Embodied Intertextuality: Theory and Practice for Developmental Reading

Daniel Roth

Oakton Community College

ABSTRACT

Recent scholarship has emphasized teaching students in developmental reading classes to synthesize between multiple texts, but a related issue has been neglected—reading individual texts for the ways in which authors integrate, synthesize, and respond to outside sources. To address this gap, the present article develops a pedagogy that guides students to notice such intertextual moves. This pedagogy of reading for embodied intertextuality (EI) is grounded in multiple theoretical approaches to literacy, including a lifespan developmental approach, theories on the importance of students' personal epistemologies, theories on how readers actively construct meaning, pedagogies in which students synthesize across multiple texts, and theories on how academic texts embody a conversation. Five practical principles for a pedagogy of EI are illustrated through classroom examples. EI is argued to be superior to traditional skills-based pedagogies at helping students in developmental classes transition to college-level. As such it warrants further scholarly attention.

Introduction: A Teaching Difficulty

For years, I have assigned Marie Winn's *Television: the Plug-in Drug* (2002/2011) to students in developmental literacy courses one level below college-level. Winn begins by citing several postwar journalists who predicted that the television would have a beneficial impact on the family, since it would bring everyone together into the same room. Winn's essay, however, turns on a crucial line that is buried in the first paragraph: introducing those journalists, Winn writes that "a curious myopia afflicted those first observers" (p. 465). After the journalists' ideas are presented, the remainder of the essay turns into a merciless indictment of how television damages family relationships and child development.

Salvatori and Donahue (2004) argue that the difficulties that students experience with texts can ultimately help them to generate important insights. In addition, these difficulties can also lead their teachers to important insights. In the case of Winn's essay, I consistently found that most students, after they read it on their own, would miss that crucial "curious myopia" sentence, and then come to class assuming that Winn thinks T.V. is a wonderful invention, or—more often—that she holds mixed opinions. In discussions and responses, students did not distinguish between what Winn believes and what is believed by her sources. Or students assume that Winn agrees with everyone cited

in her text—why else would she bother to cite them? It is this systematic pattern of misreading—one I have noticed with many other assigned texts (including some discussed below)—that ultimately led to this paper.

Theoretical Backgrounds

The pedagogy of reading for embodied intertextuality (hereafter: "EI") is grounded in several related theories of teaching, learning, and reading, as well as dissatisfaction with the theories implied by textbooks that take a traditional approach to post-secondary reading. This first paragraph introduces these theories, while the rest of this section explores these theories in depth. First, the pedagogy of reading for EI is founded on the belief that college-level reading tasks require that students approach texts with more sophisticated personal epistemologies. Second, this pedagogy is founded on a lifespan developmental approach, which entails that a post-secondary reading class should not lean on something like a re-packaged version of the K-12 curriculum. Third, it conceptualizes reading not as surface-level decoding and transmission of meaning from text to reader, but an act in which meaning is in part constructed by the reader. Fourth, it is informed by pedagogies that ask students to create personal knowledge by synthesizing across multiple texts, since it holds that college-level texts are distinguished from less complex texts largely by the ways in which authors cite and synthesize multiple outside sources into their own writing—their intertextual moves. And fifth, it is founded on theories that conceptualize writing as a way in which to enter into a discourse.

Considering how literacy grows with time, developmental educators must take the term "development" literally. In this vein, Alexander (2006) motivates a lifespan developmental model of reading that looks beyond just a student's current competencies and the course they're currently enrolled in, focusing instead on a learner's long-term development. Central to this theory is the principle that as one develops as a reader, the cognitive demands of reading tasks increase. In particular, surface-level processing strategies (e.g., decoding, re-reading, and skipping unfamiliar words) become relatively less important compared to more sophisticated deep-level processing strategies (e.g., synthesizing multiple texts or questioning a source). Consequently, the teaching strategies that work for early readers are less appropriate for adolescent and adult readers, even if they struggle mightily with reading assignments in post-secondary reading classes. Alexander's theory suggests that older learners approach the reading task with different personal motivations and greater background knowledge. In addition, when instruction seems too "childish," they may respond with negative attitudes and affect.

Nist and Holschuh (2005) build on the work of Schommer (1990) and argue that educators should address the personal epistemologies that students bring to the classroom. Schommer (1990) posits that college-level literacy requires thinking that's more sophisticated. In particular, Schommer focuses on students' beliefs on the nature of knowledge and learning—also known as their personal epistemologies. Schommer argues that students' personal epistemologies affect their comprehension, self-monitoring, and overall learning. To Schommer, students with more sophisticated epistemologies tend to believe—amongst other things—that knowledge is actively constructed, rather than dictated by an omniscient authority (e.g., the teacher or author), and that knowledge consists of interconnected ideas, rather than a collection of discrete facts. Conversely, a transmission model of reading, critiqued by Rosenblatt (1994) and Weaver (2002), views reading as a simple act of decoding meaning from authoritative text. Because students in developmental classes are more likely to hold personal epistemologies in which the text is the omniscient authority and that their primary role as a reader is to passively decode

that meaning through surface-processing, Nist and Holschuh suggest that educators should aim to help students develop personal epistemologies that are more sophisticated.

Unfortunately, many textbooks for developmental reading discourage students from developing the sophisticated epistemologies and deep-processing strategies that are increasingly valued in college-level reading. Wood (1997) analyzed 20 college reading textbooks, finding that 12 were mostly or somewhat informed by what she calls "the traditional approach," which focuses on the teaching of discrete reading skills and the completion of practice exercises that focus on correct comprehension. Implicitly, the traditional approach is deficit-oriented, assuming that students must relearn a re-packaged version of the K-12 curriculum, and that they must master one level of linguistic processing (e.g., literal comprehension) before advancing sequentially to the next higher level of complexity in processing (e.g., critical thinking) (see Weaver, 2002 for a further critique of such an approach). The apparatuses of these textbooks focus on literal comprehension and surface-level processing (e.g., vocabulary, literal comprehension, and identifying "main ideas"), which is typically assessed by multiple-choice questions. Such a focus has its utility, especially for students without ambitions to rigorous, reading-intensive, college-level work, but it is less useful to the rest. While many textbook apparatuses do encourage some deep-processing, for instance by soliciting students' opinions on texts, such activities take the form of afterthoughts, buried after of a long set of multiple choice questions or isolated to a single chapter on "critical thinking." When textbooks focus on improving students' surface-level processing, they reinforce a personal epistemology in which the text operates as omniscient authority, rather than a place where a fallible author engages with varied positions, or leads the reader through the back-and-forth of professional discourse.

Next, consider how well the excerpted readings in such textbooks serve to transition students to college-level tasks. Wood (1997) notes that textbooks following the traditional approach have students reading text excerpts that are short and easy. Of course, textbooks choose excerpts whose degree of difficulty is calibrated to students' ability level—but how is difficulty imagined? Additionally, textbooks for developmental reading generally present single texts that are qualitatively different from most college-level texts. In particular, such textbooks shy away from including texts that individually embody the sorts of intertextuality that characterize college-level texts. Largely absent are texts that synthesize multiple sources with divergent opinions, texts that cite sources that don't directly support the overall position of the author, and texts that bring the reader into a professional discourse. Developmental textbooks generally imply that such texts are too challenging. Indeed, reading them requires more sophisticated deep-processing strategies—such as distinguishing the author's position from that of their sources and thinking through the interconnections between abstract ideas—and it requires a personal epistemology that acknowledges how knowledge is constructed through a discourse, rather than embodied in the authority of a single text.

Armstrong and Newman (2011) are also critical of the epistemologies and models of reading that many textbooks develop in students, because they focus students on the simpler task of reading a single text excerpt, rather than encouraging the more complex college-level task of making intertextual connections between multiple texts. Likewise, Simpson, Stahl, and Francis (2004) argue that students must learn to navigate and synthesize multiple sources on the same topic. Along these lines, Armstrong and Newman motivate a reading pedagogy built upon intertextuality. This pedagogy focuses on students synthesizing multiple texts on related topics, making connections between their

background knowledge and assigned texts, and assigning supplemental texts to fill gaps in students' background knowledge on the topic. It is refreshing to see Armstrong and Newman deal with the concept of intertextuality, a concept largely neglected in the literature on developmental literacy. Armstrong and Newman are not the only scholars to take up this issue; for another pedagogy that encourages students to synthesize multiple texts, see Smith (2011).

Whereas Armstrong and Newman (2011) deal with teaching students to navigate the intertextuality that occurs when they synthesize between texts, the present paper focuses on another, complimentary definition of intertextuality. This version of intertextuality occurs with a single text that *embodies intertextuality*, a text in which the author summarizes multiple outside sources, synthesizes them, and/or comments on them. For purposes of clarity, Armstrong and Newman's intertextuality will be referred to herein as *synthesis*, while the version of intertextuality that will be the focus of the remainder of this paper will be referred to as *embodied intertextuality* (EI). The two are analogues. Synthesis refers to intertextual connections that are drawn by students. EI refers to intertextual connections originated by the author of a text. Each represents different manifestations of the same concept, and they each demand more sophisticated epistemologies and deep-processing strategies. The two are synergistic in the classroom: EI models for students the types of synthesis they should strive to do in their own reading, thinking, and writing about readings.

Composition scholars have conceptualized academic writing as a tool through which to enter into conversation, an insight which further calls into question the skills-based approach to reading. Bruffee (1984) views thought as internalized conversation, and the written text as the site where that conversation is re-externalized. Bartholomae (1985/2003) highlights the moves through which academic writers

dialogue with prior voices, for instance by setting their ideas against the conventional wisdom. Graff (2007) argues, however, that school curriculum conceals from students the fundamental fact that academic endeavors center on the argumentative moves that scholars make to enter into a discourse. Skills-based approaches to reading also tend to conceal this fact. Sheltering students from EI does them a disservice in the long run, if teachers aim for students to succeed with college-level readings.

Just as Armstrong and Newman (2011) argue that a multiple-text intertextual approach more fully represents the demands of college-level work, this paper argues that EI contributes heavily to the complexity of college-level nonfiction. Despite the tradition of relying largely on formal features of text complexity, such as word length and sentence length, or on background knowledge presupposed (for an overview, see Chall & Conrad, 1991, and Chall & Dale, 1995), a theory of EI more fully explains why many college-level texts are so difficult for under-prepared students. In fact, the Common Core State Standards (2010)—which argues that K-12 students should read more complex nonfiction texts in order to be prepared for college-level reading—includes a sophisticated, multidimensional theory of text complexity, which includes the degree of intertextuality. Here, intertextuality is defined as "references to/citations of other texts" (p. 6).

Recall students' failure to understand Winn's crucial line: "a curious myopia afflicted those first observers" (2002/2011, p. 465), and contrast what a pedagogy of EI would say about this miscue, compared with the traditional skills-based pedagogy. A skills-based pedagogy says that this miscue should be addressed through instruction focused on vocabulary; students need the skills to understand the meanings of words like "myopia" and "afflicted." This is correct, at least partly. Surface-level vocabulary strategies are necessary, but fall short of sufficient.

These two words are used in a metaphorical sense. Even if students comprehend the literal senses, they are unlikely to take these words metaphorically if they have yet to acquire a personal epistemology that views the text as an embodiment of a professional discourse. One cannot blame students though for getting mixed up, because of the sustained deep-processing required. From a cognitive perspective, it taxes the memory to keep a half a dozen or more different actors straight when reading an article like Winn's that embodies intertextuality. The goal then of pedagogy of EI is to empower students with the tools to make sense of the intertextual moves made by academic writers such as Winn.

Though the research for the present paper failed to identify classroom materials that focus on helping students in developmental classes read for EI, the *They Say/I Say* series of rhetorics (Graff and Birkenstein, 2010; Graff, Birkenstein, and Durst, 2012) comes the closest. Though written to first-year composition students, Graff et al. provides an entire chapter on "Reading for the Conversation" that walks students through insightful close-readings of the intertextual moves made by academic texts. Graff et al. write that "reading for how the author's argument is in conversation with the arguments of others helps readers become active, critical readers rather than passive recipients of knowledge" (p. 147). However, if students wait until first-year composition to begin reading in this way, the jump will not just be too big—but also too late.

Five Practical Strategies for Teaching Embodied Intertextuality

The preceding section established the theoretical grounds for helping students acquire the deep-processing strategies and more sophisticated personal epistemologies to read texts for how they embody intertextuality. The present section translates the theory into five practical strategies for

classroom teachers to develop curricula: (1) build on students' pre-existing competencies with intertextuality; (2) assign appropriately challenging texts that embody intertextuality; (3) model for students the deep-processing strategies used by expert readers to comprehend to EI; (4) provide activities that scaffold students in the deep-processing strategies to comprehend EI; and (5) teach EI alongside students' synthesis of multiple texts. These principles are illustrated below with concrete lesson ideas from my own developmental classroom.

Strategy One: Build on Students Pre-Existing Competencies with EI

Kutz, Groden, and Zamel (1993) argue that developmental literacy educators should build upon students' pre-existing competencies, rather than focusing on the remediation of deficits. This principle holds with reading for EI as well. Even if the ways in which academic texts embody intertextuality are foreign to students, all students enter the developmental classroom with some understanding of the intertextuality of less formal genres (Smith, 2011).

One example is how internet memes allude to prior memes, while adding some small new riff. As I remind students, memes consist of iconic images to which users add their own captions. For example, consider the "*Futurama* / Not Sure if" meme. This meme originated from an episode of *Futurama*, where Fry—the main character—is faced with an evil doppelganger of his robot friend (Groening and Cohen, 2003, episode 6). In this episode, Fry is shown squinting skeptically, as if trying to discern between the two. This image became a meme, with countless people adding captions that make of situations in which two things should be distinguishable, but are not (see Figures 1A and 1B). Though students may not be familiar with this particular meme, most are familiar with others, and they enjoy sharing with the class or adding their own captions to the

"*Futurama* / Not Sure if" meme. We then discuss how the power of these memes derives from the references to prior works, just as academic writers build on the ideas from prior texts.

Figure 1A. *Futurama / Not Sure If* **Meme**
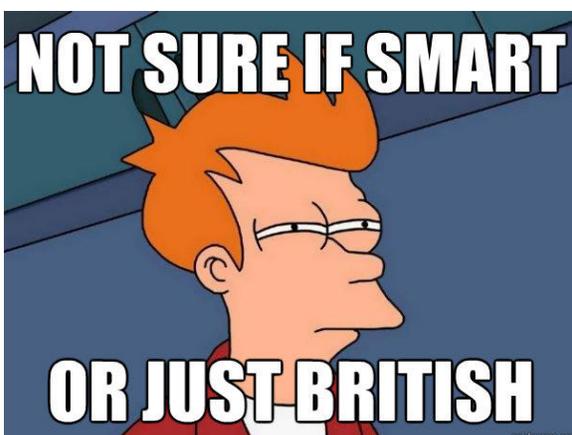("Futurama Fry #131,398", 2011)

Figure 1B. Another *Futurama / Not Sure If* **Meme** ("Futurama Fry #131,345", 2011**)**

Another example of less formal intertextuality, I explain to students, occurs when musical performers drop references to performers that have come before. Hip hop artists sample audio clips from other songs. They write lyrics that allude to other performers and songs. And artists in various genres cover famous songs, adding new interpretations. I ask students to share examples of this with the class, because their tastes changes so quickly and my own examples would seem dated. I then ask students why artists do this, and what effects they get. Students have no trouble coming up with lots of interesting examples, but they're different in every class.

Finally, online forums like Reddit.com explicitly encourage an intertextual dialogue between users, and Reddit's commenting interface even embodies this intertextuality: discussions are multi-threaded and recursive. Users may comment on anyone's post, and in turn anyone can respond to anyone else's comment, ad infinitum. Usually, a small handful of students are already familiar with Reddit and can explain it to the class, but most have already participated in some sort of online discussion board. To build on this pre-existing literacy, I show news articles on controversial subjects, along with the vigorous discussions they've generated on Reddit. For example, I show students Figure 2, a discussion on a news article about students pirating e-textbooks (Strauss, 2014). Here, students can see how a discussion around this news article has unfolded in many steps.

Starting with what's familiar excites students, but to build on students' pre-existing competencies, teachers must explicitly juxtapose the ways in which non-academic texts (broadly defined) embody intertextuality against the ways in which academic texts do. Reddit discussions often come closest to matching the complexity of academic intertextuality. However, academic texts differ from texts in other genres in one crucial way: academic writing presupposes that intertextual connections are essential to constructing knowledge; in other genres, intertextuality often functions in ways that are more aesthetic and expressive.

Figure 2: Reddit News Discussion (from "More students," 2014)

Strategy Two: Assign Appropriately Challenging Texts with EI

When assigning texts of appropriate complexity, teachers must broaden their conception of what makes a text difficult in view of a theory of intertextuality. Difficulty stems not just from formal features of a text (vocabulary, organization, sentence length, etc.) and the background knowledge presupposed, but also from the EI of the text. The State Common Core State Standards (2010) argue that K-12 students must be exposed to texts of greater complexity in order to transition successfully to college. The same principle holds when selecting texts for post-secondary classes in developmental reading.

Text selections should of course contain the features of EI, for students cannot develop the requisite deep-processing and sophisticated personal epistemologies if the texts don't provide the space to practice. Many nonfiction genres from across the disciplines allow this, so the possibilities are quite broad. However, not every text that integrates outside sources will appropriately challenge students. For instance, teachers should avoid solipsistic texts that focus on advancing the author's position without

considering others' (e.g., texts akin to the five-paragraph theme) or texts that only cite sources that concur with the author's position. Better choices include journalistic reportage, texts that make a Rogerian argument (see Hairston, 1976), and texts that explicitly invoke and then argue against some conventional wisdom. Teachers should assign texts that illustrate how intertextuality is embodied differently in sources across various disciplines, including the different conventions for integrating and responding to sources. Such texts facilitate transfer across the curriculum, as well as to daily life.

To find appropriately challenging texts with EI, many sources are productive. Many texts cited herein (e.g., Crystal, 2008; Johnson, 2005/2011; Richards, 2009; Winn 2002/2011) represent good selections. For courses one level below college-level, I look to anthologies designed for first-year composition. In particular, Graff, Birkenstein, and Durst's (2012) anthology includes selections exactly because of their EI. Of course, some selections in first-year composition anthologies might overwhelm students in developmental classes, so they need additional scaffolding, as will be discussed below.

Strategy Three: Model for Students the Deep-Processing Strategies Used by Expert Readers to Comprehend EI

I do this using two methods—annotation and concept mapping—both of which allow students to visualize my deep processing. First, because annotations can represent the reader's thinking about a text, I provide students with a page from an assigned reading with EI that I have annotated (see Figure 3). Annotation has a cognitive and metacognitive dimension, helping students identify key information and process the text actively and deeply (Holschuh & Aultman, 2009). My annotations direct students' attention to the different features of EI in a text, such as inline quotations, block quotes, and paraphrases. Some annotations question who a source is or whether they are reputable. Other annotations point out how the author distinguishes their position from that of the sources cited (e.g., "___ is misguided in stating that"). I encourage students to annotate rather than highlight, because highlighting embodies a personal epistemology of memorizing "facts" from an omniscient authority.

Second, I help students visualize the relationships between various sources in a text by drawing a concept map (Holschuh & Aultman, 2009) that diagrams the names and roles of both the author and the sources cited in their text. Bauer (2014) points out how concept maps can be used to make intertextual connections. The visual representation also helps reduce students' cognitive overload from juggling the many sources and positions cited in a text. See Figure 4 for a partial concept map of Johnson (2005/2011). Johnson's EI has proven especially challenging for students to trace, since Johnson first presents the conventional wisdom on the relative value of reading and video games, before taking a nuanced position on it. Once students see partial models of concept maps, they can be asked to add more sources to it, or create their own brief concept maps for subsequent assigned readings. As Figure 4 might suggest, these concept maps easily grow cluttered and confusing if one is exhaustive about mapping out texts that make even a modest number of intertextual moves. For this reason, they function not as an end in themselves, but primarily to raise awareness of the concept of EI.

Figure 3: Handout for Students: Annotated Excerpt from Crystal (2008)

Let's examine how a published author uses these sorts of signal phrases and discourse markers to embody intertextuality in their writing. In the following text, "2b or not 2b?" by David Crystal (2008), the devices that signal intertextuality have been highlighted. Read this passage, noting how many intertextual moves Crystal makes in just a short space (I've identified them for you).

Last year, in a newspaper article headed "I h8 txt msgs: How texting is wrecking our language", John Humphrys argued that texters are "vandals who are doing to our language what Genghis Khan did to his neighbours 800 years ago. They are destroying it: pillaging our punctuation; savaging our sentences; raping our vocabulary. And they must be stopped."

Humphrys is really negative on texting.

Is he a language expert or just a journalist?

He seems just as negative as Humphrys. Grumpy!

As a new variety of language, texting has been condemned as "textese", "slanguage", a "digital virus". According to John Sutherland of University College London, writing in this paper in 2002, it is "bleak, bald, sad shorthand. Drab shrinktalk ... Linguistically it's all pig's ear ... it masks dyslexia, poor spelling and mental laziness. Texting is penmanship for illiterates."

Ever since the arrival of printing - thought to be the invention of the devil because it would put false opinions into people's minds - people have been arguing that new technology would have disastrous consequences for language. Scares accompanied the introduction of the telegraph, telephone, and broadcasting.

In this paragraph, Crystal is citing the ideas of people in general—the conventional wisdom.

[…]

Here's where Crystal begins giving his opinion. He's been patient.

People think that the written language seen on mobile phone screens is new and alien, but all the popular beliefs about texting are wrong. Its graphic distinctiveness is not a new phenomenon, nor is its use restricted to the young. There is increasing evidence that it helps rather than hinders literacy. And only a very tiny part of it uses a distinctive orthography. A trillion text messages might seem a lot, but when we set these alongside the multi-trillion instances of standard orthography in everyday life, they appear as no more than a few ripples on the surface of the sea of language. Texting has added a new dimension to language use, but its long-term impact is negligible. It is not a disaster.

Sometimes, Crystal cites specific texts, as you see in the first two paragraphs. Sometimes, Crystal cites the ideas of people in general—the conventional wisdom—as you see in the 2nd, 3rd, and 4th paragraphs. But note how long Crystal waits before beginning to explicitly argue his own opinion about the effects of text messages—all the way down in the 4th paragraph—when he says the popular beliefs are wrong. I've underlined these places.

If you didn't notice the highlighted devices where Crystal makes these intertextual moves in the first paragraphs or if you don't notice the underlined places where Crystal explicitly states his opinion, it's easy to misunderstand his argument. In particular, it's easy to assume that he just agrees with Humphreys and Sutherland that texting has a negative effect on the language; in fact, Crystal is arguing the opposite.

Figure 4: Partial Concept Map for Johnson (2005/2011)

Strategy Four: Provide Activities that Scaffold Students in Deep-Processing Strategies to Comprehend EI

Discussion questions and role-play activities can help students notice the ways in which the text embodies intertextuality. Lenski (1998) highlights the importance of asking good questions to enable students to make intertextual connections that synthesize multiple texts. Similarly, teachers must think carefully to generate good questions that help students analyze EI. Here are some good examples of questions for reading Winn (2002/2011):

    1.   There are parts in this text where Winn summarizes the ideas of others, but doesn't agree with those ideas. What is one such place, and what clues in the text helped you notice?

    2.   On page 465, Winn quotes some journalists. Say in your own words what these journalists are saying about T.V. and what Winn thinks about what the journalists say.

And here are some good examples for Johnson (2005/2011):

    1.   Who is one person that Johnson cites that he more-or-less agrees with? What words/clues in the text suggest he agrees?

    2.   What does the term "conventional wisdom" (in the first sentence) mean, in general? According to Johnson, what is the conventional wisdom about the value of reading, and the value of games? Who agrees with this piece of conventional wisdom? To what extent does Johnson agree/disagree with this piece of conventional wisdom?

    3.   On the bottom of page 197, there is a long block quote. Who do you think is the author of this quote? How serious or silly are they being? What clues lead you to believe so?

What position does Johnson take on the argument in this block quote?

Good questions contain the premise that the text embodies intertextuality, but ask students to think through the details of how it operates and how the author's position is distinguished from their sources'. Such questions can point students directly to the parts of the text where these intertexual moves occur, such as the names of authors, and words that signal the author's position on others. To trace the complexity of the EI, good questions require multiple parts. Overall, the questions initiate the deep-processing for students, but position them to complete it.

In a more ambitious activity, I assign each student to role-play a source cited in a text. In this activity, which is fitting for texts that introduce a large cast of characters, the students in the classroom collectively embody the EI of the assigned text. In particular, we do a role-play for a feature article that examines the debate around whether the online review website Yelp! has manipulated reviews from users to extort businesses (Richards, 2009). This article is complex because like much journalistic reportage, it lacks a thesis; instead, it presents the experiences and opinions of business owners, Yelp! insiders, and legal experts—many of whom contradict one another. The reader is expected to listen to the many voices judging who to believe. But it gets overwhelming for students to keep track of who says what, what everyone's stake is, and who can be believed. As we discuss this article in class, I assign students their "role." Students write down the name of the source they're assigned, what their job title is, what their position is on the behavior of Yelp!, and what they think about the other actors. Once students have found this information, they share with the class. This activity brings alive for students the ways in which many competing voices come together in writing that embodies intertextuality.

Strategy Five: Teach Reading for EI alongside Students' Synthesis of Multiple Texts

Teaching students to read for EI alongside teaching them to synthesize multiple texts parallels the integration of reading and writing. An influential body of literature argues for integrating reading and writing in developmental English courses (Goen-Salter, 2008; Holschuh & Paulson, 2013). Goen-Salter points out that reading instruction should not function simply as a precursor to students' writing about readings, but that reading and writing are manifestations of the same underlying literacy; the two are interrelated and synergistic. For instance, students who carefully read assigned texts can imitate the rhetorical moves in those texts when they produce their own writing. Similarly, a pedagogy of EI can be synergistic with a pedagogy like Armstrong and Newman's (2011), which has students synthesizing multiple texts in their writing tasks. Pedagogies of EI can serve as models for students of how they can synthesize multiple texts into their own writing. In fact, reading for EI and writing to synthesize of multiple texts each represent different manifestations of the same types of sophisticated thinking.

Of course, in most stand-alone reading classes, it runs beyond the scope of the course objectives to assign extensive writing or a research paper. But students can write shorter responses in which they synthesize a small number of assigned texts. In classes where I have asked students incorporate the *They Say/I Say* templates for integrating sources (Graff and Birkenstein, 2010) into their own writing, I have also asked students to read with an eye for the places in which authors make similar moves. Graff and Birkenstein observe that when they taught their students to incorporate the templates in their writing, it had the unintended effect of improving their reading, since students tended to notice these sorts of intertextual moves in assigned readings (preface). My own teaching experiences are consistent with this observation.

Conclusion

This paper has expanded upon Armstrong and Newman's (2011) pedagogy of intertextual synthesis to motivate a complementary pedagogy that focuses on encouraging students to notice the ways in which intertextuality is embodied in single texts. Both pedagogies develop the deep-processing strategies and sophisticated epistemologies that are demanded by such texts. Further, it has been argued that traditional reading instruction, which shelters students from EI, is insufficient for helping students in developmental classes make the transition to reading complex texts that characterize college-level. In researching this paper, no evidence was found of prior scholarship addressed specifically to developmental reading instructors that addresses the issue of students reading for EI. This doesn't mean that no such research exists, but clearly this area needs more research. Students, however, cannot wait until they enter college-level English courses to begin engaging seriously with texts that embody intertextuality.

The second half of the present article presents five teaching strategies to help students read for EI. Though the examples are specific to my own students and assigned texts, the principles are meant to be generative and adaptable to a variety of classrooms. Teachers are encouraged not just to integrate the exact texts, lessons, and scaffolds discussed, but also to creatively adapt the strategies to meet local needs and student interests, and to share the results.

Finally, a note on the scope of this paper: the pedagogy of EI, as articulated herein, focuses on helping students *notice* and *comprehend* the EI of texts. This is a sophisticated way of reading—one that represents a substantial accomplishment for

students in developmental reading classes— but it is not an end in itself. Due to space limitations, the present paper cannot discuss a pedagogy in which students critically interrogate the motives that underlie authors' intertextual moves. For one example of a non-pedagogical analysis that does this, see Hyland's (1999) corpus analysis of the ways in which sourcing and citation conventions in various disciplines reflect discipline-specific epistemologies. The limited focus of the present paper should not be interpreted to suggest that teachers should not encourage this sort of interrogation. In fact, this sort of interrogation presents another ripe area for future inquiry.

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