SECONDARY ENGLISH CONTENT LITERACY: TWO CASE STUDIES IN A PUBLIC SCHOOL SETTING

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Graduate College of the
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In partial fulfillment of
the requirements for
the degree of
DOCTOR OF EDUCATION
May, 2004

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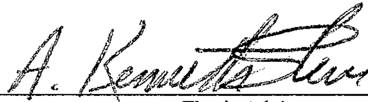

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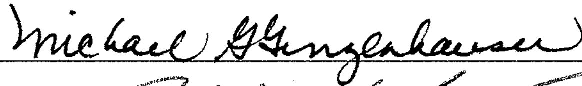

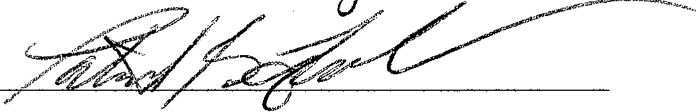

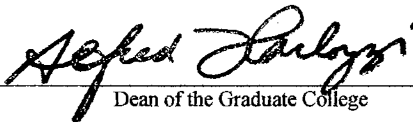

Dean of the Graduate College

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

This dissertation was completed with the help and support of many individuals. I would like to express my grateful appreciation to the teachers and the students of the first and second period English classes and other school personnel at North High School. Although I am not giving their names, they were wonderful people who welcomed me to their school and shared their honest perceptions about English, reading, and daily school life and made this study possible.

My sincere appreciation and thanks to Dr. Kenneth Stern, my advisor, whose help, answers, and advice has made completion of this dissertation possible. My committee members: Dr. Patrick Forsyth, whose questions have made me think and analyze what I was trying to evaluate and learn during this study, Dr. Mike Gunzenhauser, for his knowledge of qualitative research and the background knowledge and confidence I gained studying with him, and Dr. Kouider Mokhtari, for his knowledge and support of the importance of balanced reading instruction and reading instruction beyond the primary grades.

Special thanks go to my son, Phillip, for his patience and understanding with having a mother who has been going to school for most of his life.

Most of all, thank you to my husband, David Chapman, for encouraging me to advance my education and providing me the time and emotional support required to bring this study to its completion.

And finally, I would like to thank my employer for granting me an extended leave of absence that allowed me to have the time to complete this study.

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

Background

The No Child Left Behind Act of 2001 illustrates our national concern with literacy, but, while testing occurs at all grade levels, funding for remediation is focused at the primary level. Literacy development continues through high school and beyond with increasingly expanding and complex literacy skills needed in secondary school and college. These content area literacy skills can be taught as students progress through school when literature and texts they read become more and more complex and learning becomes more and more an independent endeavor. Content classrooms are heavily populated with students for whom literacy tasks are a challenge, and, for decades, middle and high school content area teachers have needed to deal directly with the reading problems facing their students as they complete textbook assignments and related writing tasks (Romine & McKenna, 1996). Educators may agree that reading, writing, and comprehension of text are essential elements of instruction in the middle and high school setting; however, instruction that specifically focuses on helping students learn from text is often not a priority for secondary school teachers. Beginning reading may look like mature reading, but it is quite different. Beginning reading has much to do with phonology and letter and word perception, but as reading develops, it has more to do with

language and reasoning (Chall, 1996; Clinton, 2002).

State departments of education have responded to reading concerns by requiring prospective teachers to take content area reading methods courses. The number of states requiring such coursework has increased significantly over the years. In 1984, Farrell and Cirrincione found that 30 states had a reading requirement for content teachers in all areas and five more states had a requirement for language arts teachers only. Romine and McKenna (1996) conducted a survey to determine if this trend had continued. The authors found that 37 states (and the District of Columbia) reported at least one course for middle and/or high school teacher certification in one or more content subjects. Interestingly, nine states had added the requirement since 1983, while six states had eliminated the requirement. Follow-up inquiries found that, in all these states, there was a system in which the state departments specified competencies that practicing teachers must possess rather than specific courses they must take. Teacher training institutions devised approved plans for ensuring that these competencies are developed. One of two approaches was used with some institutions retaining their content area reading course requirements while others built literacy-related issues into the curriculum of content-specific methods courses. Contacts with the seven remaining states showed that four had addressed the issue through competency requirements that included reading and literacy issues. All together 47 states and the District of Columbia required either specific coursework or had established a competency in reading methods for all or some of their middle and high school teachers. Only one state, Wisconsin, had mandated that middle schools and high schools employ certified reading teachers in reasonable numbers (Allington 2001).

Coursework included in secondary teacher training falls within three broad categories: (a) content courses (e.g., biology, chemistry, history, math, English), (b) pedagogy courses (e.g., foundations and educational psychology), and (c) courses which focus upon linking content and pedagogy (e.g., methods courses and content reading courses). Content reading courses are among the few courses that forge direct links between content and pedagogy. Content reading courses mount a frontal attack on a teacher-centered pedagogy and remove the teacher from the traditional position of center stage in the classroom. Being removed from the role of sole purveyor and arbiter of content is an unusual and uncomfortable position for most secondary teachers since the predominant mode has been highly teacher-centered (Stewart, 1990; Stewart & O'Brien, 1989).

Today the literacy development of early adolescents and teenagers is more critical than ever. Recent national assessments of reading and writing demonstrate that we cannot afford to marginalize content literacy learning at any level of development. The National Assessment of Educational Progress [NAEP] in Reading (National Center for Educational Statistics, 2002), for example, supports what many educators know: large groups of U.S. eighth graders (around 43 percent) and twelfth graders (around 38 percent) are capable of reading at only a basic level of performance, e.g. reading for details, identifying main ideas, and recognizing relationships among ideas. Fewer than five percent of students surveyed in grades four, eight, and twelve perform at an advanced level where they are required to examine, extend, and elaborate the meaning of literary and informative texts. Results of the NAEP in Writing (1998) report that students, even in grade twelve, had considerable difficulty moving beyond minimal

performance to more elaborate writing tasks that require a higher level of coherence and detail to support points made in writing.

Chall's (1996) analyses of the Scholastic Aptitude Test [SAT] tests from 1947 to 1974 found that there had been some decline in the complexity of the reading selections. There seems to be compelling evidence that a positive relationship exists between the level of challenge of textbooks used by pupils and the scores achieved on the SAT verbal tests. During the 1980s and early 1990s the College Board and Educational Testing Service [ETS] reported some increases in SAT scores, but the greatest increases were on quantitative test scores. Verbal test scores showed some increases, but they were quite small and have essentially remained below the scores prior to the 1960s. Evidence from other sources including various surveys of college and adult reading show an increase in the remedial reading courses at the college level. This may be a reflection of the increase in first-generation college students, but it might also be that students are not, as a group, as proficient in reading and writing as those of similar background who attended college in previous years (Chall, 1996; Maxwell, 2000). Results such as these suggest that we need literacy programs that recognize and value the developmental nature of reading and writing across all age groups. Current educational debates over how children learn to read and write only serve to highlight the lack of attention and commitment given to adolescent learners and their literacy needs.

I chose to study reading education as a result of a lifetime love of reading. Reading was a natural part of instruction in the elementary school where I began my teaching career. When I began working on my master's degree, it seemed a logical area of study as well as an area of high interest. The state university system where I did my

graduate studies was a leader in the field of content area reading research and education. Working with upper elementary students then, I focused on reading courses for upper grade students. When I received my degree in reading education, I was hired as a middle school classroom reading teacher and then as a Title I reading teacher. I later accepted a position as a reading supervisor in a middle school and began working with teachers to help them implement reading in language arts and other content area classes. In this setting, the middle school teachers were receptive to the idea of content area reading. I enjoyed a particularly strong tie with special education and content area teachers who were looking for ways to help their students' developing literacy, and they would come to me for advice or to sound out their ideas for implementing content area reading strategies.

Upon relocating, I accepted a position as a reading consultant for a high school in an impoverished urban setting. The position was new and did not have a job description and I was given the opportunity to create the job as I saw needs develop. Working at the high school level was my first experience with a strong rejection of content area reading inclusion by my fellow educators. The teachers readily admitted that the students had problems with reading, but they seemed to want to solve the problem by themselves and not to risk their classroom autonomy. Over the course of several years, I presented in-services that were well-attended, yet the results were always disappointing. Reaction to the topics was often, "We already know this. Tell us something new." I had chosen topics based on suggestions from the administration and personal observations of need for various types of classroom instruction in reading. Obviously, the topics covered in in-services were not new to the teachers, but I was not observing them in use in the

classroom. English teachers and special education teachers were most likely to take part in these in-services, but they did not seem to employ any of the teaching strategies discussed prior to the in-service and did not implement them afterwards. Content area teachers outside the English department did not utilize any services from the Reading Specialist other than to complain that there were no remedial reading classes for the large numbers of students who could not read well enough to comprehend the textbooks.

The longer I worked in the high school the more I realized that the teachers had been attending staff development programs in content area reading and many had taken content area reading courses, but there often had been no transfer of knowledge into the classroom or academic benefits for the students. Most teachers were now able to discuss content reading quite knowledgeably and often stated they were implementing content area reading strategies. The State Learning Objectives (2002) were required at all grade levels and reading was a major component of the high school objectives. I began coursework in educational leadership thinking about why state requirements, teacher awareness of content area readings, and obvious student literacy needs were not creating an impetus to place content area reading in all subject area classes. These questions led me to investigate content area reading application at the secondary level and to consider what principals, administrators and teacher educators can do to promote literacy in secondary classrooms. I wished to spend time in the classroom and personally observe the role of reading and writing in the secondary school classroom.

Definitions

Content area reading or content literacy is the ability to use reading and writing to

learn subject material in a content area discipline. To understand what it means to be literate, we must understand the term literacy and how it is currently used in our society. People are not simply literate or illiterate: they are literate or illiterate to some degree which is defined by historical and social contexts. Literacy is relative to societal demands and reading and writing skills that would have been sufficient in the past are inadequate in today's world (Readence, Bean, & Baldwin, 2001). As Vacca and Vacca (1999) have stated the meaning of literacy may change from one context to another and, in an educational sense, is usually used to define how knowledgeable a person is in particular subject area. Another common definition of literacy has been to denote one's ability to read and write a language. Content literacy has been used to describe the level of competence in reading and writing—functional literacy—that one needs to survive in society, one's lack of education—illiteracy—manifested in an inability to read and write a language, and one's lack of a reading habit—aliteracy—especially among those who have the ability to read and write and choose not to (Barton, 1997; Vacca & Vacca, 1999). As researchers have inquired into literacy and what it means to be literate, the term has become more complex and multidimensional. In addition, literacy is situational leading to additional terms such as workplace literacy and family literacy (Vacca & Vacca, 1999).

At the secondary level, instruction centers on content area subjects rather than basic skills. The academic curriculum is organized according to bodies of knowledge, disciplines, or content areas: English (including both composition and literature) and other languages; science (biology, chemistry, physics); higher math (algebra, geometry, trigonometry); the social sciences (history, social studies, geography); and other areas

such as art, music, and physical education (Lewis & Doorlag, 1995;).

Although there is debate, English is considered a content area with its own subject matter by many reading educators (Alvermann, Dillon, O'Brien, & Smith, 1985; Barry, 2002; Bean, 1997, 2000; Cook, 1989; Fox, 1993; Konopak, Readence & Wilson, 1994; Readence, et al., 2001; Smith, Otto, & Hanson, 1978; Vacca, 1981). Opportunities for reading instruction and reading-related activities can often be structured more easily into the English classroom than into other subject areas, particularly as the kinds of issues that English teachers and non-English teachers face regarding reading instruction are, in some cases, quite different (Educational Research Service, 1999). Although some educators exclude English as a content area, I do not accept the exclusion of the discipline of English as one of the content areas.

Statement of the Problem

The research agenda of the last several years has explored the cognitive aspects of the reading process through experiments in which confounding variables, including teachers, students, and instructional contexts have been controlled. This experimental, cognitive research base has contributed to our understanding of the mind-brain machinery in the reading process. It has also informed strategies of instruction in which learners are only cognitive processors and teachers technicians who strive to promote students' efficiency in information processing (O'Brien, Stewart, & Moje, 1995). Content reading and writing have been appropriated to meet broad, technically oriented goals of secondary school curricula. As a component of the existing curriculum, secondary content literacy has provided few alternatives or new perspectives on how the curriculum

is organized, taught, or learned. Content literacy strategies may be viewed as redundant tools or an additional burden in an already overloaded curriculum (O'Brien, et al., 1995). Only a few studies have focused on identifying the actual reading and writing activities that occur in high school instruction and the reasons why these activities were selected (Hinchman & Zalewski, 1996; Lloyd, 1994; Moje, 1994; Sturtevant, 1992). More in-depth descriptions of the content of high school reading and writing activities continue to be needed by researchers and educators who want to understand and improve education and literacy education in particular.

Literacy instruction involves the incorporation of several components of literacy such as reading, writing, communicating, and listening into content teaching. Teachers use their own content expertise along with theoretical knowledge about the learning process and an understanding of instructional strategies to negotiate the type of instruction that will be used in the classroom (Lester, 2000). Literacy strategies include vocabulary emphasis, textbook reading assignments, writing activities, and the use of technology. A focus on student research and the incorporation of varieties of text, which students encounter in their worlds outside the classroom, are literacy activities that enhance content learning.

Literacy strategies help students comprehend the expository text encountered in different content areas. For teachers to include reading strategies in this process there must be knowledge of the strategy itself and an understanding of which strategies might be appropriate in different situations (Lester, 2000; Manzo, 1991). The infusion of content area reading into curriculum research and practice should be defined in terms of the contexts in which they are enacted in secondary schools. Rather than viewing the

curriculum as a neutral body of knowledge to be more efficiently accessed via imported strategies, content literacy researchers can adopt the perspective that literacy, as it is enacted, is curriculum (O'Brien, et al., 1995).

Perspectives on literacy as curriculum can be historically, socially, and politically situated. This requires a research agenda in which content literacy researchers collaborate with school-based colleagues to ascertain the forms of literacy the latter use. These forms may be evaluated against stakeholders' goals and agendas to determine if they want to change their curriculum and practice. Researchers may frame various secondary content areas as more complex entities than subject areas with their accompanying pedagogies (O'Brien, et al., 1995).

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of my study is to provide an in-depth description of the role of reading and writing in two content area classes at the secondary level and the reasons why reading and writing occur as they do in those classrooms using an ethnographic method of inquiry. This research will help teachers, school administrators, and teacher educators who wish to improve literacy and learning in the secondary school become aware of what is happening in two secondary English classes and encourage consideration of what they might do to bring about change.

Although several theories have been proposed to explain why content area reading has not been widely implemented in the secondary school, it has been suggested that workplace constraints in secondary schools, teacher educations programs, and the unpopularity of textbook-based instruction may be reasons (O'Brien, et al., 1995).

O'Brien, et al. (1995) suggest that the power struggle between school subject area disciplines and a system which rewards teacher-talk and student passivity keeps content area reading strategies from being taught. Teachers operate within a school culture and these cultures develop within the cultural constraints and expectations of the community and national culture in which they exist. Teachers may be right to question researchers when they continue to suggest teaching strategies that fail to take into account the realities of the culture and schools in which these practices are meant to be implemented. The reality of the outsider coming for a visit and quickly making recommendations leaves teachers skeptical and unconvinced of the value of the methods being proposed. In spite of several research studies in the last decade, there is still little knowledge about the current roles reading and writing play in secondary content classrooms (O'Brien, et al., 1995).

Vacca (1998) believes English teachers recognize the importance of reading to the study of their subject. As children make the transition into middle childhood and adolescence, literacy use becomes increasingly more complex and demanding. Secondary instructional programs place a high premium on strategy learning as students become more sophisticated in their use of language to comprehend, compose, converse, and think critically about texts. Middle and high school reading and English teachers are the last instructional front in an adolescent's development as a competent and proficient user of language and literacy. Content area teachers, such as English teachers, are in a strategic position to influence adolescents' uses of literacy for academic learning (Vacca, 1998).

Research Questions

According to Eisner (1998), the quality of the content being taught is frequently neglected in classroom observation in research studies. He believes this is because those who observe teachers are often not specialists in the subject matter being taught and therefore focus only on what the teacher and students do. The quality of what is taught is of crucial importance. There is no virtue in teaching content that is trivial regardless of how skilled the teaching and the best way to include content area reading strategies is through the regular curriculum. I wish to focus on those activities that involve reading and writing specifically. I will explore what particular reading activities were selected and how students responded and participated in those activities. The problem facing most adolescents is that few students effectively learn how to use reading and writing to explore and construct meaning in the company of authors, other learners, or teachers (Vacca & Vacca, 1999).

Content area reading has typically involved techniques used by subject matter teachers to facilitate their students' comprehension of textbook assignments. Romine and McKenna (1996) state that content area teachers have traditionally been resistant to this added responsibility. The need to train secondary teachers in the application of effective content literacy techniques has both theoretical substantiation and practical implications. From a theoretical standpoint, literacy processes in content classrooms can help students organize and construct content knowledge, even though the initial exposure to new concepts and ideas might have come from lecture or demonstration. While the number of recommended techniques have been validated through research, only a small percentage of content area teachers have been found to use them (Romine & McKenna, 1996).

Based on the issues briefly reviewed here, the following research questions provide a focus for my research study:

1. What types of reading and writing activities occur in the two high school English classes?
2. What influences the types of, and degree to which, reading and writing activities occurring in two high school English classes?

Design of the Study

Creswell (1996) defines qualitative research as "an inquiry process based on distinct methodological traditions of inquiry that explore a social or human problem. The researcher builds a complex holistic picture, analyzes words, reports detailed views of informants, and conducts the study in a natural setting" (p. 15). In qualitative research the nature of the question often starts with a what question. Questions are chosen because the topic needs to be explored or because a researcher feels a need for a detailed view. Qualitative research emphasizes the researcher's role as an active learner who can tell the story from the participants' view rather than as an expert who passes judgment on participants (Creswell, 1998).

Using qualitative methodology I will describe, analyze, and interpret the culture of two high school English classrooms. Qualitative studies tend to be field focused and include not only classrooms, teachers, and students, but also the inanimate objects of textbooks and other documents that are of use in that environment (Eisner, 1998). Data will be collected from three types of sources to provide for the triangulation of data sources that is recommended for a qualitative study (Anderson & Arsenault, 1998;

Creswell, 1998; Hammersley & Atkinson, 1995; Mertens, 1998) and this study will include classroom observations, interviews, and analysis of documents. I observed in each classroom for four months to determine the types of reading and writing activities that occur over time. I selected heterogeneous classes and hoped to see a variety of instructional tasks and multiple units of instruction.

Within qualitative research, the researcher is the principal instrument through which one experiences the qualities of the environment in which the subjects live or work. The ability to experience these qualities requires more than just the researcher's presence, and the ability to see what is subtle, but significant, is crucial. Researchers must see what is to be seen given some frame of reference and some set of intentions. The researcher is the instrument that engages the situation and makes sense of it. Qualitative research therefore has an interpretive character. This means that inquirers try to account for what they have seen, explain why something is taking place, and what this experience holds for those in the situation studied (Eisner, 1998).

This research will develop into an ethnography with a strong emphasis on exploring phenomena within their natural setting and analysis which emphasizes description and explanation rather than quantifiable and statistical analysis. The ethnographer seeks a deeper immersion in others' worlds in order to grasp what they experience as meaningful and important. With immersion, the field researcher sees from the inside how people lead their lives, how they carry out their daily rounds of activities, what they find meaningful, and how they do so (Emerson, Fretz, & Shaw, 1995).

Assumptions

Although content area literacy instruction has been in place for many years, content teachers have been reluctant to accept an instructional emphasis that fuses reading with content. There are a variety of false assumptions about reading instruction in general and students' ability to read upon entering subject matter classrooms including: (a) students have learned to read in elementary school, (b) students have sufficient prior knowledge to cope effectively with the important information in content textbooks, (c) the processes involved in reading and comprehending efficiently in content textbooks are identical to those utilized in reading from basal readers in elementary school, (d) content reading means teaching phonics and other skills not directly related to their subject areas and, (e) teachers are information dispensers (Readence, et al., 2001). Belief in these assumptions presupposes that students have mastered the processes necessary to enable them to learn essential information from reading, regardless of writing style and content, and that students can meaningfully blend new information with prior knowledge and efficiently utilize textbook aids designed to refine and extend important concepts. If reading is defined in terms of elementary tasks such as basic decoding skills, the assumption is reasonable, but it is incorrect if reading is defined in terms of subject matter tasks such as expanded homework, independent reading assignments, required note taking in class, and vastly increased dependence upon textbooks with varied and complex organizational patterns. Teachers cannot assume that students will automatically modify elementary reading skills to suit these content area reading demands (Readence, et al., 2001).

The rationale for including literacy instruction in middle school and high school

teacher education programs consistently refers to the importance of proficiency in literacy for individuals to meet the demands of daily living. Many content area teachers fail to recognize the influence literacy instruction can have on learning in the classroom (Readence, Bean, & Baldwin, 1998). College secondary education students with Arts and Sciences majors are often taught to convey a body of information to students rather than provide instruction in reading and learning from text. Reading is viewed as a way to dispense information rather than as a means to read and learn with textbooks (Readence, et al., 2001). Many teachers, both preservice and in-service, are not even aware of content literacy and its potential for aiding students in reading and learning with their textbooks (Readence, et al. 2001).

Readence, et al. (2001) examined in depth the roles of the teacher, the reader, and the textbook as each relates to success in learning. They assume that if texts were meant to be read in isolation, there would be little if any need for someone called a teacher. Similarly, if texts are so easy to read that a reader needs little or no help to learn the material, a teacher would be unnecessary. Secondly, it makes sense to describe content reading as a means of improving communication between an author of a text and a reader attempting to read it. The reader is trying to communicate with authors of texts by constructing meaning from their words and thoughts. Given the goal of the reader and the difficulty of texts, a facilitator is needed to promote this interaction between reader and text, the teacher. If teachers consider themselves only to be information dispensers, there is no need for textbooks. Teachers who make text reading assignments and then go over in class exactly what is in the text not only make class boring, but they also encourage students to neglect to read their assignments. They are not encouraging the

development of independent readers who can take their place as useful citizens and lifelong learners in our society (Readence, et al., 2001).

Many high schools have attempted to alter the mission of high school instruction by including reading skills instruction to all students through content area reading (Smith, et al., 1978). In this organizational approach to reading, the high school staff makes a commitment to teach reading skills within all reading-intensive curriculum areas. English, social studies, mathematics, and science teachers, as well as teachers in such applied areas as vocational arts and business education, attempt to build reading instruction into the everyday work in their content area. The advantages of this approach are that reading skills are taught through reading content to which the student will be exposed. All students, not just remedial or disabled readers, receive reading instruction commensurate with their needs. There is generally a better attempt in this model to individualize content area curriculums to help meet the learning and reading needs of all students and teachers become more sensitive to the readability of materials that they are placing in students' hands. This content area reading model described by Smith, et al. (1978) is subject to failure when teaching reading in the content areas is not a decision made by the teaching staff but by the administration. It is difficult to overcome teachers' negative attitudes and lack of any feeling of ownership. The model requires a basic shift in the mission of the high school and implementing the model can be expensive because it may require considerable curriculum revision. If appropriate release time for staff training and other resources cannot be made available, implementation may be difficult. Reading in the content areas is also not a satisfactory strategy for helping teachers cope with students who have not acquired basic word attack skills (Smith, et al., 1978).

Adding to the false assumptions and misconceptions about reading in general, and content literacy in particular is an effort to reconceptualize the literacy of adolescents (Alvermann, Hinchman, Moore, Phelps, & Waif, 1998). The term adolescent literacy has come into vogue to describe how the definition of literacy and text has expanded for adolescents as we move into the new millennium (Moje & Young, 2000). Adolescent literacy moves beyond the notion of school- and textbook-based definitions of literacy to one which acknowledges not only that there are multiple literacies and multiple texts but also that texts transcend the adult-sanctioned notions of text forms to include CD-ROM, the Internet, popular music, television, film, and magazines, to name a few. It is the cues that adolescents obtain from these literacies and these texts which play an important role in the development of their emerging individual and social identities. Adolescent literacy further advocates that time and space are needed in schools for students to explore and interact with these new literacies and multiple texts (Readence, et al., 2001; Wade & Moje, 2000).

Significance of the Study

Differences in teacher perceptions about the necessity of literacy instruction are often based on the subject matter taught. Teachers whose students are expected to read more in their particular content area, such as English and social studies, place more value on literacy instruction than teachers in areas where more hands-on learning is traditionally emphasized. A student may be literate in English literature but illiterate in biology. Because these differences in literacy competencies may result from lack of prior knowledge and the student's ability to process new information, all content teachers

should be encouraged to pursue literacy instruction in an effort to guide students into specific subject knowledge construction (Lester, 2000).

In terms of multicultural education and the knowledge base of standardized tests, students' lived experiences in school are neglected. Pedagogy is something done to students and students respond in kind. Student response to the curriculum is one of disengagement or minimal engagement. The focus on students as reactors to teacher manipulations has reinforced a curriculum of tightly structured texts, instructional routines like recitation sessions, and product-oriented assessment (O'Brien, et al., 1995). Students, like teachers, set their level of engagement based on perceived payoffs. Although content literacy learning strategies are aimed at improving students' cognitive and academic performances, students bring unique personal histories to school that shape how they view their work in school. Content literacy strategies target students as cognitive processors, but students receive the strategies' as social beings, deciding how to adapt or modify each step, trying to figure out how to short-circuit the process to get the work done, and weighing the value of the time they take with each approach against their priorities for spending time in the class period (O'Brien, et al. 1995). Based on contextual cues, students learn what counts as reading and whether or not reading counts as worthwhile to them. Every day there is nonsystematic, implicit instruction about the nature and value of reading and literacy. "Even silences carry messages" (Moore, 1996, p. 16).

Literacy standards change and broaden with consideration of different multicultural perspectives and the need for a cooperative effort between education at different levels and the community outside the classroom. Information obtained from a

variety of interests can be used in strategic planning for teaching that will embrace literacy needs for secondary students. This process of bridging information obtained from closely related areas of interest has strong implications for improved teacher programs and practice. Preparing students to become productive citizens in a society permeated with literacy events is an evolving responsibility. The degree of each student's success depends upon whether or not individual teachers consider literacy to be a fundamental part of their instructional planning (Lester, 2000).

Although there is empirical support for the belief content reading and writing strategies have not been widely adopted by teachers in high school it is still less clear why. This study provides a view of two high school English classes and how two teachers who are deemed good teachers use reading and writing activities within their classroom. It is important that administrators, teacher educators, and curriculum planners understand the context in which planning and instruction occur. Case studies which look at current instructional practices and the reasons for those practices can give valuable information to principals, administrators, and teacher educators and others who design teaching strategies, curriculum, and work to improve instruction.

Outline of Work

In the remaining chapters, I will provide and discuss the literature review including the method, findings, conclusions, and implications for research to provide an in-depth description of the role of reading and writing in two high school English classes and the reasons why reading and writing occur as they do in these classrooms. The literature in Chapter II provides background on the theoretical base of this study and

provides further rationale for the need and importance of this study. The review synthesizes theoretical and research perspectives across the broad field of content literacy studies, teacher attitudes studies, and teacher education and training. Chapter III contains a theoretical rationale for the method used, as well as a description of the research design and the role of the researcher. Descriptions of setting and participants, data sources, data analysis procedures, and procedures used to insure reliability and validity of the results are discussed. In-depth observations of the role of reading and writing in two high school English classes and the reasons why reading and writing occur as they do in these classrooms is contained in Chapter IV. Also included is a more complete description of school site and the background of teacher participants. In Chapter V, I explain the implications of this research by using the interpretations of the participants' life experiences to illustrate how classroom participants brought their experiences, beliefs, and values to the decisions they made about using literacy in the classroom. Influences upon the uses of reading and writing in these two classrooms are discussed in terms of influences originating outside the classroom and those originating with teachers and students. The dissertation closes in Chapter VI by reviewing the major assertions made and presenting conclusions about the meanings made by the teachers and students as a result of their interactions and practices of literacy. I look at the implications of this study toward the inclusion of content literacy and the administration of schools and school literacy programs for teachers, administrators, teacher educators, and educational researchers.

Summary

There was a lot of attention given to the role of content area reading in the early 1980's, and many researchers and authors expressed optimism that content area readings' time had come and implementation would be occurring in the near future. My personal experiences and observations in the 1990's gave me mixed messages where teachers seem well-informed and are knowledgeable about content area reading, but there was inadequate observational proof that content area reading was being implemented in the classroom. I wished to readdress the issue of content area reading in the secondary school classroom and personally observe what is being done with content area reading at the secondary level.

Earlier research has studied content areas other than English because it is assumed by some that since reading is such an integral part of literature studies, content area reading instruction must be happening. Because State Learning Objectives group the reading objectives with the English objectives it was a logical choice for me to observe what is happening in typical English classes. I wanted to observe what teachers are actually doing to implement the State Learning Objectives at the secondary level and how the students I observed were responding. Rather than basing my conclusions on casual observations, brief visits to a classroom, or anecdotal conversations, I wanted to spend time observing and researching the current state of content area reading instruction in the classroom. I wanted also to answer the simpler questions I had asked myself after presenting an in-service, "If you know all this, why aren't you doing it?—If you are doing it now that content area reading is recognized as important, am I missing it?—What is really keeping you from implementing content area reading?"

Literacy expectations have accelerated in the past century and are likely to increase dramatically in coming decades. The International Reading Association [IRA]/National Council of Teachers of English [NCTE] stresses the importance of preparing students at all grade levels for the literacy demands of today and tomorrow. The IRA and NCTE recognized that, "To participate fully in society and the workplace in 2020, citizens will need powerful literacy abilities that until now have been achieved by only a small percentage of the population…Being literate in contemporary society means being active, critical, and creative users not only of print and spoken language but also of the visual language" (NCTE, 1996, p. 5). This statement underscores the importance of language and literacy in use. Students throughout the grades must learn how to use language and literacy clearly, strategically, critically, and creatively (Vacca, 1998, 2002b).

CHAPTER II

LITERATURE REVIEW

Background

> Secondary content literacy, an integration of content reading and writing across the curriculum, has evolved from an initial focus on teaching developmental reading and writing skills for remediation and study purposes toward a holistic philosophy of integrating the teaching and use of literacy processes in all secondary content classes. (O'Brien et al., 1995, p. 442)

The primary means of infusing content literacy into the curriculum of United States secondary schools has been the teaching of tenets, goals, and strategies through pre- and in-service courses and teacher staff development sessions. These efforts have met with limited success and have resulted in only isolated changes in practice among individual teachers. The infrequent transfer of methods from university coursework to secondary classrooms has been well documented and indicates a need for educators to rethink the philosophy, epistemology, and goals that underpin content literacy research and teaching (Hinchman & Lalik, 2000; O'Brien & Stewart, 1990; Wilson, Konopak, & Readence, 1993).

Cuban (1992) has argued that, in general, although teachers have made some

changes in their classrooms over the last hundred years, the basic forms of instruction have not changed. Research provides evidence that what happens in schools, the enacted curriculum dispensed via curriculum guides and textbooks, and the experienced curriculum is relatively routine and standardized across the United States. Teachers deliver instruction to passive students using an unusually stable repertoire of approaches: lecture, discussion (which often looks like recitation), group work, and demonstration (O'Brien. 1988). Teachers' limited number of instructional frameworks consist primarily of approaches that focus on the transmission of information through teacher talk and recitations (Alvermann et al., 1985; Nystrand, Gamoran, Kachur, & Prendergast, 1997; Ratekin, Simpson, Alvermann, & Dishner, 1985). Hinchman and Lalik (2000) noticed that even when preservice teachers respond by developing a range of personal pedagogies the result is still practices that replicate the status quo.

Content literacy instruction is not simply a reflection of research. Instructional frameworks and strategies that are pragmatically based rather than theoretically or empirically validated fill the pages of popular content reading books (e.g. Readence et al., 2001; Vacca & Vacca, 1999; Vacca et al., 2000). Many of these frameworks and strategies are derived from work within various disciplines, curriculum development efforts, or instructional approaches endorsed by secondary reading specialists. This nonempirical base, which has responded to the demands of the secondary curriculum, has not addressed the broader complexities of school culture in which the curriculum is implemented.

The charge to teach reading through content can be traced to at least the 1920's. From the 1920's through the 1960's the predominant paradigm for content area reading

was skills based. Reading scholars and researchers recognized the relationships between reading and learning and essentially pursued two lines of inquiry through descriptive, correlational, and experimental research: first, the identification of reading and study skills associated with each of the content areas; and second, the effects of various instructional variables on the acquisition of reading and study skills and learning in content areas (Vacca, 2002). The shift from a reading and study skills paradigm to a cognition and learning paradigm became noticeable in the reading field in the 1970's and 1980's with numerous investigations conducted to understand better the role of cognitive and metacognitive processes in reading and to validate learning strategies grounded in cognitive and metacognitive principles. However, it also informed strategies instruction in which learners were only cognitive processors and teachers technicians who strove to promote students' efficiency in information processing. During the 1980's substantial national attention was devoted to the reading achievement of secondary school students (Vacca, 2002). The publication of A *Nation at Risk* (National Commission on Excellence in Education, 1983) stimulated much of this attention when it cited declining literacy rates among secondary school students as one of the indicators of a failing educational system. In the 1990's social constructivist dimensions influenced content area reading practices. There was a shift away from the validation of strategies to an emphasis on understanding the sociocultural underpinnings of teaching and learning in content classrooms. This social context of the classroom affects the way students interact with the teacher, the text, and with one another (Vacca, 2002).

Today questions exploring how and why teachers and students use literacy in and out of classrooms have become paramount (Hinchman & Moje, 1998). A fairly extensive

body of work informs our current understanding of content area beliefs and practices at both preservice and in-service levels (Bean, 1997; Dillon, O'Brien, Moje, & Stewart, 1994; Fox, 1993; Hinchman & Zalewski, 1996; Lloyd, 1994; Moje, 1994; Sturtevant, 1992; Wilson et al., 1993).

School Culture and Curriculum

The role of the teacher envisioned in content area literacy courses and texts is that of a facilitator of learning. This idealized individual uses a variety of vocabulary and comprehension strategies to smoothly orchestrate small-group activities (Bean, 1997). Workplace realities and routines quickly challenge this idealized scene (O'Brien, et al., 1993). Reading and writing activities typically used by students to learn subject content are subsumed within the larger subject discourse. The primacy and status hierarchy of subject areas and the expectations these engender in students and teachers influence attempts at infusing content literacy into secondary school classrooms. Explicit content literacy strategies directly confront and challenge the dominance of subject area compartmentalization (O'Brien, et al., 1995). A focus on students as reactors to teacher manipulations has reinforced a curriculum of highly structured texts, instructional routines of recitation sessions, and product-oriented assessment. Although the instructional strategies of content reading and writing seem to fit well with the institutional goals of secondary schooling, they are often rejected by members of various disciplines because they represent competing pedagogy and content outside the mainstream of the well-established subject disciplines. Content literacy, which is intended to be integrated across the curriculum, must compete with all other disciplines

for the same limited resource base, both within and outside the classroom. Content literacy may not be popular because it threatens to blur subject area divisions deeply embedded in the curriculum (O'Brien, et al., 1995). Students, like teachers, set their level of engagement on the basis of perceived payoffs. Even if teachers change pedagogical and curricular goals, Myers (1992) claims suddenly emphasizing content literacy strategies to students who are used to typical instruction, expect typical outcomes, and define class work in typical ways may comply. However, they may not embrace the teacher's revised agenda.

A critical element in understanding school culture is the recognition of the role that subject area subcultures play within the school culture. The division of knowledge into disciplines is an artifact of and supports the secondary curriculum and within the various disciplines, teachers and students adopt different pedagogies (O'Brien, et al., 1995). Discipline-based pedagogical knowledge communicated through department meetings, curriculum guides, textbooks, and supplements can define and limit what is possible if the departmental organizational structure provides such curricular cohesion (Johnson, 1990). Since content knowledge is the primary academic and social grounding shared by persons in a department, traditional ways of framing content may be deeply ingrained in teachers through shared beliefs or traditions. Members of various subcultures may not view literacy strategies with enthusiasm because the strategies do not mesh with their ways of believing, thinking, and acting as teachers in the disciplinary subculture. A consequence of the compartmentalization of subject areas is the distinction made among them in terms of values, priorities, and power. Teachers in high-status subjects protect rights, privileges, and power by working to maintain conceptions of their

subject matter as distinct, difficult, and important. This struggle for power reinforces boundaries between subject areas and confound attempts to infuse interdisciplinary teaching and learning innovations such as content literacy into the curriculum (O'Brien, et al., 1995).

Secondary teachers attempt to control the content, the pace of delivery, and the content and pace of classroom interaction because the control provides an efficient way to respond to organizational and time constraints faced within the institutionalized curriculum. The clock controls a series of unrelated events and instruction is a rush to cover material that is usually content not chosen by the teacher. Content literacy infusion appears to work theoretically, but situation specific strategies and goals may not be compatible with mandated curricular goals and time constraints that lead teachers to maintain tight control. The pedagogy of telling, which results in the predominance of lecture and recitation to cover content rather than discussing introductory material or having students read the material, acts as a fundamental support for the pedagogy of control because teachers use lecture and recitation to establish and maintain control over course content and its delivery (O'Brien, et al., 1995).

Ratekin et al. (1985) found that when practitioners use the textbook as the primary source of content for lecturing, class discussion, and information for repetitive assignments, there is little variety in directions. Many aspects of content literacy work against the pedagogies of control and telling. Utilizing multiple texts and fostering student independent reading to acquire knowledge may supersede or undermine teacher control. With student-centered methods of discussion and cooperative learning, teachers lose control over the efficient production and reproduction of knowledge (Knowles,

1992; O'Brien, et al., 1995). This student control is antithetical to the traditional culture of teacher control prevalent in secondary schools and Myers (1992) found students themselves may not want to take control of their learning.

Text is a social construction, something that is agreed upon by persons acting and interacting in social settings (Moje, Dillon, & O'Brien, 2000). Texts are more than linguistic, print-based artifacts, and they serve and reflect social purposes. Texts take a variety of forms other than textbooks: students construct texts, often as part of collaborative negotiations and teachers construct their own texts, such as reading guides, worksheets, and lecture notes (O'Brien, et al., 1995). Learners currently in classrooms draw on different kinds of texts than they have had in the past because the new texts are more readily available as a result of new information technologies. Research on media and popular culture contend that learners will increasingly use televisions, magazines, popular books, movies, music, and the Internet as sources of knowledge and information (Moje, et al., 2000; Wade & Moje, 2000).

The social context of a classroom has its own linguistic conventions and features. Classroom interaction patterns are usually orchestrated by the teacher and based on an intuitive or conscious theory of learning. Teachers instruct, question, praise, and monitor students' comprehension in observable patterns that reveal their particular view of reading comprehension. This may range from simply assigning text reading, questioning students orally and giving a test, to the more carefully guided approach advocated by reading professionals (Readence, et al., 2001).

Pearson and Fielding (1991) argue that the nature of student-teacher dialogue should foster instructional conversations, not just teacher-directed recitation. Most

studies have found student passivity to be the norm and that in typical classroom reading and discussion patterns students are required only to produce text reproductions that merely reiterate text content. With such low level discussions, they become skilled at procedural display, looking as if they are working and participating while simultaneously carrying on other, more personally interesting and rewarding activities (Alvermann et al., 1985; Nystrand et al., 1997; Ratekin et al. 1985). For example, in a study of middle school content classrooms Alvermann, O'Brien, and Dillon (1990) found a marked discrepancy between teachers' definitions of lessons that involve discussion and actual observations of these same teachers. When interviewed by the researchers, the teachers defined a good discussion as student-centered with the teacher serving as a facilitator, however, these teachers relied almost exclusively on carefully controlled lecture and recitation consisting of teacher questions, student responses, and teacher evaluation. The demands of content coverage and classroom order won out over their intellectualized definitions of discussion when it came to actual classroom application.

Teachers shape their beliefs and actions in relation to the structures, policies, and traditions of the workday and the school institution. O'Brien, et al. (1995) state that at the secondary level, more than at the elementary level, the workday requires an attempt to balance personal autonomy in one's own classroom with the larger authority, organizational structure, policies, and procedures of the school. This social organizational perspective of school culture is based on the premise that there are some cultural consistencies across almost all secondary schools, although, each school is distinctive due to variations in social organization, expectations, administrative structure, values of communities in which a school is situated, and the clientele it serves. Any

reform effort or curriculum infusion, such as content literacy, must attend to the broad cultural aspects common to the secondary-school institution and the people who work there, as well as to unique cultural aspects of individual secondary school settings. Each day teachers are faced with contradictory objectives: to teach an increasingly diverse group of students while attending to students' individual needs. At the same time, teachers must protect the autonomy they have. As academic departments compete for resources while greater demands are placed upon them, they tend to withdraw further into their content areas and ignore what may appear to be novel, additional, and unnecessary pedagogical alternatives or curriculum (O'Brien, et al., 1995).

Another aspect of school culture that influences teachers' acceptance of innovations like content literacy methods is the overall school climate and reward structure tied to professional development. Whereas literacy educators may view the content literacy curriculum as an excellent topic for professional development because of its ability to help subject area teachers teach content, members of subject disciplines groups may see it as an infringement into or anomaly within existing subcultures. Content literacy educators may be viewed as outsiders trying to impose teaching strategies without the necessary curricular knowledge valued by subject disciplines or may be viewed as an extra burden in addition to teaching content (O'Brien, et al., 1995; Vacca, 1998).

Teachers who adopt pedagogies not conforming to the dominant rationality must carefully weigh the potential for negative sanctions for their actions and decide how defiant they will be. Teachers must feel they are supported in their efforts to improve student literacy skills. This dilemma accounts for why energetic teachers who have been

informed about new ways to do things and are open to change, often choose not to try creative and innovative approaches (O'Brien, 1988; Vacca, 1998). If such support is unavailable, a reluctance to integrate literacy instruction prevails unless teachers become aware of possible influences that have helped shape their own perceptions (Lester, 2000).

A survey by Stodolsky and Grossman (1995) compared the conceptions of subject matter and curricular activities of various subject area disciplines. The authors believed subject matter influenced actual instructional practices as well as how teachers think about curriculum learning and teaching. English was determined to be composed of various fields including literature, grammar, rhetoric, and composition which are blended in a variety of ways. They found English teachers resisted coordination of course content or teaming because they tended to formulate courses independently, although English teachers were willing to share curricular ideas and materials with one another and valued interpersonal relationships with both colleagues and students. The English teachers generally reported high levels of curricular control and autonomy in line with their being less defined and less sequential subjects and having almost total control over teaching techniques they use in their own classrooms.

Content Area Literacy

Many teachers do not recognize the extent to which content area subjects and language use are correlated. Language is central to all learning, regardless of the discipline. Processing ideas through language in a variety of disciplines is well understood by the reading and writing community, but many secondary teachers resist the ideas that are presented in content area reading courses. Their loyalty is to their

specialization fields, with little attention paid to the role that reading and writing play in those fields (Daisey & Shroyer, 1993). Although teachers participate in pedagogically based education courses like content reading, their subject area methods professors often reinforced the uniqueness of each discipline by equating teaching ability with subject expertise and often downplaying, criticizing, or even negating the role of pedagogically based courses like content reading. Without the larger view that reading and writing are processes that facilitate learning in all disciplines, teachers may not understand the necessity of teaching their students how to process written text (Nourie & Lenski, 1998).

The issue of literacy in content areas must be contextualized and defined in terms of the reading and writing demands of specific classrooms. Content area literacy must be defined as the level of reading and writing skill necessary to read, comprehend, and react to appropriate instructional materials in a given subject area. The literacy requirements of a classroom, like those of a workplace or of an entire culture, readily define who is literate-and who is not (McKenna & Robinson, 1990; Readence et al., 2001). A variety of classroom-related factors influence a student's content area literacy. These factors include: (a) the reader's prior knowledge of, attitude toward, and interest in the subject, (b) the reader's purpose, (c) the language and conceptual difficulty of the material, (d) the assumptions the author makes about their readers, (e) the way the author organizes ideas, and (f) the teacher's beliefs about and attitude toward the use of texts. To be literate in content area classrooms, students must learn how to use reading and writing to explore and construct meaning in the company of authors, others learners, and teachers. For teachers to help students become literate in a content area discipline does not mean to teach students how to read or write, but instead reading and writing are tools that they use

to construct knowledge and to discover, clarify, and extend meaning in a content area discipline (Barton, 1997; Vacca & Vacca, 1999).

Content literacy, the ability to use reading and writing for acquiring new content in a given discipline, includes three principal cognitive components: (a) general literacy skills, (b) content-specific literacy skill (e.g. graph or map reading), and (c) prior knowledge of content. Content literacy suggests that students' understanding of content in a subject could be subsequently enhanced through appropriate writing assignments or supplemental reading. Reading and writing are complementary tasks and the greatest gains can be expected when the two are used together. When printed materials are assigned to be read and when written responses are also required, students are placed in the position first of constructing an internal representation of the content they encounter in print and next of refining that representation through, such processes as synthesis, evaluation, and summarization. Students' understanding of the content presented in all subjects could be substantially enhanced through appropriate writing assignments or through supplemental reading (McKenna & Robinson, 1991; Tierney & Shanahan, 1996).

Content is the what of instruction and what is learned in the presence of a teacher has been a time-honored tradition of schools with the teacher as the authoritative source. Content teachers are in a strategic position to show students how to use reading to handle the demands of content materials. The real value of content area reading instruction as Vacca (1981) explains is, "Students learn how to learn from content materials through effective teaching, which facilitates comprehension and concept development" (p. 1). The student who discovers and understands a discipline's structure will be able to contend with its many detailed aspects. A content teacher's job is not to teach reading

skills themselves, but to show students how to use reading effectively to comprehend and learn from text materials. Resistance to content area reading occurs because of the misconceptions that teachers have developed over what reading instruction entails. While the primary presentation may comprise lecture and demonstration rather than reading, content acquisition nevertheless invariably includes understanding key concepts and their relationships fostered through literacy activities (McKenna & Robinson, 1991).

A student's prior knowledge based on experience is the means for comprehending new information in a text. Studies of student learning demonstrate the positive effects of prior knowledge as an aid to learning new concepts and content teachers should help students activate their prior knowledge before they begin a textbook or other reading assignment. Prior knowledge is a double-edged sword and existing knowledge can hinder new learning when students have misconceptions to which they cling (Dochy, Segers, & Buehl, 1999). In the secondary grades, an ever-expanding wealth of prior knowledge is available to cope with the flood of new information introduced in the content areas. Despite potential problems with misconceptions, linking new concepts to some familiar, existing concept remains a powerful strategy teachers can use to advantage in content teaching. Teachers often use verbal analogies when they see students looking perplexed and these analogies are sometimes successful and at times unsuccessful as they fail to connect with students' experiences. Content teachers need to identify students' existing knowledge and provide experiences in reading, listening, speaking, and writing that help them progress through aligning and restructuring knowledge (Readence, et al., 2001).

Contemporary models of the reading process present comprehension as a complex

interaction of reader knowledge, text variables, reader interest, and the quality of teaching that assists text comprehension (Dochy et al., 1999). Teachers help students establish a purpose and a particular frame of reference or schema for reading text assignments. Without adequate teacher guidance and ingenuity students may go through the motions of learning exerting only minimal effort. Authors of stories and even challenging scientific textbooks use predictable, identifiable organizational pattern or text structure. Students who are made aware of the overall structure of a particular text can use this knowledge in comprehending, studying, and discussing key concepts (Readence, et al., 2001).

At the secondary level, textbooks predominate containing materials that often are compactly written and containing specialized vocabulary. Students must learn to read the maps, graphs, charts, and tables that are included in their texts. These demands on reading skills place secondary students with poor literacy skills at risk of failure in many of their subject-area courses (Educational Research Service, 1999). Students at even a rudimentary level of general literacy can advance their understanding through literacy activities, provided that reading materials are commensurate with ability or steps are taken to facilitate comprehension of more difficult material and writing assignments are within the range of student sophistication (McKenna & Robinson, 1991).

Studies of Reading and Writing

Alvermann and Moore's (1991) review of research related to secondary reading provides a sense of the cognitivist ethos of research in the 1980's and serves as a good beginning for the present view. The five themes they identified included: (a) single text use predominated in content classrooms, (b) learning facts was a dominant goal, (c) little

preteaching of concepts and vocabulary occurred, (d) teacher control and order were of paramount interest, and (e) accountability testing and time constraints limited teachers' efforts to implement content area reading strategies. Teaching and learning strategies based on those processes were developed to teach secondary learners to use reading and writing to learn information and to think critically in various disciplines.

A concern of secondary teachers is how students learn from text. Early studies based on classroom observation found that teachers and students tend to minimize the text's role as a primary source of information (Alvermann et al., 1985). Students' dependency may stem from perceptions that the teacher is easier to understand than the textbook. A major implication in this study was if teachers do not use the textbook as the primary source of concept development, it may be futile to attempt to instruct teachers in how to help students gain concepts from text independently (Ratekin et al., 1985). Furthermore, changing teachers' knowledge and attitudes about content reading strategies does not guarantee they will use those strategies in the classroom (Feathers & Smith, 1983, 1987; Smith & Feathers, 1983a, 1983b).

Evidence has accumulated suggesting that teacher talk dominates the majority of classroom interactions and that such talk is used most frequently to control students' behavior and the content of students' talk. Secondary school students appear to depend on teacher talk rather than on their own reading as their primary source of information (Ratekin et al., 1985; Feathers & Smith, 1983, 1987; Smith & Feathers, 1983a, 1983b). Researchers have also noted that classroom interactions generally have a three-part structure: The teacher initiates a question, the student responds, and the teacher evaluates the response; resulting in questioning practices that are more like recitation. The

Alvermann et al. (1990) study involved discussions of content area reading assignments. Worksheets and textbooks were frequently found in discussions that consisted of lecture recitation or recitation. Materials such as video tapes, films, and notes were used in open-forum discussions. Although teachers could articulate abstract definitions of good discussion, their actual discussions seldom resembled their definition. Pressures from outside forces, maintaining control, and covering content took precedence over active participation from students in construction meaning from text.

Smith and Feather's (1983a, 1983b; see also Feathers & Smith, 1983, 1987) study supported the notion that most reading in secondary schools is teacher assigned and directed, often through the use of study guides. Smith and Feather's research focused on two main areas: teacher stated goals and practices and the role of reading both in and beyond the classroom. The study concluded that for students reading was neither meaningful nor necessary, with the main purpose of reading being to locate answers to literal questions. The authors realized the students' perceptions of the teachers' goals and objectives did not match those actually set by the teacher. Interviews with teachers and students provide most of the data.

Hinchman (1985, 1987, 1992) reviewed the status of the use of textbooks from the perspectives of three secondary school teachers. In a qualitative study of secondary teachers' plans and conceptions of reading, she found that teachers consider reading as a means of covering the course content. Teachers consider the text to be a primary source of information for subject area understanding, yet little reading is actually assigned or discussed. Little text reading is assigned in classrooms for several reasons. Some teachers are concerned that many students will not or cannot read assigned pages from

textbooks, in part because the textbooks are too difficult or poorly written, or students lack the necessary background knowledge. Some teachers have questioned the value of reading about a topic as a tool for learning, especially in content areas such as science, advocating experience-based learning activities instead. Finally, many secondary teachers argue that they can cover vast amounts of content more quickly through other activities such as lectures and demonstrations. Because they view their role as teaching content, rather than literacy, most teachers rely heavily on oral texts, whole-class lecture, explanation, demonstration, and recitation considering them to be the most efficient way to deliver course content and to monitor learning (Moje & Wade, 1997; O'Brien et al., 1995). Other studies report that textbooks are used within secondary classrooms for many different instruction and managerial purposes within the context of a teacher-directed lecture discussion format (Alvermann et al., 1985; Ratekin, et al., 1985).

A study examining the reading practices of secondary English and social studies classrooms found that textbooks were almost always present in the classrooms and that three-fourths of the time textbooks were used. Supplementary text materials were noticeably absent, even in English classes. Findings provided evidence that educators should be concerned about how text is used in high school classrooms and question the effects of school policy decisions and some traditional instructional practices and the development of literacy (Eanet, 1992).

Armbruster et al. (1990), analyzing middle school science and social studies lessons in which the textbook was the focus of teaching, found only four instances of explicit instruction in how to read and learn with text. Teachers did not teach or even encourage students to practice essential text learning processes. Menke and Davey

(1994) found more experienced teachers may teach students how to uses textbooks more frequently than do preservice or beginning teachers. Their open-ended responses indicated that most teachers, regardless of experience rarely used their textbooks as a source of discussion or for group work. Teachers were most likely to use the text to supplement instruction or as a basis for lectures.

Nystrand et al. (1997) did long-term, large scale research in secondary high school English classes to analyze how teachers and students negotiate the curriculum together. This was achieved by analyzing the classroom discourse or talk. The study confirmed most classroom discourse is overwhelmingly monologic, or teacher controlled, and recitation and lecture are the most common practices. The study found that generally students learn more in classrooms organized more dialogically than monologically.

One goal of content reading being included in the curriculum is comprehension. As Fielding and Pearson (1994) noted, one of the biggest success stories of the research of the 1980s is that research has shown that comprehension can be taught. Content area reading has typically involved techniques used by subject matter teachers to facilitate their students' comprehension of textbook assignments (Romine & McKenna, 1996).

Pressley (1998) found that teachers in effective instructional programs were aware of the comprehension strategies in the research literature and selected strategies and methods that made the most sense to them. Teachers explained the strategies to their students, showed them how to use them, and helped students apply these strategies as part of in-school practice. Good comprehension instruction includes both explicit instruction in specific comprehension strategies and a great deal of time and opportunity for reading, writing, and discussion of text (Duke & Pearson, 2002).

Other research shows many content area teachers do not show their students how to use literacy strategies. The need to train secondary teachers in the application of effective content literacy techniques has both theoretical substantiation and practical implications (Romine & McKenna, 1996). The teachers may be willing to provide and facilitate the best possible education for their students, but they may have had little or no training in reading methods. In many instances, teacher-training courses were more oriented toward content than to processes and teachers often feel a lack expertise in content reading. There is a strong feeling of "How can I do my best for the students when I lack expertise in that area?" (McAloon,1993, p. 332).

From a theoretical standpoint, literacy processes in content classrooms can help students organize and construct content knowledge, even though the initial exposure to new concepts and ideas might have come from lecture or demonstration. In practical terms, content classrooms are heavily populated with students for whom literacy tasks are a challenge. Middle and high school content area teachers need to deal directly with the reading problems facing their students as they tackle day-to-day textbook assignments and related writing tasks (McKenna & Robinson, 1991; Romine & McKenna, 1996).

One of the best ways to help students grasp the complex language and structure of textbooks is through writing. Studies and analyses of the reading-writing connection show the high degree of similarity between these activities. Tierney and Shanahan (1996) comment that reading and writing share many of the same cognitive strategies including: goal setting, knowledge mobilization, perspective-taking, review, self-correction, and self-assessment. Writing helps students think about text ideas carefully and analytically. The more students come to understand that there is an author behind

every text with a particular viewpoint that influences the message conveyed, the more they can engage in critical reading (Readence, et al., 2001). Students often develop a one-dimensional view of writing. Although they receive explicit instruction in English classes on how to write essays, students rarely connect writing with learning by using writing to explore and interpret meaning that they encounter in texts and class discussions (Vacca, 2002).

Content Area Beliefs and Practices

Sturtevant (1992) used autobiographical interviews and observations to examine the beliefs that two veteran high school teachers held toward the teaching of history and how they used literacy in their classrooms. Their past histories in the textbook driven discipline of history strongly influenced their teaching, and they tried to cover as much material as possible. Sturtevant used any inconsistencies found between stated beliefs and instruction to explore instructional decision making. In a case comparison, Sturtevant found that both teachers' beliefs about teaching history affected their beliefs about how literacy was to be included in their instruction. Like many content teachers, both teachers viewed reading as the vehicle for learning content; yet, how they used reading was clearly reflected in their beliefs about how to teach history. Her research showed the long-term impact on teacher beliefs forged early in the teacher's life and enduring through highly predictable patterns and routines later in their career. Pressures from administration to cover more information is also a dilemma for teachers and they struggle with an overloaded curriculum and feel frustrated when they try to integrate new activities that would enhance learning into their instructional planning.

A similar study exploring how one teacher used literacy within her classroom, was an ethnography conducted by Moje (1994) with a high school chemistry teacher. One central belief was that of science as organization and this belief was reflected in how literacy was used in her class to meet her classroom context. This teacher employed content reading strategies to help her students organize the material they read. She viewed herself as a teacher of students, not subjects, and this belief shaped the uses of literacy in her class. An important issue in this study concerning teacher belief and practice consistencies was raised by Moje, who stated, "It may be that inconsistencies lie not between what teachers believe and what they practice, but between what researchers believe and what teachers practice" (p. 191). What Moje is suggesting is that when examining relations between teacher beliefs and practices, it is crucial to examine the relations within the context they occur. By doing so, one can gain a deeper understanding of why teachers use literacy in their content classes and of how their beliefs about literacy are clustered within their beliefs about learning. By allowing students' voices to emerge in this study, Moje provided insight into their beliefs about teaching, learning, and the purpose of literacy in their classroom as they interacted with the teacher.

Fox (1993) conducted case studies of five student teachers in the field of English. Based on interviews and participant observation field notes, Fox found that student teachers coped with the multiple cultures of the school site and university milieu by becoming more teacher-centered in their lessons. This teacher-centered approach to instruction replaced the collaborative model advocated in their university methods classes. Content area literacy strategies were embedded into a complex sociocultural

setting of ninth-grade English, where their utility was minimized.

Wilson et al., (1993; see also Konopak, et al., 1994; Readence, Kile, Mallette, 1998) modified an instrument used by Kinzer (1988), to establish its reliability and validity for use with secondary content teachers. They conducted a series of studies that examined teachers' beliefs about literacy. In the first study, completed in 1991, an English teacher was asked to complete the beliefs instrument and was observed teaching a complete unit on Romanticism in poetry. The results indicated that the teacher was consistent in her beliefs and instructional choices, yet she was not consistent in her beliefs and actual teaching practice. In a second case that shed further light on the differences that develop between preservice teachers' stated beliefs and the realities of secondary classrooms, Wilson et al. (1993) followed a student through the content literacy class to student teaching. The preservice teacher espoused beliefs about secondary reading that were largely interactive and reader-based in his first semester of content literacy and its practicum in social studies. However, during the subsequent semester of student teaching, he became very text based in his teaching, abandoning any use of content literacy prereading and postreading strategies. He mirrored his cooperating teacher's approach to maintaining order, control, and easy accountability through low-level assessments and worksheets.

Konopak et al., (1994) examined the beliefs of in-service teachers who had between 1 and 15 years teaching experience and represented eight different subject areas. The participants were given the modified instrument to measure their beliefs about how reading takes place and how reading develops. The participants were then placed into one of three groups: text-based, reader-based, or interactive, and asked to choose one of

three lesson plans from three different areas (i.e., decoding, vocabulary, and comprehension) that they would use with an average content class. The explanations for how reading takes place differed by source of meaning and role of the reader. The results indicated that those teachers with reader-based orientations, which were held by a majority of the teachers, selected statistically significantly more reader-based lessons in the areas of vocabulary and comprehension. In-service teachers were overwhelmingly reader based on comprehension, suggesting a strong academic and teaching emphasis in this instructional area.

In a cross-case analysis of three qualitative studies that focused on three secondary science (biology, chemistry, and earth science) teachers' beliefs about literacy, Dillon et al., (1994) could not separate the teachers' beliefs about literacy from their beliefs about science, students, and learning. Accordingly, the literacy activities varied from science teacher to science teacher and were framed by their idiosyncratic beliefs about subject matter and students. The researchers suggested that their three long-term studies helped move the focus away from a teacher belief and practice constructs viewed in relation to a priori models to a broader understanding of how and why these teachers used literacy within their science classes. Bean (1997) found, using findings from two studies of experienced teachers (see Moje, 1992, 1993; Muth, 1993), that teachers used a modest array of content area literacy strategies that they perceived as compatible with the structure of their discipline and their personal beliefs about human nature, rules, and learning.

Lloyd (1994) examined the culture of two classrooms in an attempt to understand how students learn and become literate within the discipline of high school biology. She

examined the beliefs of two teachers from the same school as well as the beliefs of their students. One teacher taught from a behaviorist perspective where scientific literacy was about reading to memorize facts and writing was to accumulate notes and the other teacher taught from a constructivist perspective where scientific learning was about learning ideas and solving problems. Five themes emerged in this research: (a) the role of the textbook, (b) what learning is, (c) the purpose of classroom tasks, (d) roles and perception of adolescents, and (e) teachers' responses to adolescent learning.

A study by Hinchman and Zalewski (1996) represented a collaboration between a university researcher and a teacher researcher and explored the literacy-related beliefs of the participants in a 10th-grade global studies class. This research was specifically undertaken to represent adolescents' point of view in the classroom context as well as that of the teacher, versus other beliefs studies that focused on the teacher and characterized the adolescents' viewpoints as secondary in purpose. The researchers concluded that, although the students and teacher shared understandings about the makeup of instructional activities, their beliefs about what constituted success in these endeavors differed. For the teacher, success was characterized as reading to understand the key concepts and obtaining a global perspective; for the students, success was determined by getting adequate grades. This conclusion was manifested during all four major categories of classroom activities: lectures, questions and answers, small group discussions, and assessments. In this study, adolescents' beliefs about learning and understanding the course material are as important to consider in the process of becoming literate in the global studies class as are the teacher's beliefs.

Preservice content teachers are typically introduced to vocabulary and

comprehension strategies in required content area literacy courses. The expectation is that these future teachers will select strategies that match the needs of classrooms in their diverse disciplines and transfer their use of the strategies to future teaching contexts. Various researchers have raised doubts about both of these expectations and studies document preservice teachers' resistance to the use of strategies promoted in content area literacy courses (Fox, 1993; Hollingsworth & Teal, 1991; Wilson, et al., 1993). Bean (1997) describes pre-service teachers' selection and use of vocabulary and comprehensions strategies in a field based practicum in a required content area reading course. He compared the strategies selected, the strategies selected within various disciplines and a comparison of strategies selected and strategies actually used. In a subsequent semester, where students were interviewed in a practicum or student teaching semester, their selection and use of strategies narrowed dramatically. Only two out of ten preservice teachers interviewed in this second phase of the study continued to use the strategies originally selected for microteaching. The most dominant influence in strategy selection and use was the cooperating teacher.

A case study by Loranger (1999) explored how one teacher met the challenge of teaching a content area literacy program. A curriculum project was designed to integrate reading, writing, and study strategies into the content area of science. The study found that an integrated approach to reading can be implemented in a middle school environment to help students learn to use reading and writing strategies to learn content knowledge.

Holt-Reynolds (1999, 2000) discusses the importance of subject matter expertise in the training of secondary school teachers. The study was designed to learn how

successful literature majors transfer their own disciplinary expertise, their abilities as readers, into the school subject literature and project a subject-specific pedagogical role for themselves as teachers. Using individual case studies she illustrates the importance of subject matter expertise and how it does not necessarily translate into an understanding of how to model that expertise or share it with students. One prospective English teacher, judged to be an excellent reader herself, failed to see how her expertise was learned and that failure caused her expertise to be unavailable in her own teaching. Another prospective English teacher saw content reading strategies as ends in themselves and not techniques for teaching and concluded that the teacher's role ended when she had activated learners, invited them to talk, and successfully engaged their participation.

Langer (2000, 2001a, 2001b) in a longitudinal qualitative study looked at characteristics of teachers' lives that accompanied student achievement in reading, writing, and English. The results of this study showed the importance of a school climate that promoted student achievement, teachers' professional development, structured improvement activities, teacher caring and commitment, and respect for lifelong learning. By looking at diversified school systems she found the most successful were the most organized and benefited from full participation from teachers up to the school superintendent.

In a study conducted, by Barry (2002), to the question about barriers to the implementation of content reading strategies, the response of time was overwhelming. Related to this issue of time is the pressure middle and high school teachers feel to cover all the required material, the need for teachers to repeatedly model strategies, and the lack of motivation and limited preparation were perceived as additional barriers. Basic as well

as in-depth understanding of strategies was considered necessary if teachers were to implement them in their classrooms.

Teacher Attitudes

Lortie (1975) offered that teachers' beliefs are so ingrained that they come to be known by the individual teacher as knowledge. A longitudinal study of teachers found that they believed that the most powerful influence on their learning to teach was the experience they gained through on-the-job training and their prior experiences as students. The teachers claimed that their preservice educational programs offered little in the way of professional preparation and had little effect on altering the way that they viewed teaching in the classroom. In research studies, beliefs are seldom clearly defined or used explicitly as a conceptual tool. Pajares (1992) suggested that the artificial distinction between belief and knowledge is common to most definitions. He defines belief as based on evaluation and judgment whereas knowledge is based on objective fact.

Recent research on teacher effectiveness has shifted its focus from just observing behaviors in the classroom to examining the relationship between the way teachers think and what they practice. The underlying assumption is that teachers' thoughts about different components of the instructional process can influence their classroom plans and actions. Teachers' beliefs regarding teaching and learning are considered critical components supporting the planning and implementation stages of instruction. By examining these beliefs, researchers can address their influence on, and how they are influenced by, classroom events. In reading education, the extent to which teachers'

thoughts influence instructional decision making and behavior has been debated. One position suggests that teachers do possess theoretical beliefs about reading and that their plans and subsequent actions are filtered through these understandings. Research has emphasized factors external to the teacher which can be even more influential, including the sociocultural and environmental realities of the classroom that can constrain the implementation of belief supported instruction (Konopak, et al., 1994).

Prior research (Alvermann et al., 1985; Feathers & Smith, 1983, 1987; Smith & Feathers, 1983a, 1983b), demonstrates preservice teachers, like their practicing counterparts, may question reading comprehension and vocabulary strategies adaptable to a wide range of content material because those strategies produce few apparent benefits or measurable gains on standardized tests, do not provide the most cost-efficient use of instructional time, and do not conform neatly to behaviorally based content objectives. Such strategies do promote the use of textbooks as a vehicle for concept learning; but a dominant role for the textbook detracts from teacher telling, a prevalent, and often preferred method for transmitting knowledge. Data from a study by O'Brien (1988) indicated that many preservice teachers expressed doubt they would use content reading strategies because they took too much time away from instruction. These strategies, presented as instructional tools, were viewed by many preservice teachers as an encroachment on valuable time spent covering content. Other research investigating teacher thinking indicates that teachers use various types of knowledge in order to meet the daily demands of teaching (Johnson, 1988).

Lester (2000) found that educators agree that the literacy elements of reading, writing, communicating, and comprehension of text are essential element of instruction in

the middle and high school setting. Teachers use their own content expertise along with theoretical knowledge about the learning process and an understanding of instructional strategies to negotiate the type of instruction that will be used in the classroom. For teachers to include reading strategies in the secondary curriculum, there must be a knowledge of the strategy itself and an understanding of which strategies might be appropriate in different situations. Jackson and Cunningham (1994) found differences in teacher perceptions about the necessity of literacy instruction based on the subject matter taught. Teachers whose students are expected to read more in their particular content area, such as English and social studies, placed more value on literacy instruction that teacher in areas where more hands-on learning is traditionally emphasized.

Holt-Reynolds (1991, 1992) argued that preservice teachers' theories about good practice in a classroom are deeply rooted in personal history and are resistant to change. In her case study of nine preservice teachers from the fields of English and mathematics, she found that they rejected the content area literacy course professor's emphasis on small-group learning and constructivist strategies. They viewed lecturing as a fundamentally good teaching technique if the teacher lectured in a vibrant way and students were active listeners. Lecturing was perceived as a clear demonstration that the teacher had valuable content knowledge to transmit to students.

In a study by Wilson (1995), students agreed that content teachers should help students improve their reading ability, teach technical terms, help students set purposes for reading, and be familiar with reading theory. They believed teachers should be required to take a content area reading course and model an interest in reading. They did not see the job of teaching reading and study skills as belonging to the English teacher

alone. However, students enrolled in this content area reading course entered the course believing that the content teacher should primarily impart subject knowledge and they did not change their attitudes although they believed that some of the methods they had been taught were valuable. Students generally felt more allegiance to their discipline than to the teaching of reading in the content areas (see also Lloyd, 1990; Rafferty, 1990).

On a survey by Nourie and Lenski (1998), a closer look at the responses on a post-survey indicated that 60 percent of the teacher candidates believed that knowing how to teach reading in content areas was significant enough to be required for a secondary teaching certificate. Furthermore, 67 percent of the teacher candidates disagreed with the statement that English teachers alone should be responsible for teaching reading in secondary schools and 78 percent disagreed that content teachers should leave reading instruction to reading teachers. These results indicated that students have a generally favorable attitude toward teaching reading strategies in their content areas. After analyzing the surveys two tentative conclusions were reached: first, students generally felt that they needed to learn content reading strategies, and second, the students' personal reading attitudes were not roadblocks to their teaching of reading strategies. The traditional preservice approach, however, does nothing to enhance the attitudes of the students. Research indicates that the learning of reading strategies in college courses is not generally transferred to actual classroom practice and secondary students in content literacy courses need to have their beliefs about the teaching of reading reinforced through a strong motivational approach.

In a replication and extension of one of his previous studies, Bean (1998) sought to explore why preservice and in-service teachers acquired negative attitudes toward

reading in the middle stage of their development. Although the great majority of these students had positive attitudes toward reading in the early grades, by the middle stage of their development, negative attitudes were the norm. Negative influences included dull textbooks, reading as a form of forced labor, and diminished self-concept related to tracking schemes and levels. Positive influences encompassed opportunities for book sharing, discussion, and book exchanges with friends. In addition, journal writing about books, book clubs, and field trips linked to book reading were highly valued. Teachers who took the trouble to introduce textbook study strategies, dramatic presentations, and socioculturally interesting material all received accolades.

Teacher Education and Training

The rationale for including literacy instruction in middle school and high school teacher education programs consistently refers to the importance of proficiency in literacy for individuals to meet the demands of daily living. While reading is considered to be connected with instruction as subject matter is presented (Alvermann & Moore, 1991) many content area teachers fail to recognize the influence literacy instruction can have on learning in the classroom. "As we shift into an information-oriented society, literacy expectations for high school graduates are changing. The complexity of choosing instructional strategies becomes more challenging each year for secondary teachers. Though literacy competencies for high school students differ from those for elementary students, there is a need for continued development in the areas of reading, writing, reasoning, and communication" (Lester, 2000, p. 10).

Content reading professors have been trying to convince preservice teachers,

usually middle and secondary education students from a variety of subject area disciplines, the value of content reading instruction and why content reading courses are required of them by state departments of education. The preservice teachers who are required to enroll in the content area reading courses often have little experience teaching and may enter the courses with misconceptions about content area reading and their role as a content teacher (Reinking, Mealey, & Ridgeway, 1993; O'Brien & Stewart 1990; Stewart, 1990).

Since teacher beliefs and assumptions play an important role in decision-making and instructional choices, recent studies (Barry 2002; Lester, 2000) have been conducted to analyze teacher education programs and offer suggestions for curriculum changes that will positively affect comprehension of text for secondary students. These researchers emphasize the selection of particular strategies in relation to certain learning situations to enhance content teaching. Classroom research and current theories of teachers' beliefs and practices show that although a rich array of vocabulary and comprehension strategies exists in our content area literacy courses, their actual application in classrooms may be minimized by other factors (Bean 1997). Some preservice secondary teachers view content reading courses as irrelevant to the future success as teachers (O'Brien & Stewart, 1990).

The infusion of content literacy into the curriculum via courses, instructional texts, and staff development programs is compatible with the predominant institutional organization and goals of secondary schools. This technical, institutional organization is evident in the approved, formal curriculum and the way in which it is framed with the success of the curriculum determined by the coverage of content and the amount of seat

time a student accrues in the classroom (O'Brien, et al., 1995).

Ratekin et al., (1985) have offered some explanations for why content teachers do not practice what content reading courses and texts preach: (a) a bounded rationality in which teachers construct simplified approaches to content instruction based on rationales that fit the constraints of their particular workplaces, (b) the possibility that content reading strategies may be viewed as instructionally worthless because they were learned in isolation with little group interaction, and (c) the unpopularity of textbook-based instruction to which content reading approaches are logically linked. Ratekin and his colleagues acknowledged that subject teachers' reluctance to accept content reading pedagogies transcends simple misconceptions about how reading is important.

In a study exploring the beliefs and practices of three preservice teachers from various content areas, including English, about a required content area reading course and field experiences and its relationship to their actual use of content area reading strategies. The results showed students had interest in content area reading and strategies. The authors summarized that current theories of how preservice teachers construct beliefs and practices about teaching emphasize four influential factors: (a) discipline-based theories about learning, (b) the culture of the classroom and the cooperating teacher's style, (c) reflection on preservice experiences, and (d) one's personal biography as a filter for reflection on teaching experiences. The powerful influence of the cooperating teacher's style often outweighs the influence of the other three factors (Bean & Zulich, 1991).

Case study findings using biography were used in a study by Knowles (1992), to understand the formation of teacher role identity and preservice teachers thinking about classroom practices. The major components of teacher role identity that were evidenced

in the cases include: (a) childhood experiences, (b) teacher role models, (c) teaching experiences, and less importantly, (d) significant or important people and significant prior experience other than very early formative experiences. Student teachers do not enter pre-service education programs waiting to learn the skills, aptitudes and experiences appropriate for a first year teacher or begin full-time teaching with only the experience of student teaching and university coursework. They have already been subjected to a lifetime of teacher education and they come not only with their own agenda, but with definite views as to the knowledge and experiences which they will accept as valuable for them as classroom teachers. His data support the hypothesis that earlier experiences are more important than later experiences in the formation of a teacher role identity. Although later experiences were often most evident in early classroom practices, as difficulties arose in the teaching setting, it was usually the later experiences that were eliminated as preservice or beginning teachers attempted to cope with difficult situations. What was taken from the university were those viewpoints and orientations to practice in the classroom that were congruent with previously held images of teachers' work and that provided reinforcement and validation of their positions.

Daisey and Shroyer (1993) suggest that some preservice teachers who are planning to teach in content areas have attitudes toward reading that are considerably different from those of their college reading instructors. The secondary education students' misconception about reading as they enter the course may influence their learning in the content course and their eventual application of the reading methods to their own classrooms when they begin teaching. Studies of preservice teachers have found that sociocultural features of student teaching practicums minimize collaborative

strategies and typically cause the beginning teacher to embrace a teacher-centered transmission of knowledge approach in teaching (Fox, 1993; O'Brien et al., 1995).

During the 1992-93 academic school year, Hermann, Cook, Elliott, Lewis, and Thomas (1993) created and studied a new type of professional context for learning with pre- and in-service teachers that also looked at themselves as teachers of teachers. The purpose of the project was to challenge their existing conceptions and beliefs about literacy teaching and learning within their own practices, and to create and study the effect of a different type of professional learning community on their personal and professional growth and development. Adjustments and difficulties included: (a) time constraints, (b) resistance by students, (c) confusion over roles and relationships, (d) changes in the classroom environment, and (e) difficulties with objective evaluation.

In a study by Moje and Wade (1997), using case study analysis with preservice teachers, teaching was first viewed as a technical act in the sense that it involved knowledge dissemination, based on comments that focused on whether the students represented in the cases understood the information or not. Second, teaching was equated with the technical act of diagnosing student abilities and finding ways to help students manage the demands of the curriculum. Rather than recommending the teaching of comprehension, writing, and study strategies to help a case student become an independent learner, the preservice teachers suggested ways to help them effectively acquire the information prescribed by the case teachers and to complete the assignments. Preservice teachers' views of knowledge were related to their assumptions about student abilities and they viewed knowledge, like ability, as fixed. When asked to use literacy strategies to create action plans or solutions for the dilemmas faced by the teacher and the

student in the various cases, the preservice teachers did not suggest changing the curriculum.

The ways in which preservice teachers view their content area literacy course and related classroom experiences influences beliefs and practices about strategy use. There are many reasons why preservice teacher resist content area reading courses and fail to implement content area reading in the classroom: (a) Preservice teachers may not see the rationale for the course, (b) instructors of content reading courses do not communicate the course rationale clearly, (c) students may not be readers and writers themselves, (d) students' focus is exclusively on content, (e) students perceive the content reading course as remedial, (f) students may have heard rumors about the class, (g) Students perceive a conflict in learning styles and the old paradigm of instruction in which only one style of learning was recognized (Daisey & Shroyer, 1993).

The idea that new teaching professionals should have mentors to guide them through developing the skills and managing the stresses of their work has become increasingly accepted according to Hargreaves and Fullan (2000) although implementation has often been disappointing. This may happen not because of poor program design but because mentoring is not considered as integral to our approach to teaching and professionalism. The reality in schools today is that while mentors may know more than new teachers about certain areas such as school procedure or classroom management, the new teachers may sometimes know more than the mentor about new teaching strategies. If a school assumes the mentor always knows best, innovative new teachers might quickly experience the mentor relationship as oppressive or leading them away from the purposes and practices they recently acquired in their coursework.

Mentoring, according to the authors, will never reach its potential unless it becomes central to the task of transforming the teaching profession itself.

Like all professionals, teachers need to update their skills and knowledge continuously. Traditional professional development opportunities have tended to be isolated, one-time experiences, disconnected from each other and only remotely related to the subjects, activities, and challenges of teachers' real work. Needed are in-depth learning experiences that are ongoing, reflective, and aligned with student standards and assessment with adequate time allowed for implementation. For example, an effort to combine the elements of ideal professional development is the work of the National Board for Professional Teaching Standards (n.d.), which has developed standards and assessments for accomplished teaching in key content areas and grade levels. Teachers seeking National Board Certification develop a portfolio of their practice as reflected in student work, a process requiring teachers to consider and assess their practice against clearly stated teaching standards and, in some cases, modify their practice accordingly.

Wetherill, Burton, Calhoun, and Thomas (2002) examined current professional development practices and suggested an alternative approach that includes important considerations for teacher preparation institutions. Their study describes a number of assumptions about professional development and suggests a framework for connecting the redefined role of teachers to strategies for designing responsive professional development programs. Professional development should be considered as something that involves self-reflection and growth over the span of a career with the improvement of teaching and learning in the classroom and the improvement of education as a profession as final goals. Implications for profession development within a university-school

partnership structure are recommended and discussed as a result of their study (see Darling-Hammond, 1999, 2000a, 2000b).

Collaborations between schools and universities have been created to support the learning of prospective and experienced teachers while simultaneously restructuring schools and schools of education. In an analysis of teacher leadership in professional development schools, (Darling-Hammond, Bullmaster, and Cobb, (1995) made three major claims: (a) that teacher leadership is connected to teacher learning, (b) that teacher leadership can be embedded in tasks and roles that do not create artificial, imposed, formal hierarchies and positions, and that such approaches lead to greater profession-wide leadership as the normal role of teacher is expanded, and (c) that the stimulation of such leadership and learning is likely to improve the capacity of schools to respond to the needs of students. This professional conception of teaching relies on greater knowledge for teachers as the basis for responsible decision making and is thus related to teachers' preservice and in-service learning opportunities as well as the kinds of tasks they engage. These new programs typically engage teachers in studying research and conducting their own inquiries through cases, action research, and structured reflections about practice. They envision the professional teacher as one who learns from teaching rather than as one who has finished learning how to teach, and the job of teacher education as developing the capacity to inquire systematically and sensitively into the nature of learning and the effects of teaching (Darling-Hammond, 1998).

In an extensive review of the research on teacher quality and student achievement, Darling-Hammond (2000a) found that teacher quality and expertise consistently and accurately predicted student achievement. Greater achievement for students is inspired

by teachers who have ongoing learning opportunities. Continuing throughout a teacher's career, professional development must focus on deepening teachers' understanding of the processes of teaching and learning and of the students they teach. Effective professional development involves teachers both as learners and as teachers and allows them to struggle with the uncertainties that accompany each role. Professional development also means providing occasions for teachers to reflect critically on their practice and to fashion new knowledge and beliefs about content, pedagogy, and students (Darling-Hammond & McLaughlin, 1995). Teachers learn best by (a) studying, doing, and reflecting, (b) by collaborating with other teachers, (c) by looking closely at students and their work, and (d) by sharing what they see (Darling-Hammond, 1998).

A two-year study by Fisher (2001) focused on the implementation of a professional development plan for literacy in an urban high school. Three components were deemed crucial: (a) focused and accountable professional development where teachers were trained in the instructional strategies they were expected to use and monthly meetings were held for discussion and to monitor progress, (b) every day students were expected to read for 20 minutes, in a specially extended class period, and (c) within the block schedule used in this school for ninth and tenth grade English was extended to an entire year. Professional development was determined to be the key. Students were influenced by quality instruction and support for classrooms teachers and the implications from this study and others (Darling-Hammond 1999) suggest that the professional development of teachers is critically linked to student achievement.

Gee and Rakow (1991) had teachers evaluate recommended reading practices for the secondary school. Teachers responded they found all 36 practices somewhat helpful.

The researchers noted that discussion of the value and use of strategies the teacher valued but used infrequently might help teachers use these strategies with greater confidence. The researchers believed staff development sessions in content reading should include refining skills that research has found helpful and that there is a high correlation between the confidence teachers have in implementing practices and their use of the practices in their classroom.

Zipperer, Worley, Sisson, and Said (2002) believe literacy is crucial to scholastic success and a school districts choice of a reading program is of paramount importance. In many cases the success or failure of the reading program in a school is based upon the principal's understanding of and support for the program. Although many secondary school principals have little or no training in the teaching of reading, they are held accountable for the development, implementation, and evaluation of reading programs in their schools. In a survey conducted to gain principals' perceptions of a school districts' reading program, the researchers found: (a) principals had received their training in reading education from recent workshops, (b) a personal desire to read and learn, or (c) an undergraduate or graduate class in reading. Although the principals reported varying degrees of knowledge about reading instruction, they universally agreed to its importance. The researchers found principals (80 percent of them) believed the false assumption that phonics instruction should be taught in their schools.

According to the National Staff Development Council's Standards for Staff Development (2004), learning communities, or small groups or teams of teachers with similar goals and interests result in positive professional development experiences and higher levels of learning for everyone involved. When teacher learning is aligned with

student learning, needs, and student curriculum, it contributes to increased student achievement. In the past, staff development has failed to provide the kind of information teachers want and need and staff development has had a lack of relevance to academic disciplines. Generic teaching strategies, while helpful to know, are not a useful focus for secondary teachers because they are often not aligned with curriculum they teach and because they do not have the time to plan how to integrate them into their instructional repertoire. Until recently professional development was not taken seriously by educational reformers and the early history of the field of staff development created a negative perception of staff development among teachers. Staff development is often still perceived as an add-on and the first thing to be eliminated when budgets are tight.

Lester (2003) did a study involving secondary teachers and administrators to discover what makes professional development effective for secondary educators and focusing on the integrations of literacy instruction in the high school. Participants embraced the notion that student performance can be enhanced through improved classroom practice and say successful professional development experiences begin with activities that become an integral part of practice rather than those perceived to be additional tasks. Her findings suggest that: (a) collaborative professional development generates enthusiastic participation, (b) teachers who are willing to comply with accountability standards, and (c) a positive impact on student learning as new ideas are implemented in the classroom. Emerging research indicates effective professional development implements an action plan that participating educators believe will bring about positive change in student performance.

A study by Heck and Marcoulides (1993) identified performance based

parameters of instructional leadership and sought to determine the effects of that leadership in elementary and secondary schools. Teacher and principal perceptions about how the principal governs the school are strongly related to the manner in which the principal is perceived to organize the school's program and to the principal's role in building productive school climate. Climate and instructional organization showed a small positive relationship in explaining achievement. Within the domain of instructional organization, their findings suggested that principals: (a) pay considerable attention to developing school goals that are consistent with district aims, (b) help teachers acquire needed instructional resources, and (c) directly supervise how instructional strategies are transformed into learning activities through observation and follow-up feedback. Principals have an obligation to become instructional leaders. A report by Shahid et al., (2001) promotes principals becoming the head learners, experiencing, demonstrating, and modeling what is expected of the teachers and students. They developed practical suggestions to help principals devote more time to instructional leadership.

Survey responses from a national sample of content area teachers were used by Littman and Stodolsky (1998) to investigate the extent to which teachers read professional journals, what they read, and connections between reading and other professional development activities. Slightly over half the English teachers reported reading at least one professional journal, usually in their subject area. Teachers with graduate degrees were more likely to read professional journals than those with only bachelors degrees. Seventy-three percent of English teachers had attended a professional workshop in their subject area. The readers were also found to be more likely to be professionally active and belong to a professional organization.

Summary

Four areas of prior research were used to help focus field work in this research study. School culture and curriculum, previous studies of reading and writing in the content area, studies of teachers attitudes toward content area reading, and teacher education and training in content area reading. These previous studies served to focus the need for more research in the area of practicing teacher's content area beliefs and what types of reading and writing activities occur in the two high school English classes and what influences the types of and degree to which reading and writing activities occur in two high school English classes?

CHAPTER III

METHOD

Where does literacy fit into content instruction in high school classrooms? A review of the research reveals inconsistencies in the degree that literacy instruction is implemented. Attitudes about the role of literacy in secondary education vary within the practice of content area instruction and subject area disciplines. The studies included here indicate the need for teachers to become aware of their own attitudes and understandings about literacy instruction and where it fits into teaching. Clearer explanations of the role of literacy instruction in learning content material at the secondary level are needed. This chapter contains a description of the theoretical rationale for the study, the role of the researcher, the design of the study, and data analysis procedures.

Theoretical Rationale for Qualitative Case Study Research

Qualitative research is an inquiry process of understanding based on distinct methodological traditions of inquiry that explore a social or human problem. The researcher builds a complex holistic picture, analyzes words, reports detailed views of informants, and conducts the study in a natural setting (Creswell, 1996). Qualitative inquiry which focuses on meaning in context requires a human data collection instrument

that is sensitive to the underlying meaning when gathering and interpreting data (Merriam, 1998). What is observed and the meaning that is made of inquiry are deeply influenced by the theoretical assumptions of the researcher (Dillon, O'Brien, & Heilman, 2000).

Ethnography can be defined as a research method designed to describe and analyze practices and beliefs of cultures and communities. Culture can be defined as the behavior, ideas, beliefs, and knowledge of a particular group of people (Anderson & Arsenault, 1998; Mertens, 1998). The ethnographer seeks a deeper immersion in others' worlds to grasp what they experience as meaningful and important. With immersion, the field researcher sees from the inside how people lead their lives, how they carry out their daily rounds of activities, what they find meaningful, and how they do so. It gives the field worker access to the fluidity of others' lives and enhances his sensitivity to interaction and process. The researcher observes both ordinary routines and conditions under which people conduct their lives and the constraints and pressures to which such living is subject (Emerson et al., 1995).

Qualitative case studies can be characterized as being particularistic, descriptive, and heuristic. Particularistic means that case studies focus on a particular situation, event, program, or phenomenon and this makes it an especially good design for practical problems arising from everyday practices. Descriptive means that the end product is a rich "thick description" (Merriam, 1998, p. 29) of the phenomenon under study. Thick description is defined as the complete, literal description of the entity being investigated. The product of a qualitative case study uses words and pictures to convey what the researcher has learned about the phenomenon. Heuristic means the case study

illuminates the readers understanding of the phenomenon under study (Merriam, 1998).

In interpretive qualitative research, such as a case study, education is considered to be a process and school is a lived experience. Multiple realities are constructed socially by individuals. Qualitative researchers are interested in understanding the meanings people have constructed and how they make sense of their world and their experiences in that world (Merriam, 1998). According to Donmoyer (1990) there are three reasons for the use of case study research. The first advantage to the reader is accessibility to experience situations that they would not normally have access to. Second, readers are able to see through the researchers' eyes and that may allow them to see something familiar in new and interesting ways. Finally, people can more willingly learn from a case study without personal defensiveness and resistance.

Case study research in education is usually conducted so that specific issues and problems of practice can be identified and explained. A case study design is employed to gain an in-depth understanding of the situation and meaning for those involved. The interest is in process rather than outcomes, in context rather than a specific variable and in discovery rather than confirmation (Merriam, 1998). A case might be selected because it is an instance of some concern, an issue or hypothesis, or because it is intrinsically interesting (Dillon et al., 2000; Merriam, 1998; Stake, 1995). Stake defines a case as the unit of study and an integrated system while Smith (1978) refers to a bounded system (as cited by Stake, 1995, p. 2). A bounded system has a finite point in data collection where people to be interviewed or observations to be conducted can be determined to end.

Qualitative inquiry provides the advantage of learning about schools and classrooms in ways that are useful for understanding other schools and classrooms

(Anderson & Arsenault, 1998; Eisner, 1998). Because of this real-world context, there may be broad implications from this research for teacher training and staff development. Continued research through observation and collaboration with schools will provide better information on what teacher education and staff development programs should include to improve teaching and student learning. The success of changes in the schools will depend on implementing responses to specific teacher and learner needs. The situation-specific nature of the kind of teaching and learning envisioned by reformers in teacher training is the key challenge for teachers' professional development and is an obstacle to policy makers' efforts to reform education. The specific situational character of effective practice does not mean that local change must be uninformed by experience elsewhere (Darling-Hammond & McLaughlin, 1995). Research in secondary content area reading can provide knowledge for others to consider as they begin their own reform efforts.

Role of the Researcher

The researcher is the principal instrument through which one experiences the environment in which the subjects live or work. The ability to experience these qualities requires more than just the researcher's presence and the ability to see what is subtle but significant is crucial. Qualitative research has an interpretive character and the researcher is the instrument that engages the situation and makes sense of it. Inquirers try to account for what they have seen and try to explain why something is taking place and what this experience holds for those in the situation studied (Eisner, 1998). It is imperative that the researcher try to understand phenomena and interpret the social reality from two

perspectives: etic, an outsider perspective, and emic, an insider perspective. Etic frameworks constantly look at the phenomena and ask what does this event or interaction mean to the individual involved. The emic framework acknowledges conceptual and theoretical understanding of the participants' social reality. The key concern to understanding the phenomenon is the participant's, not the researcher's view. The researcher first tries to understand phenomena through the participants' eyes then places that understanding within their theoretical and conceptual framework (Anderson & Arsenault, 1998; Merriam, 1998). Standard qualitative designs require the person most responsible for interpretations to be in the field, making observations, exercising subjective judgment, analyzing and synthesizing, and all the while recognizing their own biases (Stake, 1995).

For most case study work, researchers have to put themselves somewhat aggressively into a position to make observations and there is little chance of avoiding at least some intrusion. It becomes necessary to aggressively review observer behavior for indications that they are not interfering with the lives of others (Stake, 1995). Researchers are urged to be as unobtrusive, as interesting as wallpaper or what others refer to as a fly on the wall.

According to Eisner (1998), the quality of the content being taught is frequently neglected in classroom observation in research studies. He believes this is because those who observe teachers are often not specialists in the subject matter being taught and therefore focus only on what the teacher and students do. The quality of what is taught is of crucial importance because there is no virtue in teaching content that is trivial regardless of how skilled the teaching. Further, the best way to include content area

reading strategies is through the regular curriculum (Eisner, 1998). With all that might happen in these classes, the researcher chose to focus on those activities that involve reading and writing specifically. She explored what particular reading activities were selected and how students responded and participated in those activities. The problem facing most adolescents is that few students effectively learn how to use reading and writing to explore and construct meaning in the company of authors, other learners, or teachers (Vacca & Vacca, 1999).

My background as a reading specialist and staff development facilitator gave me background in what to expect in a high school English classroom. The researcher identifies strongly with the needs of older literacy learners and is committed to support and sustain adolescents' literacy development and the teacher preparation and staff development necessary to help teachers accomplish this task. As a researcher specifically interested in content area reading, acknowledgement must be made that my own biases about the importance of content area reading at the secondary level may be reflected in the study.

Research Method

The purpose of my study was to provide an in-depth description of the role of reading and writing in two content area English classes at the secondary level and the reasons why reading and writing occur as they do in those classrooms. This researcher used an ethnographic method of inquiry and documentation where a researcher has recognized a problem and studies it trying to connect it better with known ideas. After finding new connections, the researcher finds ways to make them comprehensible to

others. The researcher struggles to liberate the reader from simplistic views and recognizes and substantiates new meanings. The researcher is the agent of new interpretation, new knowledge (Stake, 1995).

The realities of the context may force the reconsideration of earlier assumptions and there is a constant process of calibration between the researcher's conceptual framework and the collection of data. The physical setting, the geography, the demography, and a detailed documentation of the physical characteristics of place are necessary for the reader to experience the context of the research study. The researcher is an outsider entering the place, engaging the people, and disturbing the natural activities of the classroom. The researcher needs to be always aware of the convergence and contrast between the external signs of the physical environment and the interior culture, what is stated and what is done. The way participants shape the context they inhabit must be considered. Researchers are creating a relationship for the purpose of gaining access to data and a boundary should be recognized and negotiated (Lawrence-Lightfoot & Davis, 1997).

Although there have been some research studies in the recent past (Hinchman & Zalewski, 1996; Lloyd, 1996; Moje, 1994; Sturtevant, 1992), there is still little knowledge about the roles reading and writing currently play in secondary content area classrooms. English classes were selected because English departments have been more open and cooperative about the advantages of incorporating content area reading skills and strategies into their classrooms and because most previous studies have not looked exclusively at this particular subject discipline. English teachers recognize the importance of reading to the study of their subject and that teachers can enhance student

learning and improve literacy in content area classes by including content area reading and writing strategies in their instruction. Teachers may find it difficult or impossible to use suggested methods of instruction if there is a failure to take into account the institutional, cultural, and curricular realities that influence classroom instruction. It is important that teacher educators, curriculum planners, reading specialists, principals, and teachers themselves understand the context in which planning and instruction occur. Teachers cannot use suggested strategies unless the strategies fit the context of the teaching situation or they are able and willing to change the context. This research will hopefully increase understanding of the realities of day-to-day life in the classroom and provide information for improving the implementation of content area reading into the secondary school English classroom. Qualitative, ethnographic research such as this could provide important information for teachers and other educators who are working to improve instruction in secondary content area classrooms.

Research Design

Based on the theoretical foundations briefly reviewed here, the following research questions will provide a focus for this research study:

1. What types of reading and writing activities occur in the two high school English classes?
2. What influences the types of and degree to which reading and writing activities occur in two high school English classes?

Using qualitative methods the researcher described, analyzed, and interpreted the culture of two heterogeneous high school English classrooms taught by two different but

experienced teachers. Qualitative studies tend to be field focused and include not only classrooms, teachers, and students, but also the inanimate objects of textbooks and other documents that are of use in that environment (Eisner, 1998). Multiple sources were collected for the triangulation of data to provide corroborating evidence of research findings (Anderson & Arsenault, 1998; Creswell, 1998; Hammersley & Atkinson, 1995; Mertens, 1998). This study included: classroom observations; interviews with students, teachers, and the principal; and analysis of documents. The researcher observed in each classroom for a minimum of four months to determine the types of reading and writing activities which occurred. A variety of instructional tasks were observed including one or more units of instruction, a unit of instruction being a new topic being introduced, studied, and tested.

English classes were selected because the researcher's background as a reading specialist allowed her to work closely with English teachers in the past in terms of curriculum choice and design and through staff development programs. As children make the transition into middle childhood and adolescence, literacy use becomes increasingly more complex and demanding. Secondary instructional programs place a high premium on strategy learning as students become more sophisticated in their use of language to comprehend, compose, converse, and think critically about texts. Middle and high school reading and English teachers are the last instructional front in an adolescent's development as a competent and proficient user of language and literacy needs. Content area teachers, such as English teachers, are in a strategic position to influence adolescents' uses of literacy for academic learning (Vacca, 1998). This research developed into an ethnographic case study with a strong emphasis on exploring

phenomena within their natural setting and a portraiture form of analysis which emphasized description and explanation rather than quantifiable and statistical analysis.

Selection of Site and Participants

Because of complications in the process of the University's Institutional Review Board (IRB) approval and gaining timely access to the school, a pilot study was not conducted. The researcher used a similar survey questionnaire in a previous methods course in qualitative research and felt comfortable with the process of interviewing participants. To allow as many observations as possible, the researcher went directly into the field at the earliest opportunity.

Participation in this study was determined by the researcher contacting a local school district in spring 2003 to receive permission to do research and then contacting appropriate secondary schools to determine if they would be willing to participate in the research study. Suitable high schools were contacted for the purpose of finding two heterogeneous English classes taught by teachers the principal believed to be good teachers. Two principals expressed interest in the research plan and one gave an early affirmative answer. Because cooperation of the participants was a major factor during time spent in field work and the typical nature of this school, the offer to do research at this high school was accepted. The cooperating principal wished to select the two teacher participants. The teachers selected by the principal were teachers who professed to use literacy activities as a regular means for teaching content and were deemed successful teachers. An additional requirement set by the researcher for the teacher participants included their having at least five years of teaching experience. The principal contacted

two teachers, received their permission, and informed the researcher of their names. The researcher did not personally know these two teacher participants prior to meeting them at the beginning of the school year. All students enrolled in the two English courses participated as members of the class. Parents were informed of the research study and were asked to sign consent forms prior to the beginning of classroom observations. Students who received further permission to participate were interviewed for in-depth reactions to the English curriculum. Four students from one class participated in the interviews and two from the other participated in the interviews. Of the students interviewed three were male and three were female. Four of the students were seniors, one was a freshman, and one was a sophomore in a freshman English class. All students had attended only this high school. All adult and student participants were given aliases and were interviewed at a time and place to insure anonymity. The district and school will remain anonymous and should not be readily identifiable because of the school's average charateristics and membership in a large school district. Data were aggregated in such a way to make individual classroom practices and responses to interview questions as anonymous as possible, however; because the principal controlled the teacher selection process, some readers might reasonably make connections to individual teacher participants.

Data Collection

The researcher observed two average high school English classes where students had been assigned to the class through random scheduling, observing teacher implementation of curriculum and student responses to the curriculum from October to

January. Research consisted of observations and their related field notes, interviews, and audiotapes. The State Learning Objectives for Language Arts (2002) was used as the basis for determining which areas, if any, of content area reading and literacy were being included in the curriculum. Other documents included the District Standards and Benchmarks, the District Pacing Calendar, the literature sources included in the class, teachers' lesson plans, student notes, class handouts, tests, and text materials. These artifacts were used to help focus interview questions and provide support for information gained in observations and interviews and to direct the researchers' attention during observations. The researcher participated in discussions with faculty, administrators, and students outside of class and a general immersion in the school environment as a whole.

Although opportunity should be taken early to get acquainted with the people, the spaces, the schedules, and the problems of the case, a quiet entry is highly desirable (Mertens, 1998). The researcher entered the field by first visiting the classes, handing out permission forms, and explaining the purpose of the research. After testing and teachers' convention days were concluded, the researcher quietly entered the classroom one morning and assumed her typical seat in the back of the classrooms. The classes observed were first and second periods with a five minute passing period between. The researcher would enter the class each day prior to the tardy bell and take a seat in the back of the classroom. A pad and pen were used to take notes so as not to provide any extra distractions. Classes were attended on a random schedule for four months and a total of twenty observations were made in each class, working around the school's schedule to avoid assemblies, testing, and holidays. Students were generally oblivious to the researcher's presence after the first several visits. Except for responding to "good

mornings" from students when addressed and answering the occasional question about what the researcher was doing, the researcher remained a silent observer.

Early in the research process interviews with teachers were held (see Appendix A) to discuss their instructional goals, their views about English and its connection with content area literacy, and their views of themselves as teachers and other factors that influence their teaching choices. In addition to the two teachers and students the principal, English Department Chair, and the District Director of Secondary School Improvement were interviewed (see Appendix C, D, & E). A semi-structured interview format was used where follow-up questions of a probing nature were used to define or refine specific answers to questions as needed. The participants could refuse to answer any or all questions asked by the interviewer. Student participants were not asked to do follow-up interviews. Criteria developed for use on qualitative studies depend heavily on presenting the results to those studied to verify the research findings (Guba & Lincoln, 1981; Lincoln & Guba, 1985). All participants interviewed were able to review verbatim transcripts of the interview to provide member checks for accuracy and to indicate whether the statements they made correctly reflected their views (Merriam, 1998).

During the weeks of observation, teachers were asked informal questions as needed to clarify what was observed that day and to plan future observations. This allowed for constant data analysis according to the constant comparative method developed by Glaser and Strauss (1999). Over the time spent doing field work care was taken in how questions about the teachers' lessons were phrased because the researcher did not want to appear in any way to criticize what teachers were doing or influence them to make changes. The helpful advice of a reading specialist could change the usual

dynamics and curriculum in each classroom. The researcher was concerned that by asking about specific teaching strategies or lessons she might impact and change the usual course of the teacher's classroom practice. Once when chatting with one of the teachers after class she invited the researcher to join the class discussions when she had something to add, but this offer was refused and an observer-only status was maintained.

Interviews with students were completed at a midway point in the fieldwork. Students had been given permission forms before formal observations began in compliance with the IRB guidelines. Six students received permission to participate in interviews. Three of the students were over eighteen and had signed their own permission forms. Interviews were held at a time and place to insure anonymity in the English Department office, a private room away from the students' classrooms. The students and the researcher had the room to themselves during the interviews. The student and researcher sat facing each other in chairs on one side of a desk that was being used as a table. The tape recorder used to record the interviews sat slightly toward the students as the researcher knew her voice would be picked up easily. Students were anonymously called out of one of their classes to attend the approximately one-half hour long interview. Interviews were held in a pattern of three one day, two the next, and one lone interview because of a student absence. The fact that interviews were held on different days did not seem to change the students' responses. Seniors tended to be more verbal than underclassmen, but all students were extremely cooperative.

Each student interview began with a brief informal explanation of what the interview would entail. This introduction was not scripted, but each time the same information was given to students based on the introduction at the beginning of the

interview questions (see Appendix B). All students had the right to refuse to answer any question. Permission was asked to use the tape recorder. All students agreed and so the researcher chose to take minimal notes while the student was answering questions. During the formal interview all questions were read directly from the questionnaire so that each student would hear the same question. In this way, results from the first interview to the sixth remained consistent even though interviews were held over the course of three days. No hints or prompts were used with the students and if they hesitated for an excessive amount of time on any question, students were reminded they did not have to answer it. All audio tapes were transcribed verbatim, to be coded for analysis using the constant comparative method (Glaser & Strauss, 1999).

During observations, descriptions of classroom activities were recorded and the researcher included as much pertinent dialogue as was possible to record. During group work, library research time, or individual work times scripting was not feasible. Those areas which most pertained to reading and writing were included most thoroughly in field notes. All hand-written notes were transcribed each day and additional observations recalled by the researcher and comments made later by the teacher were included. An example of observational field notes may be found in Appendix G. During observations, notes included not only a record of what was occurring in the classroom, but also random notes reflecting the researchers' thoughts and ideas about what was occurring.

The researcher took a student-lead tour of the school just prior to leaving the field. Teachers asked for student volunteers and the volunteers were several of the students that had been interviewed. This may have been because the students felt comfortable conversing with the researcher and talking to her about their school.

Data Analysis

The features of case study research that provide the rationale for its selection also present certain limitations in its usage. Guba and Lincoln (1981) note, "Case studies can oversimplify or exaggerate a situation, leading the reader to erroneous conclusions about the actual state of affairs" (p. 377). They warn that readers may think that case studies are accounts of the whole: "That is, they tend to masquerade as a whole when in fact they are but a part—a slice of life" (p. 377). A further concern about case study research and case study evaluation is what Guba and Lincoln refer to as "unusual problems of ethics. An unethical case writer could so select from among available data that virtually anything he wished could be illustrated" (p. 378). Qualitative case studies are also limited by the sensitivity and integrity of the investigator; nor are there guidelines in constructing the final report and the investigator is left to rely on their own instincts and abilities throughout most of this research effort (Merriam, 1998).

Qualitative researchers begin analysis of data as soon as they enter the field site. They continue the process of analysis, hypothesis creation, testing, and interpretation throughout the process of collecting data until the final report is written (LeCompte & Schensul, 1999). Researchers tend to notice and write down what they have already learned to notice. It becomes important to learn to notice what is important to others and to note it as well. Field notes are done, at least to some degree, through the eye of the researcher who describes them from a personal frame of reference. Much of the written text is a consequence of his or her personal past experiences and characteristics and how the researcher has been trained to think about and conceptualize the world. Field notes are based on those basic questions that structured the study originally. They include

reflection, preliminary analyses, initial interpretations, and new questions to be answered in coming observations and interviews (LeCompte & Schensul, 1999).

During the course of the study constant comparative analysis was used (Glaser & Strauss, 1999), which consists of daily analyses and comparison of field notes, transcripts, and interviews, to determine emerging patterns and categories of beliefs, actions, and interactions. Field work begins with collection of data and the researcher's task is to induce regularities from the database. The researcher goes through the data systematically looking for meaningful clusters and patterns-behaviors that seem to go together logically. Such an analysis of extensive observations and interviews is likely to result in a number of categories. The next objective is to attempt to identify evidentiary support for the categories. One especially important check is to take emerging categories back to those being observed and interviewed for them to indicate whether they find the categories that are emerging to be credible which is known as member checking (Pressley & McCormick, 1995).

The process of constant comparative analysis evolves through stages labeled open, axial, and selective coding (Strauss, 1987; Strauss & Corbin, 1990). In the open coding stage, the researcher noted and labeled categories that seemed to emerge as field notes and interviews were read and attempts were made to draw connections between these categories. Categories generated during open-coding informed and guided future data collection, helping to focus on events that answered new questions which had emerged from previously collected data. Axial coding took place within single chosen categories that emerged during open coding. Each chosen category was intensely coded, defining properties of the category and the phenomena that support the category. Once

the central categories were determined, the process of selective coding began. During selective coding, core categories were determined and the researcher systematically linked all other categories (or subcategories) with these core categories (Strauss, 1987). Selective coding represents the most intensive phase of the analytic process and occurred after data collection was completed (Strauss, 1987; Strauss & Corbin, 1990). Upon completion of analysis, six final categories, out of an original fourteen, stood out in these observed classes. Categories include:

1) Reading Assignments
2) Literary Terms and Vocabulary
3) Study Skills and Notetaking
4) Class Discussions and Presentations
5) Video and Audio Supplements
6) Writing Assignments.

Because there were so many similarities in the procedures and activities observed in the two classrooms, and in an attempt to preserve anonymity, research was summarized as a whole and comparisons in activities are made without reference to specific teachers. These conclusions are not to be generalized to other situations where different circumstances will apply, but may provide information about how reading and writing are currently being implemented in two high school English classrooms.

Triangulation, using multiple sources of data or multiple methods to confirm emerging findings increases the validity and reliability of case studies (Anderson & Arsenault, 1998). To gain the needed confirmation and to increase credence in the interpretation, to demonstrate commonality of an assertion researchers look to see if the

phenomenon or case remains the same at other times, in other spaces, or as persons interact differently. Data source triangulation is used to see if what we are observing and reporting carries the same meaning when found under different circumstances. Member checks were used where data and tentative interpretations were presented back to the participants for feedback. Long-term observation for over four months at the research site allowed the gathering of data over a period of time to increase the validity of the findings. The written documents, however, do not give a full picture of what truly happens in a classroom. Only because of the observers' presence, being there, does the fuller picture come about. In addition, each participant holds different, but valid, views of the happenings in any particular classroom (Merriam, 1998; Stake, 1995). Successful triangulation occurs when categories and properties emerge from multiple data sources and researcher perspectives. The reliability and validity of the resultant findings is enhanced since interpretation is generalized across both the data base and researcher perspectives, not isolated in one particular data source or interpretation.

With multiple approaches within a single study, the research is likely to illuminate or nullify some extraneous influences. The methods in case study generally refer to observation, interview, and document review. The stronger a researcher's belief in constructed reality, the more difficult it is to believe that any complex observation or interpretation can be triangulated. Through triangulation the researcher used various strategies and tools of data collection, looking for points of convergence among them. Emergent themes will arise out of the layering of data. For example, the words of several people support a theme, factual evidence, or classroom observations are used to verify an interpretation (Lawrence-Lightfoot & Davis, 1997).

The applied nature of educational inquiry makes it imperative that researchers have confidence in the conduct of the investigation and in the results of a study. Assessing the validity and reliability of a qualitative study involves examining its component parts. Validity and reliability are concerns that can be approached through careful attention to a study's conceptualization and the way in which the data were collected, analyzed and interpreted. Internal validity deals with the question of how the research findings match reality and one of the assumptions underlying qualitative research is that reality is holistic, multidimensional, and changing. Therefore assessing the similarities between data collected and the reality from which they were derived is an inappropriate determinant of validity (Merriam, 1998). External validity is traditionally related to the generalizability of a studies results and is concerned with the extent to which the findings of one study can be applied to other situations. In qualitative research, a single case is selected precisely because the researcher wishes to understand the particular in depth, not to find out what is generally true of the many. Stake (1995) refers to "naturalistic generalizations" (p. 42). Using tacit knowledge, intuition, and personal experience, people look for patterns that explain their own experience as well as the events around them (Merriam, 1998).

Qualitative researchers often use terminology related to producing a "trustworthy" study. Guba and Lincoln (1981, 1985) suggest trustworthiness and authenticity as frameworks for judging the quality of qualitative studies. Trustworthiness consists of four elements: a) credibility—when others can recognize experiences after having read about them, b) transferability—whether the findings are germane to similar contexts, c) dependability/plausibility—whether findings are reasonable based on the data collected,

and d) confirmability—whether the data, interpretations, and outcomes are rooted in contexts and persons apart from the researcher and can be tracked to their sources and the logic used to make interpretations can be made explicit (Mertens,1998). These elements parallel the conventional criteria of internal and external validity, generalizability, reliability, and objectivity (Guba & Lincoln, 1981, Lincoln & Guba, 1985).

Reliability refers to the extent to which research findings can be replicated. This however, is a problem in the social sciences because human behavior is not static. The idea of reliability with regard to instrumentation can be applied to qualitative case study in a sense similar to its meaning in traditional research. Just as a researcher refines instruments and uses statistical techniques to ensure reliability, so too the human instrument can become more reliable through training and practice. The reliability of documents and personal accounts can be assessed through various techniques of analysis and triangulation. Since the term reliability does not seem to fit qualitative research in the traditional sense, the terms dependability or consistency of the results obtained from the data are often used. The question is not whether the results will be found again, but whether the results are consistent with the data collected (Merriam, 1998).

Summary

Each researcher needs, through experience and reflection, to find the forms of analysis that work for him or her. With intrinsic case studies, case studies in which we have an intrinsic interest in the case, our primary task is to come to understand the case. It will help the researcher to determine relationships, probe issues, and to aggregate categorical data; but those ends are subordinate to understanding the case. The case is

complex, and the time we have for examining its complexity is short. To devote much time to formal aggregation of categorical data is likely to distract attention to its various involvements, its various contexts. Researchers will try to spend most of their time in direct interpretation (Stake, 1995).

Teachers can enhance student learning and improve literacy in content area classes by including content area reading and writing strategies in their instruction. Teachers may find it difficult or impossible to use suggested methods of instruction if there is a failure to take into account the institutional, cultural, and curricular realities that influence classroom instruction. It is important that teacher educators, curriculum planners, reading specialists, principals and teachers themselves understand the context in which planning and instruction occur. Teachers cannot use suggested strategies unless the strategies fit the context of the teaching situation or they are able and willing to change the context. Literacy learning in the lives of secondary students is complex and complicated. Vacca (1998) stated, "...without a middle or high school's long-term commitment to professional development and organizational change, it is very difficult for teachers to sustain the use of content area literacy practices in their instructional repertoire. As adolescent literacy educators, we need to continue to advocate for and make public the literacy needs of adolescents" (p. 610). Qualitative, ethnographic case study research such as this could provide important information for teachers and other educators are working to improve instruction.

CHAPTER IV

FINDINGS

An in-depth description of the role of reading and writing in two high school English classes and the reasons why reading and writing occur as they do in these classrooms are described in this chapter. A more complete description of the school site and the backgrounds of the teacher participants are included in this chapter.

School Overview

North High School is an urban high school located in a medium-sized city in the midwestern United States. North High School is a multi-cultural, comprehensive high school serving approximately a thousand students in grades nine through twelve in fall 2003. The student population is 49 percent Caucasian, 33 percent African American, 9 percent Native American, 7 percent Hispanic, and 2 percent Asian. Twenty percent of the students are identified for special education. Fifty-four percent of the students are male and 46 percent are female. The students who attend North High School come from a variety of home situations and 44 percent of the students qualify for free lunch. A portion of the student body is bussed from another section of the city and other students are there as a result of transfer requests.

A review of the 2002 (the most current year available) English II Academic

Performance Index [API] scores revealed that 25 percent of the regular education students are in the unsatisfactory performance level. Thirty-nine percent are in the limited knowledge performance level, 34 percent are in the satisfactory performance level, and only 2 percent are in the advanced performance level (see Figure 1). These statistics would seem to demonstrate a need for instruction in content area reading skills across the curriculum at this school. In this district many of the highest achieving students choose to transfer to magnet schools that offer advanced level courses.

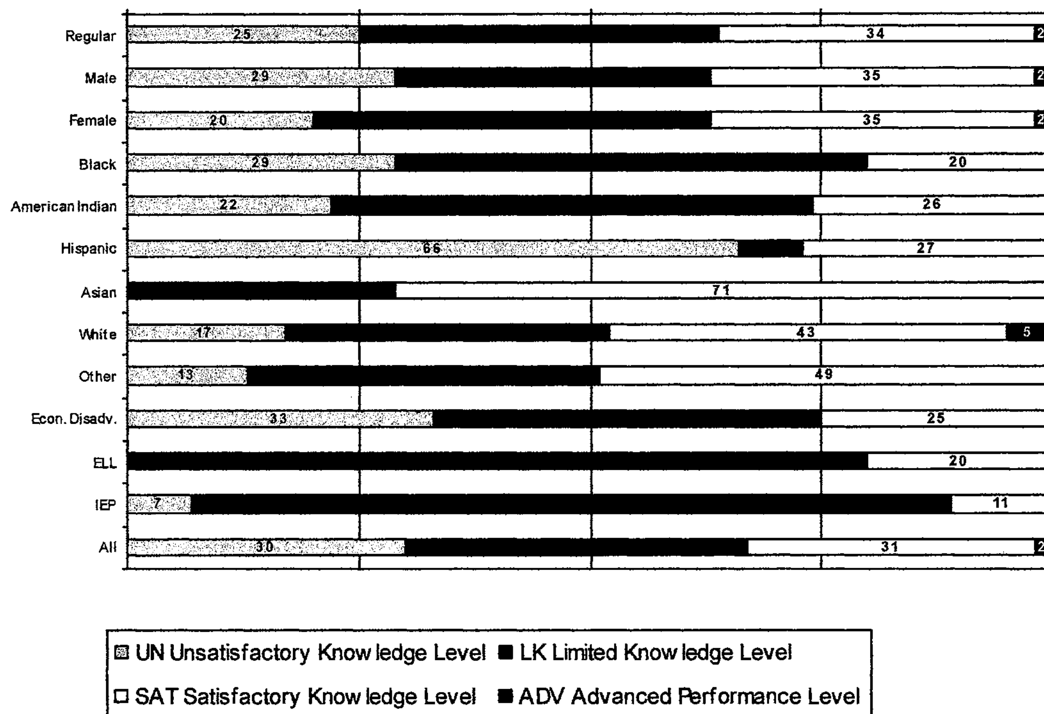

Figure 1. 2002 School Accountability Data Report Reading-Language Arts

The four-block schedule is used at North High School. Classes are 90 minutes in length with a five-minute passing period between classes. Students complete classes and begin new classes in January similar to college semesters. North High employs 60 faculty members including: 38 regular education and 11 special education teachers, one principal, two assistant principals, four counselors, one ELL teacher, one JROTC instructor, one librarian, and a nurse. There are 5.5 teachers assigned to the English faculty. In addition to regular English classes, AP English is offered at each grade level, ELL English classes, self-contained special education English classes, and two elective English classes. The faculty and students strive to model the community guidelines of the _____ Public Schools Model for School Improvement Teacher Handbook 2003-2004 of trustworthiness, truthfulness, attentive listening, personal best, appreciation with no put downs, right to pass, and mutual respect for self and others. The faculty at North High School is committed to providing a clean, safe, orderly learning environment for all students to have an equal opportunity to receive a quality education regardless of ethnicity or gender.

North High School is a three-story facility built in the late 1950s. The school is in good repair, although classrooms could use refurbishing and new furniture. The rooms are all wired for computers, but this has left the building with unsightly cables, wires, and other conduits attached to ceilings and walls throughout the building. The school possesses the necessary classrooms, science labs, auditorium, pool, gyms and fields for all major sports. The Media Center, approximately the size of three classrooms, is located on the third floor adjacent to the wing for the English Department. The Media Center has new furniture and approximately a dozen computers, but the limited wall

decoration, as well as poor lighting leave it drab and dull. The Media Center appears under stocked and many of the books the researcher examined are old and outdated. The reference section was better stocked and appeared more up-to-date. Some of the newer nonfiction books were at the elementary level. The small fiction section contained both classic and young adult fiction.

The building had additional wings built at a later date and many wings can only be accessed from the center 'Commons' area of the building. Departments are placed in the various wings of the building and because the wings do not interconnect, it is entirely possible to never meet faculty members from outside your assigned department on a day-to-day basis. Staff members were friendly and interested in my research project and were always welcoming and helpful. The researcher chose to attend a district-sponsored, school-wide staff development meeting and was able to meet and interact with faculty from other departments early in the research.

Teacher Participants

The teacher participants in this study were both female. Pseudonyms have been given used for confidentiality purposes. One teacher had over 25 years teaching experience and the other was beginning her seventh year teaching. Both had been assigned to this school for fewer than five years. The less-experienced teacher had previously taught in a rural school district within the state while the other teacher had a long history with this school district at other school locations. The teachers selected for this study had both studied to become English teachers by choice, although one had had an early interest in becoming a librarian. One had been influenced strongly by one of her

own high school English teachers and the other had a parent who had been a teacher. Ms. Brown believed her junior English teacher influenced her work today:

> She was a big into writing and we did a lot writing across the curriculum. This was whenever I was in high school...so she was kind of ahead of her time on those ideas and I always thought that pretty cool. We were writing math problems in English class and things like that. (interview, October 28, 2003)

This teacher admired her teacher's creativity and the ability she had to make learning fun. This becomes a recurring theme with her and she regrets that she does not feel she has the freedom or a well enough disciplined class to attempt such activities now.

> Well it's changed a lot since I came to _____ Public. I was in _____ before, and...I guess, I could be more creative and had a little bit more freedom and...a little easier out there and kids could adapt better. Here there are so many absences. If you don't stay on schedule, the kids are blown out of the water so I'm more stringent, schedule-oriented that way. (Ms. Brown, interview, October 28, 2003)

This teacher referred frequently to the fact she felt she had had to change it a lot since she had come to this school and she had been able to be more creative in the past.

One of the teachers had had an extremely positive student teaching experience while the other felt that she and the supervising teacher shared little in common about how they believed English should be taught. Ms. Black, who had the positive experience, believed the influence of the supervising teacher absolutely stays with you and influences how you teach. She believed that teachers' organization and high expectations, and her

ability to make the classroom fun and show enthusiasm influenced her. She also recalled English professors who helped her through their love of the subject and "their conversational time, their humanness" (Ms. Black, interview, October 14, 2003).

These teachers both had good rapport with their students. They were comfortable with them and would laugh and talk with them about both school work and personal topics. In turn, most of the students seemed to like the teachers. Only one student was consistently heard saying negative things about a teacher.

Observations

The two observed classes were a ninth grade English class and a twelfth grade English class. On the four-block schedule students attend class for 90-minute periods for one half of the year and the traditional half way mark in January is the end of the course for students. The researcher entered the field in early October near the end of the first quarter of these students' English classes, and left in mid-January at the end of the course when these students were taking final exams and receiving their final grades. At the completion of my field observations, these students were transferring to new courses the following Monday. Observations were held on randomly selected days, with a minimum of two visits per week, over the course of three grading quarters. Adjustments were made for holidays, staff development, testing, and special school events. Students had recently completed standardized testing and had returned from a two-day school holiday. When observations began both classes were mid-unit, completing novels that had been begun prior to all these schedule interruptions. Because of the four-block schedule, the researcher was able to observe almost an entire year of English instruction in this school.

The senior English class observed had 33 students enrolled at the end of semester when final grades and credit were given and had an average daily attendance of 25. The freshman English class had 29 students enrolled at the end of the semester with an average daily attendance of 24. Both teachers were concerned that high absenteeism made it difficult for them to be consistent in their teaching and it forced them to do a lot of review and repetition to keep everyone up-to-date. As an observer over the course of several months, the realization was made that the same students were always in class and that the 'absentees' attendance was so infrequent the researcher usually did not recognize the students. Successfully passing the class would be difficult for these students and they probably did not attain state attendance requirements for passing. Student mobility was not a factor in these two classes. Both classes were racially diverse and had an even ratio of males and females. Both classes had students on Individualized Educational Programs [IEP's] mainstreamed into the class. The researcher did not ask for these students to be identified. One student was later identified to me during the course of an explanation of a classroom event. Until the arrival of a special education teacher in one class in January, determination of any other mainstreamed students based on observations or teacher explanations to these students had not been made.

The classroom features were typical for the building with both classrooms needing paint and repairs from technology updates. Windows were plentiful, but often the shades were pulled to keep the students from being distracted by the frequently changing weather. The classrooms were located on the third floor English wing, so other outside distractions were not in view. Each classroom contained two walls of chalkboard and one of bulletin boards. The chalkboards were used to post upcoming assignments or

homework. Occasionally vocabulary or other assignment related materials were written on the board. Chalkboards were rarely used as a teaching tool during the course of the observations and the chalkboards often had the same information on them for several weeks. One teacher regularly utilized an overhead projector to give students additional information. One teacher had posters and cartoons pertinent to the English topics to be studied on the bulletin boards while the other had schedules and pertinent lists for class work. Neither teacher altered the bulletin boards during the course of the field work.

Desk formations were in traditional rows facing the front or in rows facing the center of the classroom. Students in both classes had assigned seats. Both teachers claimed to like the idea of group work although only one felt it was feasible with her class. In reality both teachers did use group work at least occasionally over the course of my fieldwork. When group work was assigned, students usually moved to another desk and faced each other rather than moving furniture. Desks were compact and portable, with storage underneath where students could store literature anthologies. Only once in each class were desks rearranged in a large circle for reading. Usually only the more compact novels were checked out for students to take outside the classroom and to be used for homework. Literature anthologies, composition and grammar textbooks, and dictionaries remained in the classroom. Both teachers felt they had adequate materials to work with as will be discussed in Chapter V.

The teachers both used modified versions of the _____ Model Lesson Plan Form (see Chapter V) and included the coding from the District Standards and Benchmarks (see Appendixes H and I). Teachers followed the lesson plans they developed quite closely and usually only made variations because of unanticipated outside changes (e.g.

weather, assemblies, and testing dates). The Department Chairman believed they were not yet required to use these lesson plans because they had not yet been adapted to a high school format. Complex as the lesson plans are, they provide limited information for someone not familiar with what had happened in the classroom previously and provided inadequate information for substitute teachers. This was substantiated by comments at the teacher staff development meeting in November that the new required lesson plan format was too complex and contained so much information that it was confusing.

Lesson plan sheets were distributed to the students on Monday in one class and contained pertinent assignment information. In the other classroom the schedule for the week and homework schedule were written on the chalkboard. Over the course of the observations a great deal of time each day was spent reviewing and updating the assignment calendar. Sometimes within the 90-minute class period teachers might review the plan for the day and the week as many as three times. Each teacher began and ended the class with a review of daily plans and future class requirements, but often when class became restless or students did not seem to be working, these same topics would be reviewed again.

The two teachers began their classes in completely different ways. One teacher did little more than return materials or speak to individual students until after the Pledge of Allegiance each morning. This allowed students a minimum five minutes of free time each day. Students utilized this time to socialize and snack. A group of a half dozen boys read the newspaper, usually the sports section, and discussed items of interest or school sporting events. The second teacher always had an assignment ready for the students when the bell rang and she often reminded them to get to work prior to the bell

ringing. Assignments varied, but usually included Daily Oral Language [DOL], journal entries, and spelling. Students were to access needed information through the weekly lesson plan, chalkboard, or overhead projector.

Analysis of Data

During the course of the study constant comparative analysis was used (Glaser & Strauss, 1999), which consists of daily analyses and comparison of field notes and informal interviews to determine emerging patterns and categories of beliefs, actions, and interactions. After final coding and reviewing six categories were determined to stand out in regards to the inclusion of content area reading in these English classrooms. These categories include: (a) Reading Assignments, (b) Literary Terms and Vocabulary, (c) Study Skills and Notetaking, (d) Class Discussions and Presentations, (e) Video and Audio Supplements, and (f) Writing Assignments.

Reading Assignments

Comprehension or critical literacy is understanding the meaning or point of the text. As readers mature they become more strategic in their process to construct meaning from text. Students read for a variety of purposes, to locate information, to be informed, persuaded, or entertained. Students can use a wide range of strategies to help them meet their purposes. These strategies include making predictions, activating prior knowledge, skimming text, drawing inferences and conclusions, interpreting meaning, summarizing information, analyzing and evaluating text (State Learning Objectives, 2002). Both teachers mentioned critical reading or the ability to know what students have read as an

important aspect of the English curriculum. Reading assignments in these classes included novels, short stories, and poetry. Non-fiction selections were read only in the course of writing senior research papers. Oral, silent, and group activities all occurred within the framework of reading assignments at various times during the observations. Within the category of reading assignments the researcher analyzed reading in terms of the pre-, during, and post-reading activities that occurred.

Ms. Brown, when asked "In what ways do you include reading in your instruction and what kinds of reading assignments?" responded:

> Well we did short stories before...Is that what you're asking? Like what type of things we do? We do short stories. I've read to them a few times and had an Anticipatory Guide and I feel like they get something out of that, but it doesn't really correlate with the [State Learning Objectives] skills. I'm real torn on all of that because I don't know what's working and what's not; I know what's working in my class, but it doesn't look like its working on my lesson plans. You know what I mean. And then we're doing the novel. Later we'll do a drama and then we'll do some poetry. So right, [*sic*] what the [State Learning Objectives] skills said. (interview, October 28, 2003)

Finding novels and short stories that were of interest to large numbers of students was a source of concern for both teachers. Ms. Black shared:

> Well we're reading *Cry the Beloved Country*...and I've really been disappointed because I don't have that many that are really involved in it. So I can't figure out why not and one of my very best readers [said], "Oh

> it's just boring, we don't need to know this." I said, "You don't need to know it, you just need to understand it, you need to just try to empathize with these characters." So I've been disappointed with that, but that got to, they want immediate, if I learn this and I can get this job; instead of the depth of knowledge they just want facts jobs. (interview, October 14, 2003)

Oral group (round-robin) reading was the norm in both classes when novels and plays were being read. Students volunteered to read and therefore only those who felt competent ever were asked to read. In one class the teacher used a reward system of extra points to induce students to read. When students were reading a play, the teachers often asked for volunteers, but supplemented this system by assigning larger parts to students they knew read well. Allington (2001) points out that when one student is reading there is no way of knowing if others are reading, or even paying attention. It was typical during and after oral reading for the teacher to interrupt to review and summarize what had just been read. Leading recall questions were often used to make it seem as if the students were involved in the discussion; however, teachers continued to question or self-answered questions to receive the pre-determined answer. Older students often did ask questions and occasionally added insights to the reading, and although the teachers wanted the classes to be informal places where students could express themselves, this was not the reality. An additional consideration in one class was a student who was older and more mature than the others trying to direct the discussion in ways that interested him. This student was often ignored because the class did not usually appear to understand his thinking and it did not match the teacher's recall and review format. The

teacher made an effort to pursue these topics later with the student in the course of monitoring the classroom.

Several times in one classroom, after an introductory period of oral reading as a pre-reading activity, students would form a small group and one student would read to the group. The teacher explained that this student sat with several students who were non-readers and they had spontaneously chosen this pattern as a way of compensating for the reading inadequacies of some members of the group. On one such occasion, over half the class chose to join in with an oral reader and transformed a silent reading assignment into an oral reading assignment. The teacher later expressed surprise that so many students wished to follow along with the oral reader. The teacher was proud of the fact that students in her class were willing to read aloud to the non-readers and help them succeed in her class. She felt this was particularly important since the absence of inclusion teachers left these students without extra help in her classroom.

One day a student kept asking for the teacher to read aloud to them. In this classroom the teacher often read aloud to the class, particularly if she was trying to complete a project quickly. The teacher laughed and commented "It would be easier." She used this as a bargaining tool "that if they…worked hard today, she would read to them tomorrow." An extremely disturbing occurrence happened when one of the teachers was reading to her class and students were not paying attention. They were told to "keep their heads up or read silently." They chose to sit up. Silent reading was threatened as a punishment, placing little value on reading or reading as a pleasurable activity.

On a Friday carried over to a Monday, a short story was read aloud to the class by

the teacher. Students did not have copies of the story to read along and were dependent completely on the teacher's oral reading of the story. Students had no study guide, questions to listen for, or hints of important details beyond two unexplained questions on the chalkboard which turned out to be essay topics. To complete the assignment, the teacher found it necessary to reread parts of the story and review plot details she had read the previous Friday. In addition, the teacher had to continually reteach the literary term of theme and how it related to the writing assignment that day. After 35 minutes of class work time in which students were expected to complete the assignment, only thirteen students turned in an essay.

Silent reading was rarely assigned in either class. In the early days of my field work, assignments to read the next chapter in the novel would be given for homework in both classes. Students were not usually observed doing any independent reading of these assignments in class even if time permitted. Because the students in one class were not doing the independent reading the teacher began reading all assignments in class. In the other class, the teacher assumed the reading was being done, but after the exam she shared with me that she did not believe the students had read the book, because they had done so poorly on the exam. The researcher found that, because the plot of the story was reviewed and summarized so thoroughly by the teachers in class each day, it was possible to get a very good idea of what was happening in the novels just by listening to the review. Although observations were not held daily, the researcher was more than able to learn the characters and plots of two novels she had not previously read.

Ms. Black said in her interview that she included Sustained Silent Reading on her Friday lesson plans, but neither her lesson plans nor observations confirmed this:

> We read every Friday 20 minutes. I'll bring in newspapers, magazines. If they bring they're own book, they get extra credit. And some of them would do that anyway, but I'm just trying to get them read, read anything. And a lot of the guys, of course, will always only read the paper, but that's OK. They're reading. (interview, October 14, 2003)

Often inadequate time was allotted for silent reading to be accomplished. On a four-page silent reading assignment the teacher interrupted so soon that the researcher had not finished scanning the reading from the literature anthology. She had assumed the students would have the rest of the class period to finish reading this assignment, but this was not the case. As there was no follow-up assignment on this reading, it ended up not mattering whether the students finished or not.

When students were asked about the kinds of assignments they usually did in class, the kinds of reading the teacher asked them to do, and the types of homework assignments they have, the responses consistently included novels, short stories, and poems.

> I'd say we usually read. Usually read stories from Egypt or someplace like that. I mean, it's pretty cool though. Like in those fairy tales…our homework is like the stories that we read. That's our homework. (Michael, senior male, student interview, December, 2003)
>
> Read stories, read poems, write essays, vocabulary, [homework] like essays, she gives us vocabulary to do for homework and some questions from stories. (Mary, senior female, student interview, January, 2004)
>
> Well in the beginning of classes, mostly short stories and now we're

getting into, like, more like bookish stuff like *Hamlet.* (John, senior male, student interview, December, 2003)

Both teachers gave general background information before beginning new reading selections. They did not, however, use any pre-reading strategies to determine what prior knowledge the students might have about the subject of the material they were to read. Little effort was made to connect readings to the students' lives or interests. One teacher was rarely able to use analogies to which the students were able to relate. At times obvious current movie analogies such as *Lord of the Rings* were ignored or when discussing the meaning of the word surreal the current television show was overlooked. In one instance the *Jerry Springer Show* 'wrap up' was referenced and suddenly everybody seemed to know what the teacher meant for them to do as their summary in a writing assignment.

Typically the teacher would begin a reading session with review of what had been read so far. Through the use of recall questions the teachers would attempt to prepare the students to continue reading and catch up any students who had missed the previous day's reading. If students tended not to recall the story, answer the question, or provided an inadequate answer they would summarize and review the reading for them. In a typical reading session one of the teachers opened class by reminding the students of their discussion the previous day about revenge and used it to foreshadow today's reading. On this day the teacher seemed to be giving the answers before the reading and this was proved to be true as the class continued. Before every section was read, the teacher summarized the entire upcoming action. There was always a backtrack before she moved forward with her explanation of the plot. With students' oral reading this system gave the

students a minimum of three times hearing the same plot section. Even while all this reviewing was happening, students were not being required to take notes or fill out a study guide to help them recall this information later or to study for a test. After reading one section the teacher gave a value judgment on arranged marriage and that therefore the father must be a bad father—this statement was not opened to class discussion or referenced in any way to time and setting of Shakespeare's play. In this lesson, as in most, there was no vocabulary given in advance, no instruction about plays, stage directions, historical perspective or any other lesson except the plot of the play. Within this lesson the teacher explained the term oxymoron and gave several examples. She then pointed out the examples in the selection they had just read. She did not give the students time to think of any examples after they knew the meaning or have them search for further examples in the play. In this lesson, the teacher explains after every speech in the play so continuously it reminded the researcher of the movies for the blind that are prepared for television with continuous running commentary. This teacher did not ask for student interpretation as her lesson plans state, but gave the students all the information she deemed necessary.

On one occasion one of the teachers, upon nearing the end of novel, asked the students to predict what they thought was going to happen at the conclusion of the book and asked them to verbally "list what questions need to be answered." Neither the class nor the teacher wrote these predictions down.

Students mostly stated that they found the reading easy or average. One student who claimed to have trouble keeping awake and often dozed in class admitted she found the reading difficult. One student stated, "I'm really not that much of an advanced

reader, but I feel it's pretty average. I mean it's not too hard" (Susan, senior female, student interview, December, 2003). All the students agreed that they went over their reading assignments in class which was verified by the researcher's observations of these English classes.

Reading demands seemed light in both courses (Applebee, 1993). While the seniors did outside reading to write their research paper and one additional novel for their final exam, the freshman did not do any additional outside reading. Book reports which are often seen at this level were not included in the course requirements. As an illustration, the seniors read in one of the semesters (nine weeks of 90-minute class periods) a 277-page novel and 112 pages from the literature anthology. The freshmen read only a 125-page novel and an undetermined number of pages from the anthology.

Group Work. The most effective use of group work was done by one teacher in using groups to teach lessons and create presentations for the entire class. One quality content area reading assignment involved teacher-selected groups of two to three students analyzing and interpreting speeches from *Hamlet*. One member of the group would read the speech aloud to the class when it appeared while reading *Hamlet* and the other group members would explain to the class what it meant. In one instance, however, when the teacher asked a question and no one in the group answered, she answered it herself even though the group should have known the answer. Even in group presentations the teacher often dominated the discussion making sure no point the teacher determined was important was overlooked. The researcher saw many successful final products of this assignment over the course of several observations.

A similar group assignment was done with teacher-selected groups and poetry.

Groups of two or three students followed the same format of one student reading the poem to the class and the other group members answering questions about the poetry based on questions on a teacher-prepared study guide. Many of the students did not have the study guide anymore and did not know where or how to begin explaining the poem. All groups were able to perform this task if the teacher provided them with verbal prompts during their presentation. Preteaching the content area reading skills necessary prior to the task was again demonstrably missing.

Literary Terms and Vocabulary

There is a cyclical effect between vocabulary, reading, and knowledge. Word knowledge affects reading comprehension, which in turn helps students expand their knowledge bases, which in turn facilitates vocabulary growth and reading comprehension (Nagy, 1988). Features of effective vocabulary instruction include: using context clues and dictionaries to enhance their word knowledge, multiple exposure to words in a variety of contexts over time, words taught in the context of a story, theme, or content area unit, using prior knowledge when learning new words, drawing relationships between new words and known words and concepts, and students interacting with words so they are able to process them deeply. Readers' experiential and conceptual backgrounds are extremely important in vocabulary development. Active processing that associates experiences and concepts with words contributes significantly to vocabulary growth, enhanced comprehension, and continuous learning (Nagy, 1988).

Literary terms were explicitly taught by each of the English teachers in compliance with the State Learning Objectives. Students were to keep the definitions in

their notes for reference and these terms were included on their final exams. In addition, definitions of these literary terms were also available in the literature anthology. During observations vocabulary from the readings explicitly taught prior to reading assignments was never witnessed. The following example serves as an illustration of how this lack of explicit instruction can affect a class and the understanding of what they are reading. As the class begins the next short story, the teacher reads what she claims "is one of the best opening sentences to a story ever." She then gives some background information to this fictional story by Isabel Allende interwoven into an actual natural disaster in South America. The teacher told them the ending of the story before they started reading. The teacher reread the first few paragraphs and then a volunteer reader began to read. There was a large amount of vocabulary in this story that seemed unfamiliar to some of the students in addition to Spanish words that needed to be pronounced. At one point the teacher interrupts to ask if the students "Knew what a photojournalist did?" No one answered and the teacher explained. The reader continued to have trouble with vocabulary and pronunciation of names. Words that had to be pronounced for the reader included: quagmire, ingenuity, irreparably, Etruscan, stratagem, exhaustion, and pandemonium.

Review of literary terms was an important part of preparing for upcoming exams in one class. Terms were usually was given through dictated notes. The teacher would ask students the meaning of a literary term and students were allowed to use their notes to answer. The list was usually broken down and reviewed over the course of several days. Each day words were reviewed repeatedly until each student had been asked to define one word. In the other class literary terms were written on the board and students were to

copy them into their notes. Reading and writing assignments were often given where the students had to demonstrate the use of the literary term.

Spelling. In the Freshman English class spelling assignments were typically referred to as homework. No student claimed to have difficulty with completing the homework and time to complete it varied between one half hour to two hours.

> Well, we do DOL's [daily oral language], we do spelling, um, have spelling tests every week, I think it's usually Wednesdays and Fridays. Um, like this week we're doing poetry. Um, we read stories. That's about it...usually we have spelling homework every week. Um, and if we don't get the DOL finished, um, like the journal entries and stuff, we take those home. (Ann, sophomore female, student interview, January, 2004)

Study Skills and Notetaking

The rationale for teaching study skill strategies is that they help students retain and retrieve information Study strategies include aspects of instruction such as outlining, using study guides, notetaking, and reading maps, charts and graphs (Readence et al., 2001; Vacca & Vacca, 1999). On a single occasion an explicit test-taking study skills assignment occurred in one of the classes. At this time the students were preparing for a standardized test, the ACT Assessment [ACT], and the teacher offered them instruction on how to read the questions most effectively. The teacher reminded them to read each question carefully and be sure they understand the question and then do the math. She pointed out how ACT math also includes written information students do not need in each question and that it must be filtered out. She used the illustration that through her

own error of not reading the question accurately she selected the wrong answer. A student shared that he too had made a mistake by misreading the question. The teacher reinforced the reading suggestions again as she collected the materials. This was the only example observed of teaching a content area reading skill that also had application in another content area course.

A Sequence Chart (Vacca, 1981) over their previous nights' reading was attempted in one class as a large group project. Only six students participated in the discussion and it appeared they were the only ones who had read the chapter from the novel the evening before. The teacher gave extended hints to help the students fill in this chart and ended up reading the appropriate sections of the book to the class. During the course of filling out the sequence chart the teacher gave additional information and analogies. One student volunteered some inferred information and the teacher eagerly pursued this, but this remained a discussion between her and that student. The students were divided into groups of three and given a follow-up written assignment based on the sequence chart. As the students worked in the smaller group, it became more obvious that students were not familiar with the contents of the chapter assigned and many groups did not complete the assignment.

A prediction assignment, a form of an anticipation guide (Vacca, 1981), was attempted another day in the same English class over a chapter of the novel being read. The students were to write a short summary of predictions they made based on a chart placed on the overhead. None of the students had read this section and students were not clear on what the teacher wanted them to do. The students later read the chapter involved in this prediction chart and the follow-up assignment involved rewriting their predictions

to what actually occurred. There was a quiz of recall questions on the reading at the end of the class period.

A chart was made as a study guide in one class listing the story titles, author, setting, and hero's quest of all stories read in that unit. Although this was an excellent content area reading assignment the teacher did not illustrate any of this on the chalkboard or give any guidelines for the students to follow. Students were to use their notes to help fill out this chart, but most students did not have any notes. The teacher had to spell most author and character names for the class as they had no references. Since this was all being done out loud, frequent repeats were necessary. There was one interesting occurrence during this assignment when the teacher made an error that a student caught and corrected. All students looked up the correct response in the literature anthology. Once the chart was written the students were to locate similarities and differences in the novels and stories and the class discussed them. Students were to continue taking notes and expand the chart, but without explicit directions students did not do so.

Notetaking in both classes involved the teacher telling the students what to write down or telling them what they did not have to write down. One teacher dictated notes to the students so clearly they could be written down exactly as stated. Those items either teacher had the students put into their notes always appeared on quizzes and exams. An extreme example of this was when students were asked to use their notes from the day before and convert them to a two sentence summary. Before the students had time to work on this, the teacher gave an example and repeated it so frequently all the students wrote down her answer. This same process was observed a second day. Notes were

occasionally printed as handouts for the students or placed on an overhead projector to be copied.

The teachers were active in the classroom and continually monitored the students during their independent work. They had good rapport with the students and were able to relate to them on a personal as well as educational basis. Both teachers helped students as needed on independent and group work. One teacher invited students to come before school each day to receive additional help. Teachers supplied words and pronunciations when students were reading and did not allow them time to stumble or become embarrassed in their oral reading.

These teachers always gave extensive reviews the day prior to testing. One of the teachers would allow students study time at the beginning of class if there was to be a quiz. If several students asked for more time to study, it was usually given although it was rarely used for study by many in the class. As finals approached both teachers spent considerable amounts of time reviewing notes and literary terms. Students were given handouts of what topics would be on the final and study guides were used as spelling homework. Finals were multiple choice questions recalling basic facts and matching questions on the various novels and stories read and vocabulary and literary terms. In one class each student had been assigned an additional novel to read and each student had an extra test section and essay question on their assigned book. The essay question in the other class was given them the day prior to the exam so that they would have time to consider their answer overnight.

All students interviewed claimed to complete all their assignments for these classes. Because the researcher did not access student records for any students in these

classes, she must take their word for it. With several of the students observations confirmed this. Two students were often asked to share their writing with the class and one had been asked to contribute to the student literature anthology. Another student often helped the teacher access computer data when class work had been completed.

The best way to study for a test in these English classes elicited a variety of responses:

> I feel the best way to study for it is to actually pay attention in class and so you don't have to kill yourself the night before. So if you pay attention it's all the stuff on the test that's usually the stuff that's out of the reading. (John, student interview, December, 2003)
>
> I say study like the night before and the day before you go into class, like why once you get up start studying. (Michael, student interview, December, 2003)
>
> Review. Sometimes she'll give us a review. (Susan, student interview, December, 2003)
>
> Take some time at home and study for it, take some time, like in the morning time. (Mary, student interview, January, 2004)
>
> Take it home, have someone help you with studying it; ask questions. (Robert, freshman male, student interview, January, 2004)

During the time spent on these observations no explicit instruction on how to study was ever given. No independent practice in note taking or use of study guides was ever observed. The senior English teacher was concerned her college-bound students know how to take notes, but note taking was never taught, monitored, or checked.

Class Discussion and Presentations

When discussing teaching style, one teacher clearly stated she did not believe in lecture during our interview, "...pretty informal...conversation not lecture. It's trying to get the students involved rather than me" (Ms. Black, interview, October 14, 2003). She did, in fact, lecture frequently. Rather than stand in the front and give a long lecture, she did it in spurts through the use of constant interruptions of the reading. All questions used by this teacher were an opening for her to give further explanations, summaries, or review of materials just read. Since neither teacher tended to discuss vocabulary, name pronunciations, or other information which might help the students reading proceed smoother these interruptions caused further disruption and more teacher lecturing. Occasionally one of the teachers would tell the students what to look for as they read ahead, but goals and purposes for reading were never explicitly discussed.

When inference, opinion, or higher order questions were used in a discussion, they were usually used as a means to introduce topics the teacher wished discussed. Often a series of questions were used to lead the students to the teachers' intended point. One notable exception to this use of inference and higher level questioning occurred in one of the classes when the teacher wanted to instruct the students in how to answer an inference question and connect the book to the students' life. The teacher included some vocabulary and had the students compare dictionary definitions of two words to their interpretation of what these words meant in the story and in their lives. All questions revolved around the theme "Is progress always good?" The teacher had students relate the dictionary definition of progress to the book, *The Time Machine,* as well as to the students' daily life. This linking the reading to life was one of the most obvious

examples observed of a teacher meeting one of the State Learning Objectives. Even within this lesson the teacher did most of the talking and verbal participation was limited to three or four students. As the students offered limited responses, the teacher controlled the discussion more and more. There were times when the teacher did not even pause to focus on student responses or seem to listen to them. At the final point before introducing the writing assignment, the teacher made a sample connection from the reading to life for them from her life, but students were never asked to share any thoughts of their own. Actual instruction and demonstration was given on the best way to write answers to inference questions such as these and then the students were able to practice the skills learned by answering this and several other questions.

Nystrand, et al. (1997) recently studied the regularity with which teachers included class discussion which was in reality teacher talk. Just as previous studies found, both teachers observed regularly controlled all classroom discussion. Questions were asked rhetorically, or if an answer was not immediately forthcoming by students, the teachers answered it themselves. Often when the teachers asked inference or higher level questions the students did not respond at all. They seemed insecure about answering a question that did not have one right answer. This meant the teacher immediately supplied explanations and examples for them. Other times if no answer was given, the question was dropped or an inadequate answer that did not address the question was allowed. One of the few discussions witnessed during the field work that was not totally teacher controlled involved a current event involving a sports star and was unrelated to any English topic being studied at the time. The teacher in one class commented to me she has trouble with this class participating in discussions, but another

class talks all the time. This observation, however, did not give the researcher any way of knowing if the teacher were less controlling in a more participatory class setting since observations were not done in other classes.

Quizzes were used as ways for both teachers to see how well students were following the plot of stories and novels read and as techniques for review. Questions were always recall or fact questions, which allowed the teacher to determine students' comprehension. Higher level questions at inference or application level were never included on the quizzes the observer witnessed or collected as artifacts. On one occasion during review a teacher gave students the answers for the quiz that day. If the students had taken down the notes, which they were able to use for the quiz, they had been given seven correct answers out of ten questions. The teachers tended to review the quiz with the class immediately after they were collected as a way to continue to review the reading. These quizzes might have made good review or study guides for final exams on novels, but the students were never in possession of the questions. Questions were always dictated to the students and they only needed to write down the answers. Both teachers usually allowed notes to be used while students were taking quizzes. Only on final tests over a novel or the final exams were students unable to use notes they might have made in class.

Another example of teacher control of the class discussions was demonstrated during a small group project. The students were to list ten topics that they could debate such as: corporal punishment, year-round school, length of the school day, or youth driving age. When students settled in their groups to work, the teacher continued to give more topic ideas and by this time had personally listed at least ten topics. She had given

the students so many ideas they no longer needed to think for themselves. This assignment was directly related to State Learning Objectives and the students later wrote an opinion paper.

In one class the final weeks of semester included students giving an oral presentation on his or her research paper. The observer did not witness the students receiving any instruction in how to give oral presentations. Speaking is a part of the State Learning Objectives and instruction in speaking skills is included with the objective. The students were getting practice speaking in front of a group, but needed guidelines or a rubric of what was expected of them. The students stood in the front of the room at a podium, but many needed help with notes, deportment, volume, and enunciation. Most students read from their research paper or if they were trying to summarize their paper wasted time searching for the details they wanted to mention. Students from the class were to ask questions at the end of each presentation as State Learning Objectives require. One student had at least one question for every presenter and he asked quality opinion and open-ended questions that often allowed the class to discuss their thoughts and opinions at the end of each presentation. Only two or three other students and the teacher participated in asking the students further questions about their research.

Video and Audio Supplements

Videos were used frequently to reinforce reading and reward the students for work completed. One teacher would show videos in their entirety after the completion of a book or, on one occasion, as a supplemental pre-reading activity. The other teacher used the video simultaneously with the reading, unfortunately eliminating the need for

the students to read for themselves or pay attention as others read Shakespeare's play aloud. Videos were rarely introduced with any guides or purpose of what the students should be noting as they viewed the movie. When students first began viewing the video *Hamlet*, they received a study guide, but the researcher rarely saw the guide after the day it was received.

On another occasion there was a list of names of characters on the board, but students were not told to write down any notes as they watched the video and when it came time to match the list to the movie, students were not able to successfully do so. Even with many leading questions only six students participated in a whole-class discussion. With this particular assignment students were expected to follow-up with an outline and essay. Students did not have to show any work on this day and did not work on the outline at all. During another lesson, in addition to students reading from the literature anthology, an audio tape was played of sections of the story. The reading was clear and dramatic, but student reaction was lethargy and boredom. After the tape, the teacher used recall questions to review what they had listened to.

Adolescent literacy has moved beyond the idea of school-and textbook-based definitions of literacy to one which acknowledges that there are multiple literacies and multiple texts including popular music, television, and video (Readence, et al., 2001; Wade & Moje, 2000). While all video and audio materials in these two English classes directly related to the subject or piece of literature being studied, it was often used by the students as free time. Most students watched the videos, but others slept, chatted quietly, or did other personal projects. There was never any accountability to keep the students focused and make the time spent viewing the videos educationally worthwhile.

Writing Assignments

When discussing the major purposes of the English curriculum both teachers felt writing was one of their major goals. As one teacher stated, "I want them to leave high school with the ability to communicate better. Orally and written…" (Ms. Black, interview, October 14, 2003). Both teachers felt that at the lower level, teachers were too much tied to the State Learning Objectives and it limited their freedom to meet student needs, yet one teacher felt that the state objectives were broad and general enough to allow her to teach as she chose. She commented, "I think I've always done them…I have to put them in my lesson plans, but that's the only change I've made…I don't feel restricted" (Ms. Black, interview, October 14, 2003). Ms. Brown found the State Learning Objectives vague and she was unsure sometimes about what they really expected her to be doing stating,

> I feel like I need to be going by that and some of them are vague and its you don't know if you're doing what they really want you to be doing and sometimes you; you've probably been there, you throw something out and you try to do something and it just does not work. It just doesn't work and I feel like whenever that happens; I'm just and I just keep running into a wall because I feel I need to be doing that but, its not working. (interview, October 28, 2003)

In addition Ms. Brown stated:

> Well, when we first started out that's all we did was write [be]cause I wanted to have a pretty good base of writing before we ever started writing about literature. And I like what we did today; they would write a

> paragraph on a prediction of what was going to happen or they would write a summary and we've written summaries before over short stories. I try to break it down for them; and in steps and tell them, hey, there are these steps and so forth and have them write about it. (interview, October 28, 2003)

Believing that developing their students writing skills was of major importance in English, both teachers demonstrated this by its frequent inclusion in their lessons. One English teacher spent class time giving instruction in how writing was to be presented. The class did writing assignments as appropriate and were usually tied in with their reading assignments and the State Learning Objectives. Instruction for a Power Writing Format for short essays was observed four different times in this class. Another time, the class worked in pairs using rubrics to analyze each others writing and afterwards students were to rewrite their essay based on this peer editing. The constant reteaching and practicing of the short essay format confirms this teacher's stated commitment to writing in the English classroom.

The other teacher gave assignments and except for giving length and formatting information did not give any instruction on writing style. Topics were shared verbally and had to be written into their notes. In this classroom essay topics were never written down for the students to refer back to. The one class had a weekly essay due on Wednesday for the first semester, but during the second semester, only one formal essay assignment was given. Students were working on a research paper and that was the extent of their outside class work for the duration of the research paper. The research paper had two handouts explaining the assignment, one including a time line. Student

self-selected groups were used to originally brainstorm for topics for their research paper, although several students chose to do this task independently. Instruction for the research paper was limited to the students using the textbook that was available to them or samples of previous papers displayed in the classroom. Further instruction on research papers was done individually in the form of corrections on drafts submitted to the teacher. After turning in draft pages of title pages or bibliographies, the students were able to make the corrections noted on the draft, but the observer never saw any direct whole class instruction in how to write these documents. The same was true for the notecards that were part of this assignment.

The students confirmed what the teachers had stated about the importance of the writing assignments. Field observations verified that writing was done frequently for class assignments. Assignments included essays, resumes, and poems. One student responded that they did grammar, but the researcher never witnessed a grammar assignment in any observation. Student explanations included:

> …mostly assignments are like a lot of writing. It has to do with, like we have to read a lot of stuff, and then we have to write it, like write about it. Like *Hamlet* right now. I mean it's pretty much what it always is…We have a lot of writing homework. Like writing, like essays or short stories. We're working on our senior paper right now, so that's pretty much consumed a lot of the time, like, recently. (John, student interview, December, 2003)
>
> It's like uh, *Hamlet*, it's we usually have a movie to go along with it or like a visual aide thing… She usually gives us a writing assignment due

> every Wednesday. (Susan, student interview, December, 2003)

Most students found the writing of moderate difficulty. One student explained,

> At first, I mean, I haven't, I haven't wrote a poem in awhile so like it took me a time to catch on and like and Ms. Black helped me out and so, and so, I caught on real quick afterwards. (Michael, student interview, December, 2003)

and another stated:

> It just depends, most of them are pretty medium and senior papers we've been going step by step and so that's pretty easy because we've been walked through it. (John, student interview, December, 2003)

Summary

The design of a qualitative case study is emergent and flexible; responsive to changing conditions of the study in progress (Merriam, 1998). Over the course of observations and early review of field notes a realization was made that a system for tracking how time was being utilized in each 90-minute class period was needed. A great deal of empty time was being witnessed each day in class and the researcher began making notations of time of day in the field notes. Time breakdowns confirmed there was a lot of wasted time in each block-period class. Teachers often do not include content area reading into their classroom claiming a lack of time (O'Brien et al., 1995). After analyzing field notes a pattern of time being under-utilized in each of these classes was seen. There was usually at least five minutes of instructional time per day in each class where no instruction or assignments were included while waiting for daily

announcements and the Pledge. On average in both classes students would begin to pack up their belongings five minutes before the end of class, often going to stand near the door. Students were never allowed out of the classroom prior to the bell. If the last minutes of class involved an assignment that was not due prior to leaving that day, the balance of class was usually used by the students as free time. There were many days when the assignment or group reading for the day was finished and no additional work was assigned. Students would be allowed ten to fifteen minutes of free time. When students did receive an assignment to be completed by the end of class that was an appropriate difficulty and length, students would work longer and not prepare to leave the classroom as early.

One class always had more problems with staying on task and often received reprimands about their behavior. This class tended to be less involved in utilizing class time to do their work and often students did not complete assignments at all. One day the teacher gave the students the rest of the class period to reread and review for a test. Three students were observed beginning to study. Students had almost one hour of free time allowed with a class that was typically not hard working.

In the other classroom, one 90-minute class period was spent on writing ten notecards. There was no instruction on how to set-up a notecard and only casual monitoring of whether time was used wisely. Students often had no accountability on a day-to-day basis and days used to work on the research paper, often were conducted without the students needing to show a final product for the day. This lead to many of the students using as much as all 90 minutes of class time for personal conversations or even sleeping.

Chapter V will analyze the reading and writing in these two English classes in terms of the influences upon the uses of reading and writing including those originating outside the classroom from the district and state. Discussion of those influences originating with the teachers and their personal experiences, beliefs and knowledge, and the students' views on reading and wring in the content areas will also be included.

CHAPTER V

INFLUENCES UPON THE USES OF READING AND WRITING

Chapter V uses the interpretations of the participants' life experiences to illustrate how classroom participants brought their experiences, beliefs, and values to the decisions they made about using literacy in the classroom. The analysis of lived experiences contextualizes the interactions within the classroom culture, providing a view of the participants' interpretations of broader cultural and historical influences on their teaching and learning.

Influences Originating Outside the Classroom

Schools do not exist in a vacuum and there are social factors that influence what goes on in the classroom. Influences originating outside the classroom may involve federal and state laws and mandates as well as school district mandates and curriculum choices.

Influences Beyond the District: The Nation and the State

The No Child Left Behind Act [NCLB] was created to permit a federal role to help close the achievement gap between disadvantaged and minority students and their peers in public education. The four main principles of the plan are: (a) a stronger

accountability for results, (b) expanded flexibility and local control, (c) expanded options for parents, and (d) an emphasis on proven research-based teaching methods (U.S. Dept. of Education, 2001). With NCLB, states, school districts, and schools will be held accountable for ensuring that all students meet high academic standards. States will be required to develop a system of rewards and sanctions to hold districts and schools accountable for improving academic achievement. Although most of this act directly affects teaching and learning in grades K-8, high schools in unified districts will be affected as money and staffing are transferred to meet federal guidelines at the elementary level. The increased emphasis on reading, however, could have a positive impact on the academic ability of those future students entering the high school. No Child Left Behind will have a more direct impact at the high school in the mandates to improve teacher quality, high standards for professional development, and promoting research-based effective practices in the classroom. States and local districts will be permitted to use federal funds to meet their particular needs and to strengthen the skills and improve the knowledge of their public school teachers.

The State Learning Objectives (2002) define English language arts education as incorporating the teaching and learning of reading, writing, speaking, listening, and viewing. The English language arts are not perceived as individual content areas, but as a unified subject in which each of the five areas supports the others and enhances thinking and learning. There is an integration of the teaching and learning of content and process within the curriculum. Content includes the ideas, themes, issues, problems, and conflicts found in classical and contemporary literature and other texts, such as technical manuals, periodicals, speeches, and videos. Process includes skills and strategies used in

listening, speaking, reading, writing, and viewing. An effective English language arts program teaches students to respond to a rich variety of literature including fiction, poetry, drama, and nonfiction from different time periods and cultures with increasing sophistication and to communicate their interpretation of what they have read, heard, and seen through various means of expression. Students are expected to develop research skills to be able to gather, organize, and interpret information. Writing follows the National Council of Teachers of English [NCTE] (1996) guidelines in that it is the process of selecting, combining, arranging, and developing ideas in effective sentences, paragraphs, and longer units of discourse through instruction in the writing process. Writing is a means of learning which allows students to discover connections, describe processes, express emerging understandings, raise questions, and find answers. Oral language, listening and speaking are included because it is estimated more than 75 percent of all communication is devoted to the oral communication process (State Learning Objectives, 2003).

When referring to the State Learning Objectives the teachers believed that their entire curriculum was controlled by them.

> Since I teach juniors and seniors I don't feel as restricted as freshman and sophomores do because they have to take tests that parallel there course, their sequence of courses. So, I don't have that. Um, and I don't really feel that I'm controlled by it. I think PASS Objectives are pretty broad and general. I think I've always done them. I probably if I wrote my own would combine some and highlight others. So I have to put them on my lesson plans, but that's the only change that I've made... Now I think that

freshman and sophomores the teachers who have to give tests on certain times on some criteria feel much very restricted. Basically because they're going to be judged by their students' results and the students here do not take those tests seriously. It means nothing to them. Half of them won't even try. (Ms. Black, interview, October 14, 2003)

I'm trying to stay in line with the _____ skills, but I think they should just be writing and reading short stories. Shorter pieces of work. Especially in the block. I mean, these kids are struggling with that novel so terribly. It just seems too much. Their writing is just, you know, I think we need to focus more on writing. (Ms. Brown, interview, October 28, 2003)

The State Learning Objectives are expected to be met by teachers in this district. These objectives align closely with content area reading instruction practices and my stated goal of observing and analyzing reading activities in secondary English classes was based on the comprehensive State Learning Objectives (see Appendix J). Field observations confirmed that the teachers did try to meet these learning objectives.

School District Influences

The high school English curriculum is also based on the District Standards and Benchmarks which were developed from the State Learning Objectives (see Appendix K & L). These were identified as being the state mandate that most affects content area courses by the Director of Secondary School Improvement. The Director whose role includes "...supervise[ing] the content area specialists who work with teachers...but we

don't have any resource teachers right now because of funding cuts so that [English] position is vacant" (interview, January 16, 2004). The Director has assumed the responsibilities of content area curriculum directors (e.g. district level Director for English Curriculum). The Director confirmed that teachers in the district are expected to follow these standards. "...the district doesn't mandate a curriculum per se; we mandate that the teachers teach the State Standards and Benchmarks" (interview, January 16, 2004). The principal noted that the Standards and Benchmarks were "something that the district developed. In terms of the Standards and Benchmarks and they're supposed to be tied to the [State Learning] Objectives as well. So it's pretty much an in-house thing" (interview, December 4, 2003). The District Standards and Benchmarks are brief and less comprehensive than the State Learning Objectives and do not include the basics of what reading research recommends should be included in secondary content reading including spelling, literacy, study skills, and visual literary. Other areas not specifically referenced in the Standards and Benchmarks include higher order thinking skills, including the ability to make inferences or generalizations. Grammar is included in a category title in the District Standards and Benchmarks, but is not included in the list of topics to be covered in the category. At the twelfth grade level vocabulary, literary analysis, and instruction for speaking is included, but these topics are included at all levels in the State Learning Objectives.

The District Pacing Calendar (see Appendix M) is based on the State Learning Objectives and includes all objectives placed on a calendar of two semesters. Pacing Calendars have been provided only through the tenth grade level within this district. When asked, the Director of Secondary School Improvement did not know when these

Pacing Calendars would be completed. "We haven't made that determination yet." (interview, January 16, 2004). This creates additional work for those teaching the upper two levels of English. Teachers who are following and meeting the more complete State Learning Objectives need to individually create a pacing calendar that includes all the State Learning Objectives. In addition, the high school English Department Chair believed they did not need to use the Pacing Calendar because it did not correspond well with the four-block schedule. The freshman English Teacher stated she used the Pacing Calendar as her primary source for meeting required curriculum goals and filling out her lesson plans. Less motivated teachers could follow the District Standards and Benchmarks, yet not meet all state requirements. The evaluation of teachers' performance is extremely subjective because teachers could be meeting maximum district standards and minimum state standards.

When a teacher was asked about curriculum changes and its effects on instruction Ms. Brown responded:

> It's changed since I've been here. We kept having to add more to our lesson plans, and more numbers and digits and the community guidelines and we have to keep adding and adding and adding... I feel like I need to be going by that [mandated curriculum] and some of them are vague and its you don't know if your doing what they really want you to be doing and sometimes you... you throw something out and you try to do something and it just does not work. It just doesn't work and I feel like whenever that happens...I just keep running into a wall because I feel I need to be doing that but, its not working. (interview, October 28, 2003)

An additional document in the form of the _____ Public Schools Model for School Improvement is also being used for curriculum planning (see Appendix N). This is an on-going program, directed by an outside consulting firm, addressing the categories: (a) creating a safe and threat-free environment, (b) developing and delivering quality curriculum, and (c) tools and samples. Beyond the categories of "Identifying Similarities and Differences" and "Summarizing and Note Taking" in the "Research-Based Instructional Strategies" section (no page number), content area reading instruction is not included. Suggestions for student reading programs or reading guidelines are not mentioned in this document. The curriculum planning section contains sample forms for planning units and lesson plans, including a two-page lesson plan sheet to be completed by the teachers. One of the teachers observed had adapted this guide down to a one-page form that fulfilled the requirements and met secondary needs. Ms. Black shared:

> It's [_____ Model] full of absolutely wonderful ideas, but they want us all to do it. I mean what's the point. Why have every teacher be like every other teacher. And they have inundated us with things to think about. (interview, October 14, 2003)

The major complaint about the _____ Model is that it is most applicable to the elementary level. As the principal shared, "...that's been the problem, the fact that most of it is so elementary. And we've said we need some high school guidance with the _____ Model and it needs to be tailored for high school so that has been part of the problem" (interview, December 4, 2003). The plan deals more specifically with ways of delivering curriculum and instruction and recommended practices in the guide have been researched and applied only in the elementary school. Unlike the District Standards and

Benchmarks and State Learning Objectives this model does not present change in the form of student objectives, but as a checklist of changes that might be made in the classroom by the teacher and in the school by the principal.

The researcher was able to attend a staff development meeting, presented by the hired consulting firm, designed to help the district implement the _____ Model. The consultant admitted, after a direct question near the end of a three-hour presentation, "There is no model at the high school level and the high school structure makes change hard" (staff development meeting, November 25, 2003). This information confirmed to the faculty they were not going to get the professional development they were looking for. Based on comments made by participants, they were looking for ownership and choice, as well as something that was useful and adaptable to their situation. The district is committed to this program and is ready to expand it further into the high school. Meetings are currently being held to review and revise the _____ Model to meet the needs of the high school. Meetings are proceeding at the District level and principals and teachers are not currently involved in the planning process.

The _____ Reads Program for employee staff development was meant to address the issue of preparing teachers to provide reading instruction in their classrooms at all grade levels. When the Director of Secondary School Improvement was asked, "In what ways are teachers supported in their efforts to include reading strategies in their instruction?" she replied:

> Well, we have a lot of professional development that focuses on improving reading and writing skills. We've got _____ Reads which has been on-going professional development for the past, I think this is our

> third year involved with _____ Reads and that's professional development that uses the trainer model to deliver promising practices and research based best practices to all the schools so that the teachers there in turn can use those strategies to improve their skills in teaching reading and writing. And it is a cross-curricular effort in that everyone is a teacher of reading and every teacher should incorporate writing into their curriculum... originally, the intent was to take it up during the third year into the high schools but we just haven't had the funds to do that (interview, January 16, 2004)

Due to state and district budget constraints, after the initial in-service for high school teachers in spring 2002, no further implementation was made. Only one of the teachers involved in this study was employed by the district when this staff development program was held and she did not remember it. The principal also did not clearly recall this district-wide staff development event. When asked to recall the content he believed, "It was basically focusing on how people read, how some read, and different rate or level, and what some see then they read and what others see or what they don't see. Things of that nature" (principal interview, December 4, 2003). The Director discussed the initial response to the ______ Reads program at the secondary level in this way:

> I think it was mixed. There were those that, you know, were looking for some ideas and some ways to serve kids better and then there's typically a disconnect between the middle and the high school and, and, also even a bigger disconnect between what goes on in elementaries and what goes on

> in secondary, and so, you know, with that kind of disconnect there were a lot of teachers that just didn't see what benefit or value that that was going to have for them and they typically think that reading is something that should be done in elementary only and that there are many of our teachers that lack the kind of preparation that they need and knowledge about how to teach reading in the secondary schools. (interview, January 16, 2004)

Teachers apparently had not recognized the value of this prior professional development meeting.

Influences Within the School

Both teachers liked their current administrator and believed he was supportive and his high expectations for student behavior made it easier for them to teach. They also believed he had made it clear what was expected in the classroom and they were therefore able to meet his goals and expectations for the classroom.

> The present administrator I like a lot because he is very structured and he expects the kids to behave...I don't know how to describe this school ...it's not at risk, it's not great risk, but many of our kids are below grade level in reading. Let's put it that way. And his high expectation of their behavior helps me tremendously. (Ms. Black, interview, October 14, 2003)

> ...[the principal] wants things a certain way and so that influences a lot in your classroom... you have the opening, this is what you need, this is what you have, and he wants a closure and he wants bell work, and so it's

totally dictated by what he wants. (Ms. Brown, interview, October 28, 2003)

The Department Chair felt that the goal of the English program was for students to learn to think, read, and write better and believed most of her colleagues would agree with this summary. One of the teachers was less sure that she and her colleagues saw what was most important in the teaching of English in the same way. The two teachers believed students probably did not agree with them that teaching students to think, read, and write better was the main goal of high school English. One teacher plainly answered "No" when asked this question. The other teacher believed the answer to the question would vary with the students saying, "some of them would love it and are fine with it and some of them are afraid of it. They would rather have objective questions and they would rather memorize the answers and make an A on the test and have it mean nothing" (Ms. Black, interview, October 14, 2003). Both teachers felt the teachers in their department cooperated together well, not duplicating each others' curriculum, and that all of them try to follow the State Learning Objectives.

The teachers both believed, if students were to transfer classes within the school that transition would be fairly easy for the student. "Pretty much we try not to teach the same thing [at different levels]. You know, the same novels. We try to do the same thing. I feel like our English department is really conscientious about staying on the [State Learning Objectives] skills and trying to do what _____ Public Schools wants us to do in that arena and we try to communicate and make sure we're doing things that's [*sic*] going to get them to the next level" (Ms. Brown, interview, October 28, 2003).

The English Department Chair felt that for such as small department there was

much more they could do to work together and plan instruction and that it was very informal, but she was new to the job and did not want to seem overly assertive. The department chair believed, "We aren't encouraged by anyone except ourselves. The curriculum is set by the district, but we all here try to modify it to fit our students" (e-mail, January 22, 2004). In addition, she did not foresee any changes in the curriculum as long as the "ESC keeps trying to unify the curriculum on a district wide level" (e-mail, January 22, 2004). The Department Chair believed that the teachers in the English department often tried new forms or methods of instruction and that "They help each other. They give each other ideas. Nobody ever discourages anything" (interview, October 14, 2003).

The Department Chair was looking into the possibility of a computer lab for English classes that would allow the students access for word processing equipment for their writing assignments. However, when describing the role of English Department Chair, she defined it as really more of a clerical assignment and someone to help substitute teachers when there is a problem with lesson plans.

Textbooks for high schools are selected at the district level as was explained to the researcher by the Director of Secondary School Improvement:

> ...in a representative manner, in that representatives from the schools meet and review their textbook materials and the ones that are already on the state adopted list, and attend textbook caravans...Representatives from the schools come together to narrow the selection to maybe two or three of the better ones that they liked and then a ballot is sent out to all the teacher who teach that subject and then they vote on those; but we narrow from

> the state list…[and] we have made our desires known in terms of this is our standard textbook across the curriculum. That doesn't mean that they're not using supplemental materials and we also tell teachers that the textbook is not the curriculum. So the textbook is a resource. (interview, January 16, 2004)

Both teachers felt they had adequate resources in the forms of literature anthologies, novels, and other printed materials. The teachers agreed there was a great deal of choice for them in the novels they chose and more than enough books so each student could have their own copy. At the upper level, there was a highly regarded book on writing style that the students used as a reference for their essays and senior research paper. One teacher commented she would like to see more contemporary novels and both agreed it was hard to find reading materials that really caught the students' attention.

> … in the sense that I would like some more contemporary novels. I want to get the kids reading and I'd like to find something that's not quite so difficult for them. However, the administration here works with us. So given the state of public education I can't complain. I've got a book for each kid. I've got more than a book for each kid. (Ms. Black, interview, October 14, 2003)

Both teachers relied on videotaped Hollywood movies to support the reading assignments and these were procured by the teachers. Students were rarely seen carrying library books and the researcher never witnessed a time when students were to read self-selected material, although one teacher stated in her interview that they indeed did this. Boys in one of the classes frequently brought the sports section of the newspaper prior to

the start of class each day.

Students who were having difficulty with reading had no one other than their content area teachers to help them. There is no reading specialist at the high school level in this district at the schools or the Education Service Center. Special education students had a study skills period staffed by special education teachers, but because there was little contact between departments, integration or explanation of assignments was not maintained in this school. Many special education students were mainstreamed into both classrooms and support for the teachers in the form of inclusion teachers was only seen in one classroom in the last three weeks of the course. An inclusion teacher began participating in the classroom, visiting with students, and helping selected students with their daily assignments. These two teachers did not at any time plan cooperatively on what the students would be doing now that the inclusion teacher was available to them.

Influences Originating With the Teachers and Students

Within the classroom what is taught and learned is influenced by the teacher and the students. We must recognize the social and cultural influences that shape the ways teachers think about teaching, learning, and the role content literacy might play in their classrooms. These personal pedagogical conceptions develop from a variety of life experiences and have a dramatic influence on teachers' decisions about instruction. Content literacy learning strategies are aimed at improving students' cognitive and academic performances, however, students bring unique personal histories to school that shape how they view their work in school. These personal histories also influence who students socialize with and whether they and their friends value academic work

(Knowles, 1992; O'Brien, et al., 1995)

The Teacher's Personal Experiences, Beliefs, and Knowledge

Neither teacher claimed to have been influenced by any education courses they had taken in the past. One of the teachers had 25 to 30 hours of reading course work in the 1970's. She taught remedial reading briefly as there was a need in the district for reading teachers. She did not enjoy teaching reading and was never certified. When asked to recall incidents from their own coursework or student teaching experiences one teacher claimed she could barely remember. "Probably, I don't remember anything negative and I don't remember anything positive" (Ms. Black, interview, October 14, 2003). "Well what attracted me, I'm remembering, are their love of their subject and their conversational time, their humanness" (Ms. Black, interview, October 14, 2003). "The influence of the supervising teacher absolutely does…[her] organization…I'm trying to figure out how to say it, it wasn't that she was that tough, but she had high expectations and all the kids were treated the same, and just the fun, the classroom fun, just the enthusiasm" (Ms. Black, interview, October 14, 2003).

One teacher had been very positively impacted by a previous English teacher:

> Well, just like probably everyone else I had a fabulous junior English teacher that just sparked my interest and English wasn't always easy for me. It was challenging and I thought, wow, if I could, if I could do that—that and help kids that maybe it's a challenge as well. I'm probably not your typical English teacher; I don't read 5,000 books a summer and all that, but I enjoy it, and I like it, and I like to teach it…Creativity. She was

> very creative and made things fun; brought music in a lot. (Ms. Brown, interview, October 28, 2003)

The teachers completed a survey (Barry, e-mail November 14, 2002) rating their knowledge and the usefulness of various reading strategies. Both teachers were familiar with almost all twenty-four of the reading strategies and rated most of them effective or very effective and that they would recommend them to others. Like so much of the prior research has demonstrated, knowledge and use of reading strategies are rarely congruent. These strategies were not observed over the course of the field work with only a few exceptions. When the Director of Secondary School Improvement was asked, "Do you perceive of any constraints that would serve as barriers to teachers who wish to make instructional changes to improve learning and literacy in their classrooms?" the answer included the following:

> I think sometimes we intellectually know that change can be made and we know that there are some things that we do that we could do that would improve our students' success, but I think there's a gap between knowing what to do and actually doing it; and I call that the knowing/doing gap and I think probably there are a variety of reasons why teachers don't do it, some of which, I think, one reason why is they, they seem to lack the skill and so that gets to be a professional development issue and in some cases the teachers lack the motivation. (interview, January 16, 2004)

When the Director of Secondary School Improvement was asked, "In your view what would be the best way to include reading and writing in the high school English program?" She replied. "By doing it" (interview, January 16, 2004). One student

responded to this question with the same answer. When asked this same question, one teacher responded that practice was most important. "I guess what students write…I think the main purpose is to raise their critical reading, critical writing, critical thinking skills…I want them to leave high school with the ability to communicate better. Orally and written, and that entails they have to learn to think. And not be afraid to think" (Ms. Black, interview, October 14, 2003). One teacher felt that "what seems to work the best, now, they seem to learn better when they hear or read other students [*sic*] what they've written" (Ms. Black, interview, October 14, 2003). This was demonstrated many times in her classroom when students were asked to share their writing assignments. "When I first started teaching I never did it, and now I do it all the time… At first they're hesitant to have theirs chosen they don't mind my reading it, but I'm not to say their name. By the end of the term they usually volunteer to read their own" (Ms. Black, interview, October 14, 2003). The reading could be anonymously read by the teacher or students could read it themselves and claim credit and praise the class offered after each reading. After the teacher read the poems she usually handed them back to the students and all anonymity was lost. Poetry and essays in this class were often saved for placing in the school anthology or sharing with other classes. The other teacher commented "I would like them to learn good writing skills and I would also like for them to learn after they've read something to know what they've read. You know, I think, it's what we all want, but sometimes it's easier said than done" (Ms. Brown, interview, October 28, 2003). This teacher bluntly stated that she did not feel her students shared this view.

To be successful in these classes one teacher commented that "They'd have to have a good work ethic" (Ms. Brown, interview, October 28, 2003), while the other

teacher responded that they need to come to class, put forth effort and complete assignments. One teacher had homework in the form of weekly writing assignments, outside reading of novels, and the completion of unfinished class work. The other teacher did not assign homework because she believed it would not be completed anyway "and I find most of [th]em do better whenever we do read aloud in class. I think its just time, they don't want to read at home or outside or if you tell them to read silently I don't think they're reading a lot of times" (Ms. Brown, interview, October 28, 2003).

When the teachers were asked, "In what ways do you include reading in your instruction?" the answers included the information that "English is literature based so it starts with the reading and they usually end up writing about some prompt that comes from the reading that they apply to their daily lives. So, it's the engine that drives the class" (Ms. Black, interview, October 14, 2003). Short stories, poetry, drama, and novels were all read over the course of the field work in these two classes. When the issue of the students' ability to read was discussed, both teachers agreed that they had students who had difficulty with the reading. "I think, the higher comprehension you have…the higher their comprehension is the smoother your class is going to go; the more they're going to enjoy things because so much of our English is totally literature based" (Ms. Brown, interview, October 28, 2003).

One teacher shared that 20 to 25 percent of the students regularly had great difficulty reading class assignments, going as high as 40 percent if the section was extremely difficult.

> It's [reading] a little below average generally on standardized testing and stuff if you look. But it's not like you're not in desperate straits; oh, the

> kids, I feel like the kids who come to {North High School] get a pretty average education. They're not going to go to, you know, they're not going to be brain surgeons but if they want to get into college they'll be able to take the courses without too much remedial. Of course, some of them need a lot of extra help. That's true everywhere. (Ms. Black, interview, October 14, 2003)

One teacher also felt apathy had a great deal to do with reading problems. She coped with this situation by offering rewards to those who read to encourage them to participate. "I do that bonus; do the little red tickets and seems to get the ones who care fired up enough to participate...like we have more readers whenever I do things like that. They answer more questions if they think there's a bonus point attached to it. So I give a lot of bonuses like that just for engaging in class" (Ms. Brown, interview, October 28, 2003). The other teacher seemed to do more to get more students involved by doing small group reading or allowing one student to read to students who had more difficulty. "We'll do oral reading, we'll do small group reading. I'll put them in clusters, that bunch will read out loud" (Ms. Black, interview, October 14, 2003). In this class, students would often spontaneously do this whenever reading assignments were given with better readers automatically taking over within the group and reading to those less able and providing them the extra support they needed.

When asked about using small group work, simulation games, cooperative learning, and other activities in English instruction both teachers thought it was good teaching practice. One teacher commented, "I think it's great. And some of the kids like it, but I don't like it when that's all they do" (Ms. Black, interview, October 14, 2003).

When asked if she would recommend these techniques to others she commented, "...not to ever rely on one method and try them all repeatedly because kids learn different ways. That's my big gripe with education. They go on these waves and they're for awhile everything was supposed to be groups. Well frankly, groups work sometimes and sometimes they don't" (Ms. Black, interview, October 14, 2003). The other teacher felt her students go "crazy" when placed in group situations so only tried it occasionally. She felt she varied from class to class, but in the class being observed she had to be more structured and on schedule so the students would know what to expect every day. She believed she would encourage other teachers to also use various methods of instruction but stated, "I wish we had more worthwhile professional development that taught us some of those strategies that we'd share with just English teachers" (Ms. Brown, interview, October 28, 2003).

When describing their teaching styles one teacher felt she was informal and that was the tone she was looking for. When asked about lecturing she believed she had to do some. "I have seniors and juniors and some of them will be going to college. So I do some and they practice note taking that kind of thing. But we have large classes here and that's difficult to do" (Ms. Black, interview, October 14, 2003). In reality, she did a great deal of talking and explaining even if she did not formally stand in front of the room with prepared notes and lecture.

When asked if they could see any problems for English teachers who decide to increase the emphasis on reading, materials were considered a definite problem because of the wide range of reading levels in the classes. "You see, you'll have a third grade reader and college reader in the same class and it really gets difficult" (Ms. Black,

interview, October 14, 2003). One teacher shared that she had commented to the English Department Chair:

> I've never been taught how to teach kids to read. You know, and she said well I hadn't either, because we; by the time they're in high school we expect them to have a pretty fundamental idea of how to read, but we're getting kids that—that really don't know how to read. Or they'll say the words but they don't know how to comprehend and what I've done this year, I have reading strategies and different activities I try to get them to do so they do [to] remember more. And I find most of [th]em do better whenever we do read aloud in class…if you tell them to read silently I don't think they're reading a lot of times. (Ms. Brown, interview, October 28, 2003)

Homework assignments varied between the two teachers in amount, length, and frequency.

> They have a writing assignment once a week. And there's always an outside reading that they're working on. The only other homework is just what happens to come up in class that we didn't finish…the majority do complete the writing because the writing counts twice as much as anything else in here. So they'll do that. And the reading just depends what the selection is. If it's a book that I can get them turned on to they'll do it. If it's a book that I can't just your kids who care about their grade will do it. (Ms. Black, interview, October 14, 2003)

When considering the most important thing a teacher needs to do to be considered

successful with their students one teacher responded:

> Get the students involved in education. Make some kind of human contact. I read years ago and I don't know if it's true or not, some research that if a student finds one adult at school who acts like or really cares about what happens to them, that that can change a student. I believe that that can help, I believe that that does help. I don't think it can save them all, but I think it does help if they know that you give a hoot. (Ms. Black, interview, October 14, 2003)

The Students' Views on Reading and Writing in Content Areas

The teacher comment about student classroom success, "A student has to come to class and put forth effort and complete assignments" (Ms. Black, interview, October 14, 2003) was confirmed by student responses. The student question: "To be successful in your English class what does a student have to do?" elicited various responses. The students felt that to be successful in English they needed to apply themselves and do all the work:

> Well it's actually pretty easy, but if you apply yourself and you like, just actually do all the work and don't give her too much grief then you're going to do well in there. Just like any other class. (John, student interview, December, 2003)
>
> I'd say come to class every day. Like let's see, be ready to learn no matter what, always come in there. (Michael, student interview, December, 2003)

> Turn in all your work, do the assignments, have a good attitude. (Mary, student interview, January, 2004)
>
> Attend the classes and just, you really need to pay attention. (Ann, student interview, January, 2004)

When asked, the students believed they were asked to do the reading assignments for understanding and learning about literature, although one student wasn't sure.

> Probably just to help us gain knowledge of the stuff that's out there. I mean, we need to learn how to read, we need to read different things, you know, help open us up a little bit. (John, student interview, December, 2003)
>
> I'd say to help us out later on in the future. I mean, not the stories, well the stories too, but like our literature and vocabulary and stuff. (Michael, student interview, December, 2003)
>
> So we can learn more about how to write and read. (Susan, student interview, December, 2003)

When questioned as to why do you think your teacher gives you these writing assignments one student claimed not to know. To prepare for the future and be more educated were common themes with the students. Other responses were:

> Probably we're getting these writing assignments to help prepare us for college, because in college I understand you do a lot of writing. And more writing you get, the more practice you get on it and probably the better you're going to do. (John, student interview, December, 2003)
>
> So we can learn how to write and for college we can write essays and

stuff. (Ann, student interview, January, 2004)

Younger students were less clear as to why high school students are required to take four years of English with one student not knowing and another one simply stating, "We need to." Other responses included:

> We're going to use English for the rest of your life and you might not have to use math or something. So English is just always going to be there. You always have to communicate with people. (John, student interview, December, 2003)

> So they won't be rusty on spelling and like knowing different like words and stuff. (Michael, student interview, December, 2003)

> I think there's a whole bunch of different levels of English and all four years they teach you all of them. (Mary, student interview, January, 2004)

Students showed various levels of enthusiasm when questioned, "What do you think is the best way to learn about English and what are some of the favorite things you have done in English class?" Some students believed you just had to practice, to study, or do it. More complete responses were:

> Well I like uh, more visual stuff. You know I'm not really a speed reading person; I like to hear it and like to watch it and as long as it just sticks in my head a little bit. (John, student interview, December, 2003)

> Reading, I love stories. (Michael, student interview, December, 2003)

The responses to "Do you think reading and writing can help you learn English and what do you think is the best way for a high school student to become a better reader and writer?" demonstrated how unclear students were of the purpose of reading and

writing in their academics.

> Oh yeah, I mean repetition, you know, always helps if you always keep going over stuff and writing it out; soon, soon it will stick in there a little bit. Keep reading and writing. Don't stop. (John, student interview, December, 2003)

> Whenever you don't read like, I mean whenever you're not reading in class, it's always good to read like outside, I mean, just concentrate. (Michael, student interview, December, 2003)

> I think it helps you to learn it [be]cause when you read it, it has, it has, different meaning and when you write it, it, I guess, it helps you understand what you just read...Practice. (Mary, student interview, January, 2004)

> Do it. Take the class. Practice, practice all the time. (Robert, student interview, January, 2004)

I had hoped that students, after all their years of schooling, might have some ideas of what they liked best and how they would like their classes to be taught. The answers to the question, "If you could teach English in this school, how you would teach?" provided very little information about student likes and dislikes with one student answering "I don't know" and the unclear answer "visually and vocally."

> Well I'd probably get a little bit creative, I'd probably try to watch a lot of videos along with reading the stories with them. Like Ms. Black's doing now. Read and then watch what we've read and then keep doing that. That seems to be pretty fun to me. (John, student interview, December,

2003)

I'd do exactly what Ms. Black has us doing, it's cool. (Michael, student interview, December, 2003)

Well, when we read in here she also tries to make it fun. I think that's important. She makes it fun and she also sometimes gives us a little bit of discipline, which I think that's important in a class. (Mary, student interview, January, 2004)

Oh, I liked reading *The Odyssey*. I'd probably do it the same way she's doing it. (Robert, student interview, January, 2004)

Summary

The Director of Secondary School Improvement believed that to be a successful teacher in this district teachers "[need] to use a variety of different instructional strategies to diagnose individual student needs and to support their learning so that all of them are successful (interview, January 16, 2004). These teachers, while working hard, did not fulfill this definition of successful teaching.

The teachers believed reading and writing were important parts of the high school English curriculum. The teachers' actions demonstrated a commitment to this, particularly when teaching writing. They did not through their actions provide any proof that reading for academics or pleasure was something they were trying to encourage their students to pursue or improve. Students saw a vague general need for reading and writing skills for an equally vague future.

The final chapter will discuss the conclusions about these research

findings about reading and writing activities and the influences on these reading and writing activities in the secondary English classroom. The research report will conclude with a discussion of implications for classroom practice and future research.

CHAPTER VI

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Summary

The current model for infusing content literacy into the secondary schools oversimplifies the complexities of secondary-school curriculums' pedagogy and culture. Infusion is based on the assumption that content literacy practices, values, and philosophy, packaged in textbooks, courses, and staff development activities, can be integrated into schools using a logical, technical rationality where schools are viewed as neutral settings. The model assumes that teachers are willing to assume the role of strategy technicians who alter their work ethics and discipline-based values to accommodate content literacy at the advice of literacy educators. The model fails to consider that the secondary school is a socially and culturally constructed institution and that teachers and students are social and cultural beings who, through their interactions continually create new contexts. As secondary teachers and students create new contexts, they operate within the constraints and influences of the secondary-school culture. The content literacy strategies approach, taught from a traditional perspective offers little that is new to teachers and students in secondary content areas (O'Brien, et al., 1995)

The teachers observed in this research were experienced, respected high school English teachers who were working diligently to teach their students the required English

courses. They taught at opposite ends of the age spectrum in a traditional high school with a diverse student population. Reading and writing were included in the course through perceived conceptions of literacy as a requirement in English/Language Arts and because of state and local mandates for English curriculum. Literacy specialists and researchers have often criticized content teachers for not using more theory-based content reading and writing strategies in their classrooms, but only a small body of empirical evidence exists describing what practicing secondary teachers actually do and why they do it.

The purpose of this chapter is to discuss the conclusions of this study in relation to previous research and to propose implications for both practice and research. The questions: "What types of reading and writing activities occur in the two high school English classes?" and "What influences the types of and degree to which reading and writing activities occur in two high school English classes?" were the focus of the study. Using constant comparative analysis (Glaser & Strauss, 1999), themes, patterns, and categories of beliefs, actions, and interactions were determined for these two English classes. Four themes were determined to predominate in this study. They include: (a) teacher expertise and knowledge of content area reading, (b) teacher and student beliefs, (c) school culture, and (d) teacher education and training. Six categories were determined to reflect the inclusion of content area reading in these two English classrooms including: (a) reading assignments, (b) literary terms and vocabulary, (c) study skills and notetaking, (d) class discussions and presentations, (e) video and audio supplements, and (f) writing assignments.

Conclusions

The researcher began this fieldwork believing from personal experiences and conversations with practicing teachers that they were more aware of and accepting of content area reading at the secondary level than in the past. She wanted to observe and determine if teachers were currently implementing this knowledge in the classroom. Participation in staff development with teachers had seemed to demonstrate that teachers were aware of the academic weaknesses of many secondary school readers and were aware of reading strategies available to them to help these students. The researcher agrees with Carter and Klotz (1991) that "neither lack of understanding regarding the complex nature of reading nor lack of training in reading exonerates secondary teachers from their obligation to teach students content area subjects" (p. 99). To be a good teacher and meet students' educational needs requires teachers to instruct students in how to read content materials.

Types of Reading and Writing Activities

Teacher Expertise and Knowledge of Content Area Reading. These two teachers were aware of many content area reading strategies, as demonstrated by the responses to the survey they answered (Barry, e-mail November 14, 2002), but they chose to only implement group work, in the guise of cooperative learning, which is recommended by the district, and study guides. In spite of these teachers' knowledge and awareness their personal histories and the school culture reinforced the teaching of English in a traditional, unchanged manner from how they themselves had been taught (Applebee, 1993). With the exception of including group work, these classes functioned no

differently than English classes the researcher participated in as a high school student. The researcher felt the biggest change has been a decrease in the actual amount of reading done, with students responsible for reading fewer books in a typical English class than were required in the past.

The recent study by Langer (2000, 2001a, 2001b) demonstrates successful teacher practices that can be identified and demonstrated to improve student academic learning. Langer looked at characteristics of teachers' lives that accompanied student achievement in reading, writing, and English. The results of this study showed the importance of a school climate that promoted student achievement, teachers' professional development, structured improvement activities, teacher caring and commitment, and respect for lifelong learning. The classrooms studied here represent the typical classrooms rather than the exemplary classrooms described in Langer's study. The reality found in these classrooms was that educating secondary students has remained consistent with findings of studies in the past. Content area reading awareness and knowledge were not being demonstrated in the classrooms observed in this study.

Research has found that lack of time is considered a major impediment to including content area reading in secondary classes (Barry, 2002, O'Brien, 1988). However, an interesting finding in this research was the amount of wasted, empty time in each 90-minute block class period. Teachers had more instructional time available to them than they were utilizing. Students usually spend 10 minutes or more each class period with no assignment. Opportunities were frequently lost in these classrooms to include content area reading activities that would have benefited the students' reading and study skills, as well as helping them become more successful in their work.

Reading Assignments. A concern for secondary teachers is how students learn from texts. While teachers consider the text to be a primary source of information for subject area understanding, little reading is often assigned or discussed. A study by Eanet (1992) examining the reading practices of secondary English and social studies classrooms found that textbooks were almost always present and that supplementary text materials were absent, even in the English classes. This was found to be true in these classes with little use of reference books within the class or the use of a large number of novels for classroom, independent, and outside reading. Teachers are concerned that many students will not or cannot read assigned pages from the books because they are too difficult or of little interest to the students. This was supported by the teachers' opinions and some students' statements that they found the reading difficult. In these two classes reading tended to be unnecessary because the teachers told and retold all the pertinent information the students would need to be successful on tests. Videos further reinforced the plot and eliminated the need to actually read. As research demonstrated (Alvermann et al., 1985; Nystrand et al., 1997; Ratekin et al. 1985) secondary school students in these classes appeared to depend on teacher talk rather than on their own reading as their primary source of information.

Student interest in the types of novels and stories read was consistently low and teachers were unsure how to promote student interest in the stories and novels they selected for use in the classroom. Teachers met historical expectations for curriculum in the materials they chose to read, but they also tried to select materials with student interest in mind. Both teachers struggled with the common problem in secondary education of trying to share a subject they loved with an unresponsive audience and

change the students' attitudes to appreciate or enjoy the literature.

Independent reading assignments, including silent reading assignments, were rarely given during the observation period. Reading tended to be done in a full-class format with a limited number of volunteer readers doing most of the reading. Although these English teachers readily grasped how important a student's ability to read is to success in their class, they still chose not to personally instigate any teaching methods or strategies that might mediate the students' reading problems or alter the curriculum in any way that might make it more accessible to these struggling students. Students whose reading skills were inadequate for the requirements of the course had no remediation from outside classroom resources. Both teachers felt the job of helping struggling readers was too large and their knowledge and experience inadequate to make any real difference for the students. This was true in spite of the fact one teacher had considerable university course work in reading and experience as a remedial reading teacher.

Literary Terms and Vocabulary. Preteaching vocabulary and pronunciations prior to the students reading as research in content area reading instruction recommends would often have made assignments progress much more smoothly. Since neither teacher tended to discuss name pronunciations, vocabulary, or other information which might help the students' reading proceed smoother, constant interruptions for explanations created continuous disruptions.

Study Skills and Notetaking. Explicit instruction in study skills and notetaking was not observed during the fieldwork. Notes were expected to be taken in both classes and students usually had the required information dictated to them and the extent of their responsibility was to keep track of their notes. These notes were expected to be available

for classroom review and discussion prior to tests and exams.

Class Discussion and Presentations. The recent study by Nystrand, et al. (1997) into the linguistic features of secondary content classrooms was verified in this study. Teachers instruct, question, praise, and monitor students' comprehension in ways that control what is said during discussions. These teachers assigned reading and questioned students orally and on quizzes, all to guide the students to the knowledge the teacher deemed was meaningful and wished them to learn. Questions were usually recall or fact questions asked rhetorically and, if an answer was not immediately forthcoming by students, the teachers usually answered it themselves. Evidence keeps accumulating that teacher talk dominates the majority of classroom interactions and that such talk is used most frequently to control students' behavior and the content of students' talk. This study confirmed these findings as well. Teachers dominated all classroom discussions and comments that might expand the topic were generally ignored. Delving into students' background knowledge through questioning was often superficial and little time was given for students to pause and recall anything they might possibly know about a subject or to reflect on personal opinions, thoughts, or feelings.

Content teachers often express a desire to develop students' critical thinking in their disciplines yet emphasize lower level questions and tasks in actual classroom practice (Sturtevant, 1996). Students become skilled at discerning what is required to get by and quickly assess the signs and symbols signaling membership in content classrooms (Hinchman & Zalewski, 1996). Studies have found student passivity to be the norm and that in typical classroom reading and discussion patterns students are required only to produce text reproductions that merely reiterate text content. Students were generally

passive and uninvolved because they had little interest in the topics being discussed and little opportunity to think about them or share honest thoughts and opinions.

Video and Audio Supplements. Adolescent literacy has moved beyond the idea of school-and textbook-based definitions of literacy to one which acknowledges that there are multiple literacies and multiple texts including popular music, television, and video (Readence, et al, 2001; Wade & Moje, 2000). All video and audio materials in these two English classes directly related to the subject or piece of literature being studied. Most students watched and enjoyed the videos, but some others were involved with personal activities and enjoyed a period of free time. While video is now often recognized as form of text, there was never any accountability to keep these students focused and make the time spent viewing the videos educationally worthwhile.

Writing Assignments. Research provides substantial support for the idea that writing in conjunction with reading prompts learners to be more thoughtfully engaged in learning (Tierney & Shanahan, 1991). Both teachers viewed teaching writing as one of the major goals of the English curriculum and adequately demonstrated this by including frequent writing assignments in their lessons and working to develop students' writing skills. One English teacher spent class time giving instruction in how writing was to be presented and the constant teaching and practicing of the short essay format confirms this teacher's stated commitment to writing in the English classroom.

Influences on the Reading and Writing Activities

Schools do not exist by themselves and there are many factors that influence what happens in the classroom. Influences originating outside the classroom may involve

federal and state laws and mandates. School district mandates, curriculum choices, and other factors within the school also affect the classroom curriculum. The state mandate most directly affecting these two classrooms were the State Learning Objectives (2002) which define English language arts education as incorporating the teaching and learning of reading, writing, speaking, listening, and viewing. The teachers involved in this research believed that their entire English curriculum was controlled by the Objectives and they worked diligently to try to meet as many of these learning objectives as possible.

Teacher and Student Beliefs. The teachers' personal experiences, beliefs, and knowledge of content area reading were remarkably similar although there was a difference in age and knowledge about content area reading goals and strategies with one teacher having extensive university coursework and the other none. The latter teacher believed she was totally unprepared to help students with reading difficulties. Both teachers completed a survey (Barry, e-mail November 14, 2002) rating their knowledge and the usefulness of various reading strategies. Both were familiar with almost all of the reading strategies and rated a majority of them effective or very effective and they would recommend them to others. Neither teacher demonstrated during the research personal use of these strategies with the exceptions of group work and study guides. Neither teacher claimed to have been influenced by any education courses she had taken in the past. One teacher had been very positively impacted by a previous high school English teacher.

Both teachers believed that, in order for students to be successful in their classes, they would need to have a good work ethic. This belief of needing to put forth effort was shared by the students interviewed. Students believed that to be successful you just had

to practice or to study. One teacher used homework fairly regularly for outside reading and writing. The other had almost completely eliminated homework, except for spelling, feeling the students did not complete assignments anyway. The students believed they were asked to do the reading assignments for understanding and learning about literature. Writing was considered by the students to prepare for the future and to become more educated.

The teachers believed that reading was an important component of their curriculum and that reading ability was an important prerequisite. Both teachers realized their classes contained students who had difficulty reading the required coursework (McKenna & Robinson, 1991; Romine & McKenna, 1996). Standardized testing from this school verifies that content area classrooms are heavily populated with students who find literacy tasks challenging. While secondary teachers need to be able to deal with the reading problems facing their students as they do their reading and writing assignments, these teachers perceived problems for English teachers who decided to increase the emphasis on reading because materials for the wide range of reading levels in the classes were unavailable.

Lortie (1975) believed teachers' beliefs and attitudes are so ingrained that they come to be seen by the teacher as knowledge. His study of teachers found that they believed the most powerful influence on their learning to teach was the experience they gained through on-the-job training and prior experiences as students. The teachers claimed that their preservice educational programs offered little in the way of professional preparation and had little effect on altering the way that they viewed teaching in the classroom. In a study by Knowles (1992), the major components of

teacher role identity that were determined included: (a) childhood experiences, (b) teacher role models, (c) teaching experiences, (d) significant or important people and significant prior experiences. His data support the hypothesis that earlier experiences are more important than later experiences in the formation of a teacher role identity. What was taken from the university were those viewpoints and orientations to practice in the classroom that matched with previously held images of teachers' work and that provided reinforcement and validation of their positions.

One of the most powerful aspects the researcher witnessed in this study of why content area reading is not integrated into the content areas is that teachers continue to teach as they were taught. Teachers come to the classroom with years of experience as students behind them. They come to the classroom with their own agenda and with definite views as to the knowledge and experiences which they will accept as valuable for them as classroom teachers (Knowles, 1992). These teachers both had teacher role models in their life, one her mother, the other an admired English teacher, in addition to several professors whose love of the subject of English was admired. These positive role models become the standard of what to strive for as a teacher and for the teacher to believe they are a successful teacher. New teachers replicate as much as possible their role models, their cooperating teachers, and the dozens of other teachers and instructors they have had to this point in their life. If classrooms have not changed over the decades, we all as teachers have continued to replicate our schooling for the next generation. Although research has contributed much about how students learn and how to better teach our students, if future teachers do not observe and absorb this new syntax early in life, we will continue to create more of the same, often ineffective, teachers.

Research by Hinchman and Zalewski (1996) representing adolescents' point of view concluded that, although the students and teacher shared understandings about the makeup of instructional activities, their beliefs about what constituted success in these activities differed. For the teacher, success was characterized as reading to understand the key concepts and for the students, success was determined by getting adequate grades. Similar answers were gained from the teachers and teachers interviewed in this study, particularly in the students' concern about their final grade and the vague knowledge they had of how what they were studying might be useful.

Recent research on teacher effectiveness has shifted its focus from just observing behaviors in the classroom to examining the relationship between the way teachers think and what they practice. The underlying assumption is that teachers' thoughts about different components of the instructional process can influence their classroom plans and actions. Numerous studies (Readence et al., 1998; Wilson et al., 1993) have shown that content area teachers' beliefs and practices are often incongruent. Teachers are often not consistent in their beliefs and their actual teaching practices. These two teachers valued literacy and were striving to help their students read and appreciate literature, yet did nothing to help make the reading more accessible or interesting to the students. The actual minutes spent by each student reading was minimal in class and outside assignments rare to nonexistent. Silent reading was claimed to be a part of the classroom assignments, but was not observed in either class. Studies have indicated that teachers used a small array of content area literacy strategies that they perceived as compatible with the structure of their discipline and their personal beliefs about teaching. These teachers each consistently used two of the many strategies available—study guides and

group work. No others were used even though the teachers claimed knowledge of many more content area reading strategies that might have been helpful to their students reading and motivation.

School Culture and Climate. An aspect of school culture that influences teachers' acceptance of innovations like content literacy methods is the overall school climate and reward structure tied to professional development. While literacy educators may view the content literacy curriculum as an excellent vehicle for professional development because of its ability to help subject area teachers teach content, members of subject subcultural groups may see it as an infringement into their control of content. Content literacy educators may be viewed as outsiders trying to impose teaching strategies without the necessary curricular knowledge valued by subject subcultures or may be viewed as an extra burden in addition to teaching content (O'Brien, et al., 1995; Vacca, 1998). Professional development in this school was perceived as unrelated to actual needs or interests of the teachers or students. Previous staff development in content area reading was generally forgotten and current professional development for the _____ Model was understood to be inappropriate for the high school level.

The role of the teacher envisioned in content area literacy courses is as a facilitator of learning. However, the primacy of subject areas, the status hierarchy of subject areas, and the expectations these make on teachers influence attempts at infusing content literacy into secondary school classrooms. The instructional strategies of content reading and writing seem to fit well with the institutional goals of secondary schooling, but they are often rejected by members of various disciplines because they represent competing pedagogy and content outside the mainstream of their subject disciplines.

Content literacy may not be popular because it threatens to blur historical subject area divisions. Discipline-based knowledge shared in department meetings, curriculum guides, textbooks, and supplements, and shared content knowledge within each discipline creates a traditional way of framing and presenting content and is communicated through a discipline's shared beliefs and traditions. This research reaffirmed that school culture does affect the implementation of content area reading strategies into the secondary curriculum. Teachers shaped their beliefs and actions in relation to the structures, policies, and traditions of the workday and the school institution. This required an attempt to balance personal autonomy in one's own classroom with the larger authority, organizational structure, policies, and procedures of the school and state.

Secondary English teachers have some control over content, the pace of delivery, and the content and pace of classroom interaction. Teacher control provides an efficient way to respond to organizational and time constraints faced within the school and curriculum demands. The need to meet state and local mandates for curriculum was perceived by both teachers to be major factors in what they could teach in the classroom. This requirement was confirmed by the Principal and District Supervisor who stated that State Learning Objectives and District Standards and Benchmarks must be met. The predominance of teachers controlling the discussions and keeping the class moving reflected this need to cover all the materials in a limited time frame. The fact that this district used a standardized literature anthology limited some teacher control over individual choice of content. Pressures from government and school administration to cover more information and increased amounts of standardized testing is a dilemma for teachers as they struggle with an overloaded curriculum and feel frustrated when they try

to integrate additional topics into the curriculum.

Teacher Education and Training. Research shows many content area teachers do not show their students how to use literacy strategies (Romine & McKenna, 1996). Teachers may be willing to provide and facilitate the best possible education for their students, but they may have little or no training in methods. In many instances, teacher-training courses were more oriented toward content than to processes and teachers often feel a lack of expertise in content reading. This was particularly true about one of the teachers involved in this study. She believed she was completely ill-prepared to help her students who were unable to handle the reading assignments. She claimed to have no content area reading coursework in her undergraduate studies. Her only ideas of content area reading strategies had been learned from a teacher she had had and admired and who she considered innovative and "ahead of her time." In contrast the second teacher had enough coursework credits to be eligible to be certified as a reading teacher. This teacher also did not provide any content area reading instruction although she had taught remedial reading classes in the past. Her coursework was well in the past, but she was obviously aware that there were strategies and techniques she might be implementing in class. She stated she did not like teaching reading and was happy when she was able to return to teaching English.

Professional development in this district was usually implemented district-wide, although at this time plans to work on content area reading at the secondary level were on hold. Both teachers in this study stated that they would like to be involved in useful professional development that would help them with the area of content area reading. One was interested in professional development that was designed just for English

teachers and their particular needs. After professional development activities it is important to provide teachers with the resources and time to explore the new and interesting strategies applicable to their content area and to instill confidence in content-area teachers' understandings of reading comprehension by first having them study, identify, and reflect on their own reading processes. One teacher's experience was that she wanted everyone to do everything just the same and that was not practical or useful. Rather than requiring attendance at one-size-fits-all workshops on content-area reading, districts should give individual teachers or groups of teachers who teach the same subject the option of spending that time reading and discussing professional materials specifically focused on the teaching of reading and writing within their disciplines (Ivey, 2002).

Strengths and Limitations

The purpose of this study was to provide an in-depth description of the role of reading and writing in two content area English classes at the secondary level and the reasons why reading and writing occur as they do in those classrooms. This study intensely concentrated upon two classes in one school during four months of instruction. The four-block schedule was used and classes were 90 minutes long. Students completed fall classes and began new classes in January similar to college semesters. These two classes were observed from the middle of their first semester to the completion of their English course. This intense focus provided an opportunity to describe and interpret how and why reading and writing was included in high school English instruction from the perspective of particular teachers, students, and other school personnel in one school and

school district, during one particular time. The strengths of this design included the following: (a) observing the classes over the course of four months provided important information about how instruction was conducted over the length of the English course, (b) my long-term presence in the setting allowed me to slowly develop a rapport with the teachers and students so that they would speak openly, and (c) observations in two classes and interviews with many different participants helped to build a holistic picture which included different perspectives.

Qualitative researchers accept the philosophy that reality is multi-faceted and that rich descriptions built in one setting may not be generalizable to other settings. The strengths of the design are also limitations and this study does not provide information about other teachers, students, and schools. It does not provide verifiable information about the two teachers' other classes or how classes might be different in the spring or next year. Generalizations and theory about how and why secondary school teachers include reading and writing in English instruction must be built over time, through many studies. Many results of this study are supported by previous research and it is hoped that this study will be viewed as another building block which, when combined with the results of other studies, will help valid theories about secondary school instruction to emerge.

This study is also limited by the personal perspective and biases of the researcher. The quality of the research is contingent upon my skills as a researcher and my ability to understand, record, gain insight, and interpret the data collected. The researcher hopes she has limited her personal bias and has explained adequately any impact these biases might have had on the research and the theoretical perspectives on which this study is

based (Anderson & Arsenault, 1998). The teachers were aware that the researcher was a reading specialist and she tried to limit expressing her ideas, beliefs, and values in order to avoid influencing the setting. The researcher believes she was in the setting long enough that the teachers were comfortable in her presence. One teacher expressed relief that the researcher currently worked in a school and not in a research or university setting. She believed the researcher would be better able to understand her situation also having been assigned to a high school. In summary, the researcher believes she was with the participants long enough and frequently enough that they accepted her presence, shared their real beliefs and concerns, and followed their regular instructional practices.

Implications

In contrast to the large number of research efforts at the elementary-school level, there has been too little study of literacy and literacy instruction during middle school, high school, and college. This is regrettable because it is clear that there is still a great need for reading and writing instruction after elementary school: Far too many students receive high school diplomas even though their literacy skills are weak compared with what they should or could be; far too many students arrive at universities ill-prepared for the demanding reading and writing expected of college students, with deficiencies in such skills predictive of difficulties in college (Pressley & McCormick, 1995).

Although several theories have been proposed to explain why content area reading has not been widely implemented in the secondary school, it has been suggested that the unpopularity of textbook-based instruction, workplace constraints in secondary schools, and teacher education programs may be reasons. The power struggle between

school subject area disciplines and a system which rewards teacher-talk and student passivity keeps content area reading strategies from being taught. Teachers operate within a school culture and these cultures develop within the cultural constraints and expectations of the community and national culture in which they exist. Teachers may be right to questions researchers when they continue to suggest teaching strategies that fail to take into account the realities of the culture and schools in which these practices are meant to be implemented. The common practice of the outsider coming for a visit and quickly making recommendations leaves teachers skeptical and unconvinced of the value of the methods being proposed (O'Brien, et al., 1995).

Implications for Practice

Teacher Expertise and Knowledge of Content Area Reading. The obvious and traditional component in the knowledge base is the disciplinary expertise or subject knowledge a teacher brings to teaching. Your chances of being a successful art, chemistry, or English teacher are enhanced to the extent that you are generally knowledgeable in your subject area. The second component of the knowledge base is the set of literacy strategies and principles which are designed to enhance a teacher's ability to assist students in mastering vocabulary, comprehending difficult texts, studying, and evaluating what they read. Social context is the third factor of the content literacy knowledge base (O'Brien & Stewart, 1992). Schools are institutions with rules and agendas that tend to reflect the values of adults and the dominant culture and not the social and cultural values of adolescent readers and writers (Moje et al., 2000).

Many aspects of content literacy work against the dominant secondary pedagogies

of control and telling. Utilizing multiple texts and fostering student independent reading to acquire knowledge may supersede or undermine teacher control. With student-centered methods of discussion and cooperative learning, teachers lose control over the efficient production and reproduction of knowledge (O'Brien, et al. 1995). In an effort to move beyond this pedagogy, authors of content area reading texts such as Vacca and Vacca (1999), urge teachers to teach their students how to learn with texts with the teacher as guide. Cooperative learning groups, process writing approaches, reader response approaches, and portfolio and performance assessments are examples of content literacy teaching approaches that stem from a student-centered, socioconstructivist focus. Through the interaction between teacher, text, and student inherent in these approaches, students take a more independent role in their learning. The role of the teacher should change and no longer would the teacher be seen as the sole source of information and both text and student would become central to learning. By focusing instruction on learning with texts, content area literacy instructional methods have endeavored to remove teachers from their central positions in instruction.

When teachers lecture, assign text reading, and ask students only low level factual questions that encourage memorization and forgetting, students are likely to lapse into a reluctant mode of participation. If teachers want to encourage students to actively link new knowledge to their existing background knowledge, to critically evaluate ideas advanced in class texts and discussions, and to value their growing concept knowledge, they need to provide a supportive, well-structured classroom environment and assignments that are challenging but not frustrating. Learning objectives should be those worth pursuing. Opportunities for active student responses to text concepts are crucial to

enthusiasm for content learning. Projects, experiments, discussions, debates, role playing, cooperative learning, and computer simulations all contribute to students' interest in learning content that could otherwise be potentially dull fare (Good & Brophy, 2003).

Contemporary views of what constitutes a text are changing rapidly and teachers need to consider the multiple texts students typically use. While the single textbook approach may continue to be found in content area classrooms, students need to be learning how to manage a wider array of text forms. If students experience classroom learning from textbooks only, greater numbers of students will view school as distant from their day-to-day management of multiple information sources (Moje et al., 2000). It is important to think multi-dimensionally when assessing the status of the knowledge base for preparing teachers to teach reading. Taking a narrow view of what counts as reading does not make sense given the complex information and communication technologies that currently compete with print-based texts for our attention and that of our students (Alvermann, 2001).

As educators, if we expect all students to meet the sorts of academic standards that fewer than half of the students have historically met, then school programs for older struggling readers will have to include plans for providing some students with access to intensive and expert instructional support throughout their school careers. Two types of support will be needed including access to appropriate texts. Also students have few occasions for self-selection of reading materials because teachers assign reading materials and there is little time set aside for independent reading. Schools need to maintain and accelerate literacy development with long-term literacy support through teachers with

expertise in meeting the instruction needs of students struggling with literacy learning (Allington, 2001).

Teachers and administrators can create learning environments in which all kinds of texts are valued, especially if they adopt a principle of making difficult books accessible and easy books acceptable. Teachers should demonstrate appreciation for a wide variety of textbooks and offer instructional support for students to read the more difficult books independently. Schools may need to allocate resources to make purchasing a wide variety of materials possible and teachers and principals should resist the idea of buying commercially-packaged cures for their schools' educational problems. Teachers should be supported in exploring alternatives to meet their students' diverse needs (Ivey, 1998).

Teacher and Student Beliefs. Although teachers are eager to improve their teaching, they may not be aware of the role beliefs play in pedagogical decisions and actions. As teachers struggle with how to cope with instructional changes that would emphasize literacy competencies, a growing awareness of the teacher as a reflective agent of change is taking place. With regards to students' literacy competencies, teachers who take the time to reflect upon the interaction between the student and the instructional materials presented are better positioned to determine if and what changes are needed in the curriculum. The current trends in education seem to demand that teachers embrace the idea of being a reflective educator. For this reason, allowing planning time for reflection helps a teacher have a better understanding about their own teaching and teachers may realize the critical aspect of their own reflections (Gil & Labar, 2001; Misulis, 2000). Before selecting specific strategies and using instructional materials it is

beneficial to reflect upon one's own perceptions associated with these. It is necessary to study content carefully and to identify what we want students to learn. The teacher must then use all pertinent resource materials available, including state and district curriculum guides and practices. The teachers' reflections on content will facilitate their use of these curricular resources (Misulis, 2000).

School Culture and Climate. The principal has a leading responsibility in improving the school curriculum and becoming an instructional leader. Reading is vital for all students to develop knowledge and skill since reading cuts across the curriculum. The principal of the school has a vital role in assisting teachers to help each pupil become the best reader possible. The principal can assist teachers through carefully chosen objectives that are challenging and achievable (Ediger, 2000). A report by Shahid et al. (2001) promotes principals becoming the head learner—experiencing, demonstrating, and modeling what is expected of the teachers and students. Sanacore (1997) also discusses guidelines for building principals interested in being successful leaders for school reading programs. Clear vision, excellent teachers, and a wide variety of instructional resources are key elements. Hiring and maintaining qualified reading professionals and involving teachers in innovative staff development efforts create success within the school. Sanacore suggests principals keep up to date concerning language arts and reading. By serving as reading role models, principals inspire teachers to value professional literature. Updated educational leaders have more to bring to informal and formal observations of classrooms, observations, conferences, faculty meetings, and other gatherings.

A study by Heck and Marcoulides (1993) identified performance-based parameters of instructional leadership and determined the effects of that leadership in

elementary and secondary schools. Teacher and principal perceptions about how the principal governs the school are strongly related to the manner in which the principal is perceived to organize the school's program and to the principal's role in building a productive school climate. Climate and instructional organization showed a small positive relationship in explaining achievement. Within the domain of instructional organization, their findings suggested that principals pay considerable attention to developing school goals that are consistent with district aims, help teachers acquire needed instructional resources, and directly supervise how instructional strategies are transformed into learning activities through observation and follow-up feedback. Teacher portfolios demonstrating use of newly acquired strategies is one way of allowing for study, reflection, and accountability of implementation of content area reading strategies.

Administrative support is a key element to support and encourage teachers to trust, to be intellectually inquisitive, to share, to raise questions, to debate, to challenge, to provide mutual support, and to express doubts. School administrators must allow teachers the time to reflect and to try new actions based on these efforts (Gil & Labar, 2001). Effective school leaders are key to large-scale, sustainable education reform, and principals should be instructional leaders if they are to be the effective leaders needed for sustained innovation. Schools need principals focused on the development of teachers' knowledge and skills, professional community, and program coherence. The principal needs to be an expert in managing the process of change, not necessarily being an expert in a given content innovation (Fullan, 2002). If principals know what to look for when evaluating reading instruction, they can affect learning across the disciplines by

promoting content area reading and by providing staff development sessions that create better teachers who teach their content areas as well as reading, writing, and skills. The more principals know about content area reading instruction, the better suited they are to help all content area teachers address their students' reading needs (Carter & Klotz, 1991).

Schools can help themselves by intentionally and systematically making reading a high priority with students and teachers. Schools can (a) plan ongoing professional staff development for teachers in reading across the curriculum, (b) organize in-school programs that encourage students and teachers to read, (c) assist teachers in building collaborative relationships with representatives of trade book companies to explore what reading materials beyond textbooks are currently available for use in the classroom, (d) create a faculty library replete with a variety of resources on recent advances in reading, reading instruction, and reading assessment in middle and secondary school, (e) invite teachers from across the curriculum to share reading strategies with colleagues at faculty meetings, and (f) provide teachers with time and encouragement to discuss with colleagues what new insights about reading and teaching they learned from trying new strategies in the classroom (Bintz, 1997)

Teacher Education and Training. Teacher education is composed of a number of settings, including university coursework and the classes that make up the curriculum, field experiences, and student teaching. In the setting of the university, preservice teachers are exposed to one set of conceptions and practices related to the teaching of English and these conceptions may or may not be consistent with their prior experiences and beliefs. Simultaneously, preservice teachers are being exposed to conceptions and

practices for teaching English when they enter schools for field experiences and student teaching. These conceptions also may or may not conform to their prior beliefs or experiences or to the university's conceptions. In contrast to the university, the school setting reinforces the teacher role of the preservice teacher. Since the ultimate goal of the preservice teacher's development is to assume the role of teacher, the teaching role impressed by schools is likely to supersede the values and practices that are stressed in the university (Grossman, Smagorinsky, & Valencia, 1999).

Student teaching has traditionally sent potential teachers out to classrooms that have not necessarily been selected for excellence but rather for a willingness to admit student teachers (Pressley, 1998). There are no easy solutions to the challenges of increasing the time preservice teachers get to spend in the company of good reading or content area teachers and educating prospective teachers in how to make appropriate instructional decisions and orchestrate effective literacy instruction for students. Solutions currently receiving attention are the use of case approaches and letting prospective teachers visit and study classrooms with strong literacy instruction (Teale, et al., 2002). A better screening of potential cooperating teachers who are knowledgeable and innovative might reinforce the values and pedagogy endorsed by the university.

Reinking, et al. (1993) argue that content area reading instructors must go beyond merely presenting instructional strategies. Instructors should relate the strategies to classroom sociocultural factors that affect teaching. Teacher education should pay attention to the voices of school participants who make decisions based on their own interests and goals. Preservice teachers should be made aware of the traditional routines of the jobs they will assume and should then confront the incompatibilities between those

traditions and the pedagogical and curricular reform implicit in content literacy pedagogy. In-service teachers should be asked to reflect on the roles they have already assumed. We need to help pre-and in-service teachers develop critical awareness skills for analyzing their practice and action plans. Doing this could improve the way content literacy is packaged as strategy instruction (O'Brien, et al., 1995).

Preservice content teachers are typically introduced to vocabulary and comprehension strategies in required content area literacy courses with the expectation transfer will take place into their classrooms. Various researchers have raised doubts about both of these expectations and studies document preservice teachers' resistance to the use of strategies promoted in content area literacy courses (Fox, 1993; Hollingsworth & Teal, 1991; Wilson, et al., 1993). Classroom research and current theories of teachers' beliefs and practices show that although a rich array of vocabulary and comprehension strategies exists in our content area literacy courses, their actual application in classrooms may be minimized by other factors. Holt-Reynolds (1991, 1992) argued that preservice teachers' theories about good practice in a classroom are deeply rooted in personal history and resistant to change. They reverted largely to what they knew best the way they themselves had been taught (Darling-Hammond, 1999). Content reading professors must convince preservice teachers the value of content reading instruction and why content reading courses are required of them by state departments of education (Reinking et al., 1993; O'Brien & Stewart 1990; Stewart, 1990).

According to Herrmann, et al. (1993) traditional approaches to teacher preparation have had little impact on teachers' prior conceptions and beliefs. Because of this, teacher preparation needs to be viewed as a process of conceptual change with more emphasis

being placed on approaches designed to challenge teachers' prior conceptions and beliefs. Altering practice depends on changing attitudes, beliefs, values, habits, and assumptions associated with teacher cultures, which in turn depends on changing the ways in which teachers relate to one another (Herrmann et al., 1993). The National Reading Panel (2000) found that preservice teacher education programs appear to improve candidate teachers' knowledge about teaching and learning. Preservice teachers can learn what they are taught. It is reasonable to conclude that well-designed teacher education programs could have a positive effect on reading outcomes. Conventional wisdom among teacher educators is that pre-service teachers are easier to work with than practicing teachers. Although preservice teachers certainly hold prior beliefs about teaching and learning, these teacher educators think that the beliefs of practicing teachers are typically more entrenched. Many believe that practicing teachers, through their teaching experiences and classroom routines, have developed established ways of thinking about and implementing instructions that are often resistant to change (Rand, 2002).

Questions of what to look for and how exactly to use what we learn to build a bridge to reading are difficult, not easily answered by many teachers or even teacher educators (Hinchman & Lalik, 2000). The dilemma of how to enhance secondary preservice teachers' positive attitudes toward the importance of reading and also increase their knowledge about specific strategies to employ in content classrooms can be resolved by including content area instruction in many if not all courses in professional studies. If preservice teachers can see how effective reading strategies can be used in their own personal and professional reading, they can then see how these same strategies can be

useful to their future students.

In a critique of the university course infusion model used to inform teachers about promising content area literacy strategies, O'Brien and colleagues (1995) argued that this model ignores the culture and pedagogical content focus of secondary schools. They emphasized that classroom control and the efficient coverage of large amounts of content are valued behaviors in secondary teaching. Proposed content area literacy strategies and the university courses in which they are demonstrated create an idealized, decontextualized setting where small-group collaboration and creative application of strategies appears easier than it is.

Teacher induction programs are becoming widespread. Hargreaves and Fullan (2000) believe many of them will fall short of their potentials because of failure to realize they must be integrated with other developments in policy and practice that are required to transform the teaching profession. There is a growing body of resources on how to select, train, and support mentors, how to set goals and assess outcomes, and how to define and spread best practices in mentoring. Mentoring can be a means to a larger end creating a strong, improvement-oriented profession in schools, professional associations and teacher unions. Beginning teachers in my state go through a residency program where mentor teachers help acclimatize the new teacher to the every day business of the school. Choices of who are the mentor teachers are influenced by the teachers' union. There is no guarantee within the program that new teachers will have the best teacher/mentor possible or a teacher/mentor who will encourage them to try innovative teaching and learning techniques, including content area reading strategies. The chance that these teacher/mentors will be products of and believers in the status quo is highly

likely. This means teachers who adopt pedagogies not conforming to how things are currently done must carefully weigh the potential for negative sanctions for their actions and decide how defiant they will be. Teachers need to feel supported in their efforts and often give up or limit their attempts at change when support is not forthcoming.

Secondary teachers believe that literacy is important, but sometimes they forget that many students need assistance understanding text in all content areas. O'Brien, et al. (1995) felt the necessary modifications to secondary content literacy methods courses included: (a) teaching and learning should be recognized as socio-cultural enterprises rather than technical ones, (b) critical awareness among pre- and in-service teachers of how teachers and students are positioned within the complex of school life should be developed, (c) in-service teachers should also develop analytic skills that allow them to reflect on and analyze the complexities of curriculum, pedagogy, and culture and weigh the risks, and (d) pre- and in-service teachers should, during coursework, develop action plans that incorporate strategies instruction informed by critical awareness and careful analysis of the complexities of secondary-school curriculum, pedagogy, and culture. Developing awareness, analytic skills, and action plans can be accomplished in secondary content literacy methods courses by using a mixture of dialogue, writing, and field work. Some suggestions for specific methods include: autobiography, dialogue, readings, teaching cases, field experiences, and ethnographic writing.

Helping teachers become good strategy teachers will require a significant change in how teacher educators and staff developers work with teachers and what they count as important about learning to be a teacher. Current practices that require teachers to successfully complete university course work, to attend mandated half-day staff

development programs, or to be trained in the right way to teach and then be held accountable for that encourage teachers to learn only the labels of professional knowledge without learning how to be strategic themselves. Such practices must be replaced by teacher education and staff development experiences that account for the complexity involved in teaching students to be strategic and the creative adaptations teachers must make as they deal with that complexity (National Reading Panel, 2000).

Findings indicate that those teachers who are credited to be the most effective in the classroom are also those who are most anxious to improve their pedagogical skills. Teachers and administrators in the Lester study (2003) described experiences with a variety of professional development structures. While some secondary schools continue to engage in the traditional large group format for professional development with teachers that represent several content areas, most participating teachers related that they feel smaller study groups made up of teachers from one or two subject areas are the most productive. If large group formats are used, sessions are more meaningful when breakout sessions are scheduled. Time for collaboration to plan professional training to help teachers meet the needs of diverse students is recommended, opportunities to talk about effective classroom practice and how current practice relates to theory and classroom research empowers teachers to make confident choices in their instructional planning.

Students should be the focal point as instructional programs are planned, organized, and evaluated. The traditional means of aiding teachers to meet new demands is through staff development, but teachers' rights have been ignored as staff development programs are planned, organized, and evaluated. Searfoss and Maddox (1992) promote staff development programs that are planned sequentially and have short and long-term

goals. The instructional reading skills taught for use in content fields should be both practical and capable of being implemented. Teachers need to know their supervisors are interested in and care about what they are doing in the classroom and they need visible concrete evidence of administrative support for participation in staff development. If tasks are not well defined, teachers cannot establish their goals and objectives and implement a successful content reading program. Clearly defined expectations are a joint responsibility of the teachers and administration. Well-directed goals, objectives, instructional procedures, methods, and materials should be employed to achieve effective programming and evaluation should be used to determine strengths and weaknesses so that a plan of improvement can be implemented by the teachers and administration.

Issues considered to be essential for a successful professional development program can be categorized into five major topics: (a) A genuine desire to improve practice—professional development should be considered as something that involves self-reflection and growth over the span of a career. (b) A valued voice in the planning process should be assigned to teachers. (c) The recognition of accomplishments in the classroom—the demands of high stakes testing have brought about best practices that often become better with instructional guidance. As innovative teachers share their best practice ideas, colleagues also benefit professionally from their expertise. (d) The need for a structured professional development program with continuing dialogue including topics and procedures that are mutually agreed upon through collaboration among all involved and an established time and location for regular meetings and reflection and review of the goals and objectives as well as the effectiveness of the professional development process. And (e) accountability standards that are fair and realistic—

teachers report a greater commitment to professional development when their participation is affirmed and positive changes result. Established checkpoints are needed to ensure that objectives are being met (Fisher, 2001; Lester, 2003).

Carefully designed and implemented professional development opportunities that are supported by the school administrator can provide teachers with knowledge of reading and writing strategies. Teachers must be encouraged to actually apply their knowledge of these strategies, within their content area instruction. The commitment, guidance, and support of the school administrator is vitally important in insuring that instructional strategies will be utilized in content area instruction, and that the professional development of instructional personnel is both long-term and long lasting. Teachers can integrate reading and writing within the instruction of any content area at any grade level. To do so requires an opportunity and willingness to learn about specific strategies and then to apply them within content instruction. Professional development opportunities such as in-service sessions, review of professional reading materials such as texts and journals, and participation in university-offered courses can provide the means by which teachers and administrators can become more informed about reading and writing strategies. The application of strategies truly requires a willingness and professional optimism on the part of both teachers and school administrators that reading and writing strategies can enhance students' learning. If the intent and the attempt is made to integrate reading and writing strategies within content instruction, the result over time will be that students will learn the content associated with content area instruction and the skills or competencies that encourage independent learning (Misulis, 2001).

Professional development schools are collaborations between schools and

universities that have been created to support the learning of prospective and experienced teachers while simultaneously restructuring schools and schools of education (Darling-Hammond, 2000b; Darling-Hammond et al., 1995). These efforts hold great promise to transform teaching: redesigning initial teacher preparation, rethinking professional development, and involving teachers in research, collaborative inquiry, and standard-setting in professional goals through professional development schools. When prospective teachers take coursework and connect it to the world in which they will practice, they do so with veteran teachers and professors in the universities working together to create the best of professional teaching practice, creating partnerships with local schools that both develop well-prepared teachers and transform the possibilities in schools. These new programs typically engage prospective teachers in studying research and conducting their own inquiries through cases, action research, and structured reflections about practice (Darling-Hammond, 1996, 1998). They envision the professional teacher as one who learns from teaching rather than as one who has finished learning how to teach. A powerful form of teacher learning comes from belonging to professional communities that extend beyond classrooms and school buildings (Darling-Hammond & McLaughlin, 1995).These issues relate to the roles of all educational institutions in inventing an education at all levels that actually can enable the majority of students to learn in ways that society now demands (Darling-Hammond, 2000b).

Implications for Research

Broad-based conclusions about reading that emerge from the well-conducted, systematic study of important reading problems and processes include the following: (a)

There are concerns about inadequate reading skills at every age level. National tests document lower than desired levels of literacy throughout the elementary and secondary years. (b) There are psychologically sound or promising interventions for every age level. (c) We have come to understand that good reading is a specific instance of good problem solving. (d) Effective reading instruction is definitely long term. (e) Meaning construction is the emphasis in contemporary reading instruction. And (f) direct explanation, including modeling, of effective reading processes, which is then followed by scaffolded student attempts to use the processes, emerges as a sound method of teaching reading (Pressley & McCormick, 1995). Today questions exploring how and why teachers and students use literacy in and out of classrooms have become paramount. A fairly extensive body of work informs our current understanding of content area beliefs and practices at both preservice and in-service levels (Bean, 1997; Dillon et al., 1994; Fox, 1993; Hinchman & Moje, 1998; Hinchman & Zalewski, 1996; Langer, 2001a, 2001b, 2002; Lloyd, 1994; Moje, 1994; Sturtevant, 1992; Wilson et al., 1993).

Research and practice in content literacy should reciprocally inform one another, and the infusion of content area reading into the curriculum research and practice should be defined in terms of the contexts in which they are enacted in secondary schools. Rather than viewing the curriculum as a neutral body of knowledge to be more efficiently accessed via imported strategies, content literacy researchers should entertain the perspective that literacy, as it is enacted, is curriculum. This perspective on literacy as curriculum should be historically, socially, and politically situated. This requires a research agenda in which content literacy researchers collaborate with school-based colleagues to ascertain the forms of literacy the latter use. These forms, once identified,

should be evaluated against stakeholders'—including teachers, students, university-based researchers, administrators, and parents—goals and agendas to determine if they want to change their curriculum and practice (O'Brien, et al., 1995).

The goals and methods of secondary content literacy teaching and research are paradoxical. Secondary content literacy has adapted to the institutional organization and philosophical assumptions that back secondary schools, and researchers and educators have developed and validated learning strategies that support traditional positivist and technical goals of schooling. The implications of this research are for teacher training and staff development. Researchers such as Darling-Hammond (1999, 2000a, 2000b) are working in both areas to better equip teachers for the classroom. Research into what is happening into classrooms will provide better information on what these programs should include to better prepare teachers.

Teacher Expertise and Knowledge of Content Area Reading. One of the intriguing aspects of the post-elementary comprehension data is that a good deal of effort has been made to establish which procedures facilitate comprehension and memory of text, but that relatively little effort has been put into determining how to teach comprehension strategies. There are no theoretical or empirical analyses that correspond to the analyses of reciprocal teaching, direct explanation, and transactional strategies instruction in the elementary literature. The most frequent method of instruction used in the secondary and college years is to teach a large number of strategies in a relatively short period of time, such as in the context of a studies skills course. There are few evaluations of such courses. The ones that do exist suggest small to inconsistent effects. Unfortunately, most of the attempted validations of courses contain methodological

problems serious enough to undermine confidence in the conclusions emerging from the studies (Pressley & McCormick, 1995).

Literacy can involve more than doing something with print, it can include making meaning through visual or oral representations, such as drawing, performing, or dancing. Literacy practices may revolve around electronic media. An expanded definition of literacy does not require that the teaching of print literacy be discarded, but we need to change pedagogical and research approaches to embrace these multiple literacy. This move beyond print literacies not only is called for by the changing world in which we live, but may help secondary school teachers think about literacy and learning in alternative ways. Mathematics, music, dance, physical education, physics, and art majors find a shift from print literacy to multiliteracies quite compelling. When students see their content area specialties as ways of making meaning that can be read and written they begin to think about the disciplines and tools students need to make sense of disciplinary knowledge, such as content area reading (Hinchman & Moje, 1998). Research in implementing these literacies is an emerging area of research.

Teacher and Student Beliefs. Teachers' beliefs regarding teaching and learning are considered critical components supporting the planning and implementation stages of instruction (Konopak et al., 1994). By examining these beliefs, researchers can address their influence on, and how they are influenced by, classroom events. The traditional preservice approach does nothing to enhance the attitudes of the students. Research indicates that the learning of reading strategies in college courses is not generally transferred to actual classroom practice and secondary students in content literacy courses need to have their beliefs about the teaching of reading reinforced through a strong

motivational approach (Nourie & Lenski, 1998).

Teacher Education and Training. Issues that the community of reading researchers most urgently needs to address over the next ten to fifteen years include teacher research, professors researching their instruction and their programs, and teachers researching their practices and curriculum is important. Given the enormous educational importance of promoting reading comprehension and learning among elementary and secondary students, we need to organize what we know about these topics, define what we need to know, and pursue the research that will be most important for improving teacher preparation, classroom instruction, and student achievement (Snow, Sweet, Alvermann, Kamil, & Strickland, 2002). Recommendations for countering resistance are offered to content reading professionals and preservice and in-service teachers who are interested in more fully using reading as a learning tool while maintaining the integrity of their instruction. Many of the limitations of content area reading instruction in which teachers are offered cognitively-based routines or strategies proposed by university-based researchers are developed with little knowledge of the day-to-day complexities of the classrooms in which the strategies are to be employed. For teachers to insert reading and more text-based instruction into their classrooms, significant changes would have to be made in the way they view the curriculum and instruction. There is no guarantee, however, that such changes would improve their instruction or their students' learning (O'Brien & Stewart, 1992).

Concluding Remarks

Where does literacy fit into content instruction in high school classrooms? A

review of the research reveals inconsistencies in the degree that literacy instruction is implemented. Attitudes about the role of literacy in secondary education vary within the practice of content area instruction. For many secondary teachers at various stages in their teaching careers, literacy instruction is of low priority, is misunderstood, is not necessary, or is an addition to an already full workload. The studies noted here indicate the need for teachers to become aware of their own attitudes and understandings about literacy instruction and where it fits into their teaching. A consensus among teacher educators for a clearer explanation of the role of literacy instruction in learning content material at the secondary level is needed as well.

Policymakers and educators acknowledge the importance of adolescent literacy, but provide few initiatives and services to support its development across all subjects. Few middle and high schools offer comprehensive programs beyond the seventh or eighth grade. By the time adolescents reach high school little, if any, direct instruction is available to students other than those who need remedial services, if that is even available. The burden of teaching literacy usually falls on the shoulders of English and language arts teachers in middle and high schools. Literacy instruction for the adolescent learner should be an integral component of a comprehensive curriculum and should emphasize the continuous development of reading, writing, and critical thinking in all subjects. Schools should provide classroom teachers with reading specialist services, including resource support, current research, and staff development through self-study, teacher inquiry projects, and action research. Without a middle or high school's long-term commitment to professional development and organizational change, it is very difficult for teachers to sustain the use of content area literacy practices in their

instructional repertoire. This study is a small part of the larger body of research that is currently under way in the area of content reading instruction. The researcher hopes in a small way what she has learned and shared about what types of reading and writing activities occur in two high school English classrooms and what influences the types of and degree of reading and writing that occur in these two high school English classes will add to the knowledge base.

The International Reading Association (IRA) prepared a position statement on adolescent literacy in 1999 (Moore, Bean, Birdyshaw, & Rycik). Highlights of their recommendations include: (a) access to a wide variety of reading material that adolescents can and want to read, (b) instruction for adolescents that builds both the skill and desire to read increasingly complex materials, (c) expert teachers who model and provide explicit instruction in reading comprehension and study strategies across the curriculum, and (d) teachers who understand the complexities of individual adolescent readers, respect their differences, and respond to their characteristics. Students have the right to be the focal point as instructional programs are planned, organized and evaluated. They have the right to a comprehensive content area program that has been professionally planned, organized, and implemented and that views reading as an educational tool. Since the traditional means of aiding teachers to meet new demands is through staff development, teachers have the right to be participants in a staff development program that is planned, sequential, and has both short- and long-term goals. These staff development programs should be both practical and capable of being implemented and teachers should be taught how to employ instructional reading skills for use in their specific content areas.

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APPENDIXES

APPENDIX A

TEACHER INTERVIEW QUESTIONS

Introduction: The purpose of this study is to build portraits of English classes and English teachers. I will be asking questions about your beliefs and experiences in teaching. You do not have to answer any question that you do not wish to. None of the questions are meant to be evaluative, but are meant to gain an understanding of your perspective as a teacher. I may neglect to ask about things you believe are important in the classroom situation. Please, feel free to tell me about these things, because you know your classroom best and can provide me with valuable insights.

1. How long have you been teaching? Have you always taught English? How long have you been teaching at this school?

2. Could you tell me something about your background? What made you decide to become a teacher?

3. Were there any particular teachers you had in school that were role models for you? Was there anything from their teaching methods that attracted you or things that you did not like?

4. When and where did you student teach? Do you think your teaching style and methods today reflect your cooperating teachers' methods?

5. Have you been particularly influenced by any of the education courses you have had? Were any professors particularly influential?

6. Has your teaching been particularly influenced by any in-service workshops or professional meetings that the district provides? Have there been any good professional development programs recently?

7. Has your teaching been particularly influenced by your current or past colleagues or administrators?

Now we will look specifically at the English curriculum and your class.

8. In your view, what are the major purposes of English education? Did anything in particular influence you into these thoughts or did these grow over your years teaching? Did any teachers, college professors, articles, or colleagues influence your opinions about this?

9. What are the most important things you would like your students to learn in English this year? Do you think your colleagues and administrators share this view? How do the students feel about this view?

10. What do you think is the best way for students to learn English? Do you do this in your classroom? How do the students respond?

11. To what degree or in what way is your instruction controlled by curriculum mandates from the school or district? PASS Objectives? Do you think that all English teachers in the school feel bound by the curriculum in the same way as you do?

12. During the years you have taught, has the mandated curriculum changed?

13. In what ways do the English teachers in your school work together to plan instruction? If a student transferred from one class section to another would they find differences in instruction?

14. To be successful in your class, what would a student have to do?

15. In what ways do you include reading in your instruction? PASS Objectives? Do you find that your students have difficulty with the reading assignments? When you find that a great deal of students are having difficulty how do you adjust to that?

16. In what ways do you include writing in your instruction? PASS Objectives? Do you find that your students have difficulty with the writing assignments you give? When you find that a great deal of students are having difficulty how do you adjust to that?

17. What type of home assignments do you give? Do students usually complete the homework?

18. Do you have a textbook? Do you have a grammar text? Do you have a literature anthology? How do you use these books? Do you use other printed materials? Are adequate materials available to you? Is there anything you would change?

19. Do you have students here who might be partly mainstreamed and partly full-time in special education or are they one or the other?

20. How do you feel about English instruction that includes small group work, simulation games, cooperative learning or other similar activities? Have you tried any of these things? Do teachers in your school often use these types of activities? What would you advise a beginning teacher about using these various methods?

21. How would you characterize your instructional style? Do you do any formal lecturing?

22. Do you see any problems or on the other side advantages for English teachers who decide to increase the emphasis on reading and reading improvement with the students in their classroom?

23. Have you ever taken a course or attended a workshop in content area reading or writing? Have you been able to use any of the ideas suggested there? In what ways are these activities useful?

24. In your department do teachers frequently try new types or methods of instruction? Can you describe any ways teachers help or discourage each other from trying new things?

25. Your principal has described you as a successful teacher. What are the most important things a teacher must do to be considered successful in this school?

26. Could you explain your plans for the remainder of the course?

APPENDIX B

STUDENT INTERVIEW QUESTIONS

Introduction: The purpose of this study is to build portraits of English classes and English teachers. I will be asking questions about your beliefs and experiences in teaching. You do not have to answer any question that you do not wish to. None of the questions are meant to be evaluative, but are meant to gain an understanding of your perspective as a student. I may neglect to ask about things you believe are important in the classroom situation. Please, feel free to tell me about these things, because you know your classroom best and can provide me with valuable insights. You are free to refuse to answer any or all questions that I might ask you.

1. What grade are you in?

2. How long have you attended this school?

3. What do you have to do to be successful in this English class?

4. What kinds of things do you usually do in this English class?

5. What types of homework do you have?

6. Do you have any difficulty completing your homework?

7. How much time does your homework usually take?

8. What kinds of reading does your teacher ask you to do? Do you find the reading difficult, easy, average, or difficult?

9. Why do you think your teacher asks you to do the reading assignments they give?

10. Do you go over your reading assignments in class?

11. What types of writing do you do for this class?

12. Do you find the writing easy, average, or difficult?

13. Why do you think your teacher gives you these writing assignments?

14. Do you usually complete all of your assignments for this class?

15. What is the best way to study for a test in this class?

16. Why do you think high school students are required to take four years of English?

17. What do you think is the best way to learn about English?

18. Do you think reading and writing can help you learn English?

19. What do you think is the best way for a high school student to become a better reader and writer?

20. If you could teach English in this school, how would you teach?

APPENDIX C

DEPARTMENT CHAIRPERSON'S INTERVIEW QUESTIONS

Introduction: The purpose of this study is to build portraits of English classes and English teachers. I will be asking questions about your beliefs and experiences about English. You do not have to answer any question that you do not wish to. None of the questions are meant to be evaluative, but are meant to gain an understanding of your perspective. I may neglect to ask about things you believe are important in the classroom situation. Please, feel free to tell me about these things, because you know your school best and can provide me with valuable insights.

1. What is the role of the English department chairperson in this school?

2. In the time that you have been in this school, how has English instruction changed?

3. In what way do you think district or school administrators and supervisors require or encourage teachers to teach a certain way?

4. What do you think should be the role of reading and writing in English? Why?

5. In what ways are the English teachers encouraged to include reading in their instruction?

6. Do you foresee any future changes in the way English is taught in your school in the future?

7. In what ways do the teachers in your department work together or share ideas?

APPENDIX D

PRINCIPAL'S INTERVIEW QUESTIONS

Introduction: The purpose of this study is to build portraits of English classes and English teachers. I will be asking questions about your beliefs and experiences about reading and writing in the English classroom. You do not have to answer any question that you do not wish to. None of the questions are meant to be evaluative, but are meant to gain an understanding of your perspective as principal. I may neglect to ask about things you believe are important in the classroom situation. Please, feel free to tell me about these things, because you know your school best and can provide me with valuable insights.

1. Has any staff development in your school had a focus on reading and writing?

2. What types of things did it involve?

3. How do the PASS Objectives and District Standards and Benchmarks affect English courses and teachers?

4. What was the source of the District Standards and Benchmarks?

5. Has it been difficult for you to implement the _____ Model when it is still so strongly oriented to the elementary level?

6. Will principals have input into the _____ Model?

APPENDIX E

CURRICULUM SUPERVISOR'S INTERVIEW QUESTIONS

Introduction: The purpose of this study is to build portraits of English classes and teachers. I will be asking questions about your beliefs and experiences about reading and writing in the English classroom. You do not have to answer any question that you do not wish to. None of the questions are meant to be evaluative, but are meant to gain an understanding of your perspective as an administrator. I may neglect to ask about things you believe are important in the classroom situation. Please, feel free to tell me about these things. You know your district best and can provide me with valuable insights.

1. What is your position in this district?

2. To what degree do you perceive that state curriculum mandates affect curriculum development and instruction in this district?

3. The Pacing Calendars go through tenth grade. When is the expectation for them to progress beyond that?

4. To what degree does the district mandate the English curriculum?

5. Could you describe how the textbooks are selected in this district?

6. Are all the schools same using the same books from the most recent adoption or do they have choice?

7. What would be the best way to include reading and writing in the high school English program?

8. In what ways are teachers supported in their efforts to include reading strategies in their instruction?

9. Has the _____ Reads program expanded to include more of the high school teachers or is funding a problem right now?

10. Do you perceive any constraints that would serve as barriers to teachers who wish to make instructional changes to improve learning and literacy in their classrooms?

11. What was the initial response do you think high schools had to the _____ Reads coming to them?

12. What is the most important thing high school teachers must do to be considered successful in this district?

13. In your view, what are the most important issues that must be addressed by education in your district?

14. Beyond the PASS Objectives and the Standards and Benchmarks are there any other district reading curriculums at the secondary level?

15. What are the best and worst parts of your job as a secondary school improvement leader?

APPENDIX F

SAMPLE: TRANSCRIBED INTERVIEW

Sample Transcript from Principal's Interview

Mrs. C: ...The first thing I am interested in: Has staff development here had anything with a focus on reading and writing?

Principal: No, we have not done a professional development activity that focuses on reading and writing.

Mrs. C: OK, and...

Principal: Let me back that up, not in the past couple of years. I need to modify that because a couple of years ago we did do some professional development on reading; not on writing, but on reading.

Mrs. C: OK. What types of things did that involve?

Principal: It was, um, it was basically focusing on how people read, how some read and different rate or level, and what some see when they read and what others see or what they don't see. Things of that nature.

Mrs. C: All right. Now the State Learning Objectives I know have been around for awhile and teachers are supposed to be working with those because that's what the state tests on and the criterion referenced, but now there are the new standards and benchmarks as well. Now, where do these arise from?

Principal: That's a good question. It's almost like a self-inflicted wound. That is something that the district developed. In terms of the standards and the benchmarks and they're supposed to be tied to the State Objectives as well. So it's pretty much an in-house thing.

Mrs. C: OK, and did the school district provide all the teachers with these or are they being developed within each individual school then?

Principal: No, the district provided them.

Mrs. C: And each teacher got a copy of them?

Principal: Yes.

APPENDIX G

SAMPLE: TRANSCRIBED FIELDNOTES

Board: Bring books back; 6 vocabulary words; Lesson Plan—Mon. vocabulary, Tues,-Fri. Short Story; Learning Goal—To participate, identify, and analyze narrative technique

There is a new desk arrangement with the desks in a U-shape around the center of the room and the two tables angled at the back corner. The new arrangement broke up the conversational group a bit.

One student entered the room telling about a book they were supposed to be reading. He commented that it was about some dude, grandpa, going to marry Miss Love. There were no responses from others about the story or if they had read any of it.

At 7:55 when the bell rang, the class was quieter than usual. The teacher began the class by asking by now and Jan. 23 what homework does the class have. She called on students by name. They have a book to read, *Cold Sassy Tree*, a 2/3 page essay, and to bring back all checked out books.

The teacher then went over the vocabulary on the board and began introducing the story. She was interrupted by a teacher entering and they spent several minutes discussing a book order.

At 8:02 the teacher passed out the literature anthology. At 8:05 she switched to describing how they'll do their presentations of their research papers and passed out a sign-up sheet. She then went back to discussing characters in the short story.

The teacher then asked, "Why did Polonius not want Ophelia to marry Hamlet?" One student immediately questioned what this had to do with today's story. After she received the answer she then asked "What about Romeo and Juliet?" She then asked what other reasons are there? Students answered, race and bad judgment of youth, and the teacher answered arranged marriages. The teacher then asked "What do you think *Marriage is a Private Affair* will be about based on the title?" A student answered that it is no one else's business. The teacher then told the students to think about the title when they get to the end of the story.

Three students were asked to read. The first male refused. A male and female were to take turns reading the first 5 paragraphs because they were mostly dialogue. The male hesitated at his second paragraph and commented there were no quotation marks; he had obviously interpreted this as if he was reading a play rather than narrative as the first paragraphs seemed to indicate. Reading the first 5 paragraphs this way was suggested at the top of the story in all books.

8:10 a.m. Students will read the rest of the story silently. Most students began reading immediately. Several were talking quietly. I finished reading at 8:21. At 8:22 I noticed two students were finished. Students had a set of questions to answer when their reading was completed. At 8:30 a few students were talking. Five or 6 were still reading.

8:40 a.m. Students answering questions and a few more chatting.
8:10 a.m. Students will read the rest of the story silently. Most students began reading immediately. Several were talking quietly. I finished reading at 8:21. At 8:22 I noticed two students were finished. Students had a set of questions to answer when their reading was completed. At 8:30 a few students were talking. 5 or 6 were still reading.

8:40 a.m. Students answering questions and a few more chatting.

8:47 a.m. I received the lesson plan from the teacher. She told me she had changed her lesson plans to do a play next week instead of this week, so students could more easily do little make-up projects while working on the short stories.

9:05 a.m. Only 2 or 3 students working on the questions. Teacher is collecting the papers.

9:12 a.m. It is getting loud in certain parts of the room. One student has crossed the room to talk to a friend. She talks about a recording artist from the past. When no one has heard of them, but I am watching and listening, she asks me if I know this artist. I did and she uses that to prove the artist existed. The students have no assignment from the time they finish to the bell at 9:25 a.m.

APPENDIX H

SAMPLE LESSON PLAN 1

	Assignments/Activities		Learning Goals	Teacher's Notes
S/B: MON Dec 8	*je #42* 1.1-2.1-3.1-3.2 Spelling List #13 View video tape "Where in the world did Odysseus go?" Synopsis of the Illiad... How did Odysseus get to his journey.		Students will practice editing and writing skills. Students will have a concept of the travels of Odysseus. Students will have an idea of how the tale of Odysseus evolved and what it has added to our language and culture.	What would you do if you were in line at the movies and someone cut in front of you?
S/B:	I.3.1c-I.3.5-I.3.2	CG	**personal best**	
S/B: TUE Dec 9	*je #43* 1.1-2.1-3.1-3.2 Read the Odyssey p. 890-947		Students will practice editing and writing skills. Students will read and interpret Homer. Students will analyze and read aloud The Odyssey. Students will learn of some of the mythological creatures and figures.	What would you do if you dropped your lunch sandwich on the floor?
S/B:	I.3.1c-I.3.5-I.3.2	CG	**trustworthiness**	
S/B: WED Dec 10	*je #44* 1.1-2.1-3.1-3.2 Previous reading of the Odyssey Quiz Read the Odyssey p. 890-947		Students will practice editing and writing skills. Students will read and interpret Homer. Students will analyze and read aloud The Odyssey. Students will learn of some of the mythological creatures and figures.	What would you do if there was only one hot dog lift and neither you nor your friend had eaten?
S/B:	I.3.1c-I.3.5-I.3.2-II.3.3-II.2.3-III.1.1	CG	**mutual respect**	
S/B: THUR Dec 11	*je #45* 1.1-2.1-3.1-3.2 2nd block 7:55-11:00 4th block 11:05-2:40 Watch Jason and the Argonauts		Students will practice editing and writing skills. Students will practice new sentence strategies. Students will understand the dos and don'ts of writing persuasive essays.	What would you do if two of your best friends went to the movies without inviting you?
S/B:	I.3.1c-I.3.5-I.3.2-II.3.3-II.2.3-III.1.1	CG	**mutual respect**	
S/B: FRI Dec 12	*je #46* 1.1-2.1-3.1-3.2 Spelling List #13 Test 1st block 7:55-11:00 Watch Jason and the Argonauts		Students will practice editing and writing skills. Students will practice new sentence strategies. Students will understand the dos and don'ts of writing persuasive essays.	What would you do if a friend threw a surprise party for you, but you you weren't surprised?
S/B:	I.3.1c-I.3.5-I.3.2-II.3.3-II.2.3-III.1.1	CG	**personal best/mutual respect**	
	Standards and benchmarks	CG	**community guidelines**	

APPENDIX I

Sample Lesson Plan 2

Lesson Plans December 15 - 19

Monday

1st/ 3rd Hours	4th Hour
Learning Objective: to recognize dramatic plot *Standards/Benchmarks*: 5.2, 5.3, 5.4 *Life Skills:* Personal Best	No class: testing
Activity: Read Act IV, *Hamlet*	

Tuesday

1st/3rd Hours	4th Hour
Learning Objective: to recognize dramatic plot	to recognize characterization
Standards/Benchmarks: 5.2, 5.3, 5.4	5.2, 5.3
Life Skills: Attentive listening	Attentive listening
Activity: Read Act V, *Hamlet*	*Lord of the Flies,* Chapter 10

Wednesday

1st/3rd Hours	4th hour
Learning Objective: analysis, synthesis	plot structure
Standards/Benchmarks: 5.2., 5.3, 5.4	5.1, 5.2, 5.3, 5.4
Life Skills: Personal Best	Attentive listening
Activity: Test: *Hamlet*	Read chapter 11, *Lord of the Flies*

Thursday

1st/3rd Hours	4th Hour
Learning Objective: Compare dramatic presentations	plot structure/allegory
Standards and benchmarks:	5.1, 5.2, 5.3, 5.4
Life Skills: Attentive listening	Attentive listening
Activity: Video of *Hamlet*	Read chapter 12, *Lord of the Flies*

Friday

1st/3rd Hours	4th Hour
Learning objective: Compare dramatic presentations	Assessment
Standards/Benchmarks: 5.2, 5.3, 5.4	5.2
Life Skills: Attentive listening	Personal Best
Activity: *Hamlet* video	*Lord of the Flies* test

APPENDIX J

STATE LEARNING OBJECTIVES
LANGUAGE ARTS
Grade 9

Reading/Literature: The student will apply a wide range of strategies to comprehend, interpret, evaluate, appreciate, and respond to a variety of texts.

Apply knowledge of word origins (words from other languages, history, or literature) to determine the meaning of new words encountered in reading and use of those words accurately.

Standard 1: Vocabulary - The student will expand vocabulary through word study, literature, and class discussion.

1. Apply a knowledge of Greek (e.g., tele/phone. micro/phone), Latin (e.g., flex/ible), and Anglo-Saxon (e.g., un/friend/ly) roots, prefixes, and suffixes to determine word meanings.
2. Use word meanings within the appropriate context and verify those meanings by definition, restatement, example, and analogy.
3. Expand vocabulary through wide reading, listening, and discussing.
4. Use reference material such as glossary, dictionary, thesaurus, and available technology to determine precise meaning and usage.
5. Identify the relation of word meanings in analogies, homonyms, synonyms/antonyms, and connotations and denotations.

Standard 2: Comprehension: The student will interact with the words to construct an appropriate meaning.

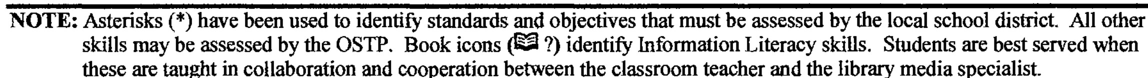
Read and understand grade-level-appropriate material. Analyze the organizational patterns and evaluate author's argument and positions. At Grade 9, in addition to regular classroom reading, read a wide variety of classic and contemporary literature, poetry, magazines, newspapers, reference materials, and online information.

1. Literal Understanding
   a. Examine the structures and format of functional workplace documents, including graphics and headers, and explain how authors use the features to achieve their purpose.
   b. Draw upon own background to provide connections to text.
   c. Monitor reading strategies and modify them when understanding breaks down such as rereading, using resources, and questioning.
   d. Recognize text structures such as compare and contrast, cause and effect, and chronological ordering.
   e. Use study strategies such as skimming and scanning, note taking, outlining, and using study-guide questions to better understand texts.
2. Inferences and Interpretation
   a. Analyze characteristics of text, including its structure, word choice, and intended audience.
   b. Draw inferences such as conclusions, generalizations, and predictions, and support them with text evidence and personal experience.
   c. Recognize influences on a reader's response to a text (e.g., personal experience and values; perspective shapes by age, gender, class, or nationality).
3. Summary and Generalization
   a. Identify the main idea and supporting details by producing summaries of text.
   b. Use text features and elements to support inferences and generalizations about information.
   c. Summarize and paraphrase complex, implicit hierarchic structures in informational texts, including relationships among concepts and details in those structures.
4. Analysis and Evaluation
   a. Discriminate between fact and opinion and fiction and nonfiction.
   b. Recognize deceptive and/or faulty arguments in persuasive texts.
   c. Analyze the structure and format of informational and literary documents and explain how authors use the features to achieve their purposes.
   d. Identify techniques (e.g., language, organization, tone, context) used to convey point of view or impressions.

Standard 3: Literature - The student will read, construct meaning, and respond to a wide variety of literary forms.

Read and respond to grade-level-appropriate historically or culturally significant works of literature that enhance a study of history and social science. Conduct in-depth analysis of the themes of these works.

1. Literary Genres - Demonstrate a knowledge of and an appreciation for various forms of literature.
   a. Analyze the characteristics of genres including short story, novel, drama, poetry, and essay.
   b. Analyze the characteristics of subgenres including tragedy, sonnet, epic, lyric, and narrative poetry.



NOTE: Asterisks (*) have been used to identify standards and objectives that must be assessed by the local school district. All other skills may be assessed by the OSTP. Book icons (?) identify Information Literacy skills. Students are best served when these are taught in collaboration and cooperation between the classroom teacher and the library media specialist.

2. Literary Elements – Demonstrate knowledge of literary elements and techniques and show how they affect the development of a literary work.
   a. Recognize the theme (general observation about life or human nature) within a text.
   b. Explain how author's voice and/or choice of a narrator affect the characterization and the point of view, tone, plot, mood and credibility of a text.
   c. Recognize and understand the significance of various literary devices, including figurative language, imagery, allegory (the use of fictional figures and actions to express truths about human experiences), and symbolism (the use of a symbol to represent an idea or theme), and explain their appeal.
   d. Analyze interactions between characters in a literary text and explain the way those interactions affect the plot in narrative text.
   e. Analyze characters and identify author's point of view.
   f. Identify literary forms and terms such as author, drama, biography, autobiography, myth, tall tale, dialogue, tragedy and comedy, structure in poetry, epic, ballad, protagonist, antagonist, paradox, analogy, dialect, and comic relief as appropriate to the selections being read.
3. Figurative Language and Sound Devices - Identify figurative language and sound devices and analyze how they affect the development of a literary work.
   a. Identify and explain figurative language including metaphor, personification, and simile.
   b. Identify and explain sound devices including alliteration, onomatopoeia, and rhyme.
   c. Identify the melodies of literary language, including its use of evocative words, rhythms and rhymes.
   d. Recognize and interpret poetic elements such as metaphor, simile, personification, and the effect of sound on meaning.
4. Literary Works - The student will read and respond to historically and culturally significant works of literature.
   a. Analyze and evaluate works of literature and the historical context in which they were written.
   b. Analyze and evaluate literature from various cultures to broaden cultural awareness.
5. Compare works that express the recurrence of archetypal (universal modes or patterns) characters, settings, and themes in literature and provide evidence to support the ideas expressed in each work.

Standard 4: Research and Information: The student will conduct research and organize information.

1. Accessing Information - Select the best source for a given purpose.
   a. Access information from a variety of primary and secondary sources.
   b. Skim text for an overall impression and scan text for particular information.
   c. Use organizational strategies as an aid to comprehend increasingly difficult content material (e.g., compare/contrast, cause/effect, problem/solution, sequential order).
2. Interpreting Information - The student will analyze and evaluate information from a variety of sources.
   a. Summarize, paraphrase, and/or quote relevant information.
   b. Determine the author's viewpoint to evaluate source credibility and reliability.
   c. Organize and convert information into different forms such as charts, graphs and drawings to create multiple formats to interpret information for multiple audiences and purposes, and cite sources completely.
   d. Identify complexities and inconsistencies in the information and the different perspectives found in each medium, including almanacs, microfiche news sources, in-depth field studies, speeches, journals, technical documents, or Internet sources.
   e. Draw conclusions from information gathered.

Writing/Grammar/Usage and Mechanics: The student will express ideas effectively in written modes for a variety of purposes and audiences.

Discuss ideas for writing with other writers. Write coherent and focused essays that show a well-defined point of view and tightly reasoned argument. Use the stages of the writing process (prewriting, writing, revising, and editing).

Standard 1: Writing Process - The student will use the writing process to write coherently.

1. Use a writing process to develop and refine composition skills. Students are expected to:
   a. use prewriting strategies to generate ideas such as brainstorming, using graphic organizers, keeping notes and logs.
   b. develop multiple drafts both alone and collaboratively to categorize ideas, organizing them into paragraphs, and blending paragraphs into larger text.
   c. organize and reorganize drafts and refine style to suit occasion, audience, and purpose.
   d. proofread writing for appropriateness of organization, content and style.
   e. edit for specific purposes to ensure standard usage, varied sentence structure, appropriate word choice, mechanics and spelling.
   f. refine selected pieces frequently to publish for general and specific audiences.
2. Use extension and elaboration to develop an idea.
3. Demonstrate organization, unity, and coherence by using transitions and sequencing.
4. Use precise word choices, including figurative language, that convey specific meaning and tone.
5. Use a variety of sentence structures, types, and lengths to contribute to fluency and interest.
6. Evaluate own writing and others' writing (e.g., determine the best features of a piece of writing, determine how own writing achieves its purpose, ask for feedback, respond to classmates' writing).

Standard 2: Modes and Forms of Writing - The student will write for a variety of purposes and audiences using narrative, descriptive, expository, persuasive, and reflective modes.

At Grade 9, combine the rhetorical strategies of narration, exposition, persuasion, reflection, and description to produce text of at least 500 to 750 words. Begin writing documents related to career development. Demonstrate a command of Standard English and the research, organization, and drafting strategies outlined in the writing process. Writing demonstrates an awareness of the audience (intended reader) and purpose for writing.

1. Write biographical or autobiographical narratives or short stories that:
   a. identify a real person, living or not, who has had a special influence on other people.
   b. provide a sequence of factual events and communicate the significance of the events to the person.
   c. isolates specific scenes and incidents in time and places significant to defining the person's influence.
   d. uses anecdotes or describe with specific details the sight, sounds, and smells of a scene and the specific actions, movements, gestures, and feelings of the person; use interior monologue (what characters say silently to self) to show the person's qualities and beliefs.
   e. Present action segments to accommodate changes in time and mood.
      Example: Write an autobiographical account of a time when an important decision has to be made. Write a humorous story for elementary children and give the story a local setting.
2. Write expository compositions, including analytical essays and research reports that:
   a. include evidence in support of a thesis (position on the topic) including information on all relevant perspectives.
   b. communicates information and ideas from primary and secondary sources accurately and coherently.
   c. shows distinctions between the relative value and significance of specific dates, facts, and ideas.
   d. includes a variety of reference sources, including word, pictorial, audio, and Internet sources, to locate information in support of topic.
   e. includes visual aids by using technology to organize and record information on charts, data tables, maps, and graphs.
   f. identifies and address reader's potential misunderstanding, biases, and expectations. g. uses technical terms and notations accurately.
      Example: Write a research report about inventions that were first mentioned in science fiction novels or movies and later became a scientific reality.
3. Write persuasive compositions that:
   a. organize ideas and appeal in a sustained and effective fashion with the strongest emotion first and the least powerful last.
   b. use specific rhetorical (communication) devices to support assertions, such as appealing to logic through reasoning; appealing to emotion or ethical beliefs; or relating to a personal anecdote, case study, or analogy.
   c. clarify and defend positions with precise and relevant evidence, including facts, expert opinions, quotations, expressions of commonly accepted beliefs, and logical reasoning.
   d. address reader's concerns, counterclaims, biases, and expectations.
      Example: Write a letter to the principal or the president of the school board to persuade that person to support your views on some educational policy that has been adopted by the local district, such as a dress code, a change to or from block scheduling, or a decision about grade requirements to participate in extracurricular activities.
4. Write documents related to career development, including simple business letters and job applications that:
   a. present information purposefully and in brief to meet the need of the intended audience.
   b. follow a conventional business letter or memorandum format.
      Example: Write a letter requesting an informational interview with a person in a career area that interests you. Complete a job application form for a part-time job and attach a memorandum outlining the particular skills you have that fit the needs of the position.
5. Write reflective papers that may address one of the following purposes:
   a. express the individual's insight into conditions or situations.
   b. compare a scene from a work of fiction with a lesson learned from experience.
   c. complete a self-evaluation on a class performance.
      Example: Write a reflective paper that discusses reasons for selections used in a portfolio of works that documents skills learned in different subjects.
6. Use appropriate essay test-taking and time-writing strategies that:
   a. address and analyze the question (prompt).
   b. use organizational methods required by the prompt.
7. Write responses to literature that:
   a. demonstrate a comprehensive grasp of the significant ideas of literary works.
   b. support important ideas and viewpoints through accurate and detailed reference to the text or to other works.
   c. demonstrate awareness of author's style and an appreciation of the effects created.
   d. identify and assess the impact of ambiguities, nuances, and complexities within the text.
      Example: Write a description of a character in a novel from the viewpoint of another character. Write a comparison of different characters in the book, explaining how they are alike and different and how each serves to move the plot of the novel forward.
8. Write for different purposes, to a specific audience/person, adjusting tone and style as needed to make writing interesting.
      Example: Write stories and reports showing a variety of word choices, or review a favorite book or film.
9. Write friendly letters and business letters, and continue to produce other writing forms introduced in earlier grades.
10. Write documented papers incorporating the techniques of Modern Language Association (MLA) or similar parenthetical styles.

Standard 3: Grammar/Usage and Mechanics - The student will demonstrate appropriate practices in writing by applying grammatical knowledge to the revising and editing stages of writing.

1. Standard English Usage - Demonstrate correct use of Standard English in speaking and writing.
   a. Distinguish commonly confused words (e.g., there, their, they're; two, too, to; accept, except; affect, effect).
   b. Use correct verb forms and tenses.
   c. Use correct subject-verb agreement.
   d. Use active and passive voice.
   e. Correct pronoun/antecedent agreement and clear pronoun reference.
   f. Use correct forms of comparative and superlative adjectives.
2. Mechanics and Spelling - Demonstrate appropriate language mechanics in writing.
   a. Demonstrate correct use of capitals.
   b. Use correct formation of plurals.
   c. Demonstrate correct use of punctuation and recognize its effect on sentence structure.
   d. Distinguish correct spelling of commonly misspelled words and homonyms.
3. Sentence Structure - Demonstrate appropriate sentence structure in writing.
   a. Use parallel structure.
   b. Correct dangling and misplaced modifiers.
   c. Correct run-on sentences.
   d. Correct fragments.

Oral Language/Listening and Speaking - The student will demonstrate thinking skills in listening and speaking.

Formulate thoughtful judgment about oral communication. Deliver focused and coherent presentations that convey clear and distinct perspectives and solid reasoning. Deliver polished formal and extemporaneous presentations that combine the traditional speech strategies of narration, exposition, persuasion, and description. Use gestures, tone, and vocabulary appropriate to the audience and purpose. Use the same Standard English conventions for oral speech that are used in writing.

Standard 1: Listening - The student will listen for information and for pleasure.

1. Focus attention on the speaker's message.
2. Use knowledge of language and develop vocabulary to accurately interpret the speaker's message.
3. Listen and respond appropriately to presentations and performances of peers or published works such as original essays or narratives, interpretations of poetry, and individual or group performances.
4. Monitor speaker's message and clarity and understanding to formulate and provide effective verbal and nonverbal feedback.
5. Use feedback to evaluate own effectiveness and set goals for future presentations.

Standard 2: Speaking – The student will express ideas and opinions in group or individual situations.

1. Use formal, informal, standard, and technical language effectively to meet the needs of purpose, audience, occasion, and task.
2. Prepare, organize, and present a variety of informative messages effectively.
3. Analyze purpose, audience, and occasion to choose effective verbal and nonverbal strategies such as pitch and tone of voice, posture, and eye contact.

Visual Literacy: The student will interpret, evaluate, and compose visual messages.

Standard 1: Interpret Meaning - The student will interpret and evaluate the various ways visual image-makers including graphic artists, illustrators, and news photographers represent meaning.

1. Document the use of stereotypes and biases in visual media (e.g., distorted representations of society; imagery and stereotyping in advertising; elements of stereotypes such as physical characteristics, manner of speech, beliefs and attitudes).
2. Indicate how symbols, images, sounds, and other conventions are used in visual media (e.g., time lapse in films; set elements that identify a particular time period or culture).

Standard 2: Evaluate Media - The student will evaluate visual and electronic media, such as film, as compared with print messages.

1. Select people with special interests and expectations who are the target audience for particular messages or products in visual media.
2. Define and design language and content that reflect the target audience for particular messages and products (e.g., in advertising and sales techniques aimed specifically towards teenagers; in products aimed toward different classes, races, ages, genders; in the appeal of popular television shows and films for particular audience).

Standard 3: Compose Visual Messages - The student will create a visual message that effectively communicates an idea.

1. Create media products to include a billboard, cereal box, short editorials, and a three- minute documentary or print ad to engage specific audiences.
2. Create, present, test, and revise a project and analyze a response, using data-gathering techniques such as questionnaires, group discussions, and feedback forms.

LANGUAGE ARTS

Grade 12

Reading/Literature: The student will apply a wide range of strategies to comprehend, interpret, evaluate, appreciate, and respond to a variety of texts.

Apply knowledge of word origins (words from other languages, history, or literature) to determine the meaning of new words encountered in reading and use of those words accurately.

Standard 1: Vocabulary - The student will expand vocabulary through word study, literature, and class discussion.

1. Apply knowledge of Greek, Latin, and Anglo-Saxon roots and word parts to draw inferences about new words that have been created in the fields of science and mathematics (gene splicing, genetic engineering).
2. Research unfamiliar words based on characters, themes, or historical events
3. Analyze the meaning of analogies encountered, analyzing specific comparisons as well as relationships and inferences.
4. Rely on context to determine meanings of words and phrases such as figurative language, connotations and denotations of words, analogies, idioms, and technical vocabulary.

Standard 2: Comprehension - The student will interact with the words and concepts on the page to understand what the writer has said.

Read and understand grade-level-appropriate material. Analyze the organizational patterns and evaluate authors' argument and positions. At Grade 12, in addition to regular classroom reading, read a wide variety of classic and contemporary literature, poetry, magazines, newspapers, reference materials, and online information.

1. Literal Understanding
   a. Identify the structures and format of various informational documents and explain how authors use the features to achieve their purpose.
   b. Explain specific devices an author uses to accomplish purpose (persuasive techniques, style, literary forms or genre, portrayal of themes, language).
   c. Use study strategies such as note taking, outlining, and using study-guide questions to better understand texts.
   d. Construct images such as graphic organizers based on text descriptions and text structures.
   e. Read silently with comprehension for a sustained period of time.
2. Inferences and Interpretation
   a. Interpret the possible inferences of the historical context on literary works.
   b. Describe the development of plot and identify conflict and how they are addressed and resolved.
   c. Identify influences on a reader's response to a text (e.g., personal experience and values; perspectives shapes by age, gender, class, or nationality).
   d. Make reasonable assertions about authors' arguments by using elements of the text to defend and clarify interpretations.
3. Summary and Generalization
   a. Determine the main idea and supporting details by producing summaries of text.
   b. Use text features and elements to support inferences and generalizations about information.
   c. Summarize and paraphrase complex, implicit hierarchic structures in informational texts, including relationships among concepts and details in those structures.
   d. Compare and contrast elements of text such as themes, conflicts, and allusions both within and across text.
4. Analysis and Evaluation
   a. Investigate both the features and the rhetorical (communication) devices of different types of public documents, such as policy statements, speeches, or debates, and the ways in which authors use those features and devices.
   b. Examine the structure and format of informational and literary documents and explain how authors use the features to achieve their purposes.
   c. Analyze the way in which clarity of meaning is affected by the patterns of organization, repetition of the main ideas, organization of language, and word choice in the text.
   d. Analyze the way in which authors have used archetypes (universal modes or patterns) drawn from myth and tradition in literature, film, political speeches, and religious writings.
   e. Evaluate the credibility of information sources, including how the writer's motivation may affect that credibility.

Standard 3: Literature - The student will read, construct meaning, and respond to a wide variety of literary forms. 📖

Read and respond to grade-level-appropriate, historically or culturally significant works of literature that reflect and enhance a study of history and social science. Conduct an in-depth analysis of recurrent themes.

1. Literary Genres - Demonstrate a knowledge of and an appreciation for various forms of literature.
   a. Analyze the characteristics of genres including short story, novel, drama, poetry, and essay.
   b. Analyze the characteristics of subgenres including allegory, ballad, elegy, ode, parody, pastoral, satire and tragedy.
2. Literary Elements - Demonstrate knowledge of literary elements and techniques and show how they affect the development of a literary work.

   a. Evaluate the way in which the theme or meaning of a selection represents a view or comment on life, using textual evidence to support the claim.
   b. Analyze the way in which irony, tone, mood, the author's style, and the "sound" of language achieve specific rhetorical (communication) or aesthetic (artistic) purposes or both.
   c. Analyze characters' traits by what the characters say about themselves in narration, dialogue, and soliloquy (when they speak out loud to themselves).
   d. Evaluate the significance of various literary devices and techniques, including imagery, allegory (the use of fictional figures and actions to express truths about human experiences), and symbolism (the use of symbols to represent an idea or theme), and explain their appeal.
   e. Evaluate the author's purpose and the development of time and sequence, including the use of complex literary devices, such as foreshadowing (providing clues to future events) or flashbacks (interrupting the sequence of events to include information about an event that happened in the past).
3. Figurative Language and Sound Devices - Identify figurative language and sound devices and analyze how they affect the development of a literary work.
   a. Identify and explain figurative language including analogy, hyperbole, metaphor, personification, and simile.
   b. Identify and explain sound devices including alliteration and rhyme.
   c. Analyze the melodies of literary language, including its use of evocative words, rhythms and rhymes.
4. Literary Works - Read and respond to historically and culturally significant works of literature.
   a. Analyze and evaluate works of literature and the historical context in which they were written.
   b. Analyze and evaluate literature from various cultures to broaden cultural awareness.
   c. Compare works that express the recurrence of archetypal (universal modes or patterns) characters, settings, and themes in literature and provide evidence to support the ideas expressed in each work.
   d. Analyze the clarity and consistency of political assumptions in a selection of literary works or essays on a topic.

Standard 4: Research and Information - The student will conduct research and organize information.

1. Accessing Information - Select the best source for a given purpose.
   a. Access information from a variety of primary and secondary sources.
   b. Skim text for an overall impression and scan text for particular information.
   c. Use organizational strategies as an aid to comprehend increasingly difficult content material (e.g., compare/contrast, cause/effect, problem/solution, sequential order).
2. Interpreting Information - Analyze and evaluate information from a variety of sources.
   a. Summarize, paraphrase, and or quote relevant information.
   b. Determine the author's viewpoint to evaluate source credibility and reliability.
   c. Synthesize information from multiple sources to draw conclusions that go beyond those found in any of the individual studies.
   d. Identify complexities and inconsistencies in the information and the different perspectives found in each medium, including almanacs, microfiche, news sources, in-depth field studies, speeches, journals, technical documents, or Internet sources.
   e. Develop presentations by using clear research questions and creative and critical research strategies, such as field studies, oral histories, interviews, experiments, and Internet sources.
   f. Compile written ideas and information into reports, summaries, or other formats and draw conclusions.

Writing/Grammar/ Mechanics and Usage: The student will express ideas effectively in written modes for a variety of purposes and audiences.

Write coherent and focused texts that show a well-defined point of view and tightly reasoned argument. The writing demonstrates a progression through the stages of the writing process (prewriting, writing, revising and editing).

Standard 1: Writing Process - The student will use the writing process to write coherently.

1. Use a writing process to develop and refine composition skills. Students are expected to:
   a. use prewriting strategies to generate ideas such as brainstorming, using graphic organizers, keeping notes and logs.
   b. develop multiple drafts both alone and collaboratively to categorize ideas organizing them into paragraphs, and blending paragraphs into larger text.
   c. organize and reorganize drafts and refine style to suit occasion, audience, and purpose. d. proofread writing for appropriateness of organization, content and style.
   e. edit for specific purposes such as to ensure standard usage, varied sentence structure, appropriate word choice, mechanics and spelling.
   f. refine selected pieces frequently to publish for general and specific audiences.
2. Demonstrate an understanding of the elements of discourse, such as purpose, speaker, audience, and form when completing narrative expository, persuasive, or descriptive writing assignments.
3. Enhance meaning by using rhetorical devices, including the extended use of parallelism, repetition, and analogy and the issuance of a call for action.
4. Use point of view, characterization, style, and related elements for specific rhetorical (communication) and aesthetic (artistic) purposes.
5. Structure ideas and arguments in a sustained and persuasive way and support them with precise and relevant examples.
6. Evaluate own writing and others' writing to highlight the individual voice, improve sentence variety and style, and enhance subtlety of meaning and tone in ways that are consistent with the purpose, audience, and form of writing.
7. Further develop unique writing style and voice, improve sentence variety, and enhance subtlety of meaning and tone in

ways that are consistent with the purpose, audience, and of writing.

Standard 2: Modes and Forms of Writing - The student will write for a variety of purposes and audiences using narrative, descriptive, expository, persuasive, and reflective modes.

At Grade 12, continue to combine the rhetorical strategies of narration, exposition, persuasion, and description to produce reflective compositions, historical investigation reports, and deliver multimedia presentations. The writing demonstrates a command of Standard English and the research, organization, and drafting strategies outlined in the writing process. Writing demonstrates an awareness of the audience (intended reader) and purpose for writing.

1. Write fictional, biographical, or autobiographical narratives that:
   a. narrate a sequence of events and communicate their significance to the audience.
   b. identify scenes and incidents in specific places.
   c. describe with specific details the sight, sounds, and smells of a scene and the specific actions, movements, gestures, and feelings of the character; use interior monologue (what character says silently to self) to show the character's feelings.
   d. present action segments to accommodate changes in time and mood.
      Example: After reading from Geoffrey Chaucer's *The Canterbury Tales*, write your own version of a traveler's tale.
2. Write historical investigations that:
   a. use exposition, narration, description, argumentation, or some combination of rhetorical strategies to support the main argument.
   b. analyze several historical records of a single event, examining critical relationships between elements of the topic.
   c. explain the perceived reason or reasons for the similarities and differences in historical records with information derived from primary and secondary sources to support or enhance the presentation.
   d. include information from all relevant perspectives and take into consideration the validity and reliability of sources.
   e. include a formal bibliography.
      Example: Write a historical investigation report on the death of Diana, Princess of Wales. Include perspectives from newspapers or accounts of witnesses. Place the event into the larger societal context of the time, and indicate how or if the event has impacted the British and people from around the world.
3. Write reflective compositions that may address one of the following purposes:
   a. explore the significance of personal experiences, events, conditions, or concerns by using rhetorical strategies, including narration, description, exposition, and persuasion.
   b. draw comparisons between specific incidents and broader themes that illustrate the writer's important beliefs or generalizations about life.
   c. maintain a balance in describing individual incidents and relate those incidents to more general and abstract ideas.
      Example: Write a reflective essay for fellow students on the significance of family in one's life or on growing up at the turn of the 21st century. Make personal observations, but connect them to a larger theme of interest to your audience.
4. Write responses to literature that:
   a. demonstrate a comprehensive understanding of the significant ideas in works or passages.
   b. analyze the use of imagery, language, universal themes, and unique aspects of the text.
   c. support important ideas and viewpoints through accurate and detailed reference to the text or to other works.
   d. demonstrate an understanding of author's style and an appreciation of the effects created.
   e. identify and assess the impact of ambiguities, nuances, and complexities within the text.
      Example: Analyze the events, point of view, and characterization in Virginia Woolf's novel, *Mrs.Dalloway*. Write an essay arguing whether or not criticism of her work is valid.
5. Write for different purposes and to a specific audience or person, adjusting tone and style as necessary to make writing interesting. Continue to produce other forms of writing introduced in earlier grades.
      Example: Write stories, reports, and letters showing a variety of word choices, or review a favorite book or film.
6. Write documented papers incorporating the techniques of Modern Language Association (MLA) or similar parenthetical styles.

Standard 3: Grammar/Usage and Mechanics - The student will demonstrate appropriate practices in writing by applying Standard English conventions to the revising and editing stages of writing.

1. Standard English Usage - Demonstrate correct use of Standard English in speaking and writing.
   a. Distinguish commonly confused words (e.g., there, their, they're; two, too, to; accept, except; affect, effect).
   b. Use correct verb forms and tenses.
   c. Use correct subject-verb agreement.
   d. Distinguish active and passive voice.
   e. Use pronouns effectively, correct pronoun/antecedent agreement, and clear pronoun reference.
   f. Use correct forms of comparative and superlative adjectives.
2. Mechanics and Spelling - Demonstrate appropriate language mechanics in writing.
   a. Demonstrate correct use of capitals.
   b. Use correct formation of plurals.
   c. Demonstrate correct use of punctuation and recognize its effect on sentence structure.
   d. Use correct spelling of commonly misspelled words and homonyms
3. Sentence Structure - The student will demonstrate appropriate sentence structure in writing.

a. Use parallel structure.
b. Correct dangling and misplaced modifiers.
c. Correct run-on sentences.
d. Correct fragments.

4. Apply appropriate manuscript conventions in writing including title page presentation, pagination, spacing and margins, and integration of sources and support material, by citing sources within the text, using direct quotations, and paraphrasing.

Oral Language/Listening and Speaking: The student will demonstrate thinking skills in listening and speaking.

Formulate thoughtful judgments about oral communication. Deliver focused and coherent presentations that convey clear and distinct perspectives and solid reasoning. Deliver polished formal and extemporaneous presentations that combine the traditional speech strategies of narration, exposition, persuasion, and description. Use gestures, tone, and vocabulary appropriate to the audience and purpose. Use the same Standard English conventions for oral speech that are used in writing.

Standard 1: Listening - The student will listen for information and for pleasure.

1. Demonstrate proficiency in critical, empathetic, appreciative, and reflective listening to interpret, respond and evaluate speaker's messages.
2. Use effective strategies for listening that prepares for listening, identifies the types of listening, and adopts appropriate strategies.
3. Listen and respond appropriately to presentations and performances of peers or published works such as original essays or narratives, interpretations of poetry, and individual or group performances.
4. Use effective strategies to evaluate own listening such as asking questions for clarification, comparing and contrasting interpretations with others, and researching points of interest or contention.
5. Use effective listening to provide appropriate feedback in a variety of situations such as conversations and discussions and informative, persuasive, or artistic presentations.

Standard 2: Speaking - The student will express ideas and opinions in group or individual situations.

1. Use a variety of verbal and nonverbal techniques in presenting oral messages such as pitch and tone of voice, posture, and eye contact, and demonstrate poise and control while present
2. Use language and rhetorical strategies skillfully in informative and persuasive messages.
3. Use logical, ethical, and emotional appeals that enhance a specific tone and purpose.
4. Use effective and interesting language, including informal expressions for effect, Standard English for clarity, and technical language for specificity.
5. Evaluate when to use different kinds of effects (including visuals, music, sound, and graphics) to create a presentation.
6. Ask clear questions for a variety of purposes and respond appropriately to the questions of others.

Visual Literacy: The student will interpret, evaluate, and compose visual messages.

Standard 1: Interpret Meaning - The student will interpret and evaluate the various ways visual image-makers including graphic artists, illustrators, and news photographers represent meaning.

1. Use a range of strategies to interpret visual media (e.g., draw conclusions, make generalizations, synthesize material viewed, refer to images or information in visual media to support point of view).
2. Demonstrate how editing shapes meaning in visual media (e.g., omission of alternative perspectives; filtered or implied viewpoints; emphasis of specific ideas, images, or information in order to serve particular interests).

Standard 2: Evaluate Media - The student will evaluate visual and electronic media, such as film, as compared with print messages.

1. Use a variety of criteria (e.g., clarity, accuracy, effectiveness, bias, relevance of facts) to evaluate informational media (e.g., Web sites, documentaries, news programs).
2. Identify the rules and expectations about genre that can be manipulated for particular effects or purposes (e.g., combining or altering conventions of different genres, such as presenting news as entertainment; blurring of genres, such as drama-documentaries).

Standard 3: Compose Visual Messages - The student will create a visual message that effectively communicates an idea.

1. Use the effects of media on constructing his/her own perception of reality.
2. Use a variety of forms and technologies such as videos, photographs, and Web pages to communicate specific messages.

APPENDIX K

STANDARDS AND BENCHMARKS

Language Arts Standards for Grade 9

Standard I

Demonstrates competence in writing and application of the writing process

1.1 Uses a range of strategies for drafting, revising, editing, and proofreading written work. V, VI
1.2 Demonstrates competence in writing expository essays. V, VI
1.3 Demonstrates competence in writing, descriptive essays. V, VI
1.4 Uses criteria to evaluate own and others' writing. V VI

Standard 2

Demonstrates competence in writing a variety of genre and styles

2.1 Writes original texts. V, VI
2.2 Writes for information and understanding. V, VI
2.3 Writes for literary response/expression. V, VI

Standard 3

Demonstrates competence in grammatical and mechanical conventions in written compositions

3.1 Uses punctuation appropriately. VI
3.2 Uses capitalization appropriately. VI

Standard 4

Demonstrates competence in gathering and using information for research purposes

4.1 Creates bibliographies for research topics. III
4.2 Uses cross referencing while gathering information for a research topic. III
4.3 Uses reference material, including the Internet, to gather information for research purposes. III, VIII
4.4 Represents key ideas and supporting details in outline or graph form. III
4.5 Interprets information from schedules, letters, catalogs, directories, charts, maps, graphs, tables, diagrams, and directions, as appropriate to content area curriculum. III
4.6 Effectively uses reference books, almanacs, atlases, encyclopedias, dictionaries, thesauruses, electronic card catalogs and databases, tables of contents, glossaries, indexes, magazines, newspapers, and the *Readers Guide to Periodical Literature.* III

Standard 5

Demonstrates competence in the general skills and strategies for reading and responding to a variety of literary texts

5.1 Determines figurative, idiomatic, and technical meaning of terms through context. I
5.2 Determines the meaning of abbreviations and acronyms from context. I
5.3 Accurately identifies author's purpose and analyzes the effects of that purpose on the text. I, II
5.4 Accurately identifies the author's point of view and analyzes the effects of that point of view on the text. II
5.5 Identifies simple and complex actions. II, IX
5.6 Makes abstract connections between one's own life and the characters, events, motives, and causes of conflict in texts. II. IX
5.7 Analyzes the effectiveness of complex elements of plot. I, II, IX

5.8 Independently applies the reading process and strategies to myths that are of substantial length (i.e. 1,500 words to book length). II, IX

5.9 Independently applies the reading process and strategies to short fiction and novels that are of substantial length (i.e. 1,500 words to book length); developmentally appropriate with regard to complexity of character, plot, theme, and dialogue; and appropriately sophisticated with regard to literary devices, point of view, and style. IX

Standard 6

Demonstrates competence in the general skills and strategies of reading for information and understanding

6.1 Identifies the devices an author is using to persuade readers and critiques the effectiveness of the use of those devices. II, IX

6.2 Scans a passage to determine whether a text contains relevant information. I, II, III

6.3 Independently applies the reading process and strategies to biographies and autobiographies that are of substantial length (i.e. 1,500 words to book length); developmentally appropriate with regard to complexity of character, plot, theme, and dialogue; and appropriately sophisticated with regard to literary devices, point of view, and style. IX

6.4 Independently applies the reading process and strategies to essays that are of substantial length.I

Standard 7

Demonstrates competence in reading for critical analysis and evaluation

7.1 Demonstrates an understanding of why certain literary works may be considered classics or works of enduring quality and substance. IX

Standard 8

Demonstrates competence in speaking and listening

8.1 Uses discussions with peers as a way of understanding information. VII

8.2 Evaluates personal effectiveness in group discussions and makes corrections as necessary. VII

8.3 Asks questions as a way to broaden and enrich classroom discussions. VII

APPENDIX L

STANDARDS AND BENCHMARKS

Language Arts Standards for Grade 12

Standard I

Demonstrates competence in writing and application of the writing process

1.1 Writes compositions that are clearly focused for different audiences including those informed about the topic, those uniformed about the topic, those that are highly public, and those that are not. V, VI

1.2 Uses a range of strategies for drafting, revising, editing, and proofreading written work. V, VI

Standard 2

Demonstrates competence in writing a variety of genre and styles

2.1 Uses personal response to text as a basis for writing. V, VI

2.2 Writes compositions that clearly fulfill different purposes, including to entertain and to stimulate emotion. V, VI

2.3 Demonstrates competence in writing expository essays. V, VI

2.4 Demonstrates competence in writing persuasive essays, including evaluation, interpretation, speculation about problem/solution, and causes and effects. V, VI

2.5 Demonstrates competence in writing descriptive essays. V, VI

2.6 Demonstrates competence in writing fictional, biographical, autobiographical, and observational narrative essays. V, VI

Standard 3

Demonstrates competence in grammatical and mechanical conventions in written compositions

3.1 Uses punctuation appropriately. VI

3.2 Uses capitalization appropriately. VI

Standard 4

Demonstrates competence in gathering and using information for research purposes

4.1 Creates bibliographies for research topics. III

4.2 Uses cross referencing while gathering information for a research topic. III

4.3 Takes notes and organizes information. III

Standard 5

Demonstrates competence in the general skills and strategies for reading and responding to a variety of literary texts

5.1 Participates in independent reading. I, II, IV, IX

5.2 Participates in group reading experiences. I, II, IV, IX

5.3 Reads and understands a variety of genres. I, II, IV, IX

5.4 Reads and understands key elements of literary texts. I, II, IV, IX

Standard 6

Demonstrates competence in the general skills and strategies of reading for information and understanding

6.1 Summarizes dialogues for the purpose of collecting information for research purposes. III, VIII
6.2 Uses almanacs to gather information for research purposes. III
6.3 Uses government publications to gather information for research purposes. III
6.4 Uses the Internet to gather information for research purposes. III
6.5 Uses a variety of news sources to gather information for research purposes (e.g. newspapers, news magazines, radio, videotapes, artifacts. III, VIII
6.6 Synthesizes a variety of types of visual information including pictures and symbols when researching a topic. VIII
6.7 Identifies and uses "likely informants" to gather information for a research topic. III, VII, VIII
6.8 Makes extensive use of primary sources when researching a topic and makes careful consideration of the motives and perspectives of the authors of those sources. III, VII, VIII

Standard 7

Demonstrates competence in reading for critical analysis and evaluation

7.1 Demonstrates an understanding of why certain literary works may be considered classics or works of enduring quality and substance. IX

Standard 8

Demonstrates competence in speaking and listening

8.1 Uses discussions with peers as a way of understanding information. VII
8.2 Evaluates personal effectiveness in group discussions and makes corrections as necessary. VII
8.3 Asks questions as a way to broaden and enrich classroom discussions. VII

APPENDIX M

LANGUAGE ARTS PACING CALENDAR 9th GRADE

State Learning Objectives Categories
The following categories have been assigned Roman numerals for ease of reference in the pacing calendar.

I. Reading/Literature: The student will apply a wide variety range of strategies to comprehend, interpret, evaluate, appreciate, and respond to a wide variety of texts.
II. Writing/Grammar/Usage and Mechanics: The student will express ideas effectively in writing modes for a variety of purposes and audiences.
III. Oral Language/Listening and Speaking: The student will demonstrate thinking skills in listening and speaking.
IV. Visual Literacy: The student will interpret, evaluate, and compose visual messages.

The numbers in parentheses after each benchmark reference the State Learning Objective benchmark.
Items that have an asterisk (*) following the number are benchmarks to be assessed within the classroom.

1st Quarter

Standard I.1: Vocabulary - The student will expand vocabulary through word study, literature, and class discussion.

I.1.1 Apply a knowledge of Greek (e.g., tele/phone, micro/phone), Latin (e.g., flex/ible), and Anglo-Saxon (e.g. un/friend/ly roots, prefixes, and suffixes to determine word meanings.
I.1.2 Use word meanings within the appropriate context and verify those meanings by definition, restatement, example, and analogy.
I.1.3 Expand vocabulary through wide reading, listening ,and discussing.

Standard I.2: Comprehension: The student will interact with the words to construct an appropriate meaning.

I.2.1 Literal Understanding
- a. Examine the structures and format of functional workplace documents, including graphics and headers, and explain how authors use the features to achieve their purpose.

Standard I.3: Literature - The student will read, construct meaning, and respond to a wide variety of literary forms. 📖

I.3.1 Literary Genres - Demonstrate a knowledge of and an appreciation for various forms of literature.
- a. Analyze the characteristics of genres a short story and an essay.

I.3.4 Literary Works - The student will read and respond to historically and culturally significant works of literature.
- a. Analyze and evaluate works of literature and the historical context in which they were written.
- b. Analyze and evaluate literature from various cultures to broaden cultural awareness.

Standard II.2: Modes and Forms of Writing - The student will write for a variety of purposes and audiences using narrative, descriptive, expository, persuasive, and reflective modes.

II.2.1* Write biographical or autobiographical narratives or short stories that:
- a. Identify a real person, living or not, who has had a special influence on other people.
- b. Provide a sequence of factual events and communicate the significance of the events to the person.
- c. Isolates specific scenes and incidents in time and places significant to defining the person's influence.

d. Uses anecdotes or describe with specific details the sight, sounds, and smells of a scene and the specific actions, movements, gestures, and feelings of the person; use interior monologue (what characters say silently to self) to show the person's qualities and beliefs.

e. Present action segments to accommodate changes in time and mood.
Example: Write an autobiographical account of a time when an important decision has to be made. Write a humorous story for elementary children and give the story a local setting.

Standard II.3: Grammar/Usage and Mechanics - The student will demonstrate appropriate practices in writing by applying grammatical knowledge to the revising and editing stages of writing.

II.3.2 Mechanics and Spelling - Demonstrates appropriate language mechanics in writing.

a. Demonstrate correct use of capitals.
b. Use correct formation of plurals.
c. Demonstrates correct use of punctuation and recognize its effect on sentence structure.
d. Distinguish correct spelling of commonly misspelled words and homonyms.

Standard IV.1: Interpret Meaning - The student will interpret and evaluate the various ways visual image-makers including graphic artists, illustrators, and news photographers represent meaning. 📖

IV.1.1* Documents the use of stereotypes and biases in visual media (e.g., distorted representations of society; imagery and stereotyping in advertising; elements of stereotypes such as physical characteristics, manner of speech, beliefs and attitudes).

2nd Quarter

Standard I.1: Vocabulary - The student will expand vocabulary through word study, literature, and class discussion.

I.1.5 Identify the relation of word meanings in analogies, homonyms, synonyms/antonyms, and connotations and denotations.

Standard I.2: Comprehension - The student will interact with the words to construct an appropriate meaning.

I.2.2 Inferences and Interpretations

a. Analyze characteristics of text, including its structure, word choice, and intended audience.
b. Draw inferences such as conclusions, generalizations, and predictions, and support them with text evidence and personal experiences.
c. Recognize influences on a reader's response to a text (e.g., personal experience and values; perspective shapes by age, gender, class, or nationality.

Standard I.3: Literature - The student will read, construct meaning, and respond to a wide variety of literary forms. 📖

I.3.1.b Demonstrate a knowledge of and an appreciation for various forms of literature.

a. Analyze the characteristics of genres of a novel.

I.3.2

a. Demonstrate knowledge of literary elements and techniques and show how they affect the development of a literary work.
b. Recognize the theme (General observation about life or human nature) within a text.
c. Explain how author's voice and/or choice of a narrator affect the characterization and the point of view, tone, plot, mood and credibility of a text.
d. Recognize and understand the significance of various devices, including figurative language, imagery, allegory (the use of fictional figures and actions to express truths about human experiences), and symbolism (the use of a symbol to represent an idea or theme), and explain their appeal.
e. Analyze interactions between characters in a literary text and explain the way those interactions affect the plot in narrative text.
f Analyze characters and identify author s point of view
g. Identify literary forms and terms such as author, drama, biography, autobiography, myth, tall tale, dialogue, tragedy and comedy, structure in poetry, epic, ballad, protagonist,

antagonist, paradox, analogy, dialect and comic relief as appropriate to the selections being read.

I.3.5 Compare works that express the recurrence of archetypal (universal modes or patterns) characters, settings, and themes in literature and provide evidence to support the ideas expressed in each work.

Standard I.4: Research and Information - The student will conduct research and organize information. 📖

I.4.1 Accessing Information - Select the best source for a given purpose.
- a. Access information from a variety of primary and secondary sources.
- b. Skim text for an overall impression and scan text for particular information.
- c. Use organizational strategies as an aid to comprehend increasingly difficult content material compare/contrast, cause/effect, problem/solution, sequential order).

I.4.2 Interpreting Information - The student will analyze and evaluate information from a variety of sources.
- a. Summarize, paraphrase, and/or quote relevant information.
- b. Determine the author's viewpoint to evaluate source credibility and reliability.
- c. Organize and convert information into different forms such as charts, graphs, and drawings to create multiple formats to interpret information for multiple audiences and purposes, and cite sources completely.
- d. Identify complexities and inconsistencies in the information and the different perspectives found in each medium, including almanacs, microfiche news sources, in-depth field studies, speeches, journals, technical documents, or Internet sources.
- e. Draw conclusions from information gathered.

Standard II.1: Writing Process - The student will use the writing process to write coherently.

II.1.1* Use a writing process to develop and refine composition skills. Students are expected to:
- a. use prewriting strategies to generate ideas such as brainstorming, using graphic organizers, keeping notes and logs.
- b. develop multiple drafts both alone and collaboratively to categorize ideas, organizing them into paragraphs, and blending paragraphs into larger text.
- c. organize and reorganize drafts and refine style to suit occasion, audience, and purpose.
- d. proofread writing for appropriateness of organization, content, and style.
- e. edit for specific purposes to ensure standard usage, varied sentence structure, appropriate word choice, mechanics and spelling.
- f. refine selected pieces frequently to publish for general and specific audiences.

II.1.2 Use extension and elaboration to develop an idea.

II.1.3 Demonstrate organization, unity, and coherence by using transitions and sequencing.

II.1.4 Use precise word choices, including figurative language, that convey specific meaning and tone.

II.1.5 Use a variety of sentence structures, types, and lengths, to contribute to fluency and interest.

II.1.6 Evaluate own writing and others' writing (e.g., determine the best features of a piece of writing, determine how own writing achieves its purpose, ask for feedback, respond to classmates' writing.

Standard II.3: Grammar/Usage and Mechanics - The student will demonstrate appropriate practices in writing by applying grammatical knowledge to the revising and editing stages of writing.

II.3.3 Sentence Structure - Demonstrate appropriate sentence structure in writing.
- a. Use a parallel structure.
- b. Correct dangling and misplaced modifiers.
- c. Correct run-on sentences.
- d. Correct fragments.

3rd Quarter

Standard I.1: Vocabulary - The student will expand vocabulary through word study, literature, and class discussions.

I.1.3 Expand vocabulary through wide reading, listening, and discussing.

I.1.4 Use reference materials such as glossary, dictionary, thesaurus, and available technology to determine precise meaning and usage.

Standard I.2: Comprehension: The student will interact with the words to construct an appropriate meaning.

I.2.3 Summary and Generalization

- a. Identify the main idea and supporting details by producing summaries of text.
- b. Use text features and elements to support inferences and generalizations about information.
- c. Summarize and paraphrase complex, implicit hierarchic structures in informational texts, including relationships among concepts and details in those structures.

Standard I.3: Literature - The student will read, construct meaning, and respond to a wide variety of literary forms. 📖

I.3.5 Compare works that express the recurrence of archetypal (universal odes or patterns) characters, settings and themes in literature and provide evidence to support the ideas expressed in each work.

Standard II.2: Modes and Forms of Writing - The student will write for a variety of purposes and audiences using narrative, descriptive, expository, persuasive, and reflective modes.

II.2.3* Write persuasive compositions that:

- a. organize ideas and appeal in a sustained and effective fashion with the strongest emotion first and the least powerful last.
- b. use specific rhetorical (communication) devices to support assertions, such as appealing to logic through reasoning; appealing to emotion or ethical beliefs; or relating to a personal anecdote, case study, or analogy.
- c. clarify and defend positions with precise and relevant evidence, including facts, expert opinions, quotations, expressions of commonly accepted beliefs, and logical reasoning.
- d. address reader's concerns, counterclaims, biases, and expectations.
  Example: Write a letter to the principal or the president of the school board to persuade that person to support your views on some educational policy that has been adopted by the local district, such as a dress code, a change to or from block scheduling, or a decision about grade requirements to participate in extracurricular activities.

Standard III.1: Listening – The student will listen for information and for pleasure.

III.1.1* Focus attention on the speaker's message.

III.1.3 Listen and respond appropriately to presentations and performances of peers or published works such as original essays or narratives, interpretations of poetry, and individual or group performances.

Standard III.2: Speaking - The student will express ideas and opinions in group or individual situations.

III.2.1* Use formal, informal, standard and technical language effectively to meet the needs of purpose, audience, occasion, and task.

III.2.2* Prepare, organize, and present a variety of informative messages effectively.

III.2.3* Analyze purpose, audience, and occasion to choose effective verbal and nonverbal strategies such as pitch and tone of voice, posture, and eye contact.

Standard IV.3: Compose Visual Messages - The student will create a visual message that effectively communicates an idea.

IV.3.1* Create media products to include billboard, cereal box, short editorials, and a three-minute documentary or print ad to engage specific audiences.

4th Quarter

Standard I.2: Comprehension - The student will interact with the words to construct an appropriate meaning.

I.2.4 Analysis and Evaluation

- a. Discriminate between fact and opinion and fiction and nonfiction.
- b. Recognize deceptive and or faulty arguments in persuasive texts.
- c. Analyze the structure and format of informational and literary documents and explain how authors use the features to achieve their purposes.
- d. Identify techniques (e.g., language, organization, tone, context) used to convey point of view or impressions.

Standard I.3: Literature- -The student will read, construct meaning, and respond to a wide variety of literary forms. 📖

I.3.1 Demonstrates a knowledge of and an appreciation for various forms of literature.

- a. Analyze the characteristics of genres of poetry.

I.3.3 Figurative Language and Sound Device - Identify figurative language and sound devices and analyze how they affect the development of literary work.

- a. Identify and explain figurative language including metaphor, personification, and simile.
- b. Identify and explain sound devices including alliteration, onomatopoeia, and rhyme.

I.3.5 Compare works that express the recurrence of archetypal (universal odes or patterns) characters, settings and themes in literature and provide evidence to support the ideas expressed in each work.

Standard II.1: Writing Process - The student will use the writing process to write coherently.

II.1.2* Use extension and elaboration to develop an idea.

Standard II.2: Modes and Forms of Writing - The student will write for a variety of purposes and audiences using narrative, descriptive, expository, persuasive, and reflective modes.

II.2.4 Write documents related to career development, including simple business letters and job applications that:

- a. present information purposefully and in brief to meet the need of the intended audience.
- b. follow a conventional business letter or memorandum format.
  Example: Write a letter requesting an informational interview with a person in a career area that interests you. Complete a job application form for a part-time job and attach a memorandum outlining the particular skills you have that fit the needs of the position.

II.2.5* Write reflective papers that may address one of the following purposes:

- a. express the individual's insight into conditions or situations.
- b. compare a scene from a work of fiction with a lesson learned from experience.
- c. complete a self-evaluation on a class performance.
  Example: Write a reflective paper that discusses reasons for selections used in a portfolio of works that documents skills learned in different subjects.

II.2.6 Use appropriate essay test-taking and time-writing strategies that:

- a. address and analyze the question (prompt).
- b. use organizational methods required by the prompt.

II.2.7 Write responses to literature that:

- a. demonstrate a comprehensive grasp of the significant ideas of literary works.
- b. support important ideas and viewpoints through accurate and detailed reference to the text or to other works.
- c. demonstrate awareness of author's style and appreciation of the effects created.
- d. identify and assess the impact of ambiguities, nuances, and complexities with the text.
  Example: Write a description of a character in a novel from the viewpoint of another character.
- e. Write a comparison of different characters in the book, explaining how they are alike and different and how each serves to move the lot of the novel forward.

APPENDIX N

SAMPLE PAGE: _______ PUBLIC SCHOOLS MODEL

FOR SCHOOL IMPROVEMENT

Implementation Guide – Stage 3 (Incorporates Stage 1 and 2)

Part of Model		Description
Learning Environment	1.	Students take responsibility for maintaining physical learning environment.
	2.	Students demonstrate collaborative skills (active listening, taking turns, respect).
	3.	Technology is available at all times and used productively as learning tools.
Curriculum	1.	Most curriculum content relates to a study trip, "being there" experience and/or concept.
	2.	All curriculum content that flows from the study trip or concept is naturally integrated.
	3.	Teachers work together to integrate learning across grade levels and disciplines.
	4.	Teachers have written and posted significant knowledge and skill key points for their curriculum and students learn the key points to mastery.
	5	Students may choose how they demonstrate what they know and are able to do.
	6.	Students and teachers understand and can articulate the role of multiple intelligences as ways to solve problems and produce products.
	7.	Students use their portfolios to lead parent conferences.
	8.	Assessment is based on applying to the real world what students know and can do.
	9.	Curriculum is specially designed for collaborative work.
Instructional Strategies	1.	Teachers use a variety of instructional strategies including those from Marzano's *Classroom Instruction that Works.*
	2.	Teachers and students set clear performance criteria.
	3.	Reflection is an integral part of each assignment and/or class period.
Leadership/ Citizenship	1.	Students are involved in service learning projects that are tied to academic curriculum.
	2.	Students are involved in social and/or political action projects.
	3.	Students assume leadership roles within the classroom and the school, and responsibilities are shared among members of the learning community.
Parent/ Community Involvement	1.	The school is an integral part of the community as students' work is tied to the real world and community members contribute to student learning.
	2.	Parents are true partners in the education of their child and support the student's learning by actively participating in educational decisions involving their child. Parents assist in and promote the problem-solving, project-based work in which their students are involved.
Professional Development	1.	Teachers study student work, pursue action research projects, reflect on their own practice and collaborate with colleagues to Development continually improve student achievement.
	2.	Teachers attend workshops and activities that support their Individual Professional Development Plan.
Continuous Improvement	1.	Continuous improvement is the established norm.
	2.	All employees are involved in coaching and study groups with the common goal of forming learning communities to support student achievement.

APPENDIX O

Oklahoma State University
Institutional Review Board

Protocol Expires: 9/18/2004

Date: Wednesday, September 24, 2003 IRB Application No ED0421

Proposal Title: SECONDARY ENGLISH CONTENT LITERACY: TWO CASE STUDIES IN A PUBLIC SCHOOL SETTING

Principal
Investigator(s):

Carol Chapman	Ken Stern
112 North Butternut Ave.	311 Willard
Broken Arrow, OK 74012	Stillwater, OK 74078

Reviewed and
Processed as: Expedited (Spec Pop)

Approval Status Recommended by Reviewer(s): Approved

Dear PI :

Your IRB application referenced above has been approved for one calendar year. Please make note of the expiration date indicated above. It is the judgment of the reviewers that the rights and welfare of individuals who may be asked to participate in this study will be respected, and that the research will be conducted in a manner consistent with the IRB requirements as outlined in section 45 CFR 46.

As Principal Investigator, it is your responsibility to do the following:

1. Conduct this study exactly as it has been approved. Any modifications to the research protocol must be submitted with the appropriate signatures for IRB approval.
2. Submit a request for continuation if the study extends beyond the approval period of one calendar year. This continuation must receive IRB review and approval before the research can continue.
3. Report any adverse events to the IRB Chair promptly. Adverse events are those which are unanticipated and impact the subjects during the course of this research; and
4. Notify the IRB office in writing when your research project is complete.

Please note that approved projects are subject to monitoring by the IRB. If you have questions about the IRB procedures or need any assistance from the Board, please contact Sharon Bacher, the Executive Secretary to the IRB, in 415 Whitehurst (phone: 405-744-5700, sbacher@okstate.edu).

Sincerely,

Carol Olson, Chair
Institutional Review Board

VITA

Carol Anne Chapman

Candidate for the Degree of

Doctor of Education

Thesis: SECONDARY ENGLISH CONTENT LITERACY: TWO CASE STUDIES IN A PUBLIC SCHOOL SETTING

Major Field: Educational Leadership

Biographical:

Education: Received Bachelor of Science in Elementary Education from Northern Arizona University, May 1976. Received Master of Science in Reading Education from the University of Wisconsin-Whitewater, July 1987. Completed the requirements for Doctor of Education in Educational Leadership at Oklahoma State University, May 2004.

Experience: Tulsa Public Schools as Attendance Dean 2001 until present and Reading Specialist 1997-2001; Albuquerque Public Schools as Reading Consultant 1989-1991 and Title I Reading Teacher 1988-1989; Milwaukee Public Schools Seventh Grade Reading Teacher 1987-1988; Buckeye Public Schools as Fourth Grade Teacher 1982-1983; and Globe Public Schools as Fourth Grade Teacher 1976-1978. Additional experience as a substitute teacher.

Distinctions: Lawana Kunze Scholarship, 2003; Phi Kappa Phi, 1987; Outstanding Graduate Award, College of Education NAU, 1976; Kappa Delta Pi, 1975

Professional Memberships: International Reading Association; Phi Kappa Phi