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ABSTRACT

Reading has been perceived as a dynamic transactional process wherein readers negotiate meaning with writers by virtue of their prior knowledge. The act of meaning construction is realized primarily through the exploration of intertextual links that connect various sources of texts the readers have composed or experienced. Readers utilize intertextuality as an inquiry tool to build their own perspectives of the ideas and thoughts communicated in the texts. Recent inquiries corroborate the possibility of investigating intertextuality by analyzing reader response to the readings without purposefully establishing an "intertextuality rich environment." A study investigated the intertextual dynamics of the reading and inquiry processes of 23 advanced adult readers at the graduate levels of education in an authentic collaborative learning context that capitalizes on an online course listserv for open discussions. The research questions this study sought to answer are: What are the intertextual intentions of advanced adult readers? What are the intertextual loci that ground their intertextual processes? and What are the intertextual strategies readers employ to construct the meanings of the texts? This paper first discusses the concepts of text and intertextuality to formulate a theoretical frame to locate the investigation. The paper then provides a detailed analysis of readers' reflections and responses to address the three research questions. It then delineates a preliminary model of intertextual dynamics and examines the advantages of the listserv format in fostering intertextual inquiry. Includes a figure and 2 notes. Contains 41 references and cites 17 materials. (NKA)

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Intertextual Dynamics:
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by

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Introduction

Reading has been perceived as a dynamic transactional process wherein readers negotiate meanings with writers by virtue of their prior knowledge (Goodman, 1996). The act of meaning construction is realized primarily through the exploration of intertextual links that connect various sources of texts the readers have composed or experienced (Short, 1992a; Bloom & Egan-Robertson, 1993; Hartman, 1994). Readers utilize intertextuality as an inquiry tool to build their own perspectives of the ideas and thoughts communicated in the texts.

The roles of intertextuality in exploratory learning have been examined extensively in previous research from such multiple angles as cognitive, literary, semiotic or educational points of view (Bloom & Egan-Robertson, 1993; Hartman, 1995). Of particular interest to researchers (e.g. Hartman, 1991, 1992, 1994, 1995; Short, 1992a, 1992b; Cox & Many, 1992) appear to be the strategies that readers employ to seek connections among different textual resources to make sense of the print and the consequent intertextual patterns that arise from interaction. These investigations have significantly expanded the extant understanding of the complexities in intertextual reading by providing a clearer picture of how readers draw on their known information to process new information in order to achieve a better comprehension.

Yet, what deserve our attention are the potential limits caused by the use of research apparatus that would produce additional stimulation on readers' intertextual awareness. Explicit instructions are given in Hartman's studies (1991, 1995) to remind readers to pay particular attention to "how the ideas, people, places, events, themes, etc in the passage are related or connected to each other" (Hartman, 1995, p.529). Also, the "text sets" technique (Harste, Short, & Burke, 1988) is frequently applied in research (e.g. Pierce, 1996) that offers students a series of related texts that share a common or similar theme to elicit their intertextual response.

Although such research designs proved to be helpful in creating a fertile ground for readers to make connections across different textual sources, it cued, however, readers to over-attend to the intertextual links per se than to the construction of meaning itself. The inversion of the means-end relationship affects readers' holistic conception of the readings and directs their attentions to intertextually evocative, yet maybe thematically peripheral, details. Indeed, intertextuality is an inherent trait of the reading process that can easily be observed in the absence of a deliberately assembled "tableaux' (Hartman 1995, p.528) for experimental purposes. Short and her colleagues (1999) later realize that readers' tendency to search for intertextual connections is built in their reading process, which appears to be independent of the instructional culture and would occur in literature circles that even focused a single text. In a different research setting, Chin (1996) finds consistent patterns of using intertextuality among Korean ESL learners to interpret and predict the plot line of and narrative structure of the story they have read.

These more recent inquiries corroborate the possibility of investigating intertextuality by analyzing reader response to the readings without purposefully establishing an "intertextually rich environment" (Hartman, 1994, p.619; 1995, p.528). The present study investigates the intertextual dynamics of the reading and inquiry processes of advanced adult readers at the graduate levels of education in an authentic collaborative learning context that capitalizes on an on-line course listserv for open discussions. The research questions this study seeks to answer are:

(a) What are the intertextual intentions of advanced adult readers'?

(b) What are the intertextual loci that ground their intertextual processes? and

(c) What are the intertextual strategies readers employ to construct the meanings of the texts?

I will first discuss the concepts of text and intertextuality to formulate a theoretical frame to locate my investigation. A detailed analysis of readers' reflections and responses will be provided to address the three research questions. Then a preliminary model of intertextual dynamics will be delineated and the advantages of the listserv format in fostering intertextual inquiry will be examined.

What Makes a Text a Text

The notion of text that serves as the basis for intertextuality has been interpreted from a variety of theoretical perspectives, represented by the linguistic, social semiotic, and the social constructive perspectives. Linguistics (de Beaugrande, 1987; van Dijk, 1997) hold text as a communicative occurrence that involves the use of language. Text is distinguished from talk in terms of their different functions performed in communication. Specifically, text concerns the scripts of written discourse whereas talk is related to the spoken discourse (van Dijk, 1997). Put another way, text is a more organized system than discourse characterized with mosaic traits. Although the dichotomy of text from talk is useful for the analysis of discourse modes, it views the text as a pure linguistic product functionally vital only in the domain of written communication. The limitation of this approach has drawn attention from text and systemic linguists. Fairclough (1992) extends the denotation of text to the inclusion of the scripts of either written or spoken communication. Halliday & Hason (1976) conceptualize text as " a unity of meaning in context" with coherence. Yet, difficulties result from the fact that instead of being a textual property, coherence is subject to individual perceptions. Their interpretation has been updated by a more abstract version that construes text as " an instance of a set of specific choices that have been made at a given time" (Fries, 1999, p. 70). That is, the composition of a text is a

literary event happening in a particular field. The selection process is constrained by discourse conventions established along varied literary praxes.

Another line of theoretical quest that draws on the social semiotic perspective argues that in addition to linguistic renderings, text encompasses the products of other sign systems than language as dance, theatre, and music so long as meaningful relationships can be obtained (Siegel, 1984). Hence, "any chunk of meaning that has unity and can be shared with others" is considered as a text (Short 1992a, p.187). These explorations generate greater possibilities of accepting amorphous life experiences as textual resources for the making of broader intertextual connections. Despite the potential risks of confounding text as a smorgasbord destitute of consistency and unity in meaning, Fairclough (1995) is optimistic about the efforts to incorporate non-linguistic components into the concept in that it can better fit in with the changing social realities impacted particularly by the advancement of media and technology.

The social constructive paradigm looks on text as a product of "textualizing" (Bloom & Egan-Robertson, 1993, p. 311). This interpretation encodes at least two implications needed to be explicated. First, it obligates readers' engagement in what they are reading. A text will not become meaningful until the readers endeavor to make sense of the print. Second, it suggests the existence of an inter-referencing mechanism underlying various textual resources that leads to the plurality of the text. Therefore, virtually no texts can be entirely exempt from any endoglossic or exoglossic influences and thus exist in an utterly self-contained fashion.

The above explorations are helpful in fueling an alternative interpretation of text suitable for the investigation of intertextual reading. In this study, *text is defined as a configuration of any fabric of meaning with a spatial or temporal stretch intended for communication*. Besides the verbal configuration, text can also be composed through visual, aural, or mental modes. These

modes of configuration conspire to formulate the meaning. Hence, beyond the tangible embodiment of print, text includes less perceptible substance like mental traces of past readings, personal or professional experiences, historical or current events as enumerated in Short and others (1999).

In this sense, text is no longer a monolithic entity with definite margins, but a melange filled with varying sorts of patches (Frow, 1991; Hartman, 1992). The interior edges that differentiate the processes of text production, text distribution and text consumption (Fairclough, 1992) tend to be eroded by prevalent discursive associations. The exterior borders of texts are subject to conceptual adjustment as well. Kress et al (1997) discover that the intertextual implications would eventuate when two geographically adjacent texts are taken together. They compared a feature article written by a congressman arguing against the popularization of a type of a luxurious telephone with a neighboring advertisement with apparent intention to entice consumers' desire to upgrade their automobile, which both appeared in a Brazilian magazine. According to their argument, the juxtaposition of the two texts holding opposite stances on consumerism is indicative of the contentiousness of the debate over the issue. As meaning exists not only within, but also across the physical closures of individual texts, what should be counted as a text varies with readers' perception and cognition. The listing of the intertextual property as one of the essential features of text (de Beaugrande, 1987) characterizes text as something with fluid boundaries. This leads to my discussion of the intertextual dynamics in the context of inquiry-based reading.

Intertextual Dynamics in Inquiry-based Reading: A Conceptual Frame

Inquiry-based reading defines reading as a productive process that embeds the exploration of new horizons of possibilities (Langer, 1994) for interpreting and understanding

issues and ideas of interest, or that stand out incongruous with readers' existing conceptual frame. However, it should be noted from the outset that inquiry does not necessarily result in the change of conception. Rather, readers would stick to their original their stances while stretching those anomalous or counterintuitive cases to suit their schemata, which has been observed common in adults' reading events (Chambliss & Garner, 1996). The decisions about choosing the focus of inquiry and the appropriate means to achieve it are made mainly by inquirers' tacit knowledge developed through dialogues between their own ways of thinking and the other socially endorsed manners of thinking.

To initiate the process of inquiry, readers need to engage their prior knowledge, experiences and personal agendas to form premises for reasoning. Because readers' encyclopedic knowing is normally accumulated through profuse transaction with a spectrum of experiences, readers' schemata usually index the vestiges of exterior influences. By the same token, a writer's production does not originate from a *tabula rasa*. The process of writing is analogous to that of reading in light of the intertextual references made to construct the meaning for communication. Bloome & Egan-Roberston (1993) view intertextuality as a process of searching for, translating and reconstructing the meaning of the text through negotiations with an array of social relationships encoded by or surrounding the text. Short (1992b) describes intertextuality as "a metaphor of learning" that thrives on a collaborative learning environment. These explorations help us understand the intertextual nature of literacy events and the role of intertextuality in assisting understanding. It can be understood that intertextuality is inherent in any literacy events regardless of any situational variations.

As showed in research (Hartman, 1991), readers constructed different intertextual ties within the same set of texts. The way that readers process intertextual information indicates their

intertextual intentions, their concerns of the intertextual meaning and their utilization of intertextual strategies. It is believed that intertextuality is both a retrospective and prospective process that relates not only to inquirers' knowledge base, but also concerns their anticipation of the desired outcome of the meaning conveyed by the text (Bahkin, 1981). In this process, the inquirers trade their own understanding and expectation with writers' intended meaning composed by different profiles of knowledge and experience. I call as intertextual dynamics the whole process that involves the interaction between readers' intention, their concerns of meaning, and the strategies they employ to construct meaning. The intertextual dynamics is motivated by the interplay among intertextual intention, intertextual locus, and intertextual strategy.

The intertextual intention addresses readers' orientation in processing the current texts. As a psychological construct, readers' intention mediates their attitudes and their act of reading by connecting their affective needs with their cognitive agendas (Mathewson, 1994). In addition to the influences that come from reader-based factors, the intertextual intention is exposed to such environmental motivators as the pedagogical trends, task requirement, feedback obtained from authorities and peers, and the outcomes of their expectation. Thus, the intertextual intention can be, in a way, regarded as a response to various internal and external forces that exercise influences on the readers. Moreover, the intertextual intention has a direct impact on readers' choice of "discourse stance", a notion initiated by Hartman (1991). What a reader wants to get out of the readings affects the assumptions s/he would like to make about the texts and the way s/he would like to approach the texts.

The intertextual locus is referred to as a power pack that motivates the advent of intertextual references by regulating readers' selective attentions in information processing. It is where intertextual dialogues take place on one or several specific layers of meanings. This notion

is informed by Goodman's (1994) analysis of the locus of meaning where resides the readers' sense-making process of the writers' intentions encoded in the texts. The intertextual locus is impacted by readers' intertextual intentions because, again, a reader's purpose affects considerably what information s/he would like to focus on and how the understanding would be accomplished. Meaning is theorized as something constructed from the interaction of cognition and socialization (Fairclough, 1995). Different readers may focus on different layers of meaning in reading. Even within the same layer of meaning, readers' understanding evolves as their knowledge, experiences, and expectation grow (Anders, 1996). By studying readers' construction of intertextual ties in relation to meaning construction, the analysis of intertextual locus would generate insight on the reading and inquiry processes.

The intertextual strategy relates to the methods and techniques readers use to search for intertextual ties. Borrowing Peirce's (1966) theorizing of the reasoning process behind knowledge generation, Short (1992b) surmises that intertextuality is "a process of abduction" (p. 316-317) that is triggered by readers' perception of something that cannot fit in with their schemata and is then realized through readers' employment of the "dysjunctions and connection" strategies (p. 317). In this process, as readers do not have the access to know all the contextual factors that encircle the reading events, they may not be able to make definite decisions about what constitutes the appropriate premises for reasoning. In most cases, they have to resort to their tacit knowledge to work out a heuristic scheme for inquiry. Accordingly, intertextuality can be construed as a process of tentative, enthymematic, and non-demonstrative inference with an implied premise at work.

Method

Context

The current study was conducted in a graduate class focused on the analysis and application of the major models of literacy processes during the spring semester of 1999 at the University of Arizona. As a department core requirement, this course aimed at increasing learners' awareness of the importance of reading and writing in learning, thinking and instruction by systematically introducing related theories, research and practice. The goals of this course as described in the course syllabus were to (a) provide students with scholarly scaffolding and to lead them to a professional world of greater expertise, (b) to help learners become proficient readers and writers in multicultural contexts, and (c) to give students opportunities to author inquiries in a specific area of interest within the domain of literacy that have the potential to inform their instructional practice and future research (Anders, 1999). In particular, this course examined and contrasted four representative models of literacy processes, namely the socio-psycholinguistic model (Goodman, 1994, 1996), the interactive model, the skills model and decoding model and their respective implications for instruction and assessment. The instructional format adopted a participation structure that integrated the seminar and workshop approaches to promote more rigorous learning and inquiry.

Materials and Tasks

Two books were chosen as required for this course: Literacy in Processes (Power & Hubbard, 1991) and Developing Engaged Readers in School and Home Communities (Baker, Afflerback, & Reinking, 1996). The first book includes 32 articles, reports and reflections that investigated the learning, teaching and research of literacy in varying sociocultural contexts. The other one assembles 12 writings concentrating on the "engagement perspective" of reading

research and instruction (Baker, Afflerback, & Reinking, 1996, p. ix). Language and Thinking in School (Goodman, Smith, Meredith, & Goodman, 1990) and Creating Classrooms for Authors and Inquirers (Short & Harste with Burke, 1996) were highly recommended for learners who intended to pursue an in-depth understanding of the whole language teaching philosophy and the inquiry-based learning theory and practice. The reading assignments were closely related to the theme of each class meeting and were also negotiated to better accommodate the needs and interests of most learners.

In addition, learners were provided with a wealth of readings by the instructor for temporary loan. Also, readers were encouraged to bring in their own favorite readings broadly conceived relevant to literacy for sharing with other class participants in the format of book celebration. A separate session was set up for discussing non-professional literature that dealt with literacy/biliteracy in multicultural contexts.

As part of the learning experiences, students were supposed to critically reflect on their readings in relation to their experiences. To support the emergence of a collaborative learning and inquiry community, a course listserv was established for voluntary participation in open discussions of issues, ideas and activities arising from reading. Learners had the option to communicate with all or any of the members of the listserv. For those who felt more comfortable in presenting their own thoughts in the traditional paper-writing format, a reading log was accepted as an alternative to the participation in the listserv. The instructor participated in the listserv discussions throughout the semester, responding to learners' questions and sharing with all the participants her insight on critical issues in literacy instruction and research.

Participants

In addition to the instructor, the participants of this listserv included 23 graduate students aged from 23 to 51 with diversified professional backgrounds enrolling in the master or doctoral programs in various fields of education such as Language and Literacy and Special Education. Twenty students were females and three males. Eleven participants were certified teachers, working or having worked in elementary, secondary or college classrooms. And the rest were volunteering as teacher aids in school districts or serving as private tutors. The author of the present study was also a member of the learning community. In this community, ten had prior experiences with on-line listserv discussions. 15 contributed their reflections regularly to the listserv, sharing their views with the other participants throughout the semester. Six made sporadic input to a limited audience or to the instructor only and alternated the use of listserv and journal. The rest two chose to communicate their thoughts exclusively in the journal format.

Data

The data of the study were mainly collected from the entries of written reflections and feedback participants submitted to the listserv for sharing with all members throughout the whole semester. The total number of entries amounted to ?. After the course was ended, a brief message was transmitted electronically to all the student participants consisting of questions that confirmed their frequency of participation, the coverage of the audience, and the comments on the listserv activity. A return rate of 81.82% (18 out of 22) was obtained. Tape-recorded telephone and interviews were conducted with five voluntary participants. The tape recordings were transcribed selectively in accordance with their pertinence to the focus of the study. These three data sources were utilized on a triangular basis to create possibilities to access into those

reflection entries that had been posted to a limited audience and thereby to enhance the inclusiveness and reliability of data sources.

The constant comparison method (Glaser & Strauss, 1967) frequently used in intertextuality-informed studies was employed in the data analysis of the present research to address the three research questions. Three different procedures were applied to categorize the data sources. The first procedure concerned the thematic scrutinization of the written reflections to find the patterns of inquiry themes along the semester. The second procedure pertained to the examination of readers' focus as to the construction of intertextual ties and the strategies used. The third procedure canvassed individual readers' intertextual reading and response behaviors. After the initial categorization was completed, I brought the raw data to another researcher who had never been present in the research setting and asker her to analyze the data by using the same criteria and method. Then, I compared her results with my own and made final decisions about the taxonomy of the categories.

Intertextual Intentions

The intertextual intentions identified in this study included the pragmatic, social, and the exploratory intentions. Considering intention was materialized through action, the categorization was made in terms of readers' *intertextual enactment*. Since an individual reader may recast their intentions along the listserv discussions and the change of task requirements, the intertextual intention reflected a reader's motivation in one or a series of related reading events rather than outline readers' affective profile in intertextual reading.

The Pragmatic Intertextual Intention

The pragmatic intertextual intention was concerned with the readers' purposeful zeroing in on certain intertextual ties that appeared to have higher utility values. In adopting such a

stance, readers tended to care more about the fulfillment of predetermined goals whilst showing less interest in other possible intertextual links that did not bear direct relevance to their expectations. I assumed that the pragmatic intertextual intention would be the dominant type over the others because adult learners had been characterized as "pragmatic users of texts" (Beach, 1993, p.75). However, fewer reflections were found to be authored in a predominantly pragmatic stance than expected.

What typically aroused participants' pragmatic interest was the instructional strategies and techniques that could be applied in classroom. As a student who recently came back to classroom after a lapse of eleven years, Jon[1] was apparently attracted by almost everything discussed in readings and class meetings. In reporting his tutoring experiences with a 14-year-old Hispanic student with limited English proficiency, he referred to his implementation of the idea of spider web used for concept mapping that had been analyzed in class meetings and readings.

The perceived pressure of course requirements was another spur that led students to gravitate to the "get-by" ground. In response to another participant's inquiry about the definition of external/internal validity, Maggie cited directly from handouts of a research methodology class she had attended. At the end of the message, she made explicit her intention to meet the course requirement by asking "Does this qualify as one of my fifteen [journal entries]?" (January 31, 1999). On another occasion, she expressed similar concerns as to the reaching of the specified number of reflections by remarking in an undisguised manner: "I thought of making this a separate entry (going for that 15!)" (February 6, 1999).

It was shown that while participants mainly engaged in drawing information from the texts by linking it with their personal experiences, they would at times suggest new intertextual

[1] All the participants were renamed in this study to protect their privacy.

ties by incorporating their own opinions in the processing of textual information. Apart from exploring the utility of the story-taping strategy for literature circle, Eddy proposed from her own teaching experiences the necessity to rearrange text materials by grade level so as to facilitate teachers' selection and retrieval.

The Social Intertextual Intention

The social intention of intertextuality was identified with readers' tendency to seek acceptance and support from other participants by attuning themselves to the general tones of discussion, and thereby channeling their individual voice and impact in interaction. Part of the socialization process was realized through the sharing of the topics of discussion. The major topics covered in the listserv forum that involved most participants included literacy instruction in multicultural contexts, the comparison and contrast of different research paradigms, the pedagogical and political implications of the phonics/whole language debate, and the history, definition and implementation of process writing. Literature discussions were magnetized on such books of readers' own choices as Other People's Children (Delpit, 1995) and Savage Inequalities (Kozol, 1991).

In terms of the modes of discussion, the most frequent method of presentation was recognized as readers' the exaltation of the inspirations they derived from reading in order to elicit echoic response from others. That is, participants would like to sensitize the "wake-up" effect of ideas and thoughts articulated in the texts on their thinking and understanding. In reading the article "Inner Design" by Hubbard (1991) that investigates readers' mental representations of their reading and thinking processes, Eddy wrote: "This chapter reminded me to cue in to the mental and verbal processes that are going on with my own students. It was a bit wake-up call for me—finding out how they think, not just what they think."(January 25, 1999).

In a similar vein, Betty expressed her amazement on the positive effect of using writing as a mean of punishment,

> "Something interesting that you pointed out was how writing was used as a punishment. I remember doing that or seeing classmates go through it, but it never dawned on me how it could have affected many students love for writing" (February 25, 1999).

The second kind of social intertextual intention was reflected in readers' mindful monitoring of their interest and ways of presentation so as to make them compatible with the general tone of discussion. Fearing the consequence of being seen as irrelevant, Linda chose to send her reflections only to the instructor before she acquainted herself with the content of discussion. She seemed to care desperately about how her thoughts would be taken. Upon the encouragement of Professor Patricia Anders, the instructor, to talk to a broader audience with less concern of face, she felt less threatened and began to share her views with peers later in the semester. In contrast, Bertha was quite enthusiastic about associating with class readings her findings about student reading process derived from the use of the Likert scale. Yet when she sensed the challenge about the validity and reliability of her study, she realized the limits of the scale instrument and turned instead to delving deeper into the differences in readers' reactions to the character, plot and the setting of a given text. Also, readers tended to gravitate toward the safer side by sharing their similar experiences with others. Maggie told her high school stories akin to those of Sylvia's to reinforce the argument against the deteriorating public education system.

The last representation of social intertextual intention had to do with readers' communication of perceived vulnerability and sharing it with others. Sylvia alluded to the

pathological history of her maternal family to echo the feeling of vulnerability expressed by Rose in her book celebration about the threat of cancer to her family.

The Exploratory Intertextual Intention

The third kind of intertextual intention concerned readers' motives to explore the unknown or bizarre in terms of their individual knowledge base in order to inform their understanding through constructing intertextual links. This type of intention pitched the keynote of the listserv discussions. Often, readers would examine the same or similar topic recursively as discussion proceeded.

The first variety of the exploratory intertextual intention involved readers' pursuit of an answer or an interpretation for a concept, problem or issue that had been registered among their primary concerns. Bertha raised a question regarding the definition of process writing, a term which she had heard from a previous graduate class. Later, she turned her inquiry into a research project based on the input she gathered from the listserv. While some readers were interested in asking decontextualized questions, others made efforts to locate their specific concerns in a meaningful context. In order to comprehend Paulo Freire's recognition of "teaching adults to read and write as a political act" (p .25), Betty drew on both her childhood memory and her adult reading experiences to frame her question. She wondered whether adult literacy education was always a political act irrespective of the presence or absence of adults' intention to transform the world. Also, she compared Jane Elliot, whom she saw on a television speech, with Freire and further asked the possibility of teaching children to read and write in a political way. Then she connected Freire's philosophy with the current debate over phonics versus whole language, wondering which camp he belonged to.

The second variety of exploratory intertextual intention involved readers' interrogation of their own conceptions, or the ideas and opinions that came from the readings or other readers to gain a better understanding of the reality. In response to David Berliner's keynote address on press and education, Betty revalued her belief in the accuracy and reliability of news reports. She recollected that once she did encounter the apparent contradictions between the news story headline and its contents. Yet, she thought it might be her own problem of comprehension instead of attributing it to the press. It was, however, important to note that self-interrogation did not necessarily lead to the change of beliefs systems. On another occasion, when Betty came across the "Recipe for Process" (Funkhouser, 1991), a short piece that gave teachers tips on class organization, she immediately realized the disparities between the appropriate number of students for a whole language class suggested in a videotape she had seen, and the number specified in the current reading. She remained skeptical, among other things, about whether the numeric change of the student population would result in according alternations in the organizational planning of the class.

On the other hand, readers would challenge those counterintuitive ideas, thoughts and opinions by falling back on their own personal and/or professional databank. Linda tested with her own student population the truth value of one of the key assumptions that marked the difference between whole-language and non-whole-language teaching philosophy. She argued that most of her students enrolling in special educational programs had far more difficulty in learning than those physically healthy. This fact seemed to give the lie to what whole language advocates judged it unacceptable that "believ[ing] there are substantial numbers of learners who have difficulty learning to read or write for any physical or intellectual reason." (Goodman, 1991, p. 88). While acknowledging the advantages of inquiry-based curriculum, Anna was

doubtful about the feasibility of implementation in elementary classrooms. In particular, she was concerned about the support teachers needed to provide students in order to ensure their normal progress in self-directed learning conditions. From her perspective, neither skills-oriented nor the inquiry-based programs sufficed to propel students' continued growth. Yet, she did not suggest an alternative scheme what she considered ideal for instruction.

The third form of exploratory intertextual intention treated of readers' association of the current inquiry topics to issues of their interest. Many of the intertextual links were created by establishing analogous relationships between two issues. In commenting on Joe's elaboration of teachers' attitudes toward learning, Bertha referred back to her earlier discussion with regard to children's aversion to learning and applied it to the case of teachers. She wrote, " I guess this puts a new twist on Dr. Anders' question, ' why kids wouldn't be happy learning? We could also be asking why teachers wouldn't be happy learning." (February 21, 1999). Readers' creation of new intertextual ties would bring about their conceptual change. Affected by Lisa Delpit's (1995) voting against peer conference among low-income African-American high school students, Betty cited one of her friends' similar impression on student-initiated writing workshop approach to project her own doubts about its effectiveness.

These three kinds of exploratory intentions were, in their final analysis, motivated by two learning orientations, discovery-based and inquiry-based orientations. Short & Harste with Burke (1996) provide an excellent explanation that helps distinguish the two constructs. Readers who assumed the first stance believed that there was a single answer to any problems posed for solving, and the exact meaning lies in the hands of the writer. This mentality was best illustrated in the following excerpt of a participant's reflection, "Words are like paint; sometimes they become art. When they do become art, we only give our own interpretations. If we really want to

be certain of their underlying meaning we need to ask the artist." (January 28, 1999). In contrast, readers who were affiliated to the inquiry-based orientation conceived human understanding of a process that evolved along the gradual unraveling of "the complexities of issues" (Short & Harste with Burke, 1996, p. 51). Therefore, inquiry allowed for the coexistence of different or even contradicting interpretations so long as they were logically acceptable. It follows that meaning was construed as an on-going event of negotiation fraught with uncertainties. Holding this view, Lisa questioned the consequence of "close reading" urged in Other People's Children (Delpit, 1995), "(I am) concerned when writers are explicitly asking the audience to read carefully in order not to misinterpret their position and thinking. Is this a close reading issue rather than a reader-response issue?" (April 26, 1999). From her vantage point, close reading per se would disenfranchise readers' initiative in authoring meaning construction and thus rendered them hapless deciphers of the text. She deemed that readers as "whole people" read "with both heart and mind concurrently engaged." (April 28, 1999).

The analysis of the intertextual intentions indicated the varieties of readers' orientations toward the building of connections. Upon closer examination, these three variants of intertextual intentions interacted in a way that each performed a well-defined role. The exploratory intention served readers' intellectual needs, and was actualized through various contacts among readers in the collaborative learning environment. In the meantime, these contacts helped readers accomplish their goals of socialization. The results of these transactions were helpful in fulfilling readers' pragmatic needs.

Intertextual Loci

Readers mobilized intertextual ties around certain intertextual loci to focus their response. The intertextual loci found in this paper consisted of the schema-driven locus[2] that evoked readers' echoic intertextual response to the textual information that was perceived to resonate with their own conceptions; the schema-framing locus that compelled readers to concentrate on the accommodation of new concepts and ideas, and the schema-counteracting locus that called for readers' attention on the anomalies in texts. Here the term schema is used in a broad sense as to the inclusion of social, personal, and psychological schema (Fiske & Taylor, 1991). The intertextual loci were categorized based on how readers engaged their schemata in the intertextual processing of the textual information.

The Schema-driven Intertextual Locus

The schema-driven intertextual locus dealt with chiefly information that seemed compatible with readers' existing schematic structure and appeared to have affective appeals to them. The intertextual process motivated by the schema-driven locus involved readers' confirming and substantiating of the known information by incorporating further evidence collected from a wider range of life experiences. Most readers associated with their primary or secondary experiences that corresponded in one way or another to the current readings and/or discussions. For instance, Donald Graves' (1991) essay "All Children can Write" reminded Debbie of a lecture she attended recently then. She sounded as if she were captivated by Graves' assertion of the importance of meaning in writing, which happened to coincide with the theme of that lecture. Sylvia contributed to the discussion of classroom atmosphere a story she learnt from another class to critique the "the-quieter-the-better" misconception retained by some prejudiced educators.

[2] The term "schema-driven" was borrowed from Goodman & Goodman's (1994) analysis of the

Another indication of the schema-driven intertextual locus applied to readers' manipulation of those experiences that best articulated their affective or emotional responses. Being once an art major, Bertha was enchanted by the opening paragraph of Paulo Freire's reflection (1991) "The Importance of the Act of Reading" that depicted, from her lens, a landscape of a culture that struck the deep chord in her artistic bosom. Donald Murray's (1991) "Getting under the Lightening" supported Eddy to spell out her view loud and clear: "Perhaps criticism is just the nature of human beast given the setup of our classroom and the assigned roles of teachers and students." (February 12, 1999).

It was found that the schema-driven intertextual locus usually carried the social-oriented intertextual intention. As the above example showed, the word "our" was chosen to provoke parallel reactions from other readers to the bane of the instructional culture. Maggie assumed an analogous stance to Sylvia regarding the unfairness disclosed in Savage Inequalities (Kozol, 1991). She made no bones about her hatred on the tracking system still prevalent in some school districts to call other participants' attention to the rivaling imparities duplicated in today's education.

The schema-driven intertextual locus tended to thrive on the experiential and interpersonal axis (Goodman, 1996) of the meaning system. Readers dialogued their experiences, emotions and expectations with the writer and other readers. Working in a bilingual classroom that exacted on the instructor a threshold level of proficiency in Spanish, Fern found most illuminating "the honest insight" revealed by Tim Gillespie's observation of the "challenges and issues that teachers face". She expected that "other participants would share their problems and solutions with her" (February 3, 1999).

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psychological mechanism of the miscuing processes (p. 115-120).

The Schema-framing Intertextual Locus

When readers came across a new concept or idea apparently incomprehensible to them, intertextual links would be yielded around most productive textual resources for meaning construction. The schema acquisition could begin from either the propositional level or the textual level of the meaning system. The former handled the lexical sphere of the meaning while the latter focused on the meaning in context. Bertha was curious about the idea of "Glasser Circle" which she considered might be useful for her instructional practice. As an avid learner, she asked for an explanation of the term immediately she finished reading Karen's description of the participation events in class. Some readers did know the definition of concepts; however, they struggled to untangle the intricacy embedded in how a series of concepts were intertwined in a meaningful context. Betty raised inquiries about the notional and practical differences between the qualitative-based case study and the quantitative-based case study. One of her central concerns was that whether or not the distinction was made on the basis of the researchers' release of the findings and analyses to the participants/subjects being studied. This research outcome suggested that advanced learners were aware of the complexity in concept mapping.

It was seen that individual readers followed consistent patterns in constructing intertextual ties related to the schema-acquisition locus. Some readers attended more to the decontextualized meaning of a certain concept, thinking that knowledge is best learnt through the compartmentalization of a whole notion into discrete constituents. Comprehending those constituents presupposed the acquisition of knowledge. A precise explanation was available for every concept; hence meaning should be stretched to improve the accuracy of understanding. In contrast, others invested more energy on probing the structural relationships of concepts within a

given content area. They adopted a more holistic stance toward the meaning system and looked on knowledge generation as a heuristic process of construction.

The Schema-counteracting Intertextual Locus

In collaborative inquiry-based reading, readers were empowered to revalue well-established beliefs and assumptions through productive interaction with other participants. The intertextual links that were configured around the schema-contradicting locus created and mediated in the meantime tensions between the reader's world and the world envisioned by others. With broad life experiences and developed capacities of thinking and judgement, adult readers in this study demonstrated unmistakable interest in engaging in discussions over controversial issues of particular relevance to their professional development. The anomaly they discerned did not only seem to be at variance with their schemata, but also seemed to traverse the textual coherence at least from their perspectives. After reading Harste, Woolward & Burke's (1991) case report on Alison, Betty, an experienced K-1 teacher, was not convinced that the assumption phrased by the authors truly captured what Alison's teacher believed. By contrasting the assumptions and the evidence available in the text, she critiqued the authors' position:

> Assumption 1: One of the first tasks in learning to read and write is to be able to discriminate visually between the letters of the alphabet.
>
> I don't think it's fair to say that this assumption derives from the activities that Alison was bringing home. If this was [were] the case, then the teacher would be doing a lot more visual discrimination exercises than underwriting, overwriting, and copying from the board. They don't mention that she is doing anything to help children discriminate between b and d or p and q or other

letters with which some children have visual discrimination difficulty" (February 27, 1999).

It was evident that Betty's concept schema for the concept of learning activities for visual discrimination differed drastically from the authors' conceptions. Instead of modifying her own schema, she challenged the authors' viewpoints by bringing to light the self-contradictions in their argument. By doing so, she hinted that the alphabetical distinction might not always be detrimental especially for those who had real difficulty in distinguishing letters with resembling configurations.

Indeed, readers' experiences, knowledge, belief, and expectations counseled the point of reference (Langer, 1994) that engendered an overarching frame for their decision making. When Carol read that learners needed to be aware of the variability in writing in different phases of the day, she cast doubt on the applicability of the statement by verifying with her own journal writing experiences.

However, well-crafted elaboration that entailed substantive countervailing input would bring about adult readers' revision or even blanket alternations of their conceptions. This finding lent support to Chambliss and Garner's (1996) discussion of the conditions that precipitated readers' change of mind. The conference with Yetta Goodman assisted Jane to realize that the limitations of Other People's Children (Delpit, 1995) in examining issues that concerned socioeconomic classes. She further suggested that the writer's deliberate clustering of people along social strata would only exacerbate class clashes. Likewise, Jenny, who was previously overwhelmed by Delpit's eloquent promotion of skill-based educational paradigm, revisited her conviction after her meeting

with Yetta Goodman, which she considered as "both informative and thought provoking" (April 17, 1999).

The schema-counteracting locus would generate an alternative rather than a conflictive lens that provided readers with a more comprehensive perspective of a certain issue. The notion of teacher research, which did not appear to be part of his experience, made Joe hang on to the methodological dimension of teacher research and thus separated it from instruction. Patty's elucidation of the reciprocal interactions between teaching and research in the process of knowledge construction enabled him to envisage the integration of instruction and inquiry as a synthetic whole.

Intertextual Strategies

The intertextual strategies utilized by readers included cross-referencing, multiple mapping, and co-construction. The distinctions were made on the basis of the way that readers manufactured intertextual links and manipulated textual information. These three strategies were harnessed alternatively or simultaneously to facilitate meaning construction in intertextual reading and inquiry. Connections were detected among the constructs of interextual strategy, intertextual locus and intertextual intention that propelled the operation of intertextual dynamics.

Cross-referencing

Cross-referencing is realized through readers' moving alternatively and repetitively among different textual resources to weave intertextual ties that would spark off novel insights. By virtue of this strategy, readers re-contextualized the meaning previously realized in the text. According to the resulting texture of intertextuality, cross-referencing could be classified into two kinds: juxtapositional cross-referencing and

integrative cross-referencing, which correspond to the dichotomy of "manifest intertextuality" and "constitutive intertextuality" (Fairclough, 1992). The former often led to a predominantly coordinate structuring of various sources of information cited whereby textual closures were maintained to signify the independence of each individual text. In contrast, the latter bred more varied framing designs and the textual boundaries tended to blur.

The juxtapositional cross-referencing strategy occurred most frequently in readers' construction of experiential intertextual ties. Reading the article "Multiple Entries into Inquiry: Dissolving the Boundaries between Research and Teaching" (Jevis, Carr, Lockhart, & Roger, 1996) called upon Betty's pleasures and perils she lived through in carrying out teacher research. She profiled a chronological account of her experiences with teacher research in various settings. Following that, she referred back to the article and commented on two points with respect to children's diverging receptivity to instruction and the possibility to forge collaboration in research.

The juxtapositional cross-referencing was usually motivated by the schema-driven intertextual locus. That is, readers sought to assimilate new information by mapping it to their knowing. Yet, not all the information could easily fit into readers' schemata due to the variability in backgrounds between the writer and the reader. Even for the same writer/reader, variations in meaning construction were inevitable owing to personal developmental reasons. Hence, some of the new information remained structurally apart from the known information until schematic reconstruction was made.

The integrative cross-referencing strategy was often employed in the conceptual analysis of certain theoretical constructs. Joe resorted to the sociopsychological analysis

of schema development to explore the countervailing forces that impede learners' conceptual change. In particular, he instituted the alliance between Stahl et al's (1996) observation of students' conceptual growth and Fiske & Taylor's (1991) theorizing of schematic alternation, which did not seem to have ostensible connections.

Oftentimes, these two kinds of strategies were set in motion in concert along the intertextual process and led to the schematic adaptation. In working on an inquiry project on process writing, Bertha first attempted to allot to pre-planned categories the information she gathered. Later, she discovered that process writing was not only an instructional approach, but also the philosophy of writing. Consequently, she reorganized her paper so as to incorporate the theoretical and historical perspectives of process writing.

Multiple Mapping

The same experiences or knowledge could be applied differently to build intertextual links in various contexts. This strategy was called multiple mapping. Twice Bertha described the growth of an at-risk student who was later known to be gravely ill. Gnawed by the feeling of guilty about the way she treated the student in the computer lab, she reflected that teachers should strive to gain a better understanding of their students' personal struggles and emotional wants. In her opinion, what students aspired was to the "encouragement and direction, not chastisement" (February 21, 1999). To promote students' learning motivations, teachers needed to take the initiative to build a felicitous ambience to promote more engaged learning and inquiry.

The identical textual substance (Bloome & Egan-Robertson, 1993) used in different intertextual contexts would result in varied intertextual ties with contextual

differences. When the textual information appeared isomorphic with readers' profile, personalized associations were more likely to come off. The first situation in which Bertha constructed intertextual ties was about a "problem student" that appeared in Hubbard's interview with Tim Gilliespie (1991) whose thinking, however, intrigued his instructor to revisit the compatibility of school literacy tasks with the requirement of society. She portrayed with vivid details of the change of the student's dressing to highlight her metamorphosis from a frequent class "ditcher" displaying virtually no interest in learning to a well-disciplined student mainstreamed into the regular class. The image she cast obviously shared prototypical characteristics with that example depicted in the readings. Yet, the intertextual links were complicated when Bertha brought up the message that the girl was diagnosed as suffering from Sickle Cell Anemia. This poignant message gave rise to a more fundamental concern of the mission of school literacy. It was felt from Bertha's viewpoint that schools needed to shift from the provincial consideration of learning to read and write in the "right way" to the more thoughtful guidance of students to help them achieve overall personal and intellectual development. The second situation in which Bertha used the same example to engineer intertextual ties addressed a more general educational topic "why kids wouldn't be happy learning?". In this case, she focused more on the public meaning (Rosenblatt, 1978) of students' detestation of learning by exploring the effects of various pedagogical factors, including curriculum, workload and teaching methods on students' learning attitudes.

It was found that readers would abstract the same autobiographical experience in different ways to formulate different intertextual links in relation to different contexts. In responding to Jervis, Carr, Lockhart & Roger's (1996) paper "Multiple Entries into

Inquiry: Dissolving the Boundaries between Research and Teaching", Betty made a similar account of her involvement in teacher research. However, Nancy Atwell's (1991) reflection "Wondering to Pursue: The Writing Teacher as Researcher" appeared to tear her between whether or not to do research in her second grade classroom. Relating to her Sisyphus experiences in implementing classroom-based research, Betty communicated her intention to rally support from colleagues and the community.

Co-construction

The listserv discussions made it possible for participants to connect their own reflections of the readings with others' response and feedback to make sense of the text(s). Readers would expand each other's input by filling in richer information, sharing their personal stories, and prompting each other to facilitate the intertextual association. The intertextual links were extended and strengthened through fruitful transaction. This dynamic process was designated as co-construction. Usually, readers employed expressions like "Well from what I have seen and experienced", "I'd like to relate a personal experience to signify what you just mentioned" or "I can't agree more" to introduce their opinions and to establish a reader friendly tone for dialogue.

Typically, the intertextual ties were webbed around an issue that captured the interest of most participants. Jon brought up a touching story narrating the rebirth of a fifth-grade underachiever effected by a dedicated teacher. The response from Eddy was focused on the importance for teachers to fathom students' motives, needs and potentials in connection to their ethnic and family backgrounds and their personal development history. Rose reported her strategies of educating a resistant African-American girl,

emphasizing the role of mutual confidence in fostering constructive teacher-student relationships.

It was noted that the disparities in professional experiences did not seem to cause any barrier for readers' participation in co-construction. Those who had not yet started teaching officially contributed their experiences and thinking to the enrichment of the discussions in an equally illuminating way. Maggie distinguished those teachers "we want to be" and those "we do not [want to be]". By her testimony, good teachers "believed in students and told them to shoot the moon", whereas inconsiderate teachers did well only in the regard of "cracking the ruler on students' knuckles while belittling their potential". (April 7, 1999). Echoing Maggie, Sylvia provided two examples for each kind of teachers she had worked with during her elementary and secondary school years.

It happened that readers would offer evidence to verify others' references to enhance the reliability of the informational sources or to provide a synthesis of the discussions. To help Betty recall the study she quoted from Other People's Children (Delpit, 1995), Jane checked out the exact page number. In talking about the kinds of case study, Lisa added to Eddy's and Maggie's interpretations by introducing Merriam's (1988) elaboration on case study. Based on the students' discussions, Patty Anders prepared an integration of the criteria for distinguishing the qualitative study from the quantitative study.

As indicated in the above examples, the co-construction strategy often functioned as a bridge to facilitate readers' transition from making schema-driven intertextual links to creating schema-framing intertextual ties. Equally important, the process of co-

construction provided readers with greater possibilities to fulfill their needs of socialization in exploring issues of common interest.

Discussions and Implications

This study has illustrated intertextuality as a dynamic force that promotes reading, thinking and inquiry in a collaborative learning environment. Reading and inquiry intertextually has shown to be internalized in the meaning construction process that does not only raise readers' critical consciousness of their personal voice and undertones (Freire, 1970), but also helps them establish varying tangible or invisible interpersonal ties with a broader learning and inquiry community. Hence, intertextuality entails more than a structural maneuver of textual resources by means of structural and/or spatial rearrangement and redeployment. Rather, it mediates intricate human, social, cultural, and historical relationships through cognition and interaction within and among individuals. The intertextual intentions reflect readers' personal, affective, professional, and scholarly needs, and dictate in a way their engagement in reading and inquiry. As readers' convictions, interests, expectations and agendas come into play in conjunction with other environmental factors when they approach the texts, readers are subject to their preoccupations and prejudices. In the actual intertextual process, schema-oriented loci were noticed to be set to work, albeit without readers' conscious activation. Contingent upon readers' identification of the focus to develop their responses, proper intertextual strategies are called in to select appropriate information from readers' databank to construct connections. Readers' comprehension is accomplished concurrently with the understanding of the intertextual meaning that emerges from the contacts among various texts. The intertextual meaning constitutes part of readers' knowledge-in-action (Applebee, 1996) that is employed in transaction with the texts and the world. The outcomes of readers' intertextual inquiry supply feedback that help them evaluate

the effectiveness of their intertextual strategies, the selection of intertextual loci and the appropriateness of their intertextual intentions. The dynamics of intertextuality is graphically represented in the following (see Figure 1, p. 51).

It is felt that investigating the intertextual processes in the context of listserv discussion, as a novel undertaking, appears not only to confer enrichment to intertextuality-related research, but also beneficial in utilizing modern technology to enhance learning, inquiry and instruction. By linking electronically the messages distributed, responded, or forwarded in mail correspondence within the circle, listserv generates a form of extended text with higher information density, increases the flexibility of intertextual processes, and pushes learners to develop their capacities of critical thinking and the strategies of communication. Differing from hypertext designed with limited options of paved paths and for users' participation, the listserv highlights the active involvement of its participants in the on-going discussion, and helps "develop a pedagogy of hypertext consistent with a [reader] response approach" (Beach, 1993, p. 39). Also, it encourages readers' to be more selective and discriminate in processing a profuse amount of information. Although it was presumed by a few readers to be less personal than face-to face discussion, listserv nonetheless has a number of unpaired advantages in nourishing intertexutal reading and inquiry when utilized as a forum for open discussion.

Firstly, listserv discussions provide readers with equalized opportunities to participate in collaborative learning and inquiry environments that thrive on diversity. Every participant represents an asset to the community and works productively with others to enhance critical understanding and reflection. The emphasis on diversity proved to be crucial in accommodating different vehicles of thinking and verbalizing. Readers were impressed by the vast differences in presentational modes—"from very casual to finely crafted" (Lisa, September 25, 1999). More

significantly, the advocacy of diversity considerably alleviates readers' anxiety of being criticized and abates the tension deriving from the disparities in orientations. Indeed, diversity countenances more varied and dynamic forms of collaboration in undertaking reading tasks. Participants can avail themselves of comparing, contrasting and connecting their own interpretations and responses with those of others' in constructing the meaning of the readings. The multiple perspectives generated through this process are particularly useful to build collective knowledge to be shared equally by all the participants. For individual readers, reciprocal informing expands their personal horizons and enables them to grow along the process of intertextuality.

Secondly, as its nature suggests, listserv is developed to facilitate focused and in-depth discussions on a certain topic or issue. It does not only make it technologically possible the reconfiguration of textual materials, but also produces higher demands on the mobilizing of information resources for deeper understanding. Intertextuality is therefore valued and encouraged in this learning context. It is recommended for readers to "make[ing] good connections between the class readings with which readers are familiar" (Patty, January 21, 1999). Furthermore, readers' intertextual behavior would be replicated in other readers' reading enactment, thereby forming an intertextual web that would effect more avenues for inquiry and exploration.

Thirdly, the listserv discussion format changes the communication pattern by lifting the constraints on the length, pace and the time of participant input. Landow (1997) notes that in traditional class or group discussions students have to limit their talk so as not to dominate other learners' opportunities of participation. Concomitantly, proper adjustment of ways of presentation is needed as a response to the cues received from the audience. Although this might

be helpful in promoting communication and avoiding misunderstanding, the thinking process that generally requires higher power of concentration is, however, distracted by attending to the environmental factors. Also, speakers have the pressure to respond contemporaneously to others' questions and comments. These confines no longer exist in listserv discussions because participants can effectively control all of these factors and produce consequently higher-quality intertextual response.

This study suggests that intertextuality is in essence a process whereby readers seek relevance among available sources of information. In light of Sperber & Wilson's (1995) hypothesis of human communication, all communicators have the tendency to search for connections between the new information and the known information. It is of the nature of human cognition to make their verbal production as relevant as possible to the current communicative events. Meaning is constructed when contextual effects become discernable. Instead of relying on the deconstruction of one meaning system to support another meaning system, the intertextual meaning intrinsically interacts with and builds on each contributing meaning system. And in the meantime the respective meaning system exists in its own right. It is revealed that human beings do not labor for maximum contextual effects; rather they attend to adequate contextual effects that suffice their comprehension of the intended meaning to form optimal relevance (Sperber & Wilson, 1995).

This holds true for reading in which readers especially proficient readers incline to spend the least effort (Zipf, 1949) to achieve effective understanding. Readers' selection of textual materials and their espousal of discourse stance are compatible with this overarching orientation. Normally, readers would activate information that costs minimal cognitive energy yet capable of buttressing readers' meaning construction. Thus, it is recognized as arbitrary the classification

scheme of textual resources devised by Hartman (1995) in terms of their physical proximity to the current text(s) being read. Rather, conceptual proximity as perceived by readers appears to be the principal determiner as to which textual materials are foregrounded. The high consistency in the types of intertextual links that characterized individual readers' discourse stances as found in Hartman's studies (1991, 1995) can be viewed alternatively as a result of the functioning of conceptual proximity.

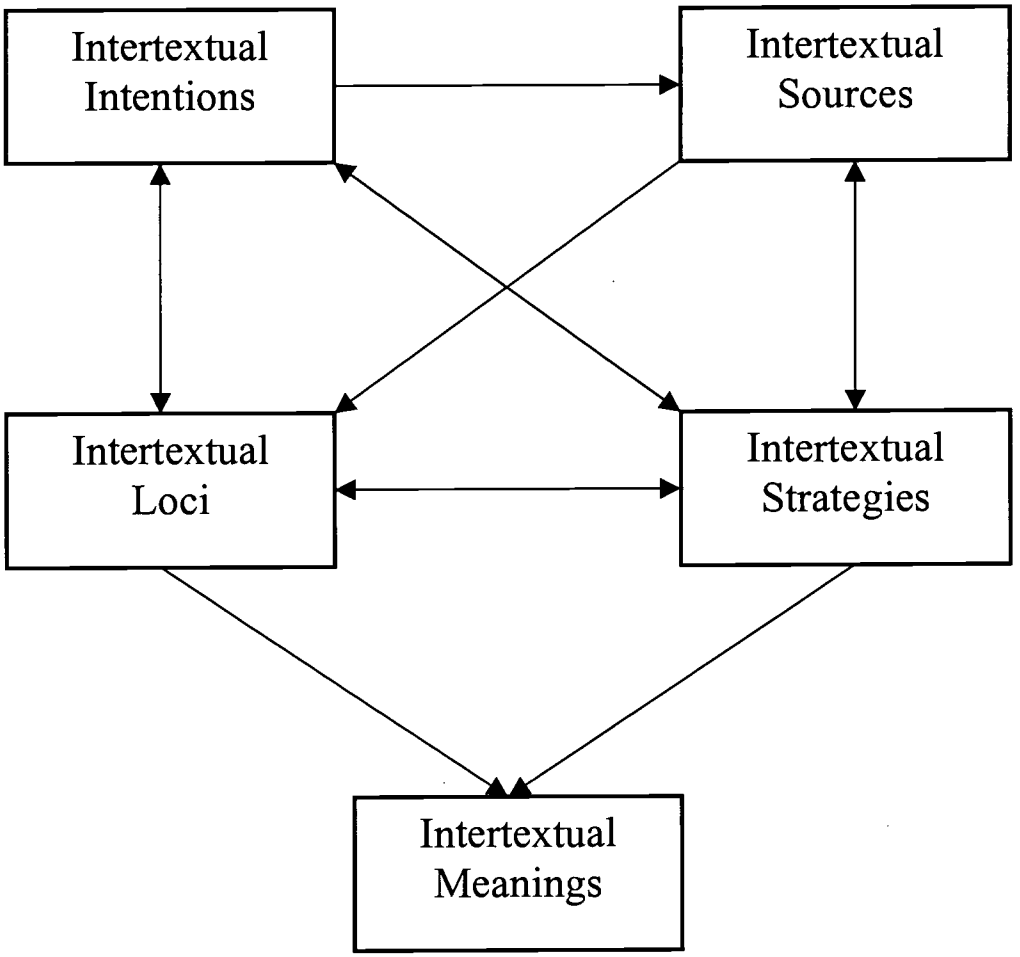
Conclusion

Given the crucial roles of intertextuality in thinking and understanding, the present investigation addresses the intertextual dynamics in the reading and inquiry processes of advanced adult readers in the listserv discussions by identifying their intertextual intentions, intertextual loci and their intertextual strategies. The revelation of the nature of intertextual links readers construct in the process of reading and inquiry in a collaborative learning environment has the potential to inform an emerging intertextual perspective of the reading process.

However, this study had a number of limitations that should be mentioned. As the investigator was a member of the culture who had involved in the whole process of listserv interaction, personal bias might color the report and analysis of the research outcomes. In addition, since not all the participants shared their journal entries with the entire population, the access to data sources was limited, which might have otherwise resulted in different analyses and interpretations of the findings. Thirdly, because the research was conducted in a naturally occurring group, the characteristics of the participants might not be balanced. What is prominent in this study is the gender composition. The fact that the overwhelming majority of the population are females may limit the transferability of the study.

Further research is needed to investigate (a) how the intertextual consequences that readers perceive affect their reading and inquiry processes, (b) whether genre differences cause any changes in the operation of the intertextual dynamics, (c) how individual intertextual processes differ from the collaborative intertextual processes, (d) how aesthetic reading and efferent reading are integrated in the intertextual processes, and (e) what roles teachers play in collaborative inquiry-based learning.

Figure 1: Intertextual Dynamics



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