People’s Republic of China will be the country that will force the creation of the NAU.

2. The euro was already issues before the masses could coalesce to fight it.
REFERENCES


English for Academic Purposes.


