

ENGAGING EMERGENT BILINGUALS IN THE SOCIAL DIALOGUE OF WRITING
PERSUASIVELY IN HIGH SCHOOL

by

NIHAL VINAYAK KHOTE

(Under the Direction of Ruth Harman)

ABSTRACT

There has been a renewed focus on teaching students to write in academic ways with the recent adoption of the Common Core Curriculum in Georgia. In this scenario, the task of teaching writing to emergent bilingual (EB) learners in sheltered settings is all the more challenging considering that the pedagogy should integrate both content knowledge and how language works to express specific disciplinary meanings in culturally responsive ways. In this participatory action research study, I explore the potential of culturally sustaining systemic functional linguistics (SFL) praxis (Halliday, 1994; Halliday & Matthiessen, 2004) to support immigrant language learners in expanding their academic language repertoires, specifically to enable them to make claims and convey stance in an appropriate ‘objective’ tone and to control writer/reader relations in their writing of persuasive essays in school contexts. Culturally sustaining SFL praxis draws from critical pedagogy (Delpit, 2003; Freire, 1970; Nieto & Bode, 2008; Paris, 2012) and proposes that SFL-informed genre-based instruction is a powerful resource to teach writing to EB learners in its capacity to make explicit connections between

linguistic form and function. “Doing writing” in a culturally sustaining SFL framework implies deploying language resources strategically to realize specific social and political purposes in texts.

To analyze how students responded to culturally sustaining SFL praxis, the study analyzes four focal students’ essays to assess the extent to which students are able to deploy language resources of Engagement and Attribution theory (Martin, 2000; Martin & Rose, 2003; Martin & White, 2005) in communicating interactional and evaluative meanings in their texts. An analysis of the data reveals that given the opportunity to develop meta-awareness of genre expectations in structure and tone, students are enabled to transition from formulaic and informal language use to controlling key lexicogrammatical resources to express discipline-specific meanings in the language of schooling (Schleppergrell, 2004).

The implications of this study for K-12 language educators point to the urgent need to make knowledge about language visible, in an orientation of ‘writing to mean’ (Byrnes, 2013), to develop writing instruction that focuses on the functionality of grammar and linguistic structures and supports emergent writers in understanding how language makes meanings in more precise and effective ways.

INDEX WORDS: emergent bilinguals, English language learners, systemic functional linguistics, culturally sustaining praxis, Appraisal, Engagement, persuasive writing, permeable curriculum.

ENGAGING EMERGENT BILINGUALS IN THE SOCIAL DIALOGUE OF WRITING
PERSUASIVELY IN HIGH SCHOOL

by

NIHAL VINAYAK KHOTE

BA, University of Mumbai, 1988

BA, Kennesaw State University, 2004

BS, Kennesaw State University, 2006

M. Ed., Kennesaw State University, 2008

A Dissertation Submitted to the Graduate Faculty of The University of Georgia in Partial
Fulfillment of the Requirements for the Degree

DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY

ATHENS, GEORGIA

2014

© 2014

Nihal Vinayak Khote

All Rights Reserved

ENGAGING EMERGENT BILINGUALS IN THE SOCIAL DIALOGUE OF WRITING
PERSUASIVELY IN HIGH SCHOOL

by

NIHAL VINAYAK KHOTE

Major Professor:	Ruth Harman
Committee:	Linda Harklau
	Ajay Sharma

Electronic Version Approved:

Julie Coffield
Interim Dean of the Graduate School
The University of Georgia
December 2014.

DEDICATION

For my students, past and present, who “strike their roots into unaccustomed earth”

- Nathaniel Hawthorne

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I am deeply indebted to Ruth Harman for the insights on language and life that she has given me. Ruth, thanks for never giving up on this educator. You always had the time for me and your continual encouragement and support in the face of difficult and trying times, made it all happen. Linda Harklau, teacher, scholar, and dedicated professional has always been a source of inspiration and knowledge. Thanks for your wonderful work on language learners and your comments and praise. It was my privilege to have you on my committee. Ajay Sharma, thanks for being my only Indian connection. Your gentle and thoughtful feedback challenged me to strive for criticality and theoretical reflexivity. I also acknowledge my gratitude to my teachers JoBeth Allen and Betty St. Pierre who shaped my initiation into critical inquiry.

A huge shout out to my three children Gita, Nihal, and Priya who have grown into adolescence and adulthood while I spent six years reading and writing these pages. I hope I can make up for the lost years. My deepest debt and thanks to Maria, my wife, who did more than her share of housework, feeding the family, and making the home – besides doing her full time job of looking after the many immigrant families in town. She gave more than she received. Last, but not the least, thanks to my dog, Nicky, for accompanying me in quiet and silent reflection, and never asking why.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

	Page
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS	v
LIST OF TABLES	x
LIST OF FIGURES	xiii
CHAPTER	
1 INTRODUCTION	1
Culturally Sustaining SFL Praxis.....	4
Who are Emergent Bilinguals?	5
Statement of the Problem.....	11
The Journey of an Emergent Bilingual Educator.....	23
Systemic Functional Linguistics.....	30
Methods.....	36
Research Questions.....	41
Significance of the Study	41
Overview of Chapters	44
2 CULTURALLY SUSTAINING SFL PRAXIS FOR TEACHING WRITING	46
Conceptual Development of SFL.....	49
SFL: History, Research, and Praxis	61
Contextualizing SFL in Educational Contexts.....	76
SFL Research and Praxis in the United States.....	77

Critical Perspectives on SFL Genre-based Pedagogies	80
Culturally Sustaining SFL Praxis.....	84
Conclusion	89
3 AN APPRAISAL OF ENGAGEMENT OPTIONS	91
Why Appraisal?	92
Appraisal Theory	93
SFL Perspectives on Voice and Stance.....	95
Appraisal Theory: Negotiating Voice and Stance	97
SFL Engagement Studies.....	108
Engagement for Analyzing Social Dialogue in Texts.....	92
Control of Theme to Engage Readers.....	116
Conclusion	121
4 METHODOLOGY AND ANALYSIS FOR COMPOSING IN DIALOGUE.....	123
Participatory Action Research	124
Site of Research	127
Participants.....	130
The SFL Argumentation Unit.....	140
Data Collection	147
Researcher Role	150
Limitations and Challenges.....	152
Analytical Framework	155
Analyzing the Culturally Sustaining Environment.....	156

5	ENACTING CULTURALLY SUSTAINING PRAXIS	158
	What is ‘Culturally Sustaining’?.....	159
	Culturally Sustaining Space	162
	Pitfalls and Limitations	185
	Conclusion	191
6	TEACHING WRITING AS COMPOSING IN SOCIAL DIALOGUE.....	193
	A Critical SFL Argumentation Writing Unit Design.....	194
	Nominalization to Construct Arguments	203
7	THE RESONANCE OF CULTURALLY SUSTAINING SFL PRAXIS	231
	Selection of Topic for Independent Construction.....	232
	Module 3: How to Remove the I.....	242
	Challenges of Teaching Writing	258
	Independent Construction	261
8	FINDINGS AND IMPLICATIONS	292
	Research Questions: Connecting Theory and Praxis	293
	Culturally Sustaining SFL Praxis.....	294
	SFL Pedagogy	299
	Implications of Teaching Culturally Sustaining SFL Praxis	313
	Conclusion	317
	REFERENCES	320
	APPENDICES	
	A STUDENT INTERVIEW PROTOCOL	356
	B EXPOSITION ESSAY: <i>ECOLOGICAL FOOTPRINTS</i>	358

C	DISCUSSION ESSAY: <i>Genetically Modified Foods</i>	360
D	VERONICA ESSAY: <i>MANDATORY MILITARY SERVICE</i>	362
E	VERONICA ESSAY: <i>IMMIGRATION</i>	364
F	ROBETO ESSAY: <i>GENETICALLY MODIFIED FOODS</i>	366
G	JUAN DIEGO ESSAY: <i>IMMIGRATION</i>	368
H	JUAN DIEGO ESSAY: <i>WHY IS SCHOOL IMPORTANT TO ME?</i>	370
I	ROSA ESSAY: <i>IMMIGRATION</i>	371

LIST OF TABLES

	Page
Table 2.1: The Three Metafunctions.....	53
Table 2.2: Spoken versus Written Register.....	58
Table 2.3: Theme/Rheme Flow for Cohesion of Ideas	60
Table 2.4: Reflexive and Specialized Intertextuality	88
Table 3.1: Adjuncts in Interpersonal Theme.....	116
Table 3.2: Language for Engagement.....	121
Table 4.1: Focal Students' Characteristics.....	133
Table 4.2: Phases of the SFL Writing Unit.....	140
Table 4.3: SFL Objectives Phase 1: Historical Recount.....	142
Table 4.4: Stage 2: Deconstruction of Exposition Genre	143
Table 4.5: Stage 4: Deconstruction of Discussion Genre	145
Table 4.6: Articles on the Immigration Debate	146
Table 4.7: Overview of Data.....	150
Table 4.8: Language for Engagement.....	155
Table 6.1: Phases of the SFL Writing Unit.....	195
Table 6.2: Veronica's Text Theme/Rheme Analysis.....	198
Table 6.3: Analysis of Theme in Veronica's Essay on the Slave's Journey.....	199
Table 6.4: Linguistic Goals and Shifts in Register	200
Table 6.5: Deconstruction of Exposition Genre	202

Table 6.6: Sentence Transformations	207
Table 6.7: Nominalization for Cause and Effect	208
Table 6.8: Functional Analysis of Juan Diego's First Sample Essay	209
Table 6.9: Sample of Students' Informal Language Use	210
Table 6.10: Language Analysis of Noncongruent Grammar	211
Table 6.11: Theme/Rheme Analysis Exposition <i>Ecological Footprints</i>	216
Table 6.12: Theme/Rheme Sequencing for Organization.....	217
Table 6.13: Participants in Theme/Rheme- Veronica Introduction	222
Table 6.14: Participants in Theme/Rheme- Veronica 2 nd Paragraph	224
Table 7.1: Selection of Topics that Require Abstract Use of Language.....	234
Table 7.2: Articles on the Immigration Debate	235
Table 7.3: Articles on the Immigration Debate	237
Table 7.4: Theme/Rheme Analysis of Expository Text.....	243
Table 7.5: Removing the 'I'	246
Table 7.6: Using Reporting Verbs	252
Table 7.7: Transitioning Tenor and Field Values	255
Table 7.8: Realization of Engagement.....	269
Table 7.9: Summary of Engagement Resources Veronica	273
Table 7.10: Roberto's Engagement Pattern of Entertain and Disclaim	278
Table 7.11: Juan Diego's Engagement Pattern of Contracting Resources	285
Table 7.12: Rosa's Engagement Pattern of Contracting Resources	289
Table 7.13: Dialectic Triad in Rosa's Introduction	290
Table 7.14: Summary of Engagement Options deployed in the Four Essays.....	291

Table 8.1: Building Critical Knowledge from Home Knowledge	296
Table 8.2: Summary of Evidence of Use of Linguistic Resources for Structure.....	308
Table 8.3: Use of Linguistic Resources for Expression of Ideas	308
Table 8.4: Use of Linguistic Resources for Construing Voice & Audience Relations.....	309
Table 8.5: Comparison of Focal Students' ACCESS scores	310

LIST OF FIGURES

	Page
Figure 1.1: Halliday’s SFL Model of Language and Culture	33
Figure 1.2: Rothery’s (1996) Teaching Cycle	38
Figure 2.1: Systemic Language Stratification in Context.....	50
Figure 2.2: Stratification of Context	62
Figure 2.3: Rothery’s (1996) Teaching Cycle	64
Figure 2.4: Knowledge Development Continuum	69
Figure 3.1: Appraisal for Evaluation of Tenor.....	98
Figure 3.2: Engagement Framework.....	102
Figure 6.1: Veronica’s Text Theme/Rheme Analysis.....	197
Figure 6.2: Wall Map of Transition Words for Cohesion.....	208
Figure 6.3: Using Nouns to Build Cohesion.....	218
Figure 7.1: How to Remove the “I”	242
Figure 7.2: Using Verbs to Locate Author’s Voice	244
Figure 7.3: Using Adjective to locate Author’s Voice	245
Figure 7.4: Using Reporting Verbs.....	251
Figure 7.5: Engagement Resources.....	262
Figure 7.6: Veronica’s essay- Introductory Paragraph	262
Figure 7.7: Veronica Essay on Immigration – 2 nd and 3 rd Paragraphs.....	266

Figure 7.8: Veronica Immigration Essay 3 rd Paragraph.....	270
Figure 7.9: Roberto Immigration Essay- Introduction.....	277
Figure 7.10: Juan Diego Essay on Immigration- Introduction	282
Figure 7.11: Rosa Introduction to Immigration Essay.....	288
Figure 8.1: Culturally Sustaining SFL Praxis	294
Figure 4.1: Appraisal for Evaluation of Tenor.....	101
Figure 4.1: Appraisal for Evaluation of Tenor.....	101
Figure 4.1: Appraisal for Evaluation of Tenor.....	101

CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION TO CULTURALLY SUSTAINING SFL PRAXIS

“Education either functions as an instrument which is used to facilitate integration of the younger generation into the logic of the present system and bring about conformity, *or* it becomes ‘the practice of freedom,’ the means by which men and women deal critically and creatively with reality and discover how to participate in the transformation of their world.”

— Paulo Freire (1970, p. 34)

Luis Hernández, a Mexican immigrant language learner who passed my 10th grade sheltered English language arts class and graduated with honors from Weavers City High School, works the night shift in a brightly-lit carpet factory in Northwest Georgia. It is almost 3 a.m. as he rolls a cart full of spindles past a vast array of yarn looms. The noise is deafening as each loom is fed by twenty spindles spinning at high velocities - the twisting threads rolling into one stream of white yarn. The machine spits out empty spindles at a rapid rate and it is Luis’ job to make sure that there is a constant supply of filled spindles to feed each of the twelve looms that are his responsibility. He moves quickly to make sure that all the looms have a ready supply of yarn-filled spindles. He works eight hours through the night rushing back and forth through the

vast factory floor to replenish his cart. The shift ends at 6 a.m. by which time he is covered in fluffs of cotton that he vacuums off with a hose.

As a graduate student of the University of Georgia, I tracked Luis' postsecondary journey in a pilot study for this dissertation. Luis was an Emergent Bilingual¹ students who showed much promise in my 10th grade English for Speakers of Other Languages (ESOL) class that I have taught for ten years in Weavers City High School in Northwest Georgia. He was a talented soccer athlete who played for the school team that made it to the state finals in 2010. Though he wanted to continue his education in college, I found him working a minimum wage job in the local carpet factories 6 months after graduating from high school. Luis later explained that he did enroll in the local college, but could not keep up with the academic rigor of the classes in addition to the economic pressures of supporting his family. He opted to drop out temporarily, in the hope of re-enrolling in the future. His dreams of continuing his studies and playing soccer professionally are still on hold today.

Luis was motivated student and a high achiever. However, in spite of all the good intentions of his teachers, I came to the conclusion that he was not supported adequately in reading and writing so that he could take on the more challenging postsecondary college curriculum. Luis is the product of 2 years of learning English in sheltered ESOL contexts and being pushed-in to mainstream content classes for his content classes. Though sheltered language teaching models tend to focus on supporting students in acquiring language of the content areas, many systems are moving towards integrating EBs into co-teaching models, where the mainstream content teacher and ESOL teacher both support the EB learners (McClure & Cahnmann-Taylor, 2010). This national trend is based on the belief that EBs have been

¹ I use García and Klieffen's (2010) description of immigrant English language learners (ELLs) as Emergent Bilinguals (EBs) for this study. Further explanation of this term follows below.

marginalized in sheltered and “pull-out” models that essentially segregate the EB learners with respect to the mainstream population and access to the curriculum (Crawford, 2004; Walquí, 2000). Critics point to the historic low achievement of immigrant language learners in state accountability measures and standardized tests (August, 2006) as evidence of the inefficacy of these models. However, other scholars and educators believe that in spite of the support of both ESOL and content teacher in push-in settings, EBs do not receive adequate support in language instruction leading to serious social and material consequences in terms of their academic tracking and access to advanced classes (Callahan, 2005; Harklau, 1994, 2000; Kanno & Kangas, 2014).

Given current trends towards globalization and U.S. demographic shifts toward a majority multilingual, multicultural society of color (Garcia & Cuellar, 2006; Smelser, Wilson, & Mitchell, 2001; Wang, 2013) Paris and Alim (2014) suggest literacy efforts should prepare students in negotiating diverse contexts with linguistic and cultural ease for success in the future. Students with access to “genres of power” (Cope & Kalantzis, 1993) will be those that possess multicultural and linguistic flexibility. Therefore, this study looks to a shift to “doing writing” that involves transitioning students into linguistic plurality and understanding that there are multiple contextualized ways of making ‘academic’ or ‘cultural’ meanings. For this purpose, it envisions culturally sustaining SFL praxis to develop students’ metalinguistic awareness of language (Halliday, 1996; Macken-Horarik, 1996; Martin, 1992; Schleppegrell & Colombi, 2002) in the view that writing has a social purpose, thus enabling them a skillful linguistic and cultural flexibility (Paris, 2012, Paris & Alim, 2014).

The focus of this study moves away from one size fits all, top-down notions of what may be the ideal delivery models for language learners (Honigsfeld & Dove, 2009). Instead, I propose

that all models will work effectively if the literacy practices and pedagogy focus on the language needs of the learners, and prepares them for a fluid and diverse world in culturally and academically responsive ways. It is well-known how EBs like Luis are faced with a myriad of sociopolitical and cultural roadblocks (explained in detail below) that tend to impede them from realizing their full potential and, in many cases, collude to construe an entrenched identity of failure and a trajectory of disengagement in their education. Therefore, the principal goal of this study is to find adequate pedagogical solutions to address negative social and academic outcomes by supporting EB learners with targeted and well-designed culturally-responsive language instruction to instill linguistic and cultural flexibility that increases their chances of successfully navigating a changing, multilingual, and multicultural world that demands both rigor and flexibility in knowledge, content, and language in secondary and postsecondary educational contexts.

Culturally Sustaining SFL Praxis

Research in multicultural second language settings emphasizes how cultural aspects of second language learning impinge on student performance (Huerta, 2011; Nieto, 2002; Nieto & Bode, 2008; Dyson, 1993, 2003; Gonzalez, Moll, and Amanti, 2005; Salazar, 2013; Suárez-Orozco, Suárez-Orozco & Todorova, 2008; Valenzuela, 1999; Warikoo & Carter, 2009). These scholars recommend framing language instruction around students' home culture, values, and beliefs so that when students read, write, and discuss issues that pertain to their worlds, the curriculum affords them authentic opportunities to analyze, critique, and reframe the norms, rule systems, and practices governing their social and academic worlds (Gee, 1999; Luke, 2004). This dissertation proposes to use students' diverse linguistic and cultural knowledge as building blocks to scaffold literacy and language learning. It seeks to open the discursive environment of

the class to diverse cultural frames to support a vision of expanding multicultural literacy and teaching writing with a social purpose using a language analysis resource like Systemic Functional Linguistics.

In my graduate studies in UGA, I was introduced to Systemic Functional Linguistics (SFL) (Halliday, 1994; Halliday & Matthiessen, 2004) by Dr. Ruth Harman who has researched teaching reading and writing in her work in the ACCELA Alliance (Access to Critical Content and English Language Acquisition) in the University of Massachusetts. Dr. Harman and other scholars working with SFL were engaged in system-wide dialogue, research, and action to better support equitable teaching and learning outcomes for linguistically diverse students (Harman, 2008; Willett et al., 2007). I have elaborated on this work in detail in the theoretical chapter of the dissertation. However, I recognize that supporting immigrant language learners academically in language learning also requires a parallel emphasis in increasing cultural understandings and developing critical consciousness as essential components of a multicultural language classroom (Dyson, 1993, 2003; Gonzalez, Moll, and Amanti, 2005; Ladson-Billings, 1995; Paris, 2012). Inspired by culturally responsive teaching frameworks, Paris (2012) proposed a model of culturally sustaining pedagogy that builds the curriculum on plurality of knowledge and content to attain linguistic and cultural flexibility that draws on the diverse cultural resources that all students bring to school. In addition to Paris, I am drawn to Dyson's (1993, 2003) conception of a permeable curriculum that centers on students' funds of knowledge (Moll, Amanti, Neff, & Gonzalez, 2005) as building blocks to frame literacy and learning. Dyson encouraged educators to include the unofficial worlds of students' homes into the official domain of schooling as foundational resources to scaffold students' learning in the classroom. I draw from SFL, Paris, and Dyson to conceive of culturally sustaining SFL praxis that engages EB learners by centering

the process of language learning in their social and cultural worlds. Recognizing the daunting task of teaching language to immigrant EB learners within the constraints imposed by standards and accountability frameworks and the national debate of what delivery model ‘works’ for this population, this participatory action research study (Greenwood, Whyte, & Harkavy, 1993; McTaggart, 1989; Reason & Bradbury, 2006) is a demonstration of how an immigrant educator of color brings together multidisciplinary language and cultural approaches in teaching language, while supporting and expanding on students’ linguistic and cultural diversity as a goal of democratic education.

Drawing from the SFL genre-based framework, culturally responsive research (Nieto & Bode, 2008; Paris, 2012), and critical pedagogy (Delpit, 2003; Freire, 1970; Giroux, 1981; Shor, 1992), this study advocates that supporting EB learners implies an explicit focus on language education within educational practices that resist cultural and academic marginalization and alienation of immigrant student populations. As a critical educator of color who has lived the complex cultural and psychological terrain of second language learning, I draw on research on culturally-sustaining pedagogies that frame cultural, ideological, and sociolinguistic content of the curriculum around students’ home culture, language, and history (Luke, 2012). I propose that culturally sustaining SFL praxis that attends to both linguistic and cultural aspects of language learning effectively engages and supports EBs in their educational trajectories.

Therefore, in this participatory action research study, I explore the potential of culturally sustaining systemic functional linguistics praxis (Halliday, 1994; Halliday & Matthiessen, 2004; Paris, 2012) to support intermediate language learners in developing critical perspectives on texts and experiences and expressing these in an expanding use and control of academic language registers when writing persuasively in school contexts. Specifically, it investigates the ways that

SFL and Appraisal theory can be used critically in EB settings to apprentice students in understanding how to engage with diverse attitudinal meanings in texts in an understanding that strategic language use affords various ways to position both author and reader in ideological ways (Martin & Rose, 2003; Martin & White, 2005). The study contributes to the body of empirical SFL studies (see Harman, 2008) that investigate how SFL-informed genre approaches can be used in designing critical language pedagogies that are both culturally sensitive and academically age-appropriate to support EBs to “read and write in resistant ways” (Macken-Horarik, 1996). It investigates how an educator implements SFL writing pedagogy within a culturally sustaining framework (Dyson, 1993, 2003; Paris, 2012) that embraces the diversity of knowledge and experience and supports the expansion of their language repertoires to enable them to voice these perspectives and navigate in different textual contexts in disciplinary-appropriate ways. It expands on research on culturally sensitive ways to teach academic writing by exploring how a culturally and linguistically inclusive classroom environments resists the characterization of EBs as academic and social failures (Valenzuela, 1999, 2004), and instead, offers them a range of alternative positive identities of capable learners who execute reading and writing tasks in ways that are valued and accepted in school contexts (Fránquiz & Salazar, 2004; Harman, 2008; Huerta, 2011; Macken-Horarik, 1998). In sum, this dissertation answers the call of critical pedagogy for educators to seek more democratic literacy practices and resist the reproduction of inequitable structures in educational contexts (Bourdieu & Passeron, 1990; Delpit, 2003; Freire, 1970; Giroux, 1981, Nieto & Bode, 2008; Shor, 1992).

Who Are Emergent Bilinguals?

The focal participants in the study are immigrant language learners who have been variously categorized as “English Language Learners” (ELLs), “Limited English” (LEP), “Culturally and Linguistically Diverse” (CLD), or “Language” (LM) students. They were placed in my 10th grade sheltered language arts class, typically called English as a Second Language (ESL) or English for Speakers of Other Languages (ESOL) contexts. Some of them are labeled “Long-Term ELLs” (LTELs) if they continue in ESOL settings for more than 7 years because they are unable to negotiate the increasing academic demands of the second language across various school disciplines (Menken, 2008; Menken, Kleyn, & Chae, 2012). García and Klieffgen (2010) suggest that the above terms tend to focus on these students’ limitations as language learners in terms of deficit, rather than emphasizing their linguistic and cultural potential as speakers of many languages. Therefore, I will refer to them as Emergent Bilinguals (EBs) because, as the authors suggest, it better represents them as bilingual students who are in the process of acquiring English, their second language in school, while they also continue to use their native language at home (p. 2).

The Latino EBs that I teach, constitute the fastest growing demographic subgroup in the U.S. educational system. In the last three decades (1980-2010), the proportion of EBs in the school-age population (ages 5 to 17) has jumped from 10 to 21% (National Center for Education Statistics, 2011, p. 162). It is projected that in the next fifty years this group will account for 51% of the population growth, making up one-fourth of the total U.S. population by 2050 (Llagas & Snyder, 2003). As such, Latino EBs are inextricably bound up with the nation’s future and addressing their cultural and academic needs is of utmost priority (Gándara & Contreras, 2009; Suárez-Orozco & Gaytán, 2009).

Emergent Bilinguals in the New Latino Diaspora

Historically, Latin American migration had concentrated primarily in U.S.-Mexico border-states such as California, Arizona, and Texas, and in particular states with a high labor demand, such as Illinois, New York, and Florida. But since the 1990's, Wortham, Murillo, and Hamann (2002) have pointed to the *New Latino Diaspora* to denote recent Latino immigration settlement "in areas of the United States that have not traditionally been home to Latinos -for example, North Carolina, Maine, Georgia, Indiana, Arkansas, rural Illinois, and near resort communities in Colorado" (p. 1). The authors attribute this recent trend to changing patterns of U.S. labor markets where several industries like agriculture, construction and landscaping, assembly and manufacturing, and poultry and meat-processing are driving Latino immigration to new, often rural areas (Wortham, Murillo, & Hamann, 2002; Zuñiga & Hernández-León, 2005).

The state of Georgia, and particularly, my district Weavers City, has seen unprecedented growth of Latino immigrant families. Of the estimated 4.7 million (10%) EBs enrolled in the schools all over the nation in 2010-11(NCES, 2013), the state of Georgia had approximately 81,000 EBs enrolled in public schools in the year 2010-11. These students comprised 5% of the total student population, 80% of whom were native Spanish speakers. Since the last three decades, the booming carpet, flooring, agriculture and poultry industries and the high demand for manual labor has attracted the "New Latino Diaspora" of immigrant families, mostly from Mexico and Central America, to fill jobs in the area (Wortham, Murillo, & Hamann, 2002). My school district attracts Latino immigrant families because of the availability of jobs in the area known as the "Carpet Capital of the World," where more than 90% of flooring and carpet produced in the world today is made within a 25-mile radius of the city. The population of the county doubled to 103,000 during this period (U.S. Census, 2010). Today, Latino immigrant

families comprise almost 43% of the total population and educators and policy makers face tremendous challenges to address their specific cultural and academic needs in the classrooms (Gándara, & Contreras, 2009; Harklau, 1998, 2007).

The school district responded quickly to supporting this population by setting up newcomer language academies for the recently arrived immigrant EB learners and ESOL sheltered language arts, science, and social studies classes at the high school level. Of the 1,348 students enrolled in the year 2012-2013, 58% were white, 40% were Hispanic, 1% African American, and 1% were other races. Approximately 68% of the students were on Free and Reduced Lunch. The school had a total of 110 EB students enrolled, served by 5 certified ESOL teachers, including myself, in sheltered ESOL classrooms (2 levels of Language Arts, 9th grade Biology, 9th grade Algebra support, and Social Studies) and push-in classes at the 10th and 11th grade, responsible for transitioning the EBs to mainstream content classes. As students acquire English proficiency, they are tested by the ACCESS test (www.wida.org) designed by the WIDA consortium consisting of approximately 30 states in the country. They then transition out from sheltered settings into mainstream content areas in push-in settings (with an ESOL teacher for language support). Over the years, the district has been very successful in exiting students from ESOL, with consistent above average exit rates compared to other districts in the state of Georgia.

At the same time, my district is one of four counties in Georgia that has clamped down on undocumented immigrant families, mirroring wider federal and state policies on anti-immigrant sentiments in border-states that have passed several propositions attempting to deny Latino immigrants many civil rights (Proposition 187, 227, 209 in California and the English-Only movement) (Galván & Gonzalez, 2010). In Weavers City has signed Section 287(g), an

agreement between United States Immigration and Customs Enforcement (ICE) and law enforcement agencies that allows local law enforcement personnel “to perform immigration enforcement functions...to identify and process immigration violators and conduct criminal investigations under ICE supervision” (Memorandum of Agreement, Section 287(g) of the Immigration and Nationality Act). According to the Georgia SB 529, titled the “Georgia Security and Immigration Compliance Act”, effective July 1, 2009, every contractor, including every subcontractor, must verify the immigration status of their workers. Many of the parents of EBs do not have proper immigration documentation and are vulnerable to arrest and deportation. Even though, these policies have serious human consequences on students in my classroom, the school district is supportive of all students, regardless of legal status.

Statement of the Problem

A Precarious Scenario of EBs in U. S. Classrooms

EB students seem to be fluent in everyday conversational English within the first or second year of learning the language. However, EBs need approximately 5-7 years to develop the advanced literacy skills that enable them to do grade-level work in English (August & Shanahan, 2006; Cummins, 2000; Hakuta, Butler, & Witt, 2000). Placed in language learning ESOL settings, they tend to fall behind their English-speaking peers, unable to keep up with the demanding rigor of content areas and academic language (Thomas & Collier, 1997, 2001). In 2011 and in all previous years since 2002, the National Assessment of Educational Progress (NAEP) reading scores for 4th- and 8th-grade EBs have been lower than their mainstream student peers’ scores. In 2011, there was a difference of 36 points at the 4th-grade level and 44 points at the 8th-grade level (NCES, 2013). This disparity in achievement, the achievement gap, is generally associated with low performance in standardized tests and low enrollment rates in

postsecondary education (Freeman, Freeman & Mercuri, 2002; Ruiz-de-Velasco & Fix, 2000; Short & Fitzsimmons, 2007). As this academic gap widens, it has negative consequences on their educational trajectories (Callahan, 2005) and their postsecondary opportunities (Harklau, 2007; 2013; Kanno & Harklau, 2012). Gándara and Contreras (2009) suggest that “if the high dropout rates and low educational achievement of Latino youth are not turned around, we will have created a permanent underclass without hope of integrating into the mainstream or realizing their potential to contribute to American society” (pgs. 13-14).

ESOL teachers are under tremendous pressure in the current era of high stakes educational reforms and data-driven pedagogy that is supposed to target student achievement on standardized tests. Recent proposals to change the traditional teacher step pay structure with merit pay or pay for performance (for Georgia, see Teacher Keys Evaluation System, www.gadoe.org), an important component of President Obama’s Race to the Top educational reform initiative, increases teacher accountability, but does not offer teachers adequate professional development or training to meet the standards of the evaluations (Ravitch, 2013). The new Common Core Georgia Performance Standards (CCGPS) and the Georgia Milestones Assessments include a focus on analysis and deconstruction of expository texts that “combines reading, language arts, and writing into a single measure” to ensure that “Georgia students are well positioned to compete with other students across the United States and internationally” (www.gadoe.org).

Within this scenario of accountability and standardized testing, EBs are required to produce constructed written responses or narratives, write opinions/arguments – citing evidence from text(s) using standard language conventions of expository writing at every grade level across the curriculum. At school, students are expected to master not only new genres or text

types (e.g., explanation, argumentation) but new school-relevant registers, or language repertoires prevalent in the social context of school (e.g., the language of science-Lemke, 1990; the language of history-Bazerman & Paradis, 2004). Martin (1989) and Schlepppegrell (2004) describe the progress of students from primary to secondary schooling moving progressively across three new genres or types of texts: personal genres (e.g., narratives and recounts), factual genres (e.g., procedures and reports), and analytic genres focused on analysis and argumentation (e.g., explanations, persuasive or argumentative essays). SFL scholars suggest schools tend to encourage written narrative modes (Rothery, 1989, 1994), and expository and argumentative writing is deferred to high school (Martin, 1989). The persuasive Discussion genre is a particularly prominent school genre that consists of a writer's position or stance on a topic, followed by a coherently organized argument that includes precise claims, data, warrants, counterarguments, and rebuttals (Toulmin, 2003). Besides graduation requirements and standardized assessments in writing, students also are required to show mastery over expository writing in college entrance tests like the ACT and SAT that elicit responses to persuasive prompts (College Board, 2014). Writing assessments have implicit expectations of control and use of linguistic resources and academic registers such as lexical precision (e.g., using diverse and precise vocabulary), dense information packing (e.g., including nominalizations and complex syntax), explicit discourse organization (e.g., using markers to signal text transitions), and academic stance (e.g., using markers that index the writer's attitude toward the claims advanced) (Schlepppegrell, 2004; Snow & Uccelli, 2009; Uccelli, Dobbs, & Scott, 2013).

Buzzwords like 'differentiation' and "best strategies" are being touted as solutions to address the academic needs of the EB population and social and linguistic expectations of the argumentative genre are rarely addressed (Schlepppegrell, 2004). EB learners tend to suffer the consequences of

not being taught the “hidden curriculum” of academic writing (Christie, 2012) and tend to remain in social language domains, unaware of the complexity and challenges of expository writing. In this complicated scenario, EB learners are being assessed on what is not explicitly taught, and are thus set up for failure. Such undemocratic literacy practices ensure that the language needs of EB students, mostly from nondominant communities, are not met, thus perpetuating and reproducing inequitable sociopolitical structures of the outside world (Bourdieu & Passeron, 1990).

In the domain of standardized assessments and data-driven policy, literacy is framed as a discrete cognitive skill, or what Street (1995) calls the *autonomous model of literacy*. In this conception, literacy can be taught to all students regardless of cultural and linguistic differences (Street, 1984, 1995) and can be measured and assessed through standardized tests. This study emphasizes that language teachers, especially ESOL teachers, need preparation in teaching writing using effective language instructional frameworks that are not divorced from cultural dimensions. Language is not learned in a vacuum, but makes sense within cultural and social contexts and in students’ “repertoires of practice” (Gutiérrez & Rogoff, 2003). This educator sees language as always influenced by not only the immediate context, but the history of opportunities that individuals have had to use oral language and written texts in particular ways (Heath, 1983; Ochs, 1993). This sociocultural framework implies that for emerging writers to grow, they also need authentic opportunities to grow as individuals, building critical perspectives to reframe how the world views themselves and how they view the world. When emerging writers are afforded a social purpose, which is culturally grounded in their worlds, they are motivated to continue to learn new ways of speaking and writing. This study proposes that teachers should be equipped with an array of language teaching resources to teach writing and

students be afforded authentic opportunities to be engaged in an expanding set of language-mediated social contexts so that both may successfully face the challenges of a multicultural and linguistically-plural world.

In addition to linguistic and cultural challenges, there is a national trend to integrate EBs in mainstream classes with an ESOL teacher, what is known as the “push-in” model, widely regarded as an inclusive framework (Arkoudis, 2003; McLure & Cahnmann-Taylor, 2010) favorable to language learners. Although there are no studies that show the ways that this model supports EBs, this study moves away from debates on models to an emphasis on the increasing urgency for explicit language instruction and support for the students. A delivery model by itself does not assure language learning without continued, appropriately-designed language instruction. The question then is: How can teachers offer students the most opportunities to grow as critical writers and consumers of texts?

Recent data reveals that the nation’s EBs are not faring well academically on state accountability measures (August, 2006). EB learner drop-out rates are higher than those reported for other sectors of the school-age population, especially for those who were foreign born (Cartiera, 2006; Crawford, 2004). Scholars have shown that the placement of EB students in non-college bound classes (Callahan, 2005) with unprepared teachers who are unaccustomed to working with linguistically diverse learners and their families (Giambo & Szecsi, 2005), further limits their postsecondary opportunities (Harklau, 2007; 2013; Kanno & Harklau, 2012), in many cases forcing them to drop out of school and into minimum wage jobs.

The findings from my earlier pilot study (Khote, 2011) that tracked the postsecondary experiences of Luis Hernandez suggested that the road to college was challenging for EBs who found it difficult to advance in their educational journey because of the rigorous academic

demands, especially in writing essays (Harklau, Losey & Siegal, 1999). Many like Luis dropped out after their grade point average fell below the minimum required for the Hope Scholarship of Georgia which paid their tuition. My observations in my district revealed that teachers were more prepared to teach reading, than writing. Though much writing was done in some language arts classes, students were not supported in explicit language instruction on how to write in academic ways. To make matters worse, the recent trend in language arts classes in my school is to assess and grade students' essays online, through a program designed by publishing houses (see my.hrw.com by Holt McDougal Online). When teachers do not read students' essays, the probability of growth and learning as writers is further reduced. Without explicit writing instruction and feedback from teachers, EB writers are at the greatest disadvantage.

These findings from my pilot study concurred with larger research studies on this population that conclude that without proper academic (and cultural support) at all levels of education, EBs tend to fall behind their English-speaking peers due to increasingly demanding content areas that require the control and use of academic language in English (Thomas and Collier; 1997, 2001). The achievement gap is more pronounced when comparing the performance of EBs and their peers in regular classes (Kanno & Cromley, 2103; Harklau, Losey, & Siegal, 1999; Leki, 2007; Matsuda, 1999; Matsuda, Ortmeier-Hooper, & You, 2006; Roberge, Siegal, & Harklau, 2009). Therefore, research clearly demonstrates that U.S. educational contexts do not adequately serve this population (Harklau, 2007; Hamann, & Harklau, 2010; Suárez- Orozco, Gaytán, Bang, Pakes, O'Conner, & Rhodes, 2010; Thomas & Collier, 1997; Valdés, 2001). The common theme in this research is that EB students are failing academic classes in their postsecondary education because they are not adequately supported linguistically in high school to negotiate the increasing rigor of language and content required for tertiary

levels (Kanno & Harklau, 2012; Harklau, Losey, & Siegal, 1999). Therefore, this study emphasizes that academic solutions to educating multicultural learners should also include a broader vision to educate language teachers on how to teach writing, especially to fill wide gaps in pre-service teacher education programs that do not attend to this vital need. It also stresses the need for language instruction to be grounded in students' social and cultural worlds so that language programs attend to cultural dimensions of literacy and learning, central to the success of this population. In sum, this study demonstrates how culturally sustaining SFL praxis supports students in their literacy and writing, meeting the needs of both teachers and EB learners and writers.

The Need for a Culturally Sustaining Language Pedagogy

The findings from my pilot study and other applied research mentioned above indicated that obtaining appropriate pedagogical solutions that work both at cultural and academic levels was an issue of social justice and equity (Delpit, 2003; Shor, 1992; Suárez-Orozco, Suárez-Orozco, & Todorova, 2008). Teaching students to read and write and to be engaged in their education requires an awareness of cultural and political dimensions of pedagogy and a move away from practices that invalidate students' diverse backgrounds, histories, and identities within an educational context of "unwarranted inequities, shattered communities, [and] unfulfilled lives" (Greene, 2003, p. 37). In the next section, I describe how larger sociocultural and political factors are relevant to contextualize the challenges of teaching language to this population and for designing appropriate instructional practices for them. The example of a focal student, Juan Diego², illustrates the complexities of multicultural educational settings.

² All names of persons and places are pseudonyms.

The cultural conundrum of Juan Diego's education. Juan Diego's journey from Acatenango, the coffee-rich area of rural Guatemala, is typical of the situation of many EBs. Juan Diego worked on his family's small farm growing cardamom spice and coffee. He was a bilingual speaker before he came to my school because of his fluency in both *Canjobal*, an indigenous Guatemalan language, and Spanish. Besides schooling, Juan Diego was also required to help on the farm, doing chores like feeding and milking the cows and goats and the planting and harvesting of the crops. Speaking to Diego (personal communication), I realized that he has deep climatic and agricultural knowledge about growing cardamom and coffee and raising livestock on the farm. However, due to fickle weather combined with global trade policies that set market prices of cardamom and coffee at unfavorable levels, small farmers like Diego's family find themselves in a challenging economic situation. Unable to make ends meet on their farm, Diego and his older brother left their parents' farm in the hope of a stable job and the dream of economic prosperity in the U.S. Making the trek from Guatemala to Mexico by train, they survived the danger of being robbed and even killed by gangs in Southern Mexico that exploit defenseless immigrants from Guatemala. They crossed the U.S. border without proper documentation and somehow made it to my district in Northwest Georgia where jobs in poultry farms and the carpet industry are available. Completely cut off from the world of agriculture and his cultural background, values, history, and language, Diego hopes to learn enough English in school to find employment in the local carpet capital mills. That is his version of the American Dream.

Juan Diego's rich cultural resources and funds of knowledge that consist of varied indigenous literacy practices and skills in their native language are mostly unrecognized and invalidated in U.S. school contexts (Moll, Amanti, Neff, & Gonzalez, 2005). He is categorized as

linguistically deficient and culturally lacking (Valenzuela, 1999). I know that learning to read and write for college is an important goal for many language learners who have dreams to continue their education. However, teaching students an unfamiliar form of language use- the language of schooling- may in itself position them as subjugated learners in deficit, thus defeating the very purpose of education itself. The critical pedagogist, Lisa Delpit (2003), best expresses my predicament. Delpit identifies the students' diverse cultural and linguistic forms as intimately connected to their communities, histories, and personal identities and recognizes how teachers unwittingly devalue and invalidate them in the classroom. At the same time she is keenly aware that students "who do not have access to the politically popular dialect form in this country, that is, Standard English, are less likely to succeed economically than their peers who do" (p. 391). However, the intention of this study is not to focus on attaining standard variety of English, but in developing students' understanding that language use changes in different contexts and cultures. Access to opportunity and power also implies centering pedagogies on the heritage and contemporary practices of students and communities of color but at the same time, world honing the ability to skillfully navigate the rigor of academia. In the present multicultural and multilingual world, literacy means being adept at and negotiating diverse cultural situations and multiple ideologies, each having equal weight and value.

However, this study is very cognizant of Ladson-Billings' (1995) notion that when students of color experience academic success, it is usually "at the expense of their cultural and psychological well-being" (p. 475). When faced with an environment where students of color perceive a lack of support, Warikoo and Carter (2009) suggest that they tend to resist teachers who do not understand their multicultural worlds and reinforce cultural inequities and differences through an uncritical implementation of literacy practices. Salazar (2013) describes how

immigrant students of color have been compelled for generations to divest themselves of their linguistic, cultural, and familial resources to succeed in U.S. public schools:

I went to school with all of my treasures, including my Spanish language, Mexican culture, *familia* (family), and ways of knowing. I abandoned my treasures at the classroom door in exchange for English and the U.S. culture; consequently, my assimilation into U.S. society was agonizing. One of my earliest memories is of wishing away my dark skin; I wanted desperately to be White, and I abhorred being *la morena*, the dark-skinned girl. I came to associate whiteness with success and brownness with failure. I was overwhelmed with feelings of shame over the most essential elements of my humanness. As a result, my experience in the U.S. educational system was marked by endless struggles to preserve my humanity. (p. 121) [emphasis in original]

In their zeal to acculturate and teach American values, culturally insensitive teachers unwittingly strip students of their culture, language, history, and values, thus denying the students their humanity (Fránquiz & Salazar, 2004; Huerta, 2011, Rodriguez, 1982). Their multicultural status and low proficiency in English is framed around a discourse of deficit that relegates them to the margins of society. Feelings of inferiority are compounded by the experience of *subtractive schooling* (Valenzuela, 1999, 2004), an uncritical implementation of a discourse of deficit projected by teachers and disseminated in the curriculum (Nieto & Bode, 2008; Olsen & Jaramillo, 1999). Instead, Ladson-Billings' (1995) proposes a culturally relevant pedagogy, "a theoretical model that not only addresses student achievement but also helps students to accept and affirm their cultural identity while developing critical perspectives that challenge inequities that schools (and other institutions) perpetuate" (p. 469). Studies have

reported that when students' linguistic and cultural resources are validated in school, their academic success is positively impacted ((e.g., Cochran-Smith, 1995; Conklin, 2008; Cummins, 1996; Nieto & Bode, 2008; Valenzuela, 1999; Valdés, 2001; Yosso, Smith, Ceja, & Solorzano, 2009).

Therefore, a dual linguistic/cultural focus is central to the conceptual design of culturally sustaining SFL praxis. It rejects one-size-fits-all literacy practices, unproblematically implemented as a "reified set of basic skills devoid of social context or political implications," that marginalize the cultures, language, and histories of learners (Street, 1995, p. 79). Street emphasizes that uncritical practices do not "lift those who learn out of their socially embedded context" (p. 79), but reproduce race- and class-biased values and alienate multicultural students within binaries that limit how students learn and how literacy may live and breathe in a classroom. This dissertation asks deeper questions: What is the meaning of culturally relevant pedagogies? How does a stance that fosters cultural pluralism translate into daily actions and interactions in a classroom and what are the implications and effects on the teaching and on the academic lives of students? Paris and Alim (2014) ask educators to move beyond move beyond mere "rationalizing the need to include the linguistic, literate, and cultural practices" of students' worlds (p. 88). They raise the important question: Culturally responsive pedagogy "for what purposes and with what outcomes?" (p. 88). If the goal is to attain social change and equitable outcomes for nondominant students, the authors caution against using students' culture for assimilationist and antidemocratic monolingual/monocultural educational practices, as commonly practiced across the nation. Instead, they conceive culturally sustaining pedagogy (CSP) with an explicit goal of:

supporting multilingualism and multiculturalism in practice and perspective for students and teachers. CSP seeks to perpetuate and foster—to sustain—linguistic, literate, and cultural pluralism as part of the democratic project of schooling and as a needed response to demographic and social change. (p. 88)

This dissertation proposes that culturally sustaining SFL praxis provides students the opportunity to read and write about their lives and the burning issues that affect them. In this conception, writing implies thinking and reflecting on the ideological workings of cultural marginalization, economic exploitation, and unfair political policies. At the same time, it also involves a necessary negotiation and navigating between diverse worlds, knowledges, values, and ideologies. This study looks for a building pedagogical diversity by relating to the experiences of a broader humanity- as opposed to standardized mechanical rote learning- and embracing differences through an understanding of multiple traditions and perspectives. The goal is not a banking model of education (Freire, 1970), but the challenging of master narratives in the realization that people and communities consist of multiple histories and stories. Hearing and validating these stories is the democratic project of this study.

Therefore, culturally sustaining SFL praxis does not get students of color to write like mainstream students, but supports them in understanding how to deploy dominant modes of expression to their advantage- to reframe ideologies and problematize dominant value systems (Paris, 2012). In effect, it affords students' home cultures, language, and experiences a valid space within the daily discussions and interactions of the classroom. Framing the curriculum and written assignments in the work of exposing unfair and undemocratic values and revealing how ideologies play out in their lives provides authentic *social* purposes for writing. This is the cultural component vital for academic work that is missing in most language arts classrooms.

Culturally sustaining SFL praxis builds towards a curriculum that affords language learners authentic opportunities to rewrite deficit categorizations, in proposing more positive ways to reframe themselves, their identities, and place in the world. In sum, teaching reading and writing skills to students like Juan Diego requires cultural awareness and sensitivity to difference, besides knowledge of language use, grammatical form and meaning, and multicultural competency. In its culturally inclusive stance, culturally sustaining SFL praxis addresses important cultural aspects of language learning and is central to the pedagogical/cultural focus of this study.

Having described the challenges that my students face in their lives, I locate myself as a critical immigrant educator of color and present some common themes that I share with them. In my own experiences as an immigrant learner, I was an emergent bilingual learner myself and my experiences have shaped my pedagogy and mission and my formation as a critical educator.

The Journey of an Emergent Bilingual Educator

I describe myself as a multilingual educator of color. I was born in India, with first-hand experiences with immigration as I moved from Mumbai to Havana, Cuba, to Caracas, Venezuela, where I married and raised my two children, and then moved once again to settle in the U.S. as a teacher. Underscoring this journey are complex experiences related to negotiating geographical, cultural, and emotional dislocation that trigger questions about one's identity, location, and rightful place and relationship within a community (Holland, Lachicotte, Skinner, & Cain, 1998).

Growing up as a teen in Mumbai, India, in the 70s and 80s, I was immersed in an acute awareness of difference based on the diverse social stratifications based on caste, religion, language, culture in my home country. I am a heterosexual male, descended from a privileged

Brahmin upper caste, middle-class family, from a line of proud *Maharashtrians* (from the state of Maharashtra) who speak *Marathi*. I have well-known ancestors who work in the arts, theatre, television, and film in Mumbai. Like my native country, my home also was a house divided: culturally, linguistically, and mentally. This was because my family was a part of the 4% minority who speak English at home on a regular basis (The Ethnologue Database). English is identified with the educated upper caste, politically categorized as the dominant class (Green, 1998; Crystal, 1998). My neighbors who lived around and below my second floor 3-bedroom ‘flat’ spoke a variety of other languages: Hindi, the national language, Gujarati, Marathi, Sindhi, and Punjabi. My father married a ‘beef-eating’ Catholic girl from whom I inherited the English language. Divisions between the two linguistic and cultural worlds played out in daily interactions in my social world and neighborhood, mainly in differences in ways of being, seeing, and living across the two worlds. By the age of 10, I could converse in Marathi, Gujarati, Hindi, the languages spoken in my neighborhood, but English was my *de facto* home language. Diversity and difference were the norm in my social world.

An Immigrant Emergent Bilingual.

As a young teen in Mumbai, My lack of fluency in the native languages of India led to fewer opportunities to explore the cultural texts, literature, humor, religion, and wisdom of my country of birth. I was in many ways divorced from these funds of knowledge (Gonzalez, Moll, & Amanti, 2005). However, through my fluency in English, I was drawn to ‘other’ worlds of meanings and ways of being that opened new doors and cultural horizons of the West. Yet unaware of ‘critical’ notions of dominant culture (to which I belonged) and other privileges afforded by class, gender, and caste, I never questioned why we had ‘servants’ [sic] who were on duty all day, or why children begged on the streets, and why disregarding the poorer sections and

castes who were socially disadvantaged was the norm. It was easy to accept the stratification of society by caste, language, and class, all of which instantiated the presence of difference which advantageously located me at the top of the hierarchy. Why would I question my own normalized privileges?

What I did come to understand, however, that my English speaking background created dissonance and incompatibility in my daily interaction with the larger community and how they perceived me. Speaking or not speaking a language is not related to mere communication of messages. Language locates oneself within social, cultural, and institutional frameworks that both constrain (close) and destabilize (open) meaning making and identity positions that one may choose to accept or contest, relative to the dominant discourses of the larger community (Lewis & Del Valle, 2009). In the foreword to the novel *Kanthapura*, the Indian author Raja Rao (1974) argues:

One has to convey in a language that is not one's own, the spirit that is one's own.

One has to convey the various shades and omissions of a certain thought-movement that looks maltreated in an alien language. I used the word 'alien,' yet English is not an alien language to us. It is the language of our intellectual make-up — like Sanskrit or Persian was before — but not of our emotional make-up.

(p. v)

The divided self and the related feelings of marginality are expressed precisely by W. E. B. DuBois (1903/1961) in: "It is a peculiar sensation, this double-consciousness, this sense of always looking at one's self through the eyes of others, of measuring one's soul by the tape of the world that looks on in amused contempt and pity" (p. 16-17). Mexican author Richard Rodriguez' (1982) autobiography described similar experiences of emotional and cultural

alienation when straddling divided worlds that provoked cultural conflicts arising from speaking two languages, of his Mexican home community where he spoke Spanish and the school world of English literacy. Rodriguez argued that there is no space for home and community culture and identity at school. He believed that the only way to succeed in school and achieve the language of power is to separate from one's own home language and culture when participating in the public sphere of schooling.

Kramsch (2009b) suggests that second language learning results in a tension between the differences in the conventionally agreed upon and collectively shared ways of making meaning by members of different cultures. Language provides a deep sense of kinship and emotional identification with community. On the other hand, it can also trigger the cultural dissonance and incompatibility between 'home' and 'community' (Rodriguez, 1982) in the differing identity positions that varied cultures and languages afford. Navigating these identity positions has come to be recognized as a salient factor in language acquisition (Ellis, 1995; Norton, 2000; Pennycook, 2001).

Positioned, Written, and Described By...

After graduating college with an English major, I earned a scholarship to study film in an international film school in Cuba. Crossing the Indian Ocean was a symbolic act. I was set on a decisive course, implacable in its no-return implication, to move away from my alienated sense of past, history, and culture. I did not realize that I was also turning away from the privilege and power that my cultural location in Mumbai afforded.

In the International Film School, on the outskirts of Havana, Cuba, I shared intense social and political experiences with students from all over South and Central America, Africa, and Asia. Since I did not speak Spanish, I began another journey of language learning and its

consequent immersion into deciphering nuances of body, posture, attitude, and cultural meaning. In the dorms, I crossed paths with students from Central America, the Caribbean, and South America, and with students of indigenous Aztec, Mayan, Aymará, and Guaraní heritages. Paradoxically, sharing with students from diverse cultures gave me the distinction of being ‘an Indian’, immediately positioned as a cultural oddity and named *el indio*. The moniker has some pejorative and even racist undertones, and I was getting a taste for how history plays out its ironies in our daily social lives. I was the real *indio* who Columbus’ had hoped to conquer during his historical miscalculation five hundred years ago. Within an environment of Caribbean exuberance and festivity, I was a social and cultural outsider, being spoken for and inscribed as unprivileged without my consent.

Fluency in Spanish opened pathways into the world of Latino culture- Borges, Cardenal, Cortázar, Dario, and García-Márquez. In Cuba, I met my soon to be Venezuelan wife who also was studying film in the same school. After graduating film school, we moved to Caracas, Venezuela, where I worked for a television network making documentary films about ecological relationships of people and their natural surroundings. My work took me deep into Venezuela’s rich national parks, to the Amazon Forest in Brazil where we made a film about *garimpeiros*, miners digging for gold and diamonds, and to the Patagonia, Argentina, where we filmed a paleontologist’s search for ancient fossils. These experiences gave me a deeper glimpse into how people all over the world struggle for their cultural dignity, value, and worth. They provided me a rich perspective on the nexus between language, literacy, and identity, vital to understanding the complex nature of learning and teaching in multicultural settings.

Constructing a Conceptual Framework

After five years in Venezuela, I immigrated to the U.S. where I began my educator's journey with diverse multicultural, immigrant EB students. Fluency in English and Spanish and my experiences as an immigrant grounded my teaching practice within the understanding of the deep need of students to be validated as cultural beings formed and socialized in language in educational contexts. In my classroom, this stance translates to an acceptance of repressed and excluded knowledge and the recognition of the value of difference as a rich terrain to create alternative spaces. Without essentializing their unique situation, I share common themes with my students through our journey as second and third language learners: the engagement with issues of identity and self-definition, the search for relevance and community in the face of marginality, and issues of justice, empowerment, and agency (personal communication).

My political experiences living in Cuba and Venezuela, countries with socialist governments whose citizens struggle with economic and political complexities, have given me a multifaceted view of the political nature of social interaction, especially in the context of teaching languages. I am fortunate to have dual perspectives of language learner and teacher, capitalism and socialism, advantaged and disadvantaged, insider and outsider, and citizen and immigrant. I understand how concepts like people's rights, democracy, political representation, voice, and dialogue are highly contestable terms and need to be framed in historical contexts for them to accrue validity and worth. Democracy, representation, rights, and voice should always be qualified with the question, *for whom?* In the same way, when educators speak of critical pedagogy in a classroom full of multicultural diverse students, pedagogical objectives and instructional choices should be clearly framed and situated within specific theoretical, political, and social contexts.

The critical stance assumes that teaching is a political act. Freire and Macedo (1994) advocate teaching the word to teach children to read the world. This conception of literacy and knowledge resists an uncritical propagation and reproduction of culture (Bourdieu & Passeron, 1990) and frames knowledge claims within a lens of privilege, power and status (Giroux, 1981, 2005; Giroux & McLaren, 1994). I believe that an effective teacher must recognize the inequities and disadvantages experienced by nondominant students of color, especially in the unproblematic implementation of simplified notions of literacy and alleged best practices (McLaren, 2000). From these scholars I base my critical stance that an educator must not only possess competence in subject matter, but also assume the role of teacher activist and student advocate in the understanding that the prescribed standardized curriculum does not serve nondominant multicultural students (Giroux, 1981). This is all the more urgent in the context of high stakes testing and data-driven assessment that guides educational practice and pedagogy.

This study is my answer to Freire's (1970) call for a humanizing pedagogy rooted in social justice and a commitment to engage in critical reflection, dialogue, and social activism (Darder, 1998; Freire, 1998b; Greene, 1998; McLaren & Baltodano, 2000; McLaren & Fischman, 1998; Shor, 2000). For Freire (1998), theory and teaching practice are intimately connected whereby the teacher is both practitioner and researcher. The teacher frames a problem and designs specific actions to improve students' opportunities and achievement. The educator teaches, intervenes, and questions in a cyclical inquiry of doing and reflecting. This study proposes that students achieve a sense of self-affirmation and empowerment when their educational contexts foster opportunities for authentic meaning-making and knowledge construction. It from these experiences and insights into language learning that I see the potential

of culturally sustaining language pedagogy to frame and ground literacy instruction on the lived histories and politically charged realities of my students.

In the next sections, I detail the broad conceptual grounding of SFL and its conception of how language use changes according to context and social purpose. Then, I describe my conception of culturally sustaining SFL praxis that I implement in this study.

Systemic Functional Linguistics

In recent decades, linguists and educators have foregrounded the importance of integrating language and content instruction across the curriculum in secondary school settings (Alvermann & Moore, 1991; Lee & Spratley, 2006; Moje, 2008; Moore & Readence, 2001) and in educational contexts that support EBs (Echevarria, Vogt, & Short, 2004; Leki, Cumming, & Silva, 2006, 2008; Harklau, Losey, & Siegal, 1999; Verplaetse & Migliacci, 2010). However, Leki, Cumming, and Silva (2008) note that, “the curriculum and instructional practice has been a perplexingly overlooked and underrepresented aspect of research on L2 writing” (p. 81). Studies point out that second language (L2) teachers may be well-equipped to deal with language instruction, but lack sufficient preparation to teach the areas of content and discipline-specific academic writing and discourse frameworks (e.g., Met, 1998; Snow, 2005). This study fills this gap by chronicling my experiences as language educator teaching writing in a 10th grade sheltered language arts class.

For this purpose, I implement systemic functional linguistics (SFL) and genre-based instruction, a language teaching framework developed in Australia by M.A. K. Halliday and his followers. SFL conceives language as system of pliable choices that make meanings determined by the context and purpose of speakers and writers. It proposes that language expresses three interrelated meanings: ideational (the topic); interpersonal (speaker/listener or writer/reader

relationships); and textual (organization and coherence). Halliday (1991/2003) describes language as a system in which the lexical and grammatical categories are related to the “context of culture” and how they are specifically used in their “context of situation”. Therefore, SFL validates different ways of using language across cultures and within particular situations in those cultures. In other words, SFL is useful for teachers in supporting EB writers to analyze language use in academic discourse and texts to enable them to produce academic writing that adheres to the sociocultural norms and expectations of particular academic (or professional) genres (e.g., Christie, 1999; Christie & Derewianka, 2008; Cope & Kalantzis, 1993, 2000; Martin, 1989; 1992). The intention is make students cognizant of how people use language differently and communicate distinct meanings in distinct ways across cultures and social and academic contexts. SFL suggests that language does its work in shifting registers in genres.

Register and Genre in SFL

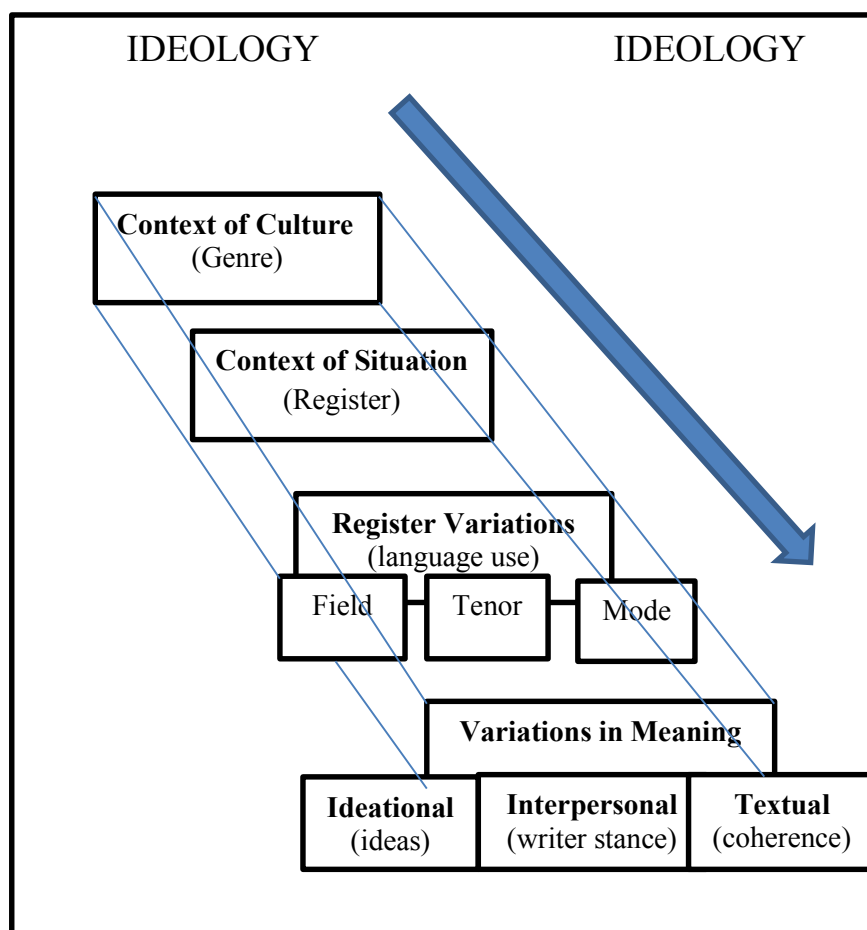
Halliday proposed a dynamic conception of language and meaning whereby language both acts upon, and is constrained by, the immediate social context and the larger culture. From an SFL perspective, meanings are expressed in different ways by language users in different contexts. For example, in educational or workplace contexts, language is used in different ways than in a school playground. Halliday suggested that shifts in register related to changes in language use and consequently variations in meaning making. Register comprised a combination of three “situational configurations of field, tenor, and mode” (Halliday & Hasan, 1989, p.39). Field expresses the social activity, tenor, the nature of social relations between participants and their statuses and roles, and mode, the type of the communication taking place and the organization of the text. Therefore, specific combinations of field, tenor, and mode are used in academic language of schooling in reading and writing tasks to construct disciplinary meanings;

these are different from the registers that students' deploy on the playground to communicate social and every day meanings. Within the notion of a culturally sustaining SFL, the classroom brought to the fore the ways that different cultures use language in different ways to express various meaning. My immediate task as educator was to point out to students how social interactional language and home and community meanings were constructed differently as compared to academic ways of language use to construct discipline-specific meanings (Christie & Maton, 2011; Shanahan & Shanahan, 2008). However, both uses of language need to be validated and encouraged. Social and academic ways of using language are determined by context and social purpose. One is not better than the other.

Halliday also proposed that people speak and communicate in generic ways that are appropriate to cultural and situational contexts. Genres, both in spoken and written modes, make use of distinct grammatical and linguistic resources and register variables to construct particular meanings (Swales, 1990). Specific disciplines use genre for specific purposes and construct meaning in particular ways (Christie & Maton, 2011; Shanahan & Shanahan, 2008). By analyzing genres the classroom may deconstruct how language is used differently in a variety of academic genres, such as narrative, exposition, or argumentation, with the goal of increasing students' awareness of how particular linguistic structures are deployed in written texts to communicate particular meanings. Such activities that link language form and meaning are be useful for practice in text analysis and can become a useful springboard for an instructional focus on the specific uses of grammar structures and contextualized lexis. SFL is a powerful tool for educators to focus on how shifting register values can change social language use into school writing or formal written discourse emphasizing how language can be strategically used to express social and political meanings (e.g., Christie, 1999; Schleppegrell, 2002, 2004). Figure

1.1 is the relationship between context of culture (genres), context of situation (register), and ideology in Halliday's SFL model:

Figure 1.1: Halliday's SFL Model of Language and Culture



Genre researchers (Swales, 1990; Hyland, 2013) propose that the workings of discipline-specific genres and the particular ways that students are expected to communicate meanings through them has become the “hidden curriculum” that is not explicitly taught to students (Christie, 2012). Christie found that language learners were “at risk” because they were unable to produce cohesive texts in social studies, mainly due to a lack of knowledge of discipline-specific language use. These studies advocate the pedagogical imperative to make explicitly visible to EB

students how texts and meanings are structured and realized “rather than relying on hit-or-miss inductive methods” (Hyland, 2013, p. 11). They point out that immigrant EBs tend to be unaware of the workings of specific genres that use language in different ways, especially in their writing.

Therefore this study implements SFL resources to make explicit the hidden curriculum of language arts writing. It will focus on one of the key objectives of the Common Core Curriculum, standards that the state of Georgia has recently adopted (see www.gadoe.org), to teach students how to construe an “objective” and “formal” tone when writing persuasive essays. In my experience working as a co-teacher in language arts classes, this important language objective has not been addressed or taught explicitly to students. On the contrary, teachers tend to encourage students to express their opinions in subjective ways in their writing, mostly appropriate to narrative forms of writing or opinion pieces and editorials. SFL, with its focus of register and genre, explicitly points out when subjective and objective ways of using language are appropriate and how they can be expressed linguistically. Within the interpersonal domain of SFL, I use Appraisal theory (Martin & Rose, 2003; Martin & White, 2005) to analyze author/audience relationships, realized by managing Attribution and Engagement options to control interpersonal meanings and develop voice and political stance (described in chapter 2).

Appraisal and Engagement options of language analyze interpersonal meanings realized by strategic use of register values of tenor to project the writer’s discursive voice and negotiate stance within multiple and often conflicting positions on an issue. These language resources expose underlying ideologies and value positions that are not overtly expressed in texts, revealing how texts are strategically used and interpreted in discursive communities (Halliday & Hasan, 1989; Martin & Rose, 2003; Swales, 1990). The next chapter describes these hidden aspects of writing: how interpersonal meanings -writer presence, authorial stance, and

author/reader relations - are strategically construed to align or disalign the reader, for or against the proposition of the text. In an SFL-informed analysis of sample texts, this study enables students to expand their linguistic repertoires to construe a muted and subdued tone and to control audience relations in genre-appropriate ways, thus using language strategically for their social and political purposes.

Therefore, this participatory action research joins the conversation on critical applications of SFL pedagogy (Burns & Hood, 1998; Harman, 2008; Harman & Simmons, 2012; Luke, 1996, 2000; Luke & Freebody, 1997; Macken-Horarik, 1998; Macken-Horarik & Rothery, 1991; Threadgold, 2003; Unsworth, 1999) to provide students with a “semiotic toolkit” to enable them to read texts and write about issues that affect their daily lives in resistant ways (Luke, 2000; Macken-Horarik, 1998). The central goal is to guide students to strategically deploy linguistic resources (engagement, attribution, and modality options) to set up particular interpersonal reader/writer relationships (tenor, writerly distance, and objectivity) in argumentation genres in schooling. The study investigates the ways that students respond to culturally sustaining SFL praxis that focuses on the control of mainstream academic registers “to read the word and [their] world” (Freire & Macedo, 1987). It examines the ways that students are able align the audience in discursive relations and to locate their voices to realize their social and political purposes while also demonstrating an awareness of genre expectations in the writing (Martin & Rose, 2003; Martin & White, 2005). In other words, the study implements culturally sustaining SFL-informed genre pedagogy to explore how a writing class for EB learners moves beyond the realm of grammar as an academic resources into an understanding of language as a resource to construe reflexive voice(s) that enact critical perspectives on their lives and place in the world.

Methods

This project is a participatory action research study (Greenwood, Whyte, & Harkavy, 1993; McTaggart, 1989; Reason & Bradbury, 2006) that chronicles how I, an immigrant educator of color, implemented culturally sustaining SFL praxis to teach writing to EBs to address cultural dimensions of literacy that are typically excluded in mainstream classrooms. The study is contextualized within the larger sociopolitical context of teaching immigrant EBs in the general location of Weavers City³ in northwest Georgia. Participatory action research (PAR) in K-12 education is a social investigative approach inspired by the critical orientation of Brazilian educator Paulo Freire (1970), committed to emancipatory and democratic outcomes with a focus on dialogical reflection and action to overcome inequitable and discriminatory ideologies and relations of power (Fals Borda & Rahman, 1991; Quigley, 2000). Kemmis & McTaggart (2003) propose recurrent stages of planning, action and reflection to take action to address a problem or to engage in a sociopolitical issue. In education, PAR calls for active involvement of community and participating researchers in all phases of the action inquiry process, from defining relevant research questions and design, actively applying resources and community-based knowledge in response to local needs, and making the results accessible and understandable to the broader community (Reason & Bradbury, 2008; Reardon, 1998).

Many researchers have delineated how students and faculty can engage in community-based participatory research and meet academic standards at the same time (Herr and Anderson, 2005; Kemmis and McTaggart, 2003; McNiff and Whitehead, 2006; Stringer, 2007). The methodology of this study assumes the guiding principles of PAR: it is democratic in enabling the voice(s) of all participants; equitable, as it acknowledges the focal students' worth; liberating,

³ All names of persons and places in this study are pseudonyms.

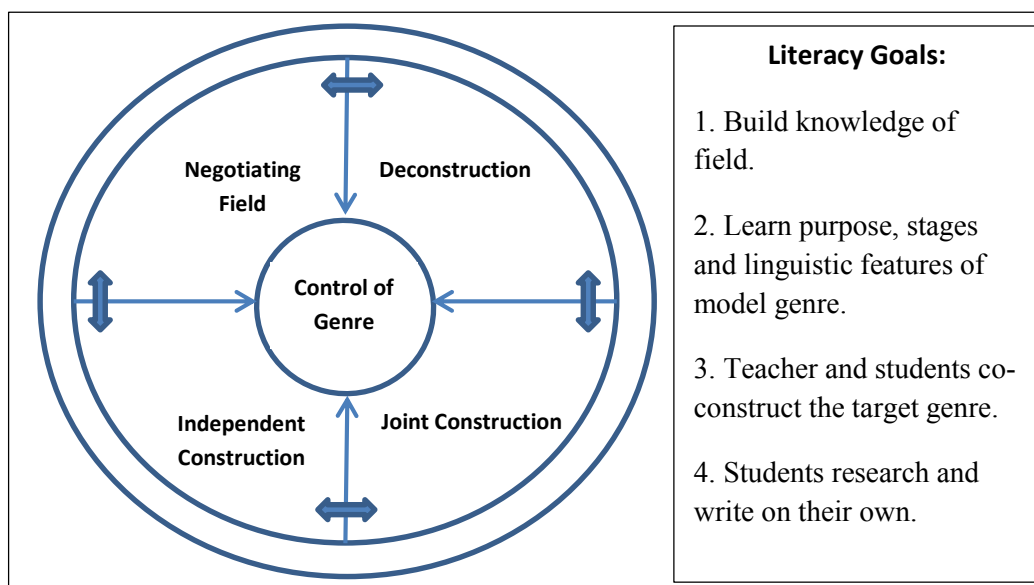
in that it supports education as a means to be freed from oppressive, debilitating conditions; and life-enhancing, in its goal to realize students' full human potential (Stringer, 2007). Most important, the primary aim of this study concurs with PAR in seeking to improve teaching practice grounded in collective experience and local knowledge "to address issues of significance concerning the flourishing of human persons, their communities, and the wider ecology in which we participate" (Reason & Bradbury, 2006, p. xxii).

PAR and SFL

The methodology of this study is framed around the teaching cycle developed by in the context of the Write it Write (WIR) Disadvantaged Schools Program in Sydney, Australia (Rothery, 1996). The program emphasized building student and teacher knowledge of the expository genres that were not focused in the primary and secondary schools of Sydney. Rothery took the notion of 'guidance through interaction in the context of shared experience', based on sociocultural perspectives on language as a mediating tool for literacy (Vygotsky, 1978), to provide students with explicit "scaffolding" (Mercer 1994, 1995) in the control and use of the target genre. Both PAR and the teaching cycle are grounded in recurrent cycles of dialogical action and reflection (Rothery, 1998) comprising of three stages: 1) Deconstruction, 2) Joint Construction, and 3) Independent Construction to scaffold the instruction. In the study, the three phases were divided over 14 weeks from January to May 2013, with interruptions due to winter break, spring break, ACCESS testing, and Graduation Tests and End of Course Tests in May. In the first phase, I deconstructed specific linguistic patterns and linked how these constructed specialized meanings. We analyzed sample essays and built knowledge of Field (building student knowledge of subject). In the Joint Construction phase students produced written work that was jointly constructed by both teacher and students. In the Independent

Construction phase students applied the knowledge of the function of grammar and language learned during the unit to write an independent persuasive essay. The stages of the cycle are shown in Figure 1.2 below:

Figure 1.2: Rothery's (1996) Teaching Cycle



The writing unit focused on lexicogrammar and structure, supporting students in narrative genres such as Historical Recount and then progressively transitioned to writing factual genres such as Exposition and Discussion. In the framework of the teaching cycle, Rothery claimed that novice student writers can be apprenticed into understanding contextualized genre instruction and language use by more expert members of that culture (e.g. Christie and Derewianka 2008).

The class met during the last block of the day for ninety minutes daily for instruction in reading and writing through mini-lessons on text analysis and writing workshops supported with one-on-one conferences with students. The focus was on argumentative writing, specifically targeting instruction to expand students' linguistic resources through an understanding of the social purpose and stages of expository genres like Exposition and the more complex Discussion

genre. The goal was to guide students in constructing interpersonal meanings by making key language choices to control writer/audience engagement and tenor aspects appropriate to the genre.

The qualitative data collection process began in January through the end May 2013. During this period, I collected the following data: observational field notes, informal interviews with the focal students, transcripts of audio recordings of class, written texts of student writing, student interviews, and artefacts related to student achievement (ACCESS scores, academic transcripts, and assessments). I observed class and student interactions, interviewed, conferenced with students, and made field notes on these events. I audio-taped 45 hours of class interactions and transcribed the audio recordings. Throughout the process, I collected samples of student written texts to keep a track of their progress and possible improvement in their writing. According to PAR methods, the designing and adapting the writing instruction to respond to dynamic and fluid needs of the students is represented in field notes that reflect an on-going dialogue of theory, praxis, and reflection, triangulated with student feedback from data from interviews and conferences. I conducted two semi-structured interviews sessions, the first in January for student background and then in May after the final stage of writing was complete.

To analyze how students responded to the SFL instruction, the analysis focuses on Appraisal theory (Martin, 2000; Martin & White, 2005; White, 2000, 2003) to assess how students were able to deploy interpersonal resources (Engagement and Attribution) in constructing interactional and evaluative meanings. The analysis also examines the generic organization of students' texts (stages, Macro-Theme, Hyper-Theme, Theme/Rheme flow) and their use of nominalization to express and structure ideas.

The dialogic and cultural aspects of a multicultural classroom are captured in a discourse analysis of sample transcripts (Bloome, Carter, Christian, Otto, & Shuart-Faris, 2005; Fairclough, 1989; Van Dijk, 1999) of on-going relevant interactions between students and teachers to gain a nuanced view of the classroom environment and the implementation of culturally sustaining SFL praxis. Discourse analysis aims to systematically explore often opaque relationships between discursive practices, texts, and events and wider social and cultural structures, relations, and processes (Fairclough, 1989, 2003). The interactions in the classroom represent how students' cultural funds of knowledge play a central role of building blocks to scaffold literacy and learning in the classroom focusing on how social relations, identity, knowledge, and power are constructed through written and verbal texts in discursive communities like the classroom, the media, and the outside world (Luke, 1997). The conversations reveal underlying dominant ideologies, hidden agendas, and motives from diverse perspectives (students, teacher, and community) revealing how we perpetuate inequitable power relations within interpersonal and intercultural relations (Fairclough, 1989, 2003). The analysis draws attention to how the class is a microcosm of the outside world as the culturally sustaining pedagogy bring these issues to the fore through students' understandings and experiences of social inequities and non-democratic practices in the hope of spurring corrective actions (Fairclough, 1993). The discussions emphasize how dialogue itself is a contested and complex terrain in the context of the project of legitimizing plurality and validating diverse points of view (Burbles, 2006; Ellsworth, 1989; Jones, 1999). Thus, a combination of discourse analysis of key verbal interactions and Appraisal analysis of the students' written texts, focusing on the Engagement system, reveal how the four focal students used language to negotiate the

sociocultural and political issues that resonated in the classroom and the ways that these critical perspectives were expressed in their writing.

Research Questions

With these overall goals in mind, this multidisciplinary participant action research study investigates how students draw upon classroom texts, literary discussions, and activities related to writing to accomplish their social and academic purposes during a unit on persuasive writing. The two research questions that guide the study are described below:

1. In what ways does culturally sustaining systemic functional linguistics praxis support or constrain focal emergent bilinguals in the writing of persuasive essays in a secondary sheltered language arts classroom?
2. What lessons does this study offer in designing and implementing writing instruction for immigrant EBs in multicultural settings?

Significance of the Study

The study is significant at two interrelated levels – sociocultural and pedagogical. It responds to narrow and uncritical notions of literacy that underscore the current drive towards standardized high-stakes testing and data-driven policies that hold both teachers and students accountable based on their performance on standardized tests (Ravitch, 2013). Such practices disregard the complex sociocultural and political factors that impact students’ achievement and progress in schools. The study rejects what Street (1984, 1993) called “autonomous” and “ideological” models of literacy and instead seeks to privilege “situated meanings” in social, cultural, and institutional relationships over mechanical skills (Lave & Wenger, 1991; Rogoff, 1990; Wertsch, 1991) for more equitable and democratic outcomes (Gee, 1996). It draws on the work of critical scholars like Freire (1970) who proposed that knowledge should be historically

contextualized and dialogically constructed in inclusive ways that allow legitimate space for students' histories and validate their cultural identities. This interdisciplinary action research study on teaching writing in multicultural settings, seeks to understand from a researcher and practitioner perspective, the ways in which writing pedagogy that views writing as a socially and culturally embedded practice can be designed and delivered to students, while also attending to the requirements of a standards-driven educational environment. Hinkel's (2010) review of second language writing research points to the need for intensive and extensive instruction in practically all aspects of constructing discourse and text construction. She adds that empirical and practical validation of instruction on "what L2 writers need to learn, what they should be able to do, and how L2 writing can be efficaciously taught is conspicuously lacking" (p. 535). Leki, Cumming, and Silva (2008) who have reviewed EB writing also note that "the curriculum and instructional practice has been a perplexingly overlooked and underrepresented aspect of research on L2 writing" (p. 81). Recognizing that EBs are in a developing stage in their language proficiency, I believe that curriculum designs and writing programs need to find practical and functional ways to support EB learners' writing capacity instead of avoiding the challenge altogether. There is a pressing need to find well-developed language writing programs that begin at EB students' proficiency and progressively builds towards supporting them in expressing more complex ideas and apprenticing them into controlling and deploying a wide variety of linguistic resources in different writing contexts. This study fills this gap in the literature, implementing culturally sustaining SFL praxis, with a specific focus on supporting EBs in formulating an author's voice and stance in their writing.

At a pedagogical level, the study reaffirms SFL's original commitment to provide disadvantaged learners access to 'genres of power' (Cope & Kalantzis, 1993; Halliday & Hasan,

1980/1989). Given current U.S. demographic shifts toward a majority multilingual, multicultural society of color (Garcia & Cuellar, 2006; Smelser, Wilson, & Mitchell, 2001; Wang, 2013) embedded in an ever more globalized world, Paris and Alim (2014) suggest that negotiating diverse contexts with ease are the skills, knowledges, and ways of being needed for success in a future. This study concurs with the authors' vision of a world in which we can no longer assume that "the White, middle-class linguistic, literate, and cultural skills and ways of being that were considered the sole gatekeepers to the opportunity structure in the past will remain so as our society changes" (p. 89). Students with access to "genres of power" will be those that possess multicultural and linguistic flexibility. Therefore, this study looks to a future of possibility in culturally sustaining SFL praxis, not only to promote equality across racial and ethnic communities, but also to ensure access and opportunity to students living in a globalized and interconnected world.

Although SFL has made significant contributions in documenting the lexical and grammatical features of 'academic language' in general and the language of specific disciplines in particular (e.g. Coffin 2006; Halliday and Martin 1993; Schleppegrell, 2004; Unsworth 2000), discussions about academic language have often downplayed or ignored the interactional and sociocultural contexts in which students are called upon to use this language (see Cazden 1986, 2001; Gutierrez 1995; Hawkins 2004; Mehan 1979; Wells 1999). In the need to establish a multicultural and diverse frame, this study seeks to address important issues of how context affects the nature and purpose of student writing and literacy in schools. It seeks to find points of convergence in Pennycook's (1997) recognition that "language, knowledge, [and] culture form a complex tangle" (p. 266), emphasizing that the intertextual and contextual aspects of writing classrooms have the potential to transform a traditional class into a discursive community that

writes. The goal of this study, then, is to move away from a reified view of academic language instruction to a more dynamic, contextualized, and participatory view of literacy as social action. Here writing pedagogy is socially embedded in the politically charged realities of students' lives, and contextual factors take a central place in the research process that informs the instructional approach, emphasizing the relationship between language form and meaning (Christie & Macken-Horarik, 2007; Coffin, 1997; Lemke, 2002; Martin, 1992; Schleppergrell, 2004) and using language to mean (Byrnes, 2013) and are intricately connected.

In sum, the study is significant in its shift to “doing writing” that involves transitioning students into linguistic plurality and understanding that there are multiple contextualized ways of making ‘academic’ or ‘cultural’ meanings. For this purpose, a culturally sustaining SFL praxis develops students’ metalinguistic awareness of language (Halliday, 1996; Macken-Horarik, 1996; Martin, 1992; Schleppergrell & Colombi, 2002) in the view that writing has a social purpose, thus enabling them skillful linguistic and cultural flexibility (Paris, 2012, Paris & Alim, 2014) to negotiate the world in ways that affords them a sense of agency, participation, and engagement in their education.

Overview of Chapters

The first chapter introduces the main focus of the study and explains the conception of culturally sustaining SFL praxis for teaching writing to EB learners. It discusses locates EB learners within cultural and political issues surrounding multicultural educational contexts and describes the theoretical and methodological frameworks of the study.

The second chapter describes the historical development and main concepts of the systemic functional linguistics, theoretical framework of the study. It chronicles SFL praxis in Australia and in the United States and describes the notion of culturally sustaining SFL praxis.

The third chapter continues the conceptual framework to focus on Appraisal theory, specifically how Engagement and Attribution language options negotiate voice and stance in written texts and position writers and their claims in particular ideological ways.

The fourth chapter describes the research design and methodology of the dissertation. It describes the SFL argumentation writing unit design, locates the study and its participants in northwest Georgia and delineates the analytical framework of Engagement and modality for deconstructing reader/writer relations and author's tone in students' written essays.

The fifth chapter illustrates the enactment of the writing unit focusing on cultural aspects of writing pedagogy and the view of writing as a socially embedded process in students' funds of knowledge. The sixth chapter describes the three stages of deconstruction, joint construction, and independent construction focusing on modules on nominalization to construct arguments, using abstract nouns to construct arguments, and Theme/Rheme for cohesion and coherence.

The seventh chapter chronicles the enactment of modules on how to remove the I, Engagement and Attribution to locate voice. It describes the challenges of teaching writing in culturally sustaining framework and analyzes how the four focal students' responded to SFL-informed instruction. The eighth chapter describes the findings of the study when teaching writing in social dialogue and the implications of culturally sustaining SFL praxis.

CHAPTER 2

CULTURALLY SUSTAINING SFL PRAXIS FOR TEACHING WRITING

This participatory action research study conceives of SFL as a powerful framework for teaching and assessing discipline-specific literacies and genre-based pedagogy to provide disadvantaged students from nondominant communities access to the genres of power, made visible and attainable through explicit instruction (Cope & Kalantzis, 1993), and to demystify the kinds of writing that will enhance learners' postsecondary and career opportunities (Halliday & Hasan, 1989; Halliday & Matthiessen, 2004; Luke, 1994, 1996; Rothery, 1996). As our society moves to more globalized diversity and multiculturalism (Garcia & Cuellar, 2006; Smelser, Wilson, & Mitchell, 2001; Wang, 2013), my conception of a culturally sustaining SFL praxis prepares students for a purposeful linguistic and cultural flexibility to successfully negotiate an increasingly diverse and culturally interconnected world. This participatory action research study also joins the conversation on critical perspectives on SFL pedagogy (Burns & Hood, 1998; Harman, 2008; Harman & Simmons, 2012; Luke, 1996, 2000; Luke & Freebody, 1997; Macken-Horarik, 1998; Macken-Horarik & Rothery, 1991; Threadgold, 2003; Unsworth, 1999). It expands on second language writing pedagogy (Ellis, 1997; Hedgcock, 2005; Leki, Cumming, & Silva, 2008; Paltridge, 2004; Silva & Matsuda, 2001; Snow & Uccelli, 2009; Zwiers, 2007) to provide access to literacy practices and discourse resources to enable students to build a "semiotic toolkit" that opens inroads to "textual relationships of power" (Luke, 2000, p. 449).

This literature review explores SFL theory, research, and praxis in secondary school settings. Specifically, it investigates the ways that SFL can be used critically in EB settings to apprentice students in understanding how to engage with diverse attitudinal meanings in texts in an understanding that strategic language use affords various ways to position both author and reader in ideological ways (Martin & Rose, 2003; Martin & White, 2005). My study is specifically concerned with enabling EB learners in construing their social and political experiences in their writing. Students are apprenticed into deploying what SFL calls interpersonal resources to enact roles and relationships between speaker and listener and to locate their views and stance within the dialogue of voices in the text. The negotiation of social relations in a text is known as Appraisal (Martin & Rose, 2003; Martin & White, 2005), a framework that delineates how language systems express values judgments and beliefs by deploying linguistic options like Engagement, modality, and Attribution (explained in detail in the next chapter).

The main goal of this literature review is to provide key concepts in systemic functional linguistics that have been adapted by linguists and educators in their work in K-12 classrooms. The conceptual grounding of SFL is centered in the notion that how people use language is shaped by the cultural context and the social purpose of the text. This frame is central to the overall purpose of the study because multilingual flexibility does not merely mean speaking different languages, but knowing how to use the same language in different settings appropriately. The study stresses developing students' understanding of the contextual use of language.

Second, the literature review also emphasizes how SFL conceives language as a pliable set of choices strategically used to construe various discipline-specific meanings, also

determined by the context of culture. Students are apprenticed into understanding the ‘language of argumentation’ by deploying the SFL resources of appraisal (engagement and modality) to control tenor to realize rhetorical functions like writerly distance and engagement of readers (alignment and disalignment). In an appraisal analysis of model essays, they learn to construe an objective and distant tone typical of argumentation genres of schooling, as specified in the Common Core Standards for expository writing for grades 9 and 10 (www.gadoe.org).

Third, this literature review describes how other scholars have used SFL in critical ways (e.g., Burns & Hood, 1998; Harman, 2008, 2013; Luke, 1996; Martin, 1992; Martin & Rothery, 1986; Martin, 1989; Threadgold, 2003). These studies focus on SFL’s vision to provide students with a semiotic toolkit that supports strategic understandings and purposeful control of both social and mainstream academic registers to enable them “to read the word and the world” (Freire & Macedo, 1987).

This first section in this chapter delineates the main theoretical concepts of SFL that make it a powerful pedagogical and analytical tool of texts in educational contexts. The second section presents the historic development and evolution of SFL from an initial focus on genre-pedagogy to a more nuanced conception of a context dependent system of language choices to express discipline-specific literacies, content, and meaning. The third section describes the work of linguists in Sydney, Australia who developed a pedagogical cycle based on genre theory to transition students from every day to academic language registers and the work of SFL practitioners in the United States. This section will also explore the work of educators with critical perspectives on SFL pedagogy to apprentice students into an analysis of ways in which classroom textbooks work to construct disciplinary meanings combined with an analysis of the ideological positioning of the curricular knowledge (e.g., Burns & Hood, 1998; Christie &

Macken-Horarik, 2007; Harman, 2008, 2013; Harman & Simmons, 2012; Luke, 1996, 2000; Luke & Freebody, 1997; Martin & Rothery, 1986; Threadgold, 2003; Unsworth, 2000; Veel & Coffin, 1996). The fourth section focuses describes the conception of a culturally sustaining SFL praxis to develop students' metalinguistic awareness of language and linguistic and cultural flexibility (Paris, 2012, Paris & Alim, 2014). The next chapter will focus in detail on how SFL and appraisal resources may be deployed in the conception of writing as a socially embedded dialogic process in which students are apprenticed into locating their stance and voice(s) according to the requirements of the genre and the social purpose of the writing.

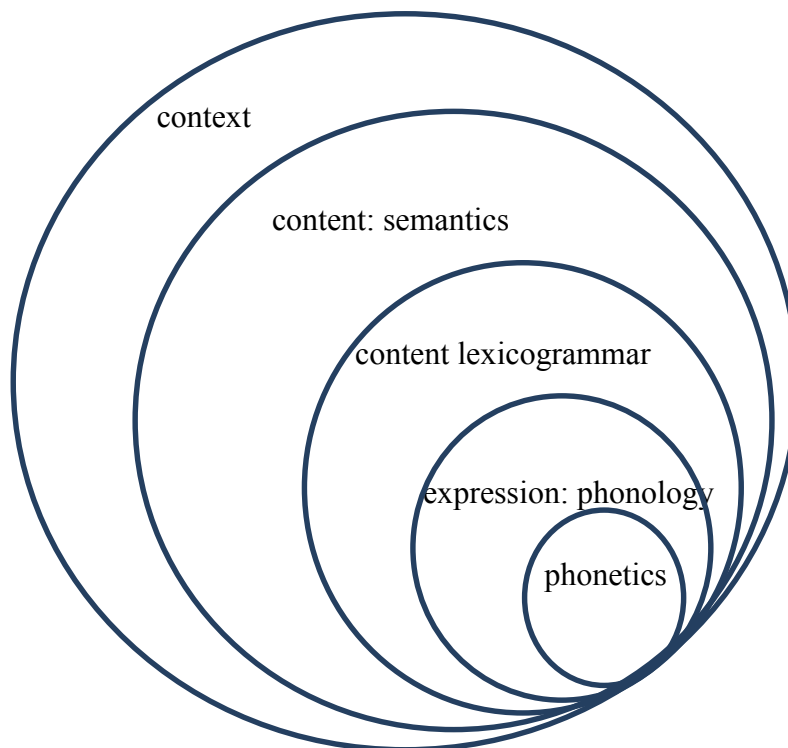
Conceptual Development of SFL

In recent decades, linguists and educators have foregrounded the importance of language in learning all content areas and have focused on literacy and language objectives in K-12 settings, specifically to support language learning in EB contexts. They have turned to systemic functional linguistics (SFL) as a framework for teaching and researching discipline-specific literacies and register-based pedagogies (e.g., Halliday & Hasan, 1989; Halliday & Matthiessen, 2004; Martin, 1992; Rothery, 1996). SFL was originally developed by the British linguist Michael Halliday (1994/2004) and then expanded upon during the last two decades through the work of many scholars in Australia (Christie, 1998, 2005; Eggins, 2004; Macken-Horarik, 1996; Hasan & Martin, 1989; Martin, 1992; Martin & Rose, 2003; Rothery, 1996; Painter, 1996), in the United States (Achugar, Schleppegrell, & Oteiza, 2007; Fang & Schleppegrell, 2008; Gebhard & Harman, 2011; Harman, 2008; Schleppergrell, 2004), and Europe (Coffin, 1997, Kress, 1993).

M.A.K. Halliday drew on previous work of linguists, Bronislaw Malinowski and J.R. Firth. Firth, professor of general linguistics in the School of Oriental and African Studies, at University College, London, was Halliday's mentor as a doctoral student in Cambridge (Lukin,

2014). From Malinowski and Firth, Halliday derived the concept of ‘context of situation’ and ‘context of culture’. Malinowski described the notion of context of culture as locating the definition of a word by placing it within its cultural context. For Halliday (1991/2003), this meant that language is a system in which the lexical items and grammatical categories are related to their context of culture; while instances of immediate and local language use are related to their context of situation. Halliday articulated each of the traditional divisions of linguistic theory – phonetic, phonological, lexical, morphological, syntactic- and treated them as the linguistic context of situation in which the text as a whole could be contextualized. Figure 2.1, adapted from Halliday & Matthiessen (2004, p. 25), explains the systematic nature of SFL and the different choices within each strata of language as embedded in context:

Figure 2.1: Systemic Language Stratification in Context



Halliday conceived the “situation as a context for language as text”, where language is a form of action to enact social relationships and social processes (p. 273). He viewed “culture as a context for language as system”, where language is a form of reflection to construct experience (p. 273). In this frame, culture provides the context in which words and grammatical systems are interpreted. In sum, Halliday suggests that language is a network of relationships contingent to the use to which it is put within specific instances of cultural contexts (Martin, 1992). This view is the theoretical basis for SFL’s dynamic conception of language and meaning, where language both acts upon, and is constrained by, the immediate social context and the larger culture.

What is ‘Systemic’ in SFL?

The organizing principle in SFL is system (rather than structure). Halliday (1991/2003) conceived learning language as acquiring language as a resource for creating meaning that he refers to as “meaning potential” (p. 274). This is language of some specific aspect of a language, like learning a second language, or the language of science or mathematics. Since language is viewed as semiotic potential, the description of language is paradigmatic, that is, it offers sets of options or choices (not conscious) for making meaning, each with an entry condition (Halliday, 2004). Choices can be charted on different levels, or strata, of language. Every linguistic act involves choice, and choices are made on many scales: the pronunciation of the word (phonology); the specific choices of lexis, group (nominal, verbal, or adverbial), and clause; a further choice between finite and non-finite clause to building logical relations between clauses, and so on. The set of choices in a particular linguistic context is called a system. For example, the choice of words used in a dinner conversation would differ from those used in an executive meeting; or nominalization would be commonly used in a scientific report but not in every day social language. Thus, a ‘systemic’ approach is one in which language use is viewed as a choice

potential, with appropriate choices “constrained by the social environment on the one hand and the functional organization of language on the other” (Halliday & Hasan, 1989, p. 9). Linguistic differences based on cultural and situational variances are realized by shifts in register.

Register: Realizing the Situation of Context

Register comprises “configuration of meanings that are typically associated with a particular situational configuration of field, tenor, and mode” (Halliday & Hasan, 1989, p.39). These three key parameters model a context of situation and how language is used within it: *field* (the social activity), *tenor* (the nature of social relations between participants, their statuses and roles), and *mode* (the type of the communication taking place and the symbolic organization of the text). The academic language of schooling in reading and writing makes different meanings from the social language students use on the playground. For example, in science students are required to learn and use technical lexis like *genetic mutation*, *molecular unit of heredity* etc. (field); deploy linguistic patterns that enact an authoritative tone to present findings (tenor); and organize findings in logical and cohesive ways (mode). A similar register would be deployed in different scientific journals that share similar configurations of field, tenor, and mode. However, in a different context of situation, one in which students are interacting in the school cafeteria, would feature a different combination of variables that construe an informal conversational register closer to everyday language use. Pointing out to students how language changes in contexts, therefore, implies showing how language choices made in any context of use are said to be choices with respect to register. Shifts in register, in turn relate to shifts in the meaning-making functions of language.

Metafunctions: Constructing Meaning

SFL theory is based on a functional view of language, whereby lexical choices realize various configurations of register to express three interrelated meanings: field as realized by *experiential* meanings (e.g., pattern of transitivity through choice of participants, processes, circumstances, and logical relations); tenor as realized by *interpersonal* meanings (e.g., pattern of mood, modality, and appraisal through choice of finites, adjuncts and adjectives); and mode as realized through *textual* meanings (e.g., patterns of Theme/Rheme sequencing and pronoun reference, see Eggins, 2004; Halliday & Matthiesen, 2004; Martin & Rose, 2003). Table 2.1 below, adapted from Schleppegrell (2004, p. 47) provides a broad description of the linguistic resources and the meanings expressed in the three metafunctions in a text:

Table 2.1: The Three Metafunctions

	Field (<i>Experiential</i>)	Tenor (<i>Interpersonal</i>)	Mode (<i>Textual</i>)
Meaning (Metafunction)	Who does what to whom?	What is the relationship of writer to reader and subject matter?	How is the text organized? What is the mode of interaction (e.g., face to face or formal academic)?
Function (realized by)	Participants Roles (nominal groups)	Mood (statements, questions, demands)	Cohesion (conjunction, pronoun reference, repetition, ellipsis)
	Processes (verbs)	Modality: degrees of certainty & obligation (modal verbs and adverbs)	Thematic organization (point of departure in clauses, linking among themes in subsequent clauses)
	Circumstantial info. (prepositional phrases, adverbials)	Appraisal (resources for evaluative and attitudinal meaning) (Martin & Rose, 2003)	Clause-combining (hypotaxis or parataxis, embedded clauses)

Texts and their Contexts

For Halliday, the relationship between author, text, situation, context and reader is not a simple one. In SFL, culture and situation are not two different things, but rather the same thing seen from two different depths of observation (Halliday, 1991/2003). Halliday suggests that “the culture is the paradigm of situation types- the total potential that lies behind each instance” (p. 283). To clarify the relationship of text and context, Lemke (1995) records the discourse of a teacher expounding on a scientific theory in a secondary class. The building of theory and its evidentiary support are realized through linguistic choices determined by the situational context of the class. However, the texts also express meanings specific to the larger context of the ‘culture of science education’. For example, talk around scientific theory is “a way of talking about a subject using particular thematic patterns” that is “reconstructed again and again in the same ways by the members of the community” (p. 125). The scientific theory builds up the “shared patterns of semantic relations” and the “thematic formations” that make up the context of culture of science education. Through progressive instances of language use in situational contexts, students learn the larger meaning potential of conducting special kinds of semiotic and cognitive work, such as building scientific claims and establishing clear links among claims, warrants and scientific evidence (Halliday & Martin, 1993). The distinct variety language or scientific register meets “the needs of scientific method and of scientific argument and theory” (Halliday, 1993, p. 84) and thus represents an instance of the meaning potential of the language of science.

SFL theorists (Halliday & Matthiessen, 2004; Halliday & Hasan, 1989) have problematized the relation of text to context by proposing a “cline of instantiation” which conceptualizes the relationship between the linguistic system (context of culture) and instances

of that system (texts) interacting with the social environment (context of situation). In this view, all languages, texts may vary systematically according the writer's choice of linguistic resources or according to the nature of the contexts in which they are used (e.g., e-mail or journal article), its cultural and political context of production, and the "distinctive ways in which individual and groups combine and commit meaning" in texts "depending on the listener/reader's subjectively determined reading position" (Martin, 2008, p. 34). Therefore, meaning within a text is contingent on the linguistic features *and* the contextualized factors that may influence the reading and meaning potential of the text. Martin (1996) describes how this can be a pressing issue when only one reading position, "namely that of mature, Anglo, middle-class subjects is valued" in English classrooms (p. 148). The notion of cline of instantiation is a nuanced view of the relationship of text and its context, allowing possibilities for language to evolve and change over time and space and for individuals to creatively expand the meaning potential of texts by adding new ways of enabling them to operate in new contexts (Martin, 2008).

This scenario is further problematized by sociologists like Bernstein (1996, 1999) who refers to the differences in the vertical and horizontal knowledge structures in school and home contexts. Bernstein suggests that vertical knowledge structures are invisible to students from non-dominant cultural contexts. He adds that this invisibility is further accentuated when the vertical knowledge structures, for example of physics or subject English, are recontextualized or diluted when relayed in everyday language that does not communicate the vertical meanings of the discipline. Therefore, though scientific meanings may be imparted through definitions and taxonomies, the vertical knowledge structures related to integrating theory into increasing abstractions, validating claims, negotiating authoritative stance and eliding agency are not acquired in horizontal knowledge structures of everyday, social interactional language.

Therefore, for Halliday, a text, written, spoken or multimodal, can be considered as both product and as process. As a product, it is a linguistic structure which can be studied. It is also a process “in the sense of a continuous process of semantic choice, a movement through the network of meaning potential, with each set of choices constituting the environment for a further set” (Halliday & Hasan, 1989, p. 10). In this sense, a text is both structured and structuring; it draws on the linguistic system but is simultaneously located in specific and potentially new social contexts. As such, all texts are “channels for socially driven changes in the language system” (Chouliaraki & Fairclough, 1999, p. 141), and all texts open up the linguistic system to new contextual possibilities.

Everyday Register and Nominalization in Academic Register

Halliday (1996) conceives the function of written language to be the “construction of an ‘objectified’ world” that is “enacted metaphorically” through its grammar (p. 353). He explains that academic language sets up taxonomies where verbs are nominalized, or transformed into nouns. The technologizing power of grammar turns events and actions (e.g., to emit) into objects (e.g., emission) is called nominalization.

In written grammar, nominalizations replace the clause as the primary meaning-producing agent. While spoken forms of language use rely on verbal groups to transmit meanings, written modes communicate and construe experience and meaning in the noun. The noun makes objects of experience, as Halliday (1996) suggests: “the written world is a world of things” (p. 353). Everyday spoken language, on the other hand, though equally complex in form (Halliday, 1996), is functional for construing commonsense knowledge in the context of everyday routine life. It organizes meanings around the verb of the clause, construing reality as a process or action.

Spoken everyday language expresses commonsense knowledge while written language expresses ‘educational’ knowledge. EB learners speak non-dominant languages at home and have different experiences of language use originating from diverse cultural backgrounds and norms from those accepted at school (Dyson, 2003; Heath, 1983; Hasan, 1996). The grammar of spoken language that they draw on for informal interaction and social purposes outside of school constructs meanings in different ways than the grammar used to construe academic language expected at school (Christie, 1998, Christie & Deriwianka, 2008; Fang & Schleppergrell, 2008).

Martin (1997) indicates that the move from commonsense knowledge (non-metaphorical) to disciplinary knowledge (metaphorical) is symbolically enacted across cultures in the progress from primary to secondary schooling and “the drift from thematically organized multidisciplinary units of work in primary school to strongly classified discipline-specific work in secondary school” (p. 30). Building on Bernstein’s vertical and horizontal knowledge structures (1996, 1999), Macken-Horarik (1996) suggests that there is a wide gap between the type of knowledge (horizontal) expressed by social everyday language registers in which learners operate outside school and those which they need to control for successful academic achievement (vertical). She adds that the recontextualizing of vertical knowledge in commonsense terms realized through everyday social language “recreate[s] community roles (with expectations of familiarity and solidarity) ...and effectively strands students in a school version of commonsense knowledge” (p. 242). In other words, when EBs deploy social language structures in academic contexts and written tasks (e.g., persuasive essays or scientific laboratory reports), they are unable to construct academic meanings being unfamiliar with the context of culture and unaware of the expectations of genre and register of the written task at hand. It is important to note that SFL-based pedagogy does not devalue the language that students bring to

school from their homes and communities, but instead legitimizes its use and function in constructing the social interactional horizontal meanings of everyday life. Framing instruction on the functionality and contextual use of language and expanding students' repertoires by deploying more metaphorical and incongruent forms, enables them to participate effectively in varied social processes and contexts (Halliday, 1996; Macken-Horarik, 1996; Martin, 1992; Schleppegrell & Colombi, 2002).

The chart below (Table 2.2) presents two texts from Christie (2012) that show differences between spoken and written registers. In the first text, a 12 year old student writes an anecdote using the spoken register (p. 76). Christie shows how this differs from the academic register of a science textbook (p. 96):

Table 2.2 Spoken versus Written Register

	Spoken Register “After the movie, I had nothing much to do, so I decided to test MY super powers. We had a mezzanine floor in our house. I climbed to the very top and it took me a while to get psyched.”	Academic Register “Organs specialized for sequential stages of food processing form the mammalian digestive system.”
Field	Lexically thin (no. of content words per clause) Clausal density (greater use of clauses) Realized in common nouns, personal pronouns, processes Event as dynamic , on-going	Lexically dense (no. of content words per clause) Less clausal density (only 1 clause) Realized in technical, abstract phenomena (abstract nouns) Event as fixed , static
Tenor	Dialogic : assumed presence of listener Subjective, personal tone	Seemingly monologic : reader unacknowledged, Objective, distant and authoritative tone
Mode	Clausal chaining with conjunctions Congruent expressions (e.g., “I climbed” is a congruent use of nominal group and verb)	Dense nominal groups in relations Incongruent expressions: Nominalization- “food processing” (verb in noun form) grammatical metaphors- “sequential” (noun in adjective form)

As illustrated in Table 2.2 above, the academic register tends to construct more technical meanings realized in dense nominal groups (e.g., organs specialized for sequential stages of food processing”), creating abstract participants (e.g., “stages of food processing”) in prepositional phrases that build dense circumstantial information (ideational function) when compared to the spoken register used in the anecdote. The shift towards abstraction and technicality sets up an objective and distant relationship between the text and the reader, conveying a seemingly monologic and authoritative tone (interpersonal function). If the above academic text were to be expressed in social everyday language, it would read as follows:

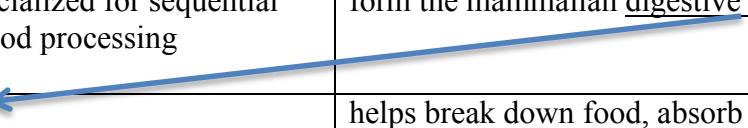
Mammals digest their food, and they do this in a series of stages in a sequence by using a number of different organs where each organ has a special role

When the same meanings are recontextualized in social language structures, they express everyday knowledge. The text deploys four clauses joined by coordinating and subordinating conjunctions (e. g., and, where) in which the meaning is realized mainly by verbs (e. g., digest, do, using, has). On the other hand, the academic text constructs scientific meanings in an authoritative tone by constructing cohesive relations between nominalized and abstract phenomena. The academic register collapses the various clauses of the spoken language into a single clause through the use of grammatical metaphor (“sequential stages) deploying incongruent language structures. For example, the verb “digest” changes to the adjective “digestive”; the prepositional phrases “in a series of stages in a sequence” change to the noun “sequential stages”; and the phrase “digest their food” becomes an abstract phenomena, “food processing” (nominalization). Converting experience into abstract nouns also sets up an authoritative and distant text/reader interpersonal relationship and helps to organize textual meanings in logical and cohesive ways through thematic progression. The new information

(Rheme) found toward the end of each clause is reinstated as the point of departure (Theme) of the very next sentence:

Table 2.3: Theme/Rheme Flow For Cohesion of Ideas

Theme (old information)	Rheme (new information)
Organs specialized for sequential stages of food processing	form the mammalian <u>digestive system</u>
<u>The system</u>	helps break down food, absorb the nutrients from the food, as well as eliminate waste



The Theme/Rheme flow creates a cohesive zig-zagging structure of meanings (Halliday & Hasan, 1989). The Rheme “the digestive system” is picked up as the nominalized Theme in the next sentence, thus building textual meaning by ‘packaging’ information and construing coherence in the unfolding text.

The control and use of abstraction and linguistic resources to express strategic academic meanings are elusive concepts for students to understand, especially if they are reluctant readers and writers or EB learners (Achugar, Schleppegrell, & Orteiza, 2004). As Christie (2012) suggests, complex grammatical functions need to be unpacked and their uses explicitly taught because the transition from primary to secondary grades:

takes young students increasingly into the realms of uncommonsense experience and knowledge, where they must come to terms, in time, with abstraction, generalization, interpretation, evaluation, and judgment, all of them involving meaning making that is increasingly abstract and free of localistic assumptions and dependencies of the kind associated with familiar commonsense experience. (p. 72)

Christie (2012) recommends pedagogy of deliberate intervention that deconstructs and models the kinds of texts types that are used most often in content areas of schooling.

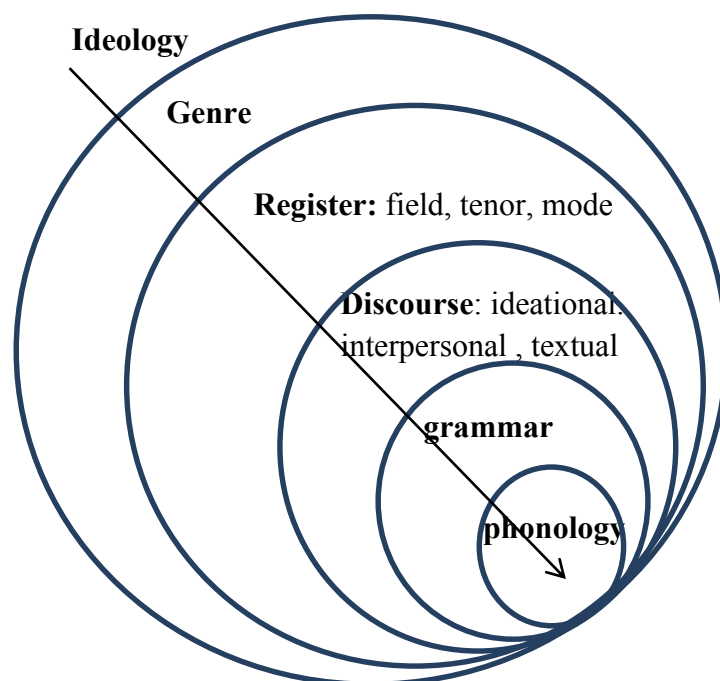
SFL: History, Research, and Praxis

The first developments of SFL theory by M.A.K. Halliday and his colleague Ruqaiya Hasan began in Great Britain in the early 1960s, in an effort to address one of the central problems in education: unequal participation in the learning experiences of working-class and middle-class children originating in differences in home literacy experiences and associated incompatible orientations to meanings (Hasan, 1996; Rose & Martin, 2012). Drawing on the work of sociolinguist Basil Bernstein (1990), Halliday found that dialects and registers of the home presented discontinuities and even conflicts with the discourses of school and had to be reconciled and even transcended (Rothery, 1996). In this first phase of SFL, Halliday developed the notion of register to describe *what people did with language in use*, as part of a social system (Christie & Martin, 2007; Halliday & Hasan, 2006). Working with Jim Martin of the Linguistics Department of the University of Sydney, Rothery conducted seven years of research to identify literacy and pedagogical practices in primary schools in the Write it Right (WIR), Disadvantaged Schools Project in Sydney, Australia. They found that students were limited to story genres with a minimal focus on expository writing, when the curriculum required that they communicate in a range of responses from personal to critical for evaluating texts (Martin & Rothery, 1984).

From the WIR experience, Martin expanded on the original conceptions of Halliday. Whereas Halliday related Context of Situation to the grammar of the clause, Martin related Context of Culture to genres, describing them as “staged, goal-oriented social processes” (Martin, 1992, p. 505). In Eggins’ (2004) words, “[w]hen we describe the staged, structured way in which people go about achieving goals using language we are describing genre” (p. 30).

Figure 2.2 below illustrates Martin’s conception of context realized in three levels or ‘strata’, of register, genre, and ideology:

Figure 2.2: Stratification of Context. Adapted from Martin & Rose (2008)



Martin placed genre as an extra cultural stratum beyond that of register and context. He proposed that since culture is defined by its genres, mapping school culture implied mapping its genres. In addition, he proposed that configurations of register (field, tenor, and mode) that set up socially and culturally accepted generic ways of communication are infused with ideology that “differentiat[ed] social subjects in hierarchies of power” (2008, p. 19). Therefore, closing the gap between students’ primary discourses (Gee, 1996) and the “genres of power” of institutional contexts (e.g., discussion, report, explanation, and so on) entailed developing ‘Knowledge about Language’ (KAL) to allow access to higher education for non-dominant and underprivileged students (Martin, 2006).

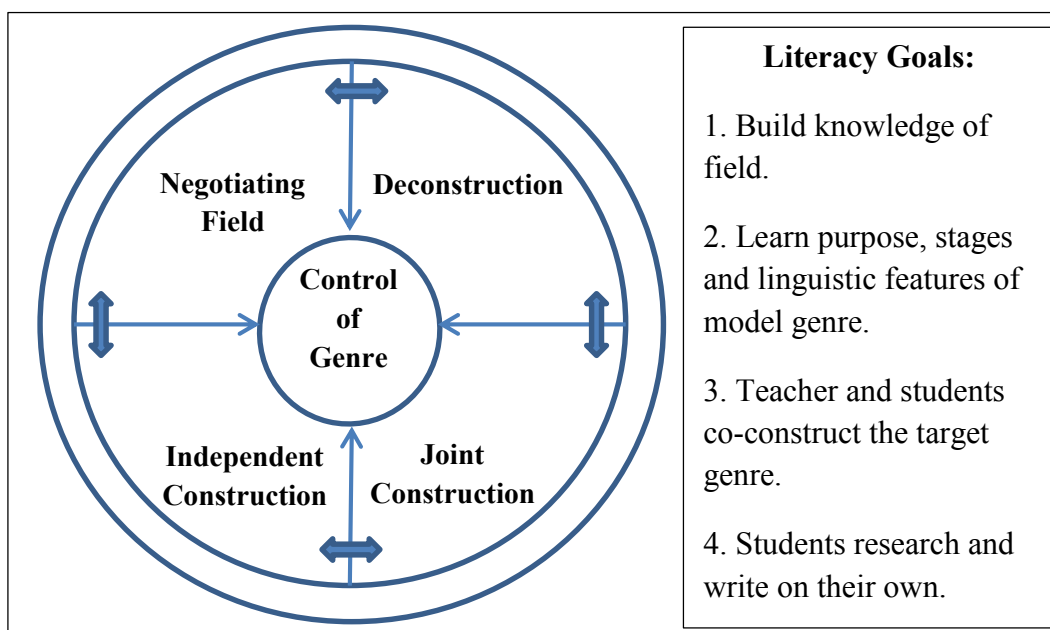
In the WIR Project, Martin and Rothery examined register shifts in genres across subject areas to build a classification of ‘foundation’ genres of school (e.g., procedure, report, explanation, exposition and discussion) (Martin & Rothery, 1980, 1981, 1984). Their taxonomy divides texts into three broad genre families according to their primary purpose (engaging, informing, or evaluating) that shape its staging and the family of genres to which they belong. Building on the work of WIR, SFL-based models were then developed in order to help teachers plan and deliver classes to help evaluate student progress in content areas like science (Lemke, 1995; Veel, 1997); mathematics (Veel, 1999); school history (Coffin, 1996); secondary English (Macken-Horarik, 1996). At the same time, SFL researchers extended its scope to multimodal genres in areas like visual images in print media (Kress & van Leeuwen, 1996) and news genres (Iedema, Feez, & White, 1994).

Martin’s genre-pedagogy of The Sydney School was originally an effort to address systemic inequalities (Cope & Kalantzis, 1993). Martin (1989) proposed that to erase and challenge the latent ideology of discriminatory practices (Street, 1993), “children need to be taught the writing of power as early as possible...to understand and challenge the world in which we live” (p. 61). For example, certain genres like analytical and hortatory expository genres use language in specific ways to build arguments and logical reasoning “to persuade the reader that the Thesis is well formulated...[and] to do what the Thesis recommends” (1989, p. 17). However critics claimed that a mere focus on formalistic and prescriptive grammar without the critical dimensions of the Sydney School’s approach did nothing more than perpetuate the hegemonic textual practices of school and industry (e.g. Cope and Kalantzis, 1993; Luke, 1996). The pedagogy developed for schools by WIR, therefore, needed to emphasize learning *through* language much more than learning *about* language (Veel, 2006).

The Sydney Genre Teaching Cycle

The teaching cycle evolved in the context of the WIR Disadvantaged Schools Program in Sydney's Metropolitan East Region with a focus on building student and teacher knowledge of the expository genres that were typically excluded from the language curriculum of the primary and secondary schools of Sydney (Rothery, 1996). Rothery took the notion of guidance through interaction in the context of shared experience, based on sociocultural perspectives on language as a mediating tool for literacy (Vygotsky, 1978), to provide students with explicit "scaffolding" (Mercer 1994, 1995) in the control and use of the target genre. It features four main phases of activity, named Negotiating the Field, Deconstruction, Joint Construction and Independent Construction. The stages of the cycle are shown in Figure 2.3 below:

Figure 2.3 Rothery's (1996) Teaching Cycle



With a focus on lexicogrammar and texture, Rothery (1996) demonstrated that the teaching cycle framework supported students in writing factual genres such as Report and Exposition, which had been traditionally considered to be beyond the abilities of primary students. The claim is that through enacting the genres that comprise schooling, students as novice members of a cultural group are apprenticed into construing the world in ways similar to the more expert members of that culture (e.g. Christie and Derewianka 2008).

However, critiques of genre pedagogy (see Cope & Kalantzis, 1993; Freedman, 1993; Kamler, 1994; Luke, 1994, 1996) expressed concerns that educators were merely focusing on mechanical and decontextualized formal grammar skills and thus were implicated in reproducing social stratifications and inequalities with such uncritical practices. In a study of a 7th grade English class in Queensland, Australia, Lankshear and Knobel (2000) showed how teachers used photocopied examples of a particular genre from ‘pro forma books’ and modeled only the main structural features of the stages of the genre (e.g., orientation, conflict, resolution, and coda) to the class using an overhead projector. The lesson on genre lasted only an hour. Based on such facile and decontextualized implementations of SFL, Luke (1994) recommended that teachers:

take up the issues of textual access and power, and engage [students] in matters of pedagogical variance and differences across cultures [and classes]. Without such analyses, genre risks becoming simply a new “unit” of psychological skill, individual competence or cultural virtue. (p. x–xi)

In the context of the education of working-class, migrant and Aboriginal children, Luke (1993) also warned against prevalent process writing approaches (Graves, 1983) and ‘child-centered’ pedagogies:¹

¹ These include but are not limited to cooperative learning (Guillies & Ashman, 2003; Sharan, 1990) collaborative learning (O’Donnell, Hmelo-Silver & Erkens, 2005); problem-based or inquiry learning

that disregard children's cultural and linguistic resources and set out to assimilate them into the fictions of mainstream culture... approaches that appear to "value" differences but in so doing leave social relations of inequity fundamentally unquestioned. (p. vii)

Cope & Kalantzis (1993) who also researched the Sydney School approach agreed that "learning new genres gives one the potential to join new realms of social activity and social power" (p. 7). However, they too emphasized that students from historically marginalized groups needed explicit teaching about "the ways in which the 'hows' of text structure produce the 'whys' of social effect" (p. 8.). Other researchers in the genre debate (e.g., see Kamler, 1994; Freedman, 1993) disagreed with the notion of teaching genres explicitly claiming that "the accomplishment of school genres is achieved without either the writers or those eliciting the writing being able to articulate the sophisticated rules that underlie them" (Freedman, 1993, p. 134). The author contended that learning the genre knowledge of a particular discourse community "requires immersion into that community to respond dialogically to the appropriate cues from this context" (p. 134). Similarly, Kamler (1994) pointed out that an explicit genre approach to teaching writing does not in itself constitute a critical literacy or ensure access to genres of power and that unless it is framed within a social theory of discourse and power, genre teaching may reproduce some of the most conservative and damaging discourses in our culture.

To contextualize the WIR Project within the Australian context of literacy education in the 1990s, Lankshear (1997) quotes from the Australian Language and Literacy Policy which conceived literacy as "the ability to read and use written information, and to write appropriately

(Capon & Kuhn, 2004; Knowlton & Sharp, 2003), experiential learning (Hopkins, 1994; Wurdinger, 2005), and participant learning (Tsien & Tsui, 2007)¹

in a range of contexts...the recognition of numbers and basic mathematical signs and symbols with texts... to function effectively in society” (p. 6). In addition, process and child-centered pedagogies of the day tended to focus on rigid and individual meaning making conceptions of whole language (Cope & Kalantzis, 1993).

It was around this time that Street’s (1984, 1993) “autonomous” and “ideological” models of literacy and the “multiliteracies” of the New London Group (1996) were redefining notions of literacy as originating in social, cultural and institutional relationships. Within this frame, the new role of literacies privileged “situated meaning” in a sociocultural sense over mechanical skills (Lave & Wenger, 1991; Rogoff, 1990; Wertsch, 1991) and located it within social productions that distributed power unequally (Gee, 1996). Veel (1996) affirms that the work of the WIR Project “open[ed] dialogue with educational sociology and literacy learning and contributed rigorous and practical models for researchers and practitioners in the classroom” (p. 66). Responding to the changing landscape of literacy in education, Cope and Kalantzis (1993) added a critical link to the teaching cycle to raise questions of sociocultural meanings implicit in texts: what meanings *are*, where meanings come *from*, *how* meanings get fixed, and *what* authorizes particular meanings (Gee, 1996).

To find resolution to the genre debate, Kamberelis (1999) called for “a productive common ground between the institutionalized culture of school and the various cultures of the students served by schools” (p. 6). He proposed that “both knowledge and genres are historically constituted and politically motivated” and that “for children to grasp new knowledge they need to have control over the written genres in which such knowledge is typically packaged” (p. 6). He acknowledged that genre learning is a complex, contingent, and emergent process of differentiation and integration, and thus would need to be analyzed and taught more or less

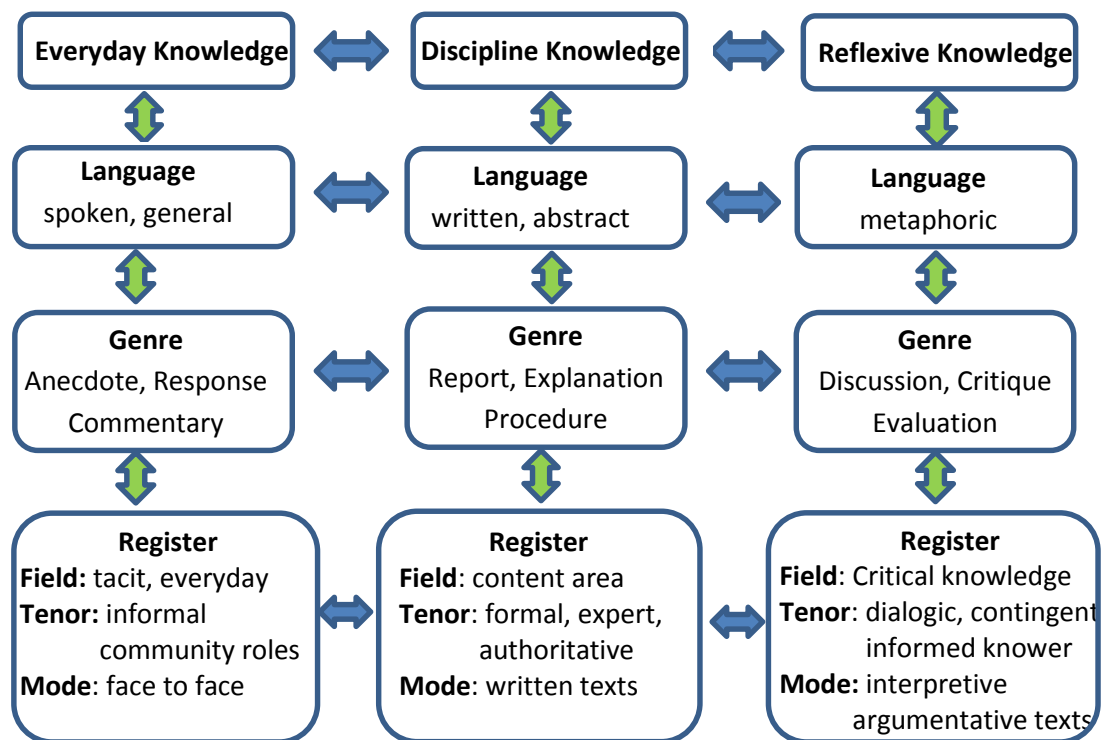
explicitly, although the precise nature of such analysis teaching would remain locally and culturally contingent (Luke, 1994). The following section will describe how SFL theorists and researchers responded to these challenges in theoretical and practical ways in supporting EBs to gain access to the specialized disciplinary knowledge of the content areas (see Rose & Martin, 2012).

Shunting through Everyday, Specialized, and Reflexive Knowledge

Examining genre pedagogy from a learners' perspective, Macken-Horarik (1998) believed that many students were stranded within "personalist" and often "idiosyncratic" interpretations without the tools for more "resistant reading" of texts (p. 77). Their use of registers and genres remained in 'everyday' domains associated with commonsense knowledge expressed in social and spoken language. Martin (1997) indicates that transitioning from primary to secondary school entails a corresponding move from commonsense knowledge (non-metaphorical) to disciplinary knowledge (metaphorical) represented in discipline specific work in secondary school (p. 30) (see also, Halliday & Hasan, 1989; Hasan, 1996). Macken-Horarik's (1996) study expands on this view. She describes how teachers may acknowledge students' everyday knowledge and build on that knowledge in a recursively spiraling curriculum that shunts them through more specialized and then, reflexive "pathways to critical knowledge" (p. 247). She draws on Halliday & Matthiesen's (2004) analysis of different orientations of language use to express: common sense knowledge (tacit understandings gleaned from everyday life); discipline knowledge (relevant to specialized formal education); and critical knowledge (dialectic and reflexive learning). In this view, the teacher can support learners from common sense knowledge mediated via spoken everyday language, to specialized knowledge construed and constructed via written language, to more reflexive knowledge communicated via language

which challenges reality (p. 248). Macken-Horarik places learners on a knowledge continuum from everyday to reflexive and aligns language instruction in recursive pedagogical moves across parallel genres. The teacher mediates and supports the students as they progressively gain proficiency and control over increasingly complex genres and are able to express disciplinary meanings using appropriate registers. Figure 2.4 (adapted from Macken-Horarik, 1996, p. 246) describes the continuum of knowledge domains and the corresponding genres:

Figure 2.4: Knowledge Development Continuum



Macken-Horarik's framework draws on Vygotsky's (1978) zone of proximal development and Bruner's (1986) notion of spiral curriculum. In the first phase, students and teachers begin writing using commonsense genres that tend to utilize spoken registers of everyday social interaction (e. g., personal response, narratives, and recounts). The next step is to

introduce students to more specialized genres that deploy linguistic resources to build disciplinary meanings specific to the content area (e. g, Report and Explanation). Once students are apprenticed into how academic genres construct specialized knowledge, they are initiated into more reflexive genres (e.g., Discussion and Critique) to learn how language may be used to challenge reality and critique dominant modes of thought.

SFL Applications in the Classroom

To demonstrate how this framework may be implemented, Macken-Horarik (1996, 1998) studied a 9th grade English class that focused on the characteristics of the romance genre in both fiction and film. The English teacher was employed in a Disadvantaged School Program (DSP) urban school district (DSP is an Australian government funded education initiative). Both teacher and students were already familiar with genre-based pedagogy.

The unit began with extensive readings of stereotypical romance stories to activate students' commonsense knowledge about the features of the genre. The class analyzed the sequential staging and moves of the romance genre, and students generated four prototypical stages from the romance narratives. The students were asked to write their own romance narratives based on the formulaic plot summaries that they had constructed. Macken-Horarik emphasizes that being formulaic and mimicking semiotic strategies was useful to gain control of the genre and learn how it "packages experience" (p. 94). The class then applied the same meta-analysis to two Hollywood romances *Pretty Woman* and *Pretty in Pink*. Moving to more specialized knowledge learning, the students designed flow charts to understand the predictability of plot lines and the "semiotic constructedness" of the romance genre (p. 91). They reflected on similarities in generic structure and sequencing between the two mediums, thus expanding their repertoires into ways of reflecting on and contextualizing texts in this genre. The

next step was to transition the students to more critical (and resistant) readings in the deconstruction of the implicit and explicit cultural meanings that conformed, or were in opposition, to social contexts and tradition as expressed in the genre. The classroom teacher mediated reflexive knowledge by identifying abstract features and cultural meanings represented by the genre (e. g., young people are typically represented as ‘conformist’ in many ways, but also as ‘independent minded’ by showing disrespect for authority). He included many intertextual connections familiar to the students, thus shuttling between everyday lived experiences and higher-order cultural meanings (e. g., naturalizing the position of women as submissive and weak and dependent on men for fulfillment). The students of Arabic backgrounds discussed freely on subjectivities and contradictory experiences stemming from their cultural practice of arranged marriage and whether love really does ‘conquer all differences’. After supporting the students with an exemplar of the discussion genre, the students were guided into writing their final deconstructive essay on the role of romantic films in the continual oppression of women. The teacher mediated new learning by building on the students’ commonsense knowledge by problematizing the romance genre and using it as a launching pad to build specialized and reflexive knowledge on the romance narrative by challenging “dubious” positions and values implicit in the genre.

Hammond and Macken-Horarik (1999) conducted another study in a 10th grade biology class on the human reproductive system. The teacher activated students’ commonsense knowledge on the topic through personal experiences and student anecdotes followed by labeled diagrams and biological representations of the reproductive system and in-vitro fertilization (IVF). The class analyzed texts types and their linguistic representations of scientific knowledge (e.g., Explanation featured causal connectors that were about ‘things in action’ or processes,

rather than Report which is about ‘things in place’ or taxonomies). From there, the teacher introduced more complex and abstract topics such as genetic engineering, cloning, sex determination, and DNA fingerprinting. Having read extensively on these topics and having a scientific knowledge base, the students were able to challenge positions on issues related to reproduction technologies and the ethics of genetic engineering. As they progressed through the unit, the students transitioned from specialized academic knowledge and text types (e.g., Report, Explanation, Procedure) to more interpretive and critical domains and texts (e.g. Discussion, Critique) in both spoken and written modes. Contextualizing the knowledge within cultural frames, gave the students authentic opportunities to build on their knowledge base and understand the social purpose and meaning potential of argumentative genres like Discussion.

In another study in the WIR Project with middle school English teachers, Rothery (1996) examined the generic structure of the narrative genre and pointed out how each stage fulfilled a function (e.g., how interpersonal meanings were foregrounded in the evaluation stage and coda provided the author’s assessment of the events). But she also contextualized how the narrative genre is highly valued in educational contexts because of its vital function to transmit cultural ideologies that focus on the role and potential of the individual to shape the course of events in society. From there, they analyzed more complex texts to describe how science texts deploy language choices to keep track of the participants, processes (e. g., how cause and effect is set up), and how mode expands on meanings in the text (e. g., order and sequence of actions; use of graphs and diagrams). In the next section, I describe how language choices in texts set up entrenched logical and rational discourse that form the basis of disciplines. These content-specific perspectives are important because they shift the culture of literacy in schooling from a cognitive to a sociocultural orientation.

Disciplinary Literacy

Drawing from the sociologist Basil Bernstein (1990, 1996), SFL linguist and researchers argued that different fields “classify” and “frame” knowledge differently, with distinctive disciplinary boundaries and interdisciplinarity (Christie & Maton, 2011). At the same time, they proposed that various disciplines construct knowledge with different degrees of ‘verticality’, that is, depth of knowledge (Bernstein, 1999) to construct specific disciplinary meanings (see Christie, 1999; Christie & Maton, 2011; Shanahan & Shanahan, 2012). In the past two decades, SFL researchers have explored linguistic, rhetorical, and discourse semantic features in content areas such as social sciences, mathematics, English and science (Christie, 2002; Christie & Macken-Horarik, 2007; Coffin, 1997; Halliday & Martin, 1993; Lemke, 1990; Martin, 1989, 1992; Unsworth, 1999, 2000). Other researchers have drawn on theories of multimodality (e.g. Kress, 2003; O’Halloran, 2005) to analyze how disciplinary knowledge in school texts is represented in visual and graphic modes in the shift from “the dominance of the book to the dominance of the screen” (Kress, 2003, p. 1), highlighting the choice of mode and media in the process of knowledge construction (Jewitt, 2008).

Analyzing scientific texts and discourse in classrooms, Lemke (1990) pointed out that the register of science functionally moves away from commonsense knowledge to build hypotheses and then ‘factual’ theory by deploying passive voice, nominalization (changing verbs and adjectives to nouns), technical lexis, and processes (verbs) of abstract relation (e.g., be, have, represent) in place of verbs of material action. The scientific tenor construes “an unchanging universal realm” of formal, authoritative and undialogic semantic meanings that sets up conclusions and findings that are logical and evidence-based (p. 144). Similarly, Coffin (1997, 2006) showed how students to understand how history texts use genres like historical recount to

construct the field using active participants and processes organized along a chronological sequence (like story genres) to genres like Explanation and Discussion that nominalize events and deploy abstract participants (e.g., The Crash of 1929, The Great Depression) organized in more complex temporal and causal relationships. Evaluative lexis pass judgment on, and give value to historical processes and individuals to establish implied and embedded perspectives and ideologies that have to be ‘unpacked’ by the students.

In subject English, Martin (1989) and Macken-Horarik (in association with other SFL researchers) reveal how written assignments can be misleading for students who are unaware of the invisible expectations in assignments. For example, essay prompts eliciting student responses to literature expect a formal tenor “where personal identity as little or no role, and where generalized notions about themes and human experience is rewarded” (Christie & Macken-Horarik, 2007, p. 125). Macken-Horarik, Love, & Unsworth (2011) responded to these challenges by developing a SFL functional grammar base of ‘knowledge about language’ for both teachers and students that systematically corresponds to the increasing literacy demands from kindergarten through to year 12 in subject English (also see Christie, 1998; Christie & Derewianka, 2008). In further studies, Macken-Horarik proposed to build a toolkit that turns knowledge ‘about’ language into practical ‘know-how’ of patterns of register choices for ideational (building the exterior and interior experience of a character through certain choices of strong verbs, including saying and thinking verbs), interpersonal (engaging a reader’s empathy and aligning readers with the viewpoint of particular characters through various forms of modality and attitudinally-inflected vocabulary) and textual meanings (organizing texts coherently) in three of the key genres of English: interpretation (Macken-Horarik, 2009), narrative and argument (Macken-Horarik, Love, & Unsworth, 2011).

While SFL recognized an ‘interpersonal’ component of meaning, the model did not readily support the analysis of speaker attitudes in text. During the 1990’s, Jim Martin, David Rose, Peter White and others developed an approach to attitudinal text analysis called Appraisal Theory (see Martin, 2000, Martin & White, 2005, White, 2006). The resources of appraisal allowed learners to see how choice of wording encodes speaker’s and author’s attitudes to the entities and events in the text. Using resources of appraisal, Martin (1996) highlighted ways to ‘unpack’ the normative readings of texts and reveal alternative readings so that students may fulfill the expectations of high-stakes assessments and learn to read texts in critical ways. Martin and Rose (2003) and Martin and White (2005) expanded the semantic resources of appraisal to analyze narratives to deconstruct interpersonal relationships between characters and the reader. They present a cline of gradable resources to understand how texts evaluate people, places and things in daily experience (attitude), adjust commitment to what is evaluated (engagement) and increase or decrease the intensity of these feelings (graduation). White (2006) evaluated the reporter’s voice in journalistic discourse examining how speakers/writers construct for themselves particular persona or identity which operate interactively, while signaling value positions and ideological justifications that ‘coerce’ the reader into certain stances. Engagement resources (e.g., epistemic hedges, modality, pronoun referents for community building) significantly predicted persuasive essays’ writing quality (Uccelli, Dobbs, & Scott, 2013) and are key for students to construe an authorial voice that is credible. Supporting students in controlling resources to construe appropriate reader intersubjectivities and a subdued and distant, but also an authoritative and convincing tone in their writing is the main focus of this study and will be explained in more detail in the next chapter.

Contextualizing SFL in Educational Contexts

SFL's conception of the cline of instantiation has direct implications in the classroom. Specific disciplines use language for specific purposes and construct meaning in particular ways, and meaning is not inherent in texts, but is derived from how texts are used and interpreted in discursive communities (Halliday & Hasan, 1989; Martin & Rose, 2003). The kinds of meaning that are made in institutions of learning and working today are complex meanings that call for complex uses of language and other semiotic resources. In K-12 schooling contexts, the focus is on attaining state mandated curricular and literacy benchmarks. From an SFL perspective, this entails supporting students in understanding the purpose of the text, the disciplinary meanings that it constructs (ideational, logical, interpersonal, and textual), and the particular choices that the text uses to express those contextualized meanings. To meet these curricular demands and accomplish school-based tasks, students are required to expand their linguistic repertoires and to learn to be more precise in their linguistic formulations (Christie, 1998, 2012; Martin & Christie, 1997; Schleppergrell, 2004). Although all students face this challenge, culturally and linguistically diverse EBs are at a particular disadvantage because of their limited resources in English and their unfamiliarity with cultural contexts and consequently, the genre and register expectations of the assignments. This can have serious material and social consequences on their educational experiences in school and their career and college options after school (Callahan, 2005; Harklau, 1994, 2007; Kanno & Harklau, 2012).

In sum, for teachers and students, SFL is powerful resource in its analytical and pedagogical potential for teaching the language of various disciplines (Christie & Maton, 2011). SFL focus students on the metalanguage of subjects to describe how form realizes disciplinary meanings and has been used in educational contexts in the United States.

SFL Research and Praxis in the United States

SFL theory and praxis has seen increasing pedagogical and theoretical interest in both EB and foreign language teaching contexts in the United States (see Achugar & Carpenter 2012; Brisk & Zisselsberger, 2010; de Oliveira, 2010; Fang, 2005, 2006; Fang & Schleppergrell, 2008; Gebhard, Harman, & Seger, 2007; Gebhard, Willett, Jimenez, & Piedra, 2010; Harman, 2008, 2013; Schleppergrell, 2004, 2006; Schleppergrell, Achugar, & Oteíza, 2004; Schleppergrell & Colombi, 2002; Schleppergrell & Oliveira, 2006).

Schleppergrell (2004) and Fang & Schleppergrell (2008) characterize literacy development as a process of teaching register shifts across academic genres (response, factual, analytical) that deploy everyday language, abstract language, and metaphoric language. The authors chart the register of academic language of schooling by describing the lexical and grammatical patterns typical of disciplinary texts and genres valued in language arts, science, mathematics, and history. In response to the growing number of EBs in mainstream classrooms, Schleppergrell along with other SFL researchers, developed professional development workshops with California History teachers over several years to apprentice into applying SFL-based resources to analyze how historical texts use a wide range of lexico-grammatical and discourse-semantic features to construct ‘historical’ knowledge (e.g., causal reasoning in academic ways) (Achugar, Schleppergrell, & Oteíza, 2007; Schleppergrell, Achugar, & Oteíza, 2004). Similarly, in other studies (see Schleppergrell, Greer, & Taylor, 2008; Schleppergrell & de Oliveira, 2006) teachers were able to scaffold students through sentence chunking and reference device strategies in history texts to provide them with the resources to connect language with meaning to enable them to engage with texts that they formerly found too dense, abstract, and challenging. Close reading and deconstruction of texts enabled students to write more

effectively. At the end of the studies, the students were able to move from single paragraphs to essay writing, with advanced critical skills like logical development of evidence and analysis for historical reasoning in their writing. Both teachers and students benefited from the workshops as reflected in the significantly greater gains on the California History-Social Science test (a standardized measure) by students whose teachers had participated in the workshops, compared with those that had not (Schleppergrell, 2005).

In another active site of SFL-based research praxis, the University of Massachusetts' Masters' Program in Education partnered with local school districts to support professional development of teachers to encourage critical educational reform through collaborative action research for linguistically diverse students (Gebhard & Willett, 2008; Willett & Rosenburger, 2005). In Gebhard, Demers, and Castillo-Rosenthal (2008), two first-grade teachers were apprenticed into understanding how bilinguals make intertextual connections to home language and culture in their writing. Gebhard found that working with EBs and analyzing samples of their work gave the teachers a deeper understanding of "how English works" and to scaffold genre structures (how to use temporal markers such as *then* or *in the end* to help readers follow the plot line of stories), and to construct cohesive and logical relations (use word *because* to show causality) to attain grade-level academic literacy. In another study, Gebhard, Harman, & Segar (2007) worked with a fifth-grade language arts teacher to support her students in genres of argumentation and business-letter writing to challenge school policies related to recess. The teacher explicitly taught differences in the register of social and everyday language and the register of argumentation and supported students' understanding of generic features such as organizational structures, syntactic patterns, and word choices to convey urgency couched in a

diplomatic but authoritative tone. SFL helped the teachers and students to become versed in ways of critically apprenticing EBs to writing and understanding in academic ways.

In a 2-year ethnographic study, Harman (2008) supported a middle school language arts teacher informed by SFL genre-based pedagogy to investigate the literary intertextual connections to literature that students and teacher used in their classroom interactions. Through analysis of patterns of transitivity, cohesion, and appraisal, Harman found that students' intertextuality (text to text, text to self, and text to world) in verbal classroom interactions positioned them as authors who freely made intertextual connections to the literary texts and discussions of the resource novels in their writing to create the "literariness" of their texts (also see Harman, 2013). Gebhard, Willett and their team of SFL researchers and scholars of the ACCELA alliance helped bilingual teachers develop meta-awareness of disciplinary genres to develop pedagogical practices that supported the EB students' academic literacy learning. Based on the ACCELA experiences, Gebhard and Harman (2011) recommend that teachers:

learn to critically unpack how academic language works in the genres they routinely ask their students to read and write in school; expand the range of linguistic choices available to students in communicating for particular purposes and audiences; and support [EBs] in using academic language to accomplish social, academic, and political work that matters to them. (p. 46)

These SFL research studies emphasize age-appropriate discipline-specific knowledge that is grounded in sociocultural literacy frameworks to enable students to achieve academic literacy through ongoing and systematic scaffolding of linguistic resources that enable students to talk, read, and write about academic texts.

To conclude, this section discussed three kinds of SFL praxis: SFL genre-based theory and practice, teaching register shifts of home and everyday language to specialized and reflexive language, and the focus on disciplinary content knowledge to teach the language of schooling. The next section will describe recent SFL work on academic literacies that explore school discourses from a critical perspective.

Critical Perspectives on SFL Genre-based Pedagogy

Every culture projects an interplay of social ideologies, identities, and power relations that work systematically to advantage some people and disadvantage others (Gee, 1996; Giroux, 1981). A critical approach to language pedagogy involves denaturalising language in order to challenge commonsense readings to identify the ideological positions of texts and to create opportunities for alternative reader viewpoints (Gee, 1992, Rothery, 1996). Recent SFL theorists advocate for a critical literacy that apprentices students in developing insights into the ways in which ideologies, identities, and power relations work in society and the ways in which language works to entrench and challenge those relations (e.g. Christie & Macken-Horarik, 2007; Humphrey, Love & Droga, 2011; Macken, Love, & Unsworth, 2011; Martin, 1996; Unsworth, 2002). Cranny-Francis (1993) deconstructed canonical texts from a feminist perspective to assert that “texts use highly coercive linguistic strategies” that discourage individuality and instead position readers within naturalized discourses of their society (e.g., patriarchal, bourgeois, ethnocentric) (p. 98). She advocated for an awareness of how genres and texts work to contest mainstream culture and articulate critical and resistant viewpoints.

However, critics caution the use of decontextualized, template-grammar instruction of genre pedagogy in Australian contexts (Freedman, 1993; Kamler, 1994; Lanskear & Knobel, 2000; Luke, 1994,1996) asserting that technical and linguistic descriptions of texts may expose

the workings of power structures, but do not necessarily redress the sociological claim of reinforcing existing privileges, inequalities, and power structures that are reproduced in schooling (Bourdieu & Passeron, 1990; Bowles & Gintis, 1976; Giroux, 1981). Luke (1996) claimed that academic knowledge and genre pedagogy that teachers consider valuable, offer students the potential for social mobility within the same inequitable social structure.

Responding to these critiques, Hammond & Mary Macken-Horarik (1999) have argued that “literacy programs should at least be ‘reproductive’ in their provision of opportunities for access to the powerful discourses and genres of mainstream culture” (p. 531). They argue that not to be reproductive, in this sense, “is to be socially irresponsible by failing to provide students with opportunities to gain more equitable access to these discourses of power” (p. 531). They propose that critical literacy opens up options for students to resist or challenge the status quo if they so choose, in the ability “to read resistantly and write critically” (p. 529). Halliday (1996) also advocates that students should be ‘ideologically armed’ to defend against undemocratic and discriminatory practices and that this “defense will be effective only if it is **informed** defense” (p. 367, bold emphasis in original).

The work in the ACCELA alliance shifted the focus of language teaching from prescriptive grammar to more critical perspectives that call for a reevaluation of how local school reforms support and constrain the literacy development of EB students. These researchers proposed a system-wide dialogue for professional development towards more equitable teaching and learning outcomes for these students (Gebhard et al., 2013; Gebhard & Harman, 2011; Willett & Rosenberger, 2005). Gebhard encouraged a repositioning of EBs, not as deficit learners in subtractive educational contexts (Valenzuela, 1999), through a more nuanced understanding of the often overlooked and misrepresented resources that they bring to school

literacy practices (e.g., use of students' home language or incompatible home/school literacy practices).

SFL praxis in California have tended to focus on analysis of academic texts and disciplinary knowledge in the content areas of schooling (Fang & Schlepppegrell, 2008; Schlepppegrell, 2004; Schlepppegrell, Achugar, & Oteíza; Schlepppegrell, & Colombi, 2002). The work done in the University of Massachusetts has set the foundation for a theoretical conception of critical and reflexive pedagogy (Gebhard et al., 2013; Gebhard & Harman, 2011; Willett & Rosenberger, 2005). Although, there are very few studies focusing on critical use of SFL pedagogy in the classroom, SFL scholars in the University of Georgia have taken the lead in this area (Harman, 2008; Harman & Simmons, 2014).

In a recent study, Harman & Simmons (2014) incorporated the teaching cycle in an advanced language and composition class in a high school in Georgia to scaffold students into analyzing how particular patterns of interpersonal meaning are constructed by deploying SFL resources (e.g. appraisal, transitivity, modality). The class examined how gender, class, and race were socially constructed in Rowling's novel *Harry Potter and the Sorcerer's Stone* (1997). In the deconstruction stage, the teacher, Amber Simmons, examined how appraisal resources were deployed to influence readers' attitude, judgment, and appreciation of characters in the novel. For example, the authors describe how in the description of Harry Potter's foster parents, Rowling presents normalized views of gender roles: "Mr. Dursley hummed as he picked out his most boring tie for work and Mrs. Dursley gossiped away happily as she wrestled a screaming Dudley into his high chair" (p. 10). In the description are embedded gender ideologies of an American household in which the 'dutiful' *wife* and *mother* "happily" goes about her responsibilities of feeding the child as the father prepares for work. The class also analyzed how

descriptors (“boring” and “screaming”) and processes (“gossiped” and “wrestled”) maneuver readers’ attitudes and strategically elide the author’s presence in the negative appreciation of the characters. Amber thus scaffolded the class in a transition from everyday knowledge to reflexive knowledge accompanied with explicit linguistic descriptions of how such meanings were constructed in the text. In the joint construction stage, she helped the students in a similar appraisal analyses (see Martin & Rose, 2003; Martin & White, 2005) of the positive and negative linguistic representations of the characters. For independent construction, the students analyzed critical articles on the novel and wrote responses that challenged the claims made in the articles with supporting literacy evidence and SFL analysis of the primary text to support or refute them. Thus, Amber applied SFL resources to support students in critical reading and writing of fiction and literature that positioned them as informed and reflexive consumers of fiction. This dissertation expands on this conversation in its critical goal to use SFL in supporting the transition of students into more reflexive and resistant forms of reading and writing for academic purposes.

To sum up, this section illustrates how SFL has been applied in wide ranging texts and contexts both in and out of school. In all situations of successful use of SFL, scholars and practitioners stress the importance of providing contextual frames to ground instruction and learning for students and especially for supporting EBs, for whom both the cognitive and literacy demands in writing became increasingly complex as they progress in schooling. Without cultural contextualization, students do not have the means to interpret, challenge and reframe discourses “that seem natural in the culture” (Rothery, 1996, p. 119). The review demonstrates that control over linguistic features of genre (specialized knowledge) can be transformative for students when they are able to apply this learning to interpret “situated meanings” in sociocultural contexts.

The implication is that appropriate pedagogies offer the potential for students to be authentically engaged in instruction that responds to the possibility of negotiating their “politically charged contexts” (Pacheco, 2012, p 121) and their lived histories. Ladson-Billings (1995) proposed culturally relevant pedagogy, “a theoretical model that not only addresses student achievement but also helps students to accept and affirm their cultural identity while developing critical perspectives that challenge inequities that schools (and other institutions) perpetuate” (p. 469). To foreground sociocultural and historical issues implicitly present in any text, from narratives and science fiction, and to build on students’ everyday knowledge and support their critical perspectives, this study conceives of a culturally sustaining SFL praxis. This approach brings SFL and sociocultural pedagogies together in the view that writing to mean is a socially embedded critical and reflexive process (Byrnes, 2013).

Culturally Sustaining SFL Praxis

This study proposes that culturally sustaining SFL praxis is an effective approach to supporting literacy in EB contexts. This conception merges SFL pedagogy with findings from sociocultural research in the education of diverse EB learners (Bartolomé, 1994; Christenbury, Bomer & Smagorinsky, 2009; Fránquiz, & Salazar, 2004; Moll, Amanti, Neff, & Gonzalez, 2005) and research studies in multicultural contexts (Delpit, 1995, 1998; Dyson, 1993; Paris, 2012; Paris & Alim, 2014; Nieto, 2002; Nieto & Bode, 2008). Its central vision is grounded in Paris’ (2012) formulation of culturally sustaining pedagogy in which she rejects deficit approaches to teaching and learning where students from diverse cultures are expected to overcome the deficiencies of their particular language, culture, or literacies to learn the dominant language and cultures expected in schools. Paris recognizes the importance of validating home cultures, language, and values, but also calls for incorporating students’ linguistic, literate, and

cultural practices in meaningful ways in the classroom. This approach moves beyond mere lip-service to diversity and examines the purposes and intentions of culturally-inclusive pedagogies. In an ever-changing interconnected and globalized world in which U. S. demographics have shifted toward a majority multilingual, multicultural society of color (Garcia & Cuellar, 2006; Smelser, Wilson, & Mitchell, 2001; Wang, 2013), Paris and Alim (2014) propose that language classes should not only aspire to providing access to “genres of power” (Cope & Kalantzis, 1993), but support the formation of students capable of negotiating diverse contexts that include home, academia, and the wider community. This is a more rounded and expanded definition of literacy because it does not reify academic language and learning, and includes within its scope the ability to negotiate a plurality of domains and be familiar with their respective skills, knowledges, and ways of being as the means to access successful futures. In this vision, home values and local perspectives should be legitimized, but there is also a recognition of a future of possibility that includes more dynamic linguistic and cultural flexibility. It is toward this end that this study conceives of a culturally sustaining SFL praxis with an explicit goal of supporting multilingualism, in SFL’s understanding of how language varies according to its contextualized use, and multiculturalism in practice and perspective to support equitable and democratic outcomes in the project of schooling.

The multicultural scope of culturally sustaining SFL praxis is also influenced by Dyson’s (1993) conception of a permeable curriculum that acknowledges the complexity of the social worlds of children’s home and community and allows them to flourish in unfamiliar contexts like school. Dyson recommends that each child’s composed text enters into “an intertextual universe - a school culture- that [is] not some kind of anemic world, where words are disembedded from social contexts” (p. 23). Based on the conception of the dialogic nature of intertexts (Bakhtin,

1981, Kristeva, 1984), I propose that in the resonance of voices and texts afforded by a permeable curriculum, lays the potential for a culturally sustaining writing and learning environment in which speakers and writers borrow and expand on a community of voices, in a space that affords opportunities to measure their own positions and situate, reframe, challenge, or review them, thus expanding the domain of literacy resources in the classroom (Bloome & Egan-Robertson, 1993; Kamberelis & Scott, 1992; Lemke, 1988). The implication is that the classroom becomes receptive to different kinds of texts, ideological positions, and “counterscripts” within fluid and spontaneous interactions increasing the potential for dialogue and reflexive inquiry (Gutierrez, Rymes, & Larson, 1995; Lemke, 1988). Within this frame, all texts are ‘relevant’ and hence all interpretations and responses are equally valued as potential scaffolds for literacy and learning. From this perspective, Macken-Horarik (1998) suggests that the classroom potential for building reflexive instances of knowledge depends partly on both teacher’s and students’ ability to activate and relate to the intertexts and apply them to make sense of the literacy task. For this purpose, Macken-Horarik suggests that educators should be keenly aware of “knowing which intertexts are ‘in play’ and mediating their significance for students” (p. 77).

Guiding students through critical perspectives involves shunting between familiar and everyday experiences and drawing on, deducing from, and making more abstract and reflexive connections to them. It entails scaffolding students between lived experiences and higher-order abstractions and critical reflections that may be inferred from these experiences. Theorists on intertextuality emphasize that a critical orientation to texts (e.g., Fairclough, 1992; Threadgold, 2003), one that reveals and takes an active stance in relation to embedded social processes and ideologies, flourishes in environments that encourage and links between students worlds and

official worlds of school to situate “knowledge” and literacy within historical and critical perspectives (Dyson, 2003; Papas & Varelas, 2003). How the teacher elicits and responds to students’ evolving interactions, in which are embedded their beliefs, values, and histories, and how all participants negotiate and juxtapose their relative perspectives with respect to the intertexts that they encounter in a classroom is central to this study’s exploration and scaffolding of reflexive knowledge and critical understandings.

Drawing from Dyson and Paris, culturally sustaining SFL praxis is a vision of fostering an intertextual space in the classroom that taps into students’ homes and popular culture to elicit an ongoing social dialogue that affords students authentic purposes for reading and writing. Here, writing is composing in social dialogue, linking unofficial texts from students’ homes and community with other texts, discourses, and ideologies represented within the official domain of school (see Dyson, 2003; Fairclough, 1992; Gee, 1999; Goldman, 2004; Kamberelis & Scott, 1992; Macken-Horarik, 1998; Shuart-Faris & Bloome, 2004). Macken-Horarik suggests that the classroom environment should encourage opportunities for shunting students from everyday to reflexive knowledge domains and that SFL plays the important role of providing students with the literary tools to express their intertexts in ways that are valued in official and unofficial contexts. The task is two-fold: developing critical perspectives and providing linguistic support in expressing them in written form. Culturally sustaining SFL praxis, therefore, accrues both an interpretive (for critical reflection) and a productive (for writing) dimension. It calls for an explicit initiation into the metalanguage of everyday to specialized and reflexive genres of the content areas to scaffold EBs whose intertextualities are not closely aligned with those privileged within school learning. Through an understanding of register, genre, and contextualized language use, imparted through SFL-informed instruction, culturally sustaining SFL praxis responds to the

original intention of Halliday and Hassan - to address one of the central problems in education- unequal participation in the learning experiences of working-class and middle-class children that arose because of differences in home literacy experiences and associated incompatible orientations to meanings (Hasan, 1996; Rose & Martin, 2012).

Critical literacy in this notion of culturally sustaining SFL praxis is the capacity to apprentice children into understanding and negotiating multiple social worlds, genres and discourses by means of deploying diverse ways with words. Culturally sustaining SFL praxis apprentices students into deploying language resources strategically to express their critical views in ways that are valued and accepted in official domains or in any other context. In this sense, it points to explicit dynamic ways that texts relate to their contexts and serves as a bridge to acknowledge, incorporate, and build on students' local sociocultural and political worlds and views. Table 2.4 illustrates the links between reflexive intertextuality generated in the class and the specialized language resources that students deploy to realize and express these meanings when supported by culturally sustaining SFL praxis:

Table 2.4: Reflexive and Specialized Intertextuality

Reflexive Intertextuality	Specialized Language
<p>Students draw on relevant intertexts in new and unexpected ways as they build critical and reflexive perspectives.</p> <p>Students develop alternate views on their lives as immigrants and reframe perceptions related to EB learners</p>	<p>Students draw on institutionally relevant 'knowledge about language' to produce response texts. Students construe writer's tone, stance, and textual structure deploying Engagement and Attribution options.</p> <p>Students show an understanding of deploying shifts in register and language to express their values and ideologies in metaphoric language of genres (e.g., Exposition, Discussion) through deconstruction and joint construction.</p>

Drawing from the work of SFL researchers and practitioners, Django Paris, and Anne Haas Dyson, this study proposes that a culturally sustaining SFL praxis addresses the linguistic and cultural needs of immigrant EB writers. It conceives language as a system of linguistic and culturally-appropriate grammatical choices that can be strategically deployed to realize various disciplinary and social meanings within specific cultural and situational contexts to make meaning. Its goal is:

not to canonize academic language practices or try to replace valuable home and peer ways of using language. Rather, it aims to acknowledge and value the multiple social and linguistic worlds to which students already belong and to support them in participating and creating possible future worlds by expanding the meaning making resources available to them. (Gebhard, Harman, & Seger, 2007, p. 422)

It is in this sense that culturally sustaining SFL praxis is critical in its orientation and in its intention to provide nondominant students access and knowledge of academic and social genres and registers (e.g., Macken-Horarik, 1998; Stuart-Faris & Bloome, 2004; Threadgold, 2003).

Conclusion

This literature review describes this study's conception of culturally sustaining SFL praxis to support EB students in their writing, grounded in the work of SFL theorists and applied linguists in Australia and in the United States. It adds a sociocultural and critical orientation to the approach, drawing from Paris (2012) and Dyson (1993, 2003). It presents a systematic discussion of language as grammatically contextualized choices in text construction to support students' awareness of metalanguage, that is, of functional ways of talking and thinking about language, to facilitate critical analysis. It has described how critical literacy may be realized by implementing Rothery's teaching cycle combined with Macken-Horarik's conception of a

spiraling curriculum to scaffold students from everyday to reflexive language and knowledge. In sum, it describes culturally sustaining SFL praxis as a pedagogical approach to provide students with explicit metalanguage and specialized knowledge to critique, deconstruct and reconstruct texts and their ideologies to enable students to read and write resistantly (Macken-Horarik, 1998).

CHAPTER 3

AN APPRAISAL OF ENGAGEMENT OPTIONS

The research questions of this dissertation explore how EB students respond to the implementation of culturally sustaining SFL praxis as a linguistic and cultural scaffold to support them in developing critical perspectives and in their literacy. In incorporating students' linguistic, literate, and cultural practices in meaningful ways in the classroom, this approach views writing as a social dialogue embedded within students' politically charged realities. One of the goals of this study is to make students writing come alive in recreating the resonance of multiple voices and perspectives of this social dialogue. SFL and its Appraisal theory offer powerful analytical and pedagogical resources to support students in construing this textual dialogue with readers and locating their own particular voice(s) within this discursive conversation.

The Common Core Curriculum stipulates that students in the 9th and 10th grade are required make claims and rebuttals in an 'objective' and 'formal' tone when writing persuasively. Research has also demonstrated that, in many cases, EB students written texts are limited due to gaps in writers' language proficiencies and a restricted linguistic repertoire that significantly undermine their ability to produce high-quality texts (Hinkel, 2010). However, culturally sustaining SFL praxis rejects deficit views of EB learners' abilities and the notion that

EB learners have to overcome the deficiencies of their particular language, culture, or literacies by learning the dominant language and cultures expected in schools. Instead this study looks for pedagogical diversity by relating to the experiences of a broader humanity- as opposed to standardized mechanical rote learning- and embracing differences through an understanding of multiple traditions and perspectives. The goal is not a banking model of education (Freire, 1970) but the challenging of master narratives in the realization that people and communities consist of multiple histories and stories. Hearing and validating these stories is the democratic project of this study.

Why Appraisal?

Though SFL conceives language as a systematic and pliable range of choices that realize three interrelated domains of meanings simultaneously (ideational, interpersonal, and textual), for the purposes of this study, I focus mainly SFL's Appraisal theory to teach the control and use of register values of tenor to realize interpersonal meanings in the argumentation genre, Discussion (Rothery, 1989; Martin, 1989). Martin (1989) suggests that in the Discussion genre, the author's control over interpersonal meanings and audience relationships are key in order to establish a coherent stance which he/she is required to defend through the use of evidence, negotiation and logic. In Discussion, persuasion is the process of persuading the reader to adopt the writer's position or carry out an action. SFL scholars suggest that in writing persuasively, students are required to shunt between their understandings of their everyday worlds and their knowledge of language choices to construe these meanings (Coffin, 2000; Martin, 1989; Thompson, 2001). According to Coffin (2004), writers require a command of linguistic resources for the purpose of arguing about how the world *is*, and more importantly, deploy language to describe how the world *should be* to provoke the reader into some form of action.

Martin and Rose (2003) and Martin and White (2005) have delineated the Appraisal framework to construe the writer's propositions and perspectives while also building author/audience relationships to control and develop voice and political stance. In this study I focus on Appraisal and its Attribution and Engagement options because these resources explicitly reveal how writers locate their views and evaluations and set up appropriate relations with the readers, aligning or distancing them strategically, contingent to the social and political purpose of the writing (Martin & White, 2005). Evaluation refers to the ways in which writers dialogically engage with the issue on hand, by recognizing, criticizing or refuting contrary positions to justify their own claims. This is why, for the second phase of my study, I draw on Appraisal theory (Martin & White, 2005), which explains how writers construct an evaluative stance using the Engagement system. Engagement refers a diverse range of evaluative options by which writers adjust and negotiate the validity of their utterances and proposals (White, 2013). It provides the means for making visible the writer's rhetorical positioning in a textual conversation that opens or closes dialogic space while negotiating arguments and perspectives semantically (Hood, 2004, 2010). This study focuses on Appraisal and Engagement options because they clarify how texts deploy lexical choices to build a dialogue with the reader to build a prosody of meanings that builds from clause to clause across the text (Chang & Schleppergrell, 2011; Hood, 2004; 2006; Lemke, 1992, 1998).

Appraisal Theory

This chapter introduces key concepts in Appraisal theory (Hood, 2010; Martin, 2000; Martin & White, 2005; White, 2000, 2003, 2012) to analyze the ways that texts make lexical choices to realize interpersonal and evaluative meanings. The framework of Engagement and Attribution resources is useful to compose a textual conversation and communicate the author's

interpersonal subjectivity – the range of possible relations of status, authority, and solidarity- that language construes between the writer’s stance, the reader, and the values and positions of the text. The concepts of Engagement and Attribution described below frame the language objectives of the writing unit to apprentice students into locating their voices vis-à-vis diverse positions and voices that resonated in their writing (Chang & Schleppegrell, 2011). Christie (2002) proposes that “the success of interpersonal meaning depends largely on how writers and speakers take into account their addressees when selecting and negotiating emotional responses, judgments and valuations” (p. 16). In other words, a writer’s awareness of potential audience reactions to his/her views are key to managing author/reader relations and in construing an appropriate writerly tone to express the propositions of the text. This view echoes Bazerman’s (2004) view that how authors use other sources and voices to construct their texts “is not just a matter of which other texts you refer to, but how you use them, what you use them for, and ultimately how you position yourself as a writer to them to make your own statement” (p. 94).

In sum, this chapter details important SFL concepts taught to students to develop their linguistic repertoire in their writing of persuasive essays. It delineates linguistic options of Engagement and Attribution in Appraisal theory to expand students’ semiotic toolkit and enable them to realize interpersonal meanings like positioning their writerly stance and construing a muted and credible voice, contingent to the needs of the genre¹. The next section describes how voice and stance is conceptualized in SFL theory. This is followed by an exploration of Appraisal theory, specifically of how Engagement and Attribution options linguistically and discursively construct specialized academic knowledge of aligning and distancing readers,

¹ For a detailed discussion of objectivity and subjectivity see White’s Appraisal website (<http://www.grammatics.com/appraisal/index.html>) and Iedema, Feez, & White (1994) for media and journalistic writing.

negotiating solidarity and consensus, and construing a muted and objective tone to realize the author's social and political goals in the writing.

SFL Perspectives on Voice and Stance

The ways that writers and speakers express their opinions have long been recognized as an important feature of language and studies have conceptualized the semiotic author's stance and views in the text in many ways. Hunston and Thompson (2000) use the term 'evaluation' to refer to the writer's judgments, Hyland (1998) as 'epistemic modality', Biber and Finegan (1989) refer to the author's 'stance', and Crismore (1989) speaks of 'metadiscourse'. From an SFL perspective, the author's opinion is described in linguistic terms as 'appraisal' (Martin, 2000; Martin & Rose, 2003; Martin & White, 2005; White, 2003). SFL studies underscore the importance of stance and voice in the role it plays on the reader in negotiating meanings and agreement with interlocutors and the effect that the semiotic construction of the writer has on those readers (Christie, 2002; Chang & Schleppergrell, 2011; Hao & Humphrey, 2012; Hood, 2004, 2010).

Other SFL theorists have explored evaluative stance in media texts (White 1998), by deconstructing interpersonal linguistic configurations that construe voice roles. For example, in media reporting, White (1998) identifies voice roles according to their role in constructing different genres (i.e. reporter voice in hard news, correspondent voice in news commentary and commentator voice in editorials). Hood (2004, 2010) has identified voices roles (e. g., "observer", "critic", and "investigator") in undergraduate and graduate research. Martin (2004) examines how a news report written 10 days after 9/11 in a Hong Kong magazine negotiates community, consensus, and layered subjectivity between expatriate Americans. However, the object of this study is not limited to analyzing texts, but in supporting students in making visible

the resources available to develop their voice(s) in texts and teaching them to express their views to wider audiences in different contexts in appropriate ways.

Managing evaluative resources is crucial for students in constructing academic arguments (Snow & Uccelli, 2011; Uccelli, Dobbs, & Scott, 2013). Controlling Engagement options moves beyond traditional conceptions of teaching persuasive writing, to what Langer (2002) refers to as “deeper knowledge of the ways in which reading, writing, language, and content work together” (p. 3). Hood (2004) suggests that an important part of the apprenticeship as an undergraduate researcher and writer has to do with the complex dual task of “building solidarity with the academic discourse community while at the same time constructing differences that provide space for their own research in their academic writing” (p. 18). In the same way, writers of persuasive essays are required to show an awareness of audience expectations and pre-empt their probable and potential reactions to the author’s propositions. Within Appraisal theory, Martin and White (2005) propose that this rhetorical task is realized by Engagement and Attribution options where writers may choose to distance the proposition from the text’s internal authorial voice by attributing it to some external source. In other cases, the author has the option to attribute a value position to an external source and not agree with that proposition or even disassociate himself/herself from its intention and stance. Alternatively, a writer may choose to endorse the views expressed by the external source and be wholly in agreement with it in forceful or subdued ways, depending on the social purpose of the writing. As explained in detail below, Engagement options also provide anticipatory signals to the reader as to how he/she should be positioned vis-à-vis the referenced propositions in the text. This implies presenting various and even conflicting perspectives around an issue, “burnishing or tarnishing” these with respect to the author’s stance (Hao & Humphrey, 2012). Thus, the variety of evaluative resources

for positioning readers requires subtle control over lexical choices, especially challenging for novice EB learners and writers. In the case of argumentation, students are also required to construe authorial personas such as ‘emerging scholars’ ‘credible critic’ and manage reader/writer intersubjectivities in subdued, balanced, and formal tone, while at the same time presenting their ideas and opinions in a convincing and credible manner (Martin & White, 2005). The significance of tenor cannot be underestimated as it impacts every aspect of academic writing, especially for EBs who are unaware of these expectations for purposes of standardized tests like the new Georgia Milestone Tests (www.gadoe.org).

In sum, Engagement and Attribution options serve to support students in realizing appropriate tenor aspects in their academic writing. These language choices realize the ‘tenor’ of the relationship that texts set up between participants, entities in the text, and the reader (Eggins & Slade, 1997; Hood, 2004, 20010) and determine how writers construe their voices to project alignment/disalignment with particular ideological and social goals (Martin & White, 2005).

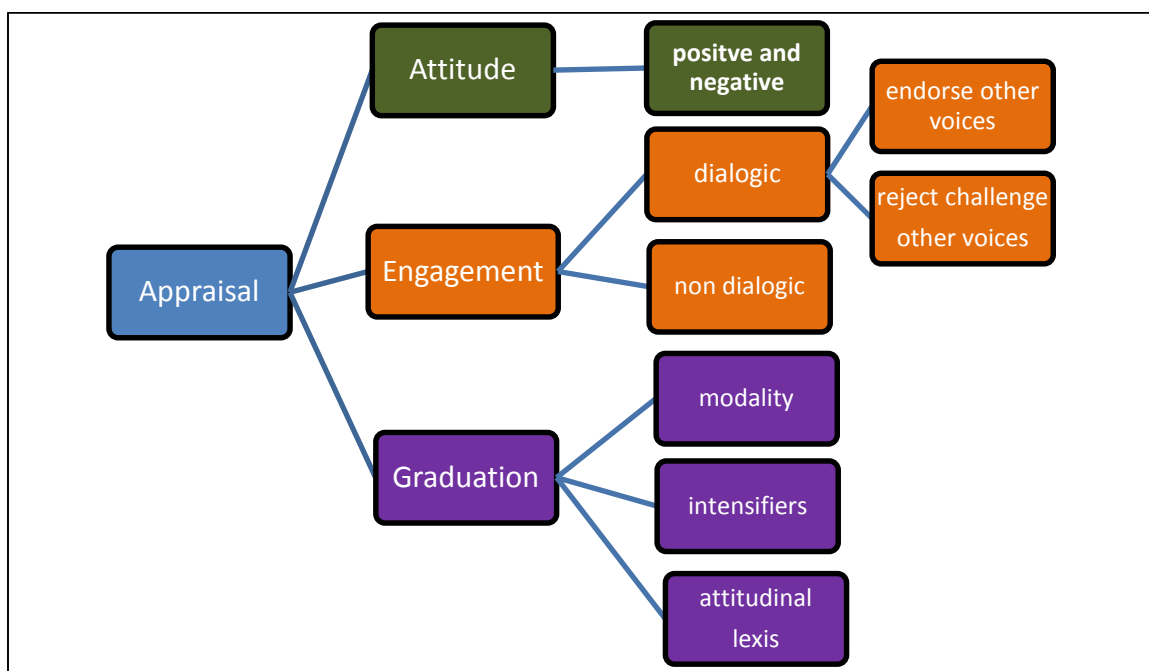
The next section highlights resources of Appraisal theory (Martin, 2000; Martin & Rose, 2003; Martin & White, 2005), focusing on Engagement and Attribution and how researchers have used appraisal as toolkit for revealing implicit world views in texts. (Macken-Horarik, 1998).

Appraisal Theory: Negotiating Voice and Stance

Appraisal is concerned with evaluation: “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” (Martin & Rose, 2003, p. 22). Appraisal resources negotiate social relationships in terms of evaluative lexical for expression (Attitude), to scale attitude, that is, the resources for strengthening and intensifying (or de-intensifying) different positions (Graduation) and to align

or distance textual voices with respect to events and entities that surround the text (Engagement) (Martin & Rose, 2003, Martin & White, 2005,). Figure 3.1 below (adapted from Martin & Rose, 2003; Martin and White, 2005) depicts the taxonomy of appraisal resources for analyzing tenor values in a text:

Fig. 3.1: Appraisal for Evaluation of Tenor



Appraisal theory makes transparent the relationship of language choices to semantic functions and analyzes the roles and attitudes taken up through interaction between participants in a text (Martin & White, 2005).

Attitude

Attitude is a subsystem of appraisal which is concerned with the ways that texts and their writers evaluate and construe feeling. Martin and White (2005) suggest that in many cases Attitude regulates the readers by aligning or distancing them from institutionalized ways of thinking and feelings about events and participants. Nominal groups, processes, and attitudinal

tokens (adverbs and adjectives) may convey both ideational meaning and interpersonal relationships construing attitudes and judgments that take readers into a world of shared community values. These include linguistic resources that convey positive (“fascinated”, “cheerful”) or and negative affect and emotions (“bored”, “anxious”) and social judgments expressed in adjectives (“talented”, “generous” or “cruel”, “unpredictable”). Thus, writers can strategically deploy appraisal resources of Attitude to build solidarity or position readers against a contrary position not supported by them. Understanding how these linguistic resources support and reject values and ideologies is an important aspect of reading critically.

Graduation

Martin and Rose (2003) and Martin & White (2005) suggest that Attitudes can be gradable on a cline of increasing and decreasing intensity. Some words are amplified by the sub-category of Force of attitudes, such as *very/really/extremely* or *best/better/good/bad/worse/worst*. In SFL terms, these adjuncts function as Intensifiers. There are several areas of meaning that involve grading of force:

Quantity	<i>all/several/more/enough</i>
Manner/degree	<i>shake frantically/uncontrollably/excitedly/amazingly</i>
Modality	<i>there must/would/might//should/can/had to</i>

Evaluations may also be graded by attitudinal lexis, or words that involve attitude within possible scaled choices:

vivacious man	<i>dull/placid/lively/vivacious</i>
torn to pieces	<i>saddened/grief stricken/torn to pieces</i>
ecstatic	<i>happy/delighted/elated/ecstatic</i>
bewildered	<i>bemused/puzzled/confused/bewildered</i>

Some lexical choices involve making something that is inherently non-gradable gradable. The resources of Graduation may *sharpen* the Focus and some *soften* it down in terms of:

quality	<i>hardcore</i> brutality/ <i>absolute</i> intensity/ <i>pure</i> perfection/ <i>real</i> patriot
quantity	<i>about</i> three years ago/ <i>exactly</i> three years ago

Many intensifiers themselves invoke attitude by sharpening or softening Focus: *amazingly* beautiful, *unusually* beautiful, *dangerously* beautiful, *breathtakingly* beautiful. These adjuncts make the writer's stance explicit and function as comments and judgments on the issue. For example one of the focal students in the study, Roberto, states that:

Many people think that all immigrants are a bad influence, but they don't always come with bad intentions.

Daniel deploys Attitude options (e. g., "*bad* influence") and Graduation intensifiers of Quantity (e. g., "many" and "all") to make his stance clear by expressing his position that immigrants may be perceived as a problem, but in reality they are not so.

My study draws mainly on one part of the Appraisal system: the Engagement options systematically outline linguistic resources to realize a range of different positioning of stance. Engagement resources point out the ways in which writers demonstrate their commitment to, disapproval of, or distance from propositions. Engagement options are used for instruction and for analysis of texts in this study. I examine how texts communicate their propositions- in monoglossic (undialogic bare assertions) or heteroglossic (dialogic assertions) ways- to reveal the extent to which the students' texts engage with alternative voices and propositions. I use the tools of the Engagement system to conduct a micro-analysis of four focal student essays to gain a better understanding of how the writers set up their stance and voice and communicate their social and political purposes in meaningful ways throughout the texts.

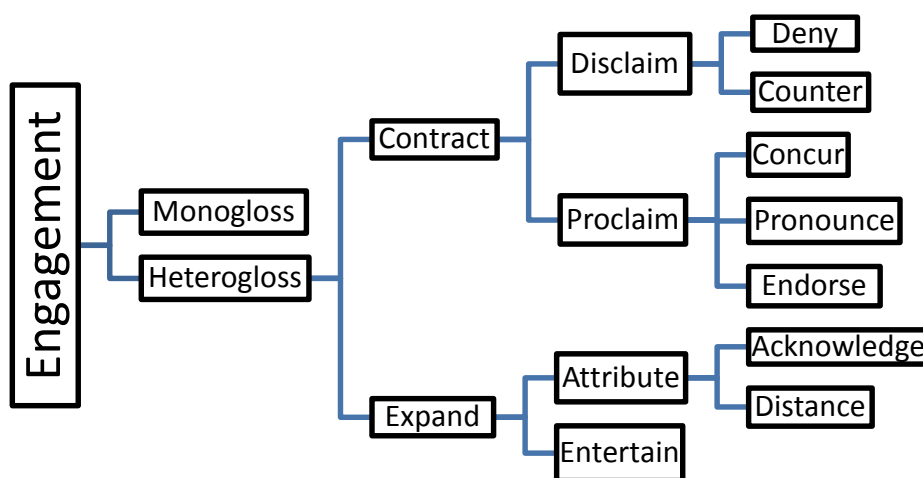
Engagement

The Engagement system, as set out in Appraisal theory, provides an understanding of how writers position themselves in texts and in relation to other voices referenced in their texts representing their discourse community. Martin and White's (2005) approach to Engagement is informed by Bakhtin's (1981) notions of heteroglossia under which all verbal communication, whether written or spoken, is dialogic (White, 2003). Bakhtin proposes that texts are intricate webs woven from voices from past texts, in on-going conversations that refer to what has been said or written before. Engagement and Attribution resources allow me to examine the dialogic prosody of voices in students' writing and how linguistic choices set up types of authorial personae, or writer's voice(s), that relate to the external positions and voices referenced in the text. Martin and White (2005) have delineated a framework of Engagement and Attribution resources that construes voice and stance and interpersonal jockeying and positioning. They propose that when "the writer's voice announces its attitudinal positions, it not only 'speaks its own mind', but simultaneously invites listeners and readers to endorse and to share with it the values, positions or normative assessments it is announcing" (p. 95). In persuasive writing, the writer's internal voice endorses the propositions and aligns the reader with them, or rejects the propositions and provides the reader with arguments to support contrary positions. It clarifies if the author supports, rejects, is neutral or undecided, with respect to the external value positions. At the same time, the text signals to the readers how it anticipates their responses to these values: "whether it can be taken for granted for this particular audience, as one which is in some way novel, problematic, or contentious, or as one which is likely to be questioned, resisted, or rejected" (Martin & White, 2005, p. 93). Within the colloquy of a convincing argument, the interpersonal cost of rejecting the writer's stance is too high for the reader. In other words,

Engagement has to do with controlling probable reader reactions, whether he/she accepts or rejects the attitudes, evaluations, and position of the author in relation to the external voices introduced in the text. When the affiliations of the author are made clear, the text seeks to negotiate solidarity and alignment/disalignment between the writer and the text's "imagined or ideal reader" (Martin & White, 2005, p. 95). In effect, Engagement resources act to "write the reader[s] into the text" and win them over to a particular viewpoint (p. 95).

Engagement analysis includes options both for including other voices or restricting the conversation of the text. Bakhtin (1981) uses the term *heterogloss* to signify the notion of allowing multiple voices in the discourse, where the source of attitude is other than the writer, and *monogloss* ('single voice) where the source is simply the author. Heteroglossic texts can be divided into two categories: whether they are dialogically expansive and make allowances for dialogically alternative positions and voices (dialogic expansion), or alternatively, dialogically contractive to challenge or restrict the scope of the exchange (dialogic contraction). Figure 3.2 provides a systematic account of how such positioning is achieved linguistically in the text:

Figure 3.2: Engagement Framework (Martin & White, 2005, p. 122)



The above taxonomy, adapted from Martin and White (2005), is directed towards identifying the particular dialogistic positioning associated with the given resources and towards describing what is at stake when one resource rather than another is employed. Along with the rhetorical meanings, I also present linguistic resources that typically realize these meanings below:

1. Contract- Disclaim: The textual voice positions itself as at odds with, or rejecting, some contrary position. Typically realized by negation, disclaim introduces an alternative positive position into the dialogue, hence acknowledging it, so as to reject it. The writer indicates a disalignment and in doing so expresses his/her expectation of the reader's opposition to the views expressed. When judiciously used, denial is corrective rather than confrontational, showing sensitivity to the readers' level of knowledge and offering to adjust their understanding. This is conveyed not so much in the denial itself, but because the writer supplies so many supportive arguments for the denial thus construing an ideal reader who may need more info on the subject.

Disclaim is realized by:

- a. Deny: Negation/negative polarity, low modality, declarative clauses
e.g., The resources are being consumed so fast that the Earth does not have time to renew them.
- b. Counter: Replaces or supplants the current proposition to invoke a contrary position which is then said not to hold.
 - Conjunctions of contrast (e.g., however, but, yet, despite)
 - Concessive conjunctions (e.g., although, though, nevertheless)
 - Adjuncts (e. g., even, only, just, still)

e.g., Despite these alleged benefits, there are some scientists that fiercely question the safety of genetically modified foods.

2. Contract- Proclaim: represents the proposition as highly compelling, valid, and reliable to suppress or rule out alternative positions.
 - a. Concur: overtly announces the author as agreeing with, or sharing an issue ‘so commonsensical’, that agreement can be taken for granted. Concur is dialogistic, as ‘in dialogue’ with the reader, but restricting in its exclusion of alternative dissident voices.
 - Interpersonal comment Theme (e. g., naturally, of course, obviously)
 - Modality of permission/obligation (e. g., must)

e.g., Obviously, as consumers we must make informed choices in the food we buy for the sake of our families.
 - b. Pronounce: covers formulations which involve authorial emphases or explicit authorial interventions that imply the presence of some resistance, contrary pressure, or challenge against which the author asserts. The stance indicates a maximal investment in the current proposition.
 - Assertive expressions (e.g., needless to say, I contend, the facts of the matter are...)
 - Forceful Adverbs (e.g., significantly, confidently)
 - Language that limits or closes down options (e.g. also, only)
 - Modality of necessity/compulsion (e.g., need to, must)
 - low modality, declarative clauses

e.g., Consumers must educate themselves and make wise choices.

c. Endorse: By ‘endorsing’ formulations, the authorial voice presents the proposition as ‘true’ or ‘valid’ and thereby aligns itself with the external voice which has been introduced as the source of that proposition. Endorse options associate the proposition with the internal subjectivity of the authorial voice.

- Reporting verbs (e. g., shows, demonstrates)
- Projection clauses (e. g., the report demonstrates/shows/proves that...)

e.g., In “Forest Facts,” the United Nations Environmental program (2011) reveals that “36 million acres of natural forest are lost each year”. These are shocking statistics.

3. Expand- entertain: Formulations by which the authorial voice indicates that its position is but one of a number of possible positions, thus opening space by entertaining dialogic alternatives. The authorial voice indicates personal investment in the proposition, while at the same time acknowledging that it is contingent and hence but one of many possible alternatives. It construes a dialogic backdrop where writers can be strongly committed to a viewpoint while, nonetheless, being prepared to signal a recognition that other’s may not share this value position. They project for the text an audience which may be potentially divided over the issue, and hence may not share the value of the position being referenced. Hyland (2008) argues that hedges may act to convey deference, modesty, or respect, rather than to convey uncertainty. It incorporates meanings by which the writer makes assessments of

- Modals of probability: (e. g., could, may, might)
- Modals of usuality (e. g., often, always, never, rarely)

- Hedges/Adjuncts: (e. g., perhaps, probably, possibly,)
- Mental verb projections: (e. g., I believe that..., I think that...)
- Evidentials (e. g., seems, appears)
- Conditionals (e. g., if, when)

e.g., Some people believe that there are possible advantages to genetically modifying plants.

4. Expand- Attribute: Representing the proposition as grounded in the subjectivity of an external voice, the textual voice represents the proposition as but one of a range of possible positions; it thereby entertains or invokes these dialogic alternatives.

Attribute has two sub-categories:

- a. Acknowledge: The writer does not overtly indicate his/her affiliation to the external reference cited in text. Acknowledge construes a dialogic text, but does not make a stand on the proposition offering the reader dialogic space. This is the domain of reporting verbs such as say, report, state, declare, announce, believe and think.
 - Presentation of other voices (e. g., according to...)
 - Citation within the clause (e. g., Halliday argues that, it's said that, the report states)
 - Quantifiers that enable comparison (e.g., many; to some extent)

e.g., According to the Center for Food Safety, a majority of the public is consuming GM foods as part of their regular diet.
- b. Distance: Language that construes an explicit distancing of the authorial voice from the attributed material. Distance is typically realized by the verb

“claims”. These resources emphasize that the authorial voice declines to take responsibility or the proposition, thus maximizing the space for dialogistic alternatives.

- Distancing reference (e.g., X claims, in this view; others contend)
e.g., Progressives claim that draconian gun laws lower the crime rate.
However, they promote such laws because it forces even more
dependence upon state authorities.

Martin and White (2005) clarify that argumentative texts usually do not allow attributed references to advance core value positions. External sources are used as supports in building propositions and writers announce their affiliations to these in different ways. Typically, texts open dialogic space in Attribution and then override external voices “by the monoglossia of the speaker’s own assertions” effectively shutting down dialogicity and alternative or contrary views (p. 116-117).

The following section chronicles the few studies that explored Engagement in students’ writing (Chang and Schleppergrell, 2012; Hao and Humphrey, 2012; Hood, 2004). The dearth of studies on Engagement in EB contexts is not surprising since Martin and White (2005) have elaborated the Engagement system only recently and most studies have centered on textual analysis of Engagement in the media (Martin, 2004; Iedema, Feez, & White, 1994; White, 1998). Most applied research in teaching Engagement resources in EB contexts tends to concentrate on university and post graduate research writing. It may be that the complexity of the area and the requirement for students to control and deploy wide-ranging discursive and linguistic resources tends to redirect researchers to higher levels of education where students are linguistically more

advanced for this work. This study fills in this gap in research in this area. I limit this discussion to studies that specifically analyzed Engagement and voice and stance in writing.

SFL Engagement Studies

Hao and Humphrey (2012) studied undergraduate student writing and suggested that lexical choices align audiences with the student writer's internal voice in the strategic use of both positive and negative evaluations of external sources. In their study, the authors referred to endorsing and rejecting voices and positions that are brought into the discourse of the text as "burnishing and tarnishing external and internal sources" (p. 15). The authors showed how expository writing realized burnishing or tarnishing through the coupling of Engagement resources with evaluative resources involving Attitude and Graduation. The study analyzed Attributions to external sources using reporting verbs referred to as "projections" (Martin & White, 2005, p. 133) to construe positive and negative evaluations of varying degrees of intensity and to build varying degrees of affiliation to discursive communities referenced in the texts.

The analytical framework of this study is modeled around Chang and Schleppergrell's (2012) study of how research articles produced different prosodies (Hood, 2004; Lemke, 1992, 1998) and dialogic colloquies in their introductory paragraphs. The authors propose that SFL is a potentially powerful tool in academic writing instruction to describe "explicit systems of linguistic resources that construe different discursive patterns and...[provide] an explanatory framework that helps teachers and learners understand how the relevant meanings are made" (p. 141). Their analysis drew on expanding and contracting options in the Engagement framework (Martin & White, 2005) to deconstruct rhetorical moves in research articles (Swales, 1990). For example, in transitioning from Swales' first move, "Establish a territory" to "Establish a niche", and finally to "Occupying the niche" in research writing (Swales, 1990; 2004), an author might

choose to entertain and acknowledge before contracting the argumentative space to highlight his/her stance. Alternatively, the author may concur and endorse in an assumption of shared knowledge to construe the reader's affiliation with the perspective of the article. The textual analyses showed how resources for expansion or contraction could construe an authorial voice that entertained alternatives and possibilities to promote and/or emphasize the author's perspectives and assertions in different ways. They deconstructed language at the micro level (identifying lexico-grammatical resources) and at the macro level (focusing on how the meanings built up from clause to clause and paragraph to paragraph) to demonstrate how meanings accumulated across the text in an interplay of language, context, and purpose reinforcing particular values and positions (Hood, 2004; Lemke, 1998). In other words, they illustrated how form and meaning go hand in hand as meanings are picked up and expanded in a prosody of expanding and contracting resources to effectively construe a powerful argument.

Using the Appraisal framework (Martin & White, 2005) and Hood (2004) found that contrary to research writing at graduate levels novice language learners tended to construe a subjective tone realized by Appraisal resources of Affect and Judgment that express feelings and evaluations on the subject matter. The authors revealed how language learners mismanage linguistic resources or struggle to express complex rhetorical moves (Swales, 1990) or semantic "prosody" that builds meanings from clause to clause (Lemke, 1992, p. 147). The outcome is a largely ineffective and unauthoritative voice that remains in subjective realms that may alienate readers instead of aligning them with the proposition of the text. Similar studies focusing on second language writers at a post-graduate level confirm disparities between students' control of linguistic resources and their ability to express the disciplinary knowledge of the field in their

research papers in adequate ways (Carson, 2001; Hansen, 2000; Hirvela & Belcher, 2001; Ivanic & Camps, 2001; Leki, Cumming, & Silva, 2008).

In an analysis of undergraduate student writing, Hyland (2012) confirmed the SFL view that voice is shaped by conformity to community conventions (genres) and the expression of personal proclivities (interpersonal meanings). In his studies on undergraduate students' research papers, Hyland suggested that different voices in academic writing read distinctly because linguistic choices represented individual preferences accountable to disciplinary practices and genres. Therefore, teaching voice and stance implied deconstructing lexicogrammatical, organizational, and register choices that built the arguments and persuasive devices to empower the writer in texts. Hood (2010) showed how these resources helped writers claim membership status as knowledgeable individuals in the academic community through a discourse of authority and credibility. SFL emphasizes that texts may vary systematically according the writer's choice of linguistic resources, the nature of the context in which they are distributed , and as Martin (2008) suggests, "the listener/reader's subjectively determined reading position" or the "distinctive ways in which individual and groups combine and commit meaning" in texts (p. 34). Since not all readers are able to grasp nuances and connotations of value-laden words, the decoding skills of the readers also shape the writerly persona. Underlying a taxonomy of roles that a writer may assume (e. g., observer, interpreter, or critic, etc.), Hyland (2005) has shown that authors may choose to conform to a set of social norms or transgress them in order to meet communal and individual purposes. In other words, writers may choose to 'play with expectations' to construct particular meanings and stances.

Gray and Bieber (2012) argue that stance is a continuum of evaluative meaning which varies along two axes: one epistemic and interpersonal (i.e., from feelings and attitudes to a

status of knowledge) and the other linguistic (i.e., from lexis to grammar). The overall objectives of this study, to support students' critical perspectives (i.e., status of knowledge) and expand their specialized linguistic repertoires to enable them to express these views, are compatible with conceptions of voice and stance of the above-mentioned studies.

I could not locate any studies that used SFL to support EB learners in controlling voice and audience relationships. As mentioned above, I believe that that researchers tend to focus on postsecondary and graduate students who are required to write and produce evaluations and stances on different issues on a regular basis, as against EBs who, in most cases, may not have the language repertoire to tackle complex writing objectives. Recognizing that EBs do have gaps in their language proficiency, I believe that curriculum designs and writing programs need to find practical and functional ways to develop EB learners' writing capacity instead of avoiding the challenge altogether. There is a pressing need to find a well-developed language writing program that begins at EB students' proficiency and progressively builds towards supporting them in expressing more complex ideas and apprenticing them into controlling and deploying a wide variety of linguistic resources in different writing contexts. This study fills this gap in the literature, implementing culturally sustaining SFL praxis, with a specific focus on supporting EBs in formulating an author's voice and stance in their writing.

In the next section, I present an analysis of three sample texts to investigate the different ways that writers use Engagement and Attribution options to position themselves by choosing to deploy one or the other (heteroglossic or monoglossic) options to construe particular textual positions and author's tone to engage readers in the texts.

Engagement for Analyzing Social Dialogue in Texts

Text 1 is the introductory passage of *Ecological Footprints* (Bunting , 2012), a sample essay that the students and I deconstructed in class. The following Engagement and Attribution analysis reveals how the authors make intersubjective moves:

Text 1:

Environmentalists have been concerned about the impact that individuals have on our planet (Expand: Attribute- acknowledge), and many people wonder what they can do to help protect the environment (Expand: entertain). A good place to start is to reduce one's ecological footprint (Contract: Proclaim-endorse).

The text is dialogistic in that it explicitly references external sources and viewpoints of “environmentalists” and “people” on the detrimental actions of “individuals” on the planet. It employs the grammar of reported speech (e. g., “concerned about” and “people wonder”), but there is more at stake here than mere heteroglossic expansion and inclusion of multiple voices. The formulations exemplify special types of verbs (e. g., “concerned” and “help protect”) which adopt a particular stance towards the attributed position without any overt investment in the proposition to protect the environment (Attribute-acknowledge). However, the author then presents the external voices as tentatively deliberating (“wonder”) on viable solutions, shifting the authorial stance from unattached to tentative- recognizing possible opposition to environmental issues (Expand: entertain). By the end of the extract, the internal voice endorses the environmentally sustainable solution of reducing one's ecological footprint (“a good place to start”), holding the proposition as ‘true’ or ‘valid’ and thereby aligning itself categorically to the external voices which have been introduced. The expansive heteroglossic backdrop of the text begins in heteroglossic expansion (Attribute: acknowledge), but in effect, contracts the colloquy

(Proclaim: endorse) by announcing its affiliation with the proposition in a muted tone. In that acceptance of the environmental stance, it sets itself against, or at least fends off, actual or potential contrary positions to that proposition by gently pointing to a solution that would work for all.

A good place to start is to reduce one's ecological footprint.

This last sentence deploys low modality in a declarative clause that closes down the space for dialogic alternatives (dialogically contractive). The third person pronoun “one” does not address the reader directly, but construes an idealized imaginary reader (third person) aligned with a community of “people” who are invested in protecting the environment. In this manner, the authorial voice does not impose on the reader, but places him/her in a position whereby rejecting the proposition would imply a heavy interpersonal cost.

Text 2 is another sample essay on *Childhood Obesity* (Bunting, 2012). The intersubjective positioning by the author, the relation to the proposition and to the reader contrast with Text 1:

Childhood obesity is a major concern in the United States and in many other countries around the world (Monoglossic). Obesity in U. S. children has increased dramatically since the late 1980s (Monoglossic). The Center for Disease Control and Prevention (2011) states that an overweight or obese child has a Body Mass Index (BMI, a measure of weight in relation to the child's age, sex, and height) above the 85th percentile for his or her age and sex (Expand: Attribute-acknowledge). As an example of this, a second grader whose weight is above the 85th percentile would weigh 95 pounds or more (Expand: Attribute-Distance). While it appears that the rates of obesity are falling for younger children, this trend

is still likely to persist and perhaps worsen in the future for older children (Contract: Proclaim-endorse).

Text 2 deploys a monoglossic authorial voice that does not allow the reader much dialogic space to maneuver. It categorically states facts without referencing support from ‘reliable’ sources (“childhood obesity has increased dramatically”). The ‘objective’ tone is realized in declarative clauses of low modality, nominalizations (“concern”, “obesity”, “measure”) and forceful adjuncts that grade the attitudes (“*major* concern” and “increased *dramatically*”). The two external sources (the Center for Disease Control and Prevention and a second grader) serve to provide technical definitions of obesity stated in a dry and matter-of-fact tone, whereby the authorial voice is seemingly construed as detached and distanced. In the concluding sentence, the author softens its categorical tone with hedges (“while it appears”, “likely to persist”, and “perhaps”) to present an alarming and disquieting prediction that the obesity crisis is worsening in the nation. The difference between the two texts is the significant personal investment in the first text compared to the monoglossic and contractive ‘take it or leave it’ stance in the second text that seemingly does not present any interpersonal cost to both writer and audience within the colloquy.

In Text 3, one of the focal students, Roberto, expresses a similar monoglossic position in his essay on the immigration debate in the country:

One major problem in the United States is that 12 to 20 million undocumented immigrants enter the country illegally and overstay their visas.

This proposition is declared without any acknowledging of alternative positions with respect to this particular evaluation. There is no space for debate or any tension with an alternative position in the textual voice in the undialogized declarative clause. However, Roberto’s authorial voice

seems to implicitly signal to the reader that the proposition that undocumented immigration is a “major problem” is common knowledge shared by both writer and reader. According to White (2003), such a “bare assertion” typically operates where the reader is assumed to operate with the same knowledge, beliefs and values as those of the proposition (p. 263). The voice seems to construe itself as being in solidarity with a readership which seemingly holds the same unwelcoming and unfavorable view on undocumented immigrants. This proposition is therefore, dialogically inert (White, 2003).

Monoglossic and heteroglossic constructions are commonly used in particular kinds of expository writing, especially for argumentation purposes where writers are required to present their views overtly (e. g., editorials, opinion pieces) or implicitly (e. g., discussion genre) to strategically secure the reader’s agreement with the proposition (Eggins, 2004). It is important to note that within culturally sustaining SFL praxis, the classroom environment fosters a social dialogue, an essential context for the writing itself. One of the expectations of this study is developing students’ capacity to incorporate dialogue in their writing and locate their political stance and views within the textual conversation. EB writers tend to overuse monoglossic statements in their zeal to make pronouncements and opinions overtly. It needs to be pointed out that though there is a place for “bare assertions” in editorials and political speeches, the Discussion genre tends to avoid the monoglossic positions because it construes a restrictive and undialogic author’s stance. One of the objectives of this study is to make clear to students that expanding language resources is not the end goal; understanding how and why to use the language resources or the relationship between form and meaning is the final objective of SFL-informed writing instruction. In the next sections, I describe other important resources for controlling voice and stance.

Control of Theme to Engage Readers

Halliday (1994) proposes that another important resource for realizing stance is control of Theme (the beginning of a sentence). He states that when the subject is the participant, this is called topical Theme. When writers choose to place other grammatical options besides the subject in Theme position, it is referred as marked Theme. Deploying interpersonal linguistic resources in marked Theme is an effective way to express writer's stance and opinion or to emphasize particular meanings and create "spatial and interpersonal distance" (Eggs, 1994, p. 53). Halliday delineates a taxonomy of adjuncts that may be deployed to construe interpersonal meanings in Theme position, of which I mention a few in Table 3.1 below:

Table 3.1: Adjuncts in Interpersonal Theme (adapted from Halliday (1994, p. 53))

Function of Modal Adjunct	Meaning	Linguistic Realization
probability	how likely?	<i>Probably, possibly, certainly, perhaps, maybe</i>
usuality	how often?	<i>Usually, sometimes, always, never, often</i>
typicality	how typical?	<i>Occasionally, generally</i>
opinion	I think	<i>in my opinion, personally, in my mind</i>
presumption	I presume	<i>evidently, apparently, no doubt</i>
desirability	how desirable?	<i>(un)fortunately</i>

The Theme, or the beginning of the sentence, is usually where novice writers construe their textual voice. The above language resources, when used in Theme, engage the reader in different ways and serve to clarify or confirm the purpose and rationale of the writer's stance and voice. White (2003) suggests that other formulations (also used in Theme) like 'I firmly *believe*' and 'I

think’ pretend to be factual, but instead construct evaluative voices with moral status and authority not only to pass judgments, but also to suppress and ignore alternative viewpoints. In a strategic move, genres like Discussion require writers to remove themselves from the topical theme, or the subject position and place linguistic resources that convey their stance in passive constructions (e. g., *it is evident that*, *it is believed that*) or include abstract participants as the marked theme (e. g., *research* suggests that, or *people* believe that) to elide agency and transfer the origin of their own positions to others, as seen in Daniel’s text below:

Many people think that all immigrants are a bad influence, but they don’t always come with bad intentions.

Roberto deploys a heteroglossic stance by including other voices in topical Theme (e. g., “many people think”). However, he also uses a passive construction in marked Theme to express his opinion:

It is certain that they can’t deport all undocumented immigrants.

EBs in developmental stages of writing are tentative in their use of new language resources and in many cases, use them in mechanical ways. In this above example, Roberto attempts a heteroglossic stance, but shuts down the reader’s space in an authoritative tone (e. g., “It is certain that”). Using these techniques to control voice and stance in strategic ways are emphasized in this study. However, this example illustrates how EBs may use new language repertoires, but do not show awareness of the discursive and functional aspects of the particular resource.

Using Pronouns to Create Community

EB writers and speakers also tend to use personal pronouns, ‘I’, ‘you’, ‘we’, and ‘us’ in their writing. As seen before, these resources construe a social and informal tone that is not appropriate for expository writing. However, the above pronouns may have a place in the writing

when the text requires more personal relations with the audience and set up an implied community or readers that share the same values as the author (Droga & Humphrey, 2003).

Using pronouns to represent the authorial persona and build intersubjectivity with the reader in the colloquy of the text is widely recognized as an essential feature in expository writing. Hyland (2002) suggests that writers “gain credibility by projecting an identity invested with individual authority, displaying confidence in their evaluations and commitments to their ideas” (p. 1091). In his essay on immigration, Roberto uses the pronoun “us” to include the reader in an imaginary and idealized community of citizens who side with the Republican stance against amnesty:

They believe that it [amnesty] will encourage more undocumented immigrants and would give an unfair advantage to those who have broken our laws.

In certain disciplines within the humanities, personal pronouns representing the writer are regarded as a high status source because what matters in the discipline is the knower’s own opinion (see Maton 2007). However, it should be clear that pronoun options realize specific semantic and rhetorical goals that may or may not be appropriate to the expectations and requirements of the genre. Different genres, such as Exposition and Discussion, typically require a more objective and distant relationship with the audience and therefore do not use the personal pronouns like “I” or address the reader in overt ways with “you”. EBs should be made to understand that these resources typically belong to the domain of social interactional language use because they tend to construe a subjective interpersonal stance. Argumentation genres, instead, rely more on nominalizations that tend to couch subjectivity and agency (Halliday & Mathiessen, 2004).

Engagement and Modality

Another important resource for Engagement is modality (Halliday, 1994). Through the use of modality, writers can set up a semantic space between positive and negative poles to express probability, usuality, obligation or inclination in the different clause structures. Modality is a key resource for constructing evaluative stance and interpersonal meaning allowing writers to introduce additional voices into the text. Halliday suggests that modality encompasses meanings by which the author makes assessments of likelihood and probability via modal auxiliaries (may, might, could, must, etc.), modal adjuncts (perhaps, probably, definitely, etc.), and by deploying certain mental verb/attribute projections (I suspect that ..., I think, I believe, I'm convinced that, I doubt, etc.).

Hyland (1998) explored the role of doubt and certainty in writer's voice in research articles from various disciplines from engineering, sciences, and humanities at a postsecondary level. Hyland's work on aspects of modality in academic writing at a postsecondary level concerns hedges and boosters that allow writers to qualify an opinion, rather than merely transmit assertions and facts, and thus, persuade the readers of the validity of their claims (Hyland, 1994, 1996, 1998, 2000). Formulations that entertain dialogic positions include hedges like "it seems", "apparently" and "evidence suggests" allowing readers to mitigate the force of claims to avoid a negative reaction from readers (Hyland, 2000). These formulations are used in expository writing to acknowledge other possibilities and stances that may differ from the author's position enabling writers to avoid overstating assertions and presenting their claims in a subdued tone of confidence. Boosters, on the other hand, serve writers to present their ideas with conviction and to establish solidarity with the readers. Linguistic resources like "will", "it is clear", "the fact that", "particularly" and "it is evident" (usually in marked Theme) enhance the

strength of assertions by emphasizing “shared information, group membership, and direct engagement with readers” (Hyland, 2000, p. 87).

Modality construes a heteroglossic backdrop for the text in which the author’s point-of-view is potentially in tension with other voices and dialogic alternatives. Based on his studies, Hyland argues that the inability to balance hedging or boosting statements appropriately may preclude inexperienced writers from achieving research publication. In the case of this study, I am aware that EB learners and novice writers may be challenged by the complex dual task of committing to and disengaging from propositions while also construing the writerly stance and voice. Hyland (2002) suggests that novice writers may be at a further disadvantage because of their emerging language proficiency and unfamiliarity with academic genres combined with the additional task of construing an authorial voice.

In sum, modality is a powerful resource in persuasive writing to construe an objective and balanced voice that not only entertains dialogic alternate views, but also strategically deploys these formulations to elide agency and blame for face-saving purposes. Understanding and controlling these resources is central to critical reading and writing of texts. Considering that negotiating complex writing resources is vital for all writers, including EBs, to enable them to locate themselves within discursive communities (Swales, 1990) and express critical perspectives in appropriate ways in their texts. However, I could not locate studies that focus on teaching these linguistic and discursive options to EBs. There are only a handful of studies that focused on teaching Engagement options to EB learners, and were mostly at a university level. This study chronicles the process of apprenticing intermediate EB writers in secondary school through the control and use of the above language resources. It demonstrates how educators may plan writing units that explicitly point out relations between form and meaning and reflects on

the design, implementation, and potential pitfalls of the writing process. The study also analyzes classroom interaction and written sample texts that illustrate how the EB writers responded to the instruction. The lessons and findings from the study make important contributions to the field of teaching writing in EB contexts. This study answers the call for the need for systematic applied research on supporting EBs and this is what makes it unique.

Conclusion

Martin and White (2005), Chang and Schleppergrell (2012), Hao and Humphrey (2012), and Hyland (2002) together give impetus and orientation to the analytical framework for this study in their view that developing students' capacity to control Engagement and Attribution options is key to developing students' voice(s) realized in subdued and distant or authoritative and convincing authorial persona that can manage audience relationships in strategic ways. Table 3.2 summarizes the linguistic choices used for this purpose:

Table 3.2: Language for Engagement

H E T E R O	Contract	Disclaim	Deny	Negation: no, never, didn't Declarative, unmodalized clauses
			Counter	Conjunctions of contrast (e.g., however, but) yet, although, but, however Concessive conjunctions (e.g., although, though)
		Proclaim	Concur	Comments Theme: naturally, of course, obviously
			Pronounce	Assertive expressions: (e.g., needless to say) I contend, the facts of the matter are..., indeed Adverbs that add force (e.g., significantly, confidently) Language that limits or closes down options (e.g. also, only) Modality of necessity (e.g., need to)

G L O S S			Endorse	Reporting verbs Projection clauses <i>e. g., The report demonstrates/shows/proves that...</i>
	Expand	Attribute	Acknowledge	Presentation of other voices Citation within the clause <i>e. g., Halliday argues that, many Australians believe that, it's said that, the report states</i>
			Distance:	Comparative reference (e.g., some research, other researchers) <i>e. g., Chomsky claimed to have shown that...</i>
		Entertain	Modals	of probability: may, might
				of usuality
				adjuncts: perhaps, probably
				attributes: it's likely that...
				mental verb projections: I believe that... I think that...
				evidentials; seems, appears
				Quantifiers that enable comparison (e.g., many; another; to some extent)
				Conditionals (e.g., if, when)
				Distancing reference (e.g., in this view; others contend)

The next chapter describes the research design, the methods and SFL-informed analytical tools used in the study for apprenticing students to control tenor and audience relationships to engage with school texts in more critical ways.

CHAPTER 4

METHODOLOGY AND ANALYSIS FOR COMPOSING IN DIALOGUE

The purpose of this dissertation is to explore how culturally sustaining SFL praxis is implemented in designing curricular units to support EB learners in using language as a system of choices to make particular meanings. The participatory action research methodological approach (Greenwood, Whyte, & Harkavy, 1993; McTaggart, 1989; Reason & Bradbury, 2006) is directly influenced by SFL theory and praxis based on Rothery's (1998) teaching cycle and Macken-Horarik's (1996, 1998) conception of apprenticing students through specialized and reflexive knowledge domains as described in the previous chapters. Participatory action research (PAR) in K-12 education is a social investigative approach inspired by the critical orientation of Brazilian educator Paulo Freire (1970), committed to emancipatory and democratic outcomes with a focus on dialogical reflection and action to overcome inequitable and discriminatory ideologies and relations of power (Fals Borda & Rahman, 1991; Quigley, 2000). Kemmis & McTaggart (2003) propose recurrent stages of planning, action and reflection to take action to address a problem or to engage in a sociopolitical issue. My critical orientation to language learning shares many aspects with critical-SFL approaches in diverse classroom settings (see Gebhard & Harman, 2011; Gebhard, Demers, & Castillo-Rosenthal, 2008; Harman, 2008, 2013; Harman & Simmons, 2012; Willett & Rosenberger, 2005). Following the lead of these SFL

scholars, this PAR study design seeks to reframe language instruction within larger emancipatory goals from critical pedagogy (Delpit, 1988; Duncan-Andrade & Morrell, 2008; Fairclough, 1989; Freire, 1970; Giroux & McLaren, 1994; Shor, 1987) with a strong emphasis on culturally sustaining literacy practices (Fránquiz & Salazar, 2004; Moll, Amanti, Neff, & Gonzalez, 2005; Nieto & Bode, 2008; Paris, 2012; Valenzuela, 1999) and permeable curriculum (Dyson, 1993, 2003).

Participatory Action Research

This study uses participatory action research methodology (Greenwood, Whyte, & Harkavy, 1993; McTaggart, 1989; Reason & Bradbury, 2006) combined with discourse analysis of thick descriptions (Geertz, 1973) of student-peer-teacher interactions in the classroom and close textual analysis of sample texts to analyze how the focal students responded to the SFL-informed instruction. The critical conceptual orientation of this study, SFL praxis, and PAR methodology form a cohesive fit in this study. The methodological framework emphasizes ‘teaching as research’ -that is, a teacher’s systematic observation in naturalistic settings and inductive analysis of multiple forms of data (e. g., texts, observations, interviews) that emphasize the critical role of jointly produced teacher/student, researcher/participant knowledge in school change and progressive educational reform (Bernstein, 1990, 1999; Bourdieu & Passeron, 1990; Bowles & Gintis, 1976; Giroux & Peña, 1983; McLaren, 2002). Lytle and Cochran-Smith (1992) propose that “by definition, teacher research is case study—the unit of analysis is typically the individual child, the classroom, or the school” (p. 466). SFL’s teaching cycle (Rothery, 1998) is compatible with participatory action research in that both approaches suggest that researchers take up “active and participatory means and techniques” to engage

community members in dialoging in reflective ways, ultimately resulting in "...a conscientisation process" (Montero, 2000, p. 138).

One of the central tenets of participatory action research is that the research process is always evolving in a continuing spiral of planning, acting, observing, reflecting and then re-planning. This sociocultural conception of learning (Bruner, 1986; Rogoff, 1990; Vygotsky, 1978; Wertsch, 1991) forms the conceptual basis of scaffolded learning in the teaching cycle and also concurs with Macken-Horarik's (1996, 1998) notion of transitioning students through informal, specialized, and reflexive knowledge domains in a spiraling curriculum that scaffolds learners in progressive incremental learning. Culturally sustaining praxis draws its critical orientation from Freire's (1970) educational model of reflexive praxis in which both teacher and students jointly produce shared lessons and critical knowledge. This study's participatory action research methodology draws on multidisciplinary frameworks with the final objective of grounding its practice in liberating and democratizing principles that seek social action and equitable outcomes in education (Kemmis & McTaggart, 2005).

As teacher/researcher, I was engaged in day-to-day observation and interpretive dialogue of theory and praxis within a multi-disciplinary understanding of language, culture, literacy, and pedagogy. The implementation and reflection cycle of PAR allowed me to introduce new language objectives or raise social and political concerns and observe how students responded to the instruction and discussions. It afforded me the framework to adjust, adapt, and reorganize the instruction based on the evolving needs of the classroom. I interviewed students in informal conversations or made quick assessments of their written work or verbal interactions to respond to queries, lack adequate support, miscommunication, or any pedagogical issues that rose in the process. I made field notes and wrote down my reflections and thoughts to keep track of the

needs of the students and any necessary adjustments in the instruction. The PAR framework provided me the possibility of wearing two hats- that of educator and researcher/practitioner. To manage the complexities of negotiating the dual of roles, I was the teacher during class, but put on my researcher hat at the end of the school day, reflecting and reworking the modules for instruction based on the feedback and formal/informal assessments of students' work.

In implementing the writing unit for EBs, PAR methodology was useful as an approach to research because it challenged me to reframe my beliefs about teaching writing and centered my instruction on students' responses (McIntyre, 2003). It grounded this study, not in identifying "scientifically proven" methods for teaching writing, but in chronicling the process of how a critical immigrant educator designed, adapted, and implemented writing instruction to support EB writers in culturally sustaining ways. The study is specifically concerned with supporting EB learners in construing their social and political voices in their writing by deploying appropriate interpersonal linguistic resources to enact roles and relationships between speaker and listener and to compose a social dialogue of voices in which their views and stances are linguistically situated. The two research questions that guide the study are described below:

1. In what ways does culturally sustaining systemic functional linguistics praxis support or constrain focal emergent bilinguals in the writing of persuasive essays in a secondary sheltered language arts classroom?
2. What lessons does this study offer in designing and implementing writing instruction for immigrant EBs in multicultural settings?

The next section contextualizes the research site and provides background information on the focal participants and data collection methods. Then, I describe the SFL-informed teaching cycle (Rothery, 1998) to scaffold the instruction in the instructional unit. The third section

delineates the linguistic sources or Engagement and Attribution options that construct voice and stance that will be the focus of the analysis of the student texts.

Site of Research

The proposed study site was my own 10th grade sheltered language arts class in Weavers High School¹ situated in a rural county in Northwest Georgia where I have taught immigrant EBs since the last 10 years. Historically, Weavers City grew because of railway links to more commercial southern cities like Chattanooga and Atlanta. Since then, it has been populated by mostly white middle class European immigrants and was the starting point of Andrew Jackson's forced displacement of Georgia's native Cherokees in the "Trail of Tears." By the 1950s, advances in technology and dyeing methods turned a cottage bedspread industry into a multi-billion dollar carpet industry. Today, the area is known as the "Carpet Capital of the World" because more than 90% of the functional carpet produced in the world today is made within a 25-mile radius of the city.

Since the last three decades, the booming carpet, flooring, agriculture and poultry industries and the high demand for manual labor has attracted the "New Latino Diaspora" of immigrant families, mostly from Mexico and Central America, to fill jobs in the area (Wortham, Murillo, & Hamann, 2002). The population of the county doubled to 103,000 during this period (U.S. Census, 2010). Today, Latino immigrant families, who comprise almost 43% of the total population, are faced with a segmented labor market and a stratified school system that allows them access only "from the bottom" (Wortham, Murillo, & Hamann, 2002, p. 2).

A large part of the workforce in Georgia consists of undocumented immigrants with current estimates at 425,000 according to a Pew Hispanic Center Report (2010). Governor

¹ All names of participants and schools are pseudonyms.

Nathan Deal campaigned on the promise of curbing ‘illegal immigration’ and signed HB 87 in 2011, a measure that targeted undocumented families and those who harbor them. Weavers County took the lead in passing similar legislation in October 2009 (before the state passed the law), giving local law enforcement jurisdiction to carry out federal functions of Immigration and Customs Enforcement (ICE) agents. All individuals in the county are required to prove legal resident status when stopped by local police agents at check-points and during traffic violations. This legislation has had direct repercussions on the Latino community and immigrant students in Weaver County Schools who live in fear of being apprehended, jailed, and deported back to their home countries. I have many students who have been deported in the past years, and some whose parents have been apprehended and sent back to Mexico in spite of having lived in the county for more than 10 years.

Weavers High School serves children from the working class, blue-collared families of workers of the carpet mills. The school shares several key characteristics with other U.S. communities where there is a high concentration of EBs, including a large number of students from low-SES backgrounds, frequent transfers in and out of the schools/district, and limited opportunities for some students to learn English outside of the classroom. The surrounding area of the school has many trailer parks and affordable rental housing, comprising a transient and rotating population who move in and out of the district. The influx of Latino families in the district raised rental prices for local housing, pushing poor African American families out from the district.

The graduates of Weavers High typically also move out of the same district and hence the school does not have a ‘tradition’ of graduating families from the same school. Almost all the teachers, including myself, do not live in the district, which implies that our children are not

educated in the same district. This factor affects the school in many ways such as a want of personal attention and investment in the school, a notable absence of sustained parental involvement, weak booster clubs for extra-curricular activities and sports, and low financial support from the community. The school is known for its lackluster history in sports, especially in football, where the team has suffered an infamous 28 losing seasons. To make matters worse, the best athletes are wooed away and encouraged to transfer to richer and more successful sports programs of neighboring schools and districts. Since the last decade, the only highpoint of Weavers High has been the boys' soccer team, mainly comprising Latino boys, which has consistently made it to the state playoffs and even to the state finals twice. In spite of this success, attendance for soccer games is minimal. Weavers High is perceived as the school for "the other side of town" (interview administrator of Weavers High School).

Of the 1,348 students enrolled in the year 2012-2013, 58% were white, 40% were Hispanic, 1% African American, and 1% were other races. Approximately 68% of the students were on Free and Reduced Lunch. The school had a total of 110 EB students enrolled, served by 5 certified ESOL teachers, including myself, in sheltered ESOL classrooms (4 levels of Language Arts, 9th grade Biology, 9th grade Algebra support, and Social Studies) who are charged with the main responsibility of gradually transitioning the EBs to mainstream content classes. The newcomer EB students begin high school in sheltered classes in intensive immersion in English. In the following year, they transition to 9th grade sheltered classes in all four content areas. As they gain in English language proficiency, they are moved into co-teaching settings with a content area teacher and an ESOL teacher for language support. By the 11th grade the majority of EB learners exit ESOL and are placed in regular mainstream classes without any language support. The school's curriculum and the teachers' curriculum goals and objectives

were created to align with the state's Common Core standards. Students are required to take two standardized End of Course Tests (EOCTs) (now changed to Georgia Milestone EOCs) in each of the four main content areas (i.e. a total of 8 tests in English, Social Studies, Math, and Science) and the Georgia Graduation Test for Writing in the 11th grade in order to graduate.

Participants

This study took place in my 10th grade ESOL language arts classroom with a total of 12 EBs, of whom 8 were of Mexican origin, 1 from Guatemala, and 3 from Vietnam. About half of the participants were naturalized citizens of the United States who have been in ESOL settings for 10 years and are categorized as “Long Term English Language Learners” (LTELLs) (Menken & Kleyn, 2010; Menken, Kleyn, & Chae, 2012). This phenomenon of EB learners who are unable to test out of ESOL settings, points to culturally subtractive educational contexts (Valenzuela, 1999) which typically have bilingual students who are competent in their oral communicative skills when they use language for social purposes, but have limited academic literacy in both Spanish and English. 2 of the 8 students of Mexican origin were ‘newcomers’ or recently arrived first generation immigrants who left their countries after completing middle school grades and now face the rigorous challenges of mastering both language and content in high school. The other 6 students have been in ESOL since they began school, some since elementary school for more than 7 years. These students had been placed in co-teaching contexts in middle and high school with an ESOL teacher collaborating with the mainstream content teacher. Currently, in the 10th grade, they were scheduled in sheltered ESOL classes for English language arts and world history and in regular mainstream math and science classes. In recent years, the tendency has been for policy makers to place EBs in co-teaching settings or in English-only classrooms with regular students and move away from sheltered and bilingual

language support contexts (García, & Kleifgen, 2010). The administrators in my school tend to support the integration of EBs into mainstream classes, framing the issue as a civil rights issue to desegregate English and to expose EBs to more English language to support and accelerate their language acquisition (interview with administrator). My observations in my pilot study showed that the EBs tended to cluster in small isolated groups, mostly unable to keep up with the pace of the classroom as the mainstream teacher delivered content, relegating language support ‘duties’ to the ESOL teacher. The LTELLS in sheltered setting spoke mostly social English, wielded more power and status among the ‘native’ Spanish speakers. On the other hand, the newcomers mainly spoke in Spanish with me and among themselves.

This study does not look at the merits of each delivery model per se. Instead, it shifts the onus away from models to the quality of instruction being delivered within the setting. It proposes that all language learning contexts require that teachers, ESOL or otherwise, be trained in teaching content and language. EB students can be supported in a co-teaching setting but that would require tremendous pre-planning and collaboration by both content and language teachers. However, defining language and content objectives and designing instruction would be a complex task as the needs of mainstream students differ from the needs of EBs. The advantage of the sheltered setting in this study was that I had the flexibility and total control to tailor the instruction exclusively to respond to the language proficiency and needs of my students, repeat and remediate concepts, and use Spanish when necessary to explain difficult concepts. This study focusing on EBs would have presented many more challenges in a mainstream co-teaching setting.

Focal Student Selection

While SFL-based pedagogy aims to improve academic outcomes for EBs by explicitly teaching the way language works in academic settings, there is a basic level of proficiency needed to engage meaningfully in the instructional environment under study. I teach students who have a range of basic to advanced language proficiency according to the ACCESS Test for English Learners (WIDA)². I took the decision for my study not to include analyses of students who tended to be absent for disciplinary reasons and had gaps in instruction in spite of my efforts to help them get caught up. These students did not complete many assignments and I could not track their progress in the class. Also, I did not include the 3 Vietnamese students because they were in their second year of schooling in U.S. schools and their emergent language proficiency presented some grammatical and rhetorical challenges. My limited review of contrastive language studies on Asian immigrant students produced conflicting views about how much the first language (L1) influences the English acquisition process. There were very few Vietnamese studies, therefore with no intentions of generalizing cultural differences, I found that Connor & Kaplan (1987) claimed that Chinese writing followed an indirect, circular pattern. Tsao (1983) appeared to support Connor and Kaplan's thesis, however, Mohan and Lo (1985) indicated no marked differences between Chinese and English written texts. What stood out in the students' writing in my class was a marked circular rhetorical style, the absence of tense markers, and discrepancies in syntax. The Vietnamese students' writing could be an interesting linguistic phenomenon to study, but is beyond the scope of this dissertation. In addition, considering that Latinos were the majority second language culture in Weavers City, I maintained the focus on that subgroup, keeping open the possibility of analyzing the Vietnamese texts in the future.

² The WIDA English language assessment framework has 6 levels: 1. Entering 2. Beginning 3. Developing 4. Expanding 5. Bridging & 6. Reaching. Students at Level 5 & 6 are considered to approaching grade level literacy.

I decided to include 2 newcomers who were at the lower end of the language proficiency scale at level 2 and 3 since they both had passed the basic newcomer classes and their 9th grade content classes (environmental science and algebra) in their first year in the school. The other 2 focal students were LTELLS who were at an intermediate level 4 or ‘expanding’ language proficiency according to their ACCESS test results. All the four students had failed the English EOCT and received free or reduced lunch, indicating that they came from a low socio-economic background. Parental permission to participate in the study was provided by the 12 students’ families. All of the students’ names have been changed to ensure their identity is protected.

Although the focal participants were of Hispanic origin, their interests varied and their language proficiency ranged from emerging through advanced. Thus the selection represented a broad range of language proficiency, academic ability, and gender. Table 4.1 shows the demographics of the focal students with their respective ACEESS Test composite scores and Writing score in 2011 before the SFL intervention began:

Table 4.1: Focal Students’ Characteristics

Student	Gender/Age	Status/Country of origin	Language Proficiency (ACCESS Score 2011)	Designation
Juan Diego	Male (16)	Undocumented/ Guatemala	Composite Score 3.3 Writing Score 3.9	Newcomer: 2 years in high school
Rosa	Female (17)	U.S. Resident/Mexico	Composite Score 2.8 Writing Score 3.7	Newcomer: 2 years in high school
Veronica	Female (16)	US Citizen/Mexico	Composite Score 3.8 Writing Score 3.6	LTELL: In US schools since KG
Roberto	Male (16)	Undocumented/ Mexico	Composite Score 4.9 Writing Score 4.7	LTELL: In US schools since 2 nd grade

The next section provides some background on the focal participants to situate them and their politically charged realities in this study.

Juan Diego. In addition to the challenges of language and content, both ESOL teachers and the EB students faced cultural challenges. Juan Diego's journey from Acatenango, the coffee-rich area of rural Guatemala, is representative of many EBs. Diego worked on his family's small farm growing cardamom spice and coffee. He was bilingual as he spoke *Canjobal*, an indigenous Guatemalan language, and Spanish too. He was schooled till the 8th grade and also helped on the farm doing chores like feeding and milking the cows and goats and the planting and harvesting of the crops. Speaking to Diego about his home in Guatemala, it was evident that he had a deep climatic and agricultural knowledge about growing cardamom and coffee and raising livestock on the farm. However, due to fickle weather combined with global trade policies that set market prices of cardamom and coffee at unfavorable levels, small farmers like Diego's family found themselves in a challenging economic situation. Unable to make ends meet on their farm, Diego and his older brother left their parents' farm in the hope of a stable job and the dream of economic prosperity in the U.S. Making the trek from Guatemala to Mexico by train, they survived the danger of being robbed and even killed by gangs in Southern Mexico that exploit defenseless immigrants from Guatemala. They crossed the U.S. border without legal documentation and made it to my district in Northwest Georgia looking for employment in the poultry farms and the carpet industry. They owed thousands of dollars to the coyotes who escorted them over the border and to unscrupulous persons in the area who sell social security numbers for high prices so undocumented people like Diego's brother are able to work.

In Weavers City, Juan Diego lived with his older brother in a trailer park close to the school. His brother found employment in a local carpet mill. Completely cut off from the world of agriculture and his cultural background, values, history, and language, Diego hopes focused on learning enough English in school to find employment in the local carpet capital mills. He

said, “I feel that I should support my brother...I can find any job. You know they pay \$7 in the factory!”³ After sending money home to the grandparents and making debt payments on a monthly basis, there is barely enough to survive. Still, Juan Diego was optimistic about his version of the American Dream.

Juan Diego and many of the immigrant Latino EBs who enroll in middle and high schools in my district in North Georgia come with little or no English language proficiency. His rich cultural resources and funds of knowledge that consist of varied indigenous literacy practices and skills in his native language are mostly unrecognized and invalidated in U.S. school contexts (Moll, Amanti, Neff, & Gonzalez, 2005). Juan Diego finds himself in an educational context that categorizes him as linguistically deficient and lacking (Valenzuela, 1999). My task as educator is to teach him reading and writing skills to help him pass the standardized end of course tests and graduation tests. There is increased pressure on school districts and teachers because of the focus on achievement and scores of sub groups like EBs, as stipulated by Annual Measurable Achievement Objectives (AMAOs). AMAOs are set annually by the Georgia State Department of Education that specify the percentage of ESOL students yearly who are expected to progress toward English language proficiency (AMAO I), attain English language proficiency (AMAO II), and demonstrate adequate yearly progress in reading and math (AMAO III). In addition, teachers are now accountable for the achievement of their students in standardized tests per President Obama’s Race to the Top initiative which evaluates teachers by the Teacher Keys Effectiveness System (TKES) and schools by the College and Career Readiness Performance Index (CCRPI) (www.gadoe.org). These realities make it all the

³ All student quotes are taken from personal communications and interviews.

more urgent for both teachers and students to find appropriate pedagogical solutions for supporting this population.

Rosa. Rosa came to the school district two years ago after she had completed her middle school education in Monterrey, Mexico. She immigrated to the U.S. after a difficult childhood. She said to me in a conversation with her in Spanish, “As far as I can remember, I have always had a job. Even as a child, I worked in the family chicken farm and then I worked as a waitress in a restaurant.” Her parents did not immigrate with her because of legal issues. In Weavers City, she lived with her aunt’s family (her mother’s sister) under strict supervision and being the oldest sibling, was overwhelmed with many responsibilities. Being the only legal resident at home, she drove errands for the adults, cooked, and supervised the younger nieces and nephews. She showed her awareness of gender roles when she mentioned to me that “my [male] cousin never helps with the work in the house...I have to do it all...alone.”

Rosa read and wrote competently in Spanish for her age, and tended to converse only in Spanish at school. She admitted to me that she was pressured at home. She explained that her uncle occasionally got upset at her because “I was offered work but I needed to speak hundred percent English and then he told me that I was dumb because in spite of three years in school, I didn’t know any English and that I needed to study harder.”⁴ Later, she found work at the local McDonald’s restaurant and worked almost every day, including weekends. She continued to fulfil her duties at home including babysitting the younger cousins in her free time, cooking on weekends and driving her uncle and aunt to and fro from work in the local carpet mills in car that

⁴ The original text in Spanish is from an interview held in March 12, 2013: “porque me hablaron por ofrecerme trabajo pero necesitaba saber cien por ciento el inglés y luego me dijo que era bien burra que no sabía nada de inglés que necesitaba ponerme a estudiar y que tenía tres años y no sabía nada de inglés.”

they bought, but for which she paid for gas. That left her very little time for studies and schoolwork.

Rosa was the oldest of the focal participants and being conscious of her age, she was determined to graduate. She proudly said, “I want to be the first to graduate and go to college in my family.” Rosa moved quickly through the basic newcomer class to my 10th grade after two years in the school. However, in the beginning, she had a low estimation of her English proficiency and would not speak it in class because she was “afraid that the other students will laugh at her.” However, as time passed she gained in confidence and was willing to take risks in her writing, her motivation and drive pushing her to steadily making notable gains in her academic work.

Veronica. Veronica would be categorized as a long-term English language learner because she had been in U.S. schools in ESOL settings since kindergarten. Though proficient when using English language for social purposes, her writing skills for academic purposes were not at grade level. Veronica was born in my district and lived with her parents who worked in the local carpet mills though they did not have the required legal documentation and visa. This was a common situation for many EBs who were naturalized U.S. citizens but whose parents did not have legal status in the district. Veronica said that “my parents take many risks but they have to work to pay the bills.” Unfortunately, her father was arrested on his way to work for driving without a license at a surprise check point set up by local law enforcement and deported back to Mexico four years ago. Veronica, her brother and mother had to move in with an aunt where they shared a single bedroom, while paying for rent and living expenses. Deportation of parents can create traumatic situations for children and families like Veronica’s (Caleb, 2013; August &

Shanahan, 2006; Delgado-Gaitan & Trueba, 1991; Dotson-Blake, 2006; López & Stanton-Salazar, 2001), and limit their educational future and career prospects (Flores, 2010).

Veronica came to me often for help with legal documents, insurance claims, and doctor's letters because her mother and aunt did not speak English fluently. Apart from the emotional drain of a broken family, her mother could not find steady employment because of her undocumented legal status. She did not drive and depended on Veronica to transport her to and from work. The family lived in constant fear of deportation. These political realities were always present in her life as she expressed her concern: "I am always worried about my mother.... What if she gets caught too...what will I do then?"

At school, Veronica was a popular student because of her smiling, extroverted, and sociable personality. Boys were attracted to her and she was in a relationship with a soccer player. She tried out for the cheerleading squad but quit because of the intense workouts. She played for the Junior Varsity soccer team, but complained often about the lack of cohesion in the team and found excuses to miss practice. She felt the pressure of supporting her mother and always mentioned that she needed part-time employment. However, when she was called by a local fast food restaurant, she did not show up for the job interview. Later, she confessed that she wanted to spend more time with her boyfriend. Almost at the end of the year, after the soccer season ended, she did begin to work part-time at another restaurant.

Though Veronica enjoyed socializing with friends, she was aware of the importance of a college degree, but was not clear about career prospects that would suit her after school. The literacy needs of students like Veronica who have never been to Mexico, and see themselves as "an American," are vastly different from Juan Diego's, who comes from a rural background. An

important focus of this study is to contextualize pedagogy in my classroom and my own role as educator to respond to these particular needs.

Roberto. Roberto lived with both parents who worked in the local carpet mills and spoke Spanish at home. He had an unstable family background because his father and older brother were involved in gangs. Roberto remembered how “I used to be so scared because my father carried a gun in the glove compartment of the car. I was always looking around to see if the cops would stop us.” But the situation in the family changed for the better since both father and brother moved away from the gang life.

Roberto would also be categorized as a long-term language learner as he came to U.S. schools in the second grade. He loved to play soccer and played for the school soccer team and also played in the local soccer league in the area. He was focused and took great pride in his work putting in effort and thought in his classwork. His reading and writing skills were almost at grade level and with some support Roberto was ready to exit ESOL. He was the “thinker” of the class and based on his interactions with the students, I noted that his views were respected by his peers. His future career aspirations were reflected in his belief that “I am never going to go to college. My father has already talked to some people to find me a job in the factory.” Immigrant students like Roberto from working-class families in low socioeconomic status do not envision themselves in college because of financial pressures that limit their postsecondary options (Arbona & Nora, 2007; Gándara & Contreras, 2009; Kanno & Harklau, 2012; Perna, 2006).

Supporting students like Roberto in their literacy so they may have alternative career prospects after high school is the central goal of this study. In the next section, I describe the steps that I implemented to begin this transition.

The SFL Argumentation Writing Unit Design

SFL researchers designed the teaching cycle (Rothery, 1994) to introduce novice writers to the language of schooling. This design provides linguistic scaffolds to support students in jointly deconstructing sample genre texts and analyzing how language functions to realize meanings (field), construe writer's stance and voice (tenor), organized cohesively in the written text (mode). The teaching cycle introduces students to basic concepts and then apprentices them through cycles of increasing complexity as they progress through the various stages of 1) Deconstruction, 2) Joint Construction, and 3) Independent Construction. Table 4.2 illustrates the different stages and the broad linguistic objectives covered in each stage:

Table 4.2: Phases of the SFL Writing Unit

Phase	Written Text	Genre	Genre Stages	SFL Objectives	Domain
1st Semester Deconstruction Joint Construction	Written Essay: <i>- Journey of a Slave</i>	Historical Account: Retell Events in the past	Background Record of Events Deduction	Structure - Macro-Theme - Hyper-Theme - Theme/Rheme	Everyday Specialized Reflexive
2nd Semester Deconstruction	Model essay: <i>Ecological Footprints</i>	Exposition: to put forward a point of view	(Background) Thesis Arguments Reinforcement of Thesis	Structure Nominalization	C U L T U R A L L Y
2nd Semester Independent Construction	Written essay: <i>Mandatory Military Service</i>	Exposition: to Justify a point of view	(Background) Thesis Arguments Reinforcement of Thesis	Structure Nominalization	
2nd Semester Deconstruction	Model essay: <i>Genetically Modified Foods</i>	Discussion: Argue two points of view	(Background) Issue Arguments/ Perspectives Position	Structure Nominalization Locate Stance: Attribution Control Tenor: Engagement	
					S U S T A

2nd Semester Independent Construction	Written Expository essay: <i>Immigration</i>	Discussion: Argue two points of view	Background) Issue Arguments/ Perspectives Position	Structure Nominalization Locate Stance: Attribution Control Tenor: Engagement	I N I N G SFL
---	---	---	--	--	----------------------------------

Stage 1: Joint Construction

Considering that the EB students did not have much exposure to expository writing, the design envisioned a progressive transition from everyday domains of congruent language and registers to using noncongruent language of academic argumentative essays. In the first semester, The class read a young-adult novel called *Copper Sun* (Draper, 2006) that chronicled the story of an African girl captured in Africa, her journey across the Atlantic Ocean, the Middle Passage, and her life as a slave on a plantation in South Carolina.

In this unit, I introduced the genre Historical Recount, to familiarize students with generic requirements of structure and organization of ideas. We jointly wrote the essay so students could focus on Macro-Theme (controlling ideas) and Hyper-Theme (main ideas) for organization at the level of the essay and Theme/Rheme flow for cohesion at the level of paragraph. To build knowledge of field, the students analyzed maps (e. g., triangular trade), studied photographs of slave trading forts in West Africa (e. g., Cape Coast Castle) and of slave auctions. They also saw a documentary on the Ashanti African tribe that helped the European slave traders capture the slaves and the film *Amistad* directed by Stephen Spielberg that illustrates the Middle Passage vividly. The students wrote an essay “The Journey of the Slave” that recounted the slaves’ experiences. Table 4.3 describes the basic SFL objectives in this phase:

Table 4.3: SFL Objectives Phase 1: Historical Recount

Phase 1: Joint Construction Transition from Everyday to Specialized Domain	
Historical Account: Retell events in the past	Structure/Stages -Background -Record of Events -Deduction
Field: Congruent language to metaphoric language	-Avoid use of personal pronouns -Use abstract participants (<i>e. g., the conditions, the treatment, the cruelty</i>) -Use generalized participants (<i>e. g., prisoners, captives, traders</i>)
Tenor: Construe distant tone	-Foreground judgment about past events and not personal feelings. -Avoid the use of “I” and “you” to address the reader
Mode: Genre Structure Organize ideas	-Generic stages: Background, Record of Events, Deduction -Theme/Rheme flow -Macro-Theme, Hyper-Theme -Temporal sequencing (<i>Then, next, after, when</i>) -Consequential conjunctions to show cause and effect -Relationships between events and actions and behavior (<i>because, but, so</i>) -Use of logical connectors (<i>not only ..but also, additionally, also, furthermore</i>)

Stage 2: Deconstruction- Exposition

The class jointly deconstructed the essay *Ecological Footprints* (Bunting, 2012) to transition from spoken to written language structures realized in the shift from everyday to specialized knowledge domains and congruent to noncongruent forms of grammar. This time the focus shifted from constructing textual to interpersonal meanings. In specifically targeted language modules, we analyzed how lexical choices of Engagement and Attribution construed an authoritative tone and a credible voice as illustrated below in Table 4.4:

Table 4.4: Stage 2: Deconstruction of Exposition Genre

	Exposition genre model text: <i>Ecological Footprints</i> (Bunting, 2012)	
	SFL Language Function	Linguistic Realization
Field:	Transition from concrete language to abstract and metaphoric language	-Use noncongruent language - abstract participants - nominalizations <i>(estimate, impact, resources)</i> -Deploy impersonal subjects in Theme <i>(e. g., It appears that, It seems that, It is evident that)</i>
Tenor:	Transition from overt opinions to muted judgment & evaluation - Engagement -Attribution	-Avoid the use of “T” and “you” to address the reader -Monoglossic & heteroglossic statements -Hedges and passive constructions (e. g., <i>It appears that, It seems that, It is evident that</i>) -Modality/Hedges (modal verbs- <i>may, would, could</i>) -Marked interpersonal Theme (e. g., <i>it seems that, it is believed that</i>) Comment Theme (e. g., <i>possibly, undoubtedly</i>) - Introduce new voices (reporting verbs: <i>said, suggests, mentions, recommends</i>) -Conjunctions of contrast: (e. g., <i>while, however, on the other hand</i>) -Choice of pronouns to create community -Attributing phrases (e. g., <i>according to, research suggests that</i>) -Modality
Textual: organization	Structure	-Awareness of Genre stages - (Background) Thesis - Arguments - Reinforcement of Thesis

Stage 3: Independent Construction- County Writing Test

After this phase of intense focus on language resources to structure and organize texts, the Weavers City County required students to write a district-wide persuasive essay which was to be turned in to the English department and graded independently. I was given the topic, so I did

not have any say in the selection. Complying with this requirement, I asked the students to write their first Exposition essay titled “Mandatory Military Service”, written independently in February, 2013. The prompt for the essay was:

In some countries every young person must serve two years of mandatory military service. Should we have a similar policy in the United States? Write an essay stating your position and supporting it with convincing reasons. Be sure to explain your reasons in detail.

This exercise served to assess the progress of the students and determine the future course of the pedagogy and praxis of the unit.

Stage 4: Deconstruction- Discussion

In this stage, I deconstructed the sample Discussion essay *Genetically Modified Foods* (Bunting , 2012) in which writers are required to present both sides of the issue and take a stance on it. With these disciplinary objectives to frame the instruction, I designed writing workshops to jointly scrutinize the model text using SFL-informed analysis and created targeted mini-lessons to analyze how texts created interpersonal meanings. The focus was on argumentative writing of the expository genres Exposition and Discussion (Martin, 1989) to support students’ understanding of how language and grammar functioned to construct discipline-specific meanings that are not overtly expressed in the text. In this phase, I pointed out Engagement options to elide subjectivity, to construe a subdued tone, and expand the discursive colloquy of the text by including different and often conflicting voices and perspectives that lent credibility and weight to the author’s persona and situated voice and stance in appropriate ways. The goal was to guide students into constructing interpersonal meanings by making key language choices

and control of tenor values of register to engage and align readers strategically with the author's viewpoints and perspectives, appropriate to generic requirements and expectations

The purpose of using SFL-informed analysis was to mine model texts for linguistic resources (e. g., nominalization and shifts in register) that realized interpersonal meanings like locating students' voice and political stance (e.g., engagement and attribution options) and to deconstruct particular dynamics in the text (e.g., author-reader relations, writerly distance and status, elide subjectivity) in staged textual constructions (e. g., Theme/Rheme, genre stages):

Table 4.5: Stage 4: Deconstruction of Discussion Genre- Engagement and Attribution

Discussion genre model text: <i>Genetically Modified Food</i> (Bunting, 2012)		
Register Value	SFL Language Function	Linguistic Realization
Tenor:	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Engagement: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Expand - Elide agency Contract - Attribution Aligning (Endorse) Disaligning (Disclaim) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> -Monoglossic & heteroglossic statements -Hedges and passive constructions (e. g., <i>it appears that, it seems that, it is believed that</i>) -Modality/Hedges (modal verbs- <i>may, would, could</i>) -Adverbial Adjuncts (e. g., <i>perhaps, possibly</i>) - Reporting verbs (e. g., <i>suggest, claims, reports</i>) - Assertive interpersonal Theme (e. g., <i>it is evident, there is no doubt that</i>) -Modals verbs (e. g., <i>could, appears, seems</i>) -Introduce new voices -Choice of pronouns to create community -Attributing phrases (e. g., <i>according to, research suggests that</i>) -Introduce contrary voices -Conjunctions of contrast: (e. g., <i>while, however, on the other hand</i>) -Negation
Textual organization	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Structure 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> -Awareness of genre stages - (Background) Issue - Arguments/Perspectives - Position

Stage 5: Independent Construction – Discussion

After building an emergent critical awareness of how language could be used strategically for political and social purposes and having analyzed how form and function interrelate in written texts, the class was prepared to write on the following topic:

“There are about 12-15 million undocumented immigrants in the country. What is the position of both parties (Republican & Democratic) on immigration? Based on well thought-out reasons and supporting details, what recommendations would you make on this issue?

This phase of the unit gave students the opportunity to use their command of language of argumentation to express their views and beliefs with an explicit focus on form and meaning. I supported them with basic knowledge of field on the immigration debate by reading and analyzing four articles on the issue that represented diverse views on the topic as described in Table 4.6 below:

Table 4.6: Articles on the Immigration Debate

Title of Article	Source	Retrieved from Web address
Strengthening our Country through Comprehensive Immigration Reform	Democratic Party on Immigration	http://www.democrats.org/issues/immigration_reform/P8
Republican Party on Immigration	Republican Party Platform	http://www.ontheissues.org/celeb/republican_party_immigration.htm
Should America Maintain/Increase the level of Legal Immigration?	BalancedPolitics.org	http://www.balancedpolitics.org/immigration.htm
Partisan Divide Remains on How to Tackle Immigration By Rosalind S. Helderma	The Boston Globe	http://www.bostonglobe.com/news/politics/2013/02/14/despite-ipartisan-call-for-immigration-reform-partisan-divides-remain/fe77gk2oajJTnH1MsSvP8K/story.html

We read the articles in class and students jointly analyzed the information on the immigration debate that was later collated on the Smart board. We organized the ideas clearly by using headings, summarizing the different views and discussing the politics behind the positions of the different political parties based on the readings of the source articles. I clarified basic concepts like political parties, their ideologies and policies, and the work of the Senate committee on immigration. The readings introduced technical words that were important to build knowledge of field, like “Comprehensive Immigration Reform Act”, “H2A & B Visas” “E-verify” and “amnesty” and familiarized the students with the workings of a divided Congress. I conferred with students in individual conferences to navigate them through the complexities of the immigration debate but required them to make appropriate language choices for construing stance and audience relationships.

During this stage, the class wrote two drafts independently on the immigration debate and its effects on families with parents without legal documentation or status. The essays were typed by the students and turned in for analysis.

Data Collection

The data collection began in January through the end May 2013. During this period, I observed, interviewed, conferenced with students and took field notes on these events. I audio-taped 45 hours of class and transcribed the audio recordings. I collected samples of student written texts to keep track of their progress and possible growth in their writing. The field notes reflect an on-going dialogue of theory, praxis, and reflection triangulated with student feedback from data from interviews and conferences. I conducted two semi-structured interviews sessions, the first in January 2013 for student background and the next one in May 2013 after the final stage of writing was complete. The following qualitative methods were used for collecting data:

1. Observational field notes: As Heath and Street (2008) say, “within events and phenomena, ordinary times and non-ordinary times...[an ethnographer should]...immerse to think like a native but at the same time take a distant view of local practices.” I had to think like a teacher and as a researcher (p. 79). For this purpose, I made detailed field notes about occurrences, events, patterns of behavior, and everyday practices of interaction, communication and production of both myself and students followed by analytical and “conceptual memos” (Heath & Street, p. 79). This data afforded me empirical evidence for drawing a theoretical basis for this study after each phase of the teaching cycle.
2. Informal interviews held during individual conferences in class gave me an emic perspective and student feedback on their learning process and challenges they faced to triangulate and corroborate the findings.
3. Transcribed audio recordings: Since two non-focal students did not agree to being filmed on video, I recorded the events of the classroom using a digital audio recorder placed in the center of the room. The recordings and transcripts were a rich source of student and teacher discussions around academic and student related issues within the on-going interactions in the classroom. These provided a thorough record of the classroom events. I reviewed and transcribed the audio and referred to this data repeatedly for in-depth corroboration and analysis. I recorded a total of 45 hours of classroom interaction and student conferences. The individual conferences were conducted around a round table in the center of the room where the recorder was placed. During whole group discussions, students were in assigned seats around the table; thus, the audio recorder was able to effectively capture verbal data of whole group from the same spot.

4. Written texts of student writing were the principal data source for the investigation of the features of the students' argumentative writing ability, empirical evidence of student growth as writers across the unit. Complete essays were collected for the 4 focal students who also completed the instructional scaffolding tasks to deconstruct samples of the genre for field building and language support.
5. Artefacts related to student achievement: ACCESS scores, academic transcripts, assessments.
6. Student interviews: Transcripts of audio-taped semi-structured interviews of the four focal students were conducted before and after the writing unit. The first interview provided a view into students' personal and academic background. The second interview gave an awareness of their understanding of strategic language use and rounded out observational data with students' own perspectives. The informal interview protocol (see Appendix A) consisted of questions prompting focal students to reflect on what they had enjoyed or found challenging about the unit; the ideas and artifacts or activities they drew on while writing; the position they took and why; and whether they believed their arguments were effective. In addition, students were asked to describe and explain their work in terms of a) the overall linguistic resources that were deployed to realize particular tenor register and audience engagement, b) text structure, stages, and purposes for writing and c) explicit knowledge of both macro- and micro-level genre features. Interviews lasted seven to eight minutes on average but were expanded when students needed additional prompting or discussion in order to answer questions, or contracted to avoid discouraging students when it was clear that, even with additional prompting, they were unable to answer.

The data gave me a multilayered perspective to assess the progress of the students and adapt instruction as the needs arose. Below I map the two distinct data categories in Table 4.7:

Table 4.7: Overview of Data

Student Data	Teacher Data
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Interview data: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Veronica Daniel Michelle Juan Diego - Digital recordings of class interactions - Student writing conferences - Students' written texts - Student records, transcripts - Field notes 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Classroom Observations Field notes Reflections on lesson design and pedagogy

Researcher Role

I have been teaching immigrant EBs in Weavers High School for the past ten years and am very familiar with the sociocultural and political realities of the Latino families that work and live in the district. I was motivated to conduct this study not only by my interest in SFL, but also because I had previously conducted two studies about the how career options of immigrant EBs are shaped by restricting structural factors in the community and unfavorable educational policies and limited support to culturally and linguistically diverse immigrant student in schools. These studies pointed to the dire need to foster equitable educational outcomes and social justice.

I am also familiar with various community stakeholders (the local community college, administrators in neighboring schools, and teachers across the district) since I have taught in other schools (middle school and adult education) in the area. In addition, my three children have been educated in the local schools and my wife works as Parent Involvement Coordinator for the neighboring school district with similar demographics and population. Through the support that

my wife offers local Latino families (civic rights, educational classes, health referrals, literacy support, parent meetings, miscellaneous support- food, furniture, transport, etc.), I am in close contact with the challenges that this population faces in the area. I was board member of Georgia Teachers of ESOL (GATESOL) for four years and presented in various ESOL conferences on cultural and pedagogical issues. My critical outlook and advocacy for these students is further motivated by my own experiences as an educator of color who has lived the challenges of being a multicultural immigrant. I have navigated the complex terrain of learning a second and third language and understood how this journey involves complex negotiations of identity and relations with the immigrant and the dominant culture of the adopted communities. My research questions were directly influenced by my lived experiences as an immigrant language learner and my knowledge of the culture of the district. In addition, my studies as a graduate student in the University of Georgia have provided me a nuanced view on how literacy can be a powerful instrument to encourage students to develop and support critical insights on their social and political world. My pedagogy draws on and validates students' funds of knowledge (Moll, Amanti, & Gonzalez, 1992) and fosters their identities as capable and talented learners who can fulfill their rich potential and advance in their educational journey to later success in their lives.

Finally, I am aware of my varied roles as teacher, researcher, and student advocate. In this study, I merge these three roles by conferring with my students, encouraging their feedback (negative and positive), not assuming that my good intentions coincide with their goals, and by triangulating my multilayered data to ensure that my findings are grounded in their emic experiences. In sum, my role is to find ways to serve, support, and foster their growth as human beings, capable students, and co-participants in this journey.

Limitations and Challenges

I was invested in SFL theory and praxis before I began this study. I am aware that as a researcher I would like to ‘prove’ its efficacy and use as a pedagogical tool for learning language. For this purpose, one of the challenges of this study was not to focus only on those instances that may confirm its potential as a powerful teaching tool. Instead, I spent much effort to counter the pitfalls of being predisposed by looking for instances and events in the classroom that invalidated and refuted the alleged success of this framework. I was attentive to the possibility of students’ resistance and was willing to analyze its cause and origin. This stance compelled me to find ways to make the SFL framework accessible, implementable and doable both for me and for the students. I was attentive to theoretical shortcomings and practical incompatibilities that threw students into conceptual binds and found ways to either simplify the pedagogy or back-track to rectify the process and research design. The findings chapter presents challenges in more detail.

Second, being aware of the conflicts involved in my dual role of teacher/researcher, I will describe some criteria to demonstrate trustworthiness in the study: credibility, transferability, dependability, and confirmability (Lincoln & Guba, 2007). In order to build credibility, I used triangulation between data (my field notes, student interviews, student writing) and member checks (student conferences) that were done on a daily basis as students wrote their essays and student interviews to corroborate the findings. For transferability or generalizability, the study presents rich description of the setting, the instruction, the focal participants and the SFL-informed analyses of student writing to ground the research questions and the findings. The research design logically leads the reader from the research questions to the methods used, to the analysis and the conclusive findings through a chain of contextualized evidence. Based on these

descriptions, readers may make their own determination regarding how the findings may apply to other settings. Similarly, I am as transparent as I can be about my sampling and analysis in order to allow the readers to judge for themselves the dependability of the data and findings. As the teacher, data collector and researcher, I make no assertions about the neutrality or objectivity of the study. Because I am an actor in the study, my view is necessarily different from an outsider. I merely claim that this is an interpretation, albeit limited and partial, of the happenings in the classroom and allow the readers to determine how fair or objective my findings are.

Third, I did not have any pre-conceived notions or formulaic designs for ‘permeability’, besides my own critical orientation to guide me. I extended the discursive space of the classroom in Dyson’s (1993) notion of the permeable curriculum, whereby I encouraged students to draw on texts that referred to their home environment and culture and to the larger social and pop culture that was central to their lives as immigrant teenagers in the United States. These connections to self and to the larger context of society were the building blocks of the everyday knowledge domain on which the class collectively constructed webs and intertexts to develop some reflexive and critical insights on their worlds. I adjusted, adapted, and reacted to events as they unfurled in the classroom, and the sample transcripts of the discursive climate of the class are instances of the spontaneity and immediateness of the interactions. Although I allowed space for expression and disagreement, the confines of a permeable classroom are bounded by power relations (Foucault, 1979). Foucault proposed that power exists in relations and in power relations there is necessarily the possibility of resistance. On many occasions, students exercised both active and passive resistance: the “counterscripts” and “underlife” of the classroom (see Gutierrez, Rymes, & Larson, 1995). On other occasions, their responses to complex social issues would be measured and restrained or naïve and polarized, and in most cases, the more dominant

voices would impose their views. Considering that dialogue is a contested term fraught with pitfalls (Burbules, 2006; Ellsworth, 1989; Jones, 1999), I did not attempt to resolve conflicting ideologies and values, though inevitably, I validated some and disregarded others (as described in the next chapters). In many cases, I overtly redirected, refocused, and regulated the discursive flow of the class. Foucault recommends that it is important to “analyze relations of power in order to learn what is being produced: reversible strategic games or the ‘states of domination’ that people ordinarily call ‘power’” (Foucault, 1997/1984, p. 299). Therefore, the discussions that centered on power and how it is wielded by individuals and groups were productive, in the sense that they offered insights, though limited, in framing the critical orientation to the literacy and instruction. They fostered a climate where students were apprenticed into a process of serious inquiry and reframing of ‘naturalized’ ways of being and into more resistant interpretations of issues and events.

Lastly, Macken-Horarik (1998) cautions against having high expectations of critical and social analyses from EB students who are grappling with learning basic language. She proposes that though it is possible to expand and develop students’ critical insights by supporting them with relevant texts, these deeper insights typically develop in the writing of older teenagers (Christie, 2012; Christie & Derewianka, 2008). Therefore, although one of my principal goals was to build students’ critical knowledge, I was also aware of the limitations of this project in the context of 15-16-year old teens who were also EBs. Macken-Horarik proposed an initial transition to building reflexive and critical frames of knowledge and to focus how specialized domains of schooling express (or suppress) these perspectives in academic texts and writing. knowledge and then to work towards building reflexive and critical frames of knowledge. As Bazerman (2004) suggests, “composition and rhetorical intertextuality is ultimately about agency

within the complex, historically evolved, and continually mutating landscape of texts” (p. 60). Therefore, in spite of the limitations, this study is about building authority, agency, and resistant voices for EBs who up to this point have been silenced by debilitating social and political discourses. It is concerned with helping students to challenge and reframe how they are “being written”, by supporting their literacy to enable them to write themselves and their interests into the world of language (Freire & Macedo, 1987).

Analytical Framework

The study drew from Martin and White (2005), Chang and Schleppergrell (2012), Hao and Humphrey (2012), and Hyland (2002) to frame the analysis of the students’ writing. As described in the last chapter, resources of Engagement and Attribution, interpersonal Theme, control over pronoun referents, and modality map the students’ ability to construe voice(s) and realize subjective relations with the reader in strategic ways. Table 4.8 summarizes linguistic options that will be the focus of the analysis of student texts:

Table 4.8: Language for Engagement

Monogloss				
	Contract	Disclaim	Deny	Negation: (<i>no, never, didn't</i>) Declarative, unmodalized clauses
			Counter	Conjunctions of contrast (e.g., <i>however, but, yet</i>) Concessive conjunctions (e.g., <i>although, though</i>)
		Proclaim	Concur	Comment Theme: (<i>naturally, obviously</i>)
			Pronounce	Assertive expressions: (e.g., <i>needless to say, I contend, the facts of the matter are..., indeed</i>) Adverbs that add force (e.g., <i>significantly, confidently</i>)

H E T E R O G L O S S				Language that limits or closes down options (e.g. <i>also, only</i>) Modality of necessity (e.g., <i>need to</i>)
			Endorse	Reporting verbs Projection clauses <i>e. g., The report demonstrates/shows/proves that...</i>
	Expand	Attribute	Acknowledge	Presentation of other voices Citation within the clause <i>e. g., Halliday argues that, many Australians believe that, it's said that, the report states</i>
			Distance	Comparative reference (e.g., some research, other researchers) <i>e. g., Chomsky claimed to have shown that...</i>
		Entertain	Modals	of probability: (e.g., <i>may, might</i>)
				of usuality: (<i>possibly, probably</i>)
				adjuncts: (<i>perhaps</i>)
				Attributes: <i>it's likely that...</i>
				mental verb projections: <i>I believe that... I think that...</i>
				evidentials: <i>seems, appears</i>
				Quantifiers that enable comparison (e.g., <i>many, another, to some extent</i>)
				Conditionals (e.g., <i>if, when</i>)

Analyzing the Cultural Sustaining Environment

This study proposes that literacy and learning can be transformative when students are allowed to negotiate knowledge and meaning-making (Darder, 1998; Freire, 1998b; Greene, 1998; McLaren & Baltodano, 2000; McLaren & Fischman, 1998; Shor, 2000). For this purpose, I examine specific student-peer and student-teacher interactions with the intention of revealing how permeability may be incorporated into the classroom. The transcripts of the interactions were selected because they represent instances of student *counterscripts* (Gutiérrez, 1995, 1999, 2008), disruptions of dominant ideologies (in home and school domains), or momentary

intersections of resistant views. I captured these instances of divergence to problematize knowledge claims and infuse the classroom with multiple interpretations of the social world. The larger goal was to bring the presence of hegemonic power relations and dominant identity constructions to the fore, to examine the potential of negotiating “politically charged contexts” (Pacheco, 2012, p 121), and in the process, build critical perspectives on students’ lived histories. Pacheco suggests that in this domain, the teacher activist and students together coordinate a process of “joint sense making, problem solving, and social analysis” that critically dialogues and engages with the particular social and educational policies in which they are immersed. Within a framework of critical permeability, the study takes on the challenge of fomenting “critical dispositions, social analyses, worldviews, and other sociocultural resources that can serve as thinking and analytic tools for learning in school contexts” (p. 121).

In sum, the transcripts examined the ways that I responded to the calls of humanizing pedagogy to reveal the complex dynamics of the social world, the recognition of which may afford students the possibility of self-determination and agency to define and express their beings (Fránquiz & Salazar, 2004, Freire, 1970; Huerta, 2011; Trueba, 1999).

The following chapter shifts from a theoretical critical consideration of SFL praxis in written texts to a focus on the contextual factors that impacted the development of the writing unit.

CHAPTER 5

ENACTING CULTURALLY SUSTAINING PRAXIS

Increasingly, in the context of high stakes testing and accountability, educators and researchers look to critical pedagogy to motivate students, develop their literacies, and engage them and their communities in the quest for equitable outcomes in education (Giroux, 1981, 1997; Giroux & McLaren, 1994; Kincheloe, 2004). Critical educators reimagine schools and classrooms as social justice-building spaces (Anyon 2009, p. 390) centered in a critique of structural, economic, and racial oppression. When literacy instruction is reduced to discrete skills and divorced from students' "ways with words" (Heath, 1983), it loses relevance and paves the road to a disengaged and silenced student body (Street, 2003). Gee (1990) argues that paying close attention to the ideological, cultural, and political dimensions of literacy is vital for educators in multicultural classrooms.

Before I describe the process of 'language teaching', this chapter illustrates how culturally sustaining praxis attends to the discursive aspects of the classroom. For the past few years, the district has pushed the concept of engaging students to 'earn' their commitment and interest as 'customers of education' (see Schlechty, 2009). The drive was to 'engage' students by focusing on the students and on quality of work provided to students. I describe how instructional frameworks like SFL should not be divorced from students' lives students to

increase authentic opportunities for engagement in the learning. Fortunately, my administrators gave me total control over how I delivered and taught the standards of the curriculum, and I took on the challenge of mediating students' thinking and framing instruction around the politically charged realities of students' lives (Apple, 2004). In the next sections, I illustrate how I drew on students' funds of knowledge, identities, and first languages to teach in culturally sustaining ways with the purpose of increasing engagement and promoting academic achievement (Bartlett & Garcia, 2011; Garcia & Bartlett, 2007; Gay, 2000; Gonzalez, Moll, & Amanti, 2005; Ladson-Billings, 1995; Paris, 2012).

What is 'Culturally Sustaining'?

A critical orientation assumes that readings of texts are contingent to histories and social locations, resulting in interpretations that are one of many possible ones. Understanding and evaluating issues and social concerns is therefore, never a neutral act. Teaching critical literacy then is to invite students to inhabit positions of textual authority anchored in these recognitions. However, such positions are fraught with ideological peril because in a classroom, teachers wield power and textual authority in structuring how 'right' answers and interpretations (whether critical or not) should be framed (Nystrand, 1997). Also, classrooms in United States, especially in the south, are framed within moral and ethical norms and a climate of political correctness, of which teachers have to be sensitive and aware. In such a climate, teachers and administrators tend to stay away from polemical social issues to ensure that their statements do not project anti-establishment values or provoke any sector (cultural, racial, or ethnic) in ways that may be misunderstood or misconstrued. Undoubtedly, proposing a cultural dialogue for expanding or developing students' critical literacy (Aukerman, 2012) can be an unruly "unfolding of social heteroglossia" (Bakhtin, 1981, p. 278), at best, a perilous route rife with potential cultural strife

and ideological opposition, or at the other extreme, resulting serious reprimands and repercussions for the teacher from parents and administrators. Aukerman (2012), conceptualizing critical literacy, proposes that in dialogue, “a student’s own voice is structured and emerges in conversation and constant tension with multiple other voices” (p. 46). In my experiences with co-teaching in mainstream classes, I have noted how students have little opportunity to encounter more than one textual perspective- that of the teacher (Nystrand, 1997) and discussions tend to be stripped of any unsettling thoughts or controversial positions. As a responsible educator myself, I do not propose that classes should be mired in controversy or hostile ideological confrontations, but I also reject avoiding, contextualizing, or presenting one-sided vapid interpretations of events. As a critical educator, I necessarily read events and issues from multiple perspectives and encourage students’ views and concerns, especially those voices that have been silenced, dominated, or disregarded (Salazar, 2013; Valdés, 2001). Contrary to the practice of the “banking model” of education (Freire, 1970), in which literacy is perceived as imposition, culturally sustaining praxis allows the disruption of established norms, Discourses, ideologies and values in a space for re-framing normalized ideologies and interpretations of events and people. Framing instruction in the multiplicity of views and beliefs creates authentic possibilities for student engagement and the potential for scaffolding the reading and writing of texts in culturally sustaining ways (Bartolomé, 1994; Campano, 2007; Duncan-Andrade & Morrell, 2007, 2008; Dyson, 1993; Heath, 1983; hooks, 1994; Moll, et al., 2005; Paris, 2012). This study examines how this critical educator implemented such a space of critical dialogue and “joint sense making, problem solving, and social analysis” (Pacheco, 2010, p. 121) to encourage students to express, read, and write their worlds (Freire & Macedo, 1987).

Bakhtin's heteroglossia, the notion that all texts are webs created from texts from the past, is a central principle of culturally sustaining praxis and the theoretical conception of language in SFL as dialoguing with context, specifically in the lexical options of Engagement and Attribution, merge to form culturally sustaining SFL praxis. In this view, the guiding principle of heteroglossia frames language instruction to tap into the rich potential of students' unofficial domains as foundational resources for scaffolding literacy (permeability) and to weave students' commonsense home knowledge and construct reflexive and critical perspectives, expressed through the specialized knowledge of language form and meaning. Macken-Horarik (1998) proposes that when students acquire the specialized knowledge of genre and register use, they are armed with the linguistic tools to integrate and express both their everyday and critical views on their social worlds in their writing. Since culturally sustaining SFL praxis views writing as composing in social dialogue, the first step was to begin the dialogue and clarify the discursive parameters for its unfolding.

This chapter responds to the research question: In what ways does culturally sustaining systemic functional linguistics praxis support or constrain focal emergent bilinguals in the writing of persuasive essays in a secondary sheltered language arts classroom? In the next sections, I chronicle how I set up the dialogic encounters and brought their underlying sociocultural beliefs and values to the fore, framing the curriculum around the ideological content of these events. I present focal interactions that reveal how the discursive parameters of dialoguing with students and discuss the impact of this framing on the language instruction and on the students.

Constructing Culturally Sustaining Space

Personal Time: Building Trusting Relationships

The daily tone and tenor of this 10th grade sheltered language arts class was different from other mainstream classes. Since this class met for 90 minutes during the last block of the day, EB students came into class ready to share the events of the day. Though I posted essential questions on the board framing the instruction around the Common Core Standards, my activating strategy began with “personal time” when students argued issues, discussed personal concerns, requested help with school-related matters, or conversed about the latest pop culture icons or happenings for 10 minutes at the start of class. Personal time mostly happened in the beginning of class, but on many occasions was triggered by connections that students made to issues and events in the middle of a discussion about a text.

Soccer practice and matches were favorite topics since four students Miguel, Juan Diego, Daniel, and Veronica were trying out for the school soccer team. As they entered class, students would banter about the goals they scored, injuries on the field, and rivalry games with neighboring schools. During personal time, students also requested my help in matters like insurance, sports medical forms, class schedules and graduation credits, and signing up for extra-curricular activities and clubs. For example, in early January, 2013, Rosa had returned from Mexico after an extended Christmas vacation with her parents in Monterrey¹. She arrived a week after class had begun and admitted that she had a doctor friend of the family write her a ‘false’ absence excuse stating that her mother was sick and needed Rosa to stay another week in Mexico. The transcript below (January 14, 2014) sets the situation:

Rosa shows Nihal a medical prescription from Mexico.

¹ Michelle left a week before vacations began and returned a week after class. This is common practice in the Latino community as families return home during Christmas break.

NIHAL: This is your *receta*?... (prescription)

ROSA: *Si. Es para treinta dias.* (Yes. It's for 30 days.)

NIHAL: But it's not in your name.

ROSA: *No, es en nombre de mi mama..por eso tenía que ir.* (No, it's in my mother's name. That's why I had to go.)

NIHAL: Oh, in your mom's name. It's OK. It'll work. How many days?....

ROSA: *Trienta.* (Thirty.)

NIHAL: Thirty days! You were absent thirty days!

JUAN DIEGO: That's a lot.

ROSA: *No, Noooo o sea.. ya contando todo el mes y todo eso..estuve un mes allá..*

(No, noooo, that is..counting the whole month and all..I was there for a month.)

NIHAL: Oh. *Ya*, OK, counting the vacations...

Rosa showed me the absence note because she needed to make sure that it would serve to excuse her absences. Tacitly, both of us knew that she was living away from her parents who do not have legal documentation to live in the United States and Christmas break was the only time she could reunite with them. I took the note to the attendance office to make sure that her absences were excused. I was bending the rules because I understood the reasons why Rosa chose to take off two weeks from class. Here, building trusting relationships was a higher priority and required a broader understanding of sociocultural values and backgrounds of students. Knowing Rosa's situation, I bent the rules to support the student.

Activating Divergent Ideologies

Personal time was also an open forum where students brought up personal issues related to family, substance abuse, culture, politics, or issues of a bureaucratic nature. Domingo's

recreational drug use was known to administrators and he was under a close watch and had been suspended on many occasions in the past for disciplinary reasons. He often proclaimed to the class that he was “too smart to bring dope to school” (personal conversation January, 20, 2013). Though I did not encourage or support his habit in any way, he was aware that I was a mandatory reporter and that the school had a zero-tolerance of drug use on campus. Domingo was eventually caught with marijuana in his car and sent to an alternate school in the second semester of the academic year. Meanwhile, he would discuss his marijuana use in Mexico and how he got fired in a fast-food restaurant for working when “high.” While the soccer players positioned themselves as competent athletes, Domingo would take pride in his rebellious exploits, drinking alcohol and smoking marijuana. Students’ private lives at home often sparked off discussions on how cultural rules and expectations tended to be different in students’ homes and native countries, compared to the United States. These interactions usually involved cross-cultural comparisons and about navigating the social differences between two worlds. On one occasion, students spoke about owning guns and firing gun shots to celebrate Christmas and New Year in Weavers City (transcript: January 12, 2013):

NIHAL: You have a gun in your house? (1:00:03)

JOSE: A bazooka! (students’ loud laughter)

NIHAL: Bazooka! But you don’t have guns?

JOSE: No.

NIHAL: See, that’s a wise guy! *Pa’ que* (why) guns in the house?

ROBERTO: You never know!

NIHAL: You never know what?

ROBERTO: *En Mexico, es diferente.* (In Mexico, it’s different.) You need one, for real!

NIHAL: Well, that may be so.

VERONICA: Do you have a gun in your house?

NIHAL: We don't even have a toy gun in my house. If anybody gave a toy gun to my son, I would throw it out. He never played with guns, not even a toy gun.

VERONICA: Why!

ROBERTO: Why!

NIHAL: So he wouldn't grow up with guns. Now he doesn't play with guns.

VERONICA: Are ya'll religious?

Culturally sustaining praxis brings divergent cultural ideologies and different voices and ways of being to the fore in the classroom. In the above interaction, students measure their home values of carrying guns against my anti-gun position. Their expectation of guns being used for personal protection is the norm in their communities and back home where drug-violence and wars between cartels are a fact of life. I was aware that my voice had the power and weight of institutional authority (Nystrand, 1997). Aukerman (2012) suggests that teachers of critical literacy must decenter texts as infallible authorities and also decenter teachers as infallible (textual) authorities. The author proposes dialogic engagement where the teacher relinquishes the role of primary textual authority so that students may realize that multiple reading positions (not just their own, and not just the teacher's) are acceptable. Easier said than done, the resulting dynamic in the class was one of opposing ideologies. In the discussion above, most Mexican students' families owned guns "to protect the home from robbers" (transcript: January 12, 2013), aligned with the dominant view of gun ownership in the United States. However, I made it clear that I opposed gun-ownership and firing arms in the air to celebrate, while my students were in

favor of it. In order to decenter my views, I never attempted to resolve differences, but to allow divergent voices a valid space in the classroom. The outcome was that on many occasions deeply entrenched views conflicted in the classroom; nevertheless, the presence of contrary voices from various unofficial worlds made the presence of multiple readings and interpretations of events possible. Culturally sustaining praxis thrives in the assumption that in the resonance of heteroglossia, of multiple voices and views, a richly layered intertextual discursive environment is possible. I could not empirically measure the impact of this framing, but was able to set up discursive parameters in positive ways. All three Vietnamese students stated that they did not own guns:

NIHAL: Anh, do you have guns in your house?

ANH: No.

NIHAL: At least a toy... bi-bi gun?

ANH: No.

DOMINGO: They don't need it because they have *dragones* and know kung-fu and stuff!

When students expressed themselves freely, their own stereotypical views about other cultures came to the fore, in this case, uncritical cultural generalizations borne from popular culture, like Asian martial arts films, that reproduce and perpetuate cultural types. On Vietnamese New Year, the Vietnamese students brought in typical sweets for the class and some Latino students privately hinted (in Spanish) that they did not want to eat “monkeys and roaches”. Though these instances were potentially “learning moments,” I found that in the project of naming and being named, I was caught up in the contradiction of imposing my own cultural versions of knowing. I could not force resolutions between divergent voices of student’s particular “ways of knowing” that clashed against other student’s “ways of being” in a space that encouraged the expression of

difference. I was facing the conundrum of teaching in dialogue. On this occasion, the class discussed how multicultural films propagated cultural stereotypes. I did offer my version of how the world ought to be, but did not expect students to agree or be aligned with it. At such times, I would intervene and open the floor for a dialogue about how Latinos were stereotyped by the dominant White community, but also about how Whites were stereotyped by the Latinos. The discussion moved from home and community values into critical and reflexive domains. We discussed how popular films not only presented narrow cross-cultural values and interpretations but also reinforced dominant cultural exposes (e. g., war films convey heroic and patriotic interpretations of what it means to be “American”). These discussions tackled how misinterpretations of the “other” fueled by cultural biases led to violence and hate. A culturally sustaining praxis is grounded in an expression of multiple perspectives, but the mere expressing of divergent views has limited use. I guided the direction of discussions, provoking reflections on commonly held views and beliefs in critical understandings of how people are positioned subjectively within a range of ideologies and social practices that may have denigrating and undemocratic outcomes. This discussion on how popular culture produces stereotypical and uncritical representations and interpretations of events and people would have been an authentic opportunity for writing within a social dialogue initiated by students. However, I had a plan for writing instruction (described in detail in the next chapter) and did not deviate from it.

Culturally sustaining praxis moves away from banking models of instruction (Freire, 1970) but also challenges hegemonic practices that teachers uncritically endorse and practice in the classroom. Giroux (1997) asks: What counts as knowledge? How is knowledge distributed and validated? Who gets heard? Do voices that express racism, sexism, or elitism have credence, if the intent of the critical classroom is to create less oppressive ways of knowing? These are

difficult questions that culturally sustaining praxis raises. Nevertheless, in opening up the class to the unofficial worlds of my students, I saw many critical learning opportunities for students to contest dominant views from their communities and from the larger ‘American’ society that perceived them as cultural outsiders. Teaching literacy in this classroom meant supporting the questioning and reframing of entrenched views about each other and understanding how these beliefs are present themselves in daily social interaction and discussions. I wish to caution that in this arena, I could not compel students to resolve their differences; nor would they accept facile solutions. I did succeed in gaining considerable interest and involvement that was central to teaching culturally sustaining praxis.

Code Switching

In the above transcripts, students (both Spanish-speaking and Vietnamese) used their home language freely in class. Code-switching, or shunting between languages, was an important aspect of implementing culturally sustaining SFL praxis. Metaphorically, code-switching brought the home world into the classroom, but I used it for different reasons in the class (Swain, Kirpatrick & Cummins, 2011; Turnbull & Arnett, 2002; Turnbull & Dailey-O’Cain, 2009). For example, I would use it often to clarify a concept (transcript: January 10, 2013):

NIHAL: Reporting verbs- to report results of a survey, you're going to use *concludes*, *demonstrates*, or *estimates*. (8:26). PERO (but)...when you are not sure, CUANDO NO ESTAN SEGUROS.. when you are not sure of the source or information, use *allege*, *suggest* and *claim*. So *Ramirez claims that the number of fast food restaurants in the world is increasing*. It is a claim that he is making. (9:02). Maybe it’s true, QUIZÁS! (maybe!)

In the above transcript, I switched back and forth from English to Spanish to emphasize and clarify (mainly for the low-proficiency Spanish speakers) the important concepts of the lesson. Code-switching was a dominant feature of culturally sustaining praxis and students used it frequently too. Rosa, a newcomer student, chose to speak mostly Spanish in the class as illustrated in the example below in an exchange with Tran, a Vietnamese student:

NIHAL: Tran! Your source is Figure 2. Figure 2 is a chart or a graph. What reporting verb will you use if a chart or a graph is your source of information?

TRAN: “Displays”?

NIHAL: Yeah, you can use “displays” or “summarizes”. So “Figure 2 displays the progress of ESOL students in the EOCTS”.

ROSA: “*Evaluar*” *tambien*? (“evaluates” also?)

NIHAL: “Evaluates” *tambien*. *Depende del caso*. (“evaluates” also. Depends on the particular case). You can say “displays”, “evaluates” or even “summarizes”.

It is evident that Rosa knows the English verb “evaluates”. However, in an interview she said that she preferred to express her thoughts in Spanish for faster and more precise communication (Rosa interview: May 2013). This example may seem trivial, but has immense implications for purposes of community-building and participation in class. I did not penalize my students when they did not speak in English and encouraged bilingualism in class. The Vietnamese students were also free to speak in their native language. Code-switching in native languages was a linguistic scaffold and peer support, and an important aspect of culturally sustaining praxis.

Code-switching was also used strategically, both by the students and me, to signal discursive shifts in the lesson. A key aspect of culturally sustaining praxis was that students felt free to interrupt the flow of the lesson to interject their thoughts, sometimes related to the lesson

and in many cases irrelevant to it. According to Gutierrez, Rymes, and Larson (1995), such interruptions are the “counterscripts”, or “rebel scripts” or the “underlife” of a classroom. As the teacher, I had the power to allow counterscripts to flourish to maintain the democratic tone of the class. Students would have side-bar conversations and discussions amongst themselves, mostly not related to the subject of the class. However, when I felt that the class was veering towards unproductive distractions, I redirected the flow of conversation back to the topic at hand. In the example below (transcript: January 10, 2013) where students conversed about a blood donation drive at school, I describe how my code-switching between English and Spanish sparked different signals to control the flow of the discourse of the class:

NIHAL: They don't force you to do anything. It's voluntary. (1:58)

JUAN DIEGO: *Te van a sacar todo tu sangre!* (They are going to take all your blood!)

NIHAL: (Louder tone to whole class) Who else..who else is donating blood here?

MIGUEL: [Me

JOSE: That guy] (Everybody talks together.)

MIGUEL: I donated last year. (Everybody talking.)

NIHAL: Guys, guys listen up. Who else is donating blood this year? (tone rises)

ALL STUDENTS TOGETHER: I will. (students continue talking)

NIHAL: (firmer tone) Look, guys... (silence)..Someday you will need blood.... and somebody will donate for you (2:23)....so when you're OK... you should donate so somebody can live.

Since the students seemed to be unfocused and in side-bars (private conversations), I continued to use English to refocus and redirect the group to encourage them to donate blood. Only Juan

Diego used Spanish, but he used it to playfully put fear into the girls who were thinking of donating blood. As the discussion continued, I code-switched back into Spanish:

SOFIA: What if you're scared?

NIHAL: I donate every year..OK...You don't even feel it because nowadays the techniques are so good...you don't even feel it...*no se siente nada*. (2:42)

ROSA: *Yo no puedo* (I can't do it.)

Code-switching to the home language signaled a movement from the official world of school to the unofficial and comforting world of home. I used Spanish strategically to allay their fears and reassure them that donating blood was not painful. Code-switching symbolically released discursive restrictions of the world of schooling to open pathways to the familiar world of home and community.

I wish to caution readers that the sample interactions described here are examples of the discursive climate of the classroom. These conversations took place parallel to daily language instruction (as would happen in any classroom). The intention of culturally sustaining praxis was first and foremost, a focus on learning. I hope that these are not perceived as a waste of time in free play and a seeming lack of direction. Others may be misconstrued as simplifications or 'buddy-buddy' moments. I wish to clarify that my intention was always to engage the students in the writing instruction (which I describe in the next chapter). However, parallel to, and an integral part of the instruction, was the framing and delivery aspects of teaching writing. I have separated the two dimensions - of teaching writing and creating culturally sustaining space - for purposes of this dissertation, though both aspects are integrated and were constantly evolving during the teaching process.

The next excerpt is from a transcript (January 11, 2013) that illustrates how the class code-switched to express their personal opinions of other teachers:

ROBERTO: Mrs. Sanders *está mejor*. (Mrs. Sanders is better.)

DOMINGO: She gives us the answers

JUAN DIEGO: *Y la otra, cuando me llegue por primera vez...* (And the other one, when I first came here)

ROBERTO: Miss Parker?

NIHAL: Miss Parker, yeah. She doesn't teach ESOL anymore. (33:03)

JUAN DIEGO: *Estaba bien gordilla!* (She was quite big!)

NIHAL: Yeah, she lost a lot of weight. She used to be at least 50 pounds more.

SOFIA: Yeah, when you see her pictures you can tell by her face

ROBERTO: She started to exercise a lot. *Le decian "Miss Burgessa"* (They would call her "Miss Burger")

JUAN DIEGO: (Laughs)

NIHAL: Miss *Hamburgesa*. (Miss Hamburger.)

ROBERTO: *La tenía con Luis..Edgar.. todos ellos*. (She could not stand Luis, Edgar, and all of them)

NIHAL: It is because of that class that she didn't want to teach anymore. She got fed up of that class. They drove her crazy.

The above interaction is an example of a completely unrelated interruption or counterscript initiated by students. I could have redirected the class in a forceful manner, imposing the 'appropriate' rules of expected classroom behavior. However, I chose not to because I saw the cultural potential of this moment. When students gossiped about other teachers they were

symbolically out of the official arena of school and in personal and unofficial domains. Code-switching signaled the shunting between the two worlds. The students' used Spanish to describe the teachers as "*gordilla*" "*está mejor*" and "*Miss burgesa*". The above excerpt demonstrates that for this to occur, I, the teacher, also had to be complicit in their private world. My use of Spanish (*Miss Hamburguesa*) signaled this connection. However, I reverted back to English to explain that the teacher felt unmotivated to teach ESOL because she could not get along with some students.

Shunting Between Two Worlds

Culturally sustaining praxis involves shunting between the two worlds. This was a common occurrence as students referred to Latino cultural icons and stars like Jenny Rivera², Gerardo Ortiz³, and Mexican soccer athletes and teams. Having knowledge of Latino pop culture because of my travels and experiences in Latin America was useful. For example, I had a poster of a Mexican soccer team named America, on the wall in the classroom. Team America was a top-performing soccer team in the Mexican soccer league, mainly due to the talents of Cuahotemoc Blanco, who at the time was in decline and an aging superstar (he was 40 at that time). In the conversation below, I make fun of some students who were fans of America:

(NIHAL talking about the poster on the wall of a Mexican soccer team, America.)

DOMINGO: You can put it right there.

NIHAL: By the poster? You want that poster?

DOMINGO: Na..that's OK.

NIHAL: *Es muy viejo... están muertos todos ya!* (It's old. They are all dead now!) (all students laugh)

NIHAL: *El jorobado...está casi muerto ya...* (The hunchback..he is almost dead now!)

² Jenny Rivera, a singer, died tragically in an airplane crash during the study.

³ Gerardo Ortiz, another popular singer, had a concert in the city that many students attended.

(Nihal laughs) I always say that. *La gente de America se ponen bravos- “Come que jorobado! Ese es Cuahotemoc.. el cuaho”* (I always say that. The America fans get mad- “What do you mean hunchback!...That is Cuahotemoc...known as Cuaho.”)

NIHAL: Who is with America?

SOFIA: That loser over there! (students laugh)

NIHAL: You? (to Miguel)

MIGUEL: Yeah. I go with America

ROBERTO: *Yo con Chivas.* (I go with Chivas.)

Code-switching communicated particular codes of kinship that can only be transmitted in the native language. Fluency in Spanish afforded me access to Latino humor and cultural codes and popular culture that fostered teacher-student and student-student connections and a free play of language and humor, so important to building a sense of community and comradeship in the class. Code-switching and its dimension of insider cultural knowledge was the foundation for creating community and shared lived experience for framing student engagement and buy-in to the SFL writing instruction of the class.

Cultural Silencing and Separateness

In a predominantly Spanish-speaker classroom, the Vietnamese students were alienated in many ways. Firstly, language and cultural differences created tacit divisions in the class. Though both the Vietnamese girls were average students in middle school in Ho Chi Minh City (Anh failed the Vietnamese writing class), they were perceived them as “smart” and “intelligent by the Latinos because their academic work ethic, drive and motivation tended to be higher than many Latinos at the school. These differences were accentuated by Anh’s aloofness and lack of

desire to socialize with the classmates. She was always the first to finish her classwork and did not share or support the others in any way. She would find solace and retreat into reading Korean graphic novels on her tablet, similar to the soaps on television. Her younger sister Mai was more social, but depended heavily on Anh for academic support. They conversed in Vietnamese in class. My attempts to group Mai with others did not have much success. On one occasion, in a random group selection, Mai was separated from Anh and burst into tears, throwing a wad of paper at Tran who refused to exchange his seat (the preferred seat next to Anh).

Both sisters expressed their views, many times confrontational to the Mexicans. These views surfaced in discussions about immigration when both Vietnamese sisters overtly expressed their opposition to the undocumented immigrants in the city (transcript March 24, 2013). Stereotypes were perpetuated and accentuated in the class as the Vietnamese girls tended to be perceived as “haughty” and “aloof” and many students retaliated with snide cultural remarks in English and Spanish (explained below). In spite of my efforts to include their home scripts (discussions on Gunnam style dancing, Tran’s father’s origins of mixed Vietnamese-American descent, the French influence on Vietnam, and nail-factory exploitation), the prevalent dynamics led to the ‘silencing’ of the Vietnamese students who had neither language nor cultural ‘standing’ to resist or respond appropriately (Holland, Lachicotte, Skinner, & Cain, 1998).

The class espoused larger cultural and ideological dynamics and differences in society, mostly reproducing stereotypical cultural representations of each other. These instances presented opportunities to analyze how racism stems from the fight for legitimacy and validation in intercultural conflicts in which people position each other in ideological ways. Harnessing the resulting discursive tension of displaced views and beliefs was a challenging task in the recognition that the Vietnamese voices were mostly pushed beyond the margins of the ‘unofficial

space' of the class. In this instance, I see the limits of culturally sustaining praxis in the presence of inevitable silencing of the weak and power dynamics in which I had restricted access and ability to control.

A Permeable Physical Space

The physical space of the classroom had a wall of pictures of past students who were my students across ten years. On many occasions, students would identify some faces as friends, neighbors, and relatives, a tangible reminder of the presence of home in the class. The wall is filled with personalized messages and cards expressing the students' gratitude to me. Students who had exited from ESOL would drop by to greet me and sometimes would quietly sit on one of the desks in the class. I would always ask them about their progress in the mainstream classes and about their personal lives. Waving out to ex-students as they passed by the open door of the class was a daily occurrence. Some would come in for help with their essays assigned to them in regular classes and I would find time to oblige. They would comment on how their time in this class was memorable. In February, one of my ex-students came in and asked me if he could rearrange the desks to face the Smart board. He came in again the next day to find out if the students liked the new look of the class. In a sense, the physical space of the classroom was always open (and permeable) for all students, including those who had exited from ESOL. They never failed to remind the current students to enjoy their time in my class. This symbolic openness was central to building a relatively non-restricting and respectful learning environment.

Building Critical Knowledge and Opportunities to Write

One of the aspects of culturally sustaining praxis is to focus on students' lives and the issues that affect their trajectories as students. The social lives of the students, typically perceived as unofficial counterscripts in the domain of schooling, provided the impetus for an

alternative way to conceive curriculum and instructional design (Gutierrez et al., 1995).

Gutierrez et al., call for a space that dialogues not simply between people and languages, “but within people and between the frames that people use to categorize experience” (p. 446). Within a structured tension of the permeable space of ideologies, one the central goals of this study was to reframe values and beliefs stemming from different spheres of home and school to understand the ways that discourse conditions cultural identities or ways of acting, thinking, and responding to various situations. On many occasions, the class interactions began with students’ everyday knowledge that provided opportunities for jointly constructing more reflexive and critical perspectives on their lives. Complex issues related to gender, exploitation of immigrants, and race came up during reading and instructional time. In the next sections, I describe how the class built critical frames around these different social issues and resisted how the world positioned them.

Gender. Rosa, who lived with an aunt, was required to cook, clean, and look after her cousins, while her older male cousin was free to socialize but not expected to help. She wanted to work to pay her own bills, but was trapped in her chores and responsibilities mainly because she was a female. However, being the only legal resident at home complicated her life even more. Having a driver’s license, she was also obliged to pick up and drop off her family to and fro from work while also supervising the younger nieces and nephews. She showed her awareness of gender roles when she mentioned to me that “my [male] cousin never helps with the work in the house...I have to do it all...alone.” I encouraged her to apply to some local fast food restaurants and helped her fill out her applications. She got a job at McDonalds and worked every day, including weekends. She was determined to not let her work interfere with her school work, so she stayed up late to complete her homework.

Her resilience paid off and her financial independence freed her from many of the gendered responsibilities that tied her down. That lifted her self-esteem and sense of worth and had immediate effects on her English proficiency. In the next chapter, I describe how Rosa began taking risks in her speaking and writing and began to see herself as a capable student with the ability to produce work that was on par with other students in her grade.

Critical Perspectives on Gender. Gender roles in relationships was another important topic that came up many times. The following transcript (February, 11, 2013) is a discussion about a fight between two female Latino students in the school hallway. I took the opportunity to reframe the class discussion to provide a critical lens on power issues in relationships:

ROBERTO: Come on! And they're fighting over a guy, most of the times (36:42). So stupid!

VERONICA: I wouldn't xxxxx !(inaudible) (general laughter)

NIHAL: Why would you fight the other girl if your boyfriend is having an affair with her...you talk to your boyfriend! (35:51) Why would you talk to the other girl?As if your boyfriend were innocent.

MAI: Naaay!

VERONICA: Naaay. If your boyfriend is having an affair...get rid of him!

MIGUEL: And beat up both of them!

VERONICA: I would tell the other girl...you can have him...he is all yours...I am happy to get rid of him....

Up to that point, students were in the everyday knowledge domain. However, Veronica offered me the opportunity to reframe the discussion and transition to more critical domains:

VERONICA: I would tell the other girl...you can have him...he is all yours...I am happy to get rid of him....

NIHAL: Then she won't feel that happy ... believe me. (37:12).

VERONICA: Yeah, why would you fight with her?

NIHAL: If you fight her, she will say, "Look I got him...you lost...I got him!" (Students laugh). You're giving her power...By fighting with her, you are giving her power...(silence). You see what I am saying?

SOFIA: I wouldn't fight with her...

NIHAL: By telling her you can have him...I am glad to get rid of that garbage...she is not going to be happy with that....

SOFIA: That's better. Then you are the winner and she is the loser...

The class jointly built knowledge about an everyday situation that the girls faced - infidelity in relationships. I took the opportunity to move the discussion into reflexive domains by offering them a new perspective and a more powerful option to deal with a potentially hurtful and humiliating situation that typically ended up with the girls fighting over the boy. This instance, and other critical moments (e. g., cultural stereotyping) presented authentic opportunities for students to write and read. If students initiate interest in social issues, teachers can tap into these topics by building the curriculum around them. I describe in the next chapter how students' keen interest in immigration issues and our discussions and critical views on the status of 'illegal immigrants' led to a joint consensus on researching and writing on the immigration debate in the country. I provided articles on immigration, news reports on the on-going debates in Congress, and students wrote their final expository essay on immigration.

Race

Views on the students' identity as immigrants and their relationship to their past cultural and national identity is another social issue that came up in the class. Race is a complicated topic and the cultural dynamics of discussion about race were complex as the Latinos lived racial tension in the city; however, the majority Mexican students tended to belittle and mock the Vietnamese and other non-Mexican students. In general, Latino students tended to be viewed in disparaging and often derogatory ways because they were "Mexicans"- where being Mexican was somehow lesser than, or on a lower rank compared to the dominant identity of American. In the ensuing discussions, surreptitious glances and meaning-laden looks and comments were common means of communicating counterscripts. Polemical judgments on race surfaced often and in unexpected places and ways, both by students expressing their own views, and about how others perceived them. How students internalized the larger normalized views about them came up in class. For example, when discussing differences between everyday social and informal language and academic language, Juan Diego offered an opinion in 'social' language saying that "Mexico is full of zetas" (the name of a feared gang) (transcript: January 11, 2013). On another occasion, an exchange about driving without a proper license led to a discussion of how immigrants stole registration stickers off the license plates of cars. Jose joked about this situation saying, "Oh, they are just Mexicans!" When comparing the tough immigration laws of Mexico to the undefined immigration policy of the U.S., Roberto said that all Mexican officials were corrupt ("*están vendidos*"). The low expectations and seemingly low self-esteem of their native country was learned and confirmed by negative messages that they received from the media and society. The students received negative messages in the mainstream classes too (transcript: March 20, 2013):

VERONICA: There are some racist people in Miss G's class. You know that guy Hunter, he's racist (13:36) He's always saying about "These Mexicans this" and "These Mexicans that...". It's so annoying!

ROBERTO: They are jealous.

VERONICA: He says "I hate all these Mexicans except for her"... I guess because I talk to them, but he's like "I hate all these Mexicans except for her."

ROBERTO: Maybe he likes you.

VERONICA: No. He has a girlfriend.

Race is a complicated subject and racism is perpetuated and reproduced by both Latinos and mainstream Whites. It doesn't have to be "explained" because the students recognized its insidious presence and knew how to 'play' within its confines. In the above interaction, Roberto made light of a serious situation, not because he was 'unaware' of its gravity, but because he has learned to deflect it through the many times it must have reared up in his daily interactions with Caucasian students. As an educator, I tried to construct a learning moment from these instances. Not wanting to take sides and simplify the issue, I contextualized race relations in historical terms, reminding the students that Weavers City used to be an all-White town of "good old boys" till the seventies when the booming carpet mills changed the demographics of the city with the massive influx of Latino immigrants. While the Latinos benefited with gainful employment and some measure of security, the white population got richer with higher-paying jobs in the city. I pointed out that while immigrants had to make many sacrifices in the United States, especially when written off as second-rate human beings, the dominant Caucasian population also had to adjust through a difficult transition for them, threatened by the possibility of not being the majority anymore and having to divert economic resources to the immigrant population. Fully

cognizant of power and economic differentials between the two cultures, I also realized that it would be facile and fruitless to create binaries of us versus them. At the same time, I could not locate racism within a dialogic frame as just another perspective. I explained to the students how working with different cultures and ways of being is not an easy process:

NIHAL: Maybe he's not used to dealing with other races.

VERONICA: I don't know but it just gets me mad! I want to tell him something but I just ... just stay quiet.

NIHAL: They are not used to dealing with...you see they have always been in white classes and for the first time he is surrounded by Latinos. He is a minority for the first time...he is not used to that and I guess he is trying to handle it but he doesn't know how.

VERONICA: Then that guy Bob, he's redneck!

DOMINGO: He's Jose's cousin (everybody laughs)

VERONICA: He's white!

NIHAL: The fact is that both sides need to get to know each other. When two cultures meet there are bound to be sparks. Once they get to know people, things will be better.

It was clear that I could not deny the weight of the lived experiences of my students; on the other hand, I could not justify unjust discrimination and prejudice. Culturally sustaining praxis brings in opposing voices, but resolving tensions was beyond the realm of the class. Situating racism within historical and economic parameters on the spur of the moment was also a daunting task, both for me and for students who have only just begun thinking in critical ways. Concepts like hegemony and liberation (McLaren, 2002) are fraught with complexities as students are not prepared to (and may not want to) confront official spaces in which they feel powerless. And, once again, do I own the voice of reason? How am I to impose my criticality (especially if it

enlarges my stance as teacher) on students who may not see any advantages in it for them? This impasse is one of the limitations of the project of dialogic engagement (Burbles, 2006; Ellsworth, 1989; Jones, 1999). However, the experience of subjugation and injustice can be shared in a community that is willing to listen, and that sharing can be a source of comfort and solace (albeit without any structural changes).

Social Injustice and Exploitation

In another class discussion, the unjust work experiences of the Vietnamese female students, Anh and Mai, in a local nail salon resonated with the Latino students' experiences with discrimination. This instance represented a moment when both Latino students and the Vietnamese students were able to look beyond ethnic categories and find common bonds in the experience of being immigrants:

NIHAL: So how many nails do you paint in one day?

MAI: uhh, depend. Like in summer you do a lot, maybe in a day, twenty. Yeah, but right now, maybe five.

NIHAL: Oh, five only. (26:40)

MAI: I remember one day, I didn't have no customer. Yes, whole day, I just sat there. Whole day no customer and no money. And she make me work.

NIHAL: How did she make you work? That doesn't make sense.

ANH: They will make you do everything... cleaning, sweeping, whatever. But they don't pay for that. They only pay for the nail jobs.

NIHAL: I don't understand.

MAI: Because she the boss. She can make you do anything and you have to listen.

ANH: And the boss say, they can't speak Vietnamese there. That mean you got to keep quiet all time.

MAI: Asian people... Vietnamese people.. they mean!

NIHAL: Why don't you get a job in McDonalds? [sic!]

MAI: I applied. I tried to get a job, but I get no call.

NIHAL: How much do you make?

MAI: About 150 on weekend but about 50 in the weekdays...

ROBERTO: Oh, that's too little!

SOFIA: Cheap labor!

NIHAL: 200 in a week? Working everyday? That's about \$5 an hour!

MAI: uh huh.

MIGUEL: You're getting exploited!

JUAN DIEGO: *Igual como nosotros!* (Just like us!)

The Latino students realized that though many cultural differences separated them from the Vietnamese students, they shared the experience of exploitation and a sense of social powerlessness in their work options where they had limited options to grow economically due to the low, and in many cases, exploitative pay structures. The discussion moved from the everyday local experiences of the Vietnamese sisters (whose father also worked in the carpet mills) to more critical domains of immigrant rights and about how immigrants of all races (not only Central Americans) were being exploited because of their status as immigrants. The framework allowed the class to construct a community of shared and lived experiences to broach topics of social justice.

The culturally sustaining framework allowed students to speak of family and personal issues (e. g., Veronica's experiences with her father's deportation, Roberto's family's involvement with gangs) and referenced texts from home and community (the death of singer Jenny Rivera and discussions about *música nortea*) to create community in the classroom. The critical reflections afforded multiple opportunities for enacting the required standards in the class. The limited time and focus on SFL writing pedagogy did not allow me to explore potentially rich literacy opportunities that were borne from culturally sustaining praxis like reading, researching, writing blogs and expository essays, drawing graphics on data and statistics, and building informed views on any of the issues mentioned above. At a later stage, students decided to read and research on the immigration issue and I designed the writing unit around this topic. Within culturally sustaining praxis, students drove the instruction and provided the class with ample opportunities for engaging in literacy and for teachers to implement the standards.

Pitfalls and Limitations

The notion of culturally sustain praxis is not a panacea for all educational contexts and is fraught with potential difficulties. It requires deep insider knowledge of the cultural dynamics in students' lives to avoid inadvertent misunderstandings and miscommunication. My lack of knowledge of Vietnamese culture cut me off from the Vietnamese students' world in visceral ways. There were times that students would intentionally take advantage of the flexible structure of class and force their own agendas. They would express their anger when they disagreed with me or sulk when reminded of behavior expectations. Many of the long-term EBs (Miguel, Veronica, Sofia, and Domingo) were in ESOL settings since kindergarten and wielded power to control the discourse of the classroom. At times, I found myself taking on the role of unwilling

enforcer to redirect the class to learning or draw lines that were not negotiable. For example, sometimes students used the “f” word (Miguel: March 20, 2013) or the “n” word (Eliseo: January 15, 2013):

ELISEO: You need the comma in there.

SOFIA: Why?

ELISEO: ‘cuz.

NIHAL: You don’t really need the comma.

SOFIA: See? I TOLD you!

ELISEO: I told you nigger! (4:40)

NIHAL: Hey! Shhhh! Come on!

RBERTO: You hear that? That was racist right there!

NIHAL: That’s really bad.

ELISEO: What, what?

NIHAL: *La boca!* (your mouth!). Maybe in olden days they used to do that, but nowadays, you know that’s wrong.

This brings up the question of disciplinary action. I usually avoided referring students to administrators and handled discipline within the context of the classroom. I believe that culturally sustaining frameworks instill a sense of mutual respect and though students tried to push the limits of expected norms of behavior, in general, they retracted when corrected. The correction of behavior was almost always done by code-switching into Spanish (*La boca*), representative of a parent redirecting a child and not as an official rule of school. There are too many instances of me struggling with refocusing students who were tired, or bored, or distracted, or unwilling to participate. The daily routine of learning within culturally sustaining praxis

should not be mistakenly interpreted as free-for-all bonding sessions. Clear limits of acceptable behavior were needed to clarify expectations and mutual respect of participants could not be negotiated. I tolerated side bars and private conversations within limits, but would stop them if students were off track for too long. Sometimes, I was exhausted with teaching all day, and things got out of hand. I will describe my worst day of the semester (that I hope I never repeat) when the class was discussing an essay on genetic modifications and some students seemed to be taking over the flow of the class to force their “rebel scripts” (transcript: February 7, 2013):

JUAN DIEGO: *Se ha visto el gallo de tres cabezas?* [silence 2 seconds] (Have you seen the rooster with three heads?)

NIHAL: *El gallo de tres cabezas?*

JUAN DIEGO: *Le pusieron este DNA muerto.* (They put some dead DNA into it.)

NIHAL: *Para que lo van a hacer?* (Why would they do that?)

JUAN DIEGO: *Para que sea feo.* (So that it would be ugly.) [Students laugh]

JOSE: *Para que se alarma y grite mas duro!* (So that it wakes up and crows louder!)
[loud laughter]

NIHAL: (serious tone) *Puedes repetir lo que dijistes?* (Could you repeat what you said?)

JOSE: *Nada.* (Nothing.) (Students continue laughing) (36:15)

DOMINGO: He's not a rooster. He's a cow! [some inaudible comments and laughter]

NIHAL: *Tu estás riendo? Está chistoso?* (Are you laughing? Is that funny?)

(JOSE puts his head down. DOMINGO and others continue laughing.)

NIHAL: It's not funny to me at all. (silence 3 seconds) Okay? (silence 2 seconds)

Because I am busting my butt to make sure you understand something important. If you're not interested.... Juan Diego.... the door is open. (silence 5 seconds) Jose... if

you're not interested, door is open. *Hay mucho trabajo afuera para hacer. Lo puedes hacer en las fábricas!* (There is a lot of work out there to do. You can do it in the factories!)

JOSE: (inaudible)

NIHAL: *Mucho trabajo.* Lots of work in the factory. If that's what you want to do, the door is open. *Esta claro?* (Is that clear?)

JOSE: *Si.* (Yes.)

From my perspective, I was losing control of the class and in order to regain my authority, I was forced to clamp down. From the students' perspective (personal communication), they were not understanding the difficult expository text, being unfamiliar with such readings, and just wanted a break. Unfortunately, I used hurtful and derogatory terms, contrary to the critical orientation of the pedagogy. I revealed my own prejudices. I was relegating the students to the factories, an eventuality that may be true for many EB students within social reproductive theories of education (Bourdieu & Passeron, 1990); however, the culturally sustaining praxis was supposed to resist such denigrating options and support more democratic and equitable futures. Here, an analysis of the code-switching illustrates how it was used not as a tool representing the home, but appropriated as an instrument of domination and control by me. This instance epitomizes the real silencing of students- the symbolic violence of having their own worlds turned against them by an authority who claims to be on their side. I apologized to Jose and Juan Diego later, but this moment represented the paradigm of the complex terrain and contradictions that challenge a critical educator.

On other occasions, I would find myself comparing my parenting habits with those of the Latino community (e. g. my son did not play with guns, speaking English to my children), inadvertently creating binaries that framed the Latino habitus, or ways of being (Bourdieu, 1990) as culturally deficient. I would joke about their inability to make appointments on time because they were on “Mexican time”, or make unfair representations of Latinos by comparing them to Indians and Chinese (transcript: March 14, 2013):

NIHAL: Conclude the paragraph (14:15)

VERONICA: Oh my God! Can we have a break?

MAI: In my country they have to write a lot!

NIHAL: In my country also. That's why India and China have the top people in the world today, scientists, mathematicians, researchers!

ROBERTO: And Mexico ! (sarcastic)

NIHAL: These countries are growing while everybody else is in crisis. There are a lot of jobs in India and China.

VERONICA: Well, we should go over there then!

ROBERTO: Yeah.

VERONICA: I don't want to go to China. They eat dogs and stuff!

NIHAL: Veronica! Where did you get that from?

VERONICA: That's what they say!

In the above interchange, the underlying message is that India and China have the top scientists and researchers because of their work ethic and willingness to work hard. The negative connotation was that the students who wanted to take a break (being Latinos) did not have the

essential characteristics of Indians and Chinese, thus limiting their chances for success. I was inscribing negativity in their bodies and spouting dominant stereotypes that located my students in negative ways, while correcting similar positions held by the students. Roberto confirmed my unfair observations in his ironic rejoinder (“And Mexico”), a stark paradoxical example of counterscripts that resist hegemonic positioning and also express learned subjugation and acquiescent conformity. It is no wonder that Veronica retorted defensively, in the only way she knew how, with, “they eat dogs and stuff” to retaliate at Mai who represented the “model” Asian student that I was affirming.

Cross-cultural discussions may have good intentions, but can be loaded with insidious ideologies. When the topic of alcohol and drug use came up, mostly brought up by Domingo, I would explain how I used to drink alcohol as a youth and still do on occasions, but I avoided doing it at home to avoid setting a “bad” example for my children. Modeling behavior consistently to set “good” examples for children is the dominant Christian ideology, and I compared Latino families that broke up because of extra-marital affairs, substance abuse, and lack of parental role models to families like mine who allegedly represent the American family living the American Dream. Setting up the students against unproblematic mythologies of American culture, though unintentional, was unfair and undemocratic. Though my intention was to provide multiple perspectives to how the environment at home is conditioned by parental behavior and values, I also realized in retrospect that such comparisons inadvertently perpetuated dominant ideologies underscoring and maintaining a fabricated status quo, in contradiction to the critical vision of culturally sustaining praxis. Giroux’s (1997) questions should always be at the back of the mind of a critical educator: Knowledge for whom? Endorsed by whom? And serving whose interests?

Conclusion

This chapter chronicled how implementing culturally sustaining praxis implies that the reflective educator be in tune with the undercurrents of the classroom and take advantage of cultural moments to build reflexivity and critical consciousness in students. These learning moments also afford authentic opportunities for scaffolding and designing literacy and curriculum. Culturally sustaining praxis taught me that in the awareness of the impossibility of locating oneself in neutrality, also lays the responsibility of reflecting on the kinds of positions that one takes and more importantly, the underlying messages that are communicated through these positions. Culturally sustaining praxis does not simply imply an inclusive stance. Instead, it demands a vigilant and inwardly analytical recognition of how the spoken and written word has the power to inadvertently silence or purposefully uplift.

Culturally sustaining praxis and SFL both share a common vision: of language and teaching language as a systematic resource of ideological choice. The instances of culturally sustaining praxis in the extracts above, revealed that our dialogical classroom may have been limited in its ‘empowering’ capacity, but did serve to open a discursive and heteroglossic space that explored the potential of dialogue (within an awareness of its limitations and perils) to institute a vital aspect of learning and literacy. It illustrated how texts and intertexts comprising meaningful interaction have multiple cultural and “situated” readings. Within this dialogic stance students came tentatively to critical readings of themselves and their worlds. Culturally sustaining praxis in a critical frame opened avenues to hitherto untapped and potentially powerful resources for building literacy. It opened the classroom doors metaphorically to the din and clamor of social worlds, but at the same time drew the students inwards by giving them authentic reasons to read, write, and be validated and respected as humans within this space.

Though some may critique that instructional time was being “wasted”, I would argue that instruction that is divorced from students’ lives is empty and disengaging. The “achievement gap” and the low performance of EB students in the nation is testament to a history of alleged “best literacy practices” that alienate immigrant students and set them up for failure. As an educator, I was fortunate to have control over how I delivered my instruction, a situation that is not shared by other ESOL teachers, especially in co-teaching situations.

Culturally sustaining praxis allowed students to bring in family and personal issues (e. g., Veronica’s experiences with her father’s deportation, Daniel’s family’s involvement with gangs) and reference texts from home and community (the death of singer Jenny Rivera and discussions about *música nortea*). As many of the students’ families were undocumented and their futures depended on the immigration policies drawn out by the Congress, the students jointly decided to research and write about the immigration debate as it was unfurling in the Senate in 2013.

The next chapter describes how framing literacy within this orientation, gave new life to teaching writing and learning in what I call culturally sustaining SFL praxis. I propose that teaching writing is a cultural event that should be done in social dialogue that constructs a valid space for students to reinscribe how they see themselves and rewrite their identities, not as low-performing “wetbacks” but as determined, resilient, and courageous students with the ability to compete in the real world as competent learners and valuable human beings.

CHAPTER 6

TEACHING WRITING AS COMPOSING IN SOCIAL DIALOGUE

This dissertation is grounded in the belief that educators play a central role in promoting a measure of equity and fairness within critical literacy practices and rigid educational standards, assessment practices, and data driven policies (Anyon, 2009; Delpit, 1988; Fairclough, 1989; Freire & Macedo, 1987; Fránquiz & Salazar, 2004; Giroux, 1981; Shor, 1987). In the last chapter, I described how culturally sustaining praxis with a critical orientation is a starting point for framing alternative pedagogical environments to support and advance literacy. In answering my first research question, this chapter examines how I designed culturally sustaining SFL praxis to apprentice students into understanding how language use, genres and register need not be instruments of domination, but the means to push back against inequitable structures and biased practices in education (Chouliaraki & Fairclough, 1999; Lave & Wenger, 1991; Luke & Freebody, 1997; McLaren, 2002). Specifically, this chapter describes how I designed instruction to enable students to apply their knowledge of SFL in critical ways by drawing on resources of Attribution and Engagement from Martin and Rose's (2003) Appraisal Framework. My focus in on supporting EB students in developing informed views on the topic they write on and execute the writing according to the requirements of the Common Core Standards.

The standards require that students deploy a ‘formal’ and ‘objective’ tone in their expository texts. I am aware that these language objectives and the central goal of this dissertation, teaching students to construe an authorial voice, are aspects of proficient writers in advanced stages of literacy. I recognize that these goals are ambitious for secondary level EBs who struggle with basic writing and grammar. Therefore, the design of the pedagogical units had to take into consideration the many levels at which students required support in enabling them to control interpersonal meanings in the text:

1. Knowledge of genre (generic stages, Macro Theme, Hyper Theme, Theme/Rheme)
2. Learning Attribution to other voices (heteroglossia, quoting sources, using reporting verbs “claims”, “suggests”)
3. Engagement to locate voice (Alignment/disalignment of audience, modality)
4. Control tenor for objective tone (use of nominalization, use of passive voice, remove the ‘I’)

In the next section, I describe the mini-modules I designed to target these objectives during the course of the study.

A Critical SFL Argumentation Writing Unit Design

The design of SFL-informed writing unit was loosely framed around the three stages of Rothery’s (1998) teaching cycle: 1) Deconstruction, 2) Joint Construction, and 3) Independent Construction. However, based on the needs of the students and their varying responses to the instruction, I made some changes to the design during the course of the unit. Table 6.1 illustrates the phases in broad terms:

Table 6.1: Phases of the SFL Writing Unit

Phase	Written Text	Genre	Genre Stages	SFL Objectives	Domain
<u>1st Semester</u> Deconstruction Joint Construction	Fiction: - <i>Journey of a Slave</i>	Historical Account: Retell Events in the past	Background Record of Events Deduction	Structure - Macro-Theme - Hyper-Theme - Theme/Rheme	Everyday Specialized Reflexive C U
<u>2nd Semester</u> Deconstruction	Expository: <i>Ecological Footprints</i>	Exposition: to put forward a point of view	(Background) Thesis Arguments Reinforcement of Thesis	Structure Nominalization	L T U R A
<u>2nd Semester</u> Independent Construction	Expository: <i>Mandatory Military Service</i>	Exposition: to Justify a point of view	(Background) Thesis Arguments Reinforcement of Thesis	Structure Nominalization	L L Y
<u>2nd Semester</u> Deconstruction	Expository: <i>Genetically Modified Foods</i>	Discussion: Argue two points of view	(Background) Issue Arguments/ Perspectives Position	Structure Nominalization Locate Stance: Attribution Control Tenor: Engagement	S U S T A I N I N G
<u>2nd Semester</u> Independent Construction	Expository: <i>Immigration</i>	Discussion: Argue two points of view	Background) Issue Arguments/ Perspectives Position	Structure Nominalization Locate Stance: Attribution Control Tenor: Engagement	S F L

Within this broad framework, I designed writing workshops to jointly scrutinize model texts using SFL-informed analysis and created targeted mini-lessons supported by one-on-one conferences for immediate feedback on students' writing. The focus was on argumentative writing of expository genres, Exposition and Discussion (Martin, 1989), to support students' understanding of how language and grammar functioned to construct discipline-specific vertical knowledge structures that are not overtly communicated in texts (Bersntein, 2000; Halliday, 1993; Martin, 2009; Martin & Rose, 2008). Interpersonal relations realized by key lexical

choices of Engagement, modality, and Attribution that elide the author's subjectivity and engage and align readers strategically with the author's viewpoints and perspectives belong to this category of tacitly communicated meanings. The purpose of using SFL-informed analysis was to mine the model texts for linguistic resources (e. g., nominalization and shifts in register) that located students' voice and political stance (e.g., engagement and attribution) and to deconstruct particular dynamics in the text (e.g., author-reader relationships, writerly distance and status, elide subjectivity) in staged textual constructions (e. g., Theme/Rheme, genre stages).

Drawing on Macken-Horarik's (1996) conception of spiral curriculum¹ and Dyson's (1993) permeable curriculum, I designed the progressive phases of the writing unit to integrate everyday, specialized, and reflexive domains of knowledge and encouraged opportunities for analysis and writing within the various phases of the unit. I was aware that students could be overwhelmed with the burden of negotiating too many unfamiliar linguistic and disciplinary objectives at the same time, especially when navigating the unfamiliar terrain of expository genres of Exposition and Discussion.

In the first semester of the academic year (August-December, 2012) before the unit began, I focused on organization and structure. Rothery (1994) proposed that initiating novice learners into writing around themes from fictional texts provided a relevant context for building metalinguistic knowledge. By beginning with fiction and then transitioning to expository texts, I was able to distribute the linguistic objectives progressively through the stages for easier implementation and understanding, and thus build increasing complexity as students progressively developed control of basic skills and concepts. Therefore, in reading about the journey of an African slave in the historical novel *Copper Sun* (2005) by Sharon Draper, students

¹ The notion of spiral curriculum was originally conceived by Bruner (1960).

took their first steps as writers by expressing their views on slavery in a controlled and authoritative manner (interpersonal meanings), by deploying generalized participants and nominalizations (ideational meanings) in an organized manner (textual meanings). By the end of the first semester, they had learned to write coherently showing an awareness of organization in their written responses to *Copper Sun*. In Figure 6.1 below, I have included a scanned copy of Veronica's first written text to illustrate how she tracked the participants (in orange) and made Rheme/Theme connections (in blue arrows):

Figure 6.1: Veronica's Text Theme/Rheme Analysis

"Coopper Sun" By: Sharon Draper is a story about an African slave who is captured and taken to Cape Coast castle where she is sold to the new world. The journey to the castle was very difficult, and the conditions in the prison were inhuman.

The journey to the fort was harsh because the slaves were treated like animals. Not only they were all chained in a group of six, also they were shackled from the neck. When one of the stumbled, all the others were dragged. Their tongue felt thick because they couldn't remember the last time they had eaten. They were never unshackled. They all ate together, slept together, urinated and defecated. They were given very little food and water and had to walk a mile in the hot weather. Also the guards spat on the slaves lifeless body and threw it by the side of the road for the hyenas to eat. Additionally, because of the bad treatment, they were injured badly. The prisoners' wrist were already bleeding as they fought their restraint. A huge gash on their head, open and untreated. Their neck was bruised and scarred by the iron brace. One of the prisoners back was a patchwork of welts and dread the next morning. Furthermore emotionally the prisoners were in despair. Amari felt she had no hope to offer. Amari realized that Besa must be feeling a terrible shame that he couldn't rescue the slaves. The prisoners couldn't comprehend the unbelievable cruelty. Therefore, the journey was cruel because of the brutal treatment of the slaves.

When Amari was captured, she was taken to the Cape Coast Castle which is a slave fort by the coast of Africa. The castle has huge doors its also dark and gloomy inside the building, with strongly smell of blood and death. She was shoved into a big dark room.

Veronica displayed her awareness of structure by organizing the writing according to the generic stages of Historical Account (Background, Record of Events, and Deduction) and by presenting a clear thesis (Macro-Theme) in the introduction (“The journey to the castle was very difficult, and the conditions in the prison were inhumane”) and supporting it with logical evidence with a convincing conclusion that summarized her arguments. Table 6.2 breaks down Veronica’s text at clausal level to deconstruct the flow of ideas, showing her awareness of the zig-zagging nature of Theme/Rheme to construct a cohesive paragraph:

Table 6.2: Theme/Rheme Analysis – Veronica Stage 1

Theme (old information)	Rheme (new information)
The journey to the fort	was harsh because the slaves were treated like animals.
Not only <u>they</u>	were chained in a <u>group</u> of six, also <u>they</u> were shackled in the neck.
When one of the <u>them</u>	stumbled, all <u>the others</u> were dragged
<u>Their</u> tongue	felt thick because <u>they</u> couldn’t remember the last time they had eaten.

The Theme/Rheme analysis revealed how Veronica developed the progression of ideas coherently with transition words (e.g., “furthermore”, “additionally”) and showed control over pronouns referents (e. g., “they”, “them”, and “their”) to track the participants’ actions and ongoing events. Her text above is an example of congruent language use as the subject of the clause is mostly in Theme (topical Theme) as illustrated in Table 6.3:

Table 6.3: Analysis of Theme in Veronica's Essay on the Slave's Journey

Topical Theme (Subject)	Rheme
The <u>journey</u> to the fort	was harsh
the <u>slaves</u>	were treated like animals.
Their <u>tongue</u>	felt thick
<u>They</u>	couldn't remember

Veronica deployed other lexical choices besides subject in Theme (marked Theme underlined below) situating the action in time in dependent clauses as in:

When one of them stumbled...

When Amari was captured...

In other instances, Veronica organized the ideas using transitional words in marked textual Theme (underlined below):

Furthermore, emotionally the prisoners were in despair...

Additionally, because of the bad treatment, they were injured badly...

Also, the guards spat on the slave's lifeless body...

In this developing stage, Veronica deployed some abstract participants (e. g., "journey", "conditions", and "treatment"), but used mostly human participants (subjects) who are tracked by pronouns referents. It is important to note that though her text deployed mostly congruent language structures, she did not use first person pronouns to express her views, as EBs typically do. She showed considerable restraint and control of tenor, thus marking a first step forward in her development as a writer. Table 6.4 describes the simple language objectives that the students incorporated in their writing:

Table 6.4: Linguistic Goals and Shifts in Register

	SFL Objectives	Realized by
Field:	Transition to using concrete subjects and generalized participants instead of first person pronouns	- participants (e. g., <i>slaves, prisoners, guards</i>) - abstract participants (e. g., <i>journey, treatment, conditions</i>)
Tenor	Remove the “I”	Build emotional impact with details
Mode	Structure coherent written essay Situates action in time Organize/connect ideas Track and organize participants	Macro-Theme, Hyper-Theme Marked Theme Pronoun referents

I was not surprised when the students told me that they had never written a full-length essay before in all their years through elementary and middle school. Taking this into consideration, it was imperative that they be guided through this first experience with caution. Thus, the instruction advanced the EB students in small incremental steps that built confidence and capacity in their ability to write. Through individual conferences with them, I gave them continual feedback on their writing and more importantly, time and attention to their emerging abilities and identities as writers. With the completion of basic skills of organization and structure, the students were ready to take on more challenges as the SFL instruction began in the second semester (January- May, 2013).

Stage 1: Deconstruction- Exposition

Planning the phased process and goals for this stage was a complex task since I did not have any previous experience in designing writing instruction based on SFL theory. The planning was all the more difficult because SFL requires a three-dimensional approach- one that takes the three metafunctions (ideational, interpersonal, and textual) and their corresponding register values (field, tenor, and mode) into play. The design, therefore, required that I address the three levels simultaneously. I chose to take the approach of tentatively introducing students to targeted and contextualized instruction, assessing the efficacy of the teaching by closely monitoring how students responded, while reflecting on missteps and reworking oversights to correct the course of the pedagogy. I designed instruction that built on students' previous knowledge of register and revisited and reinforced many of the language features that were introduced in previous stages to "judge both what has been taught and understood and what should be taught, with a view to moving on to the learning of new knowledge and skills" (Christie & Macken-Horarik, 2011, p. 187). Therefore the broad pedagogical design was to revisit basic ideas, by "building upon them as students grasp them and expand on them productively" (p. 187). The deconstruction of the model text focused on the following objectives delineated in Table 6.5 below:

Table 6.5: Deconstruction of Exposition Genre

	Exposition genre model text: <i>Ecological Footprints</i> (Bunting, 2012)	
	SFL Language Function	Linguistic Realization
Field:	Transition from concrete language to abstract and metaphoric language	Use noncongruent language - abstract participants - nominalizations (<i>immigration, impact, agreement</i>)
Tenor	Transition from overt opinions to muted judgment & evaluations	Deploy impersonal subjects in Theme (e. g., <i>It appears that, It seems that, It is evident that</i>) Modality (modal verbs- <i>may, would, could</i>) Marked interpersonal Theme (e. g., <i>it is evident, there is no doubt that</i>) Choice of pronouns to create community
Textual organization	Structure thoughts Coherent flow of ideas	Awareness of Genre stages - (Background) Thesis - Arguments - Reinforcement of Thesis Nominalization for Organization Macro-Theme, Hyper-Theme Theme/Rheme flow Marked textual Theme (e. g., <i>meanwhile, in addition</i>)

The above language objectives were realized in modules and mini-lessons supported by one-on-one writing conferences that provided both the students and me a way to assess the writing and evaluate the instruction. However, it was not enough that students merely learn grammar and its function in argumentative writing. The goal of this study was to develop students' ability to control writer/reader interpersonal meanings by deploying specific register combinations of tenor for controlling author's voice through Attribution and Engagement, modality, use of passive voice, and marked interpersonal Theme. I advanced instruction in small

steps that progressively built towards learning about author's stance and controlling intersubjective relations with the reader strategically -the overall goal of this critical SFL study.

In the next sections, I describe how I converted these language objectives into mini modules (e.g., Abstract Nouns to Construct Arguments, How to Remove the 'I', Engagement to Locate Voice, and Attribution for a Dialogic Text). These modules served to focus the learning and assessment of student progress and to expand their linguistic repertoires to enable them to express their views and perspectives in the language of schooling. I share how students responded to the SFL instruction and the pedagogical lessons gleaned from the implementation of these modules. I begin with the module on nominalization.

Nominalization to Construct Arguments

SFL theorists advocate that teachers design activities to explicitly point out differences between how language is used differently for every day social purposes compared to its use for making academic meanings in the written genres of schooling (Martin, 1989, 1992; Rose & Martin, 2012; Rothery, 1989, Schleppergrell, 2004; Schleppergrell & Colombi, 2002). In the introduction, I described how EB learners like Juan Diego came from diverse cultural backgrounds and spoke non-dominant languages at home to construct experiences and community knowledge that is different from the discipline-specific content that they are required to learn and express at school ((Abedi, 2004; Harklau et al., 1999; Heath, 1983; Montero-Seiburth & Batt, 2001; Ruiz-de-Velasco, 2005; Suárez-Orozco & Suárez-Orozco, 2001). As emergent learners of English, they tended to use grammar of spoken language for informal interaction and social purposes and were often unfamiliar with linguistic resources used to construe 'academic' language and meaning (Christie, 1998, Christie & Deriwianka, 2008; Fang & Schleppergrell, 2008). Martin (1997) indicates that the move from informal to formal

language use parallels the shift from commonsense knowledge (non-metaphorical) to disciplinary knowledge (metaphorical), as students progress from primary to secondary schooling. For EBs, EBs, and indeed most minority learners, whose home languages and dialects differ from the expected norms of the language of schooling, “doing writing” is difficult because they are often unfamiliar with the context of culture or the rhetorical and generic expectations of written texts that change from discipline to discipline (Christie & Maton, 2011). SFL theorists and literacy researchers have studied the significance of nominalization in academic discourse and noted how it plays an important role in constructing a formal tenor and style typical of written discourse (Christie, 2002; de Oliveira, 2010, 2011; Fang, Schleppegrell, & Cox, 2006; Martin, 1993; Schleppegrell, 2004; Unsworth, 1999; 2000). Martin (2008a) and other SFL studies coincide that shifting to academic register is linguistically realized *within* the unit of the clause, specifically, by deploying abstract nouns as the main agent of disciplinary knowledge and content (Christie & Macken-Horarik, 2011; Fang, Schleppegrell, & Cox, 2006).

Grounded in the findings of this work, the design of the module “Using Abstract Nouns to Construct Arguments” focused on supporting students into deploying nominalization. This grammatical resource builds metaphorical meanings and incongruent language structures typical of disciplinary writing (explained below). Deploying nominalization also enabled the students to control register and tone, to set up appropriate interpersonal distance and space between text and reader, and at the same time, organize and structure their writing (Halliday, 1996; Macken-Horarik, 1996; Martin, 1992; Schleppegrell & Colombi, 2002).

Nominalization: Shifting to Metaphorical Knowledge

For Halliday (1996) the function of written language is to construct an “objectified” world” that is “enacted metaphorically” through its grammar (p. 353). Halliday explained that academic language is technical because of the nominalizing power of grammar to turn events and actions (verbal groups) into nominal objects (e.g., “emit” to “emission”). He suggested that academic meanings tended to be expressed in noun form, and grammatically, the nominal group replaced the verb in the clause as the primary meaning-producing agent. For example, students using everyday spoken language would convey meanings mainly using verbal groups as in:

I am writing because I am concerned about young kids putting on too much weight.

The above text construes commonsense meaning by deploying verbs (e. g., “am writing”, “am concerned”, “putting on weight”) deployed in the three clauses above. However, the same meanings can be construed in ‘academic’ ways by changing the verbs to nouns as in:

Obesity in our youth should be a cause for great concern.

The nominalizations (e. g., “obesity”, “youth”, “cause”, and “concern”) express the same meanings but construe an academic tone that is distant and ‘objective’- and thus, more appropriate for disciplinary contexts and writing in school. Everyday experiential meanings organized around the verbal groups in clauses are recontextualized in academic ways when realized in abstract nouns (Halliday, 1996). SFL researchers have investigated the significance of nominalization in academic discourse and its central role in constructing a formal tenor and style typical of written discourse (Christie, 2002; de Oliveira, 2010, 2011; Fang, Schleppegrell, & Cox, 2007; Martin, 1993; Schleppegrell, 2004; Unsworth, 1999; 2000). SFL scholars have analyzed how scientific texts draw on a voice that is “constructed by eliding the author’s own agency in the experiment and foregrounding the experimental context” (Schleppegrell, 2006, p.

59). Christie (2012) highlights how students' written essays in subject English "must learn to stand back from the text to generalize about its themes, thereby achieving some sense of detachment" (p. 123). Christie describes how writers are required to learn to shift between the general statements about experience and the abstract evaluation of that experience in written essays required in language arts classes. Knowing how to express such evaluations implies understanding how to switch from tenor values that express social informal register to a more distant and objective register typical of argumentative genres like Discussion (Martin, 1989; Rothery, 1989). Nominalization construes lexical density and an objective, distant, and authoritative tone typically used in argumentative writing (Christie, 2012; Fang, Schleppegrell & Cox, 2006; Martin, 2008a). In expository texts, noun groups function to construe the academic register and build more technical and metaphorical meanings realized in dense nominal groups and abstractions. These texts tend to deploy abstract participants (e.g. "obesity") in prepositional phrases (e.g., "for great concern"), and convey a monologic and authoritative tone that construes writerly distance between text and reader.

Therefore, the language objectives of this module were familiarizing the students with using nominalization to:

1. Set up an authoritative and distant text/reader interpersonal relationship by converting experience (verbal groups) into abstraction (abstract nouns).
2. Create logical links between abstract participants *in* the clause instead of *between* clauses.
3. Use nouns to package experience and construct coherent and organize the content through control of Theme/Rheme.

Module 1: Using Abstract Nouns to Construct Arguments

The curricular unit began with basic starter activities to introduce students to nominalization. I simplified the SFL nomenclature and technical terms in ways that were more accessible to the students (Shleppergrell, 2004). Therefore, instead of saying “nominalization,” I would say “change actions to things”. The starters provided students with examples of social language use that students transformed into “academic sentences” by changing the verbs to nouns. The following examples of simple daily starter activities demonstrate how the students began this process with tentative steps. In time, they showed increasing control over noun groups. The sentences and transformations were simple in the beginning as seen below in Table 6.6:

Table 6.6: Sentence Transformations

Social Language uses Verbs	Academic Language uses Nouns
We <u>were</u> so <u>excited</u> that we could not wait to go home	With <u>excitement</u> , we could not wait to go home. (Hau, January, 2013)
The team <u>failed</u> to play well and the coach got mad	The <u>failure</u> of the team made the coach mad. (Juan Diego, January, 2013)

Using Nouns for Cause and Effect. It was not enough to merely know how to nominalize, but to understand the function of the noun in the clause. Therefore, the next step was to introduce the students to functional uses of noun groups by showing them how logical relations of cause and effect are realized *within* clauses when writing and *between* clauses when speaking (Martin, 1989). The starters provided sentence frames that used informal writing structures and students were asked to remove the connectives (e. g., *because*, *so*) and nominalize the verbs as illustrated in Table 6.7:

Table 6.7: Nominalization for Cause and Effect

Social Language uses Verbs	Academic Language uses Nouns
The boy ran away because he <u>was so scared</u> of the ghost.	In fear the little boy ran away from the ghost. (Veronica, March 2013)
My sister <u>was jealous</u> , so she kicked me.	Her envy made her kick me. (Daniel, March 2013)

The class also worked on combining nominalized structures to create logical meanings and relations using subordinating conjunctions (e. g., “after”, “before”, “however”, “since”) and transitions (e. g., “nevertheless”, “moreover”, “despite”) for cohesion and flow of ideas as seen in a wall map created for this purpose:

Figure 6.2: Wall Map of Transition Words for Cohesion



Nouns for Congruent and Noncongruent Ways of Making Meaning. For students to understand how to transition to using academic ways of making meaning, they first needed to understand how congruent grammar of social language use differed from noncongruent grammar for academic making meaning. Martin (1989) analyzed student written texts in the *Write it Right*

Project in Australia to show how students wrote using spoken language or congruent forms where nouns and pronouns realized participants and verbs realized processes. I used examples of students' writing, taking care to re-write the sentences and removing all traces of the origins to protect the identity of the authors. Using a smart board, I highlighted to the students how they typically deployed patterns of informal language use to connect clauses in their writing. We discussed how they established cohesion through the use of lexical chains that mainly relied on conjunctions like “and,” “because”, and “so” to realize logical ideational functions of reasoning and justifying. A functional analysis of their written samples in Table 6.8 reflected the congruent use of language used for social purposes and speaking:

Table 6.8: Functional Analysis Juan Diego's First Sample Essay

Clause 1	<i>I</i>	<i>think</i>	<i>school</i>	<i>is</i>	<i>important</i>	<i><u>because</u></i>
Grammar	pronoun	verb	noun	verb	adjective	conjunction
Function	participant	process	participant	process	descriptor	connector
Clause 2	<i>I</i>	<i>learn</i>	<i>many things</i>	<i>and</i>	<i>meet</i>	<i>friends</i>
Grammar	pronoun	verb	noun group	conjunction	verb	noun
Function	participant	process	participant	connector	process	participant

The above sample used the conjunction “because” to join two clauses to achieve the purpose of reasoning. Schleppergrell (2004) maintains that conjunctions are a “pervasive feature of spoken interaction,” and a few commonly used conjunctions can construe a wide range of meanings and logical relations in the social informal register (p. 55). To draw attention to this pattern, I deconstructed the sample sentences into clauses so students could see how the text used simple

clauses of the same rank or in relation of dependency to achieve various functions of reasoning and justifying. Table 6.9 illustrates the students' informal use of language using connectors between clauses:

Table 6.9: Sample of Students' Informal Language Use

Clause	Connector	Function
<i>If I finish school</i>		Conditional Cause
<i>I can get a certification</i>	<i>and</i>	Effect
<i>I can get a work fast</i>	<i>or</i>	Cause
<i>I get more money.</i>		Effect

With my guidance, the students highlighted the simple clauses in the text and discussed if this style would achieve the persuasive purpose for high stakes formal academic contexts.

Halliday (1998) suggests that academic language is characterized by noncongruent use of grammar, whereby processes that are typically realized in verbal groups play the atypical role of participants realized in noun groups. As Halliday suggests, this grammatical transformation of activities into things, or nominalization, the process of changing verbs into nouns, is key to understanding how academic language works. I pointed out to the students how one way to shift from informal to formal register could be realized by changing the verbal groups in their texts to noun groups:

I think school is important because I learn many things and meet friends in school.

(informal register)

Learning and socializing are important aspects of schooling. (formal register)

Using basic language functional analysis, I illustrated how the original verbs in the informal form of language were changed to their noun forms to achieve the persuasive purpose in formal academic contexts as described in Table 6.10 below:

Table 6.10: Language Analysis of Noncongruent Grammar

Text	<i>Learning</i>	<i>and</i>	<i>socializing</i>	<i>are</i>	<i>important</i>	<i>aspects</i>	<i>of</i>	<i>schooling</i>	
	Non congruent grammar		Non congruent grammar						
grammar change	verb noun		verb noun	verb	adjective	noun		noun	
function	participant		participant	process	descriptor	classifier		participant	

I indicated to students the basic operations of noncongruent grammar. The original processes (verbs) “learn” and “meet friends” were realized as nominalized abstract participants (nouns) “learning” and “socializing”. In addition, I pointed out other aspects of formal written register. Nominalizing the verbs allows the author to set up logical relations between “things” that results in technicality, compactness (only one clause used), and lexical density thus construing the abstract nature typical of academic writing (Fang, Schleppegrell & Cox, 2006). It was important to stress to the students that the meaning remained the same in both styles of writing; however, the author had a choice to deploy one form or the other by making deliberate linguistic shifts depending on the purpose of the text. Roberto, a long-term EB who resisted writing, exclaimed, “Hey, this is easy!” Domingo, who till then had taken on the role of joker and rebel in the class, also joined in, “Yeah, I can do this!” Christie and Derewianka (2008) caution that even by the secondary years, most writers struggle with control over nominalization and noncongruent realizations. However, it was important to note how the explicit teaching of language use and

purposefully directed support gave the students confidence and raised their self-esteem as writers and learners. Roberto said later in a conference that the shift in his willingness to participate more actively was prompted because he bought in to the possibility that the writing instruction was accessible and that “I [felt] that I am learning and getting better at this” (transcript: March 20, 2013). The notion that students could control language to improve and expand on their linguistic resources gave them a sense of positive agency, positioning them as capable writers and not as problem students who lacked literacy and cultural capital (Bourdieu & Passeron, 1990). Knowing the low self-esteem of students like Rosa and Roberto - only confirmed my belief that building on their sense of personal worth and identity as intelligent and capable learners was central to any further success in their educational trajectories. Culturally sustaining SFL praxis was producing positive outcomes as illustrated below in an edited transcript of a starter activity (January 15, 2013) where students were constructing nominalizations in their sentences:

NIHAL: (reads Michelle’s sentence aloud to the class) I’m going to read you a sentence with multiple abstract nouns! *My impression at seeing his beauty is proof...IS PROOF..of my sensitivity.* There are four abstract nouns in this sentence!

VERONICA: *proof..and ..*

MIGUEL: *sensitivity!*

NIHAL: *My impression.. at seeing his beauty... is PROOF..of my sensitivity.*

ROSA: *beauty*

MIGUEL: *impression..*

NIHAL: *impression, beauty... sensitivity and proof...that’s four abstract nouns! She’s using FOUR...THAT’S AWESOME!*

ROBERTO: *Ya vete!* (Get outta here!)

NIHAL: Four abstract nouns in one sentence! That's like mind blowing!

JUAN DIEGO: *Orale!* (Way to go!)

NIHAL: Congratulations!

ROSA: *Mi cabeza me está explotando!* (My head is going to explode!)

After this incident of public appreciation, Rosa too began to gain in confidence since she was being positioned as a writer with a lot of potential and ability for the first time. From then on, she increasingly took more risks by moving out of her comfort zone and attempted to use language to express more complex ideas. Besides focusing on the instructional design itself, I believe that these initial incursions into writing should be handled with extreme care and attention to student support and engagement. I made sure that the newcomers (Juan Diego, Rosa, and Jose) were moving on par with the class so that feelings of failure and incompetence did not derail the progress of the class. I motivated the students and pointed out to them their capacity to do good work to overcome the negative messages of lack and deficit that inundated their lives. Continual positive reinforcement was also important to overcome the deep skepticism about their abilities and potential for success. On one occasion, Veronica drained from the effort of writing showed signs of giving up:

VERONICA: I can't do this!

NIHAL: All of you can do that. You know all your talent is just waiting to come out.

VERONICA: It can stay there!

NIHAL: ..and some day it will all come out...like a bunch of roses...like a bunch of tulips (students laugh)

VERONICA: Naaa.

ROBERTO: Right (sarcastic).

NIHAL: You know...when you have a little seed...a little rose seed... and you give it a little water everyday...a little bit of fertilizer.. a little bit of water...what happens?

ROBERTO: It grows.

NIHAL: what happens after that? You get a beautiful flower (56:32)

JOSE: You get apples!

NIHAL: You get apples! (laughs). From a rose bush you get apples (laughs) ...well maybe you'll get a few apples. Who knows, may be a miracle will happen...

After a few weeks into this module on nominalization, I introduced students to their first expository genre, Exposition, deconstructing the model *Ecological Footprints* (Bunting, 2012) (quoted below) to illustrate how writers deployed abstract participants and nominalizations in expository texts:

Environmentalists have been concerned about the impact that individuals have on our planet, and many people wonder what they can do to help protect the environment. A good place to start is to reduce one's ecological footprint. An ecological footprint is an estimate of how much land, water, and other natural

resources are being used by a person or a group. Because resources are easily accessible in developed countries like the United States, people in these countries tend to have large ecological footprints. For example, they may take long showers, leave their computers on for the whole day, and buy new things that they do not need because the items are on sale. The consequences of large ecological footprints can be disastrous.

I pointed out how the author used generalized participants (e. g., “environmentalists”, “people”), abstract entities (e. g., “ecological footprint”, “resources”) and nominalizations (e. g., “impact”, “estimate”, “consequences”) that organized ideas, construed a formal authoritative tone, and distant tone in the text (Fang, Schleppegrell, & Cox, 2007). I discussed each of these concepts in the following modules.

Module 2: Theme/Rheme for Cohesion and Coherence

Having some emergent control over nominalization and voice, this module introduced students to generic structure and stages of Exposition and to organize textual meanings in logical and cohesive ways through thematic progression of Theme/Rheme (Halliday & Hasan, 1989). Genre, in the functional linguistic framework, refers to the way texts are structured in order to realize their social purpose (Halliday & Matthiessen, 2004). Exposition argues a point of view in defined stages that can be identified by shifts in lexical and grammatical patterning which correlate with different functions operating at different points in the text (Rothery, 1989). This genre provides background for a social issue, explains its negative effects on people, and proposes or justifies necessary remedies and solutions, organized in logical sequence. Students analyzed how the thesis was set up in *Ecological Footprints* (Bunting, 2012) by breaking down the model text into its stages (see Appendix B for full essay). According to Rothery (1989),

Exposition achieves its social purpose through the stages:

- Background of Issue: presents the issue to be argued
- Thesis: Writer's stance
- Arguments to support the thesis
- Reinforcement of thesis

After analyzing the overall structure of the essay, we focused on each individual stage. Since students were familiar with nominalization, I deconstructed the grammar of the essay and pointed out how noun groups organized the ideas within paragraphs. Using the Smart Board, I underlined Macro-Theme (controlling idea), Hyper-Theme (supporting ideas) and Theme/Rheme to explain the organization of the ideas. I quote the essay's Macro-Theme from the introduction:

A good place to start is to reduce one's ecological footprint.

The new information (Rheme) in a text is typically found toward the end of each clause and is reinstated as the point of departure (Theme) of the very next sentence. Students were already familiar with Theme/Rheme and they marked the flow of information in the text (Table 6.11):

Table 6.11: Theme/Rheme Analysis Exposition *Ecological Footprints* (Bunting, 2012)

Clauses	Theme (old information)	Rheme (new information)
1	An <u>ecological footprint</u>	is an estimate of how much <u>land, water, and</u>
2	other natural <u>resources</u>	are being used by a <u>person or a group</u>
3	Because <u>resources</u>	are easily accessible in <u>developed countries</u> like the United States
4	<u>people</u> in these countries	tend to have <u>large ecological footprints</u>
5	For example, <u>they</u>	<u>may take long showers, leave their computers on for the whole day, and buy new things...</u>
6	The <u>consequences</u> of large ecological footprints	can be disastrous.

Using the above text, I pointed out to the students the function of abstract nouns (e. g., “estimate”, “resources”, and “consequences”) to explain technical concepts like “ecological footprints”. Nouns serve to organize ideas because of their capacity to represent concepts and technical information as objects and are useful to organize thoughts and build the logical progression of the text in Theme/Rheme structure. Students practiced on various examples from text books to understand the importance of deploying nouns in expository writing. They marked off the abstract nouns in the texts and we discussed how these functioned to organize, package, and structure the various the ideas and viewpoints of the author as illustrated in a science text in Table 6.12 below:

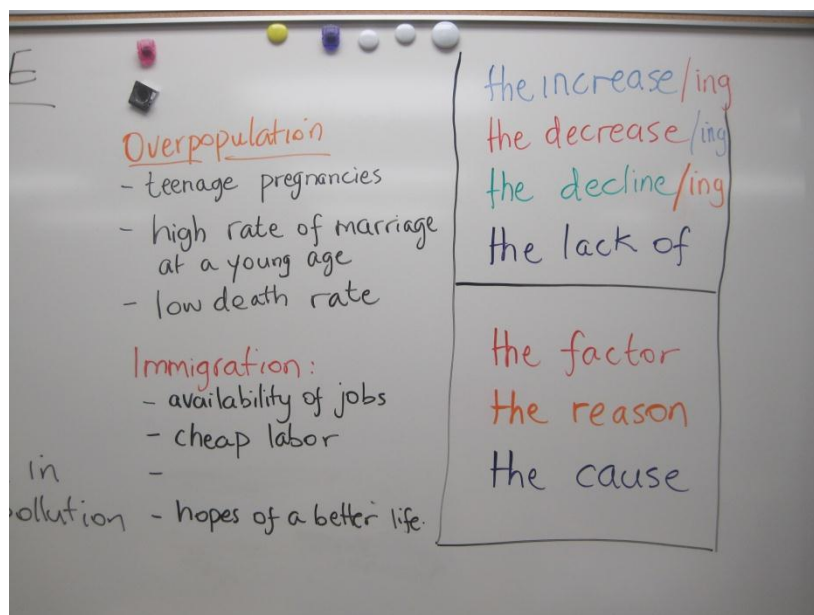
Table 6.12: Theme/Rheme Sequencing for Organization

Sentence 1	Organs specialized for sequential stages of food processing form the mammalian <u>digestive system</u> . (Rheme)
Sentence 2	(Theme) <u>The system</u> helps break down food, absorb the nutrients from the food, as well as eliminate waste

The Rheme “the digestive system” in sentence 1 is picked up as Theme in sentence 2: “The system helps break down food, absorb the nutrients from the food, as well as eliminate waste”. The Theme/Rheme flow of nominalized entities thus creates a cohesive zig-zagging structure of meanings (Halliday & Hasan, 1989) that builds textual meaning by ‘packaging’ information for unity in the unfolding text.

We also discussed how certain nouns were useful resources to structure a paragraph and tie ideas together. Figure 6.3 depicts the focus on nouns to build cohesion in the text:

Figure 6.3: Using Nouns to Build Cohesion



After an intense focus on language resources to structure and organize texts, the Weavers City County required students to write a district-wide persuasive essay which was to be turned in to the English department and graded independently. I was given the topic, so I did not have any say in the selection. Complying with this requirement, I asked the students to write their first Exposition essay titled “Mandatory Military Service”, written independently in February, 2013. The prompt for the essay was:

In some countries every young person must serve two years of mandatory military service. Should we have a similar policy in the United States? Write an essay stating your position and supporting it with convincing reasons. Be sure to explain your reasons in detail.

I took this opportunity to assess their ability to structure their ideas and use and control nominalization. However, there was very little time to support the students at the level of field.

Before students began their writing, we briefly discussed issues related to voluntary service and the military draft. Without adequate support in field and language, the results of this independent writing effort were not very encouraging. Below, I quote an extract from Veronica's introductory paragraph on "Mandatory Military Service" (see Appendix D for full essay):

In some countries a young person is required to do two years of military service. I think we the United States should be required to be in military service just like other countries. I believe if we all joined, we would have the same equalities, the military would become a much stronger army which would benefit everyone. It would benefit everyone by learning new experiences, and it would give them a challenge that they have never faced before.

The text illustrated how learning and knowledge did not necessarily transfer in direct and predictable ways in students' writing. Veronica disregarded the genre of Exposition completely and fell back on the scripted 5-paragraph formulaic structure that has been taught in the elementary and middle schools. She provided the expected 'three reasons' in the introduction ("the same equalities", "a much stronger army", and "a challenge" for the youth). Her writing relied on verbal groups in clauses to structure her ideas (e. g., "would have the same equalities", "would benefit everyone", and "would give a challenge") realized in linguistic structures (chaining of clauses with conjunctions) that typically construe everyday knowledge:

It would benefit everyone by learning new experiences, and it would give them a challenge that they have never faced before.

She did not include any of the brief and cursory in-class discussions related to the pros and cons of volunteering for military service. Roberto, also showed the formulaic writing style and structure so ingrained in students since elementary school:

In the past 10 years the world has changed because of the rise of terrorism. An example of that is the attack of the Twin Towers on 9-11. Although many people may not agree with this position, I believe that there are many advantages when young persons serve two years of military service. My reasons are to protect and serve the country, focus on building individual character and the military offers many career options and provides financial support and scholarships.

Roberto too presented the three reasons (e. g., “protect and serve the country”, “building individual character”, and “career options and financial support”) in a formulaically structured essay. What is striking in Roberto’s text was the abundant use of abstract nouns (e. g., “career options” and “financial support”) and nominalizations to structure the thoughts (e. g., “reasons” and “advantages”). There was some evidence of use of abstract participants (e. g., “reasons”), but Roberto deployed an overtly subjective tone to express opinions (e. g., “I believe” and “my reasons”). In my conversations with Roberto, he mentioned that “the essay wasn’t important for me to put extra effort into it” (personal communication, March 18, 2012).

In the next section, I analyze how Veronica construed her stance and structured the author/reader relationship in Theme/Rheme progression using the linguistic resources that she had at her disposal.

Analysis of Stance and Voice in Theme/Rheme Progression. One of the central objectives of writing is to align the reader with the proposition and values of the author in subtle and subdued ways (Hood, 2010; Martin & White, 2005). This implies presenting various and even conflicting perspectives around an issue, “burnishing or tarnishing” these with respect to the author’s stance (Hao & Humphrey, 2012). In persuasive writing, writers are required to situate their stance or voice relative to the sources and voices that signal diverse positions in the

text. Managing these voices requires knowledge of rhetorical functions of genre (Hyland 2005, Swales 1990) and command of linguistic resources that evaluate the voices to construe solidarity or establish differences between them and voice of the text itself (Hood, 2010; Hao & Humphrey, 2012).

An SFL-informed analysis of Veronica's introductory paragraph, 2nd paragraph, and conclusion provided me a clear picture of the ways that students were able to apply the concepts they had learned thus far. In the analysis of the introductory paragraph below, I tracked the participants (nouns and pronouns underlined below) in Theme/Rheme progression in the numbered clauses to assess how Veronica set up her authorial stance and construed interpersonal author/reader relationships. Writers construe author/reader relations and set up an authorial stance by using personal pronouns (e. g., 'I', 'you', 'we', and 'us') to create intersubjective relations with the reader and build an implied community or readers that share the same values (Droga & Humphrey, 2003). Using pronouns for this purpose to position both writer and reader in specific ways and to dialogue with the reader in the colloquy of the text is widely recognized as an essential feature in expository writing (White, 2000, 2003). Hyland (2002) suggests that writers "gain credibility by projecting an identity invested with individual authority, displaying confidence in their evaluations and commitments to their ideas" (p. 1091):

¹In some countries a young person is required to do two years of military service.

²I think we the United States should be required to be in military service just like other countries. ³I believe if we all joined, ⁴we would have the same equalities, the military would become a much stronger army ⁵which would benefit everyone.

⁶It would benefit everyone by learning new experiences, and ⁷it would give them a challenge that ⁸they have never faced before.

In Table 6.13 below, I illustrate the ways that Veronica uses the participants in the introduction to construct the interpersonal discourse and colloquy with the reader in the text:

Table 6.13: Participants in Theme/Rheme- Veronica Introduction

Participants in Theme/Rheme	Grammatical Resource	Author/Reader Relation
¹ <i>In some countries a <u>young person</u> is required to do two years of military service.</i>		
a <u>young person</u>	Generalized participant in 3rd person	Addresses the youthful reader in third person
² <i>I think <u>we the United States</u> should be required to be in military service just like other countries.</i>		
<u>we the United States</u>	1 st person pronoun “we” Noun “the [people of]United States”	Building solidarity with the wider community
³ <i>I believe if <u>we all</u> joined</i>		
I believe if <u>we all</u> joined	1 st person pronoun “I believe” 1 st person pronoun “we”	Subjective voice “I believe” Situates authorial voice aligned to that community
⁴ <i><u>we</u> would have the same equalities</i>		
we	1 st person pronoun “we”	Consolidates author voice
⁵ <i>which would benefit <u>everyone</u></i>		
everyone	Generalized participant “everyone”	Opens the discursive space to include the wider community
⁶ <i><u>It</u> would benefit everyone by learning new experiences</i>		
<u>everyone</u>	Generalized participant “everyone”	Affirms author’s stance
⁷ <i><u>it</u> would give <u>them</u> a challenge</i>		

it would give <u>them</u> a challenge	Pronoun “It” Pronoun “them”	Justifies author’s position with a positive outcome for the community
⁸ <u>they</u> have never faced before		
they	3 rd person pronoun “they”	Creates an ideal community

In the analysis above, Veronica used first person pronouns (e. g., “we” “them” and “they”) to create an idealized community of patriots (“we the [people of] United States”) who are willing to sacrifice their lives to serve the nation. The first person “I believe” aligns her stance with this community in which the reader is an assumed and willing member (“we would have the same equalities”). The introduction closes by discursively including the larger community of all citizens within this select group (“it would benefit everyone”).

The second paragraph consolidates this community of patriots and affirms the role of the reader in it:

¹We the United States should be required to be in the military service, just like these other countries. ²If people are forced to join the military then ³some of these soldiers would be satisfied ⁴unlike the soldiers that are unmotivated to fight. ⁵For some, military service might be the right choice because ⁶it reflects on their skills and ⁷gives them credit for volunteering. ⁸You will feel very accomplished after those two years of military service because ⁹it helps you to gain effort knowing that ¹⁰you were fighting for your own country.

Table 6.14 below tracks how Veronica construes author/reader relations and sets up her stance by using personal pronouns (e. g., ‘I’, ‘you’, ‘we’, and ‘us’) to create intersubjective relations with the reader and builds an implied community of readers that share the same values (Droga & Humphrey, 2003):

Table 6.14: Participants in Theme/Rheme- Veronica 2nd Paragraph

Participants in Theme/Rheme	Grammatical Resource	Author/Reader Relation
¹ <i><u>We</u> the United States should be required to be in the military service</i>		
¹ <u>We the United States</u>	first person plural “We” noun “the [people of] United States”	Sets up a community of patriots
² <i>If <u>people</u> are forced to join the military</i>		
people	Generalized participant Noun “people”	Sets up hypothetical case
<i>then ³<u>some of these soldiers</u> would be satisfied</i>		
soldiers	Noun “soldiers”	Distinguishes one group of soldiers
⁴ <i>unlike <u>the soldiers</u> that are unmotivated to fight</i>		
unlike the soldiers that are unmotivated to fight	“unlike” interpersonal comment Theme Noun “soldiers”	Disaligns audience with an undesirable community of disgruntled soldiers. (Not clearly defined)
⁵ <i>For <u>some</u>, military service might be the right choice</i>		
For some	generalized third person participant “some”	Returns to the model patriotic citizen
⁶ <i><u>it</u> reflects on <u>their</u> skills</i>		
<u>it</u> reflects on <u>their</u> skills	third person pronoun “it” third person pronoun “their”	tracks the exemplary soldier defines the ideal profile
⁷ <i>gives <u>them</u> credit for volunteering</i>		

them	third person pronoun “them”	affirms the ideal citizen who sacrifices
⁸ <i><u>You</u> will feel very accomplished after those two years of military service</i>		
You	second person pronoun “you”	includes the audience in this ideal community of patriots
⁹ <i><u>it</u> helps <u>you</u> to gain effort</i>		
<u>it</u> helps <u>you</u> to gain effort	third person pronoun “it” second person pronoun “you”	confirms patriotic reader
<i>knowing that ¹⁰<u>you</u> were fighting for <u>your own</u> country</i>		
¹ <u>you</u> were fighting for <u>your own</u> country.	second person pronoun “you” and “your own”	Aligns reader with the proposition of text, this is aligned with dominant nationalist ideals

In the second paragraph, Veronica addressed the reader directly (“You will feel very accomplished”) presuming that the reader would be proud to fight for the country (“it helps you to gain effort knowing that you were fighting for your own country”). This pattern is repeated in the conclusion in more overt ways:

Therefore, I believe that joining the military is a helpful event for later on in life.

It is a very responsible task that anyone can do if you set your mind to it. You will remember it your whole life knowing you fought for your country.

Veronica concluded the essay by affirming that “I believe that joining the military is a helpful event”. An analysis of the overall dialogic aspects of the essay and the way Veronica presented her stance in the conversation revealed that she included other voices from the community and aligned her authorial voice with the nationalistic and patriotic sentiments expressed by them.

Veronica successfully deployed pronouns in Theme/Rheme progression to realize her stance on Compulsory Military Service. She controlled writer/reader interpersonal relationship by addressing readers in a direct and formal tone to align them with her stance. She targeted the reader's patriotic side and built solidarity by appealing to nationalistic sentiments with clichéd phrases (e. g., "fighting for your country"). She aligned her views with the larger patriotic sentiments of the nation in a politically correct stance hence (as she admitted in a conference later) pre-empting the expectations of the readers and including them in the "ideal" community of patriots who are willing to sacrifice for the nation.

However, an Engagement analysis of the text reveals that Veronica constructed a monoglossic and contractive stance instead of opening a dialogue of voices as expected in Discussion genre. In her assertion that joining the military is a "responsible task that *anyone* can do", Veronica opens the discourse to the wider community of citizens. However, she essentially closes discursive space for the reader. The text pretends to be dialogic, but in effect, presents a closed monoglossic stance.

According to White (2003), monoglossic statements do not allow space for debate or any tension with alternative positions in the textual voice. White suggests that a monoglossic statement is a "bare assertion" that "typically operates where there is an assumption of ontological, epistemic, and axiological commonality between textual voice and audience" (p. 263). Monoglossic statements assume that the reader operates with the same knowledge, beliefs, and values as those of the author (as seen in Veronica's essay in the last chapter). White suggests that formulations like 'I firmly believe' and 'I think' pretend to be factual, but instead construct evaluative voices with moral status and authority not only to pass derogatory judgments, but also to suppress and ignore alternative viewpoints. Such dialogically inert positions are used in

academic writing, mostly in the domain of editorials and political rhetoric, but are not recommended in argumentative writing because they tend to polarize opinions and distance the audience. Veronica consolidated her monologic stance by presenting an undesirable group of disgruntled soldiers who will not voluntarily enlist because they are “unmotivated to fight”. Therefore, though Veronica included other voices in the conversation, she provided no real options for the reader but to be aligned with her proposition because of the lack of credible discursive choices presented in the text. Such polarizing voices and stances are typical of informal and social interaction or political speeches, but not appropriate to persuasive and argumentative writing in school (Martin, 1989).

In my conversation with her, Veronica revealed that she followed the advice of previous teachers who cautioned her to select the “easy route” of structuring the essay with three reasons and sufficient justifiable supporting evidence to fulfill the objectives of the essay. In such a scenario, the real voice of the writer is preferably eliminated, subservient to the more important purpose of ‘completing the task’ and making the grade. Veronica’s writing reflected generic opinions and what she believed to be politically correct positions realized in the formulaic genre of the 5-paragraph essay that schools have adopted. There was nothing wrong with her stance, except that it is *not* her stance. She admitted to me later (personal conversations) that she was afraid to take a contrary stance against the majority opinion, so she opted for the safer position. Veronica’s writing did show emerging competence within her limited range of language resources. She was able to make her point, set up the “expected” relationships with the audience, and fulfil the expectations social purpose of the 5-paragraph genre.

Unfortunately, the framing of literacy practices in the terms described above silence students and alienates them from the self-affirming potential of the writing process. This study’s

orientation was supposed to resist uncritical and 'safe' options and instead seek to support students' views and encourage their expression in ways that validate their unique individuality. Contrary to these objectives, this exercise in writing, repeated across the country in many traditional mainstream writing classes, reflects how an unproblematic implementation of literacy practices can have detrimental effects on learners. For the purposes of this paper, literate adolescents are those who use reading, writing, and literacy to learn what they want/need to learn and can demonstrate that learning in ways that makes a positive difference for students (Meltzer, 2001). The lesson I took away from this experience was the futility of making students write without sufficient support. As expressed by both Veronica and Roberto, writing becomes an irrelevant and hollow exercise for both students (and teachers) when disconnected from students' lived realities. Though Veronica's effort did signify her progress as a writer, it did not do so in any meaningful ways and therefore did not reflect the goal and purpose of this study. Teaching against the grain, as Cochran-Smith (1991) suggests, is very difficult to sustain given the longitudinal literacy practices that the students have endured or been subjugated to.

At this juncture, I needed to reflect and amend the course of the study. Though this event had taken the class in a direction that was unexpected, it was eye-opening for me in many ways. It was an important turning point because I realized that simply holding theoretical and pedagogical insights would not necessarily translate into action and tangible outcomes in direct and predictable ways. Students needed more intensive support and though I was conscious of this in theory, I was far from reaching the goal of the study. I reiterate what I took away from this first stage below:

1. Students should be asked to write on topics that matter to them.
2. The task of writing in EB contexts requires intensive field building *before* the writing so students' may develop critical and reflexive perspectives on the topic. I knew that building field up front was an important scaffold, but did not support the students adequately. I came to the conclusion that if I expected students to be invested in the writing task, *they* would have to decide what they would write about. In effect, that was the original purpose of the permeable curriculum.
3. Veronica's writing showed that she needed further support in locating *her* voice and building *her* stance. I decided to focus the remainder of the unit on expanding students' control and range of interpersonal resources for construing stance, voice, and audience relationships and assess the writing only when I was certain that I had taught them the tools they needed to succeed.

In hindsight, the first stage of the SFL-informed assessment was important because it clarified the direction and distilled the language objectives for designing the unit. My assessment of the students' work was that they showed emerging ability to deploy nominalization and abstract nouns, but lacked the ability to apply this knowledge in meaningful ways. Bazerman (2004), in his study on teaching written genres, claims that good writers are required to act and think cohesively at various levels to evaluate, comment, synthesize, "interpret and restate what sources had to say" (p. 5). Not only should they be familiar with the issues, but also be able to manipulate the rhetorical and structural requirements of the genre to formulate their positions coherently, while at the same time deploy language resources to express their social purpose and needs. It seemed to me that these were highly demanding expectations and interrelated competencies that could overwhelm EB writers entering into this domain for the first time. I had

the challenging task of integrating content and language and in addition, I knew this should be done in culturally sensitive and pedagogically appropriate ways. High expectations require high-level support, so students are not set up to fail. I had to rethink and correct the course of the unit. Teaching control of tone and tenor and developing students' voice and stance required many levels of support. Therefore, in the next chapter, I describe how I consolidated and re-focused on developing students' ability to manage the voices in the text, or as Freire would have advocated- know the word to write (right) the world.

CHAPTER 7

THE RESONANCE OF CULTURALLY SUSTAINING SFL PRAXIS

The last chapter described my initial incursions into teaching EB students to write within culturally sustaining SFL praxis. I illustrated how students advanced as emerging writers, but were far from the high expectations that this educator had for them. This chapter consolidates on lessons learned in that initial phase. In the next sections, I describe the second phase of the study beginning with the important process of selecting a topic and building knowledge of field to support and frame the critical instruction. Then I chronicle the process of designing learning modules that targeted language objectives of developing an objective and formal tone in writing while also developing students' political stance and the linguistic voice(s). The larger goal is to answer the research questions and show how culturally sustaining SFL praxis is a powerful framework to teach writing and to foster students' identities as capable writers and thinking individuals.

The culturally sustaining SFL praxis stimulated a dialogic resonance of voices in the classroom wherein students measured perspectives from their homes and communities against the official domains of school and the larger world outside. The framework also allowed students to weave intertextual webs as they bounced ideas and formulated evaluations in the discursive negotiation of alignment and disalignment of ideologies and ensuing relationships of solidarity or opposition in the classroom. The cultural framework fostered everyday and reflexive webs

(Macken-Horarik, 1998). The next step in the design was to find ways to support students in expressing this dialogue in linguistic terms in their texts. Engagement is the conceptual location of the authorial voice within the heteroglossia of the written environment of the text. Therefore, teaching Engagement and Attribution options was a logical extension to support students in using language to express the dialogical threads and webs generated in the classroom. Engagement and Attribution became the central pedagogic focus for construing and managing heteroglossia of interpersonal relations between speaker/writer and the text's audience (Martin & White, 2005, p. 95).

Culturally sustaining SFL praxis in this study assumed that bringing in students' worlds was an important asset to scaffold literacy and provide critical perspectives vital both in the context of the pedagogy and in the context of the writing. The goal was to enable students in controlling the discourse within the text in strategic ways and in construing an authorial voice and writerly identity. Engagement and Attribution options became the linguistic tools and arms to support students' capacity to express their individuality, beliefs, and values in their written texts and break the silence to which they were hitherto subjected. Within this conception, words, language, and education accrue the value and worth they originally meant for.

In the next sections, I respond to the first research question of the dissertation and the central critical goal of this study by illustrating how I designed instruction to enable students to respond to these expectations.

Selection of Topic for Independent Construction

The Discussion genre endorses language and writing as a means to express students' positions and beliefs on sociopolitical issues relevant to their situation and context and thus provides authentic purposes for students to write (Cope and Kalantzis, 1993; Gebhard, Harman, & Seger,

2007). The social purpose of Discussion is to “present information about and arguments for both sides concluding with a recommendation based on the weight of evidence” (Rothery, 1989, p. 9). According to Rothery (1989), teacher and students should jointly select an issue or topic that is relevant to students’ lives. Rothery maintains that understanding the features of Discussion genre will “ensure that students become informed and critically discerning readers and writers...with the capability and confidence to make an active and credible contribution to firstly, their own schooling outcomes, and beyond, to their participation in Australian society” (p. 7). Her words succinctly summarize the goals of this study.

Discussion achieves its social purpose through the stages:

- Issue: presents the issue to be argued
- Arguments for
- Arguments against
- Recommendation

The arguments for and against are presented with their respective evidence and support. Discussion genre introduces concepts construing stance and writer’s voice through debate. That is, by presenting arguments for, arguments against, and recommending a course of action. In the selection of issues, Rothery recommends writing about larger issues that affect the wider community, so the field moves towards more generalization and abstraction moving away from local and immediate concerns that tend to deploy social and everyday language use. She presents a range of topics presented below in Table 7.1 (adapted from Rothery, 1989, p. 13), and advises that teachers select topics located to the right of the table because they require an increasing use of noncongruent language and abstractions and encourage students to make evaluations and generalized reflections on their social worlds:

Table 7.1: Selection of Topics that Require Abstract Use of Language

School	Local	State	National	Global
Uniforms Discipline Cafeteria Playground	Housing Roads Recreation Sports	Education Police Transport Pollution	Immigration Welfare Defense Drugs	Greenhouse Ozone Layer Nuclear Energy Population

In our conversations, various options were discussed by the students: Miguel was interested in the financial aspects of professional soccer, Anh wanted to explore culinary aspects of Asian cuisine, Domingo's preference was the legalization of marijuana. Veronica and Rosa were inclined to investigating legal ways to bring their parents to the United States, Sofia (and her family) did not have legal immigration status and most of the students were interested in learning more about the Dream Act. Some of my students' parents have been deported due to the strict immigration policies of our school district, and many students were anticipating the opportunity for a legal channel to obtain proper documentation. In an open vote and discussion, the class came to a consensus to research the issue of immigration to learn about the immigration debate as it was evolving in Congress at the time. The sociocultural framing of the writing proved to be significant to the students' intrinsic motivation in focusing on the relevant readings and in developing informed opinions on the topic. The permeable curriculum, the readings on the issue, and the discussions that followed supported the students to fulfil the social purpose of the Discussion genre that required students to explore both sides of the issue. SFL Engagement and Attribution language options provided them with appropriate language resources to enable them to express the views and opinions they developed in class. Following Rothery's recommendations, the students and I jointly read and wrote on the topic with renewed enthusiasm and interest. We worked together to:

- research the topic
- consider the issues from differing viewpoints
- develop arguments and counter arguments
- collect supporting evidence

Since students could get mired in unfamiliar names and committees and confused by the myriad complexities of immigration policy and decision-making at the national level, I selected a few key sources from online news articles and official party opinion pieces related to focus the discussion and build knowledge of the field. Table 7.2 outlines the four articles that I selected to provide a broad perspective that covered the main views (Republican and Democratic) on the topic:

Table 7.2: Articles on the Immigration Debate

Title of Article	Source	Retrieved from Web address
Strengthening our Country through Comprehensive Immigration Reform	Democratic Party on Immigration	http://www.democrats.org/issues/immigration_reform/P8
Republican Party on Immigration	Republican Party Platform	http://www.ontheissues.org/celeb/republican_party_immigration.htm
Should America Maintain/Increase the level of Legal Immigration?	BalancedPolitics.org	http://www.balancedpolitics.org/immigration.htm
Partisan Divide Remains on How to Tackle Immigration By Rosalind S. Helderman	The Boston Globe	http://www.bostonglobe.com/news/politics/2013/02/14/despite-ipartisan-call-for-immigration-reform-partisan-divides-remain/fe77gk2oajJTnH1MsSvP8K/story.html

We read the articles in class and students jointly analyzed the information on the immigration debate that was later collated on the Smart board. We organized the ideas clearly by using headings, summarizing the different views, and discussing the politics behind the positions of the different political parties. For better comprehension of the topic, I started at their level of understanding and built from there. That meant explaining basic concepts like political parties, their ideologies and policies, and the work of the Senate committee on immigration. The readings introduced technical terms that were important to build knowledge of field, like “Comprehensive Immigration Reform Act”, “H2A & B Visas” “E-verify” and “amnesty” and familiarized the students with the workings of a divided Congress.

Rothery (1989) also suggests building a range of activities into this step to give students opportunities to understand and use the technical vocabulary relevant to the topic. She adds that this also provides opportunities to consolidate and reinforce knowledge about the schematic structure and language features of the target genre. Therefore, a large part of this stage was developing critical perspectives on immigration issues combined with linguistic analysis of the articles. For this purpose, I designed assignments to explicitly point out how language use manipulated readers with one-sided arguments and slanted views. Table 7.3 presents an excerpt from one of the articles that we analyzed together. Students were asked simple critical questions to guide their thinking to reveal the stance of the author and how the writing positioned the immigrants:

Table 7.3: Questions for Analyzing Stance in Texts

The Republican Party supports reforming the immigration system to address the needs of national security. To keep our nation safe, we must ensure that immigrants enter the United States only through legal means that allow for verification of their identity, reconnaissance cameras, border patrol agents, and unmanned aerial flights at the border. In addition, Border Patrol agents now have sweeping new powers to deport illegal aliens without having first to go through the cumbersome process of allowing the illegal alien to have a hearing before an immigration judge. We support these efforts to enforce the law while welcoming immigrants who enter America through legal avenues.

from: Republican Party on Immigration (http://www.ontheissues.org/celeb/republican_party_immigration.htm)

- a) What words present the position of the author?
- b) What are the arguments for? Where are they located?
- c) What is not mentioned in the text?
- d) How does the author convince the reader to side with him/her? (look at the pronouns)
- e) How does the author remove the 'I'?

Though these readings were difficult and complex and I had to model how to approach this critical thinking very intensely. The new knowledge built on students' personal experiences on the topic. The culturally sustaining SFL framework allowed them to raise provocative questions and provide important input and insights that elicited more nuanced understandings of the issue. The following transcript below (March 13, 2013) provides an example of how I scaffolded the students into more reflexive and critical perspectives starting from an everyday knowledge base:

NIHAL: How do the undocumented people affect the nation?

SOFIA: The economy?

ROSA: *El espacio* (The space.)

NIHAL: They are taking up space?

SOFIA: Not really.

VERONICA: The population. Too much population... too many kids!

ROSA: *Están usando recursos* (They are using up resources.)

NIHAL: Yes, they are using up resources, in the hospitals, schools, social welfare, for the government programs for nutrition for kids, pregnant mothers and all that (41:92).

JOSE: Medicaid.

I contextualized the issue to build on their everyday knowledge by raising the following questions:

NIHAL: Education. They are paying my salary. If you guys were not here, I would be teaching somebody else.

JOSE: White people

NIHAL: Yes, white people probably. But right now they are paying me so I can teach you guys. Should I stop teaching you because some of you may be undocumented? (silence)

ROBERTO: No, everyone deserves an education.

NIHAL: Even the undocumented?

ROBERTO: Yes, it's not their fault that they are here. I was brought here when I was only 2 years old. I have never gone back. My home is here in [Weavers City]. I don't know what I'll do in Mexico.

SOFIA: I have not gone back either.

The above interaction may seem like I am priming the discussion to manipulate ‘expected’ answers (Auckerman, 2012). This may be partly true because of my close knowledge of their experiences as immigrants and my efforts to bring these situated realities to the fore. However, the students’ replies do not comply with my expectations in simple and uncritical ways. As seen above, they expand the scope of my inquiry by providing lived experiences that were commonly shared by many. I wanted the students to reflect on the immigrant status and the resulting political outcomes that “Generation 1.5”¹ students lived on a daily basis in their lives (Harklau, Losey, & Siegal, 1999).

Besides social aspects of immigration, we also examined the immigration debate from an economic point of view:

DOMINGO: They are doing jobs that white people don’t wanna do.

NIHAL: If Americans work in the fields, how much salary do they want?

MAI: A lot

DOMINGO: 20 dollars at least, an hour.

ROBERTO: Plus a house to live in..

SOFIA: and lunch..

VERONICA: They don’t want to work in the sun. They can’t take it.

JUAN DIEGO: Yeah, they are not Guatemalans! [sic]

NIHAL: Yes, they probably also want a break of 2-3 hours. They will ask for paid vacations, insurance if there is any injury. How much do you think that costs?

SOFIA: Much more.

NIHAL: It costs the owner about 10-15 dollars more per hour if you count benefits.

¹ Harklau et al., (1999) define EB students who come from homes where English is not the first language and who have not yet developed their first language literacy skills as “Generation 1.5”.

DOMINGO: Americans are too slow. [sic]

NIHAL: What is cheaper? 7 dollars an hour or 20-25 dollars an hour? (46:38) The problem is that the 7-dollar worker is undocumented. They are the 'aliens'. But these 'aliens' are solving a major problem in this country. It's an economic problem.

The students began to think analytically, evaluating the situation from various perspectives, both for and against, as required by the Discussion genre:

ROBERTO: But some people complain that the illegals are working for less pay.

NIHAL: Yes, that is true. But if the owners pay a higher wage, like 25 dollars an hour, do you know how much tomatoes and onions will cost? Right now we are paying \$1.20 per pound for tomatoes. That may go up to 3-4 dollars per pound. Do we want to pay that?

ROBERTO: No.

NIHAL: Who is really paying the price?

MIGUEL: Us.

NIHAL: Yes, the poor immigrants have to pay the price. People don't realize that when they complain.

ROBERTO: Yes, everybody wants those cheap vegetables and they pay very little...even in construction

NIHAL: But they don't want to pay the price for somebody who is picking those vegetables. It's a package. Because that person also comes with children. They come with a family. You have to educate them, right? It comes in a package. Either you take it as it is or you don't. (48:40). Immigrants are human beings, not animals, right? So, in order for the economy to survive, we have to support their families. You cannot have cheap tomatoes and

also call them aliens and criminals.

SOFIA: They stop us on the road...in the *retenes* (check-points).

VERONICA: Yeah, that's how my dad got deported.

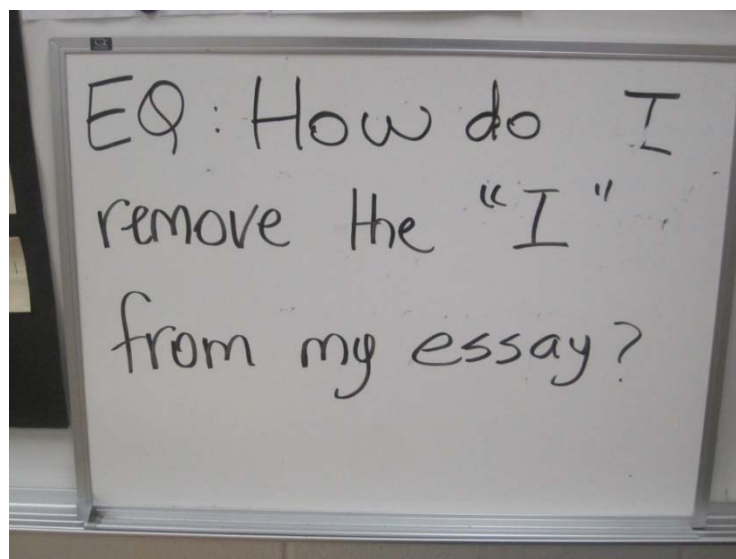
I encouraged students to think critically about the issue to build their reflexive knowledge of field. The discussion about immigration rights brought up the hardships and challenges that students' families faced and issues related to home experiences that typically never entered the official domain of school. Veronica spoke about the day her father was caught at a check-point in the city and later deported, Miguel described how he felt "strange" when on vacation in Mexico, and Sofia discussed her inability to connect with her grandmother from back home. These discussions provided rich layers of personal and political contexts to the topic. Simultaneously, I focused the class on language resources to express these meanings in appropriate ways.

However, assessing their first attempts at writing and from individual conversations with the students, I learned that the students needed more intensive support in field and tenor to manage complex discussions and issues effectively. Parallel to building knowledge of field, I also designed the module "How to Remove the 'I'" to respond to the first research question that examines ways to support students in deploying Engagement and Attribution options to control tenor and audience relationships and construe a "formal and objective" style as mandated by the State of Georgia Common Core standards for expository writing (www.gadoe.org). I did not want to fail my students or set them up for failure by not supporting them adequately to succeed. Therefore, in this module, I made every effort to support them both in both in learning how to negotiate meaning making by playing with ideational (field) and interpersonal choices (tenor) that they could use to manage the tone and message of their social writing.

The Discussion genre requires that students make interpretations of social reality based on a careful evaluation and presentation of different points of view as supporting evidence. It requires that they understand how to construe an authorial voice and locate it among the discourse of voices surrounding the issue at hand. Discussion involves reflexivity and thought about social issues and thus, intensive support in field. Developing critical perspectives or construing an appropriate voice to express stance signifies having deep knowledge on the topic. Although an SFL approach included an integrated focus on all three metafunctions (ideational, interpersonal, and textual), for the purposes of this study, I focused only on the instruction related to interpersonal meanings because these particular findings would shed light on how students negotiated other voices and ideologies in their texts to construe a particular social reality and stance. In other words, the focus on interpersonal meaning aligned with the intent of this SFL praxis: to support students in accessing and challenging normative discourses.

Module 3: How to Remove the ‘I’

Figure 7.1: How to Remove the “I”



In this module, I introduced how students deployed Attribution to explicitly endorse other voices or to introduce conflicting sources and viewpoints to resonate against their own implicit stance in the text. Martin and White (2005) describe the ways that writers locate themselves within multiple positions (Engagement) and suggest that resources of Attribution are particularly relevant for analyzing how writers construe voice and situate it within a larger debate and discourse of voices to realize their special social purposes. With the students, I revisited the role of nominalization in constructing a formal tenor and style typical of written discourse, but this time, used the Discussion genre as the model. I pointed out to the students how the text deployed more abstract and metaphorical entities as participants (underlined in Table 7.12 below) and how nominalized structures packaged conceptual information in Theme/Rheme progression. Using the smartboard, I deconstructed Theme/Rheme progression in the essay *Genetically Modified Foods* (Bunting, 2012), as illustrated in Table 7.4 below:

Table 7.4: Theme/Rheme Analysis of Expository Text

Theme	Rheme (new information)
<u>Any time humans</u>	make technological <u>advances</u> ,
<u>they</u>	have the potential to do great harm and great good
<u>Genetically modified (GM) foods</u>	which are foods that have had <u>changes</u> made to their DNA are no <u>exception</u>
<u>Many people</u>	believe that there are possible <u>advantages</u> to genetically modifying plants
For example,	to improve their nutritional <u>value</u>
	or [to] protect them from pests as they grow.

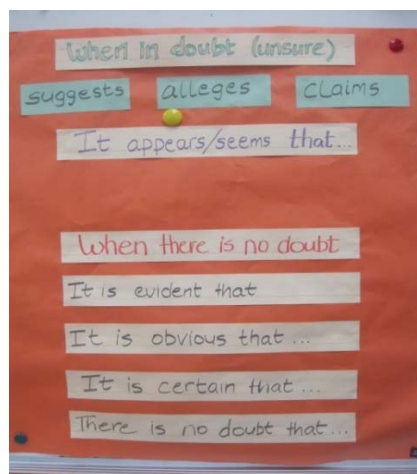
I pointed out how the author used generalized participants (e. g., humans, people), abstract entities (e. g., genetically modified foods, nutritional value) and nominalizations (e. g., advantages, exception, harm, good) that together construe a formal tone and writerly distance from the issues at hand (Fang, Schleppegrell, & Cox, 2006). It was important to make it clear that in this form of writing there was no place for subject pronouns or addressing the reader in direct and personal ways. Removing the ‘I’ was an important step to realizing “spatial and interpersonal distance” (Eggins, 1994, p. 53). Another important aspect of Discussion was to construct a credible voice to align the reader with the proposition. Therefore, construing a subdued voice (Martin, 1989) and a dialogical text that allowed the reader space and real options to formulate opinions was the central goal of this module. I highlighted how the author used modal verbs for this purpose:

While there appear to be advantages to this technological advance

There are some scientists who tend to question the safety of these foods for human consumption

The accompanying picture Figure 7.2 illustrates this lesson:

Figure 7.2 Using Verbs to Locate Author’s Voice



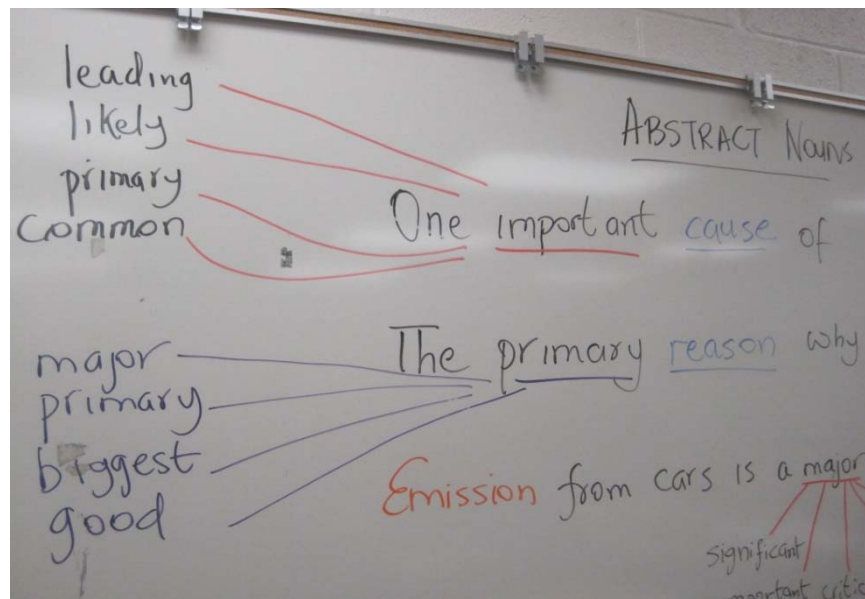
I also pointed out how to use adjectives to soften the authorial voice:

There are possible advantages to genetically modifying plants.

They have the potential to do great harm and great good

Figure 7.3 depicts the lesson on using adjectives to control the writer's viewpoint:

Figure 7.3: Using Adjective to locate Author's Voice



Once again, it was important to emphasize to students that writing is a matter of choice and precise selection of linguistic resources contingent to the social purpose of the text. I drew out a variety of expressions that played a range of functions and established a continuum of interrelationships with the audience in the interpersonal domain. The examples below show a cline of subjectivity realized in expressions that construe a more personal to objective tone:

<i>I am concerned about...</i>	subjective personal tone.
<i>my concern for....</i>	more distant but personal tone
<i>a cause for great concern</i>	objective, authoritative tone

The three examples above construct the same meaning, but set up different relationships with the reader. In a persuasive genre such as Discussion, the social purpose of the argument is to convince the reader to agree with the proposition of the writer and to advocate some form of social action. However, this work is to be done in subtle ways by construing a subdued authorial tone. Therefore, my main focus was on teaching students to embed subjectivity and agency by muting their opinions and viewpoints. In other words, my goal was to support students to expand their language repertoires to enable them to switch from informal registers that make direct assertions to more measured tenor and an objective way of writing, appropriate to the context and requirements of the genre. To simplify terminology like “embedded subjectivity” and “writerly distance”, I used more familiar terms like using abstract nouns (instead of nominalization) to move away from subjective writing by “getting rid of the ‘I’” as described in Table 7.5 below:

Table 7.5: Removing the ‘I’

Social Language uses Verbs	Academic Language uses Nouns
I <u>was disappointed</u> when I <u>failed</u> the test	My <u>disappointment</u> was huge at my <u>failure</u> in the test (Rosa, February, 2013)
I <u>was surprised</u> that she <u>forgave</u> me	Her <u>forgiveness</u> was <u>unexpected</u> . (Sofia, February, 2013)

I repeatedly stressed how language use is a matter of precise choice- that students could use linguistic form and function strategically to construct meanings and control the interpersonal relationship with the reader according to their specific needs and social purpose. The transcript below (edited for reasons of space) illustrates this intention (February 11, 2013):

NIHAL: Look at these two sentences. (Nihal reads first sentence) *It is difficult to find time to exercise everyday...* Now look at the same sentence with the 'I'.. *I BELIEVE that it is difficult to exercise everyday.* Look at that. I added the subject 'I'. (pause) Over here, I removed it. Over here I added it. (24:05). It's the same meaning, BUT this is subjective.. that is objective (pause 3 secs).

VERONICA: Like, what do you mean?

NIHAL: Both sentences are saying the same thing... but in this one there's a person talking...with an opinion.

VERONICA: Oooh...

NIHAL: Here, you don't know whose opinion it is. It's hidden. The person's opinion is hidden inside.

VERONICA: OK...so that makes it ob...jec..

NIHAL: Objective.

VERONICA: Yeah, that's how they write an essay. You're supposed to write like this!

DOMINGO: OHHH!

JUAN DIEGO: Yeah, I get it.

NIHAL: Sometimes you should NOT use the "I" in the essays. You have to remove the "I".

In other words, remove yourself.

However, the process was not smooth and many students' texts showed that they needed more time to grasp difficult concepts like controlling stance and voice by deploying modal verbs, abstract nouns, and passive voice to position their voices in strategic ways. In the example below, my goal was to point out to students how different writer/reader relations can be set in overt ways as in:

As a parent, I decided to change our eating habits to improve our health and how to conceal the writer's subjectivity behind a veil of abstraction as in:

The decision to change the eating habits improved their health.

The following transcript (February 7, 2013) describes the ensuing confusion and my efforts to clarify the difficult concept of authorial presence in the text:

NIHAL: How would I write this sentence using a verb? (Nihal writes sentence). I am going to change the abstract noun into a verb. *As a parent, I decided to change our eating habits to improve our health.* Look at the difference between this sentence and that one. *The decision to change the eating habits improved their health.* Both sentences are saying the same thing, but it's a different way of writing it. Here *decided* is the verb, and here, *decision* is the abstract noun form of that verb. (21:31) (long pause)

This is very subjective...when you speak, you say it this way, but that is very objective.

When you write, you say it that way. That's the academic way of saying it by using a noun phrase. (points) This is the spoken way. See?

JUAN DIEGO: Yeah! (sarcastic) (Sofia laughs)

NIHAL: (laughs) Yeah! No you don't! 'Cause nobody got it! Nobody got it, right?

VERONICA: No. nobody got it.

NIHAL: Ok. What is the verb in the first sentence?

MIGUEL: *decided*...

NIHAL: who decided?

MIGUEL: the parents

NIHAL: OK. Is *decided* used in this second sentence?

VERONICA: No..

NIHAL: what happened here?

ROBERTO: *decision...*

NIHAL: What about *decision*? Whose decision?

ROBERTO: It has changed.

NIHAL: to what?

MIGUEL: the noun.

NIHAL: YES! Here is the verb *decided*... here is the noun *decision*. But whose *decision*?

(long pause)

ROBERTO: We don't know. It doesn't say.

This part of the transcript was the aftermath of many explanations and repetitions about author's voice and presence in the text. The students needed support, guidance, and time to grasp the complexity of using language in strategic ways- to express opinions, but at the same time, disguise agency. After deconstruction, I did not jump into writing essays (as I did in the first phase), but consolidated their learning with simple exercises designed to remove the "I" from their texts so students could apply this knowledge in their independent writing at a later stage. The next module describes some of these efforts and also how deploying resources of Attribution and Engagement were essential to support critical perspectives in students' writing. Specifically, I describe how I introduced students to concepts of eliding agency and subjectivity in a text by removing the participant from the Theme position in the beginning of the sentence, controlling modality, and by writing in the passive voice or in the third person.

Module 4: Engagement and Attribution to Locate Voice

According to White (2003), monoglossic statements do not allow space for debate or any tension with alternative positions in the textual voice. White cautions against deploying monoglossia that presumes that the reader operates with the same knowledge, beliefs, and values as those of the author (as seen in Veronica's essay in the last chapter). He also suggests that heteroglossic propositions that construe a dialogic backdrop with the text may be dialogic but contract dialogic space rather than open it by overtly rejecting opposing positions that are represented as irrelevant or antagonistic. Here, the textual voice positions itself as at odds with, or rejects, the contrary position. However, he proposes that more mature and 'objective' texts would include opposing perspectives, while construing readers who may potentially be susceptible to the 'false' basis of those views, and disaligning them from those perspectives (Martin & White, 2005). This is a more complex and nuanced view of interpersonal voice relations. To support students' critical perspectives, I first introduced them to open the dialogic space in the text by quoting other sources using reporting verbs and modals for Attribution.

We jointly deconstructed the *Genetically Modified Foods* essay to analyze how the author attributed opinions to other sources by deploying reporting verbs in strategic ways. I emphasized how these verbs underscore particular interpersonal meanings and designed exercises for students to get familiar with reporting verbs like "demonstrates", "suggests", and "estimates" that convey neutrality, versus verbs like "emphasizes", "illustrates", "warns", and "recommends" that transmit more partial and biased views. Students mined the essay for different sources of opinions, from researchers to names of scientists and politicians, and analyzed the ways these voices advanced the writer's values and positions. In other words, we deconstructed the function of the reporting verbs and their purpose in the text.

I cautioned the students not to be “100% sure” in their statements because that was not appropriate to Discussion. They were always to express their opinions using modals that did not impose any stance on the reader. The students made posters and posted them around the room to draw attention to the resources of modality so they could subdue the force of their opinions and positions by using modal verbs like “could” or adverbials like “perhaps” or “likely”. Another poster illustrated reporting verbs and phrases that located voice and stance strategically to underscore the writer’s attitude and stance in a range from distanced neutrality to overt approval and alignment. Figure 8.4 illustrates one of these resources hanging on the walls:

Figure 7.4: Using Reporting Verbs

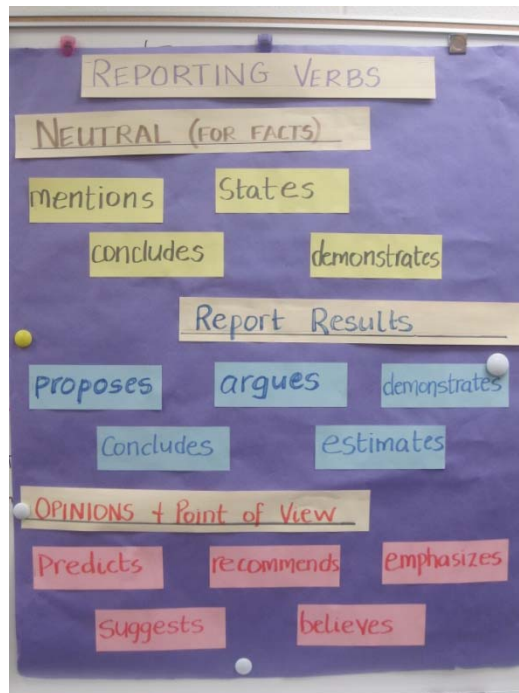


Table 7.6 also depicts a handout I gave to students to remind them of using verbs in strategic ways to express their stance in the writing:

Table 7.6: Using Reporting Verbs

Source	Reporting Verbs	
Subject	Alignment (sure)	Hedging (Not sure)
Research	describes	appear to suggest that
Teachers	states	estimate that
Scientists	displays	are likely to disagree with
Studies	summarizes	tend to agree with
It	suggests that	seems unlikely
It	is evident that	is possible that
		seems doubtful

In some academic varieties of writing like Discussion, a writer is required to present both sides of an issue. Including different and often conflicting voices and perspectives lends credibility and weight to the text. In many cases, the author may choose to tone down his/her subjectivity and agency is elided, if not completely hidden. Thus, I pointed out to students how another way to hide agency and subjectivity in a text could be achieved by removing the participant from the Theme position (at the beginning of the sentence). This could be realized by deploying the passive voice or using the third person (e. g., “it is evident that”, “people believe that”), another central focus in this module for controlling the writer’s opinion and stance. I designed practice exercises where students mined the model texts for different sources of opinions and changed the writer’s stance by switching qualifiers and verbs in Theme (e. g., “it seems certain”, “it appears likely”, “it seems

doubtful”, it appears unlikely”, it seems impossible”). These exercises helped them to locate their stance within a range of positions from emphatic to subdued, or to elide agency by attributing the opinion to other sources (Martin & White, 2005). A transcription of a discussion from this phase illustrates the interaction in the class (March 11, 2013):

NIHAL: Veronica, can you give me an example of a fact, any fact – about the population, or about Mexico, or about United States, or about our city. Give me a fact.

VERONICA: Uhhhhh

JUAN DIEGO: Mexico is full of zetas.

NIHAL: What? I believe that Mexico has what?

JUAN DIEGO: *No nada solo zetas.* (No, nothing, only zetas)

VERONICA: *Dile!* (Tell him!) (laughs)

NIHAL: OK. How would you express that as an opinion?

VERONICA: I think that....

NIHAL: Good! (writes on the board). *I think that Mexico is full of gangs.*

JUAN DIEGO: yeah

NIHAL: OK? But I want to remove the “I”. So how do I do it? I would say: *It is certain that that Mexico has a lot of gangs.*

DOMINGO: Oh yeah!

NIHAL: You remove the “I”. So now it becomes very objective. Or you can say: *It is clear that Mexico has a lot of gangs. It is evident that Mexico has a lot of gangs.*

VERONICA: *It is obvious..*

NIHAL: *It is OBVIOUS that Mexico has a lot of gangs.* All these are used very often in the essays.

Though the participant “I” has been removed, the marked Theme (“it is obvious that” and “it is evident that”) projects the opinion of the writer forcefully, but shifts the onus of the opinion away from the author. I emphasized how the passive voice and the impersonal pronoun “it” in the Theme position could be an effective tool to screen overt opinions, as in:

It is generally known that obesity is a cause of great concern.

It is common knowledge that obesity is a cause of great concern.

or by attributing the opinion to some other voice:

Research suggests that obesity is a cause of great concern.

Established researchers have shown that obesity is a cause of great concern.

I explained to the students how they could realize the formal and distant tone by eliminating the subject pronouns and replacing them with generalized participants, (e. g., “teachers”, “people”), passive voice (e. g., “it is believed”) or abstract entities (e. g., “research”, “success”) that lend an impersonal, thus, seemingly objective tone to the claim to hide agency and disguise the writer’s subjectivity. Table 7.7 below provides examples of how subtle choices in register values of tenor construe different interpersonal meanings contingent to the writer’s social purpose. The cline illustrates how strategic language choices communicate different meanings, from subjective opinions, to communicating an intimate or authoritative and formal tone to embed agency in the text:

Table 7.7: Transitioning Tenor and Field Values

Text	Cline of Language Use		
	Language Use	Tenor (stance)	Field (participants)
1. <u>I believe</u> that students who do their homework every day succeed in school.	social language ↓ academic language	overt, subjective ↓ objective/ formal	local, concrete ↓ abstract/ generalized
2. <u>Teachers suggest</u> that students who do their homework every day succeed in school.			
3. <u>It is believed</u> that students who do their homework every day succeed in school.			
4. <u>Research suggests</u> that students who do their homework every day succeed in school.			
5. <u>Success</u> belongs to hard <u>workers</u>			

The transcript (February 12, 2013) below describes the discussion about language choices and the range of potential stance positions available for the writers in the sentences 1-5 in the above table:

NIHAL: Now, you tell me, which one is more objective? (45:53)

MIGUEL: The last one

NIHAL: This one is *my* opinion (sentence 1).... This one (sentence 2) is whose opinion?

JOSE: Teacher's

NIHAL: The teacher's opinion. This one (sentence 5) is whose opinion?

MAI: Everybody like....

DOMINGO: It could be your opinion.

NIHAL: There's nobody there. You see. So which one seems the most objective?

JOSE: The last one.

NIHAL: The last one because there's nobody there!

DOMINGO: Oooh.

NIHAL: You want me to put somebody there? (46:15) I'm going to put somebody there.

Now listen to this. It is important. I am going to add ...*Success is for hard workers* ...(Nihal writes) *according to me*.

DOMINGO: yeah

NIHAL: But that part is hidden, so it looks like, Oh my gosh, this is really objective! It looks like this (sentence 5) is not an opinion. But this is also an opinion. But when I write it like this, it looks like it's NOT an opinion, you see?

DOMINGO: yeah

NIHAL: You see what I am doing? I am changing from MY opinion, to third person opinion, to ...NO opinion. (46:55) I am moving from my opinion, to somebody else's opinion...to somebody else who is credible...to...

SOFIA: No...

NIHAL: ..No opinion. But there IS an opinion over here. What is the opinion?

STUDENTS: (in unison) Students should do their homework.

NIHAL: But the way I write it, it looks like there is no opinion there.

DOMINGO: It sounds like you are not saying it.

NIHAL: Yes, it sounds like I am not saying it.

VERONICA: I am going to take a picture of it!

Many of the students found the advanced rhetorical skills of this module challenging and difficult to grasp. They resisted in many ways, and on many occasions, I had to refocus their attention and clarify and repeat the lessons. In addition, the students' lack of grammatical knowledge hindered their understanding. The transcript below (January 22, 2013) describes these challenges:

NIHAL: *Research says...* what verb can I use? Research.. by who? Give me the name of a university (long pause) (24:40)

VERONICA: UGA?

NIHAL: By UGA, very good! By U..G...A... what verb can I use?

JOSE: *Displays?*

VERONICA: naaaaa

NIHAL: *Displays es demostrar. (Displays is shows.)*

JOSE: Nooo...*describes*

NIHAL: *Describes...*let's say *describes* (writes on board) ...*the negative....effects....of alcoholism* (25:14)...What is the noun here?

JUAN DIEGO: *Describes.*

NIHAL: What is the noun?

MIGUEL: *Describes...* (softly)

NIHAL: No, *describes* is the verb

MIGUEL: Oh.

NIHAL: The noun phrase starts here and ends over there...what's the noun there?

SOFIA: uuuhhh

JOSE and MIGUEL: *Affects*

VERONICA: *The negative EFFECTS of ...*(25:34)

MIGUEL: No, of..of

NIHAL: *of* is a preposition.

VERONICA: *Effects of alcoholism.. effects*

NIHAL: That's your noun!

VERONICA: That's what I said!

Challenges of Teaching Writing

Macken-Horarik (1998) suggests that teachers should activate students' social language first and then build on transitioning to more specialized domains of knowledge and language gradually based on close assessments of student progress. Culturally sustaining SFL praxis allowed the class to move freely between the everyday and social knowledge domains to specialized and reflexives domains. SFL pedagogy proposes that academic language learning is not a linear process of acquiring more or less language, but rather developing an understanding of how and when to use linguistic resources for particular social purposes (Hasan, 1996). To measure students' progress, the research design included individual conferences to analyze their writing samples and to assess their progress and understanding of the new concepts at every stage. I made field notes after class to keep a record of my own struggle and challenges. Thinking about form and function of language for academic purposes even within the social language domain was not an easy transition for many students and for me too:

Their writing clearly does not reflect the formal academic style that I have taught them.

In fact, I am spoon feeding them to encourage them from sentence to sentence as they write their essay. Many students are listening in to my conferences with other students and repeating the same phrases and catch words. They seem to be mechanically reproducing the language resources that I am “handing down”. (Field notes, February 13, 2013)

On another occasion, I wrote:

I gave them a sample essay and they are using the text to mechanically reproduce parts. I hope there is some real understanding of the underlying strategic use of rhetoric and structure. I realize these are merely first steps but I always ask myself: am I on the wrong path? Am I asking too much? Am I providing enough groundwork? I will need to talk to them and then maybe rethink all of this and start anew if I have to. (March 8, 2013)

Roberto would express his exasperation often, “I don’t get this!” (February 12, 2013). Juan Diego would “copy” from others and then in my conferences with him I would note that this habit of receiving ‘help’ from peers was his strategy to mask his inability to keep up with the class. The students borrowed and supported each other by working in small groups to keep up with the demands of the writing process. On many occasions, I had to push back against students’ frustration and encourage them by focusing on their gains and progress, even if it meant that some students were mechanically producing what they perceived were my expectations in the writing. I was keenly aware that the SFL focus on the interrelations between form and function of grammar was unfamiliar territory for the students. My optimism was framed in Rothery’s (1989) suggestion that “students’ first attempts at approximating the genre need to be encouraged and reinforced even

though the text produced may not contain all the language features or show full control of the generic structure” (p. 60). In many cases, the students’ emerging language proficiency limited their control of language and their expressive abilities as reflected in the following examples:

Her dedication not making the soccer team in spite of her dedication was a failure.
(Juan Diego, March, 2013)

I disbelief when my cousin told me she was pregnant. (Rosa, March, 2013)

However, these exercises (though decontextualized) did serve the important purpose of setting up the ground for ‘playing with language’ and initiating a process of expanding students’ linguistic resources to enable them to convey ideas in different ways.

My biggest challenge was teaching grammatical functions to students who were unsure of the parts of speech of language. The result was that the students who were beginners and had not yet acquired enough English language proficiency did not seem to grasp the essential concepts of this module. As we progressed through the module, Juan Diego could not tell the difference between an example of genetically modified foods and the cited source of opinions in the text (March 15, 2013). Miguel was unable to point out verbs from the nouns, and Domingo copied all the underlined answers from Roberto’s essay (January 22, 2013). Because students came to me during the last block of the day, on many occasions they were unable to keep up with the complexity of the lesson. At such times they tended to be distracted and tired, making it a challenge for me to keep them focused through the end of the period.

However, I continued to encourage the students and the targeted language support began to have positive outcomes over the course of the study, as described in the next section on findings from the independent writing stage.

Independent Construction

Since students had already written an essay (*Mandatory Military Service*), I made the decision to move on to the Independent Construction Stage. I had supported them in building knowledge of field with the readings and discussions around the articles about the immigration debate. We deconstructed 2 expository essays in depth (*Ecological Footprints* and *Genetically Modified Foods*) to target genre objectives like organization and cohesion and making appropriate language choices for construing stance and audience relationships. Each student conferred with me for immediate feedback after having written a section or to clarify doubts about charting out the subsequent portion of the text. I wish to clarify that this was not a jointly constructed text. The conferences only clarified doubts and scaffolded their ideas at the level of field. I was keenly aware that their success depended largely on these conversations to build and draw on relevant class discussions, readings, and appropriate language to achieve their goals. The actual work of writing - constructing the argument, formulating a coherent stance, and organizing their ideas- was done independently by the students.

The following sections analyze the four focal students' essays illustrating the different ways they were able to apply their knowledge of language for Engagement. Martin and White's (2005) taxonomy identifies how writers position their stance in dialogic ways and how this positioning shifts when one resource rather than another is employed. I focus on how the Engagement values encoded in each clause contribute to the overall interpersonal meanings and communicate author/reader relations and locate author's voice in the discursive colloquy of the text. Figure 7.5 below summarizes the resources of Engagement:

Figure 7.5: Engagement Resources (adapted from Matin & White, 2005, p. 122)

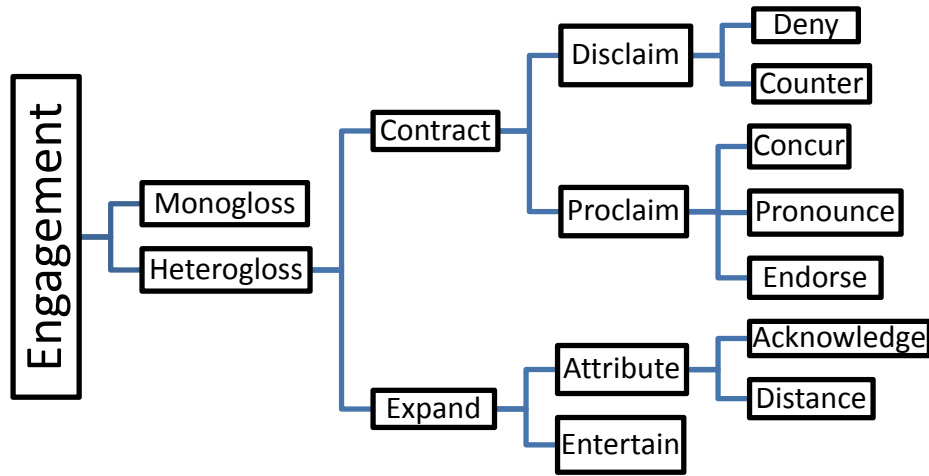
**Text 1: Veronica - Strategic Expanding and Contracting Language Use**

Figure 7.6 Veronica's essay- Introductory Paragraph

<p> Wealthy nations such as the United States, Canada, Australia and the United Kingdom will always attract immigrants that are in search for a better life. The problem is that many immigrants do not follow the proper rules, therefore there are many illegals crossing the borders. It is evident that there will be positive and negative impacts. The United States Immigration Reform is specifically targeting the problem of 12 to 20 million undocumented workers in the United States. President Obama has made it clear from the beginning that comprehensive immigration reform Act is a priority. It seems that Democrats and Republicans have been discussing this issue for years. Meanwhile immigrants are suffering the consequences of their indecision. It is certain that they need to find a solution to this problem. </p>	<p> Wealthy nations such as the United States, Canada, Australia and the United Kingdom will always attract immigrants that are in search for a better life. The problem is that many immigrants do not follow the proper rules, therefore there are many illegals crossing the borders. It is evident that there will be positive and negative impacts. The United States Immigration Reform is specifically targeting the problem of 12 to 20 million undocumented workers in the United States. President Obama has made it clear from the beginning that Comprehensive immigration Reform Act is a priority. It seems that Democrats and Republicans have been discussing this issue for years. Meanwhile immigrants are suffering the consequences of their indecision. It is certain that they need to find a solution to this problem. </p>
--	--

Figure 7.6 above is the introductory paragraph to Veronica's essay on immigration (see Appendix 5 for complete essay). My analysis of the introductory paragraph, depicts how the text deploys the Engagement system of resources for expanding and entertaining alternative positions. The text opens by proclaiming that immigration to wealthy nations is inevitable:

Wealthy nations...will always attract immigrants that are in search of a better life

The monoglossic assertion seems to propose that immigrants' move to "search for a better life" is an inevitable outcome (*will always*). However, the next line counters by conceding that it is a "problem" because "many immigrants do not follow the proper rules" and therefore, "there are many illegals crossing the borders". Next, she affirms her dialogic stance by entertaining the perspective: "there will be positive and negative impacts". In the expanding colloquy, Veronica entertains various options using modality of probability (e. g., there will be) and qualifiers (e. g., positive and negative) that set up a binary opposition of conflicting outcomes to the immigrant process. Veronica does not seem to take an overt stance either for or against these positions. She then endorses her support in the attribution:

The United States Immigration Reform is specifically targeting the problem of 12 to 20 million undocumented workers in the United States.

The inclusion of "United States Immigration Reform", the national policy on immigration, realizes a heteroglossic voice that Entertains an official tone emphasized by a modal adjunct (*specifically*). The stance endorses the official party line (Attribute) by acknowledging the severity of the "the problem of 12 to 20 million" immigrants characterized as "undocumented workers". The text further consolidates on the official tone by increasing the political significance of the stance by Attributing this opinion to the President:

President Obama has made it clear from the beginning that Comprehensive immigration Reform Act is a priority.

Veronica does not seem to take an overt stance either for or against these positions. The text Entertains positions that are generally known and accepted, while at the same time, conceding that these stances may be open to question. It widens its dialogic scope by referencing the Democrats and Republicans who “seem to” (modality) be addressing the issue. Thus, the introduction weaves in many voices – from generalized opinions to official statements- to set up the discursive environment of the immigration issue. However, once again, as before, the author counters the preceding voices with the subtle suggestion that the politicians “have been discussing this issue for years” and hence pointing to the fact that they have not been able to resolve the problem satisfactorily. It is at this juncture that Veronica clearly reveals her stance in a sudden contraction of space:

Meanwhile immigrants are suffering the consequences of their indecision. It is certain that they need to find a solution to this problem.

Veronica deploys a contrastive conjunction (e. g., meanwhile) to signal her monoglossic departure from the official voices presented before. She Proclaims with an assertive interpersonal Theme (e. g., it is certain that) and language that emphatically limits or closes down (e. g., they need to find) what was formerly an expansive text. In addition, she counters the immigrants’ characterization as “this problem” by expressing their predicament:

Immigrants are suffering the consequences of their indecision (Contract: Proclaim)

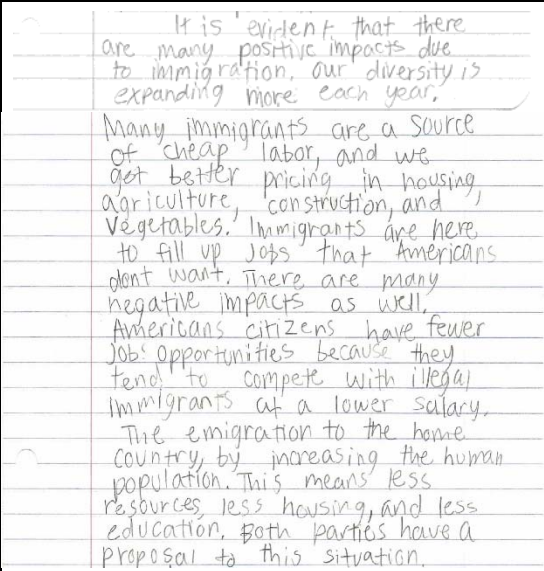
In doing so, she presents her particular view on the immigrant debate, but frames it within the resonance of the official voices that abound in the text. Her subtle use of engagement resources (Expand: Attribute and Entertain) seemingly construe her voice as impartial. The distant official

tone elides the essential subjectivity of the position. The frame of seeming impartiality strengthens the counter argument (Contract: Proclaim) and allows for a more appropriate and subdued presentation of the perspective of the immigrant. In effect, the text gives expression to the silenced and subjugated voice of the immigrant in ways that may be more forceful and effective. More important, the strategic use of interpersonal resources of Engagement and Attribution open the discourse, draw the readers into its realm, and align them with the immigrant in subtle and restrained manner, appropriate to the expected tone of Discussion genre.

Veronica used expanding language resources to construe an authorial voice that entertains various alternative stances -that of the Republican and Democratic parties within the immigration debate -construing them as valid, but open to question vis-à-vis the political and economic exigencies and security concerns of both parties. The introduction sets the stage for a heteroglossic but conflicting ideological engagement of contradictory values that comprises the immigration debate in the nation. Having laid this scenario, Veronica then shuts down the conversation in an interplay of monogloss with contraction (Disclaim – negation and opposing, and Proclaim - agreeing or rejecting) as the text seemingly purports to bridge the two opposing political perspectives, but in reality counters them by contracting the discursive space and rejecting their propositions. She proposes instead to reveal the reality of the immigrant living in the U.S. without legal documentation and closes down dialogic possibilities to emphasize her own perspective in assertive ways.

Her 2nd paragraph quoted below in Figure 7.7 showed how Veronica was able to demonstrate her control over Engagement:

Figure 7.7: Veronica Essay on Immigration – 2nd and 3rd Paragraphs

 <p>It is evident that there are many positive impacts due to immigration. Our diversity is expanding more each year. Many immigrants are a source of cheap labor, and we get better pricing in housing, agriculture, construction, and vegetables. Immigrants are here to fill up jobs that Americans don't want. There are many negative impacts as well. Americans citizens have fewer job opportunities because they tend to compete with illegal immigrants at a lower salary. The emigration to the home country, by increasing the human population. This means less resources, less housing, and less education. Both parties have a proposal to this situation.</p>	<p>It is evident that there are many positive impacts due to immigration. Our diversity is expanding more each year. Many immigrants are a source of cheap labor, and we get better pricing in housing, agriculture, construction, and vegetables. Immigrants are here to fill up jobs that Americans don't want. There are many negative impacts as well. Americans citizens have fewer job</p>
<p>opportunities because they tend to compete with illegal immigrants at a lower salary. The emigration to the United States hurts the home country, by increasing the human population. This means less resources, less housing, and less education. Both parties have a proposal to this situation.</p>	

In the 2nd paragraph, Veronica changed the interpersonal strategy deployed in the introduction. In a conference with her after the writing stage, she mentioned that she did not want to take sides with either party position. The first sentence Expands by entertaining the Hyper-Theme that immigration has both positive and negative impacts, but simultaneously Contracts (Proclaim) in the assertive interpersonal Theme position (e. g., it is evident that). As required by Discussion genre, Veronica discusses the positive impacts followed by the negative. It is striking that she uses personal pronouns “*our* diversity is expanding” and “*we* get better pricing in housing” to address the readers directly and include them in the community of pro-immigrant supporters. However, in the next line she proposes that:

Immigrants are here to fill up jobs that Americans don't want.

Veronica was born in my school district and would be part of this community of “Americans”. The text does not give the reader any indication if she is aligned with the values of this majority group. More important, the readers are placed in a binary of opposites (Immigrants versus Americans) without any textual signals to guide their affiliation. Since her intention was to present both the positive and negative impacts without overtly taking sides with any position, her tone is consistently monoglossic, though she seems to be supporting the notion that the immigrants do *not* take away jobs from regular citizens. Presenting the negative impacts, she states the contrary position:

Americans citizens have fewer job opportunities because they tend to compete with illegal immigrants at a lower salary (Contract: Proclaim)

Here, she seems to soften the negative impact of immigrant on the job market as she uses modals of probability (“tend to compete”) and qualifiers of comparison (“fewer job opportunities”). The remaining negative impacts increasingly shut down the dialogical space with:

The emigration to the United States hurts the home country (Contract: Disclaim)

This means less resources, less housing, and less education (Contract: Disclaim)

True to her original intent, Veronica seems to be impartial in her presentation of the overall issues and does not take an overt stance for or against the external voices in the discussion. This is more evident in the next paragraph where she presents the different solutions proposed in the Congress. These are stated in a list and have been reproduced from the articles that we read in class. The language deploys congruent sentence construction with Topical Theme (e. g., they):

They have come to some agreements like strengthening our border and punishing businesses that hire undocumented workers.

They have also agreed to make an E-verify system that makes it easier to do background checks on the workers.

Once again she uses the personal pronoun “our” twice. The first time, when she presents the points that both parties agree on:

They have come to some agreements like strengthening our border and punishing businesses that hire undocumented workers.

The second use of “our” is seen in the Republican position:

Republicans oppose to give amnesty to undocumented workers because it would have the effect of encouraging illegal immigration and would give an unfair advantage to those who have broken our laws.

The use of “our” is a signal to include the reader into a community of impartial and credible citizens who are willing to analyze both sides of the issue in dispassionate and objective ways. Table 7.8 illustrates how the text deploys an interplay of monogloss, contractive, and expanding stances that organize conflicting positions of the two parties with an efficient use of Textual Theme

Table 7.8: Realization of Engagement

Text	Engagement: Option	Language Resources
Democrats <u>want to give</u> amnesty to undocumented people	Monogloss	Declarative clause high modality: <i>want to give</i>
However , Republicans do not agree with this.	Contract: Disclaim (counters Democrat's position)	textual Theme - Conjunction of contrast: <i>however</i>
On the other hand , Republicans want to increase the H2A & B visa which is a program for temporary workers.	Expand: Entertain (includes other voices in the debate)	textual Theme - Conjunction of contrast: <i>on the other hand</i> high modality: <i>want to increase</i>
Republicans oppose to give amnesty to undocumented workers because it <u>would have</u> the effect of encouraging illegal immigration and <u>would give</u> an unfair advantage to those who have broken our laws	Expand: Entertain (presents other perspectives to the issue). Contract: Disclaim	low modality: <i>would have, would give</i> Verbal group: <i>oppose</i>

With the inclusion of different voices impartially presented, Veronica has construed a credible voice.

In the last paragraph, she begins the vital task of aligning the reader with her values and stance. Having set up a relation of distance with the reader, Veronica provides the key perspective that has been missing thus far -that of the immigrants who “suffer the consequences” of the impartiality and objectivity of policies, illustrated below in Figure 7.8:

Figure 7.8: Veronica Immigration Essay 3rd Paragraph

My own father has been living in the country for 15 years but was deported three years ago. That had serious consequences on my family. We had to move into my aunt's home where my family shares a room. My mother is always in fear and does not drive because of the *retenes* (checkpoints) in the city. She works two jobs I have to work too to pay the bills. My dream of going to college may not come true. The politicians should understand that their proposals affect families like

mine directly. An effective proposal for the immigration issue would include different solutions from both parties. We must strengthen our border security to stop illegal crossings. In order to strengthen our borders, reconnaissance cameras which allows them to see from far would be efficient. However, we cannot deport all undocumented immigrants. Therefore, increasing the amount of H2A & B visas will expand the program for temporary agricultural workers. By solving this problem, we need to legalize the people that have been here for more than 10 years.

My own father has been living in the country for 15 years but was deported three years ago. That had serious consequences on my family. We had to move into my aunt's home where my family shares a room. My mother is always in fear and does not drive because of the *retenes* (checkpoints) in the city. She works two jobs and I have to work too to pay the bills. My dreams of going to college may not come true. The politicians should understand that their proposals affect families like mine directly. An effective proposal for the immigration issue would include different solutions from both parties.

Veronica puts a face to “the problem” describing her own family situation. The register shifts to a more personal and subjective tone, as Veronica effectively “speaks” to the reader in informal and everyday language structures (clause + conjunctions (e. g., but, and) + clause) with human participant roles (e. g., father, mother) and personal pronouns (e. g., my, we, she, I) in Topical Theme. Typical of every day speech, the clauses center meaning around verbal groups (e. g., has been living, was deported, had to move, shares, does not drive, works, and pay) instead of abstract subjects and nominalizations:

***My own father** has been living in the country for 15 years but was deported three years ago. That had serious consequences on **my family**. **We** had to move into **my aunt's home** where **my family** shares a room. **My mother** is always in fear and does not drive because of the retenes (checkpoints) in the city. **She** works two jobs and **I** have to work too to pay the bills. **My dreams** of going to college may not come true. The politicians should understand that their proposals affect families like mine directly.*

When contrasted against the objective and distant tone of the earlier writing, this section communicates emotional weight and gravity in a compelling way. The shift of register takes the reader by surprise, becoming a stark reminder of the human toll of political decisions on the immigrant population. Though overtly subjective and personal, Veronica's passionate plea engages the reader in nuanced and complex ways. Its interpersonal stance is contradictory- expanding in its inclusion of another voice, while at the same time monoglossic in its declarative clauses and high modality (e. g., we had to, my mother is always in fear). It follows the overall pattern of radiating dialectic of meanings across the text that presents a stance and then disputes it in the next move, by strategically shifting language use, register, and consequently, interpersonal meanings. The dialectic pattern frames the interpersonal relations of the argument by validating external positions while neutralizing their efficacy and force at the same time.

Having driven her point across, Veronica reverts back to the expected distant and authoritative tone in the conclusion where she presents her proposal to resolve the immigration debate. She arrives at her solution by selecting the best choices in a compromise that appeases all the players in question, including the immigrant:

*An effective **proposal** for the immigration issue would include different **solutions** from both parties. We must strengthen our **border security** to stop **illegal crossings**. In order to strengthen our borders, reconnaissance cameras which allows them to see from far would be efficient. However, we cannot deport all **undocumented immigrants**. Therefore, increasing the amount of **H2A and B visas** will expand the **program** for temporary **agricultural workers**. By solving this **problem**, we need to legalize **the people** that have been here for more than 10 years.*

Veronica draws on an interplay of high modality (e. g., must strengthen, cannot deport, need to legalize) and low modality (e. g., would include, would be efficient); abstract participants (e. g., proposal, solutions, security, illegal crossings) and human subjects (e. g., we, them, undocumented immigrants, agricultural workers, people); technical nouns (e. g., reconnaissance cameras, H2A and B visas, amnesty) and verbal groups to describe layman terminology (strengthen our borders, stop illegal crossings, legalize the people); and contrastive conjunctions (e. g., however) to realize a complex negotiation of expanding (Entertain and Attribute) and contracting (Disclaim and Proclaim) stances:

An effective proposal for the immigration issue would include different solutions from both parties. Expand: Attribute (“both parties”) + Entertain (modal “would include”)

We must strengthen our border security to stop illegal crossings. Expand: Attribute (Republican view) + Contract: Disclaim (“stop illegal crossings”)

However, we cannot deport all undocumented immigrants. Expand: Attribute (Democrat's view) + Contract: Disclaim ("cannot")

Table 7.9 below summarizes the Engagement Analysis of Veronica's essay:

Table 7.9: Summary of Engagement Resources Veronica
(adapted from Chang & Schleppergrell, 2011)

Genre Stage	Discursive Goal	Engagement Option	Linguistic Realization
Introduce Issue	To entertain different voices and positions	Expansive: (1) Entertain (present different perspectives on an issue without evaluating them) (2) Attribute (Specify the views of different players in the debate)	1.1 Qualifiers: <i>positive</i> and <i>negative</i> impacts 1.2 modality of probability: <i>there will be, seem to</i> 2.1 External Voice/ Source: <i>President Obama, The United States Immigration Reform, Democrats and Republicans</i>
	To dispute and provide a counterclaim to a preceding position	Contractive: (3) Monogloss: Recognize a generalized trend (4) Proclaim (endorse a specific proposal) (5) Disclaim (reject a point of view)	3.1 Language that limits: <i>will always, specifically</i> 3.2 Language that characterizes negatively: <i>The problem is that, are suffering the consequences, their indecision</i> 3.3 Expressions that emphasize a perspective: <i>has made it clear, is a priority</i> 4.1 Asserting a perspective: <i>it is certain that, they need to find</i> 5.1 Negation: <i>do not follow</i>
	Present a new valid and well-founded claim	(6) Counter/dispute positions	6.1 Conjunctions of contrast: <i>meanwhile</i>
Arguments	Present various sides of the issue	Expansive: (1) Entertain (present different perspectives on an issue without evaluating them)	1.1. Quantifiers that enable comparison: <i>there are <u>many</u> impacts, <u>many</u> negative impacts as well, fewer job opportunities</i> 1.2 Language that offers options: <i>They have <u>also</u> agreed</i>

		<p>(2) Attribute (Specify the views of different players in the debate)</p> <p><u>Contractive:</u> (3) Monogloss: Recognize a generalized trend</p> <p>(4) Proclaim (endorse a specific proposal)</p> <p>(5) Disclaim (reject a point of view)</p> <p>(6) Counter/dispute positions</p> <p>(7) Align Audience</p>	<p>1.3 Modals of probability: <i>would have the effect, would give</i></p> <p>2.1 Multiple viewpoints: <i>Democrat & Republican views</i></p> <p>3.1 Declarative clauses</p> <p>3.2 Language that characterizes negatively: <i>illegal, undocumented, unfair advantage, broken our laws</i></p> <p>4.1 Asserting a perspective: <i>It is evident that,</i></p> <p>5.1 Negation: <i>jobs that Americans <u>don't</u> want, do <u>not</u> agree, Republicans <u>oppose</u>,</i></p> <p>6.1 Conjunctions of contrast: <i>while, however, on the other hand</i></p> <p>6.2 Language to realize alternative views: <i>there are also many disagreements</i></p> <p>7.1 Pronouns: <i>our</i></p>
Author's Stance	Change of register to present author's view as a personal plea	<p><u>Expansive:</u> (1) Entertain</p> <p>(2) Monoglossic</p> <p>(3) Disclaim</p> <p>(4) Counter/dispute positions</p>	<p>1.1 Include immigrant voice</p> <p>1.2 Deploy informal register/voice</p> <p>1.3 Personal Pronouns: <i>My, I, she</i></p> <p>1.4 Topical Theme: <i>They, we, she</i></p> <p>2.1 Declarative clauses</p> <p>2.2 High modality: <i>had to, have to, need to</i></p> <p>2.3 Adjuncts of force: <i>always</i></p> <p>3.1 Negation: <i>may not come true</i></p> <p>4.1 Contrastive conjunctions: <i>but, however</i></p>
Recommendation	Consolidating credibility	<p><u>Expansive:</u> (1) Entertain:</p> <p><u>Contractive:</u> (2) Proclaim</p> <p>(3) Disclaim</p>	<p>1.1 Endorse various views/voices</p> <p>1.2 Low modality: <i>could include, would include, would be efficient</i></p> <p>2.1 High modality: <i>should understand must strengthen, need to</i></p> <p>2.2 Language that characterizes: <i>an effective proposal, illegal crossings</i></p> <p>3.1 Negation: <i>cannot deport, stop illegal crossings</i></p>

Concluding Analysis:

Veronica showed her ability to control her relationship with the audience by shifting register to realize both distant and personal stances, deploying nominalizations and abstract participants, strategically using interpersonal and textual Theme, and structuring her thoughts and ideas in a logical and organized manner. She showed awareness of the Discussion genre, its stages and social purpose and effectively used it to present the overall debate on immigration, the pros and cons of the issue, and her particular views on supporting the legalization of undocumented immigrants. She made occasional grammatical errors that reflected her still emergent language control, but these were not glaringly distracting to the reader. Instead what was striking was her ability to use language to express her political goals, *despite* being categorized as a language learner.

Veronica realized her social purpose through a strategic play of entertain, proclaim, contract and monogloss to set up a position and then close it down in the next stroke in a counter punch that frames the dominant party lines from the perspective of the immigrant. She presented her case by laying out what we already know about the pros and cons of immigration, and then zeroing in on what the reader may not know- the personal toll that the unfair policies exact on the lives of the undocumented immigrants. This countering phase of the text made a compelling plea for compassion in the example of her own father who was deported and the emotional and social price that she and her mother had to pay for the political choices of others.

Veronica's tone shifted from distant and authoritative to subjective and personal, humanizing the immigrant not as a "problem" and an "illegal", but as a pawn in a game of political chess. She displayed control of tone and register in the conclusion by reverting back to a controlled distant and authoritative tone. Here, she advocated for a compromise that consisted of what she believed are values that appropriately address both the situation of undocumented immigrants and

the economic and security concerns of the nation. Veronica did not cherry pick arbitrary positions, but presented a well-founded and contextualized case that presented possible resolutions to the main issues and concerns of the nation.

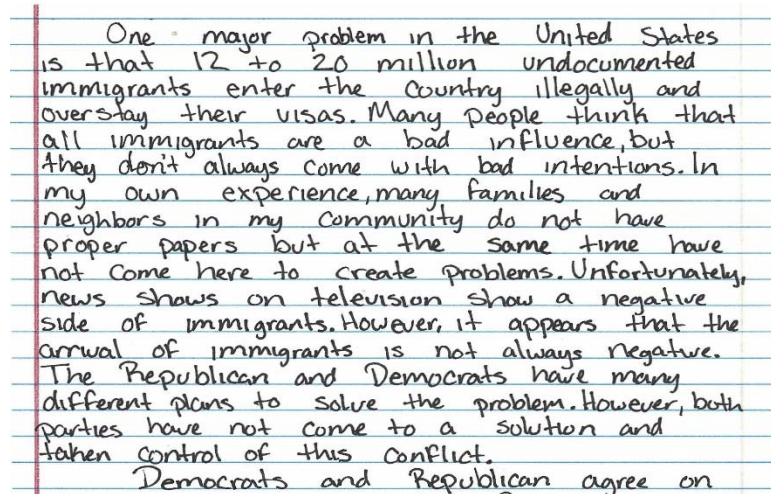
Veronica's writing represented a capable and thoughtful persona who was able to use language in critical ways to give voice to the millions of exploited and silenced people who have no say in the immigration debate, but whose families suffer, in many cases, the socially humiliating and demoralizing consequences of the policies in their lives. She demonstrated that she was able to apply the learning from the SFL-informed language instruction to read and write in ways that resist dominant values and ideologies to realize her political goals.

Text 2: Roberto -Monoglossia and Disclaim

Roberto, an EB who was brought to the United States by his parents at a young age, continued in ESOL classes through middle school to my 10th grade class. His language proficiency (measured by the WIDA ACCESS Language Proficiency Test) was at 4.4 on scale of 1-5 (where a 5.0 composite score leads to exiting from ESOL settings). Roberto's parents worked in the carpet mills, though they did not have legal immigration status.

Roberto's use of Engagement resources to realize his stance and audience relations contrasts with Veronica's essay in many ways. Compared to Veronica's text, Roberto also deployed expanding values of Entertain, but he made his stance clear to the reader from the beginning by drawing heavily on monoglossic evaluations and contracting values of Disclaim and Proclaim to distance himself from any contrary positions that he entertained (see Appendix F for full essay).

Figure 7.9: Roberto Immigration Essay- Introduction



One major problem in the United States is that 12 to 20 million undocumented immigrants enter the country illegally and overstay their visas. Many people think that all immigrants are a bad influence, but they don't always come with bad intentions. In my own experience, many families and neighbors in my community do not have proper papers but at the same time have not come here to create problems. Unfortunately, news shows on television show a negative side of immigrants. However, it appears that the arrival of immigrants is not always negative. The Republican and Democrats have many different plans to solve the problem. However, both parties have not come to a solution and taken control of this conflict.

One major problem in the United States is that 12 to 20 million undocumented immigrants enter the country illegally and overstay their visas. Many people think that all immigrants are a bad influence, but they don't always come with bad intentions. It appears that the arrival of immigrants is not always negative and the Republican and Democrats have many different plans to solve the problem. However, both parties have not come to a solution and taken control of this conflict.

The first line of the introduction is a monoglossic evaluation to set the terrain for Roberto's position on immigration:

One major problem in the United States is that 12 to 20 million undocumented immigrants enter the country illegally and overstay their visas (Monoglossic + Expansive: Entertain).

Using qualifiers like “major” and “illegally”, Roberto entertained the dominant opinion of the country on immigration. Martin and White (2005) suggest that contracting options like Disclaim draw on language that Denies through negative polarity or Counters through conjunctions and adverbials of concession and counter-expectation. They clarify that though Proclaim options may be dialogic, in effect, they restrict the discourse by overtly endorsing a particular point of view. In expanding the text to include different voices, Roberto attributed the anti-immigrant stance to “many people”, but categorically contracted the discourse by drawing on Disclaim options to clarify misconceptions:

Many people think that all immigrants are a bad influence (Expansive: Entertain), *but* (Counter) *they don’t always come with bad intentions* (Contract: Disclaim).

Explicitly using first person pronouns to bring in his own voice into the discussion (“in *my own* experience”), Roberto refuted the characterization of immigrants as criminals. He attributed this view to “many families” and “neighbors in *my* community” who “do not have proper papers”, disclaiming that they “have *not* come here to create problems”. The text repeated the same pattern of entertaining a view and then countering it with monoglossic statements, contrastive conjunctions, and Disclaim options as illustrated in Table 7.10 below:

Table 7.10: Roberto’s Engagement Pattern of Entertain and Disclaim

Text	Engagement Option	Linguistic Realization
<i>Unfortunately,</i>	Contract: Disclaim (refute)	interpersonal comment theme: <i>Unfortunately</i>
<i>news shows on television show a negative side of immigrants</i>	Expand: Entertain	introduce new source: <i>news shows</i>
<i>show a negative side of immigrants</i>	Contract: Disclaim	language that characterizes negatively: <i>negative</i>

<i>However,</i>	Contract: Disclaim (refute)	contrastive conjunction: <i>however</i>
<i>it appears that</i>	Contract: Proclaim (endorse a view) Elide subjectivity	modality of appearance: <i>it appears that</i> 3 rd Person “ <i>it</i> ” in Theme passive voice
<i>the arrival of immigrants is not always negative</i>	Contract: Disclaim	negation: <i>is not always</i>
<i>The Republicans and Democrats have many different plans to solve the problem.</i>	Expand: Entertain	introduce new source: <i>Republicans and Democrats</i> qualifiers: <i>many, different</i>
<i>However,</i>	Contract: Disclaim (counter)	contrastive conjunction: <i>however</i>
<i>both parties have not come to a solution and taken control of this conflict.</i>	Contract: Disclaim (reject)	negation: <i>have <u>not</u> come to a solution, [have <u>not</u>] taken control</i>

In the second paragraph, Roberto delineated the positions that both parties take, for and against the immigration issue. He lists the agreements and disagreements of Republicans and Democrats and includes clichéd phrases that he has “picked up” from the articles that we read in class:

to get all undocumented immigrants out of the shadows

control illegal crossings

give an unfair advantage to those who have broken our laws

What seems to be an expanding discourse is restricted by Roberto’s own evaluations on these views. This passage achieves a contractive effect through contrastive conjunctions (“however” and “unlike”) and explicit assessments like:

Republicans are more inclined to be afraid that there might be more drug dealers and criminals

They believe that it will encourage more undocumented immigrants

Roberto reaffirmed his views in monoglossic statements and contractive devices that disclaim (“they can’t deport all undocumented immigrants”) and proclaim (“there is no doubt that”, “it is certain that”) to build up an assertive stance “that deportation should be stopped so that no more families would be broken apart”. The essay concluded with an “effective proposal” that proposed recommendations like amnesty, a secure border, and temporary work and travel visas. These propositions are strung together with additive conjunctions (e. g., “also”, “moreover”, “in addition”), justified with the monoglossic concluding statement that the nation “will always have more opportunities for U.S. citizens” and that immigration “brings fresh blood to enter the country”.

Concluding Analysis

Roberto displayed efficient use of nominalizations and abstract nouns (e. g., “bad influence”, “bad intentions”, “solution”, “advantage”, “security”) to package and organize his ideas. Specifically, the nouns “problem” (introduction), “issues” (2nd paragraph), and “proposal” (conclusion) were key to structure the paragraphs in logical and coherent ways. However, at times the writing tended to lapse into language registers that are typically used for every day informal interactions (e. g., “in my own experience”, “do not have proper papers”, “have not come here to create problems”). In these cases, the clause structures centered on verbal groups creating congruent meanings and not on nouns groups, more typical of argumentative writing. Overall, Roberto showed emergent control over register, tone, and audience relationships. On many occasions, the text used resources that seem to be misused or misplaced. For example, the modal “it appears that” is meant to entertain, but soften the force of a possible stance. However, Roberto used it in a monoglossic, contracting context showing his lack of control of language for setting up audience relations:

Many people think that all immigrants are a bad influence, but they don't always come with bad intentions (Contract: Disclaim). It appears that the arrival of immigrants is not always negative.

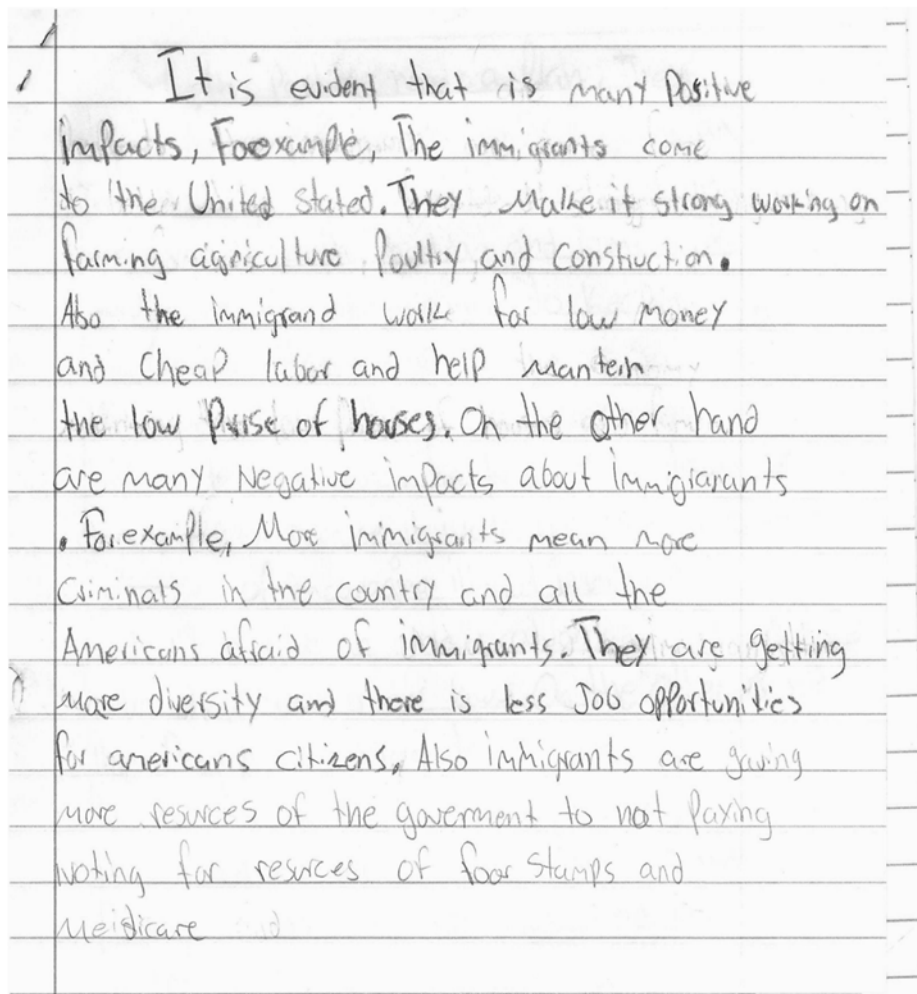
His writing seemed to display a tentative awareness of the expectations of authorial distance, but an inability to strategically frame his propositions and stance in a subdued voice. Though the text attempted to open discursive space and present different perspectives, it effectively restricted the discussion by imposing a pro-immigrant and pro-amnesty stance in overt and direct ways. The reader was not allowed any space for 'coming to a decision' because the assertive language of the text realized by the heavy use of monoglossic and contracting devices did not offer any space for dialogue. Most of the views that were entertained in the text were countered in a highly assertive tone as Roberto openly announced his stance and directed the reading of the text to a definite discursive goal. The certainty and taken-for-grantedness of the proclamations (e. g., "it is certain that", "there is no doubt that") and repeating disclaiming values ("can't deport" and "have not come to a solution") left no options for the reader and limited the readerly potential for dialogic engagement with the text. Roberto's heavy use of contracting devices showed that he had not yet developed linguistic control to align the reader with the arguments of the text in ways that would entail an interpersonal cost if the reader chose to disagree with them. By setting up a scenario of binary of opposites, Roberto demonstrated that he has yet to develop the critical ability to engage the audience by using language in strategic ways.

Text 3: Juan Diego -Inconsistent Heteroglossia in a Monoglossic Text

Juan Diego was a newcomer to the district and in his second year in U.S. schools. He tended to speak mostly in Spanish with his peers and relied heavily on peer-support to complete his writing assignments. His initial writing samples reflected an emergent writer, using social and informal

language resources in his writing. His developing score of 3.5 in ACCESS English language proficiency stipulates that he is able to “produce bare-bones expository texts” according to the WIDA Can-Do Descriptors (www.WIDA.us). I include Juan Diego’s introductory paragraph in Figure 7.10 below (see full essay in Appendix 7):

Figure 7.10: Juan Diego Essay on Immigration- Introduction



1 It is evident that is many positive impacts, For example, The immigrants come to the United States. They make it strong working on farming agriculture poultry and construction. Also the immigrant work for low money and cheap labor and help maintain the low price of houses. On the other hand are many negative impacts about immigrants. For example, More immigrants mean more criminals in the country and all the Americans afraid of immigrants. They are getting more diversity and there is less job opportunities for Americans citizens. Also immigrants are giving more resources of the government to not paying nothing for resources of food stamps and Medicare and

It is evident that is many positive impacts, For example, the immigrants come to the United States. They make it strong working on farming, agriculture, poultry and construction. Also, the immigrants work for low money and cheap labor and help maintain the low prise of houses. On the other hand are many negative impacts about immigrants. For example, more immigrants mean more criminals in the country and all the Americans afraid of immigrants. They are getting more diversity and there is less job opportunities for American citizens. Also, immigrants are giving more resources of the government to not paying noting for resurces of food stamps and Medicare.

Juan's text begins without the obligatory introductory moves of establishing the terrain (Swales, 1990) in expository texts, signaling his lack of awareness of the expectations of the genre. However, it would be useful to examine how SFL instruction impacted an emerging writer like Juan. Judging from the above sample, he made considerable advances in structuring his ideas. The paragraph begins with the Hyper-Theme that uses a nominalization "impact" to structure it. The supporting ideas are connected by the underlined transitions ("for example" and "also") and countering resources ("on the other hand"). Although Juan Diego continues to use congruent language structures (Topical Theme, clauses strung together by conjunctions), it is striking that he has learned to "Remove the I" from his writing by deploying abstract nouns ("opportunities", "resources", "labor", and "prices") and generalized participants ("immigrants", "citizens", "criminals") instead of first person pronouns. The improvement is obvious when compared to how

he relied heavily on first person pronouns in his writing at the beginning of the year (see Appendix 8 for essay):

Sometimes I think that school is so boring because I need wake up early but that doesn't matter because school is one thing important in my life because I want to be someone in here.

Another important characteristic of Juan's writing was his ability to borrow from his peers and to "pick up" phrases from the readings on immigration:

- *An effective proposal for immigrant issue would include many things that both parties have discussed* (from Daniel's essay)
- *Amnesty would have to be included for the immigrants to come out of the shadows and to participate legally in the American economy* (from article BalancedPolitics.org)
- *The Republicans disagree on Amnesty because it would have the effect of encouraging illegal immigration and would give an unfair advantage to those who have broken our laws* (from Republican Party Platform, 2010)

The importance of intertextuality as a cognitive resource for appropriating meaning-making language structures is well-known (Bloome & Egan-Robertson, 2004; Lemke, 2004; Pappas, C. C., & Varelas, M., 2003). Considering that making intertextual connections is central to literacy, I encouraged students to pick up language from different sources and make it their own. Veronica and Roberto picked up some catch phrases like "come out of the shadows" and "give an unfair advantage to those who have broken our laws" in their essays. However, it seems that Juan Diego had not yet developed the ability to interweave source texts into his writing and his "borrowing" bordered on plagiarism or "transgressive intertextuality" (Thompson & Pennycook, 2010, p. 2). However, within the notion that all writing is intertextual, Thompson and Pennycook advise that

educators need to understand that when borrowing other's words, students in effect engage with language, culture, and knowledge. Therefore, I see Juan's text as an initial exploration into expressing his views, by deploying the strategies and language that were at his disposal at that particular stage in his development as a writer.

Juan faced many challenges in keeping up with the demands of this class and despite his emerging writing abilities, this analysis will focus on how he progressed as a writer after the SFL instruction during the year. During the post writing conference, Juan Diego confessed to me that he mainly focused on keeping up with the requirements of expressing the pros and cons of immigration in the essay. I selected the concluding paragraph of his essay to analyze how he used Engagement resources to convey his stance on the issue because this extract presented his views on immigration and would reveal if he was able to show a consistent understanding of the discursive implementation of the linguistic resources. I present the analysis of the dialogic colloquy in Table 7.11 below:

Juan faced many challenges in keeping up with the demands of this class and despite his emerging writing abilities, this analysis will focus on how he progressed as a writer after the SFL instruction during the year.

Table 7.11: Juan Diego's Engagement Pattern of Contracting Resources

Text	Engagement Option	Linguistic Realization
<i>An effective proposal for immigrant issue</i>	Contract: Pronounce	Forceful Qualifier: <i>effective</i> proposal
<i>would include many things that</i>	Expand: Entertain	Modal of probability: <i>would include</i>
<i>both parties have discussed</i>	Expand: Attribute- Acknowledge	Quantifier for comparison: <i>both</i>
	Expand: Entertain	Alternative Voice: <i>both parties</i>

<i>Amnesty would have to be included for the immigrants to come out of the shadows</i>	Contract: Proclaim-Pronounce	Modality of compulsion: <i>would have to be included</i> low modality: declarative clause
<i>To solve this problem it will be closing the border</i>	Contract: Proclaim-Pronounce Elide agency	Low modality/ undialogized clause: <i>it will be</i> 3 rd Person “it” in Theme passive voice (not clear)
<i>and give temporary visas to all the immigrants</i>	Contract: Proclaim-Pronounce	low modality: declarative clause
<i>that they have to renew every year so they can work in the fields.</i>	Contract: Proclaim-Pronounce	Modality of compulsion: <i>have to renew</i>

Juan Diego’s proposal for immigration reform deployed seemingly heteroglossic options like modals of probability (*would include*) and alternative views (*many things that both parties have discussed*). However he could not consistently maintain the heteroglossia in the text as seen in the repeated use of Contractive pronouncements:

Amnesty would have to be included for the immigrants to come out of the shadows.

To solve this problem it will be closing the border and give temporary visas to all the immigrants that they have to renew every year so they can work in the fields.

There was no attempt to support his position with claims that may refute or negate alternative views or to align the reader with the propositions of the text. Instead, Juan Diego deployed undialogized, declarative statements that enact monoglossic positions. The stance is authoritative, but in an undesirable way, as Juan develops a prosody of assertive claims via a range of contractive resources that proclaim his stance. The absence of arguments that might have challenged alternative views, or engaged the reader in questioning, rejecting, or doubting contrary propositions, showed that the text did not offer any conclusive evidence of purposeful and intentional use of language to locate his

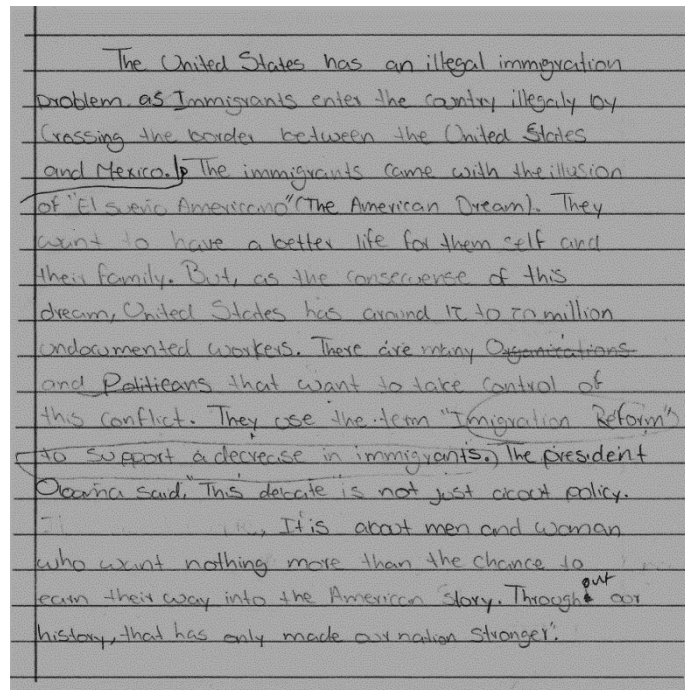
views or set up any type of intersubjective relations with the reader. In his nonchalant way, Juan Diego said in Spanish: “I just put out the bait to see what bites².” (post writing interview). He admitted that the writing task was a battle and that he did his best. Though Juan Diego’s writing had progressed in other ways, the text does not reflect his understanding of controlling discourse and language in strategic ways. The absence of dialogue results in an overwhelmingly contractive text that does not exact any interpersonal cost from the reader if he/she so decided to reject the propositions being advanced.

Text 4: Rosa -A Dialectic of Expanding and Contracting Resources

Just like Juan Diego, Rosa also was a newcomer; this being her third year in U.S. schools. Back home in Monterrey, Mexico, Rosa would have graduated high school in two years had she not immigrated to the United States. Here, in Weavers City, she was pushed back two years having spent a year in newcomer’s language academy and another in ninth grade before entering my 10th grade language arts class. She was the oldest of the focal students and was determined to be the first to graduate high school in her family. Her drive and intrinsic motivation pushed her into taking risks as a writer. Though her writing showed developing proficiency in spelling and syntax, Rosa was not afraid to dialogue with the social world (see Appendix I for her complete essay). Rosa’s overall writing is still evolving and there are many parts where her emergent language use gets in the way of expression. Figure 7.11 below is the introduction of her essay. I selected it for analysis because it best revealed her ability to build dialogic audience relations compared to the rest of the text:

² “Ando aventándome ansuelo a ver qué agarro” (post-writing interview Juan Diego).

Figure 7.11: Rosa Introduction to Immigration Essay



The United States has an illegal immigration problem as Immigrants enter the country illegally by crossing the border between the United States and Mexico with the illusion of "El Sueno Ameicano" (The American Dream). They want to have a better life for them self and their family. But as a consequence of this dream, United States has around 12-20 million undocumented workers. The politicians want to take control of this problem. They use the term "Immigration Reform" to support a decrease in immigrants. The President Obama said, "This debate is not just about policy. It is about men and women who want nothing more than the chance to earn their way into the American Story" (USAimmigrationreform.org). It is evident that we need to find a solution to this conflict.

Table 7.12 below is an engagement analysis that illustrates how Rosa construes a balanced voice in deploying expansive heteroglossia that projects the ability to manage divergent voices and positions effectively for her social purposes:

Table 7.12: Rosa's Engagement Pattern of Contracting Resources

Text	Engagement Option	Linguistic Realization
<i>The United States has an illegal immigration problem</i>	Contract: Pronounce	Forceful Qualifier: <i>illegal</i> immigration low modality: declarative clause
<i>as immigrants enter the country illegally by crossing the border between the United States and Mexico. The immigrants came with the illusion of "El Sueño Americano" (The American Dream).</i>	Expand: Entertain	Alternative Voice: <i>immigrants with the illusion of "El Sueño Americano"</i>
<i>They want to have a better life for them self and their family.</i>	Expand: Attribute- Acknowledge Expand: Entertain	Quantifier for comparison: <i>both</i> Alternative Voice: <i>they (the immigrants)</i>
<i>But as a consequence of this dream, United States has around 12-20 million undocumented workers.</i>	Contract: Disclaim- Counter	Conjunction of contrast: <i>but</i> low modality: declarative clause

The above analysis reveals a balancing act of expanding and contracting options that introduce a position which is then refuted it with an alternative take, a mitigating circumstance, or contrary opinion in the next line. This colloquy of the text corresponds to Hegel's triadic dialectic structure (Spencer & Krauze, 2003) in which the thesis is contradicted by an antithesis, resulting in a synthesis of the two contrary positions as described in Table 7.13:

Table 7.13: Dialectic Triad in Rosa's Introduction

Thesis	Antithesis
illegal immigration <u>problem</u>	with the illusion of “El Sueño Americano” (<u>The American Dream</u>).
They want to have a <u>better life</u> for them self and their family.	But as a consequence of this dream, United States has around <u>12-20 million undocumented workers</u> .
The politicians want to <u>take control</u> of this problem.	They use the term “Immigration Reform” to <u>support a decrease in immigrants</u> .
<p style="text-align: center;">Synthesis</p> <p>This debate is not just about policy. It is about men and women who want nothing more than the chance to earn their way into the American Story”</p>	

Rosa characterized the “illegal immigration problem” as “El Sueño Americano”, then quantified a significant crisis as the outcome of immigrants who want to better their station in life, and finally closed with politicians who wish to control the issue by supporting “a decrease in immigrants”. The expansive devices for attribution (see Table 7.12) entertained a perspective from the immigrants’ point of view seemingly highlighting the author’s commitment to this position. At the same time, the contractive devices (disclaim and proclaim) served to distance the author from the very views that she was apparently supporting. The synthesis of these differing stances was realized by an attributed quote to President Obama (Attribute: Acknowledge), an authorial projection (reporting verb “said”) that signaled affiliation to the external proposition. In linking both inner and outer voices in the expansive Acknowledge option, the text construed a dialogue of voices within which is located an implicit synthesis that immigrants “want nothing more than the chance to earn

their way into the American Story.” The authorial voice represented the proposition as but one of a range of possible positions, thus clinching the final offer in a justified and substantiated pronouncement to settle the debate: “It is evident that we need to find a solution to this conflict.”

Table 7.14 summarizes the Engagement resources used by the four focal writers:

Table 7.14: Summary of Engagement Options deployed in the Four Essays

Name	Veronica	Daniel	Juan Diego	Rosa
Status	Long-Term EB	Long-Term EB	Newcomer	Newcomer
Summary of Engagement & Attribution options	Shows control over Engagement and Attribution options in a complex negotiation of expanding (Entertain and Attribute) and contracting (Disclaim and Proclaim) stances	Contractive discourse of authoritative proclamations and assertive disclaiming values reveal that he has not yet developed linguistic control to align the reader with the arguments of the text in strategic ways	Cannot maintain heteroglossia in a consistent and controlled manner. Slips into transgressive intertextuality and contractive (Pronounce & Disclaim) options that close down discursive alternatives	Balancing act of expanding (Entertain & Acknowledge) and contracting (Pronounce & Disclaim) positions that square off in a Triadic Dialectic: thesis, synthesis, & antithesis

CHAPTER 8

FINDINGS AND IMPLICATIONS

This dissertation chronicled a teacher participatory action research study that described teaching practices of an immigrant ESOL educator of color and the emerging writing skills of 4 EBs in a rural high school in Northwest Georgia. The purpose of the study was to chronicle the process of designing culturally sustaining SFL writing instruction (Paris, 2012) in supporting EB students in construing a critical voice and stance in their persuasive writing. Dyson (1989) proposed that “learning to write in school involves figuring out and gaining entry into the range of social dialogues enacted through literacy, including the assumed relationships among writers and their audiences (p. 191). This study examined how this critical educator enacted culturally sustaining praxis to include students’ cultural and political realities in the curriculum. The study analyzes the ways that EB writers were apprenticed into expository writing and the ways that the learners responded to SFL-informed instruction, set up and justified their propositions in a strategic awareness of audience relations, and realized their social and political purposes. To record these connections, I analyzed the following: teacher-designed modules implemented during the writing unit, analysis of student texts created during the SFL intervention, and classroom discourse of teacher and student interaction during instruction. The Engagement analysis of the focal texts of the four focal students indicated that with purposeful and targeted

on-going support, the EB writers showed notable improvement in their writing at the ideational, textual, and interpersonal levels. The implementation of culturally sustaining SFL praxis framed the instruction and impacted the ongoing interactions in the classroom in positive ways.

Research Questions: Connecting Theory and Praxis

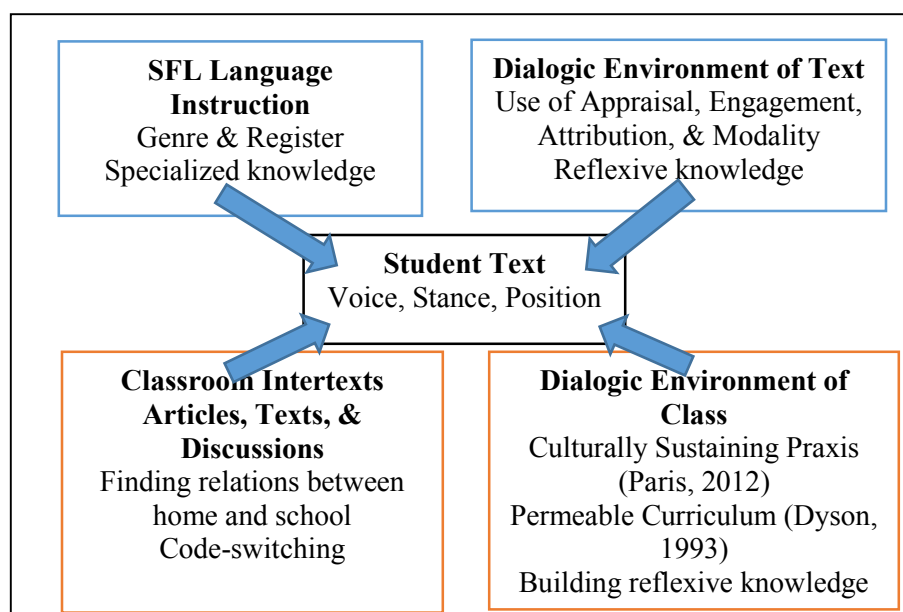
This dissertation underscores the political nature of teaching and learning a second language in multicultural school contexts (Dyson, 1993, 2003, New London Group, 1996, Nieto & Bode, 2008, Street, 1984). I chronicled the social nature of learning language and how knowledge is imparted, assessed, and ‘learned’ by describing and enacting culturally sustaining SFL praxis. One of the challenges that this study undertook was enacting theories related to culturally relevant educational practice (Ladson-Billings, 1995) and using students’ funds of knowledge (Moll, Amanti, Neff, & Gonzalez, 2005) in the classroom to scaffold literacy. This study demonstrated the designing of the process of addressing cultural aspects of literacy in empirical ways. The findings, therefore, look at two aspects of language learning: building meaningful environments for instruction and literacy for students and designing appropriate language instruction that is appropriately delivered so students are able to use it to realize their social and political purposes. Culturally sustaining SFL praxis emphasizes that both aspects of language learning - building students’ critical frames and providing them with language and authentic opportunities to express their learning make language instruction meaningful to students. The first research question sought to design language instruction that fit students’ needs and responded to the requirements of the Common Core Standards in culturally sustaining ways. The second research question seeks to share the lessons learned and the pedagogical implications

of culturally sustaining writing instruction that can be shared with the larger community of language teachers in mainstream and ESOL settings. This chapter addresses both these issues.

Culturally Sustaining SFL Praxis

The central objective of the study was to support students to construct dialogic texts that showed an awareness of multiple perspectives that comprise social issues represented by different voices, stances, and divergent positions. Within this dialogic environment, culturally sustaining praxis supported students in constructing their own views to reframe or reject contrary perspectives and guided students in using language resources to refute and counter these divergent views in an appropriate tone per the expectations of genre and context. Teaching students the dual function of writing dialogically for argumentation meant immersing them in the discourse of social issues to convey an informed textual persona and positioning the student voice and textual claims in ideological ways to align or disalign the reader for or against the propositions of the text. This is the purpose of writing persuasively and the goal of culturally sustaining SFL praxis. Graphically, culturally sustaining SFL praxis can be represented as follows:

Figure 8.1: Culturally Sustaining SFL Praxis



The essential language objective was not mastery of any one genre or style; it was to develop students' capacity to negotiate among various contexts, to be socially, politically, and textually astute in discourse use. Culturally sustaining SFL praxis was central in the realization of this important goal.

Finding 1: Writing in school implies composing in social worlds. For writing to be meaningful for students, teachers should foster the building of critical and reflexive perspectives on students' worlds and build writing assignments around them.

It is well known that writing is a social act and therefore, should not be divorced from its essential social groundings (Dyson, 1993, 2003). What makes this study unique was the conscious targeting and use of student initiated discussions about their lives and concerns. However, merely discussing students' lives and concerns is not enough. Culturally sustaining praxis requires that ideologies and values that underscore social issues, events, relations, and cultures be brought to the fore, in a joint examination by both students and teacher. Permeability is not merely expressing diverging and conflicting views but the social dialogue of supporting "children's own naming and manipulating of the dynamic relationships among worlds" (Dyson, 1993' p. 30). The project of naming and negotiating textual and discursive relations with readers and learners goes beyond superficial cultural dabbling in diversity. It involves moving from home and community knowledge into reflexive and critical domains. In Table 8.1 below, I illustrate the various instances of knowledge and dialogic moments in the classroom, any of which could represent authentic opportunities for literacy development:

Table 8.1: Building Critical Knowledge from Home Knowledge

Home Knowledge	Culturally Sustaining Objective	Critical Knowledge
Owning guns and firing gun shots on New Year's Eve	Comparing divergent world views	Multiple voices and views
Stereotypical views on Vietnamese. They eat "monkeys and roaches".	Facing personal racism and discriminatory attitudes	Power relations exist at all levels. People perpetuate ideologies in relations and position each other in ideological ways
Latinos v/s the dominant White community	Living and dealing with racism	Both Latinos and majority Whites benefit economically from each other, but both communities make cultural and social sacrifices
Mexican stereotypes: late for appointments, excessive drinking, lack of parenting role models and infidelity in relations	Insider cultural knowledge for building community and shared lived experience	Uncritical stereotyping in popular culture convey dominant values and interpretations in the media (e.g., what it means to be an 'American') Students contest narrow representations of Mexicans in the media
Rosa complains of unfair gender roles	Rosa finds job, and gets driver's license and learns about economic independence	Contest and reframe gender roles in economic reality
Fight between female Latinas over boys	Understanding power in social relations	Power issues in relations and raising self-esteem
Mai's exploitation in nail-shop	Exploitation as immigrants	Social injustice and sharing of "situated" realities across ethnic differences

In this study, culturally sustaining praxis brought ideological dimensions of social interaction to the fore raising concerns about race (Hispanic, Asian, & Indian), gender (female roles at home

and in relationships), and cultural stereotyping (Caucasian American, Vietnamese, and Mexican). As a critical educator, my focus was on decentering hegemonic views and problematizing normalized discourses (Gee, 1996). The focus on ideology is evident in all four focal texts that refer to the readings of the articles on immigration, the class discussions on immigrants' rights and the exploitation of workers. These discussions scaffolded the writing of the essays by developing students' views on the issue and allowing them to be informed readers and producers of texts that resonated in the "sociocultural breadth" of students' funds of knowledge (Dyson, 1993; Moll, Amanti, Neff, & Gonzalez, 2005). Students were able to frame their lived experiences within the larger political and social exigencies of immigration policy. Veronica, Rosa, and Roberto showed that they were armed with knowledge to contest unfair policy decisions and present their views on the deficiencies of immigration policy. Their essays moved away from local and personal domains to incorporate multiple voices from the larger community to represent diverging and conflicting opinions in an expanding social dialogue in the text (e.g., dominant views on immigration, official Republican and Democrat party platforms, President Obama's views, and the perspective of the undocumented immigrants). This was possible because they were supported at a discursive level in culturally sustaining ways.

Short (2004) recommends that students can make intertextual links from classroom discussion and texts and these serve as important scaffolds in their literacy. Culturally sustaining praxis sought connections between students' home worlds and literacy in school. Students included their everyday knowledge on the immigration issue and were able to make competent interpretations on the issue. Of the four essays, Veronica's and Rosa's also demonstrated an awareness that writing was not merely spouting opinions, but measuring their views against dominant ideologies and discourses with the specific purpose of reframing those contrary

perspectives to create a space and justification for the author voice and stance. Veronica's proposal for immigration policy was framed within her family's experiences with deportation, and she was able to refute dominant views and position her claims in strategic ways to win over the reader. On the other hand, Rosa showed marked improvement (considering that she was newcomer and novice learner). I believe that her intrinsic motivation and drive to be the first to graduate high school in her family played an important part in her expanding use of writing to mean (Byrnes, 2013). Though there are no direct correlations, I propose that Rosa's drive to succeed was supported by the culturally sustain dialogic classroom that provided a fertile and nurturing cultural and academic environment for her learning and literacy. Rosa's home situation (living away from her parents) was precarious as she balanced school and home responsibilities. Being familiar with her home situation, I suggest that the classroom environment supported her cultural and personal being in allowing for the learning to have direct connections to her home and social world. This study proposes that the intertextual links, both academic and personal, fostered in the class encouraged students to search for their identities and build a collective voice of solidarity in shared experience.

Byrnes (2013) proposes that learning to write implies "writing to mean," and that teaching language learners to write in competent ways "will depend on teachers being able to transform instructional settings into social spaces" (p. 93). The culturally sustaining SFL praxis tapped into the rich potential of finding links between the students' home and school to enrich the social and cultural curriculum of schooling, so that writing took on the form of "composing as social dialogue" (Dyson, 1993, p. 30). The culturally sustaining SFL praxis provided contextual frames to ground instruction and enable students to interpret and write about issues that affect their daily lives in resistant ways (Luke, 2000; Macken-Horarik, 1998). Their writing

provides evidence that when EB writers are supported in using language in culturally meaningful ways, they are capable of producing competent work and responding in positive ways to the increasingly complex cognitive and literacy tasks as they progress in school. Culturally sustaining SFL praxis afforded the necessary social contextualization to allow students to interpret, challenge, and recreate alternative discourses. The students' sample texts validate that learning can be transformative for students when they are able to apply knowledge generated in the class to interpret "situated meanings" in sociocultural contexts (Lave & Wenger, 1991).

SFL Pedagogy

Finding 2: Culturally sustaining SFL praxis pedagogy promoted metalinguistic awareness of language use and form for writing to mean (Byrnes, 2013).

The SFL-informed pedagogy suggests that there is no right or wrong way to express meanings, but that all texts both determine and are determined by contexts (Halliday, 1994). The central goal of this study was to develop students' ability to negotiate discursive relations across varying contexts and purposes to express social meanings. The various modules were designed to progressively transition students into constructing dialogic texts that entertained multiple views and stances and engaged the reader in the colloquy of the text in a subdued and muted tone. The design of the writing unit targeted language resources of Engagement, Attribution, and modality to develop students' ability to refute and counter divergent views without overtly imposing on readers or alienating them from the claims of the text. Teaching students this dual function of language- first, to bring in different stances and second, to strategically align or disalign the reader for or against these positions in genre-appropriate ways- was the central goal of the SFL pedagogy. The focal students' texts showed ample evidence of strategic use of Engagement

resources to construe dialogue, but varying capacities to control author/audience relations. I summarize how the four students responded to the SFL instruction on writing for Engagement.

Veronica. In her essay on the immigration debate, Veronica used expansive language resources to construe an authorial voice that entertained various alternative stances of the Republican and Democratic parties within the immigration debate to question their validity vis-à-vis her claim that undocumented immigrants played an important role in the economy and future growth of the nation and that unfair policies exact tremendous emotional and social toll on their lives. Her heteroglossic stance set the stage for an ideological engagement of conflicting values and positions within the debate. Her writing showed how she refined their awareness of key lexicogrammatical resources necessary for enabling writers to better present claims. The colloquy of her essay was an expanding discourse that countered publicly held dominant views and official party lines on the immigration problem, in an interplay of monogloss and contractive resources (Disclaim, Proclaim, contrastive connectors, strategic control of Theme, declarative clauses) realized by deploying Engagement resources (reporting verbs, clausal projections, high modality). Veronica controlled the discourse in an apparent bridging of two opposing political perspectives, but in reality countered them by contracting the discursive space and rejecting their claims. She proposed, instead, to reveal the reality of the undocumented immigrant living in the United States, exposing the unjust and undemocratic bias of national policies, thus refuting dominant views and emphasizing her own immigrant voice in strategic ways. The countering phase of the text made a compelling plea for compassion in the example of her own father who was deported and the emotional and social price that she and her mother had paid for the political choices of others.

An analysis of Veronica's tone revealed how she controlled register shifts from distant and authoritative to subjective and personal, humanizing the immigrant not as a "problem" and an "illegal", but as a pawn in a game of political chess. She reverted back to a distant and authoritative tone in the conclusion of her essay clearly demonstrating she understood how language can be used to construe complex and strategic meaning, both at an ideational and interpersonal level. Veronica was able to express a mature and credible stance on immigration as she advocated for a compromise that consisted of what she believed are values that appropriately address both the situation of undocumented immigrants and the economic and security concerns of the nation. Her use of Engagement options construed a dialectic of meanings across the text introducing views and then disputing them in the next move in strategic shifts of language use, register, and consequently, interpersonal meanings. The dialectic pattern framed the interpersonal prosody of the arguments (Lemke, 1992) by validating external positions while neutralizing their efficacy and force at the same time. The Engagement options in the text showed her awareness of language use to present a well-founded and contextualized case in a tone that is convincing to the reader in its attempt to be 'objective' and in its stance of presenting adequate resolution to a thorny and complex issue. Culturally sustaining SFL praxis had a clear and positive impact on Veronica's growth as an individual and as a writer.

Roberto. Roberto's text attempted to construe an open and dialogic space in its inclusion of different and divergent perspectives. However, it tended to restrict dialogue in the author's imposition of a pro-immigrant and pro-amnesty stance in overt and direct ways. Roberto's writing seemed to display a tentative awareness of the expectations of authorial distance and an inability to strategically position his stance. He was able to use Engagement resources to refer to external voices, but the conversation in the text tended to be one-sided and undialogic. There is

no doubt that he has made great strides in structure, logical construction and coherence of ideas, and use of nominalization to organize his ideas. However, there is no evidence of the use of a balanced and ‘objective’ tone to frame his propositions. Roberto’s heavy use of contracting devices revealed that he has yet to develop linguistic control to align the reader with the claims of the text and the critical ability to engage the audience in strategic use of interpersonal language resources.

Roberto’s essay drew on heteroglossic values of Entertain and Attribute to expand the scope of his text by referencing various and divergent positions on the immigration debate. He referred to dominant views of the general public, the Democrats’ and Republican positions in the debate, and his own perspective on the issue. However, Roberto made heavy use of monoglossic evaluations and contracting values of Disclaim and Proclaim to distance himself from the contrary positions referred to in the essay. These options realized an emphatic and assertive textual voice that explicitly proclaims a pro-immigrant stance to the reader from the start. His attempts to build a dialogue of voices failed because the text slipped into stereotypical and sweeping generalizations on immigration, constructing polarizing binaries that characterize oppositional perspectives in negative ways. The text conveys an overly slanted and biased voice, an inappropriate positioning of writerly persona. In my conversations with Roberto, it became clear that it was not his intention to be one-sided. However, his linguistic choices did not allow the reader much space for ‘coming to a decision’ because the assertive language of the text realized by the heavy use of monoglossic and contracting devices did not offer any space for dialogue. Roberto showed an emergent control over using language choices and genre expectations strategically, in terms of “writing to mean” (Byrnes, 2013). He constructed an expansive text, but failed to provide sufficient justifications and discursive space for the reader to

align with his propositions. His use of contracting Engagement options tended to overwhelm the reader with an undesirable either/or choice, realized by a pattern of refuting contrary views in monoglossic statements, contrastive conjunctions, and distancing options to effectively shut down the possibility for dialogue.

Roberto needed further support to support him in construing heteroglossia and reader/audience intersubjectivity. Based on Veronica's progress, this study proposes that with continued explicit teaching and modelling of audience relation control, it is possible to expand Roberto's discursive control of language. The modules would support him in differentiating between the semantic meanings of monoglossic and contractive propositions compared to heteroglossic language choices. He needed more support in using Engagement resources to construe a tone that would anticipate the reader's possible disagreement with his claims and more explicit direction in the ways that writers negotiate interpersonal intersubjectivity with the reader.

Juan Diego. The analysis of Juan's essay showed that he made considerable advances in structuring and organizing his ideas (Theme/Rheme progression, use of nominalizations, consistent and logical organization). He learned to "Remove the 'I'" from his writing by deploying abstract nouns and generalized participants instead of first person pronouns. The monoglossic and contractive propositions in the text realized undialogic options, in a tone that did not anticipate the reader's possible disagreement and therefore, did not negotiate interpersonal intersubjectivity with the audience. His writing seemed to display tentative awareness of the expectations of authorial distance in his use of modals of probability and the inclusion of alternative voices and views. However, there was no evidence of consistent use of Engagement resources like Attribute and Entertain to support the propositions to refute or negate

any contrary positions and thereby align his readers to his stance. The absence of heteroglossia resulted in an overwhelmingly contractive text with an inappropriately assertive tone instead of a muted or subdued voice to frame the arguments and hence fails to align the readers to his stance.

Juan Diego's emerging language proficiency may have limited his control of reader/writer relations confirming findings from other SFL researchers (Christie & Derewianka, 2008; Derewianka, 2007). In his post-writing conference, Juan admitted that he was more concerned about expressing (ideational metafunction) and organizing (textual metafunction) ideas rather than construing audience relations. The above SFL researchers suggest that novice language like Juan Diego will need continued long-term support to progress in the more advanced interpersonal writing competencies.

Rosa. Though much of Rosa's essay showed developing proficiency in spelling and syntax and her emergent language use got in the way of expression, the selected extracts did reveal that Rosa was capable of controlling Engagement resources and reader relations. In a balancing act of expanding and contracting options, Rosa's text illustrates how she introduced a position and then refuted it with a contrary opinion or alternative position to set up a colloquy that corresponded to Hegel's triadic dialectic structure (Spencer & Krauze, 2003). Her text made propositions (thesis) that were contradicted (antithesis) and negated by alternative positions, to produce a synthesis of the two contrary positions. She offset expanding devices (Attribution and Entertain) with contractive devices (Disclaim and Proclaim) to distance the authorial stance from the very views that she seemed to be supporting. The synthesis of these differing stances was realized in an authorial projection attributed to President Obama that signaled that her stance was affiliated to a third external proposition.

Rosa's language proficiency was similar to Juan Diego's. However, she showed that she was capable of using language in more nuanced ways to express her social and political purposes. She demonstrated her ability to write in more mature ways, moving away from the encoding of direct and personal responses to more objective and less explicit evaluations appropriate to the expectations of genre and social norms. She demonstrated clear evidence of an awareness of other points of view by including external voices to argue *around* a proposition, rather than make judgments on issues from a personal perspective. Rosa showed developing and at times, confident control over interpersonal resources. Her instances of complex textual maneuvering revealed the promise of an advanced and mature writer.

The SFL-informed instruction provided the students with a focus on the interrelationship of form and meaning, a different perspective on writing than what they had been taught and used to in the past. The writing unit and SFL pedagogy gave them a semiotic toolkit and meta-linguistic awareness of key lexicogrammatical resources necessary for enabling EB writers make claims, support and justify propositions, and relate to the audience in strategic ways. Instruction on using Engagement resources explicitly revealed that reading and writing is not a question of finding the 'right' response to a literacy task, but understanding the potential of using language to express students' particular ways of being and seeing the world. Each of the four focal students advanced in their writing (coherent structure, logical organization of ideas, and control over tone and reader relations), but more important, they learned that writing was a tool that offered diverse linguistic resources that they can potentially appropriate for their own social and political purposes.

Finding 3: Culturally sustaining SFL praxis is an effective pedagogical tool for designing writing pedagogy in secondary EB contexts but requires that teachers have keen awareness of the language needs of EB learners to target specific language competencies in a progressive transition from basic to more advanced language competencies.

SFL theory proved to be an effective pedagogical tool for deconstructing the language of schooling in sample texts and assessing students' writing to point out where they are situated in the continuum of social to academic writing and what they need to learn to advance and progress as mature writers. SFL's focus on the functionality of grammar and linguistic structures makes possible this important pedagogical objective. The study describes how I designed specific modules that targeted specific language objectives in a continuum of progressive complexity commensurate to students' language proficiency, age, and ability. I break down my pedagogical design into simple language objectives:

1. I began with teaching the necessary language resources that students need to control and manage structure (awareness of genre stages, Macro-Theme, Hyper-Theme, Theme/Rheme progression, nominalization for organizing coherent paragraphs).
2. Since my students were novice language learners, I contextualized these initial language objectives around writing and reading of fiction texts (with familiar language) so students could focus exclusively on structure and coherence and not have to face the additional burden of negotiating expository language.
3. After assessing the students' understandings, I advanced to the second phase of teaching basic features of expository language (generalized abstract subjects, control of interpersonal Theme, removing the I). The students deconstructed sample writing and I

pointed out differences between social and informal language use and language for academic purposes.

4. When students became accustomed to thinking about the relation between language form and making meaning, I taught the more advanced competencies of negotiating audience relations and construing an author's voice (introducing multiple voices, modality, nominalization for authoritative tone and writerly distance). Therefore, SFL took the pedagogy from basic to more complex language use and disciplinary ways of writing and constructing meanings.

SFL researchers have studied the progression of the complexities of texts as students advance from elementary to secondary school (Christie & Derewianka, 2008, Derewianka, 2007, 2011). This study expands on these studies to provide empirical evidence of how students may be supported from the perspective of designing appropriate language instruction that targets their specific language needs and then progressively advances to target more complex competencies. Many SFL studies have focused on using SFL as an instructional tool in elementary contexts (Brisk & Zisselsberger, 2010; Gebhard, Harman, & Seger, 2007; Schulze, 2011), but very few have targeted students in secondary schools. I could not locate a single study that examined ways to teach EBs to construe an appropriate tone and audience relations in secondary school settings. The findings from this study show that EB students were capable of responding in positive ways to targeted and explicit SFL instruction as evidenced in their use of language to control interpersonal meanings and audience relations and attitudes assigned to participants within the text (Martin, 2000). Table 8.2 is a summary of the ways that the focal students responded to the SFL instruction:

Table 8.2: Summary of Evidence of Use of Linguistic Resources for Structure

SFL Unit/ Language Objective	Texts			
Structure: Textual Metafunction	Veronica	Roberto	Juan Diego	Rosa
Awareness of genre stages, Macro-Theme, Hyper-Theme	YES	YES	YES	YES
Nominalization for structuring cohesive texts for argumentation	YES	YES	YES	YES
Theme/Rheme Progression	YES	YES	YES	YES
Logical connectives (<i>however, moreover, etc.</i>)	YES	YES	YES	YES

Table 8.3: Use of Linguistic Resources for Expression of Ideas

SFL Unit/ Language Objective	Texts			
Structure: Textual Metafunction	Veronica	Roberto	Juan Diego	Rosa
Use of generalized and abstract entities for objectivity and distance	YES	YES	YES	YES
Use of nominalized structures for clausal density and packaging of concepts	YES	YES	YES	YES

Table 8.4: Use of Linguistic Resources for Construing Voice & Audience Relations

SFL Unit/ Language Objective	Texts			
Structure: Textual Metafunction	Veronica	Roberto	Juan Diego	Rosa
Removing the I	YES	YES	YES	YES
Use of reporting verbs and clausal projections for dialogic text and multiple voices	YES	YES	YES	YES
Interpersonal resources in Theme position for eliding agency and subjectivity	YES	YES	Developing	YES
Control of modality	YES	YES	Emerging	YES
Strategic control of tone	YES	Developing	Emerging	YES
Control of audience relations	YES	Developing	Emerging	Developing

The tables show that the students were able to apply the SFL concepts taught in class in their writing. All four students showed marked gains in control of structure and nominalizations to realize the academic tenor of schooling (Schleppergrell, 2004). However, only Veronica showed consistent control of authorial tone realized in appropriate subdued and muted ways to present her claims. Her shifts from authoritative and distant tone to more personal register effectively conveyed the emotional consequences of the policies of the government. It showed that she had a keen awareness the potential of lexicogrammatical structures as a resource for making meaning and more important, of writing as a pliable system of contextual choices. Veronica made tremendous strides as a writer and opened inroads to “textual relationships of power” (Luke, 2000, p. 449). The other three writers also showed considerable overall awareness

of language use for making meaning. They all needed more support and time in consolidating on their understanding of controlling audience relations and authorial tone. An examination of their ACCESS scores before (2012) and after (2013) the unit confirmed their progress as writers and learners as illustrated below in Table 8.5:

Table 8.5: Comparison of Focal Students' ACCESS scores

ACCESS Score	Year	Veronica	Roberto	Juan Diego	Rosa
Writing:	2012	3.6 (Tier C)	4.7 (Tier C)	3.6 (Tier B)	4.6 (Tier B)
	2013	5.1 (Tier C-	4.9 (Tier C-	4.7 (Tier C)	5.2 (Tier C)
	2014	Exited ESOL)	Exited ESOL)	<u>4.2 (Tier C)</u>	<u>4.5 (Tier C)</u>
Composite:	2012	3.8 (Tier C)	5.0 (Tier C)	4.7 (Tier C)	4.2 (Tier B)
	2013	5.5 (Exit ESOL)	5.3(Exit ESOL)	4.2 (Tier C)	4.1 (Tier C)
	2014	-	-	4.2 (Tier C)	4.6 (Tier C)

A comparison of ACCESS scores that assess students' language proficiency in 2012, at the end of 9th grade, and their scores after the unit ended in 2013, and then a year later in 2014, reveal some interesting patterns. First, Veronica and Roberto exited ESOL with respective composite scores of 5.5 and 5.3 (5.0 on Tier C is the exit criteria). Their writing scores showed the gains they made during this period – Veronica increased from 3.6 to 5.1 (on grade level) and Roberto from 4.7 to 4.9 (almost on grade level). It is important to note that both Juan Diego and Rosa made more gains as they moved from a lower Tier B to Tier C, with Juan Diego scoring 4.7 and Rosa 5.2 (on grade level) in writing in 2013. Both these students were close to exiting ESOL. However, both writing scores reveal a disturbing trend as their scores fell in the following year

when they left my class to move into mainstream push-in¹ contexts (Juan Diego from 4.7 to 4.2 and Rosa from 5.2 to 4.5). Though there may be many unrelated reasons for this decrease in scores, I can attribute this trend to the lack of explicit language support in the mainstream classroom and a return to literacy practices that do not attend to “languageing” and “writing to mean” (Byrnes, 2013).

The above ACCESS score comparison confirms the efficacy of the SFL instruction as a powerful framework for writing pedagogy to teach and assess writing and to support students in developing a meta-awareness of the nature of language as a semiotic potential to express meanings and content knowledge in a textual environment.

Finding 4: Culturally sustaining SFL praxis supports students’ abilities to use language as a ‘critical’ instrument, to provide a “semiotic toolkit” that opens inroads to “textual relationships of power” (Luke, 2000, p. 449).

This study joins the conversation on critical perspectives on SFL pedagogy (Burns & Hood, 1998; Harman, 2008; Harman & Simmons, 2012; Luke, 1996, 2000; Luke & Freebody, 1997; Macken-Horarik, 1998; Macken-Horarik & Rothery, 1991; Threadgold, 2003; Unsworth, 1999) to examine ways that language classrooms can open access to literacy practices and discourse resources to enable students to build a “semiotic toolkit” that opens inroads to “textual relationships of power” (Luke, 2000, p. 449). This dissertation focused on implementing a critical sociocultural focus to language pedagogy to move away from simplistic notions of “autonomous” and “ideological” models of literacy (Street, 1984, 1993) to redefining notions of literacy as a matter of social practice and process originating in social, cultural and institutional relationships (Lankshear, 1997; New London Group, 1996). It responded to the original aim of

¹ Push-in contexts place ESOL students in regular classes with language support from an ESOL teacher.

SFL to provide marginalized student populations with explicit knowledge about how language strategically constructs “genres of power” (e.g., Christie, 1999, Cope & Kalantzis, 1993, Halliday & Martin, 1996; Luke, 1996) privileging “situated meaning” in a sociocultural sense over mechanical skills and rote learning (Lave & Wenger, 1991; Rogoff, 1990; Wertsch, 1991). It answers to Halliday’s (1991/2003) vision of how “people enacted their day to day interpersonal relationships and constructed a social identity for themselves and the people around them” (p. 271) through ‘knowledge about language’ to allow access to higher education for non-dominant and underprivileged students (Martin, 2006).

This study is critical in that it explored the ways that culturally sustaining SFL praxis can be used in EB settings to apprentice students into understanding how to engage with linguistic resources in texts that position both author and reader in ideological ways (Martin & Rose, 2003; Martin & White, 2005). The findings show that the SFL-informed instruction was largely instrumental in enabling EB learners to construe their social and political experiences in their writing. The students deployed a range of interpersonal linguistic options to enact roles and relationships between writer and reader and to locate their views and stance within the dialogue of voices in the text. The students’ texts showed evidence of their understanding of using language to control of mainstream academic registers to enable them “to read the word and the world” (Freire & Macedo, 1987).

Culturally sustaining SFL praxis invited students to inhabit positions of authority anchored in the recognition that there is no right or wrong way to view the world and each other, but that the potential for validating experiences is contingent on lived histories and situated social locations. Culturally sustaining SFL instruction also informed the students that there was not right or wrong way to express meanings, but that all texts both determined and were

determined by contexts. In sum, culturally sustaining SFL praxis reframed home and school perspectives whose expression was facilitated by the SFL instruction. The situated construction of knowledge framed around students' lives had positive impacts on how the students' writing reverberated with the social dialogue of their worlds (Dyson, 2003).

Implications of Teaching Culturally Sustaining SFL Praxis

The Need for Systematic Pedagogy in Teaching Writing

Dyson (2003) suggests that if we are to teach children, we have to tap into “child worlds”, and “offer them tools -ways of thinking and talking - that will help them negotiate their way into a future of possibilities” (p. 33). These words sum up the goals of this dissertation. However, developing students' writing abilities is a challenging and sometimes arduous task. As seen above, I carefully designed language instruction around progressively advancing complexities of language use. Teaching writing in EB contexts requires that teachers craft their pedagogy around targeted objectives that are both achievable and assessable. Language classrooms must move away from the notion that students will learn and acquire language by merely being exposed to it. Learning language implies a carefully designed pedagogy that requires systematic knowledge of how language works in different contexts to express specific disciplinary and social meanings. Teaching objective tone and managing writer/reader relations in an expanding prosody of the text is not the same as teaching prescriptive grammar and formulaic rote learning. These disciplinary ways of knowing form part of the ‘hidden curriculum’ of language teaching (Christie, 2008) and have been disregarded for too long both in K-12 and university settings (Byrnes, 2013).

This study fills in a much needed gap in systematic empirical research on successful efforts by language teachers and writing pedagogy, especially in EB language learning contexts.

In the current move towards push-in and co-teaching contexts, this study emphasizes that EB learners need explicit, long-term, and consistent language support. This study was carried out in a sheltered ESOL class where I had full autonomy and control over the curriculum. This gave me the opportunity to adapt and change my instruction based on my assessments of the needs of my students. The instruction was tailored to support students at their language proficiencies and designed for small increments of complexity over time. An EB student in a push-in mainstream setting, on the other hand, is required to keep up with instruction that is driven by the needs of proficient and advanced students whose language needs inform the level and pace of instruction, in most cases, incompatible with EB students' abilities and language level. As a result, the ESOL co-teacher spends most of the instructional time in supporting learners in comprehending complex texts and language that is usually beyond their emerging capacities. In many cases, ESOL teachers are forced to pull-out the EB students to complete the assignments and earn the grade in the class.

Moreover, the sheltered classroom also provided me the space for implementing culturally sustaining SFL praxis that requires students to freely express their views and teachers to negotiate ideologies and values underlying polemical positions, events, and occurrences with honesty and mutual respect. Most controversial subjects are not permitted in mainstream settings because of cultural and political pressures from administrators and parents. Teaching in multicultural settings involves cultural dynamics that are different from mainstream classrooms, in which EB students are generally silenced because of their fear of exposing their emerging language proficiency. The possibilities and benefits of enacting cultural dialogue would be limited and restricted, especially from the point of view of subjugated populations (Burbles, 2006; Ellsworth, 1989; Jones, 1999).

However, a comparison of ACCESS scores of the four EB students show tremendous gains in writing and overall achievement in a sheltered setting. Their scores show a marked decrease when they were placed in push-in, co-teaching settings in regular language arts classes. In the mainstream class, the students did not receive any support in language or writing, though they did a lot of writing which was assessed by a computer program. Unfortunately, their progress as writers and thinkers was halted as they responded to the expectations of another class and the pedagogy of a different teacher. Thus, this study emphasizes a consistent district-wide approach to teaching language across the curriculum. For this purpose, we need a collective effort of a compilation of teacher action research in EB contexts, to systematically design university level courses for educating teachers on writing to mean and designing effective language instruction. Only a broad initiative and consistent focus on finding adequate solutions and pedagogies will rectify the dearth of support to EBs (and mainstream students) in language arts classes. If not, students are condemned to instruction that has little value to their lives as learners and critical thinkers, reinforcing and reproducing a system of inequitable outcomes for marginalized and disenfranchised students populations.

Teaching Writing is Messy and Longitudinal

There are many extraneous cultural and political factors that affect the performance and achievement of EB learners in U. S. classrooms (as described in chapter 1). This study showed how quick and short bursts of writing instruction are not effective. Instead writing pedagogy design should look at long-term development and growth of learners with specific and targeted language objectives in order to gain any sense of “progress”. All the focal students showed marked improvement in their writing *over the course of the year*. This outcome required intense commitment on the part of both teacher and students.

To make matters worse, teaching writing is not a linear and easily controlled process. Despite the systematic nature of SFL pedagogy and the best intentions of educators, composing in social dialogue is a messy and sometimes chaotic process. Like all conversation and dialogue, the writing teacher's journey is filled with unexpected interruptions and deviations from planned expectations. Students may resist, not comply, fail to put in their best effort, or fail even though they did their best. Teachers have control over the design aspects of teaching, but students' lives are complex and sometimes, confound the progress of learners. Teaching writing exacts a commitment both to the pedagogy and a respect of the students and their abilities. Hammond and Macken-Horarik (1999) remind educators that effective programs that embrace SFL genre-based pedagogy need to take into account the pedagogic time and effort involved in learning to make resistant readings, deconstructing texts, and subverting genres. However, even with strong scaffolding, student trajectories to specialized knowledge and language is dependent on their ability first to control the mainstream literacy requirements of the discipline. This study showed how Juan Diego and Rosa faced greater challenges in achieving grade-appropriate language competencies than advanced writers like Veronica and Roberto.

There were many frustrating days when I thought that the students were not responding as expected, or had not learned the concepts taught weeks ago, or had forgotten what they had learned weeks ago. I had to stay the course, be a patient listener, in tune with their individual natures and capacities. I had to be willing to repeat, motivate, encourage, and lift sagging spirits when necessary. The framing of the instruction around culturally sustaining SFL praxis was central in maintaining the students' engagement and buy-in to the writing process. It centered the classroom and focused the students as willing participants and contributors in their learning. After a year of teaching, there was yet much to be done. The ACCESS scores reflect how some

students lost the gains that they had made in my classroom. A quick assessment of their writing in the 11th grade revealed that without continuous and long-term support and consolidation on previous learning, students regressed to their old modes of formulaic writing, responding to the expectations of the mainstream classroom language arts teacher.

Engagement with writing goes beyond merely fostering writing abilities. It requires long-term commitment by faculty, a school, and a district to build writing capacity incrementally as students move from elementary to secondary classes. This study illustrated how becoming a competent writer is a long-term process that requires a variety of differentiated skills and abilities (as described above) that transition students progressively through multiple and repeated opportunities to learning to write. Expanding students' writing repertoire requires time and commitment, and more important, a collective vision from administrators and teachers who are trained in effective and targeted writing pedagogy. Only then might teachers be enabled to become central actors and designers of effective approaches that support students in their writing.

Conclusion

Teaching students to compose in social dialogue requires that educators acknowledge and respect the complexity of children's social worlds. This dissertation is grounded in the belief that culturally responsive and systematic writing instruction that creates bridges between home and school produces students' written texts that resonate with the "naming and manipulating of the dynamic relationships among worlds" (Dyson, 2003, p. 33). The SFL informed pedagogy and the permeable curriculum supported students, both academically and culturally to understand and negotiate among multiple social worlds. The classroom tapped into the richly layered diversity of students' cultural domains to scaffold the SFL writing instruction, responding to the urgent need

for teachers to apprentice EBs into academic ways of language use. In turn, the students' writing showed their transition from social and informal formulaic writing to an understanding of how linguistic resources and semantic meanings are interconnected to make meanings. Their texts revealed a notable shift to use of language and grammar for abstraction to express disciplinary meanings in academic ways. In this view, SFL instruction took on a critical dimension and served students as a powerful cultural resource for expressing commonsense, specialized, and critical knowledge, making literacy and learning useful and relevant to their lives.

REFERENCES

- Abedi, J. (2004). The No Child Left Behind act and English language learners: Assessment and accountability issues. *Educational Researcher*, 33(1), 4–14.
- Anyon, J. (2009). Critical pedagogy is not enough: Social justice education, political articulation, and the politicization of students. In M. Apple, W. Au, & L. A. Gandin (Eds.), *The Routledge international handbook of critical education* (pp. 389–395). New York: Routledge.
- Arbona, C., & Nora, A. (2007). Predicting college attainment of Hispanic students: Individual, institutional, and environmental factors. *The Review of Higher Education*, 30(3), 247–270.
- Arkoudis, S. (2003). Teaching English as a second language in science classes: Incommensurate epistemologies? *Language and Education*, 17, 161–173.
- Ayres, L., Kavanaugh, K., & Knafl, K. A. (2003). Within-case and across-case approaches to qualitative data analysis. *Qualitative Health Research*, 13(6), 871–883.
- Achugar, M., Schleppegrell, M., & Oteiza, T. (2007). Engaging teachers in language analysis: A functional linguistics approach to reflective literacy. *English Teaching: Practice and Critique*. 6(2), 8–24.
- Alvermann, D. E., & Moore, D. W. (1991). Secondary school reading. In R. Barr, M. L. Kamil, P. B. Mosenthal, & P. D. Pearson (Eds.), *Handbook of reading research* (Vol. 2, pp. 331–353). New York: New York University Press.
- August, D. (2006). Demographic overview. In D. August & T. Shanahan (Eds.), *Developing literacy in second-language learners: Report of the National Literacy Panel on*

- language-minority children and youth* (pp. 43-49). Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.
- August, D., & Hakuta, K. (1997). *Improving schooling for language-minority children: A research agenda*. Washington, DC: National Research Council, National Academies Press.
- Bakhtin, M. (1981). *The dialogic imagination: four essays*. Austin: University of Texas Press.
- Bakhtin, M. (1981). Discourse in the novel. In C. Emerson & M. Holquist (Eds.), *The dialogic imagination: Four essays by M. Bakhtin* (pp. 254-422). Austin: University of Texas Press.
- Bartolomé, L. (1994). Beyond the methods fetish: Toward a humanizing pedagogy. *Harvard Educational Review*, 64, 173–195.
- Batlova, J., Fix, M., & Murray, J. (2007). *Measures of change: The demography and literacy of adolescent English learners: A Report to Carnegie Corporation of New York*. Washington, DC: Migration Policy Institute.
- Bazerman, C. (1988). *Shaping written knowledge: The genre and activity of the experimental article in science*. Madison, WI: University of Wisconsin Press.
- Bazerman, C. (1993). Intertextual self-fashioning: Gould and Lewontin's representations of the literature. In J. Selzer (Ed.), *Understanding scientific prose* (pp. 20-41). Madison: University of Wisconsin Press.
- Bazerman, C. (2004). Intertextualities: Volosinov, Bakhtin, literary theory, and literacy studies. In A. Ball & S. W. Freedman (Eds.), *Bakhtinian perspectives on languages, literacy, and learning* (pp. 53–65). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

- Bazerman, C. (2009). Genre and cognitive development: Beyond writing to learn. In C. Bazerman, A. Bonini, & D. Figueiredo (Eds.), *Genre in a changing world* (pp. 279-294). Fort Collins, CO: The WAC Clearinghouse.
- Bazerman, C. (2012). Writing with concepts: Communal, internalized, and externalized. *Mind, Culture, and Activity*, 19, 259–272.
- Bazerman, C., & Paradis, J. (2004). *Textual dynamics of the professions: Historical and contemporary studies of writing in professional communities*. Madison: University of Wisconsin Press.
- Bernstein, B. (1990). *Class, codes and control, Vol. IV: The structuring of pedagogic discourse*. London: Routledge.
- Bernstein, B. (1996). *Pedagogy, Symbolic Control and Identity*. London: Taylor & Francis.
- Bernstein, B. (1999). Vertical and horizontal discourse: An essay. *British Journal of Sociology of Education*, 20 (2), 157-173.
- Biber, D., & Finegan, E. (1989). Styles of stance in English: Lexical and grammatical marking of evidentiality and affect. *Text*, 9 (1), 93–124.
- Bloome, D., & Bailey, F. M. (1992). Studying language and literacy through events. Particularity, and intertextuality. In N. Shuart Faris & D. Bloome (Eds.) *Use of intertextuality in classroom and educational research* (pp.373-396). Greenwich, CT: IAP.
- Bloome, D., Carter, S. P., Christian, B. M., Otto, S., & Shuart-Faris, N. (2005). *Discourse analysis & the study of classroom language and literacy events: A microethnographic perspective*. Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum

- Bloome, D., & Egan-Robertson, A. (1993). The social construction of intertextuality and classroom reading and writing. *Reading Research Quarterly*, 28(4), 303–333.
- Bogdan, R., & Bilken, S. (1992/2003). *Qualitative research for education: An introduction to theory and methods*. (4th ed.). Boston, MA: Allyn and Bacon.
- Bourdieu, P. (1990). *The logic of practice*. (R. Nice, Trans.). Stanford: Stanford University Press. (Original work published in 1980).
- Bourdieu, P., & Passeron, J. C. (1990). *Reproduction in education, society and culture* (R. Nice, Trans., 2nd ed.). London, England: Sage.
- Brisk, M.E., & Harrington, M. M. (2007). *Literacy and bilingualism: A handbook for all teachers*. 2nd Edition. Mahwah, N.J.: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.
- Brisk, M., & Zisselsberger, M. (2010). We've let them in on a secret: Using SFL theory to improve the teaching of writing to bilingual learners. In T. Lucas (Ed.), *Preparing all teachers to teach English language learners* (pp. 111–126). Mahwah, NJ: Erlbaum/Taylor & Francis.
- Bruner, J. (1986). *Actual minds, possible worlds*. Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press
- Burns, A., & Hood, S. (1998). *Teachers' voices 3: Teaching critical literacy*. Sydney, NSW: National Centre for English Language Teaching and Research, Macquarie University.
- Burbules, N. C. (2006). Rethinking dialogue in networked spaces. *Cultural Studies-Critical Methodologies*, 6(1), 107-122.
- Burr, V. (1995). *An introduction to social constructionism*. London: Routledge.
- Butt, D., Fahey, R., Feez, S., Spinks, S., & Yallop, C. (2000). *Using functional grammar: An explorer's guide*. Sydney, NSW: National Centre for English Language Teaching and Research, Macquarie University.

- Byrnes, H. (2013). Positioning writing as meaning making in writing research: An introduction. *Journal of Second Language Writing*, 22, 95-106.
- Callahan, R. M. (2005). Tracking and high school English learners: Limiting opportunity to learn. *American Educational Research Journal*, 42, 305–328.
- Capon, N., & Kuhn, D. (2004). What's so good about problem-based learning? *Cognition and Instruction*, 22, 61-79.
- Carson, J. (2001). Second language writing and second language acquisition. In T. Silva and P. Matsuda (Eds.), *On second language writing* (pp. 191-200). Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.
- Cartiera, M. R. (2006). Addressing the literacy underachievement of adolescent English language learners: A call for teacher preparation and proficiency reform. *New England Reading Association Journal*, 42, 26-32.
- Cazden, C. (1986). Classroom discourse. In M. Wittrock (Ed.), *Handbook of research on teaching* (pp. 432–63). New York: Macmillan.
- Cazden, C. (2001). *Classroom discourse: The language of teaching and learning*. 2nd ed. Westport, CT: Heinemann.
- Chamot, A. U., & O'Malley, J. M. (1996). The cognitive academic language learning approach: A model for linguistically diverse classrooms. *The Elementary School Journal*, 96, 259-274.
- Chomsky, N. (1965). *Aspects of the theory of syntax*. Cambridge, MA: MIT Press.
- Chomsky, N. (1977). *Essays on form and interpretation*. New York: North-Holland.
- Chouliaraki, L., & Fairclough, N. (1999). *Discourse in late modernity: Rethinking critical discourse analysis*. Edinburgh: Edinburgh University Press.

- College Board. (2012). Writing Section. Retrieved from <http://professionals.collegeboard.com/testing/sat-reasoning/about/sections/writing>
- Crismore, A. (1989). *Talking with readers: Metadiscourse as rhetorical act*. New York, NY: Peter Lang.
- Christenbury, L., Bomer, R., & Smagorinsky, P. (2009). (Eds.). *Handbook of adolescent literacy research*. New York: The Guilford Press.
- Christie, F. (1998). Learning the literacies of primary and secondary schooling. In F. Christie & R. Misson (Eds.), *Literacy and Schooling* (pp.47-74). London: Routledge.
- Christie, F. (1999). *Pedagogy and the shaping of consciousness: Linguistics and social processes*. London: Continuum.
- Christie, F. (2002). The development of abstraction in adolescence in subject English. In M. J. Schleppegrell, M. Colombi (Eds.) , *Developing advanced literacy in first and second languages: Meaning with power* (pp. 45-66). Mahwah, NJ US: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates Publishers.
- Christie, F. (2005). *Language education in the primary years*. London: Routledge.
- Christie, F. (2012). *Language education throughout the school years: A functional perspective*. Malden, MA: Wiley-Blackwell.
- Christie, F., & Derewianka, B. (2008). *School discourse: Learning to write across the years of schooling*. London: Continuum.
- Christie, F. & Macken-Horarik, M. (2007). Building verticality in subject English. In F. Christie and J. R. Martin (Eds.), *Language, knowledge and pedagogy* (pp. 156-183). London: Continuum.

- Christie, F. and Martin, J.R. (1997). (Eds.). *Genres and institutions: Social processes in the workplace and school*. London: Pinter.
- Christie, F., & Martin, J. R. (2007). (Eds.), *Language, knowledge and pedagogy: Functional linguistic and sociological perspectives*. London: Continuum.
- Christie, F., & Maton, K. (Eds.). (2011). *Disciplinarity: Functional linguistic and sociological perspectives*. London: Continuum.
- Cochran-Smith, M. (1991). Learning to teach against the grain. *Harvard Educational Review*, 51(3), 279-310.
- Cochran-Smith, M. (1995). Uncertain allies: Understanding the boundaries of race and teaching. *Harvard Educational Review*, 65(4), 541–571.
- Coffin, C. (1996). *Write it right: Exploring literacy in school history*. Erskineville, NSW: Metropolitan East Disadvantaged Schools Program, NSW Department of School Education.
- Coffin, C. (1997). Constructing and giving value to the past. In J. R. Martin and F. Christie (Eds.), *Genres and institutions: Social processes in the workplace and school* (pp. 196-230). London: Pinter.
- Coffin, C. (2002). The Voices of history: Theorising the interpersonal semantics of historical discourses. *Text*, 22(4), 503–528.
- Coffin, C. (2006). Learning the language of school history: the role of linguistics in mapping the writing demands of the secondary school curriculum. *Journal of Curriculum Studies*, 38(4), 413–429.
- Common Core Georgia Performance Standards. Georgia Department of Education. Retrieved from www.gadoe.org/Curriculum-Instruction-and-Assessment/Assessment/

Introducing%20Georgia%20Milestones%20June%202014.pdf

- Conklin, H. G. (2008). Modeling compassion in critical, justice-oriented teacher education. *Harvard Educational Review*, 78(4), 652–674.
- Connor, U., & Kaplan, R. (Eds.) (1987). *Writing across languages: Analysis of L2 text*. Reading, MA: Addison-Wesley Publishing Company.
- Cope, B. & Kalantzis, M. (1993). *The powers of literacy: a genre approach to teaching writing*. Pittsburg: The University of Pittsburg Press.
- Cope, B., & Kalantzis, M. (Eds.) (2000). *Multiliteracies: Literacy learning and the design of social futures*. New York: Routledge
- Council of Chief State School Officers and National Governors Association. (2010). *Common Core State Standards for English language arts and literacy in history/social studies, science, and technical subjects*. Washington, DC: Author. Retrieved August 16, 2012, from www.corestandards.org/the-standards
- Crawford, J. (2004). *Educating English learners: Language diversity in the classroom* (5th ed.). Los Angeles, CA: Bilingual Educational Services.
- Creswell, J. W. (1998). *Qualitative inquiry and research design: Choosing among five traditions*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Cummins, J. (1980). The cross-lingual dimensions of language proficiency: Implications for bilingual education and the optimal age issue. *TESOL Quarterly*, 14(2), 175-187.
- Cummins, J. (2001). *Negotiating identities: Education for empowerment in a diverse society* (2nd ed.). Los Angeles, CA: California Association of Bilingual Education.
- Delgado Bernal D. (1998). Using a Chicana feminist epistemology in educational research. *Harvard Educational Review*, 68(4), 555-582.

- de Oliveira, L. C. (2010). Nouns in history: Packaging information, expanding explanations, and structuring reasoning. *The History Teacher*, 43(2), 191–203.
- de Oliveira, L. C. (2011). *Knowing and writing school history: The language of students' expository writing and teachers' expectations*. Charlotte, NC: Information Age Publishing.
- Delpit, L. (1995). *Other People's Children*. New York: The New Press.
- Delpit, L. (1988). The silenced dialogue: Power and pedagogy in educating other people's children. *Harvard Educational Review*, 58(3), 280-298.
- Denzin, N. K. (1989). *Interpretive interactionism*. Newbury Park, CA: Sage.
- Denzin, N. K., & Lincoln, Y. S. (Eds.) (2005). *Handbook of qualitative research* (3rd ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Derewianka, B. (2007). Using Appraisal theory to track development in adolescent academic writing. In *Advances in Language and Education*. A. McCabe, M. O'Donnell, & R. Whittaker (Eds.), (pp. 142-165). Bloomsbury Publishing.
- Draper, S. M. (2006). *Copper sun*. New York: Atheneum Books.
- Duncan-Andrade, J., & Morrell, E. (2008). *The art of critical pedagogy: Possibilities for moving from theory to practice in urban schools*. New York: Peter Lang Publishing, Inc.
- Dyson, A. H. (1988). *Negotiating among multiple worlds: The Space/Time dimensions of young children* (Report No. 15). Berkeley, CA: California University Center for the Study of Writing. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED297334)
- Dyson, A. H. (1993). *Social worlds of children learning to write in an urban primary school*. New York: Teachers College Press.

- Dyson, A. H. (2003). Negotiating a permeable curriculum: On literacy, diversity, and the interplay of children's and teachers' worlds. Concept Paper No. 9.
- Dyson, A. H. (2003). *The brothers and sisters learn to write: Popular literacies in childhood and school cultures*. New York: Teachers College Press.
- Echevarria, J. Vogt, M. & Short, D. (2004). *Making content comprehensible for English learners: The SIOP model* (2nd Ed). Boston, MA: Pearson Education, Inc.
- Eggins, S. (2004). *An Introduction to Systemic Functional Linguistics*. London: Pinter.
- Eggins, S., & Slade, D. (1997). *Analyzing casual conversation*. London: Cassell.
- Eggins, S., & Martin, J.R. (1997). Genre and registers of discourse. In T. A. van Dijk (Ed.), *Discourse as structure and process* (pp. 230-256). London: Sage.
- Elbow, P. (2007). *Voice in writing Again: Embracing contraries*. English Department Faculty Publication Series. Paper 7. University of Massachusetts, Amherst, MA. Retrieved from http://scholarworks.umass.edu/eng_faculty_pubs/7
- Ellis, R. (1997). *SLA research and language teaching*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Ellsworth, E. (1989). Why doesn't this feel empowering? Working through the repressive myths of critical pedagogy. *Harvard Educational Review*, 59(1989), 297-324.
- Fairclough, N. (1989). *Language and power*. New York: Longman.
- Fairclough, N. (1992). *Discourse and social change*. Cambridge, UK: Polity Press.
- Fairclough, N. (2003). *Analyzing discourse: Textual analysis for social research*. Routledge: New York.
- Fals Borda, O. and Rahman, M.A. (1991) *Action and Knowledge*. Rowman & Littlefield, Lanham, Maryland.
- Fang, Z. (2005). Scientific literacy: A Systemic Functional Linguistics perspective. *Science Education*, 89, 335-347.

- Fang, Z. (2006). The language demands of science reading in middle school. *International Journal of Science Education*, 28(5), 491-520.
- Fang, Z., & Schleppegrell, M. J. (2008). *Reading in secondary content areas: A language-based pedagogy*. Ann Arbor, MI: University of Michigan Press.
- Fang, Z., & Schleppegrell, M. J. (2010). Disciplinary literacies across content areas: Supporting secondary reading through functional language analysis. *Journal of Adolescent & Adult Literacy*, 53, 587–597.
- Fang, Z., Schleppegrell, M. J., & Cox, B. E. (2006). Understanding the language demands of schooling: Nouns in academic registers. *Journal of Literacy Research*, 38(3), 247-263
- Firth, J. R. (1956/68). Descriptive linguistics and the study of English. In F.R. Palmer (Ed.), *Selected Papers of J.R. Firth*. Longmans Linguistics Library Series. Upper Saddle River, NJ: Prentice Hall Press.
- Foucault, M. (1979). *Discipline and punish: The birth of the prison* (A. Sheridan, Trans.). New York : Vintage Books. (Original work published 1975)
- Foucault, M. (1997). The ethics of concern of the self as a practice of freedom (R. Fornet-Betancourt, H. Becker, & A. Gomez-Muller, Interviewers; P. Aranov & D. McGrawth, Trans.). In P. Rabinow (Ed.), *Ethics: Subjectivity and truth* (pp. 281–301). (Interview conducted 1984)
- Fránquiz, M. E., & Salazar, M. (2004). The transformative potential of humanizing pedagogy: Addressing the diverse needs of Chicano/Mexicano students. *The High School Journal*, 87(4). 36-53.
- Freedman, A. (1993). Show and tell? The role of explicit teaching in learning new genres. *Research in the Teaching of English*, 27, 222–251.

- Freire, P. (1970/2000). *Pedagogy of the oppressed*. Myra Bergman Ramos (Trans.). 30th anniversary edition. New York: Continuum.
- Freire, P., & Macedo, D. P. (1987). *Literacy: Reading the word and the world*. South Hadley, MA: Bergin & Garvey Publishers.
- Gándara, P., & Contreras, F. (2009). *The Latino educational crisis: The consequences of failed policies*. Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press.
- García, O., & Kleifgen, J. A. (2010). *Educating emergent bilinguals: Policies, programs, and practices for English language learners*. New York: Teachers College Press.
- Gee, J. P. (1996). Discourses and literacies. In *social linguistics and literacies: Ideology in discourses* (pp. 122-148). 2nd Ed. London: Taylor & Francis Press.
- Geertz, C. (1973). *The interpretation of cultures: Selected essays*. New York: Basic Books.
- Gebhard, M., Chen, I., Graham, H., & Gunawan, W. (2013). Teaching to mean, writing to mean: SFL, L2 literacy, and teacher education. *Journal of Second Language Writing*, 22, 107–124.
- Gebhard, M., Demers, J. & Castillo-Rosenthal, Z. (2008). Teachers as critical text analysts: L2 literacies and teachers' work in the context of high stakes school reform. *Journal of second language writing*, 17(4), 274-291.
- Gebhard, M., & Harman, R. (2011). Reconsidering genre theory in K-12 schools: a response to school reforms in the United States. *Journal of second language writing*, 20, 45-55.
- Gebhard, M., Harman, R., & Seger, W. (2007). Reclaiming recess: Learning the language of persuasion. *Language Arts*, 84(5), 419–431.
- Gebhard, M., Willett, J., Jimenez, J., & Piedra, A. (2010). Systemic functional linguistics, teachers' professional development, and ELLs' academic literacy practices. In T. Lucas

- (Ed.), *Preparing all teachers to teach English language learners* (pp. 91-110). Mahwah, NJ: Erlbaum/Taylor & Francis.
- Georgia Milestones Assessment Update. (2014). Georgia's Changing Assessment Landscape. Powverpoint retrieved from <http://www.gadoe.org/Curriculum-Instruction-and-Assessment/Assessment/Documents/Introducing%20Georgia%20Milestones%20June%202014.pdf>
- Gerot, L. & Wignell, P. (1994). *Making sense of functional grammar*. Sydney: Great Stabler.
- Giambo, D., & Szecsi, T. (2005). Opening up to the issues: Preparing preservice teachers to work effectively with English language learners. *Childhood Education*, 82, 107-110
- Gibbons, P. (2006). *Bridging discourses in the ESL classroom: Students, teachers and researchers*. New York: Continuum.
- Giroux, H. (1997). *Pedagogy and the politics of hope: Theory, culture, and schooling*. Boulder, CO: Westview Press
- Giroux, H. (1981). *Ideology, culture, and the process of schooling*. Philadelphia: Temple University Press.
- Giroux, H., & McLaren, P. (Eds.). (1994). *Be-tween borders: Pedagogy and the politics of cultural studies*. New York, NY: Routledge.
- Goldman, S. (2004). Cognitive aspects of constructing meaning through and across multiple texts. In N. Shuart-Faris and D. Bloome (Eds.), *Uses of intertextuality in classroom and educational research* (pp. 317-352). Greenwich, CT: IAP.
- Greenwood, D. J., Whyte, W. F., & Harkavy, I. (1993). Participatory action research as a process and as a goal. *Human Relations*, 46 (2), 175.

- Guilies, R. M., & Ashman, A. F. (2003). *Cooperative learning: The social and intellectual outcomes of leaning in groups*. London: Routledge Falmer.
- Graff, G. (2003). *Clueless in academe: How schooling obscures the life of the mind*. New Haven, CT: Yale University Press.
- Graves, D.H. (1983). *Writing: Teachers and children at work*. Portsmouth, NH: Heinemann.
- Gray, B., & Biber, D. (2012). Current conceptions of stance. In Ken Hyland & C. S. Guinda (Eds.), *Stance and voice in written academic genres* (pp. 15-33). New York: Palgrave Macmillan.
- Gutierrez, K., Rymes, B., & Larson, J. (1995). Script, counterscript, and underlife in the classroom: James Brown versus Brown v. Board of Education. *Harvard Educational Review*, 65, 445–471.
- Halliday, M. A. K. (1975). *Learning how to mean: Explorations in the development of language*. London: Edward Arnold; reprinted in Halliday 2004.
- Halliday, M. A. K. (1991/2003). The notion of 'context' in language education. In J. Webster (Ed.), *Collected Works of M.A.K. Halliday, Vol. 3. On Language and Linguistics*. London: Continuum.
- Halliday, M. A. K. (1993). Some grammatical problems in scientific English. In M. A. K. Halliday & J. R. Martin (Eds.), *Writing science: Literary and discursive power* (pp. 69-85). Pittsburg, PA: University of Pittsburgh Press.
- Halliday, M. A. K. (1994). *An introduction to functional grammar*. London: Edward Arnold.
- Halliday, M. A. K. (1993a). Towards a language-based theory of learning. *Linguistics and Education*, 5, 93-116.

- Halliday, M. A. K. (1996). Literacy and linguistics: A functional perspective. In R. Hasan & G. Williams (Eds.), *Literacy in society* (pp. 339-376). New York: Addison Wesley Longman.
- Halliday, M. A. K. (2003). A recent view of 'missteps' in linguistic theory". In J. Webster (Ed.), *On language and linguistics. Collected works of M.A.K. Halliday, Vol. 3.* (pp. 95-106), London: Continuum.
- Halliday, M. A. K., & Hasan, R. (1980/1989). *Language, context, and text: Aspects of language in a social-semiotic perspective* (2nd ed.). Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Halliday, M. A. K., & Hasan, R. (2006). Retrospective on SFL and literacy. In R. Whittaker, M. O'Donnell & A. McCabe (Eds.), *Language and literacy: Functional approaches* (pp. 15-44). London: Continuum.
- Halliday, M. A. K. & Martin, J. R. (1993). *Writing science: Literacy and discursive power*. Pittsburgh, PA: University of Pittsburgh Press.
- Halliday, M., & Matthiessen, C. (2004). *An introduction to functional grammar*. London: Arnold.
- Hamann, E.T. (2003). *The Educational Welcome of Latinos in the New South*. Westport, Connecticut: Praeger Publishers.
- Hammond, J., & Macken-Horarik, M. (1999). Critical literacy: Challenges and questions for ESL classrooms. *TESOL Quarterly*, 33(3), 528 – 544.
- Hansen, J. (2000). Interactional conflicts among audience, purpose, and content knowledge in the acquisition of academic literacy in an EAP course. *Written Communication*, 17, 27-52.

- Hao, J. & Humphrey, S. (2012). Burnishing and tarnishing in academic literacy. In J. S. Knox (Ed.), *Papers from the 39th International Systemic Functional Congress*. Sydney: The Organising Committee of the 39th International Systemic Functional Congress.
- Harklau, L. (1994). Jumping tracks: How language-minority students negotiate evaluations of ability. *Anthropology & Education Quarterly*, 25(3), 347-363.
- Harklau, L. (2007). Through and beyond high school: Academic challenges and opportunities for college-bound immigrant youth. In L. Verplaetse and N. Migliacci (Eds.), *Inclusive Pedagogy for English language learners: A handbook of research-informed practices*. Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum, Annenberg Institute for School Reform, and the Brown University Education Alliance.
- Harklau, L. (2013). Why Izzie didn't go to college: Choosing work over college as Latina feminism. *Teachers College Record*, 115, 1-32.
- Harklau, L., Losey, K. M., & Siegal, M. (Eds.). (1999). *Generation 1.5 meets college composition: Issues in the teaching of writing to U.S. learners of ESL*. Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum.
- Harman, R. (2008). *Systemic Functional Linguistics and the Teaching of Literature in Urban School Classrooms*. (Doctoral Dissertation). School of Education, University of Massachusetts, Amherst, MA.
- Harman, R. (2013). Literary intertextuality in genre-based pedagogies: Building lexical cohesion in fifth-grade L2 writing. *Journal of Second Language Writing*, 22, 125-140.
- Harman, R. & Simmons, A. (2013). Critical systemic functional linguistics and literary narratives in subject English: Promoting language awareness and social action among K-

- 12 students. L.C. De Oliveira & J.G. Iddings (Eds.), *Genre studies and language in education*. Equinox Publishing.
- Hartman, D. (2004). Deconstructing the reader/text/author/context. In N. Shuart-Faris and D. Bloome (Eds.), *Uses of intertextuality in classroom and educational research* (pp.353-372). Greenwich, CT: IAP.
- Hasan, R. (1996). Literacy, everyday talk and society. In R. Hasan & G. Williams (Eds.), *Literacy in society* (pp. 377-424). London: Longman.
- Hawkins, M.R. (2004). Researching English language and literacy development in schools. *Educational Researcher*, 33 (3), 14–25.
- Heath, S. B. (1983). *Ways with words: language, life and work in communities and classrooms*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Heath, S, B., & Street, B. V. (2008). *On ethnography: Approaches to language and literacy research*. New York: Teachers College Press.
- Herr, K.G., & Anderson, G.L. (2005.) *The action research dissertation: A guide for students and faculty*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Hillocks, G., Jr. (2010). Teaching argument for critical thinking and writing: An introduction. *English Journal*, 99(6), 24–32.
- Hirvela, A., & Belcher, D. (2001). Coming back to voice: The multiple voices and identities of mature multilingual writers. *Journal of Second Language Writing*, 10, 83–106.
- Ho, V. L. (2011). Non-native argumentative writing by Vietnamese learners of English: A contrastive study. Dissertation Georgetown University.
- Holland, D., Lachicotte, W., Skinner, D., & Cain, C. (1998). *Identity and agency in cultural worlds*. Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press.

- Hood, S. (2004). *Appraising research: taking a stance in academic writing*. Unpublished Ph.D. thesis. University of Technology, Sydney.
- Hood, S. (2010). *Appraising Research: Evaluation in Academic Writing*. Palgrave Macmillian UK.
- Hopkins, R. L. (1994). *Narrative schooling: Experiential learning and the transformation of American education*. New York, NY: Teacher's College Press.
- Hornberger, N. (Ed.). (2003). *Continua of biliteracy: An ecological framework for educational policy, research, and practices in multilingual settings*. Clevedon, UK: Multilingual Matters.
- Huerta, T. M. (2011). Humanizing pedagogy: Beliefs and practices on the teaching of Latino children. *Bilingual Research Journal*, 34(1), 38–57.
- Hunston, S., & Thompson, G. (2000). (Eds.). *Evaluation in text: Authorial stance and the construction of discourse*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Humphrey, S., Love, K. & Droga, L. (2011). *Working grammar: An introduction for English teachers*. Australia: Pearson.
- Hyland, K. (1994). Hedging in academic writing and EAP textbooks. *English for Specific Purposes*, 13, 239–256.
- Hyland, K. (1996). Talking to the academy: Forms of hedging in science research articles. *Written Communication*, 13, 251–281.
- Hyland, K. (1998). Boosting, hedging and the negotiation of academic knowledge. *TEXT*, 3, 349–382.
- Hyland, K. (2000). *Disciplinary discourses: Social interactions in academic writing*. London: Longman.

- Hyland, K. (2002). Authority and invisibility: Authorial identity in academic writing. *Journal of Pragmatics*, 34, 1091–1112.
- Hyland, K. (2012). Undergraduate understandings: Stance and voice in final year reports. In Hyland, K., & Guinda, C. S. (Eds.), *Stance and voice in written academic genres* (pp. 134-156). New York: Palgrave Macmillan.
- Hyland, K. 2005. *Metadiscourse*. London: Continuum.
- Hyland, K. (2013). *Genre and second language writing*. Ann Arbor: University of Michigan Press.
- Hyland, K., & Guinda, C. S. (Eds.). (2012). *Stance and voice in written academic genres*. New York: Palgrave Macmillan.
- Iedema, R., Feez, S., & White, P. (1994). Media literacy. (WIR Literacy in Industry Research Project- Stage 3). Produced by East Region Disadvantaged Schools Program, Ersineville: DSP Printery.
- Ivanic, R. & Camps, D. (2001). I am how I sound: Voice as self-representation in L2 writing. *Journal of Second Language Writing*, 10, 3–33.
- Jewitt, C. (2008). Multimodality and literacy in school classrooms. *Review of Research in Education*, 32, 241–267.
- Jones, A. (1999). The limits of cross-cultural dialogue: Pedagogy, desire, and absolution in the classroom. *Educational Theory*, 49(3), 299-315.
- Kamberelis, G. (1999). Genre development and learning: Children writing stories, science reports, and poems. *Research in the Teaching of English*, 33, 403-460.

- Kamberelis, G. (2005). *Writing and/in genres and/in fourth and fifth grades*. A report for the International Reading Association. Retrieved from <http://www.reading.org/2FLibraries/2Fbook-supplements/2Fbk767Supp-Kamberelis.pdf>
- Kamberelis, G., & Scott, D. (1992). Other people's voices: The coarticulation of texts and subjectivities. *Linguistics and Education*, 4, 359-403.
- Kamler, B. (1994). Resisting oppositions in writing pedagogy or what process-genre debate? *Idiom*. 29(2). 4-19.
- Kanno, Y., & Harklau, L. (Eds.). (2012). *Linguistic minority students go to college: Preparation, access, and persistence*. New York: Routledge.
- Kanno, Y., & Kangas, S. (2014). "I'm not going to be, like, for the AP": English language learners' limited access to advanced college-preparatory courses in high school. *American Educational Research Journal*, 51(5), 848-878.
- Kemmis, S. & McTaggart, R. (2003). Participatory action research. In N.K. Denzin & Y. S. Lincoln (Eds.), *Strategies of Qualitative Inquiry* (2nd ed., pp. 336-396). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Khote, N. (2011). *Thinking outside the box: Fishing for agency*. Unpublished manuscript.
- Kincheloe, J. L. (2004). *Critical pedagogy*. New York, NY: Peter Lang.
- Knowlton, D. S., & Sharp, D. C. (Eds.) (2003). *Problem-based learning in the information age*. *New Direction for Teaching and Learning*, Volume 95, San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.
- Krashen, S., & Terrell, T. (1983). *The natural approach: Language acquisition in the classroom*. Oxford: Pergamon.

- Kress, G. (1993). Genre as social process. In B. Cope & M. Kalantzis (Eds.), *The power of literacy: a genre approach to teaching writing* (pp.25-39). Pittsburgh, PA: University of Pittsburgh Press.
- Kress, G. (2003). *Literacy in the new media age*. London: Routledge.
- Kress, G., & van Leeuwen, T. (1996). *Reading images: The grammar of visual design*. London: Routledge.
- Kristeva, J. (1984). *Desire in language: A semiotic approach to literature and art*. (Léon S. Roudiez, (Ed.). Oxford: Basil Blackwell.
- Kuhn, D. (2005). *Education for thinking*. Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press.
- Ladson-Billings, G. (1995). Toward a theory of culturally relevant pedagogy. *American Educational Research Journal*, 32, 465–491.
- Ladson-Billings, G. and Donnor, J. (2005). The moral activist role of critical race theory scholarship. In N. Denzin and Y. Lincoln (Eds.), *The Sage Handbook of Qualitative Research*, (3rd ed.), (pp. 297-324). London: Sage Publications.
- Lankshear, C. (1997). *Changing literacies*. Bristol, PA: Open University Press.
- Lankshear, C., & Knobel, M. (2000). Strategies, tactics and the politics of literacy: Genres and classroom practices in a context of change. Plenary Address, Third National Conference on Academic Texts, Puebla, Mexico, April 15, 2000. Retrieved from http://www.geocities.com/c.lank_shear/strategies.html
- Lave, J., & Wenger, W. (1991). *Situated learning: Legitimate peripheral participation*. New York: Cambridge University Press.

- Lee, C. D., & Spratley, A. (2006). *Reading the disciplines and the challenges of adolescent literacy*. Report to the Carnegie Corporation of New York. New York: Carnegie Corporation.
- Leki, I., Cumming, A., & Silva, T. (2006). Second-language composition teaching and learning. In P. Smagorinsky (Ed.), *Research on composition: Multiple perspectives on two decades of change*. (pp. 141-170). New York: Teachers College Press.
- Leki, I., Cumming, A., & Silva, T. (2008). *A synthesis of research on L2 writing in English*. Mahwah, NJ: Earlbaum.
- Lemke, J. L. (1989). Semantics and social values. In J. D. Benson et al., (Eds.), *Systems, structures and discourse: Selected Papers from the fifteenth International Systemic Congress*, reprinted in *Word 40*, nos. 1-2: 37-50.
- Lemke, J. (1992). Interpersonal meaning in discourse: Value orientations. In M. Davies, & L. Ravelli (Eds.), *Advances in systemic linguistics: Recent theory and practice* (pp. 82–194). London: Pinter, Open Linguistics Series.
- Lemke, J. (1995) *Talking science: language, learning and values*. Norwood, NJ: Ablex.
- Lemke, J. (2002). Multimedia semiotics: Genres for science education and scientific literacy. In M. J. Schleppegrell & M. C. Colombi (Eds.), *Developing advanced literacy in first and second languages: Meaning with power* (pp. 21–44). Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum.
- Lincoln, Y. S., & Guba, E. G. (1985). *Naturalistic inquiry*. Newbury Park, CA: Sage.
- López, D.E., & Stanton-Salazar. R. D. (2001). Mexican-Americans: A second generation at risk. In R.G. Rumbaut and A. Portes (Eds.), *Ethnicities: Children of immigrants in America* (pp. 57–90). Berkeley, CA: University of California Press.

- Luke, A. (1994). Series editor's preface. In A. Freedman & P. Medway (Eds.), *Genre and the new rhetoric* (pp. vii–xi). London: Taylor & Francis.
- Luke, A. (1996). Genres of power? Literacy education and the production of capital. In R. Hasan & G. Williams (Eds.), *Literacy in Society* (pp. 308-339). London: Longman.
- Luke, A., & Freebody, P. (1997). Shaping the social practices of reading. In S. Muspratt & A. Luke & P. Freebody (Eds.), *Constructing critical literacies: Teaching and learning textual practice* (pp.185-225). Cresskill, NJ: Hampton Press.
- Luke, A. (2000). Critical Literacy in Australia: A matter of context and standpoint. *Journal of Adolescent and Adult Literacy*, 43(5), 448-461.
- Lukin, A. (2014). The study of “living language”: The SFL conception of text/context relations. http://annabellelukin.edublogs.org/reading-halliday_2/. Retrieved on May 2014.
- Macken-Horarik, M. (1996). Literacy and learning across the curriculum. In R. Hasan & G. Williams (Eds.), *Literacy in Society* (pp. 232-278). London: Longman.
- Macken-Horarik, M. (1998). Exploring the requirements of critical school literacy: A view from two classrooms. In F. Christie & R. Mission (Eds.), *Literacy and schooling* (pp. 74-103). New York: Routledge.
- Macken-Horarik, M. (2009). Navigational metalanguages for new territory in English: The potential of grammatics. *English Teaching: Practice and Critique*, 8(3), 55–69.
- Macken-Horarik, M., Love, K., & Unsworth, L. (2011). A grammatics ‘good enough’ for school English in the 21st century: Four challenges in realising the potential. *Australian Journal of Language and Literacy*, 34(1), 9–23.

- Macken, M., & Rothery, J. (1991). *Developing critical literacy through systemic functional linguistics: A model for literacy in subject learning*. Produced by East Region Disadvantaged Schools Program, Ersineville: DSP Printery.
- Martin, J. R. (1989). *Factual writing: Exploring and challenging social reality*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Martin, J. R. (1991). Nominalization in science and humanities: Distilling knowledge and scaffolding text. In E. Ventola (Ed.), *Functional and systemic linguistics* (pp. 307-337). Berlin: Mouton de Gruyter.
- Martin, J. R. (1992). *English text: system and structure*. Philadelphia: John Benjamins.
- Martin, J.R. (1993). Life as a noun. In M.A.K. Halliday and J.R. Martin (Eds.), *Writing science: Literacy and discursive power: Critical perspectives on literacy and education* (pp. 221–67). London: Falmer.
- Martin, J. R. (1996). Evaluating disruption: Symbolising theme in junior secondary narrative. In R. Hasan & G. Williams (Eds.), *Literacy in Society* (pp. 124-171). London: Longman.
- Martin, J. R. (1997). Analyzing genre: Functional parameters. In F. Christie & J. R. Martin (Eds.), *Genre and institutions: Social processes in the workplace and school* (pp. 3-39). Herndon, VA: Cassell.
- Martin, J.R. (2000). Beyond exchange: appraisal systems in English. In S. Hunston & G. Thompson (Eds.), *Evaluation in text: authorial stance and the construction of discourse* (142-175). Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Martin, J. R. (2002). Writing history: Construing time and value in discourse of the past. In M. J. Schleppegrell & M. C. Colombi (Eds.), *Developing advanced literacy in first and second languages: Meaning with power* (pp. 87–118). Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum.

- Martin, J. R. (2006). Metadiscourse: Designing interaction in genre-based literacy programmes. In R. Whittaker, M. O'Donnell & A. McCabe (Eds.), *Language and literacy: Functional approaches* (pp. 95-122). London: Continuum.
- Martin, J. R. (2008a). Incongruent and proud: De-vilifying 'nominalization'. *Discourse Society*, 19, 801-810.
- Martin, J. R. (2008). Tenderness: Realisation and instantiation in a Botswanan town. Odense working papers in language and communication, *Odense Working Papers in Language and Communication*, 29, 30-62.
- Martin, J. R. (2009). Genre and language learning: A social semiotic perspective. *Linguistics and Education*, 20, 10-21.
- Martin, J. R., & Christie, F. (Eds.) (1997). *Genres and institutions: Social processes in the workplace and school*. London: Pinter.
- Martin, J., & Rose, D. (2003). *Working with discourse: meaning beyond the clause*. London: Continuum.
- Martin, J. R., & Rose, D. (2008). *Genre relations: Mapping culture*. London: Equinox.
- Martin, J., & Rothery, J. (1980). *Writing Project Report No. 1*. Sydney: Department of Linguistics, University of Sydney.
- Martin, J., & Rothery, J. (1981). *Writing Project Report No.2*. Sydney: Department of Linguistics, University of Sydney.
- Martin, J., & Rothery, J. (1986). *Writing Project Report No.4*. Sydney: Department of Linguistics, University of Sydney.
- Martin, J. R., & Veel, R. (1998). *Reading science: Critical and functional perspectives on discourses of science*. London: Routledge.

- Martin, J., & White, P. (2005). *Language of evaluation: Appraisal in English*. New York: Palgrave MacMillan.
- Martin-Jones, M. (1995). Codeswitching in the classroom: Two decades of research. In L. Milroy and P. Muysken (Eds.), *One speaker, two languages: Cross-disciplinary perspectives on code-switching*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Maton, K. (2007). 'Knowledge-knower structures in intellectual and educational fields'. In F. Christie & J.R. Martin (Eds.) *Language, knowledge and pedagogy: Functional linguistic and sociological perspectives*. London: Continuum. pp. 87-108.
- McCabe, A., & Whittaker, R. (2006). An introduction to language and literacy. In R. Whittaker, M. O'Donnell & A. McCabe (Eds.), *Language and literacy: Functional approaches* (pp. 1-11). London: Continuum.
- McLaren, P. (2002). *Life in schools: An introduction to critical pedagogy in the foundations of education*. (4th ed.). NY: Allyn & Bacon, Inc.
- McClure, G., & Cahnmann-Taylor, M. (2010). Pushing back against push-in: ESOL teacher resistance and the complexities of coteaching. *TESOL Journal*, 1(1). 101-129.
- McIntyre, A. (2003). Participation action research and urban education: Reshaping the teacher preparation process. *Equity and Excellence in Education*, 36, 28-39.
- McNiff, J., & Whitehead, J. (2006). *All you need to know about action research*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- McTaggart, R. (1989). 16 tenets of participatory action research. Retrieved from <http://www.caledonia.org.uk/par.htm>.
- Mehan, H. (1979). *Learning lessons: Social organization in the classroom*. Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press.

- Meltzer, J. (2001). *Supporting adolescent literacy across the content areas: Perspectives on policy and practice*. Retrieved from <http://files.eric.ed.gov/fulltext/ED459442.pdf>
- Menken, K. & Kleyn, T. (2010). The long-term impact of subtractive schooling in the educational experiences of secondary English language learners. *International Journal of Bilingual Education and Bilingualism*, 13(4), 399–417.
- Menken, K., Kleyn, T. & Chae, N. (2012). Spotlight on “long-term English language learners”: Characteristics and prior schooling experiences of an invisible population. *International Multilingual Research Journal*, 6(2), 121-142.
- Mercer, N. (1994). Neo-Vygotskian theory and classroom education. In R. Stierer & J. Maybin (Eds.), *Language, literacy & learning in educational practice* (pp. 92-110). Clevedon: Multilingual Matters.
- Mercer, N. (1995). *The guided construction of knowledge: Talk amongst teachers and learners*. Clevedon: Multilingual Matters.
- Met, M. (1998). Curriculum decision-making in content-based teaching. In F. Genesee & J. Cenoz (Eds.), *Beyond bilingualism: Multilingualism and multilingual education* (pp. 35–63). Clevedon: Multilingual Matters.
- Mohan, B., & Lo, W. (1985). Academic writing and Chinese students: Transfer and developmental factors. *TESOL Quarterly* 19, 515-34.
- Moje, E. B. (2008) Foregrounding the disciplines in secondary literacy teaching and learning: A call for change. *Journal of Adolescent and Adult Literacy*, 52(2), 96-107.
- Moll, L.C., Amanti, C., Neff, D., Gonzalez, N. (2005). Funds of knowledge for teaching: Using a qualitative approach to connect homes and classrooms, In Gonzalez, N, Moll, L.C.,

- Amanti, C. (Eds), *Funds of knowledge: Theorizing practices in households, communities and classrooms*. New Jersey: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.
- Montero-Sieburth, M., & Batt, M. (2001). An overview of the education models used to explain the academic achievement of Latino students: Implications for research and policy into the new millennium. In R. E. Slavin & M. Calderón (Eds.), *Effective programs for Latino students* (pp. 331–368). Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum.
- Moore, D. W., & Readence, J. E. (2001). Situating secondary school literacy research. In E. B. Moje & D. G. O'Brien (Eds.), *Constructions of literacy: Studies of teaching and learning in and out of secondary schools* (pp. 3-25). Mahwah, NJ: Earlbaum.
- The New London Group. (1996). A pedagogy of multiliteracies: Designing social futures. *Harvard Educational Review*, 66 (1), 60-92.
- Nieto, S. (2002). *Language, culture, and teaching: Critical perspectives for a new century*. Mahwah, NJ: Erlbaum.
- Nieto, S., & Bode, P. (2008). *Affirming diversity: The sociopolitical context of multicultural education*. (5th ed.). New York: Allyn & Bacon.
- Nystrand, M. (1997). *Opening dialogue: Understanding the dynamics of language and learning in the English classroom*. New York: Teachers College Press.
- O'Donnell, A. M., Hmelo-Silver, C. E., & Erkens, G. (2005). *Collaborative learning, reasoning and technology*. Mawah, N.J.: Erlbaum.
- O'Halloran, K. L. (2005). *Mathematical discourse: Language, symbolism and visual images*. New York: Continuum.

- Orner, M. (1992). Interrupting the calls for student voice in “liberatory” education: A feminist poststructuralist perspective. In C. Luke & J. Gore (Eds.), *Feminism and Critical Pedagogy*, (pp. 74-89). London: Routledge.
- Pacheco, M. (2012). Learning in/through everyday resistance: A cultural-historical perspective on community resources and curriculum. *Educational Researcher*, 41(4), 121-132.
- Painter, C. (1996). The development of language as a resource for thinking: A linguistic view of learning. In Hasan, R., & Williams, G. (Eds.), *Literacy in society* (pp.50-85). London: Longman.
- Papas, C., Varelas, M., Barry, A., & Rife, A. (2003). Dialogic inquiry around information texts: The role of intertextuality in constructing scientific understandings in urban primary classrooms. *Linguistics and Education*, 13, 435–482.
- Paris, D. (2012). Culturally sustaining pedagogy: A needed change in stance, terminology and practice. *Educational Researcher*, 41(3), 93-97.
- Paris, D., & Alim, S. H. (2014). What are we seeking to sustain through culturally sustaining pedagogy? A loving critique forward. *Harvard Educational Review*, 84(1), 85-100.
- Pennycook, A. (1997). Vulgar pragmatism, critical pragmatism, and EAP. *English for Specific Purposes*, 19, 253-269.
- Perna, L. (2006). Studying college access and choice: A proposed conceptual model. In J.C. Smart (Ed.), *Higher education: Handbook of theory and research*, Vol. XXI (pp. 99–157). New York: Springer.
- Poynton, C. (1985). *Language and gender: Making the difference*. Geelong, Australia: Deaken University Press.

- Ravitch, D. (2013). Why I cannot stand the common core standards. Retrieved September 27, 2014 at URL: <http://dianeravitch.net/2013/02/27/an-open-letter-to-educators-and-parents-in-seattle/>
- Quigley, B. (2000). The practitioner-research: A research revolution in literacy?, *Adult Learning*, 11(3), pp. 6–8
- Reardon, K.M. (1998). Participatory action research as service learning. *New Directions for Teaching and Learning*, 73, pp. 57–64.
- Reason, P., & Bradbury, H. (2006). A handbook of action research. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Rodriguez, R. (1982). *Hunger of memory: The education of Richard Rodriguez*. NY: Bantam Books.
- Rogoff, B. (1990). *Apprenticeship in thinking: Cognitive development in social context*. New York: Oxford University Press.
- Rose, D., & Martin, J. R. (2012). *Learning to write, reading to learn: Genre, knowledge and pedagogy in the Sydney School*. Sheffield/Bristol: Equinox.
- Rothery, J. (1989). *The discussion genre: Language and social power*. Erskineville, NSW: Metropolitan East Disadvantaged Schools Program, NSW Department of School Education.
- Rothery, J. (1994). *Write it right: Exploring literacy in school English*. Erskineville, NSW: Metropolitan East Disadvantaged Schools Program, NSW Department of School Education.
- Rothery, J. (1996). Making changes: Developing an educational linguistics. In R. Hasan & G. Williams (Eds.), *Literacy in society* (pp.86-123). London: Longman.
- Rowling, J.K. (1997). *Harry Potter and the sorcerer's stone*. London, England: Bloombury.

- Salazar, M. del Carmen. (2013). A humanizing pedagogy: Reinventing the principles and practice of education as a journey toward liberation. *Review of Research in Education*, 37, 121-148.
- Schlechty, P. C. (2009). *Leading for learning: How to transform schools into learning organizations*. San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.
- Schleppegrell, M. (2002). Challenges of the science register for ESL students: Errors and meaning-making. In Schleppegrell, M. J., & Colombi, M. C. (Eds.). *Developing advanced literacy in first and second languages: Meaning with power* (pp. 119-142). Mahwah, New Jersey: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.
- Schleppegrell, M. (2004). *The language of schooling: A functional linguistics perspective*. Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.
- Schleppegrell, M. (2005). *Helping content area teachers' work with academic language: Promoting English language learners' literacy in history*. Santa Barbara, CA: University of California's Linguistic Minorities Research Institute.
- Schleppegrell, M. J. (2006). The challenges of academic language in school subjects. In I. Lindberg & K. Sandwall (Eds.), *Språket och kunskapen: att lära på sitt andraspråk i skola och högskola* (pp. 47–69). Göteborg, Sweden: Göteborgs Universitet Institutet.
- Schleppegrell, M., Achugar, M., & Oteíza, T. (2004). The grammar of history: Enhancing content-based instruction through a functional focus on language. *TESOL Quarterly*, 38(1), 67-93.
- Schleppegrell, M. J., & Colombi, M. C. (Eds.). (2002). *Developing Advanced Literacy in First and Second Languages: Meaning with Power*. Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.

- Schlepppegrell, M. J., Greer, S., & Taylor, S. (2008). Literacy in history: Language and meaning. *Australian Journal of Language and Literacy*, 31(2), 174–187.
- Schlepppegrell, M., & Go, A. (2007). Analyzing the writing of English learners: a functional approach. *Language Arts*, 84(6), 529-538.
- Schlepppegrell, M. J., & O'Halloran, C. L. (2011). Teaching academic language in L2 secondary settings. *Annual Review of Applied Linguistics*, 31, 3–18.
- Schlepppegrell, M. J., & de Oliveira, L. C. (2006). An integrated language and content approach for history teachers. *Journal of English for Academic Purposes*, 5(4), 254-268.
- Shanahan, T., & Shanahan, C. (2008). Teaching disciplinary literacy to adolescents: Rethinking content-area literacy. *Harvard Educational Review*, 78(1), 40–59.
- Sharan, S. (1990). (Ed.). *Cooperative learning: Theory and research*. New York, NY: Praeger.
- Shor, I. (1987). Educating the educators: A Freirean approach to the crisis in teacher education. In I. Shor (ed.), *Freire for the classroom: A sourcebook for liberatory teaching* (pp. 7-32). Portsmouth, NH: Boynton/Cook.
- Short, K. G. (1992). Researching intertextuality within collaborative classroom learning environments. *Linguistics and Education*, 4, 313-333.
- Short, K. (2004). Researching intertextuality within collaborative classroom learning environments. In N. Stuart Faris & D. Bloome (Eds.) *Use of intertextuality in classroom and educational research* (pp.373-396). Greenwich, CT: IAP.
- Stuart-Faris, N., & Bloome, D. (2004). *Use of intertextuality in classroom and educational research* (Eds.). Greenwich, CT: IAP.
- Silva, T., & Matsuda, P. K. (2001) (Eds.). *On second language writing*. Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum

- Snow, M. (2005). A model of academic literacy for integrated language and content instruction. In E. Hinkel (Ed.), *Handbook of research in second language teaching and learning* (pp. 693–712). Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum.
- Snow, C., Uccelli, P. (2009). The challenge of academic language. In N. Torrance and D. R. Olsen, *The Cambridge handbook of literacy* (pp. 112-133). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Solorzano, D. G. & Yosso, T. J. (2002). Critical Race methodology: Counter-storytelling as an analytical framework for educational research. *Qualitative Inquiry*, 8(1), pp. 23-44.
- Soto, G. (2006). *Buried onions*. New York: Harcourt & Brace
- Stake, R. E. (1995). *The art of case study research*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Street, B. (1984). *Literacy in theory and practice*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Stringer, E.T. (2007). *Action research in education*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Suárez-Orozco, C., & Suárez-Orozco, M. (2001). *Children of immigration*. Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press.
- Suárez-Orozco, C., Suárez-Orozco, M., & Todorova, I. (2008). *Learning a New Land*. Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press.
- Swain, M., Kirpatrick, A., & Cummins, J. (2011). *How to live a guilt-less life using Cantonese in the English class*. Hong Kong: Hong Kong Institute of Education.
- Swales, J. (1990). *Genre analysis: English in academic and research settings*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Thibault, P.J. (1993). Using Language to think interpersonally: Experiential meaning and the cryptogrammar of subjectivity and agency in English. *Cultural Dynamics*, 6, p. 1-22.

- Thompson, C. H., & Pennycook, A. (2010). A question of dialogues: Authorship, authority, plagiarism. *Education Canada*, 48(3), 20-23.
- Threadgold, T. (2003) Cultural studies, critical theory and critical discourse analysis: Histories, remembering and futures. *LinguistikOnline*. Retrieved May, 2014, from http://www.linguistik-online.de/14_03/threadgold.html
- Toulmin, S. E. (2003). *The uses of argument* (updated ed.). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Tsao, F. (1983). Linguistics and written discourse in particular languages: English and Mandarin. *Annual Review of Applied Linguistics*, 3, 99-117.
- Tsien, T., & Tsui, M. (2007). A participative learning and teaching model: The partnership of students and teachers in practice teaching. *Social Work Education*, 26, 348-358.
- Turnbull, M., & Arnett, K. (2002). Teachers' uses of the target and first languages in second and foreign language classrooms. *Annual Review of Applied Linguistics*, 22, 204-218.
- Turnbull, M., & Dailey-O'Cain, J. (2009). *First language use in second and foreign language learning*. Bristol: Multilingual Matters.
- Unsworth, L. (1999). Developing critical understanding of the specialised language of school science and history texts: A functional grammatical perspective. *Journal of Adolescent and Adult Literacy*, 42(7), 508-521.
- Unsworth, L. (2000). *Researching language in schools and communities*. Cassell: London.
- Unsworth, L. (2002). Reading Grammatically: Exploring the constructedness of literary texts. *LL Educational Studies of Language and Literature*, 2, 121-140.
- Valenzuela, A. (1999). *Subtractive schooling: U.S.-Mexican youth and the politics of caring*. Albany, NY: State University of New York Press.

- van Dijk, T. A. (1999). Critical discourse analysis and conversation analysis. *Discourse and Society*, 10(4), 459-450.
- Varelas, M., & Pappas, C. (2006). Intertextuality in read-alouds of integrated science-literacy units in urban primary classrooms: Opportunities for the development of thought and language. *Cognition and Instruction*, 24(2), 211-259.
- Verplaetse, L., & N. Migliacci. (2010). (Eds.), *Inclusive pedagogy for English language learners: Research informed practices*. Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.
- Villapando, O. (2010). Latinas/os in higher education: Eligibility, enrollment, and educational attainment. In E. G. Murillo, Jr., S. A. Villenas, R. Trinidad Galván, J. Sánchez Muñoz, C. Martinez, & M. Machado-Casas (Eds.), *Handbook of Latinos and education: Theory, research, and practice* (pp. 232-249). New York: Routledge.
- Veel, R. (1997). Learning how to mean-scientifically speaking: Apprenticeship into scientific discourse in the secondary school. In F. Christie, & J. R. Martin (Eds.), *Genres and institutions: Social processes in the workplace and school* (pp. 161-195). London: Cassell.
- Veel, R. (1999). Language, knowledge and authority in school mathematics. In F. Christie (Ed.), *Pedagogy and the shaping of consciousness: Linguistics and social processes* (pp. 185-216). London: Continuum.
- Veel, R., & Coffin, C. (1996) Learning to think like an historian: The language of secondary school history. In R. Hasan and G. Williams (Eds.). *Literacy in society* (pp.191-231). Longman: London.
- Veel, R. (2006). The Write it Right Project. In R. Whittaker, M. O'Donnell & A. McCabe (Eds.), *Language and literacy: Functional approaches* (pp. 66-92). London: Continuum.

- Vygotsky, L. S. (1978). *Mind in society: The development of higher psychology process*. Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press. (Original published in 1930).
- Walquí, A. (2000). *Access and engagement: Program design and instructional approaches for immigrant students in secondary school. Topics in immigrant education 4. Language in education: Theory and practice 94*. Washington, DC: ERIC Clearinghouse on Languages and Linguistics.
- Warikoo, N., & Carter, P. (2009). Cultural explanations for racial and ethnic stratification in academic achievement: A call for a new and improved theory. *Review of Educational Research, 79*, 366–394.
- Wertsch, J. V. (1991). *Voices of the mind: A sociocultural approach to mediated action*. Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press.
- White, P. R. R. (1998). *Telling Media tales: The news story as rhetoric*, Unpublished PhD thesis, University of Sydney, Australia.
- White, P. (2000). Dialogue and inter-subjectivity: Reinterpreting the semantics of modality and hedging. In M., Coulthard, J., Cotterill & F. Rock (Eds.), *Working with dialogue* (pp. 67–80). Tübingen: Max Niemeyer Verlag.
- White, P. R. R. (2003). 'Beyond modality and hedging: a dialogic view of the language of intersubjective stance'. *Text – Special Edition on Appraisal*. 259–84.
- White, P. (2013). Online appraisal. Retrieved from <http://www.grammatics.com/appraisal>
- Wiggins, G., & McTighe, J. (2004). *Understanding by design*. Alexandria, VA: Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development.
- Willett, J., Harman, R., Lozano, M. E., Hogan, A., & Rubeck, J. (2007). Generative routines: Using the everyday to create dynamic learning communities for English language

- learners. In L. Verplaetse and N. Migliacci (Eds.), *Inclusive pedagogy for English language learners: Research informed practices* (pp.33-54). Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.
- Willett J., & Rosenberger, C. (2005). Critical dialogue: Transforming the discourses of educational reform. In L. Pease-Alvarez (Ed.), *Learning, teaching, and community: contributions of situated and participatory approaches to educational innovation*. Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.
- Wink, J. (2005). *Critical pedagogy: Notes from the real world*. White Plain, NY: Longman.
- Wortham, S., Murillo, G. E. Jr., & Hamann, E. (Eds.) (2002). *Education in the New Latino Diaspora: Polity and the Politics of Identity*. Westport, CT: Ablex Publishing.
- Wurdinger, S. D. (2005). *Using experiential learning in the classroom: Practical ideas for all educators*. Lanham, MD: Scarecrow Education.
- Yin, R. K. (2009). *Case study research: Design and methods*. (3rd ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Yosso, T. J., Smith, W. A., Ceja, M., & Solorzano, D. G. (2009). Critical race theory, racial microaggressions, and campus racial climate for Latina/o undergraduates. *Harvard Educational Review*, 79(4), 659–691.
- Zwiers, J. (2007). *Building academic language: Essential practices for content classrooms, Grades 5-12*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

APPENDIX A

STUDENT INTERVIEW PROTOCOL

I. Questions to Gather Information about Learners

Name: _____

External and family characteristics

What country or place are you from?

What are your reasons for coming to the U.S.? (learner or family)

When did you come to the U.S.? _____ When were you born in the U.S. _____

What do your parents' (or guardians) do for work?

What are your parents' (or guardians) education background?

What languages do your parents (or guardians) speak? How well do they speak them?

What are your family's attitudes towards your native language and culture?

What are your family's attitudes towards English and American culture?

What language(s) are used at home for speaking?

What language(s) are used at home for reading/writing?

Personal characteristics

How old are you?

How well do you speak your first language?

How well do you speak your second language?

School experience

List the previous schools you attended, for how long and their location.

What languages were used in the schools you attended?

What was the student population (majority and minority status) at the schools you attended?

Current School Experience

How long have you attended the high school?

What language(s) do you use at this school? Tell me what subject specifically.

What are your attitudes towards your first language?

What are your attitudes towards your second language?

What are your personal goals for your first and second language?

How would you describe yourself? What are your personality traits?

What are your interests?

What are your outside of class/home responsibilities?

Characteristics as reader and writer

What language(s) did you first learn and use?

What is your attitude towards reading and writing?

What language do you prefer for reading and writing?

What are your preferred strategies for reading and writing?

STUDENT INTERVIEW PROTOCOL, continued from previous page

II. Questions to gather information about the writing unit

What did you learn from the writing unit?

What was your stance in the writing? Why did you take this stance?

Did you think about constructing a particular kind of voice to address the reader?

Did you think about removing the I?

How did you do to realize your language objectives?

APPENDIX B

EXPOSITION ESSAY: *Ecological Footprints* (Bunting, 2012)

(genre stages)

THESIS: presents the case to be argued	Position Preview Position statement	Environmentalists have been concerned about the impact that individuals have on our planet, and many people wonder what they can do to help protect the environment. A good place to start is to reduce one's ecological footprint. An ecological footprint is an estimate of how much land, water, and other natural resources are being used by a person or a group. Because resources are easily accessible in developed countries like the United States, people in these countries tend to have large ecological footprints. For example, they may take long showers, leave their computers on for the whole day, and buy new things that they do not need because the items are on sale. The consequences of large ecological footprints can be disastrous
ARGUMENT 1: presents an argument and evidence to support it	Point Elaboration	One of the worst effects of large ecological footprints is the loss of natural resources such as oil, water, and wood. These resources are being consumed so fast that the Earth does not have time to renew them. According to Adam Grubb (2011), co-founder of Energy Bulletin, 85 million barrels of oil are produced daily in the world. People use oil to run their cars, heat their homes and produce products such as clothes, paint, and plastic. Very soon these natural resources will be depleted. As more people consume products like oil and wood, these natural resources will become even scarcer. In "Forest Facts," the United Nations Environmental program (2011) reveals that "36 million acres of natural forest are lost each year" (pg. 2). These are shocking statistics.
ARGUMENT 2	Point Elaboration	Large ecological footprints also lead to higher greenhouse gas emissions. Multinational corporations mine oil, natural gas, and coal and use these resources in electrical power plants and automobiles. This releases dangerous gases into the air, where they trap heat. As a result, the Earth gets warmer.

Exposition Essay: *Ecological Footprints*, continued from previous page

ARGUMENT 3	Point Elaboration	Another result of large ecological footprints is that we are increasingly polluting our rivers and streams. We produce a great deal of waste that is thrown into rivers and streams daily. Because of pollution, the water in many bodies of water is becoming or has already become unsuitable for human to consume.
REINFORCEMENT OF THESIS		It is our responsibility to find ways to decrease our impact on our planet. Even small changes can make a difference and help the environment. If we do not start reducing our ecological footprints right away, it may be too late for future generations to contain the damage.

APPENDIX C

DISCUSSION SAMPLE ESSAY: *Genetically Modified Foods*, adapted from Bunting (2012):

<p>ISSUE: presents the issue to be analyzed</p>	<p>Statement of Issue</p> <p>Preview</p>	<p>Any time humans make technological advances, they have the potential to do great harm and great good. Genetically modified (GM) foods, which are foods that have had changes made to their DNA, are no exception. According to the Center for Food Safety, GM foods have entered nearly every sector of the food market (2010). This shift means that a majority of the public is consuming GM foods as part of their regular diet. Statistics detailed in 2010 by Patrick Byrne, a professor at Colorado State University, revealed a little known fact: From 60 to 70 percent of all prepared foods in a typical supermarket in the U.S. contains genetically modified ingredients. However, little research has been done concerning the existence of any short-or long-term side effects. Larry Trivieri, author of several books on alternative medicine, cites the fact that the U.S. Food and Drug Administration does not require independent safety tests on GM foods (2011). Because of the lack of conclusive research, Neal Barnard (2011), as well as other researchers, has been warning us that potential health risks may be associated with the consumption of these foods.</p>
<p>ARGUMENT FOR: presents the arguments supporting evidence</p>	<p>Point For</p> <p>Elaboration</p>	<p>Many people believe that there are possible advantages to genetically modifying plants. For example, to improve their nutritional value or protect them from pests as they grow. Recently, scientists have added a growth hormone to salmon for faster growth (DeNoon, 2010) and high starch to potatoes so that they absorb less oil when fried (“GM Crops: Costs and Benefits,” 2011). Science and technology is finding new ways to improve both the taste and appeal of food at an affordable cost for the consumer.</p>

DISCUSSION SAMPLE ESSAY: Genetically Modified Foods, continued from previous page

<p>ARGUMENT AGAINST: presents the arguments against and evidence</p>	<p>Point Against</p> <p>Elaboration</p>	<p>Despite these alleged benefits, there are some scientists that fiercely question the safety of these foods for human consumption and the environment. Peter Katel (2010), a writer for CQ Researcher claims that more independent tests are needed in order to conclude whether GM foods are suitable for consumption by the general public. Researchers must continue to thoroughly test GM foods to verify their safety, and consumers need to educate themselves and demand that food companies be more open in their identification of food sources.</p> <p>As consumers, we must make informed choices in the food we buy for the sake of our families. To do that, we need to educate ourselves on the issues surrounding GM foods so that we can choose whether to buy this “enhanced” food or not.</p>
<p>Recommendation</p>	<p>Summary</p>	<p>Even though research has been inconclusive as to the effects of eating GM foods, we have a right to know their presence in the food we buy. Currently, foods with genetically modified ingredients are not labeled as such. One way to address the problem is by systematically labeling foods. People have a right to know what they are consuming. In 2001, Eli Kintisch, a writer for The New Republic, a well-known magazine of politics and arts, suggested that the few remaining products should be labeled “GM-free.” Since then, some manufacturers have added these labels. Consumers should pressure food manufacturers to continue to add them.</p>
	<p>Conclusion</p>	<p>More research on the effects of GM foods must be done promptly. People have already consumed a significant amount of these foods throughout the world, and that amount is increasing, yet there is concern that we do not understand the possible side effects on humans, other living things, and our environment. Consumers must educate themselves and make wise choices. While there appear to be advantages to this technological advance, we must make sure that the good that GM foods do for our society far outweighs any potential harm.</p>

APPENDIX D

VERONICA ESSAY: *Mandatory Military Service*

In some countries a young person is required to do two years of military service. I think we the United States should be required to be in military service just like other countries. I believe if we all joined, we would have the same equalities, the military would become a much stronger army which would benefit everyone. It would benefit everyone by learning new experiences, and it would give them a challenge that they have never faced before.

We the United States should be required to be in the military service, just like these other countries. If people were forced to join the military then some of these soldiers would be satisfied unlike the soldiers that are unmotivated to fight. For some, military service might be the right choice because it reflects on their skills and gives them credit for volunteering. You will feel very accomplished after those two years of military service because it helps you to gain effort knowing that they were fighting for your own country.

If joining the military was mandatory, it would strengthen the power of the military force. It would also unite the country as one powerful nation. We will actually be more responsible for our own country. Illegal immigrants would also get credit for their cooperation. People will learn to fulfill their duty by fighting for their own country.

Joining the military service benefits us by learning new experiences, growing up and it also teaches us to grow up and live on our own without our parents. This will help us gain courage for later on in the future. It gives us job experience for when we apply later on in life. It encourages everyone to be responsible for their own actions when it comes to their country.

VERONICA ESSAY: *Mandatory Military Service*, continued from previous page

Therefore, I believe that joining the military is a helpful event for later on in life. It is a very responsible task that anyone can do if you set your mind to it. You will remember it your whole life knowing you fought for your country.

APPENDIX E

VERONICA ESSAY: *Immigration*

Wealthy nations such as the United States, Canada, Australia and the United Kingdom will always attract immigrants that are in search for a better life. The problem is that many immigrants do not follow the proper rules, therefore there are many illegals crossing the borders. It is evident that there will be positive and negative impacts. The United States Immigration Reform is specifically targeting the problem of 12 to 20 million undocumented workers in the United States. President Obama has made it clear from the beginning that Comprehensive immigration Reform Act is a priority. It seems that Democrats and Republicans have been discussing this issue for years. Meanwhile, immigrants are suffering the consequences of their indecision (monogloss). It is certain that they need to find a solution to this problem.

It is evident that there are many positive impacts due to immigration. Our diversity is expanding more each year. Many immigrants are a source of cheap labor, and we get better pricing in housing, agriculture, construction, and vegetables. Immigrants are here to fill up jobs that Americans don't want. There are many negative impacts as well. Americans citizens have fewer job opportunities because they tend to compete with illegal immigrants at a lower salary. The emigration to the United States hurts the home country, by increasing the human population. This means less resources, less housing, and less education. Both parties have a proposal to this situation.

Both Democratic and Republican parties have combined a solution to the immigration issue. They have come to some agreements like strengthening our border and punishing businesses that hire undocumented workers. They have also agreed to make an E-verify system

VERONICA ESSAY: *Immigration*, continued from previous page

that makes it easier to do background checks on the workers. While there may be some agreements, there are also many disagreements. Democrats want to give amnesty to undocumented people. However, Republicans do not agree with this. On the other hand, Republicans want to increase the H2A & B visa which is a program for temporary workers. Republicans oppose to give amnesty to undocumented workers because it would have the effect of encouraging illegal immigration and would give an unfair advantage to those who have broken our laws.

My own father has been living in the country for 15 years but was deported three years ago. That had serious consequences on my family. We had to move into my aunt's home where my family shares a room. My mother is always in fear and does not drive because of the *retenes* (checkpoints) in the city. She works two jobs and I have to work too to pay the bills. My dreams of going to college may not come true. The politicians should understand that their proposals affect families like mine directly. An effective proposal for the immigration issue would include different solutions from both parties. We must strengthen our border security to stop illegal crossings. In order to strengthen our borders, reconnaissance cameras which allows them to see from far would be efficient. However, we cannot deport all undocumented immigrants. Therefore, increasing the amount of H2A & B visas will expand the program for temporary agricultural workers. By solving this problem, we need to legalize the people that have been here for more than 10 years.

APPENDIX F

ROBERTO ESSAY: *Immigration*

One major problem in the United States is that 12 to 20 million undocumented immigrants enter the country illegally and overstay their visas. Many people think that all immigrants are a bad influence, but they don't always come with bad intentions. It appears that the arrival of immigrants is not always negative and the Republican and Democrats have many different plans to solve the problem. However, both parties have not come to a solution and taken control of this conflict.

Democrats and Republican agree on many issues on this topic. Both parties agree to keep strengthening the borders and increase security so they can control illegal crossings. Also, they both agree on background checks to see if the individual has a clean record in the past using the E-Verify system. On the other hand, there might be some differences between them. The Democrats want to give out an amnesty and visas to get all undocumented immigrants out of the shadows. However, the Republicans are in favor of the H2-B for farm workers and are against the amnesty. Unlike Democrats, Republicans are more inclined to be afraid that there might be more drug dealers and criminals. They believe that it will encourage more undocumented immigrants and would give an unfair advantage to those who have broken our laws.

Both parties need to unite and solve this problem. It is certain that they can't deport all undocumented immigrants. There is no doubt that deportation should be stopped so that no more families would be broken apart. An effective proposal for the immigration issue would include the Democrat's plan to give amnesty to get families out of the shadows. Also, they can hand out temporary visas so that so that the immigrants can go back to visit their families back to their

ROBERTO ESSAY: *Immigration*, continued from previous page

country. Moreover, they have to secure the border so that no more immigrants can cross illegally. Also, they have to increase the border agents and cameras to increase security. In addition to shutting down the border, they can hand out H2-A visas so that people can work in the fields. This country will always have more opportunities for U.S. citizens. In conclusion, the importance of immigration to this country brings fresh blood to enter the country.

APPENDIX G

JUAN DIEGO ESSAY: *Immigration*

It is evident that there are many positive impacts, For example, the immigrants come to the United States. They make it strong working on farming, agriculture, poultry and construction. Also, the immigrants work for low money and cheap labor and help maintain the low price of houses. On the other hand are many negative impacts about immigrants. For example, more immigrants mean more criminals in the country and all the Americans are afraid of immigrants. They are getting more diversity and there is less job opportunities for American citizens. Also, immigrants are giving more resources of the government to not paying nothing for resources of food stamps and Medicare.

Both parties have a plan. They agree to use the E-verify Program, an Internet-based system that verifies the employment authorization and identity of employees. Also, they agree to keeping the border strong and have more security. However, both parties disagree on important each use. The Republicans disagree on Amnesty because it would have the effect of encouraging illegal immigration and would give an unfair advantage to those who have broken our laws. On the other hand, the Democrats agree to give visas to the immigrants to proceed to bring families out of the shadows and started paying taxes and let them find a better life.

The Democrats offer to give visas to all the undocumented because they make United States stronger. Also, they make United States stronger. Also they filling in jobs that most Americans don't want and their illusions are to come out the shadows to not hide of the security. They are afraid to be deported that one way that their families broken apart and losing their families of been deported. On the other hand, the Republicans exhibits other plans the ROBERTO

JUAN DIEGO ESSAY: *Immigration*, continued from previous page

Republicans want to closet the border to all undocumented and deported everyone illegal. The two parties are talking but they not have a desition. The undocumented are suffering and the security are reporting them. We need to do something to stop that problema.

An effective proposal for immigrant issue would include many things that both parties have discussed. Amnesty would have to be included for the immigrants to come out of the shadows and to participate legally in the American economy. Moreover, first secure our border so no more immigrants cross over. Additionally after closing the border, they can hand out H-2A visa for immigrants and agricultural worker so when the season starts they can work in the fields. By solving the problem both parties should give visas to the immigrants so that way the economy can increas and the immigrants can pay taxes and live a better life.

APPENDIX H

JUAN DIEGO ESSAY: *Why is School Important To Me?***First writing assignment: *Why is school important to me?***

by Juan Diego

I think school is important because I learn a lot of things in school, and I like to come to school because I learn how to write and read and that is one of the parts to go to college. The school is important. I have different classes. I learn different things and meet friends in school.

The school teach us a lot of really good stuff to learn and Make us be someone in life and the important is if I finish school I can get a certification and I can get a work fast or I get more money.

School is important because the school teach a lot and sometimes I think that school is really boring because I need wake up early but that doesn't matter because school is one thing important in my life because I want to be someone in here. Sometimes the school is bored but at the time is not bored and the other thing are the teachers They come to teach us They waste their time to come and teach that,

I think the school is important the school have a lot of work The school is so exciting because the school teach everything like History Math and other more classes but the only thing that. I need to put all my enthusiasm to learn all about the classes. The school is everything is so important and interesting.

I think school is one of the best thing here on U.S. A. is the best thing to learn all about and I need study to learn.

APPENDIX I

ROSA ESSAY: *Immigration*

The United States has an illegal immigration problem as Immigrants enter the country illegally by crossing the border between the United States and Mexico with the illusion of “El Sueno Ameicano” (The American Dream). They want to have a better life for them self and their family. But as a consequence of this dream, United States has around 12-20 million undocumented workers. The politicians want to take control of this problem. They use the term “Immigration Reform” to support a decrease in immigrants. President Obama said that this debate is “about men and women who want nothing more than the chance to earn their way into the American Story” (USAimmigrationreform.org). It is evident that we need to find a solution to this conflict.

Some people said that the Amnesty will extremily affect this country. They said that if everybody become citizens, the jobs will become less. Also they said that the incrising of borthor security is a lost of money. However, many people say that if all undocumented people become citizen, more people are going to pay taxes, so the economy of this country will increase. Also, they are agree with the politicians to increase the border security. The politicians have different opinions and proposals for the Immigration problem. The Democrats wants to give an opportunity to all immigrants focus in the clarity of Albert Einstein’s thoughts, “Immigrants with an extraordinary belief in the American Dream, they want to build this country by coming and working hard. The Republicans, like Democrats, want to resolve this conflict. But as difference, the Republicans don’t want to legalize all immigrants. The Republicans said that to be citizen the immigrants need to have some requisites like knowing English, to having more than 10 years living in this country, and passing the citizenship test.

ROSA ESSAY: *Immigration*, continued from previous page

In conclusion, the Republicans and Democrats have to come to an agreement. President Obama made it clear that they will not ship out 12 million people. The whole idea of making a stronger border and deport these immigrants is not worth doing, but it is logical that they hand out work permits. In fact, the Democrats proposal is to bring the immigrants out of the shadows. It is important to help out these immigrants for the fact that they are all a big help to this country, especially in jobs. Furthermore, they have to solve this problem as urgently as possible.