

2005

# A case study inquiry into the relative impact of Balanced Reading instruction on Hispanic students in a highly culturally diverse elementary school

Rita Ramirez

*Louisiana State University and Agricultural and Mechanical College*

Follow this and additional works at: [https://digitalcommons.lsu.edu/gradschool\\_dissertations](https://digitalcommons.lsu.edu/gradschool_dissertations)



Part of the [Education Commons](#)

---

## Recommended Citation

Ramirez, Rita, "A case study inquiry into the relative impact of Balanced Reading instruction on Hispanic students in a highly culturally diverse elementary school" (2005). *LSU Doctoral Dissertations*. 2125.

[https://digitalcommons.lsu.edu/gradschool\\_dissertations/2125](https://digitalcommons.lsu.edu/gradschool_dissertations/2125)

This Dissertation is brought to you for free and open access by the Graduate School at LSU Digital Commons. It has been accepted for inclusion in LSU Doctoral Dissertations by an authorized graduate school editor of LSU Digital Commons. For more information, please contact [gradetd@lsu.edu](mailto:gradetd@lsu.edu).

A CASE STUDY INQUIRY INTO THE RELATIVE IMPACT  
OF BALANCED READING INSTRUCTION ON HISPANIC STUDENTS  
IN A HIGHLY CULTURALLY DIVERSE ELEMENTARY SCHOOL

A Dissertation

Submitted to the Graduate Faculty of the  
Louisiana State University and  
Agricultural and Mechanical College  
in partial fulfillment of the  
requirements for the degree of  
Doctor of Philosophy

in

The Department of Curriculum and Instruction

by

Rita Ramirez

B.A. Chapman University, 1965

M.A. Chapman University, 1971

Ed. S., Louisiana State University, 1999

August, 2005

## **DEDICATION**

This dissertation is dedicated to my parents, Joseph A. and Beatrice H. Ramírez, who taught their four daughters to have faith in God and strength to seek their future through education regardless of the obstacles and struggles of life. I also dedicate this work to my two loving sons, James Joseph and Gene Kenneth Dean, and my supportive and loving sister, Lucille Frost.

With deepest appreciation, I also dedicate this dissertation to my major professor and friend, Doctor Earl H. Cheek, Jr., who - because of his commitment to higher education and compassionate understanding - has made possible my dream, the receiving of the Doctor of Philosophy Degree in curriculum and instruction with specialization in reading.

Al fin, yo le doy gracias a mi Dios por el amor y la paz en mi alma y las bendiciones que Él me ha concedido en mi vida.

## **ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS**

I would like to acknowledge my major professor, Dr. Earl H. Cheek, Jr. and my dissertation committee members: Dr. Robert C. Lafayette, Dr. James P. Denny, Dr. Paul Mooney and Dr. Reid A. Bates. The kindness and support of each is beyond words. I am extremely fortunate to have had the privilege of their presence and scholastic knowledge in aiding me to complete this research.

I met Dr. Earl H. Cheek, Jr. in the fall, 1989. When I met him, I mistook him for a graduate student and asked if he was taking the class - of course, he was teaching it! That mistake was the best and most rewarding mistake I have ever made. I admire Dr. Cheek for his scholarly research, for his admirable and personable traits, for his patience to listen to his graduate students, and - above all - for being a perfect role model, a mentor, and educator both in education and in reading. My greatest wish is to follow in his footsteps as an educator in reading.

I would also like to acknowledge the support and kindness of Dr. Robert C. Lafayette, Department Chair of Curriculum and Instruction, who gave me the privilege of teaching for the fall, spring, and summer of 1998-1999. I had a wonderful and fulfilling time working with the faculty, staff, graduate assistants, and Louisiana State University students.

## TABLE OF CONTENTS

DEDICATION.....	ii
ACKNOWLEDGEMENT.....	iii
LIST OF TABLES.....	iv
ABSTRACT.....	x
CHAPTER	
1 INTRODUCTION.....	1
Statement of the Problem.....	1
The Purpose of the Study.....	5
The Setting.....	7
The Teachers.....	7
The School and the Community.....	8
The Classrooms.....	10
The Students.....	10
Significance of the Study.....	11
The Pilot Study.....	11
Units of Analysis.....	11
Time Sampling.....	12
Purposeful Sampling.....	12
Data Collection.....	12
Data Analysis.....	12
Case Study Report.....	13
Research Questions.....	13
2 REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE.....	14
Historical Overview.....	14
Hispanics: The Language Minority Student.....	15
Projected Trends for American Public Schools.....	18
Contemporary Instructional Frameworks Used in Teaching Reading.....	20
Basal Readers Instructional Framework.....	21
Design and Contents of Basal Readers.....	22
Graded Books.....	22
Controlled Vocabulary.....	23
Language Experience.....	24
Direct Instruction.....	25
Guided Reading.....	29
Directed Reading Activity.....	31
Accountability.....	35
Teacher's Materials.....	35

Students' Materials.....	36
Basal Improvements.....	38
Language-Driven Basal Reader.....	38
Literature-Driven Basal Reader.....	39
Advantages of Basal Readers.....	40
Disadvantages of Basal Readers.....	42
Literature-Based Instructional Framework.....	46
Design and Content of Literature-Based.....	46
Language Experience.....	47
Thematic Units.....	47
Literary Element Units.....	48
Author-Based.....	48
Genre-Based.....	48
Chapter Book.....	48
Topical.....	48
Webbing.....	49
Picture Books.....	49
Oral Role Playing.....	49
Grouping.....	50
Literature-Based Instructional Procedures.....	52
Literature-Study Curriculum.....	52
Advantages of Literature-Based.....	55
Disadvantages of Literature-Based.....	58
Balanced Literacy Instructional Framework.....	58
Design and Content of Balanced Literacy.....	60
Continuous Progress Organization.....	61
Learning Stations.....	62
Planning Classroom Time.....	63
Record Keeping.....	64
Reading Activities.....	65
Balanced Literacy Reading Components.....	66
Strategies for Comprehension and Fluency.....	67
Developmental Reading.....	68
Phonemic Awareness.....	69
Word identification Strategies.....	76
Application-Transfer.....	78
Shared Reading.....	78
Independent Reading.....	78
Content Reading.....	80
Functional Reading.....	85
Oral Reading.....	85
Action Oriented Reading Strategy.....	88
Balanced Literacy Writing Components.....	88
Shared Writing.....	89
Freewriting.....	90

	Reading-Writing Strategies.....	90
	Spelling Instruction.....	92
	Learning-Writing Components.....	93
	Writing Aloud.....	94
	Advantages of Balanced Literacy.....	95
	Disadvantages of Balanced Literacy.....	97
	Summary.....	100
3	METHODOLOGY.....	101
	Research Design.....	101
	Multiple Case Studies.....	101
	Case Study Method.....	101
	Selection of Participants.....	102
	Units of Analysis.....	102
	Time Sampling.....	103
	Purposeful Sampling.....	103
	Data Collection.....	105
	Initial Procedures.....	105
	Observations.....	105
	Field Notes.....	106
	Interviews.....	106
	Other Data Collection Sources.....	109
	Trustworthiness.....	109
	Data Analysis.....	111
	Case Study Analysis.....	111
	Descriptive Analysis.....	112
	Spradley's Developmental Research Sequence.....	112
	Constant Comparative Method Analysis.....	113
	Cross-Case Analysis.....	114
	Case Study Report.....	115
4	RESULTS AND DISCUSSION.....	116
	Results of Content Analysis.....	116
	Case Study Analysis.....	116
	Descriptive Analysis.....	117
	Hispanic Students.....	117
	Balanced Literacy Classroom Teachers.....	125
	Balanced Literacy Instructional Framework.....	126
	Ms. Veronica Winston.....	216
	Ms. Sarah Fairchild.....	129
	Ms. Carole Fletcher.....	134
	Ms. Gloria Villanueva.....	138
	Spradley's Developmental Research Sequence.....	140

5	SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS.....	216
	Single Case Study Summary.....	216
	Hispanic Student.....	216
	Teachers/Classrooms.....	223
	Administration/School.....	229
	Cross Case Study Summary.....	230
	Hispanic Students'.....	230
	Teachers/Classrooms.....	231
	Administrations/Schools.....	234
	Conclusions.....	235
	Limitations.....	240
	REFERENCES.....	241
	APPENDIX	
A	LETTER TO THE SCHOOL DISTRICT.....	261
B	LETTER FROM THE SCHOOL DISTRICT.....	262
C	PARENT PERMISSION LETTER.....	263
D	INSTRUCTIONAL LEVEL OF PARTICIPANTS CHECKLIST PRE-KINDERGARTEN GRADE LEVEL INDICATORS OF ESSENTIALKNOWLEDGE.....	265
E	INSTRUCTIONAL LEVEL OF PARTICIPANTS CHECKLIST KINDERGARTEN GRADE LEVEL INDICATORS OF ESSENTIALKNOWLEDGE.....	267
F	INSTRUCTIONAL LEVEL OF PARTICIPANTS CHECKLIST FIRST GRADE LEVEL INDICATORS OF ESSENTIAL KNOWLEDGE.....	270
G	INSTRUCTIONAL LEVEL OF PARTICIPANTS CHECKLIST SECOND GRADE LEVEL INDICATORS OF ESSENTIAL KNOWLEDGE.....	272
H	INSTRUCTIONAL LEVEL OF PARTICIPANTS CHECKLIST THIRD GRADE LEVEL INDICATORS OF ESSENTIAL KNOWLEDGE.....	274
I	ATTITUDE AND INTEREST STUDENT QUESTIONNAIRE.....	276
J	ADMINISTRATIVE INTERVIEW OF MS. CARLA CAMERON.....	294



K	A. FACULTY INTERVIEW OF MS. VERONICA WINSTON.....	300
L	CORRELATION BETWEEN THE LOUISIANA ENGLISH LANGUAGE ARTS CONTENT STANDARDS AND THE DEVELOPMENTAL READING ASSESSMENT.....	316
M	CORRELATION OF KINDERGARTEN GRADE LEVEL INDICATORS OF ESSENTIAL KNOWLEDGE TO LOUISIANA ENGLISH ARTS CONTENT STANDARDS AND BENCHMARKS.....	323
N	CORRELATION OF FIRST GRADE LEVEL INDICATORS OF ESSENTIAL KNOWLEDGE TO LOUISIANA ENGLISH ARTS CONTENT STANDARDS AND BENCHMARKS.....	326
O	CORRELATION OF SECOND GRADE LEVEL INDICATORS OF ESSENTIAL KNOWLEDGE TO LOUISIANA ENGLISH ARTS CONTENT STANDARDS AND BENCHMARKS.....	329
P	CORRELATION OF THIRD GRADE LEVEL INDICATORS OF ESSENTIAL KNOWLEDGE TO LOUISIANA ENGLISH ARTS CONTENT STANDARDS AND BENCHMARKS.....	333
Q	EAST BATON ROUGE PARISH SCHOOL SYSTEM MISSION.....	336
R	EAST BATON ROUGE PARISH SCHOOL SYSTEM GOALS.....	337
	VITA.....	338

## List of Tables

1. Case Study Method Model.....	102
2. Spradley's Developmental Research Sequence: <u>Domain Analysis</u> .....	141
3. Spradley's Developmental Research Sequence: <u>Taxonomic Analysis</u> .....	147
4. Spradley's Developmental Research Sequence: <u>Componential Analysis</u> .....	157
5. Spradley's Developmental Research Sequence: <u>Cross-Case Analysis</u> .....	182
6. Constant Comparative Method Analysis: <u>Administrative Interview</u> .....	193
7. Frequency Distribution: <u>Administrative Interview</u> .....	198
8. Constant Comparative Method Analysis: <u>Faculty Interview</u> .....	199
9. Frequency Distribution: <u>Faculty Interviews</u> :.....	214

## **ABSTRACT**

This research explores the relative impact of Balanced Reading instruction upon Hispanic students in a highly culturally diverse elementary school. This case study inquiry focuses on Hispanic students learning to read in English in kindergarten, first and third grade, how these Hispanic students are affected by the classroom setting within the context of the Balanced Reading instructional framework of each respective grade, and what are the similarities and differences in the learning methodologies and strategies that impact the learning curve of these Hispanic students.

The researcher collects qualitative data to determine the methods and strategies found to be most effective and frequently used in reading of Hispanic students. Data includes documentation: field notes, observations, interviews, questionnaires, and archival information. This multiple case study inquiry focuses on six Hispanic students: two in kindergarten, one in first grade, and three in third grade. Stratified purposeful sampling is used to facilitate comparisons. Spradley's Developmental Research is used for componential analysis of the three case study groups and the Constant Comparative Method Analysis for analysis of interviews and questionnaires of both administration and teachers. Lastly, cross-case analysis is used to arrive at a more systematic and comprehensive instructional approach for Hispanic students in a highly culturally diverse elementary school.

The findings of the case study conclude the Balanced Reading instructional framework is appropriate for educating Hispanic students in a highly culturally diverse elementary school and these Hispanic elementary students are able to acquire a second language, English, by means of a set of appropriate and effective teaching methods and strategies across the curriculum and diverse elementary grades from certificated teachers who use only English instruction without instructional support. These students are Spanish-speaking students upon entering elementary school and are taught only in an English-speaking environment without the use of translated instructional materials. The use of these

methods and strategies across the curriculum and grade levels validates the theoretical claims that with appropriate teaching all students, no matter their cultural background, can achieve academically (Carlo, August, & McLaughlin, et. al., 2004; Luftig, 2003; Collins & Cheek, 2000; Garcia, 1999; Banks, 1994).

## **CHAPTER 1 INTRODUCTION**

### **Statement of the Problem**

Reading theorists claim that any population of students, no matter what their cultural background, can achieve academically if appropriate teaching methods are implemented (Garcia, 1999).

According to the 2000 Bureau of Census data, Hispanic origin is viewed as the ancestry, nationality group, lineage, or country of birth of the person or the person's parents or ancestors before the arrival in the United States. Persons of Hispanic origin may be of any race and are, therefore, included in the categories of white, black, and "other" (Louisiana Department of Education, 2003). Generally, there are three ethnic subcategories considered within the Hispanic classification: Mexican Americans, Puerto Ricans, and Central Americans. Mexican Americans represent 61% of all Hispanics; Puerto Ricans represent the next largest group, approximately 15%; and Central Americans represent the remaining 24% from countries of Guatemala, El Salvador, Honduras, Nicaragua, Costa Rica, and Panama (Horst, 1998).

Presently, the U.S. Hispanic population is approaching 30 million people. By the year 2005, Hispanics are expected to outnumber African Americans and represent the largest U.S. ethnic minority population. Furthermore, by the year 2050, the Hispanic population is expected to account for 25% of the U.S. population. However, since Hispanics are an ethnic group and are classified on the basis of cultural characteristics, there is and will be considerable diversity reflected in migration patterns and in future demographic differences (Horst, 1998)

Hispanic students in the United States are at high risk. Over the next fifteen to twenty years, Hispanic students are twice as likely as non-Hispanic whites to read well below average for their age. The profile of many of these Hispanic students reads: parents, who are poorly educated, come from low-income families, live in low-income communities,

and attend low-achieving schools (Aulls & Sollars, 2003; National Research Council, 1998b). Luftig (2003) examines low-socioeconomic status (SES) and finds that literacy achievement, overall, among children from low-income, inner-city families consistently falls below national norms. Eamon (2002) and Block, Oakar, and Hurt (2002) note that without excellent instruction in the future a greater number of these students are at greater risk for reading difficulties. Research has demonstrated that teaching expertise makes a significant difference in the rate and depth of students' literacy growth. Data continues to show that economically disadvantaged students, regardless of ethnicity, continue to experience difficulties in reading. As a result of the struggles of Hispanics and other groups, No Child Left Behind Act was enacted on January 8, 2002, to improve the educational opportunities for every American child, regardless of ethnicity, income, or background, to achieve high standards (U. S. Department of Education, 2003).

Carlo, August, and McLaughlin, et al. (2004) and Kao and Tienda (1995) have concluded that, in all academic areas, achievement gaps between non-Hispanics and Hispanics - whether they are born in United States or in a foreign country - appear early and persist throughout their scholastic years. Donahue, Finnegan, Lutkus, Allen, and Campbell (2001) note the existence of a large and persistent gap between the reading performance of Anglo and Hispanic students on national assessments represents both an intellectual and practical challenge. According to the National Assessment of Educational Progress (NAEP) on reading in 2000, only thirty-two percent of fourth graders reads at proficient grade level. Scores for the highest-performing student have improved over time while the scores for the lowest-performing students have declined (National Assessment of Educational Progress, 2001). Research points to the idea that early intervention in elementary school is vital in lessening the effects of poverty on reading achievement (Luftig, 2003).

Hispanic students, many of who are students with special needs or students with language variations, are generally referred to as language minority students since their native

language is not English and primarily live in a non-English speaking environment. Language minority students develop limited abilities of communication due to the fact that they are exposed only to English in school (Hennings, 2002). They also do not recognize multivocality as an important aspect of their language learning without models and explicit guidance (McCafferty, 2002). But studies have indicated that sustained and concentrated reading intervention occurring during the first three years of school leads to significant and meaningful changes in performance on students' proficiency test scores both in reading and mathematics (Apthorp, Dean, Florian, & Lauer, et al. 2001).

Hispanic students' difficulties tend to exist in oral communication and in the ability to read (Kader & Yawkey, 2002; Hennings, 2002). In most elementary schools, students are taught by a process of communication. This communicative process comprises of listening, speaking, reading, and writing (Collins & Cheek, 2000; National Research Council, 1998b). Despite various controversies, there is considerable evidence that suggests that limited and non-English-speaking language learners are more likely to become better readers of English when they receive initial instruction in their native language. In addition, these students are taught the basics of reading in their native language while acquiring oral proficiency in English and should be subsequently taught to extend their first language literary skills to reading in the Standard English language (National Research Council, 1998a).

According to the National Research Council (1998b) research and Apthorp, Dean, Florian, and Lauer, et al., (2001), academic success can be predicted with reasonable accuracy by having knowledge of a student's reading skill at the end of the third grade. If a student does not possess average reading skills by the third grade, this student is unlikely to graduate from high school. The National Assessment of Educational Progress (2001) reports that the average proficiency for low-SES students falls at about the seventh grade and the dropout rates among them rise to nearly one million students per year. Banks, as early as 1994, notes that failing to address the educational concern about the future educational

failure of multicultural students, who are expected to represent 40% of eighth graders and be one grade level or more below expected and normal achievement levels by the year 2026, is an educational shame and crime.

Heilman, Blair, and Rupley (2001) state that there is specific implication of language competence to arrive at reading success. Reading success acquires having competence in understanding written language since reading is an active process of constructing meaning from the written text in relation to the experiences and knowledge of the reader. According to Burns, Roe, and Ross (1995), the reading process is composed of eight components which directly affect a student's ability to read. These eight components of the reading process are sensory, perceptual, sequential, experiential, cognitive, learning, association, and affective. William S. Gray (1960), a reading traditionalist, suggests that the reading process is a four-step process that includes word perception, comprehension, reaction, and integration.

Failure to learn to read adequately for school success is more likely among poor students, who are members of racial minorities, and among students whose native language is not English (National Research Council, 1998a). Collins and Cheek (2000) have delineated a number of factors that affect a student's ability to read. These factors are factors of comprehension: cognitive experience, sociocultural factors, experiential background, prior knowledge, interest, purpose for reading, linguistic experience, and reading rate. Steven G. McCafferty (2002) in his article "Adolescent Second Language Literacy: Language-Culture, Literature, and Identity," reaffirms Rosenthal, Baker, and Ginsburg (1983) that the sociocultural factor of comprehension affects multicultural students more than any other component because the educational failure of diverse student populations relates to a cultural clash between home and school (Garcia, 2000) and to the failure of their home background to provide them the needed experience with Standard American English (Aulls & Sollars, 2003; Pransky & Bailey, 2003; Weber & Longhi-Chirlin, 2001).



Hispanic students develop different cultural and language perspective and dialectical differences which affect the comprehension of complex sentence patterns (Weber & Longhi-Chirlin, 2001; Gemake, 1981). Research by Cockrum and Castillo (1991) reaffirms Harste, Woodward, and Burke (1984) that literacy learning is not affected by one's ethnic origin but more likely by a teacher's unawareness of language experience and learning strategies. Hispanic students learn that experience with the written language rather than socioeconomic status is the operative factor governing knowledge about print. The acquisition of spoken English as a second language has specific differences that students bridge across Spanish and English which are particularly relevant to their progress (Weber & Longhi-Chirlin, 2001). Students need an approach in learning which integrates many elements, such as help in understanding, learning, and using the spelling-sound conventions of the writing system, help in learning more about vocabulary and sentence structure of the written English, and help in monitoring comprehension (Garcia, 2000).

Garcia (1999) and Pransky and Bailey (2003) note that, while curricular programs attempt to increase the body of knowledge about different ethnic, cultural, and gender groups, there is a growing need for research into culturally-based learning styles to determine which teaching style to use with a particular group of students. Achieving educational excellence for all requires an understanding of why do these disparities exist and redressing them with serious and informed efforts. Luftig (2003), U.S. Department of Education (2003), and National Research Council (1998b) note the majority of reading problems faced today could have been avoided or resolved in the early years of school for these students. It is never too early to start building language skills by talking with and reading to children.

### **The Purpose of the Study**

The purpose of this study is to explore the relative impact of Balanced Reading instruction on Hispanic students in a highly culturally diverse elementary school. This study

is inspired by the work of several noted researchers in reading (Carlo, August, & McLaughlin, et. al., 2004; Collins & Cheek, 2000; Harste, Woodward, & Burke, 1984) and in cultural diversity (Luftig, 2003; Garcia, 2000; Banks, 1994; Sleeter & Grant, 1987).

Any population of students, no matter what their cultural background, can achieve academically if appropriate teaching methods are implemented. Many students fail academically because schools do not utilize principles of effective teaching and learning. Research reveals that students most at risk for reading difficulties in the early school years are those students who began school with less verbal skill, less phonological awareness, less letter knowledge, and less familiarity with the basic purposes and mechanics of reading (National Research Council, 1998b).

Educators have only addressed curriculum, not instructional methods or pedagogy. Many single case studies of ethnic groups have been produced but with little empirical data to substantiate the positive effects of implementation (Block, Oakar, & Hurt, 2002). A transactional view of language learning implies that what happens in school context is just as important as understanding the learner. It also signifies that viewing through transactional lens seeks to understand how instruction, a learner's responses and actions, and the social and cultural contexts of learning events change are changed by each other (Block, Oakar, & Hurt, 2002; Kader & Yawkey, 2002; Purcell-Gates & Dahl, 1991).

Academic achievement in many cultural diverse populations has not been enhanced significantly over the past decades. Action for equal opportunity has generated legislative and legal policy to address core societal values. But this action has not brought forth any comprehensive manner how educational equity can be achieved for this cultural diverse population, let alone Hispanic students. It is evident that there is no one best system of instruction for them to arrive at a level of reading success (Garcia, 2000). Block, Oakar, and Hurt (2002) and Sleeter and Grant (1987) state neither has there been produced a set of

comprehensive strategies that address the educational concern of preventing reading difficulties in young children.

With all this said, it is the intent of this researcher to analyze the utility of using a Balanced Reading instructional program, one that uses a variety of teaching approaches, strategies, and materials to teach students what they need to know to Hispanic students in a highly culturally diverse elementary school setting. Ethnographic methods are utilized and provide detailed accounts of the classroom dynamics of learning how to read by providing four case studies of kindergarten, first and third graders. Based on the review of literature, the reading success of the six Hispanic students is examined by analyzing the data for similarities and differences in the classroom environment among these six students. Pseudonyms are given to all participants and institutions to address ethical issues relating to individual rights as to privacy, confidentiality, dignity, and avoidance (Yin, 2003).

Therefore, the purpose of this study is to analyze reading techniques and strategies used in a Balanced Reading instructional program and to discover those systematic and comprehensive instructional reading methods and strategies that support learning for Hispanic students in a highly culturally diverse elementary school.

### **The Setting**

#### The Teachers

Teachers are purposely selected by the instructional framework used in reading. With the approval of the principal, each teacher agrees to participate in this research.

Ms. Veronica Winston, Teacher #1, an African American, is in her forties. She has been a teacher for nineteen years and has taught one year at Randolph Elementary School. Presently, she teaches second grade in the afternoon and third-fourth combination in the morning. She holds a Bachelor of Arts Degree in elementary education plus fifteen graduate hours. She also has ten to twelve hours in administrative supervision. Ms. Winston has

graduated from a southern university and is returning this fall to continue her studies on her Master Degree in education.

Ms. Sarah Fairchild, Teacher #2, an African American, is in her early fifties. She has taught twenty-six years. At Randolph Elementary School, she has taught more than twenty years. Presently, she teaches third-fourth combination in the morning. Ms. Fairchild possesses a Master Degree in education and an additional thirty units in reading. She has attended and graduated from a southern university.

Ms. Gloria Villanueva, Teacher #3, a Mexican American, is in her late forties. She has taught thirty years and has been at Randolph Elementary School for twelve years. Presently, she teaches kindergarten-first combination in the morning. She has received her Bachelor of Science Degree in elementary education, Magna Cum Laude, from Texas and her Master Degree in education, Summa Cum Laude, from a southern university. Ms. Villanueva is certified in administrative supervision and is returning this fall to work on a gifted program.

Ms. Carole Fletcher, Teacher #4, an African American, is in her thirties. She has taught one year and has been at Randolph Elementary School for one year. Presently, she teaches a first-second combination in the morning. She has graduated with a Bachelor of Science Degree in elementary education from a southern university.

All four elementary teachers are qualified in elementary school education and certified to teach in public schools.

#### The School and Community

Currently, this south Louisiana school district has a student population of approximately 52,500 with 3,580 teachers. The ethnic makeup is 21% European American (white) and 77.5% African American (black); those who are Asian Pacific Islanders and Native Americans represent 1.5% (other) (Louisiana Department of Education, 2003).

Randolph Elementary School is a forty-nine year old urban elementary school in a south Louisiana school district. It was built in 1956 and was formerly an all-white school before integration. This school is the center for children who come from forty-four different countries; many are refugees that the Catholic Rights Center brought to the area. Many of their parents attend the nearby university. Randolph Elementary School has a population of 496 students in grades K-5, NG. Non-graded (NG) refers to students not assigned to a specific grade level. The ethnicity of the student population is 75% African American and 25% non-black. There are thirty-five certified faculty members at Randolph Elementary School. The faculty includes principal, all teachers, librarian, and counselor. The ethnicity of the faculty is 57% are European American and 43% are African American. Randolph Elementary School's faculty with a master's degree or higher was 37% compared to the 54% of the school district and 42% statewide. This school has improved in the last two years in its students' scores for both California Achievement Test (CAT) and the Louisiana Education Assessment Program (LEAP).

Class size at Randolph Elementary School tends to be greater in terms of classroom enrollment. Most of the classes are 21-26 students per class with 1-20 students per class being the next higher percentage of class enrollment. Motivation of students at Randolph Elementary School is still high despite of class size. The philosophy at this school is that all students can learn but at different rates. Educators have to find whatever rate pertains to that child and teach to that child's learning style. High expectations are set by the administration, faculty, staff, and parents for the students attending Randolph Elementary School. The administration's goal in the next two years is to have the school become a Blue Ribbon School of Excellence.

Ms. Carla Cameron is Randolph Elementary School's principal. She is in her second year at this position. Previously, she was an assistant principal at another elementary school within the district and has a total of four and one-half years in administration. Ms. Cameron

is a former elementary school teacher with fourteen years of experience. She has both a Bachelor's and Master's Degree in education. She is also certified in elementary education and administration. She has graduated from Southern University and has taken classes at Southeastern as well as at another southern university. She has high expectations for herself, her faculty, and students. She believes that when a student walks through the front door he or she is expected to put out their best effort. This principal is well-educated and dedicated to excellence in education. She is supportive of her faculty, staff, students, and community to provide innovative instruction and a safe environment. High expectation is the by-word of this highly culturally diverse school and its school district.

#### The Classrooms

The classrooms of the teachers are highly conducive to learning. Each teacher maintains an environment organized for available space, materials, and equipment. The furniture of each classroom is arranged, so that students can help each other quietly and yet learn from each other. Each teacher considers the ability of their students and manages their instructional styles to provide productive learning opportunities. The teacher has established expectations for learning behavior to promote a positive learning climate. Transitions of one task to another are done in a fair manner and teacher assistance is always available to each student. The atmosphere of the classrooms is comfortable for a learning environment. Each teacher delivers her instruction effectively with a teacher presentation or by the use of SQ3R strategy, the strategy of survey, question, read, recite, and review.

#### The Students

Six Hispanic students are randomly selected from the kindergarten, first and third grades in a highly culturally diverse elementary school. They are described by family, school attitudes, and personal interests from an Attitude and Interest Student Questionnaire.

## **Significance of the Study**

Carlo, August, and McLaughlin, et al., (2004), Luftig (2003), Block, Oakar, and Hurt (2002), Weber and Longhi-Chirlin (2001), Collins and Cheek (2000), Garcia (1999), Banks (1994), Sleeter and Grant (1987), and Harste, Woodward, and Burke (1984) have all stated that it is possible for the multicultural student population to achieve reading success in the near future if educators would address instructional methods or pedagogy. The need, they state, is to discover a comprehensive and systematic instructional set of methods and strategies, so that this student population can achieve academically. If this be the case, then intervention is necessary to avoid the extreme waste of intellectual potential and valuable human resources found within the multicultural student population (U.S. Department of Education, 2003; Banks, 1994; Kaufman & Frase, 1990).

### The Pilot Study

Units of Analysis. The unit of analysis was an individual, a Hispanic elementary student in the third grade. The primary focus was on what was happening to the individual student in a third grade elementary school setting and how these Hispanic students were affected by the classroom setting within the context of the reading instruction framework of the third grade. The total sample was six third-grade Hispanic students in three regular third-grade classrooms, at two different schools, and three third-grade teachers in a southern parish.

Comparing groups of students in a program and across reading instructional frameworks involved a different unit of analysis (Patton, 2002). There were two students per framework, per case study. There were four boys and two girls who participated in these exploratory multiple-imbedded case studies. The three reading frameworks that were examined were: 1) Basal Readers, 2) Literature-Based, and 3) Balanced Literacy. First comparison involved the demographic group of Hispanic students. Second comparison involved comparing the three case study groups of students across the three reading

instructional frameworks. The last comparison focused on the components of the three reading instructional frameworks found to be most effective and frequently used reading strategies and methods across the three study groups.

Time Sampling. Students were observed a total of forty-five actual hours of observation. Ten hours was spent in interviewing and another ten hours analyzing students' anecdotal records. Delivery of effective instruction occurred in the context of the student-teacher relationship, the teacher's capability at maintaining order, and the expectations of the students and of their parents.

Purposeful Sampling. Homogeneity of the six Hispanic elementary school students was determined by the initial testing of the Second Grade Level Indicators of Essential Knowledge for the Early Childhood Years in Language Arts of the parish which was correlated to the Louisiana English Arts Content Standards and the Developmental Reading Assessment (DRA), by the language first acquired by the students, by the language most often spoken in the home, and by attending a third grade classroom with an English-speaking public school teacher. This homogeneity sample allowed for simplification of analysis and facilitated the interviewing of students.

The criterion to determine if students were proficient learners was the parish school system Third Grade Level Indicators of Essential Knowledge for the Early Childhood Years in Language Arts. Criterion sampling was utilized.

Data Collection. In data collection, observation using Spradley's participation observation, field notes, and interviews of administration and faculty, and attitude and interest questionnaires of students were used.

Data Analysis. In data analysis, a case study format was utilized using descriptive analysis, Spradley's Developmental Research Sequence, Lincoln and Guba's Constant Comparative Method Analysis, and Cross-Case Analysis.



Case Study Report. This report was written in a multiple-case version of the single classic case. The report comprised of multiple narratives about each of the cases individually. In addition, the written report contained a chapter covering the cross-case analysis and results. It followed a linear-analytic structure which is the standard approach for composing research reports.

### **Research Questions**

Based on the review of literature, these questions are formulated to arrive at a more insightful understanding of the reading process of Hispanic students in a highly culturally diverse elementary school.

The three case study research questions are as follows:

- 1) Is a Balanced Reading instructional program appropriate for educating Hispanic students in a highly culturally diverse elementary school?
- 2) How does a Balanced Reading instructional program impact Hispanic students' learning in a highly culturally diverse elementary school?
- 3) What are the most appropriate and effective teaching methods and strategies in reading for Hispanic students in highly culturally diverse elementary schools?

Currently, three primary frameworks for instruction in reading are used in this country. These frameworks are: 1) Basal Readers, 2) Literature-Based, and 3) Balanced-Literacy. Although this study is exploring the relative impact of the Balanced Literacy reading framework on instruction for Hispanic students in a highly culturally diverse elementary school setting, it is necessary that the reader be familiar with the basic philosophy of both Basal Reader and the Literature-Based frameworks.

## **CHAPTER 2 REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE**

### **Historical Overview**

In the field of reading which has been marked by controversies and disagreements, researchers have come to realize that the primary interest of all participants is to ensure the well-being of all students and the promotion of literacy instruction (The Partnership for Reading, 2002). According to Garcia (2000) and Russell (2003), even though efforts have been made at equal opportunity and multicultural education, educators have failed to address a number of important educational concerns that cause reading difficulties in young children as well as provide bilingual education programs for nonnative speakers of English. Garcia (2000) has noted that bilingual programs have not been matched to the most appropriate methods for teaching reading in English to students with special needs or students with language variations. Furthermore, The Partnership for Reading (2002) concurs that, fundamentally, good instruction transcends the characterization of children's vulnerability for failure. Thus, reading is the process of comprehension interrelated with and supportive of the other communication processes: listening, speaking, and thinking (Cockrum and Castillo, 1991; Hayes, 1991).

The goal of education is the engaged reader who is skilled, connected, and reflective. The engaged reader is skilled in the use of the alphabetic code system to support word identification; in the use of strategies to understand, interpret, and express the text; and in the use to adapt reading strategies to specific goals and text characteristics. The engaged reader is connected when the reader understands the imaginative, aesthetic, and artistic self and when the reader develops a knowledge base, personal interests, beliefs, and values. The

engaged reader is reflective when the reader reflects on the processes of reading, personal progress, and development (Farstrup & Samuels, 2002; The Partnership for Reading, 2002; Guthrie & Alvermann, 1999).

According to McCafferty (2002), Hayes (1991), and Duffy and Roehler (1989), the goal of every effective teacher is to view reading with regard to what students must learn than what tasks they must complete. An effective teacher does not provide instruction to get students to complete skill exercises correctly; rather a teacher strives to develop literate students who can read whatever is available to them. An effective teacher has a broad view of reading where reading is a component of language in which the purpose is communication. An effective teacher understands the nature of reading.

#### Hispanics: The Language Minority Student

By definition, Hispanic students are students with special needs or students with language variations. For Hispanics, their difficulties exist in oral communication and in the ability to read. In general, most students in elementary school are taught by a process of communication, a process that comprises of listening, speaking, reading, and writing (Garcia, 2000). Reading is a complex and multifaceted process (National Research Council, 1998a) and should be defined as a process of getting meaning from print, having knowledge about the written alphabet, and the sound structure of oral language in order to arrive and achieve understanding (National Institute for Literacy, 2001; National Research Council, 1998b).

Collins and Cheek (2000) have listed a number of factors that affect a student's ability to read. According to Collins and Cheek (2000), these factors of comprehension are cognitive experience, sociocultural factors, experiential background, prior knowledge,

interest, purpose for reading, linguistic experience, and reading rate. McCafferty (2002) and Gee (1996) supports Ratekin's research (1978) suggesting that attempts to solve the problem of lower reading performance among minority groups, especially African Americans and Hispanics, often focus on sociolinguistic factors, the degree of "fit" between the language and the cultural experience of the child and the language and cultural experience of the instructional materials. Weber and Longhi-Chirlin (2001) and McCafferty (2002) reaffirms Rosenthal, Baker, and Ginsburg (1983) suggestion that the sociocultural factor of comprehension affects Hispanic students more than any other component because the educational failure of diverse student populations is related to the cultural clash between home and school (Russell, 2003; Garcia, 1999) and to the failure of their home background to provide them the needed experience with Standard American English (Smith & Elish-Piper, 2002; Collins & Cheek, 2000; National Research Council, 1998b).

Researchers demonstrate students who possess quantitative knowledge about language and literacy before they enter school attain more qualitative rank of success in reading. However, students need to have oral language skills and phonological awareness to have motivation to learn, an appreciation for literate forms, and a print awareness to gain better knowledge (National Research Council, 1998a).

Hispanic students develop different cultural and language perspectives as well as dialectical differences which affect their comprehension of complex sentence patterns (Weber & Longhi-Chirlin, 2001; Gemake, 1981). Research by Cockrum and Castillo (1991) and Harse, Woodward, and Burke (1984) shows that literacy learning is not affected by one's ethnic origin but more likely affected by a teacher's unawareness of language experience and learning strategies. Smith and Elish-Piper (2002) and the National Research Council (1998b)

report that children who are not exposed to English vocabulary in the home do not have the same opportunity for word meaning and word recognition development as the children who hear English spoken constantly. Kramsch (1995) also reports that whenever possible teachers should capitalize on foreign words in the reading lesson for word attack and meanings, providing the languages have common elements. Language development can work in two directions to a certain extent.

The National Institute for Literacy (2001) and the National Research Council (1998a) characterize three accomplishments of good readers. First is good readers understand the alphabetic system of English to be able to identify printed words. Second is good readers have and use background knowledge and strategies to obtain meaning from print. Third is good readers read fluently. These three characteristics of good readers need to be addressed and well integrated in good reading instruction, enabling young readers to gain reading proficiency. According to Snow, Burns, and Griffin (1998), research shows that students who read well in the early grades are far more successful in later years; those who fall behind, generally, remain behind when it refers to academic achievement.

King (1991) states multicultural and bilingual classrooms are rich environments in which students and teachers learn from one another. As early as the seventies, Simmons (1974), Gibson and Levin (1975), and Ratekin (1978) report in their studies children from different linguistic backgrounds profit from instruction in identical reading materials. Specialized materials prepared to match dialect differences in phonology and grammar or prepared to represent specific cultural experiences appear to be unnecessary for promoting significant progress in reading. Having knowledge of the factors of linguistic differences makes an affective difference in the reading progress of linguistically different children

without the use of specially prepared materials (Russell, 2003). The National Research Council (1998b) reports that children who have difficulty learning to read do not need to have qualitatively different instruction; but, actually, they need the application of the same principles by a teacher who expertly instructs and applies them. Luftig (2003) cites Martin and Spedding work (2002) confirming Austin, Bush, and Huebner (1961) research that if the parents are bilingual that the problem is not quite as great as it is when they speak only their native language and no English. Paratore (2002) notes, that to help beginning readers succeed, home and school need to work together. Aulls and Sollars (2003) note the influence of the home environment on the reading ability of children, especially upon entering first grade. Assessment of specific reading abilities influenced print awareness and book and code knowledge but not word reading accuracy, fluency, or use of strategies prior to formal instruction in first grade.

Russell (2003), Garcia (2000), and Banks (1994) note curricular programs attempt to increase the body of knowledge about different ethnic, cultural, and gender groups while, on the other hand, there is a growing need for research into culturally-based learning styles to determine which teaching style should be used with a particular group of students. The National Research Council (1998b) and Sanders and Rivers (1998) state that effective teachers, those who are well prepared and highly knowledgeable with ongoing support, can effectively make choices from a menu of materials, strategies, and environments. Excellent instruction is the best intervention for students who experience problems learning to read.

### Projected Trends for American Schools

How can multicultural students in elementary school achieve academic success in reading? What is the most effective reading instructional approach that allows multicultural

students to learn to read? There are three well-known reading instructional approaches. Is there one more effective than the other two? Is there need to formulate a fourth reading approach, so that the unfortunate result of 40 percent or more of African Americans and Hispanics will not be one grade level or more below expected and normal achievement levels by the eighth grade? By 2026, the population of nonwhite and Hispanic students is expected to increase to an estimated 70 percent of the total student population (National Assessment of Educational Progress, 2001; Kaufman & Frase, 1990).

As the number of minority students in the United States grows, schools grow heterogeneously. As of 1990, ethnic minorities comprise nearly one-third of the school-age population (Graves, Watts-Taffe, & Graves, 1999). A major indicator of academic success in the United States is completion of high school. Kaufman and Frase (1990) report to the National Center for Educational Statistics (NCES) that grade-level achievement as measured by standardized tests of academic achievement for 8-year-olds and 13-year-olds over the years 1983 to 1989 were performing one or more years below the expected grade level. The data presented categories by gender, race, and ethnicity. At age eight, there was very little difference below-level performance for Anglo Saxons (24.5%), African Americans (25.1%), and Hispanics (25.0%). But by the age of thirteen, the discrepancy was quite significant. At the age of thirteen-years-old, the figure was Anglo Saxons (28.8%), African Americans (44.7%), and Hispanics (40.3%). From third grade to eighth grade, academic achievement dropped significantly for African American and Hispanics. This was worse for African American males and Hispanics males and females. Thus, the result was 40% or more for African Americans and Hispanics are expected to be one grade level or more below expected and normal achievement levels by the eighth grade. The results of the 2000 reading

assessment, in which only fourth-grade students were tested, indicated that African American, Hispanic, and Native American students continue to perform below their peers, citing Kathryn H. Au's article, "Multiculture Factors and the Effective Instruction of Students of Diverse Backgrounds" (Farstrup & Samuels, 2002).

Despite the fact that non-English-speaking students have progressed in achievement over the past fifteen to twenty years, not only are they twice as likely as non-Hispanic whites to be reading below average for their age but also achievement gaps in all academic areas between whites and Hispanics, whether they are U.S. or foreign born, seem to appear early and persist throughout their school careers (Carlo, August, & McLaughlin, et al., 2004; Kao & Tienda, 1995).

The issue of reading achievement for students at economic and educational risk has shown to be predictive of later academic failure. Other correlations of reading failure include self esteem, attitude toward school, and social adjustment (Luftig, 2003).

### **Contemporary Instructional Frameworks Used in Teaching Reading**

Few would argue that learning to read is the utmost important asset that any child can possess. By the time a student enters the fourth grade, that student should have learned to read with sufficient comprehension and fluency to be able to approach new material with confidence. Their success can be traced to a variety of attributes and experiences which may precede their formal schooling. Citing Snow, Burns, and Griffin (1998), Dorothy S. Strickland states in her chapter article, "The Importance of Effective Early Intervention," success is attributed to students having normal or above normal language skills, coming from homes that provide them with motivating and pleasurable experiences with books and literacy and attending schools that offer experiences that help them understand and use



reading to make meaning with print and offer opportunities to read and write (Farstrup & Samuels, 2002).

Currently, three primary frameworks for instruction in reading are used in this country. These frameworks are: 1) Basal Readers, 2) Literature-Based, and 3) Balanced-Literacy. Although this study is exploring the relative impact of the Balanced Literacy reading framework on instruction for Hispanic students in a highly culturally diverse elementary school setting, it is necessary that the reader be familiar with the basic philosophy of both Basal Reader and the Literature-Based frameworks.

#### Basal Readers Instructional Framework

Elementary schools rely heavily on basal instruction (Heilman, Blair, & Rupley, 2001). In the eighties, one study reported that approximately 99.0 percent of schools used basal readers on a regular basis (Durkin, 1981). Estimates suggested that 75.0 percent to 90.0 percent of daily instruction was spent with the basal reading program. Anderson, Scott, and Wilkerson (1985) quote Becoming a Nation of Readers, "The observation that basal programs "drive" reading instruction is not to be taken lightly. The basal instructional programs influence strongly how reading is taught in American schools and what students read" (p. 35). Today, basal readers and literature-based readers are by far the most popular in schools (Heilman, Blair, & Rupley, 2001). In 1992, the Report of the National Assessment of Educational Progress (NAEP) Reading Report Card stated 90 percent to 95 percent of American elementary classrooms used basal readers. NAEP now reports a marked shift in at least fourth-grade instruction. The report states that those in literature-base and whole language programs score significantly higher than average, while those in heavy phonics programs score well below those receiving little or no phonics (Shannon & Goodman, 1994).

## Design and Content of Basal Readers

Each basal reader program differs in its rationale, sequence of skills and strategies, story content, instructional recommendations, and supplemental materials. Encompassing a total reading program with vocabulary development, word identification, oral and silent reading, recreational reading, and comprehension, the basal series have a systematic and comprehensive skills program (Collins & Cheek, 2000). The major content strands of the elementary school reading curriculum cover decoding, comprehension, word meanings, reading-study skills, literature, and independent reading in their particular way. Most basals set meaning as the paramount goal from the outset (Heilman, Blair, & Rupley, 2001). The basal reading series' primary purpose is to develop proficient readers through the use of a series of books that introduces new skills and progresses in reading difficulty (Cheek, Flippo, & Lindsey, 1997). Underlying the basal reading framework is the premise that reading is a developmental task involving the acquisition of major skills and that each of these major skills is comprised of many sub-skills which vary in difficulty and complexity and, therefore, need to be introduced to the reader in a logical, prescribed order (Lapp & Flood, 1986; Hayes, 1991; Barr & Johnson, 1996).

Graded Books. All basal reading series use graded books and stories with teacher's guides to present reading skills as a hierarchy, sometimes referred to as scope and sequence of skills. The term scope and sequence has all but disappeared in the 1993 basals. The term is now known as "program framework" (Houghton Mifflin, 1993), "overview of reading strategies" (Scott & Foresman, 1993), and "goals and outcomes" (Macmillan/McGraw-Hill, 1993). Although the term, "scope and sequence," may be dead, the spirit of the term is much alive in the new basals by having manuals define their scope through a long series of sub-

skills that are organized according to broad domains or strands, citing Goodman and et al. (1988) (Shannon & Goodman, 1994).

Basal publishers have always had the temptation to include many components and to integrate their texts for reading, spelling, writing, handwriting, and English (Shannon & Goodman, 1994). Basal readers emphasize the sequential development of reading skills (Reutzel, 1991; Collins & Cheek, 2000). This hierarchy of skills is designed to indicate to teachers at which grade level certain reading skills are to be introduced and should be taught. In order for the basal hierarchy to be effective, students must master skills as they are taught, so that they can use these skills to help learn those that will be introduced later in the scope and sequence of skills (Cheek, Flippo, & Lindsey, 1997).

Typically, there is more than one book at each level beginning at the readiness stage and continuing through the eighth grade. The materials generally include a collection of reading readiness materials, two or three pre-primers, a primer, a first reader, two texts for the second and third grades, and one text for each of the upper grades (Lapp & Flood, 1986). Each book is a prerequisite to the next level. Each level functions as a prerequisite for success at the next level (Heilman, Blair, & Rupley, 2001).

Basal readers seem especially significant in the primary years. Basal readers place emphasis solely on literal comprehension skills. This level of comprehension primarily requires a student to recall information (Reutzel, 1991; Dechant, 1981).

Controlled Vocabulary. One of the salient features of the basal reading program is a controlled vocabulary. The National Institute for Literacy (2001) notes that vocabulary instruction leads to comprehension gains and is crucial to developing skilled readers. Lapp and Flood (1986) report each reader in the series is carefully graded and vocabulary in each

reader is carefully controlled with enough repetitiveness of words to help students remember the words. Both in isolation and in context, controlled vocabulary and new words are identified and introduced. This is followed by silent and oral reading and by the interpretation of the material that the student has read. In the beginning materials, only a limited number of words are introduced; they are reinforced through repetition on subsequent pages. As the student moves upward through the series, more words are introduced at each level with fewer repetitions. According to Lapp and Flood (1986), the purpose of controlled vocabulary and planned repetition is easily understood: too many new words and too few exposures to new words can easily lead to reading difficulty. Subsequent activities usually involve further skill development (word recognition, comprehension, and study skills) and enrichment activities (National Institute for Literacy, 2001).

One basal reader series lists the following methods by which word-study skills are developed. Graves and Watts-Taffe (2002) and Reutzel (1991) suggest ten methods for word-study skills. The ten methods include the use of picture clues, perception of general configuration, recognition of useful words, and recognition through unusual characteristics of the word, recognition through similarities to known words, use of context clues, phonetic analysis, structural analysis, syllabication, and wide reading.

Language Experience. Teachers function as the primary planners and, generally, organize children's language experience by drawing creatively and discriminately on ideas and selections in the series (Hennings, 2002). Most basal readers, particularly those at the lower levels, are replete with pictures and illustrations. Durkin (2004) suggests that this exists for interest and to tell the story to children who do not have the reading level of a more advanced text. In addition, most basal adjust the ratio of illustration space to print space. At

the lower levels, large illustrations often appear on every page or every other page. By the higher grades, illustrations are sparser, smaller, and more detailed. Reinforcement of skills develops further through the use of newspapers, literature, content areas, textbooks, and other high-interest materials (Russavage, Lorton, & Millham, 1985).

Direct Instruction. In direct instruction, Barr and Johnson (1996) state that the teacher is of utmost importance. The teacher leads the instruction by telling, providing examples, and demonstrating a skill or strategy before students are expected to apply it. The teacher makes the skill or strategy explicit rather than encourage students to discover how to do it themselves (Taylor, Peterson, Pearson, & Rodriguez, 2002). Furthermore, Duffy, Roehler, and Herrmann (1987) research provides evidence that direct instruction is effective in reading for both primary and intermediate grade students. These students profit in learning reading strategies and skills.

According to Rupley, Wise, and Logan (1986), opportunity to learn refers to whether students have been taught the skills relevant to the areas for which they are assessed. Teachers who specify literacy behaviors to be achieved prior to teaching and who teach content relevant to these outcomes have students who achieve at a higher reading level than do teachers who do not. Taylor, Peterson, Pearson, and Rodriguez (2002) concur with Allington (1983) that opportunity to learn coincides with direct instruction.

Direct instruction involves several components. In direct instruction, the first component is identification-where the teacher identifies the skill or the strategy to be learned, its value, and how to help the students apply it. The teacher demonstrates how to do the strategy, tells how to find the answer, and explicates their thinking as they perform. Williams (2002) and Duffy and Roehler (1987) research the importance of making thinking and

reasoning visible to students. The use of "Think Alouds" facilitates the concept of identification to develop comprehension. By thinking aloud, a teacher provides students an opportunity to examine a skilled reader's thinking, so by role modeling students are capable to apply the taught skill as they read a text. Teachers usually model the cognitive strategy in question by "thinking aloud" as they demonstrate what proficient readers do. The second component is called guided practice. Here, the teacher guides the students through a process called responsive elaboration. Both teacher and student collaborate in order to perfect the use of a specific skill or strategy, and the teacher asks questions or provides additional information to further explain the use and application of the skill or strategy to the student. The last component of direct instruction is referred to as periodic review. This stage is to review with the student his/her understanding of the skill or strategy and when it should be used and implemented (Taylor, Peterson, Pearson, & Rodriguez, 2002; Barr & Johnson, 1996).

Many studies state that students make more progress in a classroom in which they spend more direct time in learning and practicing reading (Williams, 2002; Stallings, 1975). Direct instruction is more effective, especially, on students who had been poor learners (Rosenshine, 1979). Williams (2002) cites the goal is, as it always is, the achievement of competent and self-regulated reading. Related to these findings are earlier studies about the greater effectiveness of structured organization versus open classrooms (Rosenshine, 1976). Williams states that the earliest work of Allington (1983) propounds that if teachers do not relate instruction to an assessed learning task or valued outcome students have no opportunity to learn the skill or strategy. Students who do well in learning isolated reading skills as a result of intensive instruction but who do poorly in actual reading lack the

opportunity to learn how to apply such skills in actual reading tasks. Providing students with opportunities to apply their reading and writing skills in meaningful content areas appears to be extremely important. However, teachers need to be certain to use materials that students can handle. The more time students spend on actual reading in which they can be highly successful, the more the students learn. On the other hand, the more students are involved in actual reading tasks that limit success, the less likely the students improve in their learning (Heilman, Blair, & Rupley, 2001).

Skill learning is particularly suitable to direct instruction approach. Rosenshine and Stevens (1986) delineate six instructional functions for teaching well-structured objectives after summarizing the literature on the teaching procedures for direct instruction. Rosenshine and Stevens (1995) note in their findings that teachers who use these procedures consistently see higher-than-average achievement among their students. These functions for teaching well-structured tasks are: review homework, previous learning, and prerequisite skills for the lesson; in presentation of lesson goals or provide outline, new material in small steps by modeling procedures with positive and negative examples, use clear language, and check for student understanding to avoid digressions (Rosenshine & Stevens, 1995). Duke and Pearson (2002) note that no comprehension activity has a longer or more pervasive tradition than asking students questions about their reading, whether this occurs before, during, or after the reading. In this instance, the teacher should use guided practice by having a high frequency of questions with all students responding and receiving feedback and continue practice until students are fluent, providing sustaining feedback, clues, or reteach material if necessary; provide independent practice by students receiving an overview and/or help

during initial steps. The teacher provides active supervision, uses routines to provide help for slower students, and reviews on weekly and monthly basis.

The majority of learning objectives in teaching literacy are classified as either skills or strategies. Both types of learning are important for success in literacy. However, they require different lesson-presentation methods. Dole, Duffy, Roehler, and Pearson (1991) note that skills involve lower-level cognitive processing, are specific in nature, and are more or less automatic routines. Literacy skills include the various decoding methods used in phonics, structural analysis, and context analysis; specific skills of comprehension such as recognizing sequential development, fact versus opinion, and a stated main idea; reading study skills such as using an index and interpreting a bar graph; and writing skills as capitalization, punctuation, and spelling. The shift from a reading and study skills paradigm to cognition and learning paradigm became noticeable in the 1970s and 1980s reading field (Vacca, 2002).

Heilman, Blair, and Rupley (2001) suggest that strategies require higher level cognitive processing, are less specific in nature than skills, and emphasize intentional and deliberate plans under the control of the reader. According to Rosenshine and Meister (1995), cognitive strategies include summarizing a story, reacting critically to what is read, editing a piece of writing, and the use of scaffolds by the teacher to help students bridge the gap between their current abilities and the intended goal.

Thus, opportunity to learn, ongoing assessment, structure, and direct instruction are related. The reading instruction that is offered must relate to assessment data, desired outcomes, instructional format, and application in actual reading tasks. Opportunity to learn



should reflect the desired learning outcomes, not simply cover the content (Heilman, Blair, & Rupley, 2001).

Guided Reading. Guided reading is reading instruction in which the teacher provides the structure, including the purpose, for reading and for responding to the material read. It is the third step of a directed reading lesson (Roe, Stoodt, & Burns, 2004). It is composed of silent reading, discussion, and oral reading (when appropriate). As noted before, guided reading establishes the reading purpose and the actual reading of the selection. This purpose may be in the form of teacher-constructed questions or a study guide. Students formulate questions based on boldfaced headings or predictions about the selection to guide their reading. In this instance, students read to confirm or deny their hypotheses. After the purposes have been set, students read silently to fulfill them. Teachers should not ask students to read orally unless they have had a chance to read the selection silently first. This avoids embarrassment that arises from inability to pronounce words or lack of familiarity with phrasing patterns (Roe, Stoodt, & Burns, 2004).

According to Parker C. Fawson and D. Ray Reutzel (2000) in their article, "But I only have a basal: Implementing guided reading in the early grades," the goal of guided reading is to assist students in becoming independent, fluent, silent readers through a teaching process that scaffolds students' selection and application of a variety of effective reading strategies (Swartz & et al., 2002). Cunningham and Cunningham (2002) state guided reading instructional time provides students with guided practice in applying the phonics skills they have been taught during the working-with-word sessions. Self-selected reading and writing instructional times each provide students with both guided and independent practice (Cunningham & Cunningham, 2002).

Guided Reading Strategy suggested by Collins and Cheek (2000) begins first with a purpose for reading clearly stated, so that the student begins to read the designated material silently. This material can be a basal reader, a newspaper, a library book, an experience story, etc. Secondly, after students read silently, the teacher asks comprehension questions that relate to the purpose given for reading and to the diagnosed comprehension skill needs of the individual student. The teacher asks students to identify character moods by verbalizing their statements with appropriate expression. Following the comprehension check of silent reading, students are asked to read portions of the story orally to locate specific information or for some other definite purpose.

The guided or directed reading lesson format helps the teacher to organize lessons through the use of a specific step-by-step procedure that incorporates the area important to the development and application of reading skills. By following this procedure, teachers provide direct instruction to relate learning to the lesson and to show students how learning is applied. Teachers can deviate from this structured format to give variety to their lesson plans or to adjust their instruction to different materials or approaches in order to better meet the student's needs. However, a teacher needs to keep this procedure in mind for every lesson, so that the necessary elements of a good reading lesson are present (Collins & Cheek, 2000; Reutzel, 1991).

With a focus on a process of summary writing, Manzo (1975) enhances students' study skills by developing GRASP, the Guided Reading and Summarizing Procedure, based on the Guided Reading Procedure. The goals of GRASP are to develop skills that students can apply independently in writing reports, sharpening of their abilities to recall materials they read, encouragement of self correction, and improvement in their organizational skills.

In the preparation phase of GRASP, the teacher explains the purpose of the procedure. The selection given to the students to read should be 500 to 1500 words long. The students make a list of all remembered facts. Rereading takes place to fill in information that was originally left out and to make corrections in the original listing. Then major topics in the text are determined, and the information is categorized by topic. Finally, a summary is formed by including only the important information, compressing and combining information, and adding any information needed for a coherent account (Hayes, 1989).

Directed Reading Activity. The Directed Reading Activity (DRA) is a total lesson approach. The purpose of the Directed Reading Activity, frequently associated with the format of the basal reading lesson, includes improvement of word recognition and comprehension (Betts, 1957). Its purpose is also to give teachers a basic format from which to provide systematic instruction on a group basis (Tierney, Readence, & Dishner, 2000). A Directed Reading Activity is designed to provide students the necessary guidance for reading a selection (Duke & Pearson, 2002; Reutzel, 1991; Criscoe & Gee, 1984).

The DRA is synonymous with the basal reader lesson. Betts (1957) compiles guidelines various authors of basal readers generally recommend for teaching their reading selections. The general plan originated as a comprehension means to provide reading instruction to students through a reading selection (Huebsch, 1991; Reutzel, 1991; Dechant, 1981). The intended audience is the elementary grades, but the teacher can adapt it for any reading selection. Shephard (1982) illustrates the use of DRA with the content area textbooks from middle school grades through high school. Although there may be minor differences as to what constitutes the DRA, it usually contains the following components, all of which the teacher modifies to fit a student's need. There are five stages in the Directed

Reading Activity: 1) readiness, 2) directed silent reading, 3) comprehension check and discussion, 4) oral rereading, and 5) follow-up activities (Tierney, Readence, & Dishner, 2000).

Readiness or preparation stage of DRA involves getting students ready to enter the story by relating the story selection to their past experiences (Collins & Cheek, 2000), developing their interest in reading it, and setting their purposes for reading (Reutzel, 1991; Criscoe & Gee, 1984).

According to Reutzel (1991) and Criscoe and Gee (1984), four components comprise the readiness stage of the DRA. The first component is to develop concept background. The teacher connects the new concepts that the students are exposed to in the reading selection with their previous experiences or readings. The teacher clarifies any misconceptions or understandings by the students before they read the story. The teacher helps build students' background through various means, including discussions centering on the story title and illustrations in the selection and personal experiences of the students related to the story content, films, pictures, maps, or other audiovisual media. The second component is to create interest. The teacher creates interest in the early stages through the mechanical side of the selection alone, its title and the various illustrations. However, the teacher may choose to read a short, introductory portion of the selection in hopes of inspiring the students to want to read the rest. At other times, the teacher uses multimedia material and/or experiences to stimulate interest. Component three is to introduce new vocabulary. To emphasize word meanings, the teacher introduces vocabulary in context, both orally and visually. Generally, a teacher introduces no more than five words at once. Component four is to establish purpose. Concise purpose for reading a selection determines the quality of the readers'

comprehension, and the teacher poses questions for the students to answer in their silent reading. Readiness or preparation should take approximately five to fifteen minutes but vary in length and emphasis according to the ability of the students (Graves & Watts-Taffe, 2002; Tierney, Readence, & Dishner, 2000).

Next is directed silent reading of the assignment. During this stage, the student attempts to answer the purpose questions (Reutzel, 1991; Criscoe & Gee, 1984). The teacher should have students read the selection silently, not orally. This way is more rapid, and it is more characteristic of everyday reading needs. It gives the students an opportunity to use their work attack skills without expressed effort (Tierney, Readence, & Dishner, 2000).

Comprehension check and discussion, the third stage of Directed Reading Activity, is when students answer orally the purpose questions. Discussion activities follow each silent reading segment that is assigned. The purpose-questions set during the readiness stage begin on the other aspects of the selection (Williams, 2002; Collins & Cheek, 2000). During the discussion, it is appropriate to stress and develop the comprehension skills (Tierney, Readence, & Dishner, 2000). Literal, organizational, inferential, evaluative, creative, and integrative comprehension is sampled and tested (Dechant, 1981).

Oral rereading, stage four, allows students to verify answers to purpose questions and to solve new problems that occur as a result of oral discussions. The teacher sets new purposes independently or develops them out of the discussion. New purposes serve as a preparation for a follow-up activity. Rereading also occurs if students are confused about one of the discussion questions (Collins & Cheek, 2000). This allows the teacher to measure oral reading comprehension and to evaluate the student's phrasing, pronunciation, intonation, etc. (Duke & Pearson, 2002).

Finally, the follow-up activity, stage five, helps extend skill development, enrichment, and understanding of a selection. These activities involve creative work, study activities, or extended reading. Creative work includes writing about personal experiences related to the story, preparing dramatizations, and making illustrations for the story. Study activities include workbook exercises and teacher practice material. Students also do research into the information they gain from the selection in order to organize it into a chart or table format (Tierney, Readence, & Dishner, 2000).

According to Duke and Pearson (2002) and Tierney, Readence, and Dishner (2000), the effective use of the Directed Reading Activity requires the teacher to be sensitive to the students' needs, to differential demands of the text, and to the adequacy of the Directed Reading Activity as a lesson framework. In this respect, the Directed Reading Activity seems to have one shortcoming; namely, it is too teacher-dominated because teacher and pupil interaction flows mainly from the questions and the activities that the teacher prescribes; Dechant's concern (1981) is the fact that if skills instruction is too rote or isolated from a selection, as worksheets exercises often are, then the skills become meaningless. In conclusion, Directed Reading Activity does have the adaptive potential to strengthen classroom management and ability grouping as in earlier research by Dechant (1981) noted.

Ehri and Nunes (2002) and Heilman, Blair and Rupley (2001) suggest that the teaching of phonics is as much a part as is Directed Reading Activity. Whether the teacher uses an analytic or synthetic approach, the most beneficial teaching method of phonics is direct/explicit instruction. Skills that are best taught and learned through the direct/explicit instructional approach ensure student mastery of phonic, structural and contextual analysis skills and strategies. The teacher in a direct/explicit instruction gives direct, step-by-step

explanations of the skill or strategy. The teacher explains to the student the "why" and "when" of the strategy.

In conclusion, Barr and Johnson (1996) suggests that the dilemma for teachers is how to achieve two goals: helping students understand the usefulness and pleasure of reading and writing and assuring that they develop knowledge about printed words and word identification. Whereas, Chall's research (1983) demonstrates that reading programs with the most systematic development of letter-sound associations and sight words lead to high reading achievement, particularly for those students who are at least able to infer relationships on their own.

Accountability. Interest in accountability has remained and even increased. The number of basal reader tests has also. Publishers consider consumable tests to be a very important part of the packages they produce. Schools using a basal series typically administer not only an annual standardized reading achievements test but also the end-of-unit level tests that a basal company supplies. End-of-unit tests are given after students finish a group of selections in a reader. Once the entire reader is completed, an end-of-level test can be administered (Durkin, 2004). Accountability has become the byword for No Child Left Behind (U.S. Department of Education, 2003; The Partnership for Reading, 2002).

Teacher's Materials. All basal programs include a tremendous number of materials for both teacher and students. For teachers, programs include a teacher's edition for each level, giving detailed lesson plans for each story in the student's book; a complete listing of strategies and skills for developing reading, writing, listening, and speaking processes at each level; assessment procedures; and provide suggestions for a step-by-step teaching program. As well, there are prepared pictures of characters, teaching charts, posters,

transparencies, and word cues for specific stories with various films, filmstrips, recordings, videos, videodiscs, audio cassettes, impact discs, and CD-ROM storybooks and practice activities (Durkin, 2004; National Research Council, 1998b).

A basal program management system includes an informal reading inventory or placement test, criterion-referenced pretests and posttests for each level, phonic inventories, alternative assessments for both reading and writing, portfolio assessments, and various record-keeping devices (Heilman, Blair, & Rupley, 2001).

Students' Materials. For students, basal programs include a variety of materials. For one, students have a student book and a workbook for each level. For another, literature libraries including high-interest/low-vocabulary paperback books are provided, including readiness posters and big books. Students also receive writing portfolios and the use of computer software programs. Finally, students' materials include supplementary games and activities to practice the skills and strategies being taught (Heilman, Blair, & Rupley, 2001; Reutzel, 1991; Lapp & Flood, 1986).

The use of basal readers and workbooks develops reading skills as outlined in the teacher's manual. Basal readers allow for a developmental continuum of skills which is a series of individual skills taught through the basal lessons and reflect the testing programs of the school district or state. Whether basal readers are effective or ineffectiveness as a reading instruction approach is inconsequential since there is a rationale that basal readers ensure better test scores on skill-oriented local and state tests (Collins & Cheek, 2000).

Properly used, workbooks serve as ongoing diagnostic instruments. They identify individuals who do not understand a particular reading strategy or skills. A study of miscues alerts the teacher where to provide further instruction. Workbook exercises are brief, usually



one page, which makes them especially appealing to students with short attention spans (Heilman, Blair, & Rupley, 2001).

Graves, Watts-Taffe, and Graves (1999), Reutzel (1991), and J. Osborne (1984) recommend fifteen points for basal workbooks effectiveness. In the process of reading instruction, workbooks should be matched with the learning taking place in the lesson. They suggest that the use of workbook activities should be systematic, cumulative, and meaningful in relation to the review of instruction. Furthermore, workbook activities should match the most important learning occurring in the reading program. For students that need extra practice, the workbook should be able to provide relevant tasks for reinforcement. There should be a correlation between the vocabulary and concepts of the workbook with the experiential and conceptual background of the student.

Graves, Watts-Taffe, and Graves (1999) stress consistency should exist in regards to language and the instructional process. Clear and easy instructions should be given in order to help students understand the learning process. Osborne (1984) suggests pages of the workbook layout should be attractive and useful. A teacher to ensure learning should plan to have sufficient content in the reading instruction. Workbook content should be accurate and precise. Some lessons should be recreational in nature. Consistent response from students should be considered by the teacher as one workbook activity is introduced to another. As Graves, Watts-Taffe, and Graves (1999) and J. Osborne (1984) point out, there should be a close correlation between reading and writing response modes, and discussions and illustrations about the various tasks related to reading should accompany workbook activities.

Basal Improvements. After years of being criticized for not changing significant aspects of their programs, recent research by the National Reading Research Center concludes that the newer basals reflect major changes in the literacy field. According to McCarthy and Hoffman (1995), student texts offer reduced vocabulary control (Ryder & Graves, 1994) with minimal adaptations with more diversity of genre. The basal readers are more engaging literary quality, more predictable, and increased decoding demands. Newer teacher's editions are different in underlying instructional design, replacing a directed reading model with a shared reading model (Graves, Watts-Taffe, & Graves, 1999). McCarthy and Hoffman (1995) note that vocabulary is introduced in the context of the stories; however, there are fewer questions of comprehension offered and lesser degree of focus on skills and isolated skills instruction with more integration. Assessment tools are broadened to a portfolio approach; the tone is less prescriptive, moving in the direction of a "teacher-as decision maker" model.

Language-Driven Basal Reader. In their findings, Collins and Cheek (2000) and Hennings (2002) note that many current and new basal series are language oriented using story content of children's literature books, variety of characters, and less rigidly controlled vocabulary. Basal manuals encourage teachers to incorporate writing activities and language experiences into their teaching plans. Teachers begin with a series of poems or a novel of their own choosing that connects to the theme of a unit in the reading series.

In the language-based approach, basal readers lend themselves as supplements in class while children's literature remains the primary sources for reading experiences (Collins & Cheek, 2000). Baumann (1984) suggests that the strengths of the language-experience and individualized-reading approaches can be incorporated into the basal reader program

resulting in the integration of more reading and writing activities into the basal reader lessons which provide a change of pace for the students. He also asserts that positive student attitudes toward reading are promoted and a more creative strategy teaches vocabulary and comprehension skills. As to Reutzel (1991) and Baumann (1991), they state that comprehension skills are stressed from the beginning readiness books throughout the basal reading series with concepts being explored and developed as children are provided with opportunities to discuss personal experiences before reading the new selections. Furthermore, children read for meaning as they identify the main ideas and related details, recall story events in proper order, imagine themselves in the characters' roles, and take part in activities that require critical and creative reading.

Literature-Driven Basal Reader. Shannon and Goodman (1994) note that newer basal readers are including more literature in their current versions. However, the bad news is that the literature is being basalized, citing Goodman, Maras, and Birdseye's (1994) article, "Look! Look! Who stole the pictures from the picture book?" It is considered heretical to fit literature into the format and structure of the basals because they are being changed from picture books to illustrated stories which makes them less authentic, difficult to read, and less enjoyable. In the didactic framework of the basals, picture books are made more difficult for children to predict, to make sense of, and to learn from (Shannon & Goodman, (1994).

Green-Wilder and Kingston (1986) state basals can serve as a better model for students if the value of reading would be depicted in stories as an integral part of daily life. However, Templeton (1986) also suggests that some basal readiness activities should be avoided or postponed in order that students should first have direct experience with books and shared reading.

New literature-driven basal readers have many interesting characteristics. In the new literature-driven basal readers, integrated language arts are emphasized not only during reading instruction but also in the content areas. The driving force is quality literature with thematic units designed to facilitate student learning and appreciation. This stresses together reading and writing. For both regular basal readers and supplemental libraries, appealing, high-quality literature is carefully selected. The increased focus is on multicultural literature (National Research Council, 1998b). According to Heilman, Blair, and Rupley (2001), lesson recommendations reflect the idea that reading is an interactive, constructive, and strategic process. Lessons give explicit attention to teaching decoding skills and strategies and comprehension strategies. Instruction includes use of authentic literature and prior knowledge in story preparation. Thinking and problem-solving abilities are taught through literature. According to Graves, Watts-Taffe, and Graves (1999), cooperative and partner grouping are encouraged. Assessment is viewed as ongoing and is linked directly to instruction using a variety of informal and formal measures. Above all, a real partnership is fostered between the school's elementary program and the home.

#### Advantages of Basal Readers

There are many advantages to the basal approach. For one, Collins and Cheek, (2000) suggest that the basal approach encourages continuity for elementary students as they progress through the lower grade levels and as they transfer to the various schools using the same basal series. Continuity in skill development is important in a program using a skills approach. The use of basal readers lessens the possibility of reemphasizing some skills and ignoring other significant skills. Most teachers tend to feel comfortable with basal lessons

because they believe that the lessons are developed by reading specialists who know what needs to be taught.

Durkin (2004) states another advantage of using a good basal series is the teacher's edition. These editions contain a variety of instructional procedures, lesson plans, and rationales for using certain materials and instructional procedures. Beginning teachers benefit by becoming familiar with the rationales and concrete suggestions that basal readers contain whereas experienced teachers take what is offered and adapt it in light of their experiences and their students' learning needs. Teachers' editions are beneficial if teachers use them properly. Teachers need to know their students' learning needs better than any teacher's guide. Basal materials work best for knowledgeable, flexible teachers who view manuals as a compilation of suggestions that they can use, modify, or discard.

Many teachers, administrators, and parents believe a basal approach to be the best alternative to providing good reading instruction in the elementary grades. These reasons for support are that they relate to their experiences, support their philosophical beliefs about reading instruction, and provide the necessary plans and materials to implement their philosophy in the classroom (Collins & Cheek, 2000).

Another advantage is that teachers can implement an eclectic instruction to reading instruction with the use of the developmental continuum of basal readers. Reutzel (1991) and Morrow (2002) state teachers can modify their basal reading program in numerous ways to help achieve their reading goals by systematically analyzing and monitoring individual skill needs. Teachers can follow the flow of students' ideas in a story discussion and use this information to detect and remediate a lack of comprehension. With modification of the basal reading program, teachers can provide practice in critical thinking and set purposes for

reading through self-generated students' questions. In some school districts, teachers are required to organize children's reading/writing activities around a basal series containing selections groups as units (Hennings, 2002).

### Disadvantages of Basal Readers

Overall, every instructional framework has limitations and basal readers are not an exception. Some of the basal series limitations are: the syntactic structure is different from that of the students reading them; the use of controlled vocabularies tends to create dull and repetitive stories of questionable literary value; stories in basal readers typically emphasize middle-class situations and values (Garland, 1978; Reutzel, 1991) rather than presenting a diverse sociocultural perspective (Cheek, Flippo, & Lindsey, 1997) and the inclusion in basal readers of abridged versions of good stories (Durkin, 2004). Since basal reading series are considered to comprise a total reading program, there is a tendency for some teachers to neglect other experiences that could enhance their overall reading program. Some teachers follow the teacher's manual verbatim without considering the specific needs of their individual students (Cheek, Flippo, & Lindsey, 1997).

Each stage of reading development has its own tasks and crises. Evidence points to the need for more challenging instructional materials. Materials in reading textbooks, specifically basal readers, tend to focus on enjoyment and fun, presenting narrative fiction almost exclusively even during the middle and upper grades. A developmental view of reading suggests the need for greater use of expository materials and of subject-matter textbooks and literature in the teaching of reading, particularly from fourth grade on (Chall, 1995).

Other disadvantages of basal readers are comprehension of new concepts and the reading of a variety of sources. For poor readers to acquire comprehension, teachers need to readjust time and instruction for students to gain knowledge of the basic concepts. These students become lost when many concepts are introduced that build on each other progressively. Students who read basal readers are accustomed to one text at a time and are not accustomed to reading a variety of sources. Difficulty increases when students are required to switch from one material to another, to use unfamiliar formats of the various sources, and to understand the various levels of readability (Collins & Cheek, 2000).

The exclusive use of a basal approach is insufficient for those who need to function independently with minimum skill instruction from the teacher, except for those who have minimum skill knowledge but need the language foundation prior to learning skills and those who need to continue to develop reading skills in a structured manner. The basal approach can serve some of the student's instructional needs but not entirely. Teachers need to incorporate other approaches throughout the teaching process to maximize the learning potential of all students. Procedures that teachers can use to help students learn from expository text are those whose purpose is to teach students how to go about learning on their own (Durkin, 2004).

According to Cheek, Flippo, and Lindsey (1997), another disadvantage with the exclusive use of a basal approach is the problem that students do not learn the introduced skills at the same rate, nor do they bring the same perspectives to the reading process. There are factors such as characteristics of the reader, experiential background, and linguistic and sociocultural differences that alone or in combination affect reading-skill development.

For another, Cheek, Flippo, and Lindsey (1997) and Durkin (1981) research has shown that basal reading teacher's manuals negatively influenced reading instruction by stressing more assessment, application and practice exercises rather than direct and explicit instruction. Teachers tend to ignore many of the instructions given in the manuals resulting in the ineffectiveness of the basal reading approach. Neither are manuals to be used as a replacement for teacher-student interactions nor as busywork.

In addition, there exist many problems in the transition of reading skills from basal readers to content materials. According to National Research Council (1998b), changing from the basal readers in elementary school to the use of content materials in the upper grades, especially in the third and fourth grades, creates great difficulties for both good as well as poor readers. Difficulty is caused by such factors as a different format, application of reading and writing skills, vocabulary, and the numerous concepts presented in new content material. Those who lack experience of the consistent language patterns found in basal readers have greater difficulty in transferring skills learned from the basal readers approach. Furthermore, for many of these readers, this transition from the basal readers to content materials causes feelings of greater inadequacy, poor self-esteem, lower academic performance, and frustration.

The application of higher level reading skills is another disadvantage of basal readers. Content materials have higher-level reading skills that are interpretative and critical reading skills at the inferential and interpretative levels. Basal readers, on the other hand, are at the literal comprehensive level. Collins and Cheek (2000) research asserts that the effectiveness of the basal readers is not limited if and only if the teacher knows how to apply the skills learned from the basal readers to the content materials. Evolving from the transition



from the basal readers to the content materials is coping with the compactness of the material itself where students encounter a mass of unrelated facts. Students who have had only basal readers are more accustomed to a limited number of related facts and, as such, poor performance results if the learning process and the teaching style are not reconsidered in the teaching of learning facts.

Basal readers in elementary and middle grades have long been the vehicles used to maintain control of readability levels and to make certain that some type of sequence of teaching reading is adhered to. The central concern of basals is vocabulary control (Friedman & Rowls, 1980). Both Friedman and Rowls (1980) and the National Research Council (1998b) note greater independence in learning vocabulary is required than in reading basal readers. Basal readers do not require the teacher to teach how to learn on their own. Level of difficulty in technical and specialized vocabulary is also much higher than encountered in basal readers. Greater number of vocabulary is introduced over a shorter span of time in content reading but is not the case in the reading of basal readers. Pittelman and Heimlich (1991) and Graves and Watts-Taffe (2002) suggest that teachers need to be more responsible for the development and clarification of vocabulary which is distinctly appropriate to the particular content being studied. Comprehension of content materials is dependent upon the understanding of the meaning of the specific content word or required vocabulary.

Furthermore, basal readers are written on a variety of readability levels. Stories in basals range across as many as four to six grade levels in terms of readability and the introduction of new vocabulary is largely arbitrary. The usefulness of the basal reader is compromised if students are reading at the same point in the basal readers. New vocabulary needs to be introduced systematically and at a comprehensible rate for students to learn it

thoroughly and appears to be the most effective manner to deal with the maintenance of optimal predictability (Reutzel, 1991; Friedman & Rowls, 1980).

### Literature-Based Instructional Framework

Educators in recent years have used more children's literature than in the past to enrich the reading program (Laughlin & Swisher, 1990). The literature-based reading framework was initially introduced because there were no other materials available in an overcrowded elementary school. The intent of literature-based reading is to allow students to read a variety of quality children's literature. The purpose is to develop an enjoyment for reading as students' progress into mature readers (Collins & Cheek, 2000).

According to Charlotte Huck, the value of literature for students is overwhelming. For one, literature helps students develop insights and understandings of the world. It helps students develop imagination and develop their "interior landscape" to visualize settings and events. Most of all, literature helps students develop a sense of wonder and joy in living (Laughlin & Swisher, 1990).

### Design and Content of Literature-Based

Teachers who believe in literature-based approach view literature as being the central focus of teaching and learning. As the primary medium through which children develop communication and reading facility, the literature-based approach engages students in the understanding of content areas such as social studies, science, and health. It allows a way for children to extend their firsthand experiences and understand what is happening in their lives and in the world around them giving them experiences with language and a new appreciation of the way language works (Hennings, 2002).

Language Experience. Students build language facility as they react in oral and written form to people and ideas in literature. Language presents endless avenues for creative engagements through which students gain understanding of how the language works and teaches how to handle the standard spoken and written forms of language. This is referred to as "language together" and represents how students can play with it as follows: it represents speech sounds on paper; it builds words from root, affixes, and other words; and it changes words through use. Language experience puts words together in sentences, expands, and transforms sentences; it uses punctuation marks, pauses, tone, and pitch of voice to communicate meaning (Hennings, 2002; National Research Council, 1998b).

Units, which are flowing blocks of experiences that focus on a particular theme, literary element, author, genre, book, or topic, are integrated and provide students with many opportunities to listen, speak, write, read, and think. Within a unit, students respond to a series of related stories, poems, chapters, and/or expository selections, tap into related areas such as art and music, and get involved with some form of technology (Hennings, 2002). A well-organized unit lends to student's reading and writing and provides an overarching framework for planning daily lessons (Brozo & Simpson, 2002).

Language experience is a viable method of improving reading skills. The idea is that what a student can think, he can say; what he can say can be written; what can be written, can be read (Brozo & Simpson, 2002; Williamson, 1977).

Thematic Units. One kind of literature-based unit that can be organized as part of the language arts/reading program is thematic; language experiences grow out of a series of pieces that relate in some way to a common theme or message. The literature that students read together or alone and from which it arises is called the integrative dimension. Any additional literature that relates to the theme from which students select books, articles, and poems to read on their own is referred to as the independent dimension. Thematic units offer

elementary teachers endless opportunities to use literature for extending and enriching learning across disciplines (Wepner, 1993; Brozo & Simpson, 2002).

Literary Element Units. A second type of literature-based unit is organized around a literary or language element. This refers to the way language is handled on paper or a pattern through which a story develops (Hennings, 2002; Graves, Watts-Taffe, & Graves, 1999). Literary elements that can be handled in a similar way are as follows: 1) symbolism, 2) verbal style, including use of figurative language; 3) pictorial style, 4) characterization, and 5) tension and its source. This kind of unit is not often found in elementary classrooms as recent research seems to suggest (Graves, Watts-Taffe, & Graves, 1999; Allen, 1995).

Author-Based. A third type of literature unit is author-based. Students read selections by one author to learn something about style in writing and more particularly about the style of that author.

Genre-Based. A fourth kind of literature unit is genre based. In this type of unit, students may read several folktales, narrative poems, tall tales, fables, or biography, in order to heighten understanding of a particular genre.

Chapter Book. The fifth variety of literature unit is organized around a chapter book. The chapter book is a full-length novel in its original form. Activities of listening, speaking, and writing flow out of reading the core novel. At appropriate points, students read poems and articles that relate to the novel's theme, setting, and author. Extended novel units are becoming popular, starting as early as second grade. Many teachers do several novels a year with their students (Zarrillo, 1989).

Topical. Another variety of literature unit that has the potential to be considered superficial is topical. In a topical unit, teachers organize experiences around a series of literary selections that relate to a topic such as chocolate, dragons, bears, and such. These are said to be superficial because they are shallow topics that are too common in primary programs. A topic is just considered a subject and not a theme (Shanahan, 1995).

Webbing. For the content areas, teachers should use a highly useful process known as webbing, which will identify important concepts and subtopics after having established a theme for a unit of study (Huck, Hepler, & Hickman, 2004). The connections between subtopics are indicative of another important benefit of unit teaching. The scope of a unit is broad enough to reveal relationships between different aspects of a topic, thereby helping students bring information together, expand schemata, and improve overall understanding of the topic (Brozo & Simpson, 2002; Duke & Pearson, 2002). Huck, Hepler, and Hickman (2004) recommend integrating or webbing the curriculum around thematic topics or through children's literature.

Picture Books. The National Research Council (1998b) and Danielson (1992) found that picture books serve as motivators for reading with junior high school students. They also develop critical thinking skills, to make a connection between reading and writing, and to develop vocabulary for high school students. They add spice to content classes. Middle school teachers find value in reading to their students daily. Read Alouds by the teacher from literature that would cause reading difficulty for some students can enhance study in any content area and can entice students to read other sources (Barrentine, 2002; Sharer, Peters, & Lehman, 1995).

Oral Role Playing. In the upper grades, students can develop the ability to use sentence patterns by the same kind of play with language. As a part of their reading stories, students can chorus story sentences, using their voices to signal the periods, exclamation marks, and question the author has provided to "show us how to read sentences." Research supports the contention of oral role playing with sentences affects the ability to write complete sentences (Strong, 1991; Porter, 1972). Literature-based language play helps students to refine their ability to use language effectively and understand how language works. Every aspect of language is open to these kinds of engagements (Hennings, 2002).

Grouping. Literature-based reading can be used with an entire class or an individual student. Teachers who believe that the classroom should function as a community of learners, so that students interact and collaborate with one another as well as think, write, and read independently. Teachers can structure whole-class, collaborative-group, and one to-one interactions. At times, teachers organize the classroom as a workshop where students read and write on their own and work on personalized learning tasks (Hennings, 2002).

Independent small-group activity generally emerges from whole-class instruction. There are writing workshops with two-or three-person teams interacting. Students can be involved in oral and writing composing, including prewriting and rewriting tasks. During a reading workshop, students pair off to read to each other. In study teams, students discuss literary selections and prepare them for telling, dramatizing, or taping. It allows students to research a topic cooperatively and to prepare their findings for reporting to the class. In collaborating, a pair or a group of students draw on one another's strengths (Graves, Watts-Taffe, & Graves, 1999; Berghoff & Egawa, 1991). Glasser (1998) states that students gain a sense of belonging and develop a sense of spirit that is found within sports and that it builds self-esteem.

National Research Council (1998b) affirms Criscuolo (1973) research. Reading groups vary in size. There is no one best size. Recommendations vary from two to fifteen students and many reading consultants find four to five students to be an efficient number. The group accommodated may depend on reading level, skills to be taught, and physical facilities available. Depending upon task assigned groups should meet at least three times a week; one or two sessions per week cannot be considered to be sufficient to sustain learning and continued growth.

Huebsch (1991) and Graves, Watts-Taffe, and Graves (1999) note that a continuous progress organization provides the kind of well-structured reading program in which every student will be at that point where he needs to be in order to move forward with success.

Flexible grouping strategies should be employed to deal with the reading situation. There are five strategies that a teacher can employ to meet the needs of a student: 1) group contacts where they meet frequently to check progress and encourage sharing, 2) individual contacts related to specific skills with which the student needs help, 3) learning stations as many as there are skills to be emphasized at any one time, 4) team teaching plans so that each teacher is responsible for certain skills in the hierarchy, and 5) teacher aides or volunteers to handle procedures for practicing specific skills (Morrow, 2002; Gotowala, 1977).

There are various reasons why grouping students should be one of the most important decisions a teacher makes in a classroom. According to Graves, Watts-Taffe, and Graves (1999), dividing students into smaller groups is helpful because it is generally easier to keep smaller groups of students on task. Smaller groups tend to facilitate direct instructional engagement for more students and for a longer period of time. Smaller groups also allow the teacher to provide instruction designed to meet the needs of specific students. Furthermore, smaller groups allow students to be actively involved in instructional activities.

Grouping arrangements are used to provide appropriate alternatives to students and to provide the knowledge, skills, and strategies that they need to learn. Graves, Watts-Taffe, and Graves (1999) describe some specific grouping arrangements that teachers can implement in daily instructional lesson plans. In the study of literature, literature groups are sometimes called literature circles, literature study groups, or book clubs, primarily designed for use with trade books. Then, there are the interest groups which allow students to select a self-interest area to pursue through reading. Within each interest group, all students read one text or read several different texts and share the information they obtain. However, the most common grouping is groups based on specific student needs rather than on general abilities. These specific needs' groups only exist for shorter periods and are not the only types of grouping that student's experience. Fountas and Pinnell (2001) state that these types of

groups allow teachers to engage in guided reading instruction and are an important part of a strong reading program, especially in the early grades of elementary school.

Having students in groups is significantly important for personal and social reasons. Cooperative grouping promotes the belief that students are capable of working together. It instills a sense of cooperation among students rather than a sense of competition. Formal cooperative groups require student preparation and prepare students for cooperative efforts needed throughout their lives (Cambourne, 2002). Another grouping is called student selected grouping. This grouping is based on choice, a strong motivator, likely to cause active participation in the group. Pairs as a group arrangement are important because students with similar abilities work on such activities as oral reading and responding to discussion questions after reading. The last grouping arrangements are the most common and yet as important as those mentioned. The one-to-one instruction and whole class instruction are viable in teaching. When the teacher speaks to one student, the teacher gains a great deal of information about reading skills and personal difficulties. In whole-class instruction, this grouping is useful because it guides the students in the general instructional objectives and monitors their learning and performance as a group (Graves, Watts-Taffe, & Graves, 1999).

#### Literature-Based Instructional Procedures

In a literature-based framework, each child does not have to read different books at all times since this framework relies on a totally individualized procedure. This procedure directs the student to select all literature. As for the teacher, she selects the literature for the groups of students to read and leads discussions with the individual groups. This framework also permits teachers and students to jointly select the literature. Implementation of literature-based reading allows for teacher flexibility (Collins & Cheek, 2000).

Literature-Study Curriculum. A literature-study curriculum is established by the following instructional procedures: A class study of picture storybooks, such as Read-Alouds, Talk-Abouts, and Write-Abouts are utilized; both teachers and students select



chapter books and group into literature circles to study literature. Students also use the Buddy study for self-selected books (Barrentine, 2002).

A literature-study curriculum starts by planning literature-based units to identify the objectives sought. Curriculum specialists recommend that teachers think in terms of specific language learning students will acquire or refine. Statements of specific learning's are called objectives. The second step has two parts: 1) to identify the literature and the themes that serve as the foci of the units, and 2) to decide how the students interface with the literature. In a few cases, the National Research Council (1998b) states that teachers are free agents empowered to make decisions about what students read. In most cases, however, teachers make decisions in collaboration with colleagues based on the school curriculum, which lists specific novels and other literature for each grade level or provides options from which teachers with input from students choose. According to Hennings (2002), at this stage in developing a unit around a chapter book, teachers themselves must think deeply about the meanings of the book to be read because the ultimate truths of a story provide the unifying themes of the unit.

With input from their students, teachers identify related literature that they will share orally with the class or that all students will read. The third step in planning a literature-based unit is to determine how to celebrate the beginning of a class' journey into a book and its arrival at the end. Experienced language arts teachers build anticipation. Madeline Hunter (2004) proposes that the opening is especially important in that it sets the focus and motivates students; she calls that opening an anticipatory set. An anticipatory set is also a hook to a student's past knowledge and triggers memory or some practice which facilitates learning.

Students talk, they revisit the text, reading aloud the lines that support their points they have made, in the same manner that they had done with the shorter picture storybooks at the beginning of the school year. After talking about their initial reactions to the character

and the story, students respond in their journals. They chart story happenings; and, in the process, they think out the roles of the character and setting in the story, the actions and reactions, or the function of the conflict in the story. They state opinions of characters or deeds and predict where the story is going. They also write if they are a character and state their feelings from their point of view. Later, the students gather for a Community Share, in which some of them start the conversation by reading their journal entries (Hennings, 2002).

Students work with a reading buddy to select a couple of "power words," words whose meanings they do not know but can figure out from the way the words are used in the sentence. Thinking together, reading-workshop buddies propose a definition based on content clues and record it in the back of their journals for later sharing with the class (Graves, Watts-Taffe, & Graves, 1999).

Others strategies are those of role playing, dramatizing, pantomining, or retelling after they read a chapter. These are fun times when the dramatizations are impromptu. In shared writing, students dictate their thoughts that their teacher records on a chart. They revise and edit together. This happens when there is a need to predict or sum up (Martinez & Roser, 2002; Young & Bastionelli, 1990).

During this sequence, approximately a two-month period, students have finally reached the final chapter of the story. At that point, the students have a grand celebration in they share final drafts of selected literature journal entries that they have revised for this special share-fest. The students have a class conversation where they give their final opinions about the book (Simpson, 1986).

Now it is time to leave this book and begin another one. Reading and writing in response, the student compares and contrasts characters as well as consider the motivation of the characters. It is also the time for the teacher to introduce the literary idea of multiple themes in a story (Hennings, 2002). With entries in their literature journals; they meet periodically with their literature circle and with the teacher to talk out their reactions. From

time to time, the teams gather as a class to participate in a brief language-together time, during which the teacher gives a literary clue to consider while they are reading their books. This clue could be uses of similes and metaphors or the way the author builds up the tension in the book (Simpson, 1986).

By the end of the year, students have not done one workbook page or a book-related ditto and without ever having read an excerpted or doctored piece of literature. Instead, they have spent much time conversing about stories and creating literature journals filled with personalized entries on stories they have read during the year. Their journals provide evidence of how the students have grown as readers and as writers (Hennings, 2002).

#### Advantages of Literature-Based

Literature provides marvelous material for stimulating speaking, listening, writing, thinking, and reading. There are various advantages for selecting the literature-based approach. For one, teachers not only have flexibility but also the freedom to group the students and adjust her instruction (Collins & Cheek, 2000).

Literature plays an equally important role in content-area studies because students not only learn content but also become better readers, writers, speakers, and listeners (Hennings, 2002). Successful learning in one class will improve learning in another, while failure to relate learning experiences creates redundancy, frustration, and boredom in the content classroom. Time spent reading good literature is both efficient and effective because it gets students interested in learning the content and it serves as a source for content instruction ( Schickedanz, 2002; Brandsford & Vye, 1989).

For another, there is constant interaction with the student on an individual basis. Students enjoy this approach because they can read materials that meet their own interests and relate in a manner that resembles real-life reading situations. Literature facilitates conversation and writing; it helps students to see the meaning of events in their own lives (Vacca, 2002). Since students are able to make their own selections, they are able to have a

more positive self-concept of themselves. In setting language goals in reading, students achieve them effectively by voluntary reading. A book that is required to be read but not enjoyed by a student may have very little effect on language standards; however, some other book that the student has him self chosen and finds worth while will be very important. This is possible because the students see their success in reading since they are working at the appropriate level of learning. It also allows for students to be exposed to a variety of children's books (Graves, Watts-Taffe, & Graves, 1999).

The personal selection of literature by students enhances self-motivation. The more students are given the opportunity to read based on their selection, motivation, and interests, the greater the likelihood that they will be exposed to a variety of literature, including for academically oriented purposes. A teacher aides a student's selection with the help of an interest inventory or by observation. The teacher facilitates the development of their interest by providing appropriate reading materials and reading opportunities (Cheek, Flippo, & Lindsey, 1997).

One arena for personalized activity is the workshop. Teachers often organize reading and writing activities as workshops where students "go to it." Students read and write on their own. They decide whether to read a book they have chosen for personal reading, reread a piece encountered earlier as a read-aloud, draft some ideas, revise something written the day before, make a publication draft, or do a follow-up based on a recent lesson (Morrow, 2002).

Learning stations are used to personalize language study. A learning station is where children work on their own or in small groups, completing an activity outlined there. At the station are materials needed to complete the task and, in some instances, a self-assessment guide that the students who have completed a task can identify areas requiring further attention (Huebsch, 1991).

Learning stations are generally set up in classroom corners, in alcoves created by placing bookshelves perpendicular to the wall, or along walls so that students face a bulletin board or chalkboard. Tasks are organized at the learning station to include work with filmstrips and filmstrip viewers, audiotapes and tape recorders, video cassettes and players, computers and computer-assisted programs (CAI), flat pictures, regalia, scissors, paste, and books (National Research Council, 1998b).

Although literature is central in the language arts, there are times when teachers may begin by tapping into other important resources and use literature to extend the experience. One of these resources is the everyday experiences of students with others and things around them. Elementary students love to talk about things that are happening to them and about the things that are going on in the world. Donald Graves (2003) and Lucy Calkins (1994) state that students enjoy writing personal narratives, those stories that arise out of their own lives. Children who have personal journals are willing to write on a daily basis. Students like to share what they have written when they are referred to as authors and get feedback from their audience to improve their writing. Personal selection of literature leads a student to discover authors and to develop a sense of appreciation for literary styles, characterizations, and plots. The significance of this appreciation is a growth of self-awareness and acquisition of the ability to become a critical and discerning personal reader.

Students become exposed not only to a variety of ideas and concepts but also to different cultures, life styles, and problems of the real-world. By sharing their literary experiences with one another and having discussions of differences in books, students develop a more effective schema of the world (Cheek, Flippo, & Lindsey, 1997).

Finally, ongoing assessment is a continuous aspect of the literature-based framework. These types of activities are continuous; they are informal observations of children's reactions as they listen to poems and stories, their contributions to discussions held before and after they listen to a poem or story, and their contributions to choral speaking, singing,

and dramatic activities. There is an analysis of students' written responses that they have revised, edited, and published, and showcases in their portfolios (Au, 2002). Checklists are based on stated objectives and completed after individual conferences with students. In these conferences, teachers ask students to predict based on the title and cover of an unfamiliar book and ask them to read along as they read. Anecdotal records are written to describe student behavior (Cockrum & Castillo, 1991).

#### Disadvantages of Literature-Based

For whole-class activity to succeed, preplanning is essential. Teachers must know what they hope to achieve through instruction and have a clear idea of the sequence of activities and the kinds of questions they plan to use. The single most important factor in determining the effectiveness of whole-class instruction is the teacher's ability to guide discussion. Literature-Based reading is not necessarily designed to supplement basal readers (Rasinski, 2002; Collins & Cheek, 2000).

#### Balanced Literacy Instructional Framework

A balanced literacy program is one that uses a variety of teaching approaches, strategies, and materials to teach students what they need to know. It is also referred to as integrated language arts (Heilman, Blair, & Rupley, 2001; Weaver, 1998; Harp, 1991). Listening, speaking, and writing: these are the language arts (Templeton, 1997). To many people, the balanced literacy approach seems to be an eclectic approach. To many others, it represents phonemic awareness, phonics, and other word-identification skills on one side (Allington, 2002) to be balanced with reading and writing of literature and other whole texts on the other side. Furthermore, some researchers have defined that a truly balanced approach is one that reflects a coherent integration of all relevant research pertaining to reading. Coherent integration focuses on putting meaning at the heart of reading from the beginning and not as a goal of reading (Leu, 2002; National Council of Teachers of English, 1998; Weaver, 1998).

Scholars, such as Samuels (2002), Weaver (1998), and Adams (1994), reflect the concept of balanced literacy in three delineated stages which overlap each other through word recognition development. Samuels (2002) and the National Council of Teachers of English (1998) note that stage one is the promoting of early literacy knowledge. Stage two is the explicit attention to phonemic awareness and phonics knowledge. The last stage is extensive reading. Leu and Kinzer (2003), on the other hand, define balanced literacy instructional approach as a combination of interactive and interrelated beliefs. They consider both prior knowledge and decoding components as being important but their importance would vary according to each individual student. They support both student-directed inductive learning in authentic contexts and teacher-directed deductive learning in specific skills, according to individual student's needs.

In diagnostic/prescriptive instruction, Guthrie (2002) and King (1991) stress individual growth within the group requires that different students do different things for varying lengths of time. The classroom teacher is faced with the task of organizing methods and materials, times and tasks, and places and people to create a learning environment that is orderly without being rigid, flexible without being chaotic. The role of the teacher is foremost one of learner who has a strong philosophical and research base about language and is in constant study, reflection, and planning. The role of teacher is also that of facilitator (Pittelman & Heimlich, 1991). The teacher's role is to create a language rich classroom environment in which children are encouraged to explore, to experiment, and to take risks. Lastly, the role of the teacher is to be an observer and evaluator. As an observer, the focus of the teacher is the students, their interests, their need to use language, the ways in which they use language as they explore, experiment, and communicate. As an evaluator, the teacher's

evaluation is primarily process-oriented and the teacher uses samples of students' work to assess the ways in which students are growing in their use of the reading and writing processes. In the classroom, teachers ask more often questions intended to challenge students than to give answers (Applegate, Quinn, & Applegate, 2002; National Research Council, 1998b; Harp, 1991; Huebsch, 1991).

### Design and Content of Balanced Literacy.

The integrating principles of teaching reading of a balanced literacy program and language serve as the fundamental guiding ideas. According to Heilman, Blair, and Rupley (2001), reading and writing are language processes. Second, reading and writing are interrelated and interactive processes with literacy instruction at the core. Third, instruction should lead children to understand that reading is a meaningful, active, and strategic process. Given the opportunity, students develop vocabulary, other language skills, and basic knowledge through interesting conversations with responsive adults (National Research Council, 1998a). Children need to spend a great deal of time talking, having stories read to and with them, writing chart stories, and being allowed to dictate stories to teachers. With this mode of instruction, beginning reading materials are composed of language that has been spoken and whose flow is natural (Leu, Jr., 2002; Mather, 1984). Fourth, the key to successful literacy instruction is the teacher. The fifth and last integrating principle is that teachers recognize the enormous diversity among students, plan appropriate instruction for a wide range of individual differences in the classroom, and, above all, believe that all students can and will be successful in learning to read (Au, 2002).

There are certain principles that are considered essential for effective language-based teaching: Teachers need to understand that learning is a social process and know that the best



learning occurs when it is whole, functional, and meaningful. They also need to know that students improve their reading and writing when given abundant opportunities to use reading and writing as vehicles for learning. Learning is in a continual process which allows the making of transitions to better literacy and content teaching (Brozo & Simpson, 2002).

Excellent instruction is most effective when students arrive motivated to learn and with the necessary skills in linguistics, cognition, and early literacy. The National Research Council (1998b) has stated that given the centrality of excellent instruction to the prevention of reading difficulties, attention should be given to every primary-grade classroom the full array of early reading accomplishments: the alphabetic principle, reading sight words, reading words by mapping speech sounds to parts of words, achieving fluency, and comprehension. Alphabetic reading depends critically on mapping letters and spellings of words into speech parts that they represent. Failure to master word recognition impedes text comprehension. Cambourne (2002) states explicit instruction should direct students to oral language. Comprehension is enhanced through instruction focused on concept and vocabulary growth and background knowledge, instruction about syntax and rhetorical structures of written language, and direct instruction about comprehension strategies such as summarizing, predicting, and monitoring. In addition, comprehension takes practice which is gained by reading independently, by reading in pairs or groups, and by being read to aloud (Barrentine, 2002).

Continuous Progress Organization. There is a need to have a continuous progress organization where the student receives the instruction he needs in the modality most suited to his learning style, so that forward movement is continuous and at his built-in-rate of

absorption. Flexibility is the key concept. This flexibility can be met by the set up of learning stations (Huebsch, 1991; Gotowala, 1977).

Freiburg and Driscoll (2000) suggest that planning accomplishes goals of making learning purposeful, facilitates good management and instruction, provides for sequencing and pacing, links classroom events with community resources, provides for a variety of instructional activities, and establishes a repertoire of instructional strategies. Planning is the key of making teaching more individually appropriate for students.

Learning Stations. Learning stations require a great amount of space in the classroom. Each should be equipped with materials needed, most of them self-instructional. Students are assigned according to need, and they are allowed to choose which of the materials at the station they will use. The teacher is to circulate among the stations, helping, evaluating, and determining when students may move to another station. The teacher needs to set up new stations when existing stations are no longer needed (Leu & Kinzer, 2003).

When considering learning stations in a room, the teacher must remember that each classroom is unique. The teacher needs to assess what materials are available for use and then let imagination take over. What is placed in the room and how it is placed help determine the atmosphere for learning. Every part of the room is important. It must allow freedom of movement as well as freedom to experiment and/or discover (Leu & Kinzer, 2003; Graves, Watts-Taffe, & Graves, 1999).

The teacher utilizes room space so as to create areas which provide a balance between quiet and noisy work, independent study and group interaction, and materials storage and the display of individual and group accomplishments. Sectioning parts of the room into working areas and stations help to make more efficient use of classroom space,

and it creates an environment which encourages learning (Graves, Watts-Taffe, & Graves, 1999; Huebsch, 1991).

Planning Classroom Time. Students must be taught the basic classroom rules for using time, seeking assistance, and moving from place to place. They must be helped to discover their individual strengths and needs, be shown where to find materials and activities to use for various purposes, and be provided with optional activities to engage in when prescriptive tasks are finished, since finishing times will vary (Leu & Kinzer, 2003; Huebsch, 1991; Gotowala, 1977).

Bredenkamp (1999) outlines specific guidelines for appropriate K-3 practices. These guidelines provide teachers with important information to assist in making decisions about what should take place in classrooms: The curriculum is integrated, so that students' learning in all traditional subject areas occurs primarily through the use of learning centers and projects which reflect the interests and suggestions of the students. Learning occurs in meaningful contexts, and skills are taught as needed. On the other hand, students work cooperatively in small groups or individually in learning centers work, on projects, select activities themselves, or are guided by the teacher to make appropriate choices. Learning materials and activities are concrete, real, and relevant to children lives. Work places and spaces need to be provided to students in order to play and work.

Vacca (2002) and Bredenkamp (1999) stress that language, literacy, math, science, social studies, health and safety, art, music, movement, woodworking, drama, and dance are integrated throughout the curriculum as well as throughout the day. Au (2002) suggests activities be multicultural and nonsexist, and materials provide individual students' self-esteem, respectful acceptance, and appreciation of differences and similarities.

According to Graves, Watts-Taffe, and Graves (1999) and Duval, Johnson, and Litcher (1977), teachers should keep in mind the purpose of balanced literacy is to help students become independent and responsible learners and increase awareness of their own abilities and interests. The planning device used should provide students with formats to assist them in budgeting their time, programming their learning, and making decisions from the choice of activities. The National Research Council (1998b) states the type of schedule used depends on the objectives or goals, the needs, and the capabilities of the students. Each student's time can be planned in many ways, depending on individual and small group needs. First is a form of rotational scheduling which might be used to rotate groups of students to the stations. The figure would be circular with the outer circle indicating the stations the teacher feels are important for the students. The inner circle would have the names of the students for each station and can be rotated daily or after a work period of any appropriate length. One variation of rotation scheduling is to allow each student decide when to go to the assigned station as well as what to do there. Another is called trail scheduling. This type of scheduling can be used to ensure that each student will experience station activities in a sequence assigned by the teacher. Contracting is a form used by many teachers. This allows the students to state their choice of stations as to when they will go there and what they will do when they get there (Huebsch, 1991; Duval, Johnson, & Litcher, 1977).

Record Keeping. When using learning stations in the classroom, record keeping becomes very important. It provides the teacher with an account of what students have been doing and in what things they need further help. It gives the students a sense of accomplishment as learners and helps develop student responsibility to follow through a

given task. Record keeping also serves to provide parents with a comprehensive picture of what their child has been doing in the classroom (Church, 1991).

Record keeping are learning contracts. Learning contracts permit students to contract with the teacher in order to get involved in a particular task. It is essential that students know how much time is allotted to work and what will happen if it is not fulfilled. A postcard can be developed with one side for use by the teacher to remind a student of activities to be completed, and the other side for the student to relate what has been done. A weekly schedule with some open time blocks can be designed as well. Students fill in the open time blocks and turn the schedule in to the teacher. If the teacher approves, the students must fulfill their schedules much the same as with contracting. The teacher's time plan depends on the type of student schedule employed and their own priorities. If time is allowed for teaching as well as for interaction and/or intervention with students, teacher planning time should be no problem (Bintz & Harste, 1991).

Reading Activities. Some activities must be prescribed for all students. Teachers must also supervise learning carefully and continue to evaluate that learning. Based on individual needs, students must be encouraged to decide for themselves such things as when, what, and in what order they will learn. They must be helped to ponder how well they have participated and how much they have gained. Teachers must offer a chance of opportunity to students to become more independent learners (Duke & Pearson, 2002). Children learn to read by reading (Weaver, 1998).

In reading activities, the teacher should be committed to surround students with new experiences and events that instill comments, questions, and answers between the teacher and the students. Teacher needs to inform about what is going to be discussed and what was

discussed. Conversations encourage students to do most of the talking, so that they share their interests, thoughts, and opinions. These discussions are for the purpose to promote the students' efforts to communicate complex thoughts and encourage their efforts to use new vocabulary (National Research Council, 1998a).

Good readers exhibit certain characteristics. Good readers concentrate upon constructing meaning from texts rather than identifying words correctly. Good readers also use their prior knowledge and context to predict. They constant monitor comprehension with the use of effective strategies for processing the text and arriving at understanding. The three major strategies used by good readers are strategies of predicting, monitoring comprehension, and confirming what has been read (Duke & Pearson, 2002; Weaver, 1998).

There is a need to have a definition of proficient reading. To derive meaning, proficient readers need to predict by using prior knowledge, context, word knowledge, and letter/sound knowledge but simultaneously. For the monitoring of comprehension, proficient readers need to use the fix-it strategies when meaning is array in the process of comprehension. Lastly, proficient readers need to know how to identify words readily to grasp meaning. It is best to remember that for those who are emergent or less than proficient readers, word identification aids such as context and prior knowledge must be used (Duke & Pearson, 2002; Weaver, 1998).

#### Balanced Literacy Reading Components.

Most literacy programs cover the following content strands: word recognition, word meaning, comprehension, reading study skills, independent or recreational reading and literature. The content strand of balanced literacy is fostered through instruction and an abundance of practice in a meaningful text. Each strand must be woven correctly to achieve

the desired result. Regardless of grade level, the literacy curriculum includes experience in each of the following five programs: developmental reading, application-transfer, independent or recreational reading, content reading, and functional reading (Heilman, Blair, & Rupley, 2001).

Strategies for Comprehension and Fluency. For students to become independent learners and readers, students need to be taught strategies for comprehension and fluency skills. These strategies comprise of practice, reading, and rereading. One strategy is the teacher discussing the text selection with the class and teaching its vocabulary after reading each text selection aloud. For comprehension building, the teacher uses story maps and plots charts and diagrams to have students analyze and explore the meaning of the selection. Each student then reads the selection again at home, hopefully aloud to a parent. The following day, the student reads the passage once again from the same text, but this time to one another in pairs. They write in their journals and read books of their own choice for a reading activity of fifteen to twenty minutes at school and at home. Another strategy is called reciprocal teaching, which focuses on an exchange of turns in dialogues between teacher and students (Samuels, 2002; National Research Council, 1998a).

In the reciprocal teaching strategy, the teacher gives practice in four methods: predicting, questioning, summarizing, and clarifying. The teacher and students take turns leading discussions about the text with the goal to come to conclusions about the meaning of the passage read. In the reciprocal teaching strategy, the teacher uses the text content to initiate discussions. This text also has themes that the students, over time, will center on for the purpose of knowledge. Teachers using this strategy need to give additional guidance to students when they introduce these methods. These methods have been studied mainly for

their effects on high-risk students with positive results. First and second grade students have shown significant learning in listening comprehension (Duke & Pearson, 2002; Pressley, 2002).

The program components of a balanced literacy program are listed, along with the purpose of each and materials used to implement their instructional goals.

Developmental Reading. Guided reading is the heart of the instructional reading program. Guided reading allows students to think critically about a book, and students respond to the text in open-ended and personal ways. Students spend their time in discussion, in appreciating and enjoying the language of literature, and in sharing personal and group insights. Relating a book to students' lives, to other books, and to other authors are worthwhile and valuable connections the teacher guides. Guided reading approaches are whole-class guided reading, small-group guided reading, individualized guided reading, and independent reading (Cunningham & Cunningham, 2002; Routman, 1994).

Developmental reading involves sequential development of reading skills and strategies. Students receive systematic learning of word identification, word meanings, comprehension, content skills, and strategies. Developmental reading creates proficient, strategic readers who are able to comprehend the written language. Materials include literature-based, basal reader, language-experience, and content area programs (Hiebert, 2002; National Research Council, 1998a).

Language and literacy accomplishments are achieved best through activities that are integrated across different developmental areas. They include cognitive development, fine and gross motor development, social and emotional development, and language development (National Research Council, 1998a).



Bredenkamp (1999) states another approach to implementing developmentally appropriate practices is curriculum integration through thematic teaching. Research states that teachers consider thematic units' design the most important type of planning.

Phonemic Awareness. Phonemic awareness refers to the ability to deal segmental and explicit with sound smaller than the syllable. The relationship between phonemic awareness and learning to read is significant because research reports that it is the best predictor of early reading acquisition (Ehri & Nunes, 2002; National Institute for Literacy, 2001). It also appears to play a causal role in the acquisition of reading (Stanovich, 1993/1994). However, research provides no definitive sequence for teaching phonics, citing Martha D. Collins in her chapter article, "Teaching Effective Word Identification Strategies" (Hayes, 1991).

According to Theodore Clymer in his article, "The utility of phonic generalizations in the primary grades," reprinted in the The Reading Teacher (November 1996), there are general types of generalizations emerging from the study of teachers' manuals. These types deal with vowels, consonants, endings, syllabication, and miscellaneous relationships (Swartz & et al., 2002).

The National Research Council (1998), the National Council of Teachers of English (1998), Constance Weaver (1998), Farstrup and Samuels (2002), and Ehri and Nunes (2002) emphasize the importance of phonological awareness. They state that when children achieve phonological awareness that they are able to think about how words sound, aside from what words mean. Children, they state, should develop some degree of phonological awareness in the preschool years because it is a crucial step toward understanding the alphabetic principle and, ultimately, they will be lead toward learning to read.

The National Reading Panel (NRP) (2000) has conducted a meta-analysis to determine whether phonemic awareness instructional experiments reported in literature are effective for the teaching of phonemic awareness (PA) skills and for helping students learn to read. PA instruction helps students learn real words and pseudo words on standardized and experimenter-devised tests. PA skills improve students' reading comprehension. However, PA instruction has no effect on performance in math and is limited to literacy. But PA instruction does significantly improve reading performance in three types of readers: students progressing normally in learning to read, younger students at risk developing reading difficulties, and older students with reading disability (Ehri & Nunes, 2002).

The National Council of Teachers of English (1998) states some children, not necessarily all, need more help with phonics. The help is of the nature of sounding out words as best they can within the use of context and with the help of strategies which would aid students to continue reading. Researchers also state that teachers should not rely on phonics too early or too heavily because this instruction can cause children to be affected as readers. However, research does not justify the use of phonics.

Phonics also refers to instruction in the sound-letter relationship used in reading and writing. The understanding of the alphabetic principle is the concept that there is a relation between spoken sounds and letters or combinations of letters on which the English language is based (Strickland, 1998; National Council of Teachers of English, 1998; National Institute for Literacy, 2001; Farstrup & Samuels, 2002). Lea M. McGee and Donald J. Richgels in their article, " 'K is Kristen's': Learning the alphabet from a child's perspective," published in The Reading Teacher, December 1989, state young students learn many things about alphabet letters. They learn letter names, notice features of letters, and explore letter features

in writing. They note their knowledge of their letters by beginning to talk about letters. Furthermore, they learn roles that letter play in reading (Swartz & et al., 2002).

Phonemic awareness is the understanding that speech is composed of a series of individual sounds where the student understands that spoken words can be segmented before he or she masters the sound-symbol association. The significance of this understanding is that a student who can discriminate between and manipulate the sounds in syllables and words in speech are those who are phonologically aware (Guthrie & Alvermann, 1999). The development of phonemic awareness instruction can begin as early as kindergarten and first grade, but Marilyn Adams in her book, Beginning to read: Learning and thinking about print (1994), states that children should be exposed to books and print first and phonics, afterwards. Generally, phonemic awareness instruction is generally introduced during first and second grade to students (Strickland, 1998; National Council of Teachers of English, 1998).

Phonetics is the study of speech sounds. The study of the sound system of a language is phonology. Educators have taken the analysis of the relevant sounds of English and used them to set up letter-sound correspondences to aid in the teaching of reading. The educator has taken the most useful parts of this knowledge for the teaching of reading and has attempted to develop a body of knowledge called phonics. This subset, phonics, includes the most common sound of English and the most frequently used letters or strings of letters that record these sounds (Cunningham & Cunningham, 2002; National Council of Teachers of English, 1998; Lapp & Flood, 1986).

There are a multitude of teaching techniques in the area of phonics. The various phonic programs may be distinguished by the traditional classification - analytic (indirect)

versus synthetic (direct) phonics (Chall, 1983). Basically, instruction can be termed analytic or synthetic (Heilman, Blair, & Rupley, 2001).

Analytic phonics teaches letter-sound relationship by referring to words already known to identify a particular phonic element. This approach begins by having students learn a certain number of words by the whole-word approach, after which they examine the relationship that exists among the phonic elements (Heilman, Blair, & Rupley, 2001).

This approach is designed to have readers use known words to discover strategies for decoding unknown words (Tierney, Readence, & Dishner, 2000). Using this approach, there are two basic ways of teaching a skill lesson: inductive, in which the teacher begins by giving examples illustrating a generalization and guiding the students to a conclusion; and deductive, in which children are told the generalization and then asked for the examples to verify it (Heilman, Blair, & Rupley, 2001). In recent years, it has been referred to as the implicit method of teaching phonics (Cambourne, 2002; Tierney, Readence, & Dishner, 2000)

Examples of the inductive approach include the following:

- 1) It is assumed that children know the words (e.g., ball, bat, and bundle) or the words are taught through the whole-word approach.
- 2) The teacher asks the students what is alike about words and leads the students to discover that the words contain the letter b, which represents the /b/ sound.
- 3) Other words with the sound of /b/ are solicited.
- 4) Words used are presented in written context.
- 5) Practice exercises are given using the words in context (Heilman, Blair, & Rupley, 2001).

Examples of the deductive approach include the following:

- 1) The words (e.g., ball, bat, and bundle) are listed on the board. The words are in the students' listening-speaking vocabulary.
- 2) The teacher tells the students that all the words begin with the letter b and

- represents the /b/ sound as in big.
- 3) Other words are solicited with the sound of /b/.
  - 4) Words are presented in the written context.
  - 5) Practice exercises are given using the words in context (Heilman, Blair, & Rupley, 2001).

The inductive approach is generally preferred over the deductive approach, although this decision rests with the teacher, as some children respond to the deductive method (Heilman, Blair, & Rupley, 2001).

Analytic phonics focuses on four components: 1) auditory and visual discrimination, 2) auditory discrimination, 3) word blending, and 4) contextual application. Hearing and seeing the likeness and differences in sound and letters are essential parts of phonics instruction. Emphasis is placed upon the beginning sound as each is pronounced but the phonic element is never separated from the word. Through questioning and discussion, the teacher elicits the following from the students: a) the words all start alike, and b) the words all sound alike in the beginning. In auditory discrimination, the teacher reinforces further the targeted phonic element through the student's listening vocabulary. A new group of words is read by one of the students, rather than by the teacher, to avoid possible language confusion caused by differences in sound production between the teacher and students. The third component is word blending. Students are asked to focus on the similarities and differences between the word that they know and the new word with the phonic element they are learning. They observe that: a) the words end alike, b) they sound alike at the end; and c) they differ in the beginning. Last is contextual application. This last component requires that students apply their new meaning in an actual reading situation, where phonic learning is more natural than in isolation (Cambourne, 2002; Tierney, Readence, & Dishner, 2000).

Rebecca Pollard's Synthetic Method was introduced to schools in 1890 (Lapp & Flood, 1986). Synthetic phonics begins with direct instruction of phonic elements, beginning with letters of the alphabet, followed by syllables, then monosyllabic words through polysyllabic words, then phrases, and finally whole sentences. Once students learn the sounds

represented by the letters, they blend the parts of the words together to form a known word. Synthetic phonics includes three variations of sound blending: 1) letter by letter (b-a-t), 2) the initial consonant is sounded and the rest of the word is added as word family (b-at), and 3) initial consonant and vowel are sounded together and the final consonant is added (ba-t) (Heilman, Blair, & Rupley, 2001; Collins, 1991). This is also referred to as the Synthetic Word Families approach and is designed to serve three purposes: 1) to help readers learn the sounds represented by letters and some methods of blending these sound into words; 2) to increase the student's sight vocabulary through the use of consonant substitution; and 3) to aid students in word identification skills through the use of blending and minimally contrasting word elements. In recent years, it has been referred to as the explicit method of teaching phonics (Cunningham & Cunningham, 2002; Tierney, Readence, & Dishner, 2000).

The analytic approach to phonics is more widely used today. The difference between analytic and synthetic is one of initial emphasis (whole-word versus letter-sounds first). Emphasis must be evaluated in terms of successful teacher implementation of a particular method and the learner preference. For example, a child whose motor coordination is affected is frequently unable to organize in terms of wholes and may need some analytical method approach to learning and reading, such as strong emphasis on the synthetic phonetic approach. Auditory blending is a crucial skill in the analytic approach, as well as in the synthetic approach because a student must be able to divide an unknown word into syllables or structural elements, attempt pronunciation of the smaller units, and finally, blend the unit's together (Ehri & Nunes, 2002; Barr & Johnson, 1996).

Direct teaching of reading and phonics can be observed. Discrete skills are taught in the context of the student's interest. There is a great deal of incidental teaching of phonics as the individual student develops word lists and writes stories or books. Phonics is not taught in isolation, but within the context of what the students are reading and writing. There may

be some formal teaching from basal readers, but students are allowed to select much of their reading materials (Cunningham & Cunningham, 2002; Wright, 1977).

Phonological awareness activities can be demonstrated in many ways. For instance, students can be taught rhymes and poems, rhyming songs, chants, silly sounds for things, language plays, and some books that focus on sounds such as the Dr. Seuss books. These are all excellent ways to create students' awareness of language and sounds. An integral to phonological awareness as well as to speech discrimination is the basic ability to listen carefully (Cunningham & Cunningham, 2002; Graves, Watts-Taffe, & Graves, 1999; National Research Council, 1998a).

Effective teaching of phonics has six major steps. The first is the fact that the effective teaching of phonics is derived from and embedded in a rich literacy context which integrates reading with writing and literature in the realm of oral language across the curriculum. It requires that children critically think without the engagement of drills and worksheets. Effective teaching of phonics means focus on patterns, not rules, focus on rhymes and onsets, not single phonemes, and focus attention on phonemic awareness and letter/sound correspondences. Above all, effective teaching of phonics needs to be interactive and collaborative with the use of discussions (Weaver, 1998; Collins, 1991).

However, it is best to remember that alphabet learning has a long tradition as an important component of learning to read and write. It is one of the best predictors of reading shown by earlier research studies by Durrell (1958) and Walsh, Price, and Gillingham (1988), cited by McGee and Richgels in their article, "'K is Kristen's': Learning the alphabet from a child's perspective," in The Reading Teacher, December 1989 (Swartz & et al., 2002). McGee and Richgels (1989) state that children learn alphabet letters by talking about them in familiar signs and labels and as they write and read. Children need many experiences with alphabet letters in many contexts before they begin to understand the relationship between letters and sounds. Teachers who begin alphabet instruction including phonics instruction

without taking account children's knowledge and experience about letters and their role may disrupt the child's acquired knowledge about alphabet letters. Students understand letters as units of written language associated with sounds when this learning is gradually acquired with much experience with reading and writing (Swartz & et al., 2002).

Word Identification Strategies. According to Martha D. Collins (1991) in "Teaching Effective Word Identification Strategies," effective teachers understand that a good grasp of phonics does not equate to good reading and that good instruction does not rely only on a structured phonics. Effective teachers do not throw instruction in good word identification strategies out of the curriculum.

Word identification is a process to facilitate reading (Hayes, 1991). Word study instruction integrates spelling, phonics, and vocabulary instruction (Swartz & et al., 2002) citing Donald R. Bear and Shane Templeton (November 1998) in "Explorations in developmental spelling: Foundations for learning and teaching phonics, spelling, and vocabulary," The Reading Teacher. According to Graves and Watts-Taffe in the chapter article, "The Place of Word Consciousness in a Research Based Vocabulary Program," word study, teaching words and teaching students means the teaching of processes and strategies for examining and thinking about words read and written. Word study becomes useful and instructive when it is based on students' levels of development and when appropriate words and patterns are explored through engaging activities (Farstrup & Samuels, 2002; Swartz & et al., 2002).

The identification of words and the comprehension of written messages can be taught to students by using their knowledge of language and experiential skills. The employment of word identification strategies aids the oral language of students to make use of a variety of code cues for use in reading (decoding) and writing (encoding) messages in text (Strickland, 1998). Words are the foundation for reading and decoding of these printed symbols must be included in reading instruction (Collins, 1991).



There are many strategies for identifying words. An effective teacher's role is to prepare students to use the strategy most suitable for each situation. Sight word identification provides for instant recognition of words. Phonic analysis allows the student to associate sounds and symbols; this strategy works well for many one-and two-syllable words but must be combined with other strategies for more complex words. Structural analysis assists in identifying words composed of a base word with an additional ending or affix, compound words, or contractions. Another is contextual analysis which identifies meaning by using other words in the sentence or passage or the arrangement of words in the sentence to determine an unknown word (Stahl, 2002). According to M. D. Collins in Effective Strategies for Teaching Reading (Hayes, 1991), word identification facilitates understanding but does not guarantee it.

One of these word identification strategies is an environmental cue or logo, sometimes, a graphic cue on a particular word or letter. Another is a picture cue, such as illustrations on a book or product. This picture cue loses its value as a word identification strategy when a text increases in the amount of content and fewer illustrations. There are also configuration and graphophonic cues. Configuration cues are unusual visual patterns or unique letter forms, such as double letters in a word or the letter y at the end of a word. But, like picture cues, configuration cues are also short-term in value use. It seems that graphophonic cues (letters, letter clusters, and corresponding sounds) are the most significant because of their interrelated nature. The important interrelated strategies for word identification are graphophonics, semantics cues, and synthetic cues. They are commonly referred to as the three cueing systems of reading (Ehri & Nunes, 2002; Strickland, 1998).

Finally, there are two other strategies for word identification. First are structural cues which involve the use of structural elements in words to identify them. Second is the use of word families, phonograms, or spelling patterns. However, regardless of the word recognition strategies, students should always verify their identification of unfamiliar words

by cross checking to determine whether or not it fits the context. Phonics is greatly influenced by the context of language in which it is applied (Graves & Watts-Taffe, 2002).

Application-Transfer. Students need interesting, varied practice with new material. The purpose is to provide reading experience that is designed to help students master skills and strategies taught in the main program component and to enhance the transfer of reading skills to other reading situations. Various types of materials utilize such as various types of literature, high-interest/low-vocabulary readers, supplemental basal-reader programs, games, audiovisual aids, workbooks, teacher-made materials, newspapers, magazines, and content texts (Strickland, 1998).

Shared Reading. Shared reading is readily defined as any rewarding reading situation in which a learner or group of learners is in the role of receiving support and the teacher accepts and encourages all efforts and approximations the learner makes. Shared reading has traditionally been associated with beginning reading in the primary grades and the use of delightful stories, poems, and songs in large print. Shared reading is one way of immersing students in rich, literary-level language without worrying about grade level or grade performance. Shared reading and discussion of stories provide a framework for literature and language. For reluctant and struggling readers of all ages, shared reading offers a non-threatening approach to reading that strengthens skills and enjoyment (Clay, 2002; Routman, 1994). According to Routman (1994), a variation on the technique of shared reading that works well is to introduce nursery rhymes or poetry orally first. There are four shared book approaches that can be used: teacher reading, student reading, paired reading, and tape recorder listening.

Independent Reading. Independent reading allows students to practice strategies being learned. It also develops fluency using familiar texts and encourages successful problem-solving (Swartz & et al, 2002). In recreational reading or independent reading, students apply their reading skills and strategies to a variety of literary forms in order to

expand their interests and develop lifelong reading habits. Materials include various types of literature, paperback books, and book clubs. Independent reading provides opportunities for students to read self-selected books or other types of print (Anderson, et al., 1985).

Independent reading involves students not only in reading books but also in using all the written materials in the classroom. An independent reading strategy is to "read the room." This strategy is to walk around with a pointer and read everything that is displayed on the walls or on hanging charts. Poems, songs, pieces composed through interactive and shared writing, and big books are equally important in independent reading (Fountas & Pinnell, 2001; Graves, Watts-Taffe, & Graves, 1999).

Sometimes, the teacher selects books for the student to read independently, as in a follow-up to guided reading session. On the other hand, children can choose their own books for their independent reading from a range of books available in the classroom or from the library. The goal of independent reading is to give students the opportunity for easy reading in order to practice their reading strategies on familiar and occasionally unfamiliar books (National Research Council, 1998a; Pearson & Fielding, 1991).

Another manner to bring students and books together is to provide a selected time for Drop Everything And Read (DEAR). This strategy, known as DEAR, is sometimes referred to as sustained silent reading and is a method providing uninterrupted time for both students and teachers to read self-selected materials. This strategy consists of three procedural steps: 1) introduce the purpose and procedures; 2) be certain each student has something to read; and 3) each student reads silently without interruption. The purpose and procedures of this activity need to be introduced beforehand and students should receive an explanation of what they are expected to do during DEAR. It is especially important that students understand they need something to read each day during DEAR. DEAR must be truly free reading for pleasure and often this strategy involves an entire school (Leu & Kinzer, 2003; Smith, 1991).

Fountas and Pinnell (2001) note that guided reading within literacy enables students to practice strategies that leads to independent silent reading. It gives students the opportunities to develop as individual readers; yet, it allows students to participate in a socially supported activity. Guided reading develops the abilities needed for independent reading. By definition, guided reading a context in which a teacher supports each student's development of effective strategies for processing novel texts at increasingly challenging levels of difficulty. Fountas and Pinnell (2001) state that the ultimate goal in guided reading is to help students learn how to use independent reading strategies successfully. The components of the guided reading process are observation, powerful examples, and support for young readers. The sources of information are three categories: 1) meaning cues coming from the students' life experiences representing meaning in their memories and in the language they use to speak; 2) structural or syntactic cues which come from knowing how oral language comes together; and 3) visual cues which come from knowing the relationship between oral language and its graphic symbols. Teacher guidance is essential because a teacher must provide a large variety of texts organized by level of difficulty to be a balanced program (Cunningham & Cunningham, 2002).

Content Reading. According to Richard T. Vacca in "Making a Difference in Adolescents' School Lives: Visible and Invisible Aspects of Content Area Reading," content area reading has the potential to play an important role in the school lives of students. The visible aspects of content area reading emphasize the explicit development of reading strategies that enable students to think and learn with texts. The invisible aspect of content area reading is the use of reading strategies to be invisible dynamic underlying subject matter learning. When invisible aspects of content area reading are operating in the classroom, the teacher is able to integrate reading and subject matter learning in a seamless fashion, using language and literacy to scaffold students' learning (Farstrup & Samuels, 2002).

For the content reading component, the student receives systematic instruction in reading skills and comprehension strategies to understand content material. Materials include various types of literature, encyclopedias, card catalogs, almanacs, atlases, maps, charts, graphs, tables, diagrams, and content texts (Duke & Pearson, 2002; Pearson & Fielding, 1991). The key to content reading that is rich and important to students is oral language since students learn vocabulary and language structures that will help later in reading (National Research Council, 1998a).

Teaching approaches for content-area literacy are numerous. Strategies for mediating concept development are very useful in the development of students' spontaneous concepts associated with content areas (Vacca, 2002). According to Lisbeth Dixon-Krauss (1996), there are three types of strategies useful for mediating the development of students' concepts: classification, monitoring, and reader response strategies. First, classification strategies enable students to access, elaborate, integrate, and use ideas and concepts by placing these concepts within structured organized bodies of knowledge. Graphic organizers, a classification strategy, increase vocabulary knowledge by reorganizing concepts and elaborating them into systematically organized bodies of knowledge. When used as a prereading strategy, graphic organizers provide students with a relational guide to the content information they read. The most common prereading form is the semantic web. For post reading activity, graphic organizers promote long-term comprehension of conceptual information, such as a tree diagram or T-bar chart. Second, monitoring strategies develop students' conscious awareness and deliberate control of their thinking. Monitoring strategies are study guides, discussion, and written summaries. The Question-Answer-Relationship (QAR) method helps readers identify the information source as the readers' prior knowledge. The most common monitoring strategy is prediction, which can be used with both narratives and content-area texts (Duke & Pearson, 2002). Third, reader response strategies create understanding and meaning through social interaction. Reader response strategies are

designed around traditional media for sharing meanings such as art projects, drama, creative writing, and literature response journals (Pittelman & Heimlich, 1991).

Another strategy is the I-Search strategy. This strategy is an interdisciplinary student-centered inquiry process that highlights students' conscious participation and research. This emphasizes co-operative learning as a means to gain experience in sharing findings with others. There are four procedural steps to the I-Search strategy: It allows students to select a motivating theme to formulate their own research plans, to follow and revise their plans as they gather information, and to prepare their research in order to share their findings through oral reports, skits, posters, experiments, or presentations using computer software. This strategy is valuable in all subject areas (Leu & Kinzer, 2003).

A method that takes advantage of modeling is Think-Alouds. This method shows students how thoughts occur as people read, and it requires teachers to read the text and tell students what they are thinking as they read. This strategy focuses on the use of predictions, imagery (creating a picture of what is being read), and linkage between background knowledge and the text, monitoring, and fix-up strategies to address problem areas. Modeling is important in content-area reading where different strategies are required because there are different text structures and demands of the subject-specific reading materials (Duke & Pearson, 2002). Questioning the Author (Q+A) is another method that incorporates features of the Think-Alouds as well as co-operative learning. Q+A is a method specifically designed to help students' comprehension and engagement with content-area reading. Students comprehend content-area materials by having to query the author's words and ideas (Vacca, 2002). Two types of queries are used: initiating queries and follow-up queries. The types of questions used in Q+A initiating queries are of the type: "What is the author's message? What is s/he talking about?" Follow-up queries are of the type: "What does the author infer here? How does this relate to what the author said before? Why do you think the author tells us this now?" Queries should always focus attention on what the author has done

and how this affects understanding of the material. Q+A lessons are planned by the teacher to stop at appropriate points in the selection, so that discussion occurs during reading rather than at the end of the reading selection. Thus, this strategy encourages interaction and collaboration in order to find out information that leads students to increased understanding of the content area read (Leu & Kinzer, 2003).

A method developed to encourage active participation in co-operative group learning is Jigsaw grouping. This Jigsaw grouping was originally developed by Aaronson and others in 1975 and in 1978, later modified by Slavin in 1986 into Jigsaw II. This method is valuable in facilitating group participation by students of diverse cultural and ethnic backgrounds. Students are divided into groups with equal number of groups equal to the number of students in each group. Each student is assigned a topic before reading an assigned text. Each student does his own appropriate research and additional reading as assigned by topic. Those with common topics meet, discuss, and refine their answers in "expert groups." There is a culminating group project or product in which knowledge of all of the topics is useful (Leu & Kinzer, 2003).

Directed reading activity (DRA) is commonly associated with formal reading programs, but it also applicable to content-area reading. The DRA contains the following four basic steps: 1) preparation which involves providing the needed background, vocabulary, and motivation; 2) guided reading where questions or outlines direct the reader's attention through the material; 3) skill development and practice that provide direct instruction and opportunities to practice what is being taught; and 4) enrichment that is based on activities from the reading selection to allow students to pursue topics more specifically related to their own interests (Leu & Kinzer, 2003; Duke & Pearson, 2002).

Since content area reading involves a high number of new concepts and vocabulary, students need to learn vocabulary when it occurs in meaningful situations. The vocabulary self-selection strategy (VSS) is an appropriate method to aid students to acquire and retain

content-area reading. This is an instructional procedure that uses words selected by students as its base. Words are nominated by students from the selection or passage they have read and these words are written on the board to be explained by the student who nominated it. Students explain what they think the word means in that context and why it is important for the class to learn the word. Words chosen for study are defined, discussed, related to the students' background, and placed in vocabulary journals or word banks (Leu & Kinzer, 2003).

Other strategies that can be utilized in content area reading are numerous. In study guides, there are marginal glosses, which are teacher-constructed margin notes that aid student's comprehension by emphasizing and clarifying concepts, noting relationships, and modeling questions. There are advance organizers that enhance comprehension by explaining concepts, encouraging predictions, or establishing background knowledge. Then, there are mapping and other schematic overviews such as semantic mapping, structured concept outlines, and SQ3R (Duke & Pearson, 2002; Graves, Watts-Taffe, & Graves, 1999).

In connecting writing and content-area reading, Flood, Lapp, and Farnan (1986) suggest the three-step procedure of 1) prewriting, 2) writing, and 3) feedback and editing. The language experience approach (LEA) can also facilitate familiarity with expository text structures. This approach uses a feature analysis to compare ideas and vocabulary terms (Graves, Watts-Taffe, & Graves, 1999). Another method is K-W-L strategy (Graves, Watts-Taffe, & Graves, 1999; Ogle, 1989) includes both reading and writing by requiring brainstorming, categorizing, and information-gathering note taking activities. The three steps of K-W-L are: 1) know, 2) want to know, and 3) learn. Students record what they learn and what they still need to learn during and after reading. This K-W-L method recognizes the importance of prior knowledge, group learning, writing, and a personalized learning experience.



Functional Reading. This component includes experiences in which students apply reading strategies in practical situations. Materials include telephone books, newspapers, catalogs, drivers' manuals, job and loan applications, and magazines (Heilman, Blair, & Rupley, 2001). Sound instructional principles tend to be learner oriented. Learning to read depends on the same learning principles as do other cognitive skills, such as experiential and conceptual backgrounds, purposes for learning, learner motivation, task difficulty, and instructional quality (Templeton, 1997).

Oral Reading. Reading aloud is seen as the single most influential factor for young students' success in learning to read. Reading aloud improves listening skills, builds vocabulary, aids reading comprehension, and has a positive impact on students' attitudes toward reading. It is also the easiest component to include into any language program at any grade level; it is cost effective, requires little preparation, and results in fewer discipline problems. Reading aloud should take place daily at all grade levels (National Research Council, 1999; Routman, 1994).

Norton (2004) states teachers must understand the relationships between reading and writing as well as a student's oral language. Oral language of a student reflects their experiences with objects, ideas, relationships, and their interactions with their world. Teachers need to help students transfer the language background that they bring to school directly to their reading and writing. Graves, Watts-Taffe, and Graves (1999) and Rosen (1977) state there are many students whose reading is characterized by non-fluent and inaccurate oral reading or ineffective and inefficient silent reading comprehensions, such students read slowly, hesitating frequently to study unfamiliar words. They are often unsuccessful in their efforts to identify problem words and their errors consistently reveal an

imbalance decoding strategy that is close graphophonemic approximation, but little attention to semantic and grammatical information available through context. Lengthy passages are very difficult for them and reading is not perceived as a meaningful experience.

Students learn about narratives simply by reading and enjoying good storybooks. Daily reading periods can be brief but frequent for the very young student. Teachers should encourage students to start to pretend to read by listening attentively, making comments such as, "Now how about you read to me?" or "Your turn" (Clay, 2002). Students learn about narratives through the oral stories they hear around them. Pretend storytelling and puppet shows are valuable experiences for students. Students need to be encouraged to talk about books they already know and should be asked to elaborate or add to the story line with their own creation, such as new endings or new circumstances for characters (National Research Council, 1998a).

Oral language means that teachers must regularly spend time reading aloud to their students (Tunnell & Jacobs, 1998). By reading aloud, teachers give students a rich, expressive voice they hear in their heads to help them develop their own voice. Research shows that the voice students hear in their heads guides their writing voice. In most of the studies, reading aloud is stressed as a must. Daily reading aloud from enjoyable books is the key for poor readers (Barrentine, 2002). According to Cullinan (1992), teachers enrich students' vocabulary and knowledge of syntax through extensive use of trade books, by reading books aloud to students, and by having them read or pretend to read them on their own.

With opportunities of modeling and neurological impress, children receive the essential element of natural readers (Tunnell & Jacobs, 1998). Neurological Impress Method

is the method where reading pairs or reading groups are utilized, so that poor readers are teamed with average readers. These students sit together and read aloud from the same book. The slower readers repeat what the faster reader reads. These groups are changed frequently in composition. As proficiency is gained, the slower reader will begin to read silently and use the better reader as a word source (Elderidge, Reutzel, & Hollingsworth, 1996). Big Books can also be used in the Neurological Impress Method (Park, 2002; White, Vaughan, & Rorie, 1986; Holdaway, 1982).

Designing alternative instructional experiences for these students have led to develop and explore the use of functional reading experiences that are of high motivational value. These strategies are designed to develop automatic comprehension responses to print, to tap the cognitive and linguistic resources of students, and to foster student independence in monitoring their own reading (Vacca, 2002; Rosen, 1977).

There are reasons for beginning readers to read orally. Beginning readers tend to read orally because reading aloud reinforces the new concept that print represents. Beginning readers often comprehend what they have read only after they hear themselves say the printed words. The use of choral reading, readers' theater, and plays are natural outlets for oral reading. Some students pronounce words differently because they use speech that is natural to them. Unless words are mispronounced due to a breakdown in comprehension, they need not be corrected. If a word is critical to the text, a student needs to be corrected, so that comprehension is not inhibited. When mispronunciations occur, teachers provide immediate correction or allow the student to read to the end of the sentence. The teacher then provides decoding strategies and context cues, so students can figure out words for themselves (Allington, 2002; Graves, Watts-Taffe, & Graves, 1999).

Action Oriented Reading Strategy. The basic goal of the Action Oriented Reading Strategy (AO) is to foster rapid, automatic comprehension responses to print. This involves systematically exposing students to printed directions that are easily read, rapidly and silently comprehended and constructed, so that they result in observable student actions and activities, hence the term, "Action Oriented." The success of the AO strategy depends on messages construction which involves acts that provide immediate feedback to the students, so they know their reading is successful (National Research Council, 1998b; Rosen, 1977).

Rosen (1977) states length and readability of messages should be carefully controlled and systematically increased as responses become more rapid. Messages at first should be in short, simple, active sentences, embedded with vocabulary from reading series, or highly redundant words from useful word lists. Simple one-stage messages, consisting of single sentences, can be enlarged into two or three stage directions. Eventually, multiple-sequence messages can be placed at several different locations, and the highly enjoyable "Treasure Hunt" tactic can be experienced. AO is a promising alternative reading strategy which offers directive types of functional reading experiences for students. It is particularly useful for "word bound" and immature readers. This approach can be used with most students.

#### Balanced Literacy Writing Components.

Rudell and Rudell (1994) and Weiss and Hagen (1988) have shown in their research that experiences that promote success in reading occur long before a student begins formal schooling. Students recognize letters of the alphabet, write their names, use books properly, and even retell favorite stories (Martinez & Roser, 2002; Kontos, 1988). They can scribble letters, make up spelling, and create letter like forms (Sipe, 2002; Martinez & Teale, 1987; National Institute for Literacy, 2001). Much of today's phonics instruction involves writing

because phonics is linked to the art of reading as a tool for word identification and to the art of writing as a tool for spelling (Bear & Templeton, 2002; Strickland, 1998). These behaviors indicate an understanding of language that can form the foundation for effective literacy instruction (Rasinski, 2002; Anderson, Hiebert, Scott, & Wilkinson, 1985).

Shared Writing. According to Frank Smith (1983), the most direct and relevant way to demonstrate to a student the power of writing is to write with a student. Shared writing is when the teacher and students compose collaboratively and the teacher acts as a scribe. Shared writing goes beyond language experience; in shared writing, the writing is a negotiated process with meanings, choices of words, and topics discussed and decided jointly by students and teacher. Shared writing is a relaxed, social time where the teacher and students are gathered informally. It develops naturally as a response to shared reading. Because students focus on the composing-thinking process without the task of transcribing, shared writing frees the students' imagination and helps them gain confidence in writing independently (Vacca, 2002; Routman, 1994). In addition to allowing students to experiment with writing for themselves, teachers need to make time to write down students' personal dictations. The teacher writes and reads back exactly what that child said, without corrections or word choices. This is important because the child begins to see the relationship between spoken and written language (National Research Council, 1998a).

There are advantages in shared writing. Because shared writing is a powerful approach for promoting development and enjoyment, shared writing reinforces and supports the reading process. It makes it possible for all students to participate and demonstrates the convention of writing-spelling, punctuation, and grammar. It encourages close examination of texts, words, and options of authors. Students focus on composing, and they leave writing

to the teacher; students are helped to see possibilities they might not see on their own. Furthermore, shared writing recognizes the student who may have a wealth of verbal story material but is not able to write it down (Bintz & Harste, 1991).

Shared writing can take many forms. For one, shared writing is wall stories and Big Books. For another, it is stories, essays, and poems. It includes original story endings, retellings, class journal entries, and shared experiences, such as field trips and special visitors. In addition, shared writing also includes class rules and charts, weekly newsletters to parents, and news of the day (Hayes, 1991). Last of all, shared writing focuses on curriculum-related writing, reports, information books, and evaluation of books and activities (Routman, 1994).

Freewriting. Freewriting allows and encourages students to write without interruption in any form they choose. Focused free writing can be used for "freeing up" students' prior knowledge and is a valuable strategy in the content areas (Bintz & Harste, 1991).

Reading-Writing Strategies. Dialogue journals are a type of journal through which students engage in a written conversation with their teachers. It is another method framework for connecting reading and writing. The most common procedural steps are:

1) students make entries in their dialogue journals; 2) then the teacher collects the dialogue journals at the end of the day; and 3) the teacher reads and writes responses in each of the journals and returns the journal to the students the following day. Dialogue journals provide opportunities for students to solve personal difficulties and allow teachers to have insight about their students (Leu & Kinzer, 2003; National Institute for Literacy, 2001).

Buddy journals are quite similar to dialogue journals. However, in this instance, buddy journals are kept by a pair of students who write back and forth and have a written conversation about mutual topics of interest. This journal provides an authentic means of connecting reading and writing. The three procedural steps are: 1) buddy journal partners are selected; 2) students write entries in their journals; and 3) students exchange their journals, read their partner's entry, and write a response. Buddy journal teams are limited to a period of only two weeks and then they are assigned new buddy partners. This approach increases the connection between reading and writing and provides unique reading experiences (Vacca, 2002).

A third method framework in connecting reading and writing is called Style Study. This a method that gives students insight about writing by looking closely at authors and their use of language patterns with the attempt that students can emulate those different language patterns. For the Style Study Method, there are five procedural steps. First is the step that requires a student to read a passage from literature together. Second is the need of the student to identify several stylistic patterns used by the author. There is discussion why the author used these patterns and followed by a student writing task to try out at least one of the patterns discussed. Final step is to share the results (Leu & Kinzer, 2003).

Using pattern stories is another method where one story is used as a pattern for students to follow when writing their own, similar story. As students think about what to write, they reflect on the structural characteristics of what they have read. This helps students in connecting reading and writing. For younger students, pattern story activities begin by reading a predictable text. This is a story that contains a repeated pattern making reading the story easy and predictable (Rhodes, 2002). Beginning readers and writers enjoy writing

pattern stories after reading such books as The Folks in the Valley or Too Much Noise. For older students, any familiar story can be used as a pattern (Leu & Kinzer, 2003).

Spelling Instruction. Balanced literacy holds the principle that each student's learning background directly determines where and when to begin reading instruction. Students who come to school with rich literary experiences may be already reading with understanding and have strategies to help them identify words (Bear & Templeton, 2002). Neuman & Roskos (1993) find that such students should begin reading instruction beyond the basic decoding instruction. Whereas, those students who have limited language and literacy experiences before entering school should focus on the concepts that serves a communicative function.

Learners go through several developmental stages as they learn (Sipe, 2002; Gentry, 1982). The first stage is the prephonemic spelling. In this stage, children scribble, form letters and put letters together. However, they are unaware that letters represent phonemes. In the second stage, early phonemic spelling, there is a limited attempt to represent phonemes with letters. The third stage is phonemic spelling. This is where the child uses letters for phonemes and represents most of the phonemes. In the fourth stage, transitional spelling, children internalize much information about spelling patterns. The final stage is standard spelling. This occurs usually in the third or fourth grade where most words are spelled correctly. Students begin to use homonyms, contractions, affixes, and irregular spellings (Ehri & Nunes, 2002).

Yopp and Yopp (2002) and Mather (1984) say that given time, encouragement, assistance, and ample feedback, students learn to read just as they learn to use language, provided they are not given a sense of failure. Familiarity provides pleasure, security, and a source of pride in being able to do something well. The role which language acquisition



plays in learning to read had been thought as the need of the prerequisites of knowing the alphabet and of using the linguistic approach in which letter and sound patterns were carefully controlled to assure success. Both Yopp and Yopp (2002) and Mather (1984) have concluded that this is not the case since students do read without mastering the alphabet and is not an absolute prerequisite to beginning reading.

It is important for teachers to understand that invented spelling is not in conflict with correct spelling. Instead, it helps students learn how to write. The actual fact of the use of invented spelling is that it exercises the growing knowledge of phonemes, the letters of the alphabet, and the student's confidence in the alphabetic principle (National Research Council, 1998a).

#### Learning-Writing Component.

There are four ways that students learn: 1) learning has communicative meaning, 2) learning is social, 3) learning is language-based, and 4) learning is human (Morrow, Smith, & Wilkinson, 1994).

What experiences best facilitates learning? According to Cunningham and Cunningham (2002) and Morrow, Smith, and Wilkinson (1994), the answer is five interrelated "critical experiences." Critical experience one is that reading transacts with the text. Learners respond to the text in a variety of ways: through discussion, writing, enactment, art, etc. Learners bring their own critical and creative questions to a text. Critical experience two is that writing is composing texts. Duke and Pearson (2002) state learners write using expressive, literary, and transactional text genres. They acquire a repertoire of writing process appropriate to their audiences and purposes. Critical experience three is the extension of reading and writing. This means that learners become more independent and

self-reliant in choosing what to read and write both in school and out, in every subject. Critical experience four is investigating language. Learners explore language mainly in context of using language rather than as separable sub-skills. Learners learn about language by becoming more metalinguistically aware, that is, by exploring and coming to understand language as a system of systems involving the interrelationship of social, textual, grammatical, and graphophonological systems (Cambourne, 2002). Learners learn to appreciate cultural and linguistic differences of classmates and others. Critical experience five is learning to learn. Learners become aware of their thinking processes while using language. Learners apply this knowledge to develop and orchestrate a repertoire of strategies like note taking, questioning their text, and collaborating with peers (Duke & Pearson, 2002).

The relationship of oral language development is crucial to reading as are the other language processes. All language arts are interrelated. The first language process to be developed is listening. Listening skills are important in learning to read, especially in acquiring word-pronunciation or decoding skills and strategies (Heilman, Blair, & Rupley, 2001). Listening cannot be taught unless it is through the model of the teacher or any adult who listens to students and talks with them rather than to them (National Research Council, 1998b; Mather, 1972). The processes of reading and writing are interrelated and interdependent. The development of one enhances the other (Heilman, Blair, & Rupley, 2001). Students must adopt goals to secure improvement in written English and social stimulation is undoubtedly a factor of major importance.

Writing Aloud. Writing Aloud is a powerful modeling technique at any grade level for getting students' attention and demonstrating various aspects of writing. Writing Aloud

occurs when the teacher writes in front of students and also verbalizes what he or she is thinking and writing. The students observe the teacher in the act of writing, and the teacher makes explicit what he or she is doing such as the thinking, the format, the layout, spacing, handwriting, spelling, punctuation, and/or discussion of vocabulary. As the teacher verbalizes his thought processes as well as the actual transcriptions as he is doing them, students relate the spoken word to the written word (Routman, 1994). Writing Aloud increases students' interest and motivation in writing as well as the quality of student writing. Writing Aloud demonstrations can take many formats such as writing a "Morning Message," writing a draft from an assigned topic, writing about being an expert, brainstorming, and drafting (Graves, Watts-Taffe, & Graves, 1999).

#### Advantages of Balanced Literacy.

Balanced literacy combines the strengths of whole language and skills instruction, and, in doing so, creates instruction that is more than the sum of its parts (Pressley, 1998). Experiences with language and literacy are authentic because they deal with real experiences and activities that interest the student. Students are seen as meaning makers, actively trying to make sense of their world. These types of experiences enable them to construct meaning (Rasinski, 2002). When students have a say in what they learn about and when they make decisions about activities they participate in, they take more responsibility or ownership for their learning and tend to enjoy it more (Vacca, 2002; Harp, 1991; Goodman & Goodman, 1989).

Another advantage of a balanced literacy framework is the focus on successful learning outcomes and the avoidance of a fixed ideological stance about what reading instruction is. The balanced literacy framework provides decoding (including phonics)

instruction to students who need to acquire it for successful reading, and it encourages students to make predictions about vocabulary based on prior knowledge (Leu & Kinzer, 2003).

Varied genres of children's literature dealing with subjects from all content areas provide authentic language and reading experiences. Children's literature is viewed as the main source for reading from which students learn (Schickendanz, 2002; Newman, 1985).

Reading and writing are the construction of meaning, that is, comprehension.

There is no such thing as mastery of literacy ability because it is a constantly evolving process (Allington, 2002). Chall (1996) views reading development as a sequence of stages. Stage 0 (preschool) focuses on learning to recognize and identify letters. Stage 1 (grade 1 and beginning of grade 2) emphasizes decoding or word pronunciation abilities and comprehension of simple stories. Stage 2 (grades 2 and 3) centers on making decoding abilities automatic and increasing comprehension. Stage 3 (Grades 4-8) encourages comprehension in a variety of different texts, including content area books and complex fiction.

Effective teachers do not attempt to mold each student to a particular curriculum or approach. Students respond differently in a variety of areas, including responses to different types of instruction (direct or indirect); commercial and personalized, learner-centered programs; motivational strategies (intrinsic versus extrinsic); and instructional materials (published readers, literature books, computers, magazines, games, and so forth) (Cambourne, 2002). Effective teachers teach students what they need to know by modifying and adjusting their curricula to meet their students' learning needs. A balanced curriculum of

the integrated language arts begins with the affirmation that different learners need different approaches to help them become proficient readers and writers (Smith, 1996).

A balanced literacy approach that combines the best of all worlds is the most effective way to meet the needs of all the diverse learners in a classroom (Heilman, Blair, & Rupley, 2001). Students profit from a realistic discussion of their abilities and limitations that is accompanied by advice concerning the means for their own best development. This seems to be true whether the student is poor or superior (Graves, Watts-Taffe, & Graves, 1999).

#### Disadvantages of Balanced Literacy

Time must be allotted for text reading and effective instruction needs to be planned to develop active readers. Students need to be encouraged to discuss what they have read with one another and with the teacher because reading comprehension is not only a cognitive process but also a social one (Graves, Watts-Taffe, & Graves, 1999; National Research Council, 1998b; Gambell & Almasi, 1996). Models of peer teaching and cooperative learning have proven to be effective in providing student with multiple ways to expand and refine their thinking through discussion (Duke & Pearson, 2002; Meloth & Deering, 1994).

Teachers of literacy must forge partnerships with the home and community to promote reading growth. The role of the school library plays a significant role in involving parents and students in literacy activities after regular school hours (Heilman, Blair, & Rupley, 2001). Parents contribute a great deal to every stage of reading development (Paratore, 2002; Silvern & Silvern, 1990).

The characteristics of effective literacy instruction are as follows: 1) assessing students' literacy strengths and weaknesses, 2) structuring literacy activities around an interactive instructional format, 3) providing students with opportunities to learn and apply

skills and strategies in real-life literacy tasks, 4) ensuring that students attend to learning tasks, 5) believing that one's abilities and expecting students to be successful, and 6) maintaining effective classroom control (Vacca, 2002; Blair, 1984).

Some of the key strategies that successful readers and writers use have been summarized by Vacca (2002) and Larry Lewin (1992). These strategies are as follows: A teacher prepares students by tapping their existing knowledge background for a topic before they read and write and determining their purpose(s) for reading and writing. A teacher shows students how to predict what they are reading or what they are to write. Students can self-select topics they want to read about or write about. After these initial instructions, students compose a first draft by monitoring their own understanding of the text and the text of others. Students monitor their own reactions to text and relate their new information in their reading and writing to what they already know. This process expands their vocabulary both during and after a first meeting and a first draft of writing. Students know where to get help and assistance when either the reading or writing breaks down. Students learn to distinguish in their reading and writing the important from the less important ideas.

According to Vacca (2002), there are other key strategies that successful readers and writers have used. As students learn to compose, they need to reconsider the first meaning that they construct in their reading and writing and rewrite their text to improve its meaning by rereading. Students also learn to share their composition by communicating to others their reactions to their own and others' writing. These strategies help students apply their newly acquired information to future reading and writing tasks.

Regarding word identification, students need a variety of word-identification skills and strategies to arrive at the meaning of what they read. Basic sight vocabulary, phonics,

structural analysis, and content analysis are word identification skills and strategies that children should, learn so they can comprehend written language. Students need to develop flexibility in identifying words, so that they can use all available cue systems to arrive at meaning. Word identification skills and strategies are best taught through direct/explicit instruction (Heilman, Blair, & Rupley, 2001; Guthrie & Alvermann, 1999). Teachers must provide varied opportunities for students to learn comprehension strategies and to apply these strategies in familiar and meaningful reading materials. For any instructional activity to teach reading comprehension, teachers must follow some important guidelines (Duke & Pearson, 2002). Pearson and Fielding (1991) offer some essential guidelines for teachers: The strategy must be instructionally relevant, and instruction should proceed from simple to complex. An analysis of instruction and transfer tasks should provide evidence of where breakdowns occur. Duke and Pearson (2002) note direct/explicit instruction should explain when and how to use the strategies. The teacher should use modeling, scaffolding, and feedback during class discussions and during or following independent work. A variety of passages and authentic text should be used to facilitate students' assuming responsibility for application to new situations. Monitoring procedures should be inherent parts of comprehension instruction.

In conclusion, student differences must be primary consideration in effective literacy instruction. Culturally and linguistically diverse and special-needs students require an education based on their educational needs rather than on clinical or diagnostic labels. Teachers must be knowledgeable of and sensitive to the dialects and languages of the students they instruct. Proper acknowledgement of students' differences requires the teacher to adjust each student's educational program appropriately.

## Summary

Surveys of today report that four in ten children have literacy problems (National Research Council, 1998a). Schools have the responsibility to accommodate the needs of those students with limited proficiency in English. To be effective, schools need to provide extra resources high-quality instructional materials, manageable class sizes, good school libraries, and pleasant physical environments (National Research Council, 1998b).

Basal reading programs are still used throughout the United States and teachers of linguistic diverse students often choose to use them to teach reading. However, teachers of linguistic diverse students should be aware of special considerations when using basal readers as the main method for teaching reading. Among these considerations are: 1) special attention to developing background concepts and vocabulary in depth before reading, 2) skillful questioning during silent reading to identify and clear up misunderstandings and to enhance the students' comprehension, and 3) specific emphasis on listening to the language rather than oral reading. These three considerations are important to all reading approaches and should be considered when developing any reading plan. Linguistically diverse students worry about having to read orally and tend not to concentrate on the language they read, particularly in group situations. With these considerations in mind, teachers may find that linguistically diverse students can progress with their classmates in a reading program (Au, 2002; Heilman, Blair, & Rupley, 2001).



## **CHAPTER 3 METHODOLOGY**

### **Research Design**

#### Multiple Case Study

This research design is an exploratory case study. It is an inquiry that investigates a contemporary phenomenon in a real-life context where the boundaries between the phenomenon and the context are not clearly evident (Yin, 2003). The phenomenon of this ethnographic inquiry is Hispanic students' academic success in reading and a comparison of the most effective and frequently used reading methods and strategies across the three different instructional frameworks of reading in a highly culturally diverse elementary school.

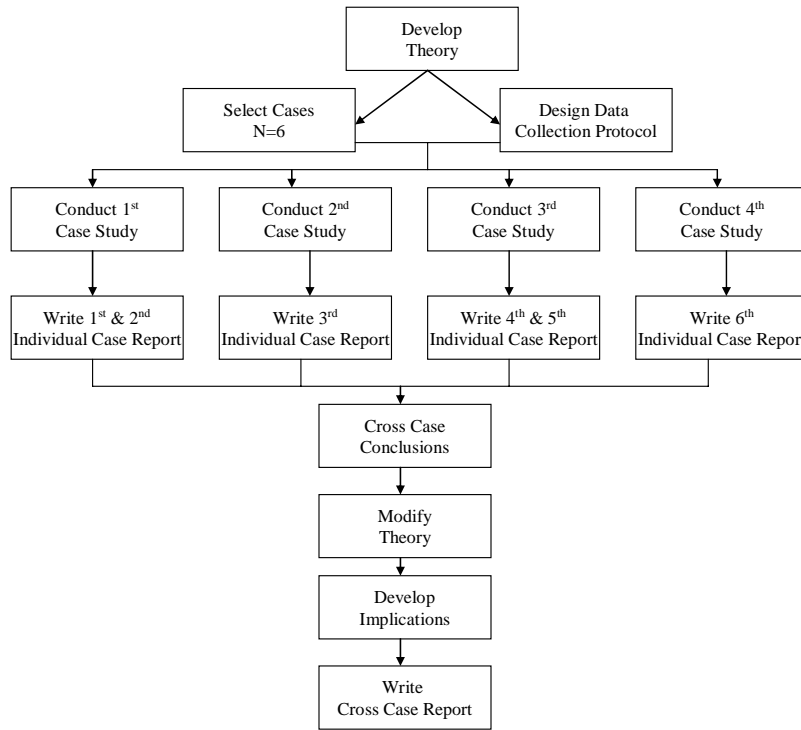
#### Case Study Method

The case study method for multiple-case study is as follows:

- 1) Develop theory,
- 2) Select cases,
- 3) Design data collection,
- 4) Conduct first case study, conduct second case study, and then the third and fourth case study,
- 5) Write an individual case study for each of the four case studies,
- 6) Draw cross-case conclusions,
- 7) Modify theory,
- 8) Develop policy implication, and
- 9) Write cross-case report.

The replication approach to multiple-case studies is illustrated and is derived from research on the case study method by Yin, Bateman, and Moore, 1983.

**Table 1: Case Study Method Model**



### **Selection of Participants**

#### Units of Analysis

This exploratory case study research is a multiple-imbedded case study. The unit of analysis is an individual, a Hispanic elementary student in the kindergarten, first, and third grade. Information about each relevant individual is collected. As the unit of analysis is a Hispanic elementary student, the primary focus of the data collection is on what is happening to the individual student in a elementary school classroom setting; and how these Hispanic students are affected by the classroom setting within the context of the reading instruction framework in a highly culturally diverse elementary school.

The total sample for this study consists of six Hispanic students in four classrooms, two in kindergarten, one in first grade, three in third grade, and four teachers in a southern parish school.

Comparing groups of students in a program and across reading instructional frameworks involves a different unit of analysis (Patton, 2002). This sampling consists of four exploratory multiple-imbedded case studies of Hispanic students: the first case study with two kindergarten students, the second case study with one first grade student, the third case study with two third grade students and the fourth case study with one third grade student. First comparison involves the demographic group of Hispanic students. Second comparison involves comparing the four case study groups of students across the three reading instructional frameworks. Last comparison focuses on the components of the three reading instructional frameworks and found to be most effective and frequently used reading methods and strategies across the four case study groups.

#### Time Sampling

Students are observed a total fifteen actual hours per four reading instruction framework classes, a total of sixty actual hours of observation. Ten hours are spent in interviewing and ten hours analyzing students' anecdotal records. Data collection time sampling is completed in eighty hours. Time sampling decisions are based on the criterion of usefulness.

A pilot study was also conducted for a total of sixty-five hours for replication over a two month time period.

#### Purposeful Sampling

This qualitative inquiry focuses in depth on a relatively small sample,  $n=6$ , selected purposefully. The intent of purposeful sampling is to select information-rich cases which illuminate the questions under study and the purpose of the small random sample is for credibility, not for representative. In addition, the sampling strategy is a purposeful random, homogeneous, stratified sample (Patton, 2002).

Homogeneous sampling describes this particular subgroup, Hispanic students, in depth and with focus of reducing variation. Homogeneity of the six Hispanic elementary school students is determined by the initial testing of the Pre-Kindergarten, First, and Second Grade Level Indicators of Essential Knowledge for the Early Childhood Years in Language Arts of the parish system which is correlated to the Louisiana English Arts Content Standards and the Developmental Reading Assessment (DRA), by the language first acquired by the students, by the language most often spoken in the home, and by attending a graded classroom with an English-speaking public school teacher. This homogeneity sample allows simplification of analysis and facilitates interviewing students.

For the comparison of the particular subgroup of interest, stratified purposeful sampling is used. This sampling illustrates characteristics of this particular subgroup and facilitates comparisons. Each of the strata constitutes a fairly homogeneous sample and captures major variations as well as identifies a common core that may emerge in the analysis.

The criterion to determine if students were proficient learners is the parish school system Kindergarten, First, and Third Grade Level Indicators of Essential Knowledge for the Early Childhood Years in Language Arts; criterion sampling is utilized. This sampling is used in the comparison of the reading instructional frameworks and to arrive possibly at a new, more systematic reading instructional approach for Hispanic students.

These exploratory multiple-imbedded case studies have mixed purposeful sampling which meets multiple interests and needs. This sampling strategy provides for flexibility and triangulation. This mixed purposeful sampling is an attempt to fit the purpose of the case study, the resources available, the questions to be asked, and the constraints being faced. It also includes the

consideration of the sample size. According to Patton (2002), trustworthiness, meaningfulness, and insights from the qualitative inquiry are more important than the sample size.

## **Data Collection**

### Initial Procedure

In the initial procedure of data collection, permission is obtained from the local school district. Once district permission is received, parents are invited to meet the researcher, are informed of the intent of the case study, and address any questions or concerns regarding their child. Parental permission grants the right to observe, interview, tape record, and collect documents regarding their child. Upon the approval of the local school district, administration and teachers are invited to participate in the case study.

### Observations

Participant-observation provides detailed descriptions of people's activities, behaviors, actions, and the full range of interpersonal interactions and organizational processes that are part of observable human experience. For the student and the teachers/classroom, participant observation is utilized for the case study.

According to James P. Spradley, Participant Observation (1980) and Patton (2002), I, not only am an observer, but I am also an ethnographer informant. In the classroom environment, I become a complete observer by simply observing the actions and the events of the day. This observation focuses on the learning and teaching activities in the classroom, the use of space, body expressions, and the general behavior patterns of the students. The single observation is a limited duration of three hours for each episode, with five episodes in each classroom, fifteen hours per classroom, a total of sixty actual hours of observation. Regarding the entire program and all its elements, the focus of the observation is broad and holistic.

For this case study, Spradley's participant observation, a particular mode of observation, is utilized. The significance of Spradley (1980) is that it identifies three types of observations used in qualitative research: descriptive, focused, and selective. By using descriptive observations, everything that happens in the social setting in the beginning stages of inquiry is noted since descriptive observations are unfocused, general in scope, and based on broad questions. In the focused observation, clearer research questions and themes with categories begin to emerge. In selective observations, focus is on refining the characteristics of and relationships among the objects of the case study. By the use of Spradley's three types of observations, attention focuses on the components of the three reading instructional frameworks used in teaching Hispanic students in elementary school.

#### Field Notes

Field notes are the primary recording tools of the qualitative researcher. They are the written account of what the researcher sees, hears, experiences, and thinks in the collection process as well as reflects on the data collected. Field notes are considered a vital part of the data collection procedures in this pilot study. These notes come from participant observation, in-depth open-ended interviews, and document analysis. These notes are handwritten, typed, organized, coded, complete, and available for later access. As for documents and tabular materials, these are collected and cross-referenced with the field notes recorded on a tape recorder.

#### Interviews

The in-depth interviews are comprised of direct quotations and people's experiences, opinions, feelings, and knowledge. Narratives are derived from open-ended interviews and transcribed to attain the voice of the participants. These open-ended answers to the questions allowed for relevant evidence in composing an adequate answer. The important attribute of good

answers is that they connect specific evidence through proper citation to pertinent case study issues. A reading of the narrative evidence indicates the link between the content and the initial study questions and contexts of the interview.

Interview questions are formulated on a considerable body of data on effective school practices such as the Louisiana Department of Education School Effectiveness and Assistance Program, particularly with regard to language minority students. Research conducted by Purkey and Smith (1985) identifies characteristics of effective schools. They determine four major characteristics: administrative leadership, teacher expectations, basic skills, and school climate. Administrative leadership consists of effective principals who are actively engaged in curriculum planning, staff development, and instructional issues. For teacher expectations, teachers maintain high achievement expectations for all students. Effective schools emphasize on basic skills where there is a deliberate focus on reading, writing, math, and language arts. In an effective school, the school climate is an orderly, safe environment that is conducive to teaching and learning. Whereas Edmonds (1979), on the other hand, identifies two groups of variables: organizational/structural variables and process variables. These two groups together define the climate and culture of the school. The organizational and structural variables include school site management where school leadership and staff determine the exact means by which they address the problems of increasing performance. Instructional leadership is initiated by the principal who maintains procedures for improving achievement. Curriculum planning and organization has a focus on the acquisition of basic skills, and instruction takes into consideration the linguistic and cultural attributes of students across grade levels and throughout the entire curriculum. Staff development is essential to change and consists of school plan closely related to instruction. This activity is crucial in schools teaching language minority students. Parent support and

involvement are essential to the success of any educational program for language minority students. Lastly, district support, both financial and administrative, is fundamental to change and to the maintenance of effective schools.

Edmonds (1979) defines process variables that sustain a productive school climate. He lists four process variables: Collaborative planning and collegial relationships refer to teachers and administrators working together to implement change. There is a sense of community; a feeling of belonging contributes to lessening alienation and increasing student achievement. Clear goals and high expectations are defined as a focus on those tasks considered important that allows the school to direct its resources and its functions toward fulfilling those goals and expectations. Order and discipline maintain the purpose of the school's intent. Carter and Chatfield (1986) report the same similar attributes present in effective elementary schools that teach Mexican Americans, African Americans, and Asian students in California.

Carter and Chatfield (1986) describe an effective school for language minority students as a well-functioning total system that produces a school social climate which promotes positive outcomes. Their analysis focuses on two parts: the development of effective schools and a positive school climate. Carter and Chatfield (1986) describe a safe and orderly school environment, where positive leadership and strong academic orientation clearly state academic goals, objectives, and plans as well as well-functioning methods to monitor school input and student outcomes. Furthermore, a positive school social climate includes high staff expectations for students and the instructional program, a strong demand for academic performance, denial of the cultural deprivation argument, the stereotypes that support it and a high staff morale consisting of strong internal support, consensus building, job satisfaction, sense of personal efficacy, sense that the system works, sense of



ownership, well-defined roles and responsibilities, and beliefs and practices that resources are best expended on people rather than educational software and hardware.

In collecting data from existing people and institutions and when interviewing key persons, the researcher defers to the interviewee's schedule and availability. The interview instrumentation is the standardized open-ended interview. With the exact wording and sequence of questions in advance, all interviewees are asked the same basic questions in the same order and questions are worded in a completely open-ended format. This increases the comparability of the responses and reduces the interviewer's effects and biasness. This interview facilitates the organization and analysis of the data (Patton, 2002).

#### Other Data Collection Sources

Additional sources of data are used throughout the case study. Documents consist of excerpts, quotations, or entire passages from program records; memoranda, official publications and reports; open-ended written responses to surveys; and archival records which are school standardized tests, attendance and personal records. Attitude and interest questionnaires are administered to students.

Other documents and school archival data, such as school checklist, standardized achievement scores, and portfolios are examined.

#### Trustworthiness

Lincoln and Guba (1985) describe several techniques for increasing trustworthiness of research designs which ensure a type of quality control. These are credibility, transferability, dependability, and conformability establishing trustworthiness of the findings.

Trustworthiness is the extent to which an inquirer can persuade audiences that the findings are "worth paying attention to." Credibility is whether or not the reconstructions of the inquirer are

credible to the constructors of the original multiple realities. Credibility is sought by prolonged engagement, persistent observation, triangulation techniques, peer debriefing, negative case analysis, referential adequacy, and member checks. Prolonged engagement is met by spending an adequate amount of time in the field to build trust, learn the "culture" of the kindergarten, first, and third grade classrooms, and test for misinformation either from the informants or from their own biases. Persistent observation provides depth by identifying the characteristics of the social scene that are relevant to particular questions being pursued. Use of triangulation techniques utilizes data triangulation as well as methodological triangulation, requiring multiple methods to analyze the case study. Multiple sources of evidence are gathered including participation observation, interviewing, attitude and interest questionnaires, checklist and portfolio documents, and archival data.

Peer debriefing (Lincoln and Guba, 1985) is another technique to establish credibility. Peer debriefing, the process of exposing oneself to a disinterested peer, searches for questions that aim at probing biases and clarifying interpretations. By participation observation and the relationship of a key informant to the observer, this is achieved. Negative Case Analysis eliminates instances that do not fit the pattern by revising that pattern until the instance is compatible. The use of the constant comparative method assists in categorizing. Technique four of credibility is preferential adequacy; this technique involves storing raw qualitative data for later recall and reanalysis purposes accomplished by storing tape cassettes of the various interviews of the participants. The last technique for credibility is member checks, occurring either during the investigation or at its conclusion, and constitutes the use of structural questions of Spradley's Directional Research Sequence (1975) which asks informants to confirm the analytic domains that have been constructed. The classroom teacher serves as the member checker. The teacher receives, reviews a copy of the field notes, discusses any needed changes to accurately reflect the classroom situation, and

eliminates any biasness. When the final research report is completed, the teachers and other adult participants have a final opportunity to test the credibility of the research by completing a comprehensive member check.

Transferability is referred to as thick description providing evidence for the transferability of interpretations and conclusions from qualitative investigations. Sufficient data is provided to enable an outsider interested in generalizing from the conclusion of the study to suggest whether transfer is possible to another context (Lincoln and Guba, 1985). Dependability entails the process of inquiry, including appropriateness of inquiry decisions and methodological shifts whereas confirm ability concerns the product of the inquiry. Lincoln and Guba (1985) suggest the use of an external auditor to provide dependability and confirm ability. Qualitative researchers use an auditor to examine the data after field notes are analyzed to carefully verify both the process and the product of the research. There are six types of documentation suggested: raw data, data reduction and analysis products, data reconstruction and synthesis products, process notes, materials related to intentions and dispositions, and instrument development information. An extensive audit trail is discernible by the use of field notes and a reflective journal.

### **Data Analysis**

In qualitative research, data are analyzed inductively. The researcher begins with specific, raw units of information that are then classified or incorporated into a more comprehensive category or under a general principle (Lincoln and Guba, 1985). Analysis occurs both during and after data collection (Patton, 2002).

### Case Study Analysis

The first and most preferred strategy is to follow the theoretical criteria that led to the case study. The original objectives and design are based on such criteria, reflecting the set of research

questions, the review of literature, and the new insights that the researcher selected. This criterion shapes the data collection plan and determines the priorities of the analytical strategies (Yin, 2003). For the individual case studies, the data evidence collected lends to the analysis to the case study components. These components are the Hispanic student, the teacher/classroom, and the administration/school.

### Descriptive Analysis

The first task in qualitative analysis is descriptive analysis. The descriptive analysis answers basic questions. For the reading instructional framework programs' evaluation, these basic descriptive questions are: What are the components of each reading instructional framework? What are the primary methods and strategies of the reading instructional framework? What is the program setting like? What happens to participants in the program? What are the effects of the program on participants?

Descriptions are carefully separated from interpretation. Interpretation involves explaining the findings, answering "why" questions, attaching significance to particular results, and putting patterns in an analytic framework. Analysis focuses on needed information.

### Spradley's Developmental Research Sequence

Spradley's Directional Research Sequence analyzes observations and interviews. Initial analysis of observation is greatly facilitated by clarity of the units of analysis, that is, people, processes, and issues. In the Spradley DRS, there exists a domain, taxonomic, and componential analysis for each individual case study analysis.

After the descriptive observation, a domain analysis is formed. This domain describes the use of cover terms, the name for the cultural domain; including terms that name smaller categories inside the domain; and semantic relationships which link the two together. The taxonomic analysis

follows the focused observations and uncovers relationships among the included terms in each domain. The taxonomic analysis makes selective observations, analyzing the social situation and looking at differences among specific categories. These differences among specific categories are referred to as componential analysis.

### Constant Comparative Method Analysis

Constant Comparative Method Analysis by Lincoln and Guba (1985) is the process of identifying, coding, and categorizing the primary pattern in the data. This means that the constant comparative method can be applied to the same case study for any kind of qualitative information, including observations, interviews, documents, articles, books, and so forth. For imbedded unit of analysis where there are emerging themes, the constant comparative method is best utilized and lends itself to the cross-case analysis.

The steps in the constant comparative method analysis enumerated by Glaser (cited by Bogdan and Biklen, 2002) utilize by beginning a data collection and searching for important issues, recurring events, or activities in the data to develop categories of focus. The constant comparative method analysis collects further data that provides examples of the categories of focus, looking to see the diversity of each category, writing about the categories by describing and accounting for all the incidents within the data, and emerging themes to discover basic processes and relationships; lastly, it samples, codes, and writes the analysis focusing on the core categories.

Though a step-by-step process, these procedures occur simultaneously. The analysis continues in a complex recursive fashion where data is continually collected, coded, categorized, and analyzed until the completion of the case study.

### Cross-Case Analysis

Cross-case analysis means grouping answers from different people to common questions or analyzing different perspectives on central issues. Using a standardized open-ended interview, it is relatively easy to complete a cross-case or cross-interview analysis for each question in the interview and questionnaire. In this study, I compare and contrast components of the reading instructional framework of the kindergarten, first, and third grade classrooms that are most effective and frequently used methods and strategies in acquiring a second language. Data was analyzed across individual cases. Yin (2003) advocates a replication strategy whereby a conceptual framework directs the first case study; then successive cases are compared to the first case to determine whether any patterns match. I seek themes that cut across cases as well as themes that provide contrast between cases. The particular focus is on determining similarities and differences between Hispanics, between those groups of the kindergarten, first, and third grade who are in one of the three reading instructional frameworks, and between the three reading instructional frameworks that are the most effective and frequently used reading methods and strategies across the four case study groups.

The similarities and differences between the Hispanic students are comparisons taken from the Attitude and Interest Student Questionnaire. The topics of this questionnaire include: family, school, and interest. These topics are analyzed by Spradley's Developmental Research Sequence. The similarities and differences between the three case study groups consisting of two in kindergarten, one in first, and three in third grade and the methods and strategies most effective and frequently used by each of the teachers. Lastly, the similarities and differences are compared between the three reading instructional frameworks with reference to those methods and strategies most frequently used to arrive at proficiency on the Kindergarten, First, and Third Grade Level

Indicators of Essential Knowledge for the Early Childhood Years in Language Arts which is correlated to the Louisiana English Arts Content Standards and the Developmental Reading Assessment (DRA).

### **Case Study Report**

It is a written report in a multiple-case version of the classic single case. This multiple-case report contains multiple narratives about each of the cases individually. In addition, the written report contains a chapter covering the cross-case analysis and results, which follows the compositional process. This process identifies the audience for the report, develops the compositional structure, and is reviewed by key informants who are integral to the study.

The audience addressed is the reading education community and follows the linear-analytic structure. The sequence of subtopics involves the problem being studied, a review of the relevant prior literature, the methods used, and the findings from the data collected and analyzed, and the conclusions and implications from the findings.

## **CHAPTER 4 RESULTS AND DISCUSSION**

### **Results of Content Analysis**

#### Case Study Analysis

This is a multiple-imbedded exploratory case study. The case study analysis is focused on six individuals, specifically Hispanic elementary school students. The primary focus is on what is happening to the six students in a kindergarten, first, and third grade elementary school setting, how are these Hispanic students affected by the classroom setting within the context of the balanced literacy reading instructional framework of the kindergarten, first, and third grades, and what are the similarities and differences in the learning styles of the Hispanic students.

Case study analysis consists of the following:

- 1) Individual descriptive analysis of the six Hispanic students in the kindergarten, first, and third grades,
- 2) Individual descriptive analysis of the four teachers and the balanced literacy instructional framework used in their kindergarten, first and third grade classrooms, respectively;
- 3) Spradley's Developmental Research Sequence's domain, taxonomic, and componential analysis for the demographic comparison of Hispanic students, teachers, and administration.
- 4) Spradley's Developmental Research Sequence's domain, taxonomic, and componential analysis of the four case study groups of Hispanic students across the four balanced literacy reading instructional frameworks,
- 5) Spradley's Developmental Research Sequence domain, taxonomic, and componential analysis of the methods and strategies found to be most effective and frequently used in reading of Hispanic students, and
- 6) Constant Comparative Method Analysis of the principal and teachers' responses to an interview instrument, and
- 7) Cross-Case analysis arrives at a more systematic and comprehensive instructional approach for Hispanic students in elementary schools.

This research integrates the approaches of four balanced literacy reading instructional frameworks used by the four elementary school teachers in a highly culturally diverse elementary school.



## Descriptive Analysis

Hispanic Students. This exploratory case study follows six Hispanic students in the kindergarten, first, and third grades. There are two Hispanic students in kindergarten, one in the first grade, and three in third grade. Each of these Hispanic students is taught within a balanced literacy reading instructional framework.

Alicia Trujillo was born in Florida, May 10, 1990. She is the youngest of nine children. She lives happily at home with her aunt and uncle. At home, she helps her family, by washing dishes, sweeping, and cleaning. She is a well-mannered and lively child who likes to play with her cousins. When she is at home, she studies alone. She enjoys doing her homework and cleaning the home. On school days, she goes to bed at 8:00 p.m. On weekends, she also goes to bed at 8:00 p.m. She leaves for school having had her breakfast.

Alicia attends the third grade at Randolph Elementary School. She is happy to go to school most of the time. Alicia likes school because she wants to learn English and wants to help other students. The primary attribute she enjoys in class is the teacher because she requires that everyone speak English. Alicia does not like students who tease her too much. She likes to read because stories help her learn English. If she were to read for interest, she would read adventure stories. The reason she gives for liking to read in class is that the teacher and the other students help her learn. But she does realize that school is important because school helps her learn to speak English. She accepts the fact that homework is important because homework helps one learn to read and learn new words, even though she does not do her homework every day. When she does do her homework, she asks help from her aunt and her uncle. She plans to graduate from high school and attend college to become a teacher or a nurse. Her parents have not spoken to her about going to college because they live in Honduras.

She would like help from her teacher with homework and to teach her English. From her parents, if they were here, she would like them to help her with homework and English.

Her aunt understands English, but she does not speak English. No one reads to Alicia every day; but, when they do, they read in Spanish and, sometimes, in English. She has books of her own, which are primarily short stories.

Her personal interests are sports and computer games. The computer games relate to education. Her hobby is cooking. She has no pets. If she could do anything in the world, she would want to buy clothes and food. She admires her teacher the most because her teacher helps her with homework and English. She describes herself as nice and friendly. She does not attend movies, but she goes to church. Although she does know how to work with a computer, she does not have a computer at home.

When Alicia arrived at Randolph Elementary School, she spoke no English. Upon entering third grade in March, 1999, she scored 0 on the LAS/CTB Oral Language Level. This score signifies a category of Non-English Speaker. Two months later, she scored 1+ on the LAS/CTB Oral Language Level. This score still signifies a category of Non-English Speaker. Thus, based on the initial instructional level of the Second Grade Level Indicators of Essential Knowledge at the beginning of third grade, Alicia had mastered zero indicators in essential knowledge of oral language out of twenty-eight indicators; partially mastered, three; and non-mastered, twenty-five (Appendix G). However, she had attended school in Central America and possessed readiness skills when she arrived at Randolph Elementary School in 1999.

Arturo Serrano was born in Texas, May 23, 1989. He is the third of seven children. He lives with his mother, stepfather, three brothers, and three sisters. At home, he helps by taking out the trash, by cleaning the truck, and by washing the dishes. He is a well behaved and quiet child who plays with his brothers, sisters, and neighbor friends. When he is at home, he studies with his brothers and sisters. Sometimes, he studies alone. He enjoys watching television and playing with his friends. On school days, he goes to bed at 7:00

p.m.; but, on weekends, he goes to bed at 8:00 p.m. Sometimes, he leaves for school having had his breakfast, and he is sometimes well rested.

At times, Arturo is very complacent about going to school. He considers school boring because he likes only movies and games at school. The subject that he enjoys the most is science. He likes to read just because he does. If he were to read for interest, he would read chapter books and fiction. He likes to read in class because reading is nice. He considers homework important because reading helps you avoid mistakes and you learn more. He sometimes does his homework. Arturo does not dislike anything about school. He plans to graduate from high school to get a better job and go to college to study and play sports. He says his parents expect him to go to college because "You are smarter when you go to college." He hopes to be a football, basketball, or soccer player.

He would like to receive more assistance from his teacher with homework and more individual help, especially to work in small groups. He would like to have access to more computers at school. He would like his mother to help him in Spanish and in English. He would like more help from his stepfather in English. His mother and sister read to him in English at home. They read chapter books and other types of books. He does not have books of his own, but his mother and sister have magazines and adventure books.

His personal interests are sports such as soccer and basketball. He has computer arcade games, hobbies, and a pet. His hobbies are dinosaurs and books. His pet is a cat. If he could do anything in the world, he would buy a computer, have a horse, and be a dinosaur scientist. He admires Michael Jordan the most because he helps his mother and plays both baseball and basketball. He describes himself as smart, likes to exercise, and plays with his friend; and, all the time, he is a good student. He likes television cartoons because they are funny. He sometimes goes to see action movies, enjoys museums, and goes to church. He does not have a computer at home, but his parents were buying him one that day. He knows only a little about computers.

When Arturo arrived at Randolph Elementary School, he spoke English. Upon entering third grade in late January, 1999, he scored 4 on the LAS/CTB Oral Language Level. This score signifies a category of Fluent English Speaker. Upon his arrival as a third grade transfer student from the public school system of Texas and based on the initial instructional level of the Second Grade Level Indicators of Essential Knowledge, Arturo showed oral language mastery of twelve indicators of Essential Knowledge out of twenty-eight indicators; fifteen, partial mastery; and one, non-mastery (Appendix G). Since he had attended school in Texas, he already possessed readiness skills when he arrived at Randolph Elementary School in 1999.

Roberto Alvarez was born in Mexico, December 21, 1990. He is the second of four children. He lives with his parents and three brothers. At home, he helps by cleaning the house. He is a well-mannered and quiet child who plays with his brothers. When he is at home, he studies alone. On school days, he goes to bed at 7:00 p.m.; but, on weekends, he goes to bed at 9:00 p.m. He leaves for school having had his breakfast, but he is tired.

Roberto attends the third grade at Randolph Elementary School. Roberto is happy about attending school, but he is sometimes unhappy. He likes school because they help him learn English. The subject that he enjoys the most is physical education. Roberto does not dislike anything about school. He does like to read because reading is fun. If he were to read for interest, he would read about animals. He likes to read in class because it is fun. He considers school important because they teach him how to learn more. He sometimes does his homework. He plans to graduate from high school and go to college to study and become a veterinarian. He says that he does not know if his parents expect him to go to college since they have not discussed it as of yet.

He would like for his teacher to require more practice, to read more in class, and to have less homework. He believes homework should be given during school hours, but homework should not be assigned to be taken home. He does not do his homework every

day. He wishes to have more books available from his school. He would like more help from his mother in doing homework. However, his mother speaks only Spanish. His father does speak English, but no one reads to him in English or in Spanish. He does have books of his own, and these books are about animals.

His personal interests are sports such as football. He has computer games on education. His hobby is painting. His pet is a snake. If he could do anything in the world, he would go to Disneyland and buy a Nintendo and cassettes. He admires his mother because she is nice and she loves him. He describes himself as nice. He likes television cartoons, goes to see action movies, enjoys museums and concerts, and attends church. He does have a computer at home. He knows only a little about computers.

When Roberto arrived at Randolph Elementary School, he spoke no English. Upon entering second grade, he scored 0 on the LAS/CTB Oral Language Level. This score signifies a category of Non-English Speaker. Upon entering third grade, he scored 1 on the LAS/CTB Oral Language Level. This score still signifies a category of Non-English Speaker. Thus, based on the initial instructional level of the Second Grade Level Indicators of Essential Knowledge at the beginning of third grade, Roberto had mastered only zero indicators of essential knowledge out of twenty-eight indicators; partially mastered, one; and non-mastered, twenty-seven (Appendix G). However, he had attended school in Mexico and possessed readiness skills when he arrived at Randolph Elementary School in 1997.

Marcos Valenzuela was born in Mexico, October 18, 1992. He is the third of four children. He lives with his parents, two sisters, and one brother. At home, he helps by cleaning his room, making the bed, and throwing the trash. He is well-mannered and quiet child who plays with his brother and neighbors. When he is at home, he studies alone. He enjoys watching television, playing basketball and playing with the cat. On school days, he goes to bed at 8:30 p.m.; but, on weekends, he goes to bed at 9:00 p.m. He, sometimes, leaves for school having had his breakfast, but he is rested. Marcos is always very happy to

go to school. He likes school because he wants to learn everything, go to college, and plans to become a teacher. What he enjoys the most is reading. Marcos likes to study and wants to learn more. What he dislikes about school is homework. He does like to read a lot because he likes to discuss. If he were to read for interest, he would read about science. He likes to read in class and considers homework important because you learn extra information. He plans to graduate from high school because his mother says so since she did not finish. His parents expect him to go to college because you will not make a big mistake. He plans to be a soccer player or a science teacher.

He would like to receive additional help from his teacher with school work and more small groups, and he would like for the school to look nicer. He would like for his parents to help him in Spanish and in English. His mother reads to him every night in English from a chapter book, and he has his own books, which are chapter books.

His personal interests are sports such as soccer and basketball. He has computer games such as Wildcat. He has no hobbies, but he does have a pet cat. If he could do anything in the world, he would be a famous football player or baseball player and fly an airplane. He admires his father the most because he knows how to handle problems, he loves him, and he does not get mad. He likes television cartoons because they are fun. He enjoys adventure/action movies and goes to church. At home, he does not have a computer, but he does know a little. He considers himself nice, smart, and a good student.

When Marcos arrived to kindergarten grade at Randolph Elementary School, he spoke Spanish. In November, 1997, he scored 0 on the LAS/CTB Oral Language Level. This score signifies a category of Non English Speaker. Based on the initial instructional level of the Kindergarten Grade Level Indicators of Essential Knowledge, Marcos's oral language showed mastery of two indicators of Essential Knowledge out of thirty-one indicators; partially mastered, three; and non-mastered, twenty-six (Appendix D). He possessed sufficient readiness skills. In 1998, he took the LAS/CTB and scores 63/2, which categorized

Marcos as a Limited English Speaker and had mastered seven out of twenty-eight indicators; nineteen indicators, partial mastery; and four indicators, non-mastery, at first grade level.

Jose Fernandez was born in Cuba, January 1, 1993. He is the youngest of four children. He lives with his parents, a sister, and two brothers. At home, he helps his mother. He is a well-mannered and quiet child who plays with his brothers. When he is at home, he studies alone. He enjoys watching television cartoons. On school days and weekends, he goes to bed at 7:00 p.m. He leaves for school having had his breakfast and is well rested. Jose loves school. He likes school because he likes to read and play games. The subject that he enjoys the most is reading about animals. Jose likes to read picture books. If he were to read for interest, he would read about animals. He has a good attitude and is always anxious to participate because he has great confidence. He plans to graduate from high school and go to college. He plans to be a doctor. His parents expect him to attend college because he says, "See how smart I am right now." From his classroom teacher, he would like his teacher to read more and have more available books in class. From his mother, he would like her to help him in English. His mother only reads to him in Spanish at home. He has his own books; they are picture books and about science.

His personal interests are sports and computer games. He has no hobbies or pets. If he could do anything in the world, he would be good for his parents and have perfect attendance. He admires his teacher the most because he learns a lot. He likes television cartoons because they are funny. He enjoys adventure movies and goes to church. At home, he has a computer, and he knows a little. He considers himself nice, good, and smart.

When Jose arrived at Randolph Elementary School, he spoke Spanish. He was only four and a half years old. Upon entering kindergarten grade in 1997, he scored 0 on the LAS/CTB Oral Language Level. This score signifies a category of Non-English Speaker. By 1998, he had scored Limited English Speaker, Level 3, on LAS/CTB Oral Language Level. On the Pre-Kindergarten Grade Level Indicators of Essential Knowledge, he scored

zero on mastery, eight on partial mastery, and twenty on non-mastery out of twenty-eight indicators (Appendix D).

Carlos Arriola was born in Mexico, March 8, 1993. He is the youngest of five children. He lives with his parents, two sisters, and two older brothers. At home, he helps his brothers. He is a well-mannered and quiet child who plays with his brothers, sisters, and cousins. When he is at home, he sometimes studies alone. At times, his family helps him. He enjoys watching television cartoons. On school days and weekends, he goes to bed at 7:30 p.m. He leaves for school having had his breakfast and is well rested. Carlos loves school, because he likes to play games. The subject that he enjoys the most is having the teacher read picture books to the class. Carlos likes to read picture books. If he were to read for interest, he would read about animals. He is good natured, but he is shy. Carlos thinks that school is important because you learn everything. Homework is important because you become smart. Sometimes, he does his homework. He plans to graduate from high school to get a good job. He does not know about college because his parents have not said. They have only talked to the oldest about college. He plans to become a teacher.

He would like more help from the teacher, and the teacher read more. He would like to have more books from the school. He would like for his mother to help him in English. At home, his mother reads to him in Spanish and a little English. He does not have his own books, but he reads library books.

His personal interests are soccer and running. He likes computer games such as Donkey Kong. He has no hobbies or pets. If he could anything in the world, he would help people. He admires his teacher the most because she is nice and smart. He enjoys cartoons because they are fun. He likes adventure movies and goes to church. At home, he has a computer, but he only knows a little. He considers himself quiet and nice.

When Carlos arrived at Randolph Elementary School, he spoke Spanish. He was five and a half years old. Upon entering kindergarten grade in 1998, he scored 1 on the LAS/CTB



Oral Language Level. This score signifies a category of Non-English Speaker. In 1998 - 1999, he still scored Non English Speaker, Level 1, on LAS/CTB Oral Language Level. On the Pre-Kindergarten Grade Level Indicators of Essential Knowledge, he scored zero on mastery; four on partial mastery; and twenty-four on non-mastery out of twenty-eight indicators.

Balanced Literacy Classroom Teachers. This exploratory case study consists of four classroom teachers, who were purposely selected according the instructional framework each used in teaching reading, which was Balanced Literacy.

Ms. Veronica Winston, Teacher #1, an African American, is in her forties. She has been a teacher for nineteen years and has taught one year at Randolph Elementary School. Presently, she teaches second grade in the afternoon and third-fourth combination in the morning. She holds a Bachelor of Arts Degree in elementary education plus fifteen graduate hours. She also has ten to twelve hours in administrative supervision. Ms. Winston has graduated from a southern university and is returning this fall to continue her Master Degree in education.

Ms. Sarah Fairchild, Teacher #2, an African American, in her early fifties. She has taught twenty-six years. At Randolph Elementary School, she has taught more than twenty years. Presently, she teaches third-fourth combination in the morning. Ms. Fairchild possesses a Master Degree in education and an additional thirty units in reading. She has attended and graduated from a southern university.

Ms. Gloria Villanueva, Teacher #3, a Mexican American, is in her late forties. She has taught thirty years and has been at Randolph Elementary School for twelve years. Presently, she teaches kindergarten-first combination in the morning. She has received her Bachelor of Science Degree, Magna Cum Laude, from Texas and her Master Degree in education, Summa Cum Laude, from a southern university. Ms. Villanueva is certified in administrative supervision and is returning to work on a gifted program.

Ms. Carole Fletcher, Teacher #4, an African American, is in her thirties. She has taught one year and has been at Randolph Elementary School for one year. Presently, she teaches a first-second combination in the morning. She graduated with a Bachelor of Science Degree in elementary Education from a southern university.

Balanced Literacy Instructional Framework. As the unit of analysis is a Hispanic elementary student, the primary focus of the data collection was on what was happening to the individual student in a kindergarten, first, and third grade elementary school setting. This descriptive analysis is how these Hispanic students were affected by the classroom setting within the context of the reading instruction framework of kindergarten, first, and third grade.

Ms. Veronica Winston. She taught a third-fourth combination in the morning. Her Hispanic student was Alicia Trujillo.

According to the Second Grade Level Indicators of Essential Knowledge, Alicia cannot read or understand grade appropriate vocabulary and high frequency words. She, occasionally, recognizes and uses phonics during her reading because she can read and write in Spanish and the language of Spanish is phonetic in structure. Alicia has partial mastery of parts of speech because the Spanish language has the same structural parts of speech. She has difficulty using contextual clues with her limited fluency in English, which affects retelling a story and identifying the story structure such as the main characters with supporting details. She can partially comprehend and interpret what she reads with the use of reading strategies and does realize when she makes a reading error. Alicia attempts to correct her errors by searching for meaning in using pictures and visually searches through words using phonemic awareness. Being very astute, Alicia attempts to write in complete sentences and communicate with the use of Standard English; even though, at times, she uses inventive spelling to convey her reasoning skills. With regard to her oral language, she is very outgoing and tends to be distracted when listening and responding to discussion. Alicia lacks

the knowledge base and the prior experience in English, but she has been educated to communicate and read in Spanish. Her learning performance is at a non-reading instructional level because of her non-English reading ability. At present, Alicia is a visual and sensory learner and reader.

During one observation, students were being taught parts of speech. Ms. Winston was asking questions for review. The class was quiet and well-behaved, and the students wanted to answer the recall questions. This review included word identification. Each word was defined in a complete sentence. Reinforcement was conducted orally. Grammar structure was taught by structural cues. Words were written on the board for word recognition as high-frequency words. Ditto worksheets were passed out as supplementary materials and as a follow-up for reinforcement. Students had practice in the concept of incomplete versus complete sentence. The format was a modified cloze procedure where the missing words were provided on the basal ditto worksheet.

The next directed reading activity (DRA) was oral reading and listening to mispronounced cues with corrected answers immediately being given as a response. Questions of "why" were they wrong followed. Students answered individually with the correct response. Alicia was too shy to volunteer, but she would answer when called upon by Ms. Winston. The teacher used positive reinforcement with Alicia to lessen her timidness and to motivate her self-esteem. She continued the lesson by asking about their prior knowledge and prior experiences. During their silent sustained time, she gave individual help if the students raised their hand. In addition, there was peer sharing since there were six student desks clustered together, and they were allowed to talk to each other. This was especially important for Alicia since she lacked English fluency in speaking and in writing. For others, they could work independently. There was a whole class discussion afterwards.

In reading circles, Ms. Winston used small groups of five to seven students at a time. They read, and Ms. Winston would ask comprehension questions relating to what they had read. Alicia was in a small group in which other students would help her when she had difficulty. This peer sharing or buddy system was very helpful to her, and she was not at all shy to ask for help from her classmates. Those students who were in need of skill development were in this reading group. For Alicia, Ms. Winston used one-to-one reading strategy, since she arrived in the early spring of the current school year. If there were problems in directions or comprehension, Alicia was free to ask others for assistance. At times, Ms. Winston would sit with her to give assistance.

Vocabulary was introduced by word identification, word recognition, or phonic analysis. Phonemic awareness was developed by the use of questions, both literal and inferential. Scaffolding and modeling were used to develop free expression and to assist students in becoming independent learners.

Picture books were also an essential component of reading instruction. Anticipation was enhanced with the use of illustrations and the story structure. Anticipatory questions were asked about prior knowledge and prior experiences in regards to the story title and story. New vocabulary was introduced by asking for meaning or definition by means of contextual analysis and structural analysis.

Word study skills were developed by recognition through similarities to known words. The class learned the use of contextual clues by making thinking and reasoning visible to the students. The use of "Think Alouds" helped them develop comprehension and the opportunity to demonstrate to Ms. Winston their ability to identify vocabulary. Alicia was gently encouraged to raise her hand and attempt to answer the questions of Ms. Winston. Alicia enjoyed direct instruction because oral acquisition was readily available to her with everyone answering. She remarked, "That she liked hearing students speak because she felt she was learning by listening."

Ms. Winston used the six instructional functions for teaching of tasks. She reviewed homework with the class by asking students to recall previous skills and knowledge. Material was presented in small steps so that students would not digress in their learning skills. Many positive and negative examples were provided to the students. Ms. Winston checked for student understanding and spent more than enough time on guided practice of the new material, especially when the answers were correct but with hesitation. Independent practice was allowed when she felt they could work at their tables. Scaffolding was used for independent learner, and the "buddy" system was used to provide help for the slower students, such as Alicia.

Ms. Winston implemented the literacy skills of decoding used in phonics, structural analysis, and contextual analysis. Cognitive skills included summarizing stories, critically reacting to what was read, and the use of scaffolding. She incorporated writing activities and language experiences into the students' lessons. This incorporation of language-experience provided a change of pace for the students in class. Positive attitudes toward reading by the students were evident when it provided opportunities for students to discuss personal experiences before reading the new selections. This eclectic instruction to reading instruction supported the use of the developmental continuum of the basal reader. Thus, Ms. Winston, with modifications to the basal literature-based reading program, was able to provide practice in critical thinking and set purposes for reading through self-generated students' questions.

Ms. Sarah Fairchild. She taught a third-fourth combination in the morning. Her Hispanic students were Arturo Serrano and Roberto Alvarez.

When Arturo arrived at Randolph Elementary School, he spoke English. Upon entering third grade in late January, 1999, he scored 4 on the LAS/CTB Oral Language Level. This score signifies a category of Fluent English Speaker. Upon his arrival as a third grade transfer student from the public school system of Texas and based on the initial

instructional level of the Second Grade Level Indicators of Essential Knowledge, Arturo's oral language showed mastery of twelve indicators of Essential Knowledge out of twenty-eight indicators (Appendix G). Since he had attended school in Texas, he already possessed readiness skills when he arrived at Randolph Elementary School.

When Roberto arrived at Randolph Elementary School, he spoke no English. Upon entering second grade, he scored 0 on the LAS/CTB Oral Language Level. This score signifies a category of Non-English Speaker. Upon entering third grade, he scored 1 on the LAS/CTB Oral Language Level. This score still signifies a category of Non-English Speaker. Thus, based on the initial instructional level of the Second Grade Level Indicators of Essential Knowledge at the beginning of third grade, Roberto's oral language had mastered zero indicators of essential knowledge out of twenty-eight indicators; partially mastered, one; and non-mastered, twenty-seven (Appendix G). However, he had attended school in Mexico and possessed readiness skills when he arrived at Randolph Elementary School in 1997.

According to the Second Grade Level Indicators of Essential Knowledge, Roberto Alvarez could not read and understand grade appropriate vocabulary and high frequency words. He recognizes some phonics during his reading and has non-mastery of parts of speech. He has difficulty using contextual clues, and his very limited fluency in English affects retelling a story and identifying the story structure such as the main characters with supporting details. He can partially comprehend, but he can not interpret what he reads with the use of reading strategies due to his lack of vocabulary. He does realize when he makes a reading error, and he attempts to correct his errors by searching for meaning by using pictures and visually searches through words using phonemic awareness. He attempts to write in complete sentences and communicate with the use of Standard English; even though, at times, he still uses inventive spelling to convey his reasoning skills. With regard to his oral language, he still is very shy and tends to be distracted when listening and

responding to discussion. Upon completing second grade, he read at a 1.8 instructional reading level.

According to the Second Grade Level Indicators of Essential Knowledge, Arturo can read and understand appropriate vocabulary and high frequency words. He can use contextual clues for meaningful reading and can identify the characters, main ideas, and solutions in a story. He comprehends and interprets what is read. Arturo is more motivated to read than Roberto because Arturo's mother reads to him a chapter book every night and has his own books, which are also chapter books.

Arturo had readiness skills when he arrived to the third grade. He also was fluent in Standard English and wrote in complete sentences. He could write a story with a beginning, middle, and end which includes story elements. Arturo could apply reasoning skills in all forms of communication and was able to get meaning from a variety of media. He was a good listener and responded to discussion. His speech patterns were well-grounded in phonics, that is, the use of consonants, vowels, blends, and digraphs. When Arturo entered third grade, he had mastered twelve indicators and fifteen partial mastery indicators of the Second Grade Level Indicators of Essential Knowledge.

Regarding their personalities, Arturo talks more and is easily distracted. But he is still rather quiet when he is compared to the rest of the students. Roberto, on the other hand, is very quiet and a little shy. He is well focused on his tasks. Both are well-mannered and respectful in class. Arturo's learning performance was at 4 on the LAS/CTB Oral Language Level, placing him in the category of Fluent English Speaker; whereas, Roberto is a Limited English Speaker.

Ms. Fairchild had students listen to her as she would read a chapter book. She read a paragraph and then asked for volunteers to read. Arturo enjoyed reading to the class. If he had difficulty decoding, he would use his skills in phonics to sound out the vocabulary word. Ms. Fairchild allowed students to read a variety of quality children's literature. The chapter

book used by Ms. Fairchild was a full-length novel in its original form. Their chapter book was Roald Dahl's James and the Giant Peach. At the completion of this book, a video on the chapter book was shown as feedback and review.

In addition, there were also additional reading picture books and reports. Picture books were introduced to serve as motivators for reading. Each week, students would report on what they had read. These reports extended the students' firsthand experiences as to what was happening in their daily lives and in the world around them.

Ms. Fairchild focused on building up the students' language facility both in oral and written forms. Language was more than a skill continuum, but it was a creative engagement of how language worked. Each day Ms. Fairchild read, and students volunteered to read. Language experience was the foundation of the day's lesson. "Language together" represented the use of speech, phonics, and grammar in a more natural learning instructional setting. This strategy gave many more opportunities to listen, speak, write, read, and think than the basal skills continuum had provided students. Cognitive skills were developed by making a connection between reading and writing. This connection engaged the students in critical thinking skills and high frequency vocabulary.

Ms. Fairchild used reading with an entire class, collaborative group, and one-to-one interactions. At times, silent sustained reading was used where students read to themselves at their own student seats. Retelling was used as a review and comprehension strategy. Collaboration was used for the science and social science reports either by going to the computer or by using independent small group activity of three or four students. This collaboration was used for future oral presentation to the class. There was great flexibility in grouping. Peer sharing and the "buddy" system were used extensively in the class learning setting.

Ms. Fairchild had a highly self-motivated class. There was a constant interaction with the students on an individual basis. Students enjoyed this interaction because they could



read materials that met their own interests and related to real-life reading situations. Students saw their success since they were working at the appropriate level of learning.

Two learning stations were used by Ms. Fairchild. One consisted of two tables in the corner, and the second was at the back wall with two computers and printer available for class projects. These learning stations were used to personalize language study. These were used at least two or three times a week by the students, more frequently when their reports were to be finalized and given as oral reports to the class.

Ongoing assessment was also a continuous aspect of the balanced literacy framework. Directed Reading Activity (DRA) was engaged when there were mispronounced oral reading cues made. Corrected answers were immediately given as a response. Both literal and inferential questions were asked. Anticipatory questions were asked of student in order to relate the new material to prior knowledge and experience. Scaffolding was stressed to develop free expression. In addition, "Think Alouds" developed further free expression among the students and helped develop comprehension of the material. Arturo was always wanting to response as much as the other students. Most of the students were readers by choice in Ms. Fairchild's class.

Vocabulary was introduced by word identification, word recognition, or phonic analysis. By asking for meaning or definition by means of contextual analysis and structural analysis, new vocabulary was also introduced within the reading selection. Spelling tests of twenty words were given each Friday. Some of the words were selected from the reader and others were taken from their grade level speller. Reinforcement of skills was further developed through the use of newspapers, content areas, and other high-interest materials.

Whenever there was a learning difficulty, Ms. Fairchild reverted to direct instruction. In direct instruction, the teacher becomes the leader and is of utmost importance. She redirected the instruction by telling, providing examples, and demonstrating the skill or the strategy that was not fully understood by the students. She made the strategy explicit rather

than encourage students to discover how to do it themselves. By specifying literacy behaviors to be achieved, students could readily learn and achieve success at a higher reading level. She related instruction to the assessed learning task, and students were able to continue their success without losing learning momentum.

As a part of their reading stories, students developed the ability to use sentence patterns by oral role playing. This strategy was used to correct errors in reading by having students' chorus story sentences, using their voices to signal the grammar mistakes made while they read. Students saw this strategy of self-correction as fun and enjoyable, even though the literature-based language play was helping them to refine their ability to use language effectively and giving them the comprehension how language actually worked.

Ms. Carole Fletcher. She taught a first-second combination in the morning. Her Hispanic student was Marcos Valenzuela.

When Marcos arrived in kindergarten at Randolph Elementary School, he spoke Spanish. In November, 1997, he scored 0 on the LAS/CTB Oral Language Level. This score signifies a category of Non English Speaker. Based on the initial instructional level of the Kindergarten Grade Level Indicators of Essential Knowledge, Marcos showed mastery in oral language of two indicators of Essential Knowledge out of thirty-one indicators; partially mastered, three; and non-mastered, twenty-six (Appendix D). He possessed sufficient readiness skills. In 1998, he took the LAS/CTB and scores 63/2, which categorized Marcos as a Limited English Speaker and mastered five out of thirty, twenty-one partial mastery, and four non-mastery indicators of the First Grade Level Indicators of Essential Knowledge.

According to the First Grade Level Indicators of Essential Knowledge, Marcos can not read and understand grade appropriate vocabulary and high frequency words. He does recognize some consonants, vowels, blends, and digraphs during reading. He is able to read silently for sustained time. He has non-mastery of parts of speech and has difficulty using contextual clues. His limited fluency of English affects retelling a story and identifying the

story structure such as the main characters with supporting details. He can partially comprehend and interpret what he reads with the use of reading strategies. His difficulty is the lack of vocabulary. Marcos realizes when he makes a reading error, and he attempts to correct his errors by searching for meaning by using pictures and visually searches through words using phonemic awareness. He attempts to write in complete sentences and communicate with the use of Standard English; although at times, he still uses inventive spelling to convey his reasoning skills.

With regard to his oral language, he is still shy and tends to be embarrassed when he is called by the teacher to respond or take part in class discussion. This can be attributed to his lack of English proficiency.

During the observation, students were being taught grammar in class. Ms. Fletcher was having them review punctuation. The class was quiet and well-behaved, and the students were allowed to read their library books upon completion of their grammar assignment. Many students had their own library books to read, and others went to reading center to select books; however, these books had to be returned to the reading stacks.

Ms. Fletcher stressed reading and writing throughout the day's lesson, even when reviewing thought problems with the students. The students spent a great deal of time listening, speaking, and writing. Learning was taught by Ms. Fletcher as a whole, functional, meaningful, and continual process; however, there were frequently too many time lapses between tasks.

Flexibility was a key concept in Ms. Fletcher's class. First, flexibility was met by the use of learning stations. There were two learning stations: one was the computer center at the back wall, and the second was the reading center with two tables and six chairs in the corner of the room. There were a variety of baskets, each with different books of different reading difficulty levels. Each of these centers could be used when students had completed their work before the entire class had finished theirs. They were allowed to walk and browse at

the reading center. A possible third learning center was their own desk, since they could pull out a reading book whenever they finished their desk work. Silent sustained reading was used by students at their own desks.

Second, flexibility was enhanced by the use of grouping. At times, students worked in one-to-one interaction, independent study, or cooperative group interaction. Peer sharing and "buddy" system was very helpful to review or to ask about misunderstood directions. Questions could be asked of other students rather than always asking the teacher to repeat. Students were taught the basic classroom rules for using time, seeking assistance, and moving from place to place.

Third, flexibility was integrated throughout the curriculum as well as throughout the day such as in language, literacy, math, and science. Activities were multicultural and materials were provided to enhance individual students' self-esteem and to enrich the lives of everyone with respectful acceptance and appreciation of differences and similarities. This was very important since the classroom enrollment was 85% African American and 15% other minorities such as Hispanics and Central Europeans.

Ms. Fletcher used a balanced literacy reading program. This consisted of word recognition, word meaning, comprehension, reading study skills, literature, and recreational reading. Ms. Fletcher focused on building up student language facility both in the oral and written forms. Language was considered more than a skill continuum, but was more a creative engagement of how language worked. She used "language together" which represented the use of speech, phonics, and grammar in a more natural learning instructional setting. This strategy gave students more opportunities to listen, speak, read, and think than the basal skills continuum. Ms. Fletcher implemented literacy skills of decoding used in phonics, structural analysis, and contextual analysis. Cognitive skills were learned by students summarizing stories, critically reacting to what was read, and the use of scaffolding. Positive attitudes toward reading by the students were evident when they were provided

opportunities to discuss personal experiences before reading a new selection. Phonemic awareness was developed by the use of questions, both literal and inferential. Anticipatory questions focused on prior knowledge and prior experiences when Ms. Fletcher referred to the story title and story. New vocabulary was introduced by asking for meaning or definition by means of contextual analysis and structural analysis. Spelling tests were given every Friday with some words taken from their readers.

Word study skills were introduced by "Think Alouds." This strategy allowed Marcos to join in class discussion without embarrassment. It encouraged him to raise his hand and attempt to answer the questions asked by Ms. Fletcher. Frequently, Ms. Fletcher presented material in small steps so that students would be able to attain success in their learning. Their corrected work was kept in a portfolio for later viewing by the teacher and their parents.

Whenever there was a learning difficulty, Ms. Fletcher used direct instruction. Direct instruction allowed her to redirect instruction by providing examples to the students, telling them what they needed to note in their learning, and demonstrating the skill that had not fully been understood by them. She would walk them through by showing them how to understand the comprehension strategies, so they would be able to understand content materials. This strategy is known as the action oriented reading strategy whose goal is to foster rapid, automatic comprehension responses to print.

Ms. Fletcher did not attempt to mold each student to any particular curriculum or approach because she was teaching students what they needed to know in order to meet their own learning needs. She used different types of instruction such as direct versus indirect. Other times, she used motivational strategies that were intrinsic in nature rather than extrinsic. Instructional materials varied from published readers to literature books, computers to games, and magazines to personal journals. Students were encouraged to discuss what they read with one another and with the teacher because reading comprehension is not only a

cognitive process but also a social one. As a result, she also encouraged parents to play an important part in the reading development of their own child.

Ms. Fletcher attempted to forge partnerships with the home and the community to promote reading growth. The school library and its role were as important as the activities occurring in the classroom. Going to the library was a part of every week's activities of each of the students in class. She assessed the literacy strengths and weaknesses of each student by checklists; she structured literacy activities around an interactive instructional format by providing students with opportunities to learn and to apply skills and strategies to real-life literacy tasks.

Ms. Gloria Villanueva. She taught a kindergarten-first combination in the morning. Her Hispanic students were Jose Fernandez and Carlos Arriola.

When Jose arrived at Randolph Elementary School, he spoke Spanish. He was only four and a half years old. Upon entering kindergarten grade in 1997, he scored 0 on the LAS/CTB Oral Language Level. This score signifies a category of Non-English Speaker. By 1998, he had scored Limited English Speaker, Level 3, on LAS/CTB Oral Language Level.

When Carlos arrived at Randolph Elementary School, he spoke Spanish. He was five and a half years old. Upon entering kindergarten grade in 1998, he scored 1 on the LAS/CTB Oral Language Level. This score signifies a category of Non-English Speaker. In 1998 - 1999, he still scored Non English Speaker, Level 1, on LAS/CTB Oral Language Level.

According to LAS/CTB Oral Language Level, Jose knew vocabulary, could listen and comprehend, and retell a story, but Carlos knew no vocabulary, did not understand or comprehend an oral selection, and could not retell a story. Ms. Villanueva taught the students how the alphabet represented sounds by Writing Aloud and Thinking Aloud. Everything that she said she repeated and retold. As she read her fairy tales and poems, she would stress vocabulary and word identification. Ms. Villanueva would ask questions for

recalling information, and the students would be always anxious to answer. Jose was always waving his hand; Carlos wanted to hide and not be seen. Reinforcement was conducted in oral language. Words were written on the board for word recognition.

Ms. Villanueva conducted directed reading activities (DRA) in listening to mispronounced words and cues by immediately answering with correct enunciation. She used positive reinforcement to lessen the shyness of Jose and Carlos and others. She motivated self-esteem by asking about their prior knowledge and prior experiences. She redirected instruction by telling, providing examples, and demonstrating the skill or the strategy that was not fully understood by the students.

In reading, she had the children sit on the mat on the floor. She used picture books and asked questions about what they saw. In having them sit closely together, she was utilizing small group instruction. Later, this instruction would develop into peer sharing or the buddy system. She used a one-to-one reading strategy when she saw problems in directions or comprehension.

Vocabulary was introduced by word identification, word recognition, or phonic analysis. Phonemic awareness was developed by the use of questions, both literal and inferential. Modeling was used to develop free expression and independent learning.

Picture books were used as a part of language arts. The use of illustrations and story structure enhanced the anticipatory questions. "Think Alouds" helped students develop comprehension skills. Students were presented material in small steps so there would a continuum in learning skills. Cognitive skills included summarizing stories read to them. She would stress story structure such as the main characters with supporting details. "Language together" represented the use of speech, phonics, and grammar in a more natural learning instructional setting. "Language together" permitted students the opportunity to listen, speak, think, and, eventually, read.

Ms. Villanueva used reading with the entire class, collaborative groups, and one-to-one interactions. There were learning stations around the classroom. As a part of reading stories, she taught the students sentence patterns by oral role playing. Students engaged in chorus reading of story sentences, using their voices to signal punctuation. Students considered this strategy fun and enjoyable. This strategy teaches students how to refine their ability to use language effectively and assists them in understanding how language actually works.

Ms. Villanueva introduced to students the important reading skills. She taught her students phonemic awareness, phonics, fluency, comprehension, and vocabulary. Her strategies included helping students learn to manipulate phonemes in words, practice the letters of the alphabet, saying the individual phonemes in a word and asking students to blend them to form a whole word, converting letters to sounds, promoting repeated reading and providing explicit feedback, helping students create mental images to understand, teaching high-frequency vocabulary words, and letting students write with "invented spelling." The students learned to recognize and name all uppercase and lowercase letters, to write most letters and some words when they were dictated, and to recognize some words by sight (the, I, my, you, is, are, and etc.), and writes their first and last names. All students loved learning, even Carlos.

### **Spradley's Developmental Research Sequence**

Ethnographic analysis is a systematic examination of ethnographic data to determine its parts, the relationships among parts and their relationship to the whole. The analysis searches for patterns (Spradley, 1980).

Spradley's Developmental Research Sequence has three levels of analysis: the domain, the taxonomic and componential analysis.

By definition, the domain analysis is comprised of three basic elements: the cover term, the semantic relationships, and the included terms. The domain analysis, and



important basic unit in every culture, is the first type of ethnographic analysis (Spradley, 1980).

The domain analysis depicts the demographic setting of the following: administration to school, teachers to classrooms, Hispanic students to grade, and reading instructional frameworks to reading process.

Table 2 follows with a comprehensive visual presentation of the domain analysis process of the Spradley Developmental Research Sequence.

**Table 2: Spradley's Developmental Research Sequence**

Domain Analysis

THE DEMOGRAPHIC SETTING
IS A KIND OF
Administration/School Teachers/Classrooms Hispanic Students/Grade
ADMINISTRATION/SCHOOL
IS A KIND OF
Ms. Carla Cameron/Randolph Elementary School

(table cont.)

TEACHERS/CLASSROOM
IS A KIND OF
Ms. Veronica Winston/Third Grade Ms. Sarah Fairchild/Third Grade Ms. Carole Fletcher/First Grade Ms. Gloria Villanueva/Kindergarten Grade

HISPANIC STUDENTS
IS A KIND OF
Arturo Serrano/Third Grade Student Alicia Trujillo/Third Grade Student Roberto Alvarez/Third Grade Student Marcos Valenzuela/First Grade Student Jose Fernandez/Kindergarten Student Carlos Arriola/Kindergarten Student

READING INSTRUCTIONAL FRAMEWORK
IS A KIND OF
Reading Process Basal Reader Literature-Based Balanced Literacy

(table cont.)

READING PROCESS
IS A KIND OF
Sensory Perceptual Sequential Experiential Cognitive Learning Association Affective

BASAL READER
IS A KIND OF
Graded Books Controlled Vocabulary Language Experience Accountability Teacher's Materials Students' Materials Basal Improvements Language-Driven Basal Reader Literature-Driven Basal Reader

(table cont.)

LITERATURE-BASED
IS A KIND OF
Language Experience Thematic Units Literary Elements Units Author-Based Genre-Based Chapter Book Topical Webbing Picture Books Oral Role Playing Grouping
BALANCED LITERACY
IS A KIND OF
Continuous Progress Organization Learning Stations Planning Classroom Time Record Keeping Reading Activities Developmental Reading Phonic Awareness Application Transfer Shared Reading Independent Reading Content Reading Functional Reading Oral Reading Action Oriented Reading Strategy Shared Writing Free Writing Spelling Instruction Learning-Writing Components Writing Aloud

(table cont.)

ASSESSMENT
IS A KIND OF
Formal Assessment Informal Assessment

FORMAL ASSESSMENT
IS A KIND OF
Standardized Tests Diagnostic Tests

INFORMAL ASSESSMENT
IS A KIND OF
Observation Informal Reading Inventories Performance-Based Assessment Procedures Anecdotal Records Response Journals Portfolios

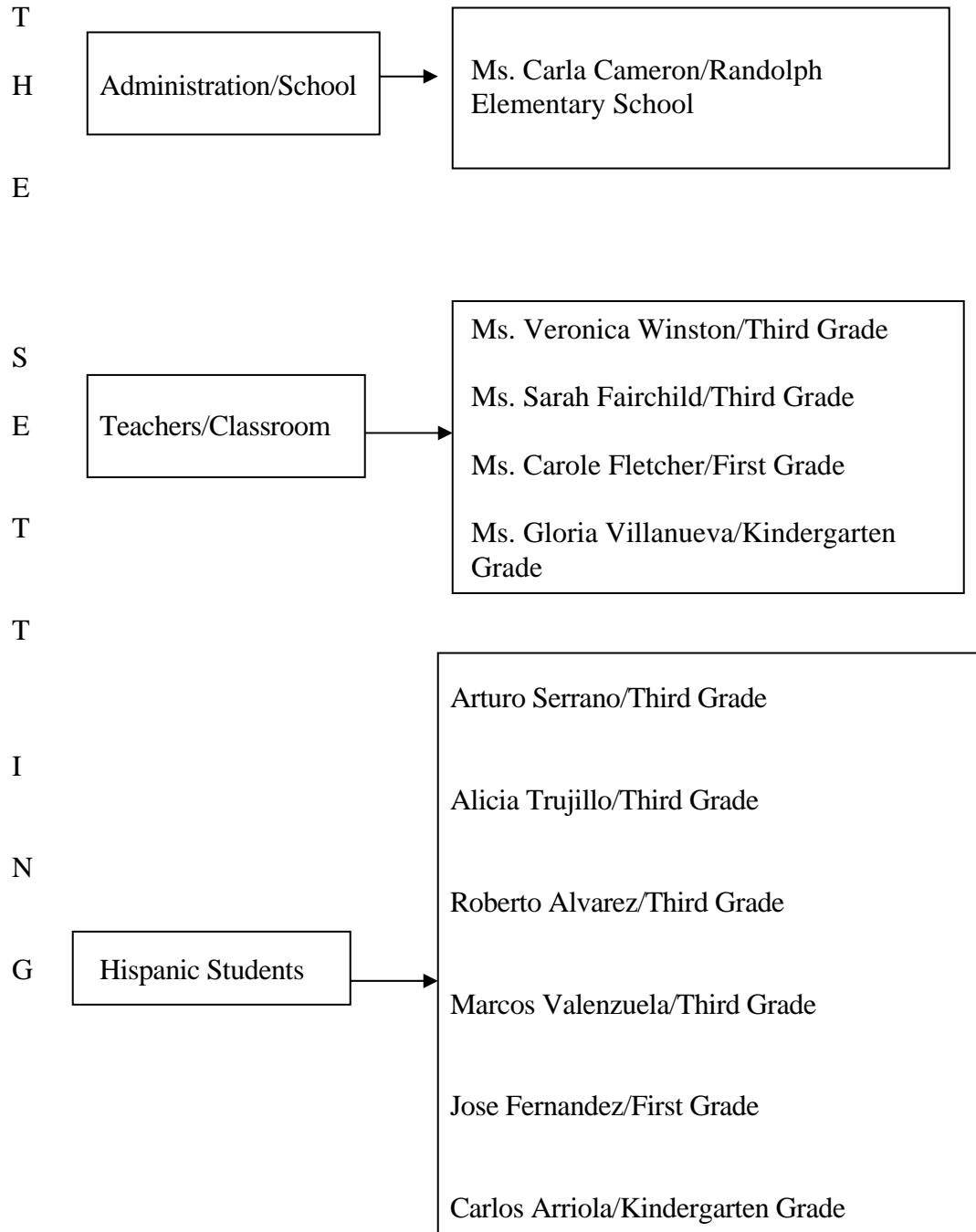
By definition, the taxonomic analysis is a set of categories organized on the basis of a single semantic relationship and shows more of the relationships among the elements inside the cultural domain.

Taxonomic analysis is the second type of ethnographic analysis that involves a search for the way cultural domains are organized (Spradley, 1980). The taxonomic analysis depicts the administration to school, teachers to classroom, Hispanic students to grade, and reading instruction framework to reading process.

Table 3 follows with a comprehensive visual presentation of the taxonomic analysis of the Spradley Developmental Research Sequence.

**Table 3: Spradley's Developmental Research Sequence**

Taxonomic Analysis



(table cont.)

R  
E  
A  
D  
I  
N  
G

Reading Process

Sensory  
Perceptual  
Sequential  
Experiential  
Cognitive  
Learning  
Association  
Affective

I  
N  
S  
T  
R  
U  
C  
T  
I  
O  
N  
A  
L

Basal Reader

Graded Books  
Controlled Vocabulary  
Language Experience  
Accountability  
Teacher's Materials  
Students' Materials  
Basal Improvements  
Language-Driven Basal Reader  
Literature-Driven Basal Reader

F  
R  
A  
M  
E  
W  
O  
R  
K

Literature-Based

Language Experience  
Thematic Units  
Literary Elements Units  
Author-Based  
Genre-Based  
Chapter Book  
Topical  
Webbing  
Picture Books  
Oral Role Playing  
Grouping



(table cont.)

R  
E  
A  
D  
I  
N  
G

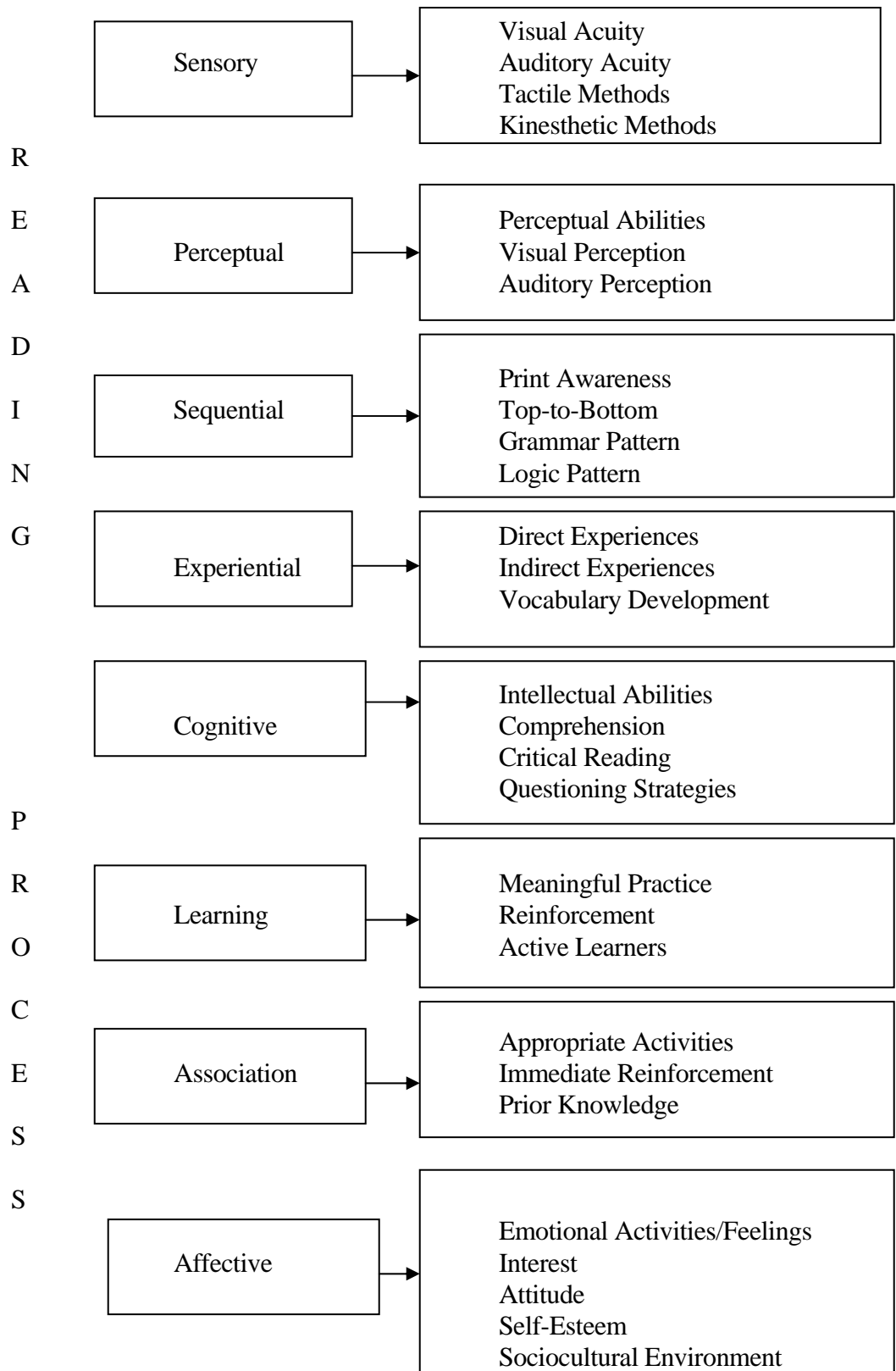
I  
N  
S  
T  
R  
U  
C  
T  
I  
O  
N  
A  
L

F  
R  
A  
M  
E  
W  
O  
R  
K

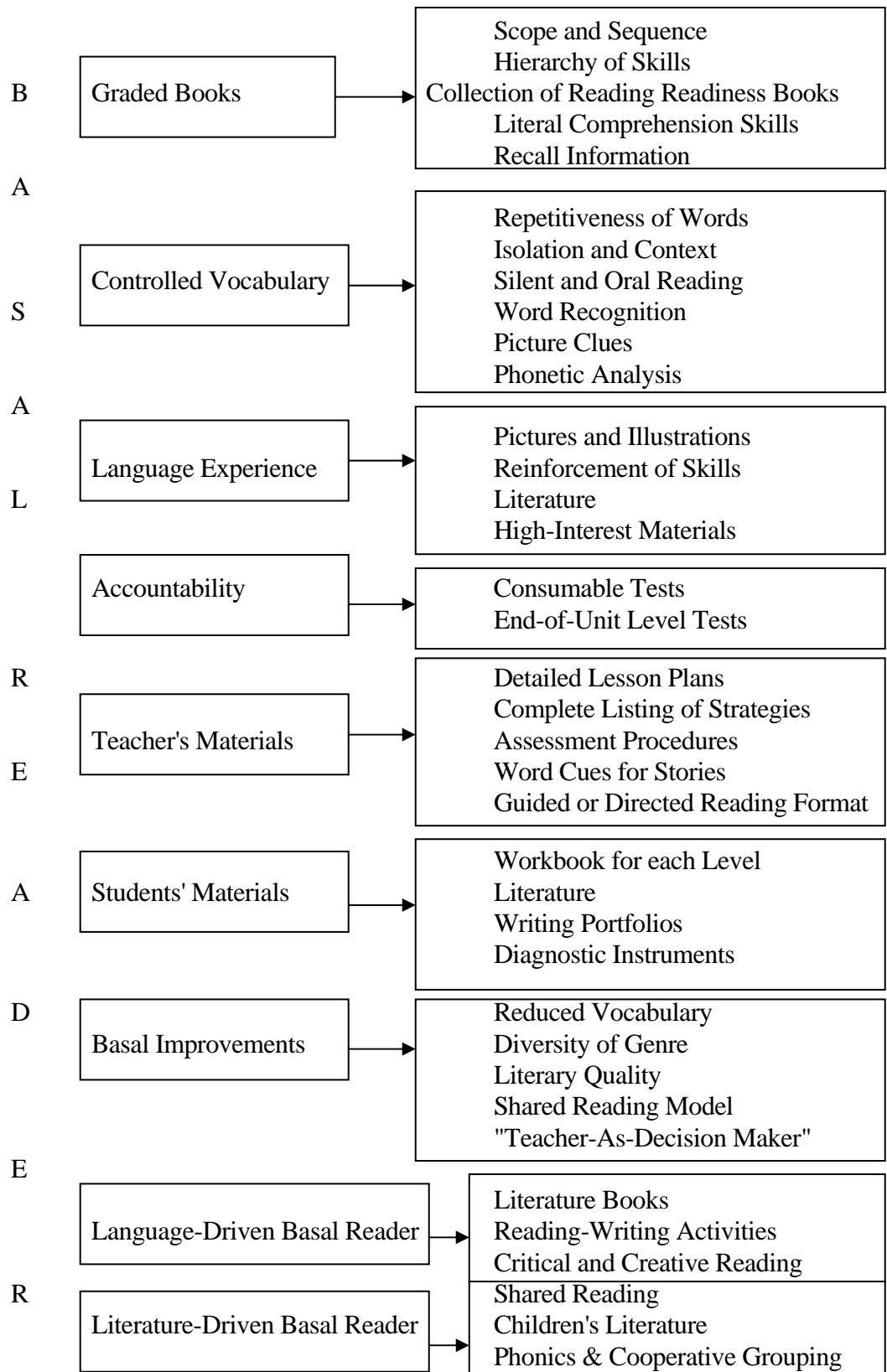
Balanced Literacy →

- Continuous Progress Organization
- Learning Stations
- Planning Classroom Time
- Record Keeping
- Reading Activities
- Developmental Reading
- Phonic Awareness
- Application Transfer
- Shared Reading
- Independent Reading
- Content Reading
- Functional Reading
- Oral Reading
- Action Oriented Reading Strategy
- Shared Writing
- Free Writing
- Spelling Instruction
- Learning-Writing Components
- Writing Aloud

(table cont.)



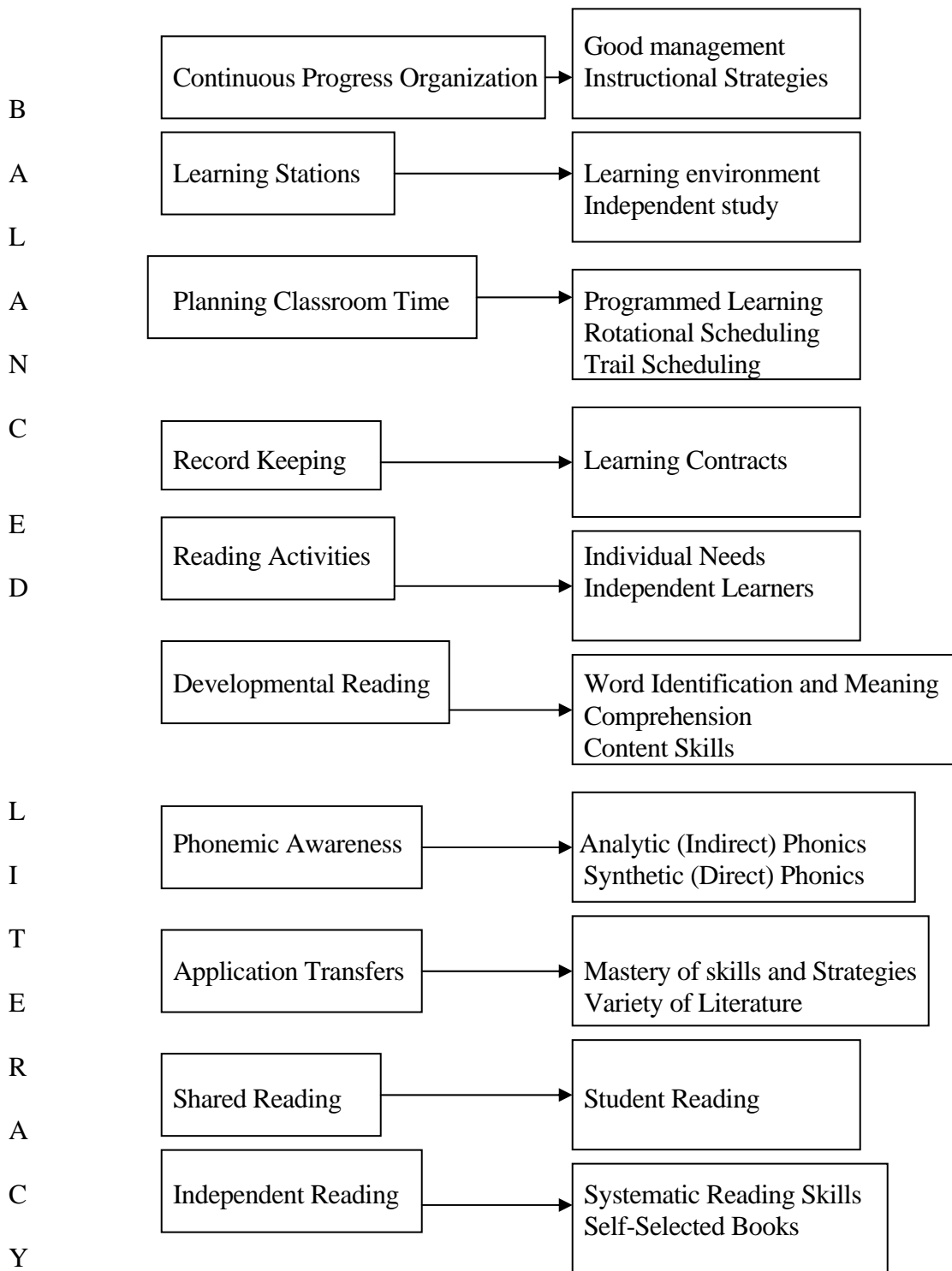
(table cont.)



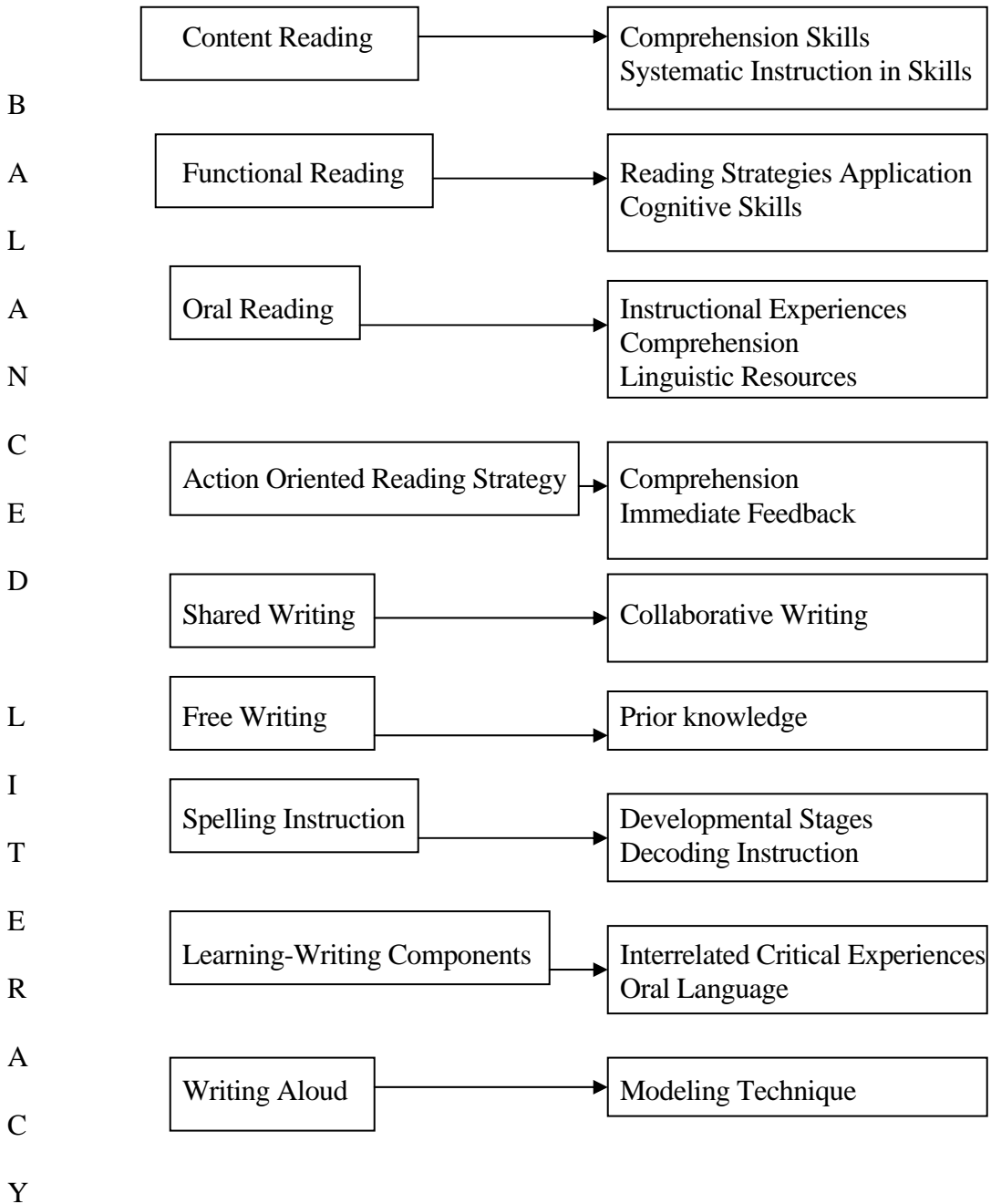
(table cont.)

L I T E R A T U R E  B A S E D	Language Experience	Creative engagements "Language Together" Series of stories, poems, chapters Improving Reading Skills
	Thematic Units	Common Literature Theme Integrative Dimension Independent Dimension
	Literary Elements Units	Story Development Symbolism Figurative Language Pictorial Style Characterization
	Author-Based	Author Style Style in Writing
	Genre-Based	Category of literary composition Series of Folktales Series of Poems
	Chapter Book	Full-length Original Novels Related Literary Elements
	Topical	Focused Topics
	Webbing	Conceptual Process Unit Teaching Expanded Schemata
	Picture Books	Develop Critical Thinking Skills Reading and Writing Connection Develop Vocabulary
	Oral Role Playing	Chorus Story Sentences Play with Language Literature-Based Language Play
Grouping	Entire Class Individual Student Collaborative Group/Workshop One-to-One Interactions	

(table cont.)



(table cont.)



(table cont.)

A

S

S

E

S

S

M

E

N

T

FORMAL ASSESSMENT

Standardized Tests

Diagnostic Tests

INFORMAL ASSESSMENT

Observation

Informal Reading Inventories

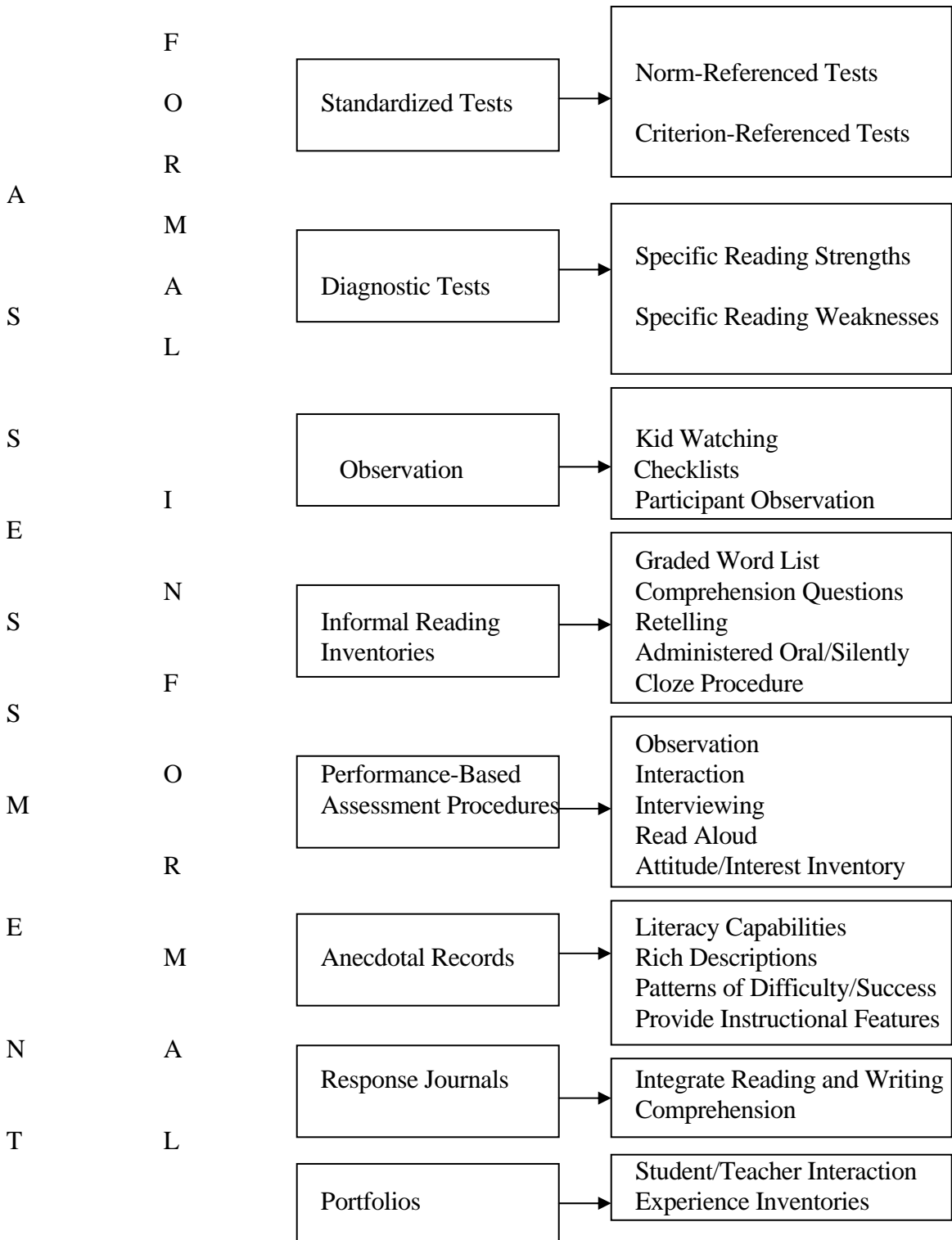
Performance-Based  
Assessment Procedures

Anecdotal Records

Response Journals

Portfolios

(table cont.)





By definition the componential analysis is the systematic research for the attributes (components of meaning) associated with cultural categories. A component is another term for unit. The componential analysis is looking for the units of meaning that people have assigned to their cultural categories.

The componential analysis depicts the administration to school, teachers to classrooms, Hispanic students to grad, and reading instruction framework to reading process.

Table 4 follows with a comprehensive visual presentation of the componential analysis of the Spradley Developmental Research Sequence.

**Table 4: Spradley's Developmental Research Sequence**

Componential Analysis

DEMOGRAPHIC SETTING SCHOOL	DIMENSION OF CONTRAST		
	POOR	AVERAGE	GOOD
Randolph Elementary	N	Y	N

Symbol Notation: N= No; Y= Yes

Symbol Notation: PR = Poor; AVG = Average; GD = Good

(table cont.)

DEMOGRAPHIC SETTING SCHOOL EFFECTIVENESS	DIMENSION OF CONTRAST		
	RANDOLPH ELEMENTARY SCHOOL		
	POOR	AVERAGE	GOOD
Leadership	N	N	Y
Teacher Expectations	N	N	Y
Basic Skills	N	N	Y
School Climate	N	N	Y

DEMOGRAPHIC SETTING ADMINISTRATION	DIMENSION OF CONTRAST		
	POOR	AVERAGE	GOOD
Ms. Carla Cameron	N	N	Y

(table cont.)

DEMOGRAPHIC SETTING	DIMENSION OF CONTRAST		
	RANDOLPH ELEMENTARY SCHOOL		
	POOR	AVERAGE	GOOD
ADMINISTRATION EFFECTIVENESS			
Leadership	N	N	Y
Teacher Expectations	N	N	Y
Basic Skills	N	N	Y
School Climate	N	N	Y

DEMOGRAPHIC SETTING	DIMENSION OF CONTRAST		
	POOR	AVERAGE	GOOD
CLASSROOM			
Ms. Veronica Winston/ Third Grade	N	N	Y
Ms. Sarah Fairchild/ Third Grade	N	N	Y
Ms. Carole Fletcher/ First Grade	N	Y	N
Ms. Gloria Villanueva/ Kindergarten Grade	N	N	Y

(table cont.)

DEMOGRAPHIC SETTING	DIMENSION OF CONTRAST											
CLASSROOM EFFECTIVENESS	Winston/ 3 <sup>rd</sup>			Fairchild/ 3 <sup>rd</sup>			Fletcher/ 1 <sup>st</sup>			Villanueva/ K		
	PR	AVG	GD	PR	AVG	GD	PR	AVG	GD	PR	AVG	GD
Leadership	N	N	Y	N	N	Y	N	Y	N	N	N	Y
Teacher Expectations	N	N	Y	N	N	Y	N	Y	N	N	N	Y
Basic Skills	N	N	Y	N	N	Y	N	Y	N	N	N	Y
School Climate	N	N	Y	N	N	Y	N	Y	N	N	N	Y

DEMOGRAPHIC SETTING CLASSROOM	DIMENSION OF CONTRAST		
	POOR	AVERAGE	GOOD
Ms. Veronica Winston/ Third Grade	N	N	Y
Ms. Sarah Fairchild/ Third Grade	N	N	Y
Ms. Carole Fletcher/ First Grade	N	Y	N
Ms. Gloria Villanueva/ Kindergarten Grade	N	N	Y

(table cont.)

DEMOGRAPHIC SETTING	DIMENSION OF CONTRAST											
	Winston/ 3 <sup>rd</sup>			Fairchild/ 3 <sup>rd</sup>			Fletcher/ 1 <sup>st</sup>			Villanueva/ K		
CLASSROOM EFFECTIVENESS	PR	AVG	GD	PR	AVG	GD	PR	AVG	GD	PR	AVG	GD
	Leadership	N	N	Y	N	N	Y	N	Y	N	N	N
Teacher Expectations	N	N	Y	N	N	Y	N	Y	N	N	N	Y
Basic Skills	N	N	Y	N	N	Y	N	Y	N	N	N	Y
School Climate	N	N	Y	N	N	Y	N	Y	N	N	N	Y

DEMOGRAPHIC SETTING STUDENTS	DIMENSION OF CONTRAST		
	POOR	AVERAGE	GOOD
Arturo Serrano/Third Grade	N	N	Y
Alicia Trujillo/Third Grade	N	N	Y
Roberto Alvarez/Third Grade	N	N	Y
Marcos Valenzuela/First Grade	N	Y	N
Jose Fernandez/Kindergarten	N	N	Y
Carlos Arriola/Kindergarten	N	N	Y

(table cont.)

READING INSTRUCTIONAL FRAMEWORK	DIMENSION OF CONTRAST		
	BALANCED		
STUDENTS	POOR	AVG	GOOD
Arturo Serrano/Third Grade	N	N	Y
Alicia Trujillo/Third Grade	N	N	Y
Roberto Alvarez/Third Grade	N	N	Y
Marcos Valenzuela/First Grade	N	Y	N
Jose Fernandez/Kindergarten	N	N	Y
Carlos Arriola/Kindergarten	N	N	Y

READING PROCESS	DIMENSION OF CONTRAST					
	Winston/3 <sup>rd</sup>	Fairchild/3 <sup>rd</sup>		Fletcher/1 <sup>st</sup>	Villanueva/K	
CLASSROOM EFFECTIVENESS	Alicia	Arturo/Roberto		Marcos	Jose/Carlos	
Sensory	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
Perceptual	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
Sequential	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	N
Experiential	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
Cognitive	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	N
Learning	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	N
Association	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	N
Affective	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	N

(table cont.)

READING PROCESS	DIMENSION OF CONTRAST					
	Winston/3 <sup>rd</sup>	Fairchild/3 <sup>rd</sup>		Fletcher/1 <sup>st</sup>	Villanueva/K	
CLASSROOM EFFECTIVENESS	Alicia	Arturo / Roberto		Marcos	Jose / Carlos	
Sensory	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
Visual	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
Auditory	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
Tactile	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
Kinesthetic	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
Perceptual	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
Perceptual	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
Visual	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
Auditory	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
Sequential	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	N
Print Aware	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	N
Top to Bottom	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	N
Grammar	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	N
Logic Pattern	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	N
Experiential	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
Direct	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
Indirect	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
Vocabulary	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	N
Cognitive	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	N
Intellectual	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	N
Comprehension	Y	Y	N	Y	Y	N
Critical Reading	Y	Y	N	Y	Y	N
Questioning	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
Learning	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
Meaningful	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	N
Reinforcement	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
Active Learn	Y	Y	N	Y	Y	N

(table cont.)

READING PROCESS	DIMENSION OF CONTRAST					
	Winston/3 <sup>rd</sup>	Fairchild/3 <sup>rd</sup>		Fletcher/1 <sup>st</sup>	Villanueva/K	
CLASSROOM EFFECTIVENESS	Alicia	Arturo/Roberto		Marcos	Jose/Carlos	
	Association	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
Appropriate	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	N
Immediate	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
Prior Knowledge	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	N
Affective	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
Emotional	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	N
Interest	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
Attitude	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
Self-esteem	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
Sociocultural	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	N

BASAL READER	DIMENSION OF CONTRAST					
	Winston/3 <sup>rd</sup>	Fairchild/3 <sup>rd</sup>		Fletcher/1 <sup>st</sup>	Villanueva/K	
CLASSROOM EFFECTIVENESS	Alicia	Arturo / Roberto		Marcos	Jose / Carlos	
	Graded Books	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
Controlled Vocabulary	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
Language Experience	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
Accountability	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y



(table cont.)

BASAL READER	DIMENSION OF CONTRAST					
	Winston/3 <sup>rd</sup>	Fairchild/3 <sup>rd</sup>		Fletcher/1 <sup>st</sup>	Villanueva/K	
	Alicia	Arturo / Roberto		Marcos	Jose /	Carlos
Teacher's Materials	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
Students' Materials	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
Basal Improvements	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
Language Driven Reader	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
Literature Driven Reader	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y

(table cont.)

BASAL READER  CLASSROOM EFFECTIVENESS	DIMENSION OF CONTRAST					
	Winston/3 <sup>rd</sup>	Fairchild/3 <sup>rd</sup>		Fletcher/1 <sup>st</sup>	Villanueva/K	
	Alicia	Arturo / Roberto		Marcos	Jose /	Carlos
Graded Books	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
Scope and Sequence	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
Hierarchy Skills	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
Readiness	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
Literal Comp	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
Recall Info	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
Controlled Vocab	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
Repetitive Words	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
Isolation Context	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
Silent/Oral Reading	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
Word Recognition	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
Picture Cues	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
Phonetic Analysis	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
Language Experience	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
Pictures Illustrations	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
Reinforce	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
Literature	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
High interest	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
Accountability	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
Consumable Tests	Y	Y	Y	Y	N	N
End-of-Unit	Y	Y	Y	Y	N	N

(table cont.)

BASAL READER  CLASSROOM EFFECTIVENESS	DIMENSION OF CONTRAST					
	Winston/3 <sup>rd</sup>	Fairchild/3 <sup>rd</sup>		Fletcher/1 <sup>st</sup>	Villanueva/K	
	Alicia	Arturo / Roberto		Marcos	Jose / Carlos	
Teacher's Materials	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
Detailed Lesson Plans	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
Strategies	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
Assessment	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
Word Cues	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
Guided Reading	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
Students' Materials	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
Workbook	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
Literature	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
Portfolios	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
Diagnostic	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
Basal Improvements	Y	Y	Y	Y	N	N
Vocabulary	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
Diversity of Genre	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
Literary Quality	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
Shared Reading	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
Teacher Decision Maker	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
Language Driven Reader	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
Literature Books	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
Reading-Writing	Y	Y	Y	Y	N	N
Critical-Creative Reading	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y

(table cont.)

BASAL READER CLASSROOM EFFECTIVENESS	DIMENSION OF CONTRAST					
	Winston/3 <sup>rd</sup>	Fairchild/3 <sup>rd</sup>		Fletcher/1 <sup>st</sup>	Villanueva/K	
	Alicia	Arturo / Roberto		Marcos	Jose / Carlos	
Literature Driven Reader	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
Shared Reading	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
Children's Literature	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
Phonics	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
Cooperative Grouping	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y

LITERATURE BASED CLASSROOM EFFECTIVENESS	DIMENSION OF CONTRAST					
	Winston/3 <sup>rd</sup>	Fairchild/3 <sup>rd</sup>		Fletcher/1 <sup>st</sup>	Villanueva/K	
	Alicia	Arturo / Roberto		Marcos	Jose / Carlos	
Language Experience	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
Thematic Units	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
Literary Elements	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
Author Based	N	N	N	N	N	N
Genre Based	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y

(table cont.)

LITERATURE BASED	DIMENSION OF CONTRAST					
CLASSROOM	Winston/3 <sup>rd</sup>	Fairchild/3 <sup>rd</sup>		Fletcher/1 <sup>st</sup>	Villanueva/K	
EFFECTIVENESS	Alicia	Arturo / Roberto		Marcos	Jose / Carlos	
Chapter Books	Y	Y	Y	Y	N	N
Topical Materials	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
Webbing	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
Picture Books	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
Oral Role Playing	N	Y	Y	N	Y	Y
Grouping	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y

(table cont.)

LITERATURE BASED	DIMENSION OF CONTRAST					
CLASSROOM	Winston/3 <sup>rd</sup>	Fairchild/3 <sup>rd</sup>		Fletcher/1 <sup>st</sup>	Villanueva/K	
EFFECTIVENESS	Alicia	Arturo / Roberto		Marcos	Jose / Carlos	
Language Experience	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
Creative Language	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
"Language Together"	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
Series of Stories	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
Improving Reading Skills	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
Thematic Units	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
Common Lit. Theme	N	N	N	N	Y	Y
Integrative Dimension	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
Independent Dimension	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
Literary Elements	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
Story Development	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
Symbolism	N	N	N	Y	Y	Y
Figurative Speech	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
Pictorial Style	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
Characterization	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
Author Based	N	N	N	N	N	N
Author Style	N	N	N	N	N	N
Style in Writing	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y

(table cont.)

LITERATURE BASED	DIMENSION OF CONTRAST					
CLASSROOM	Winston3rd	Fairchild/3 <sup>rd</sup>		Fletcher/1 <sup>st</sup>	Villanueva/K	
	Alicia	Arturo / Roberto		Marcos	Jose /	Carlos
Genre Based	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
Category of Literary Composition	N	N	N	N	N	N
Folktales Series	N	N	N	N	Y	Y
Poem Series	N	N	N	N	Y	Y
Chapter Books	Y	Y	Y	Y	N	N
Original Novels	Y	Y	Y	N	N	N
Related Literary Elements	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
Topical Materials	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
Focused Topics	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
Webbing	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
Conceptual Process	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
Unit Teaching	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
Expanded Schemata	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y

(table cont.)

LITERATURE BASED	DIMENSION OF CONTRAST					
CLASSROOM	Winston/3 <sup>rd</sup>	Fairchild/3 <sup>rd</sup>		Fletcher/1 <sup>st</sup>	Villanueva/K	
EFFECTIVENESS	Alicia	Arturo / Roberto		Marcos	Jose / Carlos	
Picture Books	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
Critical Thinking	N	N	N	N	N	N
Reading-Writing						
Connection	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
Vocabulary	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
Oral Role Playing	N	Y	Y	N	Y	Y
Chorus Story						
Sentences	Y	Y	Y	N	Y	Y
Play with Language	Y	Y	Y	N	Y	Y
Literature-Based Lang						
Play	N	N	N	N	N	N
Grouping	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
Entire Class	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
Individual Student	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
Collaborative Group	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
One-to-One Interaction	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y



(table cont.)

BALANCED LITERACY	DIMENSION OF CONTRAST					
CLASSROOM	Winston/3 <sup>rd</sup>	Fairchild/3 <sup>rd</sup>		Fletcher/1 <sup>st</sup>	Villanueva/K	
EFFECTIVENESS	Alicia	Arturo / Roberto		Marcos	Jose / Carlos	
Continuous Progress Organization	Y	Y	Y	N	Y	Y
Learning Stations	Y	Y	Y	Y	N	N
Planning Classroom Times	Y	Y	Y	N	Y	Y
Record Keeping	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
Reading Activities	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
Developmental Reading	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
Phonemic Awareness	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
Application Transfers	Y	Y	Y	N	Y	Y
Shared Reading	Y	Y	Y	Y	N	N
Independent Reading	Y	Y	Y	Y	N	N

(table cont.)

BALANCED LITERACY	DIMENSION OF CONTRAST					
CLASSROOM	Winston/3 <sup>rd</sup>	Fairchild/3 <sup>rd</sup>		Fletcher/1 <sup>st</sup>	Villanueva/K	
EFFECTIVENESS	Alicia	Arturo / Roberto		Marcos	Jose / Carlos	
Content Reading	Y	Y	Y	N	N	N
Functional Reading	Y	Y	Y	Y	N	N
Oral Reading	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
Action Oriented Reading Strategy	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
Shared Writing	Y	Y	Y	Y	N	N
Free Writing	Y	Y	Y	N	N	N
Spelling Instruction	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
Learning-Writing Components	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
Writing Aloud	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y

(table cont.)

BALANCED LITERACY	DIMENSION OF CONTRAST					
CLASSROOM	Winston/3 <sup>rd</sup>	Fairchild/3 <sup>rd</sup>		Fletcher/1 <sup>st</sup>	Villanueva/K	
EFFECTIVENESS	Alicia	Arturo / Roberto		Marcos	Jose / Carlos	
Continuous Progress						
Organization	Y	Y	Y	N	Y	Y
Good Management	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
Instructional Strategies	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
Learning Stations	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
Learning Environment	Y	Y	Y	N	Y	Y
Independent Study	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
Planning Classroom						
Time	Y	Y	Y	N	Y	Y
Programmed Learning	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
Rotational Scheduling	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
Trail Scheduling	N	N	N	N	N	N
Record Keeping	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
Learning Contracts	Y	N	N	N	N	N
Reading Activities	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
Individual Need	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
Independent Learners	N	Y	N	Y	N	N

(table cont.)

BALANCED LITERACY	DIMENSION OF CONTRAST					
CLASSROOM	Winston/3 <sup>rd</sup>	Fairchild/3 <sup>rd</sup>		Fletcher/1 <sup>st</sup>	Villanueva/K	
EFFECTIVENESS	Alicia	Arturo / Roberto		Marcos	Jose / Carlos	
Developmental Reading	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
Word Identification	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
and Meaning	Y	Y	N	Y	Y	N
Comprehension	Y	Y	Y	N	N	N
Content Skills						
Phonemic Awareness	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
Analytic (Indirect)	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
Analysis	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
Synthetic (Direct)						
Analysis						
Application Transfers	Y	Y	Y	N	Y	Y
Mastery of Skills	Y	Y	N	Y	Y	N
and Strategies	Y	Y	Y	N	Y	Y
Literature Variety						
Variety						
Shared Reading	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
Student Reading	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
Independent Reading	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
Systematic Reading	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
Skills	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
Self-Selected Books	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y

(table cont.)

BALANCED LITERACY	DIMENSION OF CONTRAST					
CLASSROOM	Winston/3 <sup>rd</sup>	Fairchild/3 <sup>rd</sup>		Fletcher/1 <sup>st</sup>	Villanueva/K	
EFFECTIVENESS	Alicia	Arturo / Roberto		Marcos	Jose / Carlos	
Content Reading	Y	Y	Y	N	N	N
Comprehension Skills	Y	Y	N	Y	Y	N
Systematic Instruction in Skills	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
Functional Reading	Y	Y	Y	Y	N	N
Reading Strategies	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	N
Application Cognitive Skills	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	N
Oral Reading	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
Instructional Experiences	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
Comprehension	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	N
Linguistic Resources	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
Action Oriented Reading Strategy	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
Comprehension	Y	Y	N	Y	Y	N
Immediate Feedback	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y

(table cont.)

BALANCED LITERACY	DIMENSION OF CONTRAST					
CLASSROOM	Winston/3 <sup>rd</sup>	Fairchild/3 <sup>rd</sup>		Fletcher/1 <sup>st</sup>	Villanueva/K	
	Alicia	Arturo / Roberto		Marcos	Jose / Carlos	
Shared Writing	Y	Y	Y	Y	N	N
Collaborative Writing	Y	Y	Y	Y	N	N
Free Writing	Y	Y	Y	N	N	N
Prior Knowledge	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	N
Spelling Instruction	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
Developmental Stages	Y	Y	N	Y	Y	Y
Decoding Instruction	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
Learning- Writing Components	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
Interrelated Critical Experiences	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
Oral Language	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
Writing Aloud	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
Modeling Technique	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y

ASSESSMENT	DIMENSION OF CONTRAST					
CLASSROOM	Winston/3 <sup>rd</sup>	Fairchild/3 <sup>rd</sup>		Fletcher/1 <sup>st</sup>	Villanueva/K	
	Alicia	Arturo / Roberto		Marcos	Jose / Carlos	
Formal Assessment	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
Informal Assessment	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y

(table cont.)

ASSESSMENT	DIMENSION OF CONTRAST					
CLASSROOM	Winston/3 <sup>rd</sup>	Fairchild/3 <sup>rd</sup>		Fletcher/1 <sup>st</sup>	Villanueva/K	
EFFECTIVENESS	Alicia	Arturo/Roberto		Marcos	Jose / Carlos	
Formal Assessment	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
Standardized Tests	Y	Y	Y	Y	N	N
Diagnostic Tests	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
Informal Assessment	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
Observation	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
Informal Reading Inventories	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
Performance Based Assessment Procedures	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
Anecdotal Records	Y	Y	Y		Y	Y
Response Journals	Y	N	N	N	N	N
Portfolios	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y

ASSESSMENT FORMAL	DIMENSION OF CONTRAST					
CLASSROOM	Winston/3 <sup>rd</sup>	Fairchild/3 <sup>rd</sup>		Fletcher/1 <sup>st</sup>	Villanueva/K	
EFFECTIVENESS	Alicia	Arturo / Roberto		Marcos	Jose / Carlos	
Standardized Tests	Y	Y	Y	Y	N	N
Norm-Referenced Tests	Y	Y	Y	Y	N	N
Criterion-Referenced Tests	Y	Y	Y	Y	N	N
Diagnostic Tests	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
Specific Reading Strengths	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
Specific Reading Weaknesses	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y

(table cont.)

ASSESSMENT INFORMAL	DIMENSION OF CONTRAST					
	Winston/3 <sup>rd</sup>	Fairchild/3 <sup>rd</sup>		Fletcher/1 <sup>st</sup>	Villanueva/K	
CLASSROOM	Alicia	Arturo / Roberto		Marcos	Jose / Carlos	
EFFECTIVENESS	Alicia	Arturo / Roberto		Marcos	Jose / Carlos	
Observation	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
Kid Watching	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
Checklists	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
Participation						
Observation	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
Informal Reading						
Inventories	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
Graded Word	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
List Comprehension						
Questions	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
Retelling	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
Administered						
Oral/Silent	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
Cloze Procedure	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
Performance Based						
Assessment Procedures	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
Observation	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
Interaction	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
Interviewing	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
Read Aloud	Y	Y	Y	Y	N	N
Attitude Interest						
Inventory	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y



(table cont.)

ASSESSMENT INFORMAL	DIMENSION OF CONTRAST					
CLASSROOM	Winston/3 <sup>rd</sup>	Fairchild/3 <sup>rd</sup>		Fletcher/1 <sup>st</sup>	Villanueva/K	
EFFECTIVENESS	Alicia	Arturo / Roberto		Marcos	Jose / Carlos	
Anecdotal Records	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
Literacy Capabilities	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
Rich Descriptions	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
Patterns of Difficulty/ Success	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
Provide Instructional Features	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
Response Journals	Y	N	N	N	N	N
Integrate Reading and Writing	Y	Y	Y	Y	N	N
Comprehension	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	N
Portfolios	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
Student/Teacher Interaction	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
Experience Inventories	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y

The Spradley Developmental Research Sequence composed of three levels of analysis starts with a cover term, a general term, goes to specific definitions of each cover term to arrive at a theme analysis (Spradley, 1980).

Table 5 follows with a comprehensive visual presentation of the theme analysis process of the Spradley Developmental Research Sequence.

**Table 5: Spradley Developmental Research Sequence**

Cross-Case Analysis

DEMOGRAPHIC SETTING SCHOOL EFFECTIVENESS	DIMENSION OF SIMILARITIES		
	RANDOLPH ELEMENTARY SCHOOL		
	POOR	AVERAGE	GOOD
Leadership	N	N	Y
Teacher Expectations	N	N	Y
Basic Skills	N	N	Y
School Climate	N	N	Y

DEMOGRAPHIC SETTING	DIMENSION OF SIMILARITIES		
	MS.CAMERON RANDOLPH ELEMENTARY SCHOOL		
	POOR	AVERAGE	GOOD
ADMINISTRATION EFFECTIVENESS			
Leadership	N	N	Y
Teacher Expectations	N	N	Y
Basic Skills	N	N	Y
School Climate	N	N	Y

(table cont.)

READING PROCESS	DIMENSION OF SIMILARITIES					
	Winston/3rd	Fairchild/3 <sup>rd</sup>		Fletcher/1 <sup>st</sup>	Villanueva/K	
CLASSROOM EFFECTIVE	Alicia	Arturo / Roberto		Marcos	Jose / Carlos	
	Sensory	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
Visual	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
Auditory	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
Tactile	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
Kinesthetic	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
Perceptual	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
Perceptual	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
Visual	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
Auditory	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
Experiential	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
Direct	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
Indirect	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
Questioning	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
Learning	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
Reinforcement	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
Association	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
Immediate	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
Affective	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
Interest	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
Attitude	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
Self-esteem	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y

(table cont.)

BASAL READER	DIMENSION OF SIMILARITIES					
	Winston/ 3 <sup>rd</sup>	Fairchild/ 3 <sup>rd</sup>		Fletcher/ 1 <sup>st</sup>	Villanueva/ K	
CLASSROOM EFFECTIVE	Alicia	Arturo / Roberto		Marcos	Jose / Carlos	
Graded Books	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
Scope and Sequence	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
Hierarchy Skills	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
Readiness	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
Literal Comp	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
Recall Info	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
Controlled Vocabulary	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
Repetitive Words	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
Isolation Context	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
Silent/Oral Reading	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
Word Recognition	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
Picture Cues	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
Phonetic Analysis	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
Language Experience	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
Pictures/ Illustrations	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
Reinforcement	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
Literature	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
High interest	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
Accountability	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y

(table cont.)

BASAL READER	DIMENSION OF SIMILARITIES					
	Winston/ 3 <sup>rd</sup>	Fairchild/ 3 <sup>rd</sup>		Fletcher/ 1 <sup>st</sup>	Villanueva/ K	
CLASSROOM EFFECTIVE	Alicia	Arturo / Roberto		Marcos	Jose / Carlos	
Teacher's Materials	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
Detailed Lesson Plans	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
Strategies	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
Assessment	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
Word Cues	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
Guided Reading	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
Students' Materials	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
Workbook	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
Literature	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
Portfolios	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
Diagnostic	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
Vocabulary	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
Diversity of Genre	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
Literary Quality	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
Shared Reading	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
Teacher Decision Maker	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
Language Driven Reader	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
Literature Books	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
Creative Reading	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y

(table cont.)

BASAL READER	DIMENSION OF SIMILARITIES						
	Winston/ 3 <sup>rd</sup>		Fairchild/ 3 <sup>rd</sup>		Fletcher/ 1 <sup>st</sup>	Villanueva/ K	
CLASSROOM EFFECTIVE	Alicia		Arturo / Roberto		Marcos	Jose / Carlos	
Literature Driven Reader	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
Shared Reading	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
Children's Literature	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
Phonics	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
Cooperative Grouping	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y

LITERATURE-BASED	DIMENSION OF SIMILARITIES						
	Winston/ 3 <sup>rd</sup>		Fairchild/ 3 <sup>rd</sup>		Fletcher/ 1 <sup>st</sup>	Villanueva/ K	
CLASSROOM EFFECTIVE	Alicia		Arturo / Roberto		Marcos	Jose / Carlos	
Language Experience	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
Creative Language	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
"Language Together"	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
Series of Stories	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
Improving Reading Skills	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
Thematic Units	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
Integrative Dimension	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
Independent Dimension	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y

(table cont.)

LITERATURE-BASED	DIMENSION OF SIMILARITIES					
	Winston/ 3 <sup>rd</sup>	Fairchild/ 3 <sup>rd</sup>		Fletcher/ 1 <sup>st</sup>	Villanueva/ K	
CLASSROOM EFFECTIVE	Alicia	Arturo / Roberto		Marcos	Jose / Carlos	
Literary Elements	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
Story Development	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
Figurative Speech	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
Pictorial Style	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
Characterization	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
Style in Writing	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
Genre Based	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
Chapter Books	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
Related Literary Elements	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
Topical Materials	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
Focused Topics	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
Webbing	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
Conceptual Process	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
Unit Teaching	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
Expanded Schemata	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y

(table cont.)

LITERATURE-BASED	DIMENSION OF SIMILARITIES					
CLASSROOM EFFECTIVE	Winston/ 3 <sup>rd</sup>	Fairchild/ 3 <sup>rd</sup>		Fletcher/ 1 <sup>st</sup>	Villanueva/ K	
	Alicia	Arturo / Roberto		Marcos	Jose / Carlos	
Picture Books	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
Reading-Writing Connection	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
Vocabulary	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
Grouping	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
Entire Class	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
Individual Student	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
Collaborative Group	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
One-to-One Interaction	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y

BALANCED LITERACY	DIMENSION OF SIMILARITIES					
CLASSROOM EFFECTIVE	Winston/ 3 <sup>rd</sup>	Fairchild/ 3 <sup>rd</sup>		Fletcher/ 1 <sup>st</sup>	Villanueva/ K	
	Alicia	Arturo / Roberto		Marcos	Jose / Carlos	
Good Management	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
Instructional Strategies	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
Learning Stations	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
Independent Study	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
Programmed Learning	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
Rotational Scheduling	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y



(table cont.)

BALANCED LITERACY	DIMENSION OF SIMILARITIES					
	Winston/ 3 <sup>rd</sup>	Fairchild/ 3 <sup>rd</sup>		Fletcher/ 1 <sup>st</sup>	Villanueva/K	
CLASSROOM EFFECTIVE	Alicia	Arturo / Roberto		Marcos	Jose / Carlos	
	Record Keeping	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
Reading Activities Individual Need	Y Y	Y Y	Y Y	Y Y	Y Y	Y Y
Developmental Reading Word Identification and Meaning	Y Y	Y Y	Y Y	Y Y	Y Y	Y Y
Phonemic Awareness Analytic (Indirect) Analysis	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
Synthetic (Direct) Analysis	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
Shared Reading Student Reading	Y Y	Y Y	Y Y	Y Y	Y Y	Y Y
Independent Reading Systematic Reading Reading Skills Self-Selected Books	Y Y Y	Y Y Y	Y Y Y	Y Y Y	Y Y Y	Y Y Y

(table cont.)

BALANCED LITERACY	DIMENSION OF SIMILARITIES					
	Winston/ 3 <sup>rd</sup>	Fairchild/ 3 <sup>rd</sup>		Fletcher/ 1 <sup>st</sup>	Villanueva/ K	
CLASSROOM EFFECTIVE	Alicia	Arturo / Roberto		Marcos	Jose / Carlos	
Systematic Instruction in Skills	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
Oral Reading	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
Instructional Experiences	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
Linguistic Resources	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
Action Oriented Reading Strategy Immediate	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
Feedback	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
Spelling Instruction	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
Developmental Stages	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
Decoding Instruction	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
Learning-Writing Components	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
Interrelated	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
Oral Language	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
Writing Aloud	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y

ASSESSMENT FORMAL	DIMENSION OF SIMILARITIES					
	Winston/ 3 <sup>rd</sup>	Fairchild/ 3 <sup>rd</sup>		Fletcher/ 1 <sup>st</sup>	Villanueva/ K	
CLASSROOM EFFECTIVE	Alicia	Arturo / Roberto		Marcos	Jose / Carlos	
Diagnostic Tests	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
Specific Reading Strengths	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
Specific Reading Weaknesses	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y

(table cont.)

ASSESSMENT INFORMAL	DIMENSION OF SIMILARITIES					
	Winston/ 3 <sup>rd</sup>	Fairchild/ 3 <sup>rd</sup>		Fletcher/ 1 <sup>st</sup>	Villanueva/ K	
CLASSROOM EFFECTIVE	Alicia	Arturo / Roberto		Marcos	Jose / Carlos	
Observation	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
Kid Watching	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
Checklists	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
Participation Observation	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
Informal Reading Inventories	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
Graded Word List	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
Comprehension Questions	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
Retelling	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
Administered Oral/Silent	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
Cloze Procedure	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y

ASSESSMENT INFORMAL	DIMENSION OF SIMILARITIES					
	Winston/ 3 <sup>rd</sup>	Fairchild/ 3 <sup>rd</sup>		Fletcher/ 1 <sup>st</sup>	Villanueva/ K	
CLASSROOM EFFECTIVE	Alicia	Arturo / Roberto		Marcos	Jose / Carlos	
Performance Based Assessment Procedures	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
Observation	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
Interaction	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
Interviewing	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
Read Aloud	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
Attitude Interest Inventory	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
Anecdotal Records	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
Literacy Capabilities	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
Rich Descriptions	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
Patterns of Difficulty/Success	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
Provide Instructional Features	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
Portfolios	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
Student/ Teacher Interaction	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
Experience Inventories	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y

Lincoln and Guba (1985) described a method for analyzing qualitative data called Constant Comparative Method. The data, the actual responses of Ms. Carla Cameron, was gathered from a standardized open-ended interview. A frequency distribution with the categories and the number of units in each category are listed to establish emerging themes.

The Constant Comparative Analysis Method depicts a participant-construct instrument which measures the strength of feelings people have about phenomena or to elicit the categories into which people classify items in their social and physical worlds. They involve determining the set of “agreed upons” that structure of life of each participant. These consist of the categories of knowledge deemed important by the group, the canons of discrimination used to sort items into categories, and the cognitive or social processes that develop as a function of the way variables are seen to relate to one another (Goetz & LeCompte, 1982). These interviews of administration and of faculty measure school strengths of Randolph Elementary School for units of education, curriculum, and relations. These units are coded into specific elements and are categorized. After all items have been unitized, coded, and categorized, the responses are listed in a frequency distribution chart to determine the set of “agreed upons.” The result measures the strength of feelings people have identified as characteristics of an effective school, specifically the school strengths of Randolph Elementary School.

The actual responses of Ms. Carla Cameron, Randolph Elementary School principal, were unitized, coded, and categorized.

Table 6 follows with a comprehensive visual presentation of the constant comparative method analysis of Lincoln and Guba (1985).

**Table 6: Constant Comparative Method Analysis**

Administrative Interview

School Strengths:		CODES: 1
NODE	- <b>EDUCATION</b>	1.1
Sub Categories	- Administration - Faculty/Staff - Student	1.11 1.12 1.13
NODE	- <b>CURRICULUM</b>	1.2
Sub Categories	- Instruction - Resources - Technology	1.21 1.22 1.23
NODE	- <b>RELATIONS</b>	1.3
Sub Categories	- School - Parent/Community	1.31 1.32

Actual Responses	Unit Defined	Category
1 - I have a BA and MA in education.//	Degrees	1.1 - Education 1.11 - Administration
2 - The school was built in 1956.//	School environment	1.3 - Relations 1.31 - School
3 - I have taught 14 years.//	Teaching	1.1 - Education 1.12 - Faculty/Staff
4 - I have been in administration 5 years.//	Administration	1.1 - Education 1.11 - Administration
5 - There is very little teacher turnover.//	School environment	1.3 - Relations 1.31 - School
6 - All children can learn.//	Administration	1.1 - Education 1.11 - Administration
7 - I have taken numerous reading classes.//	Curriculum	1.2 - Curriculum 1.21 - Instruction

(table cont.)

8 - This school is the center for children in this area.//	Relations	1.3 - Relations 1.32 - Parent/Community
9 - The school has been rezoned.//	Relations	1.3 - Relations 1.31 - School
10 - We try to keep school safe.//	School environment	1.3 - Relations 1.31 - School
11 - Teachers feel safe.//	School environment	1.3 - Relations 1.31 - School
12 - Parents feel their children are safe.//	Parent	1.3 - Relations 1.32 - Parent/Community
13 - In the last five years, the ethnicity is 75% minority.//	School ethnicity	1.3 - Relations 1.31 - School
14 - Faculty is 57% White and 43% African American.//	School ethnicity	1.3 - Relations 1.31 - School
15 - Staff is 100% African American.//	School ethnicity	1.3 - Relations 1.31 - School
16 - Achievement scores soared.//	Instruction	1.2 - Curriculum 1.21 - Instruction
17 - This is a safe environment.//	School environment	1.3 - Relations 1.31 - School
18 - Good surrounding area around.//	Community environment	1.3 - Relations 1.32 - Parent/Community
19 - Campus is secure. Only one entrance to school.//	School environment	1.3 - Relations 1.31 - School
20 - Never have had any incidents or violence at the school campus.//	School environment	1.3 - Relations 1.31 - School

(table cont.)

21 - School achievement not top academically but far, far, far above average.//	Student achievement	1.1 - Education 1.13 - Student
22 - No drop outs, no retentions.//	Student achievement	1.1 - Education 1.13 - Student
23 - No figures for high school graduates.//	Student achievement	1.1 - Education 1.13 - Student
24 - Most parents have at least high school and advance degrees.//	Parent education	1.1 - Education 1.13 - Student
25 - Academic expectation of faculty same for students.//	Faculty education	1.1 - Education 1.12 - Faculty/Staff
26 - 65% of faculty have MA + higher.//	Faculty education	1.1 - Education 1.12 - Faculty/Staff
27 - 100% faculty is school improvement process.//	Faculty input	1.2 - Curriculum 1.21 - Instruction
28 - Once a month, survey teacher. implement whatever they support.//	Faculty input	1.2 - Curriculum 1.21 - Instruction
29 - Principal part of team, leader nor director.//	Administrator input	1.2 - Curriculum 1.21 - Instruction
30 - Principal always attend the school improvement process.//	Administrator attendance	1.3 - Relations 1.31 - School
31 - Principal plans around the school improvement process meeting.//	Administrator attendance	1.3 - Relations 1.31 - School
32 - K-3 Initiative double funding for supplies.//	Funding	1.2 - Curriculum 1.22 - Resources

(table cont.)

33 - Teaching approaches used by faculty - whatever is comfortable.//	Teaching	1.2 - Curriculum 1.21 - Instruction
34 - 3 or 4 teachers are reading recovery.//	Teaching	1.2 - Curriculum 1.21 - Instruction
35 - Whole group/small group strategies.//	Teaching	1.2 - Curriculum 1.21 - Instruction
36 - Integrated reading thematic units.//	Teaching	1.2 - Curriculum 1.21 - Instruction
37 - Parents participate more than most but not enough. Good parent participation - workshops, active daily, weekly. We have a good many participate when we solicit.//	Parent participation	1.3 - Relations 1.32 - Parent/Community
38 - But not those that should and some we never see but not those that should.//	Parent participation	1.3 - Relations 1.32 - Parent/Community
39 - Parents come for Open House (biggest) in the Fall, 300-500 people, when children involved.//	Parent participation	1.3 - Relations 1.32 - Parent/Community
40 - Parents come for Town Meetings, 100 parents.//	Parent participation	1.3 - Relations 1.32 - Parent/Community
41 - Staff development.//	Faculty education	1.1 - Education 1.12 - Faculty/Staff
42 - Title 1, and school plan overlap.//	Objectives	1.2 - Curriculum 1.21 - Instruction
43 - Goals of student achievement.//	Student achievement	1.1 - Education 1.13 - Student



(table cont.)

44 - Technology.//	Technology	1.2 - Curriculum 1.23 - Technology
45 - Discipline.//	Behavior	1.3 - Relations 1.31 - School
46 - and social skills.//	Behavior	1.3 - Relations 1.31 - School
47 - Cultural diversity for next five years.//	Behavior	1.3 - Relations 1.31 - School
48 - Excellent environment whether the students take advantage of it.//	Learning	1.2 - Curriculum 1.21 - Instruction
49 - Wonderful opportunities.//	Learning	1.2 - Curriculum 1.21 - Instruction
50 - Number of Hispanics, Asians, Vietnamese, and Chinese with limited English.//	Teaching	1.2 - Curriculum 1.21 - Instruction
51 - Parents can opt out of English services for their child.//	Learning	1.2 - Curriculum 1.21 - Instruction
52 - Diversity Grant - music and visual arts, 1st year; music and visual arts, 2nd year.//	Learning	1.2 - Curriculum 1.21 - Instruction
53 - Parents prefer home school to English services.//	Education	1.1 - Education 1.13 - Student
54 - Child can test out of English services or parent opt out of English services.//	Education	1.1 - Education 1.13 - Student
55 - Teachers are doing a great job.//	Curriculum	1.2 - Curriculum 1.21 - Instruction

Table 7 follows with a comprehensive visual presentation of the frequency distribution of answers and percentages in regards to the administrative interview in the various categories and sub-categories.

**Table 7: Frequency Distribution**

Administration Interview

FREQUENCY DISTRIBUTION		
CATEGORY	NUMBER OF RESPONSE	PERCENTAGE
Relations	23	42%
Curriculum	18	33%
Education	14	25%
TOTAL	55	100%
SUB-CATEGORY	NUMBER OF RESPONSE	PERCENTAGE
Instruction/Curriculum	16	29%
School/Relations	16	29%
Student/Education	7	12%
Parent/Community/ Relations	7	12%
Faculty/Staff Education	4	7%
Administration/Education	3	5%
Resources/Curriculum	1	2%
Technology/Curriculum	1	2%
TOTAL	55	100%

These are the actual responses of Ms. Veronica Winston, Randolph Elementary School third grade teacher of Balanced Literacy, April 20, 1999; Ms. Sarah Fairchild, Randolph Elementary School third grade teacher of Balanced Literacy, April 22, 1999; Ms Carole Fletcher, Randolph Elementary School first grade teacher of Balanced Literacy, April 30, 1999; and Ms. Gloria Villanueva, Randolph Elementary School kindergarten grade teacher of Balanced Literacy, April 30, 1999.

Lincoln and Guba described Constant Comparative Method as a method for analyzing qualitative data. This method is utilized for the data gathered from a standardized open-ended interview, and it is unitized and categorized. A frequency distribution with the categories and the number of units in each category is listed to establish emerging themes.

**Table 8: Constant Comparative Method Analysis**

Faculty Interview

School Strengths:		CODES: 1
NODE	- <b>EDUCATION</b>	1.1
Sub Categories	- Administration	1.11
	- Faculty/Staff	1.12
	- Student	1.13
NODE	- <b>CURRICULUM</b>	1.2
Sub Categories	- Instruction	1.21
	- Resources	1.22
	- Technology	1.23
NODE	- <b>RELATIONS</b>	1.3
Sub Categories	- School	1.31
	- Parent/Community	1.32

(table cont.)

Actual Responses	Unit Defined	Category
1 - I graduated from Southern University.//	School	1.1 - Education 1.12 - Faculty/Staff
2 - I possess a BA in Elementary Education plus fifteen graduate hours.//	Degrees	1.1 - Education 1.12 - Faculty/Staff
3 - I have ten to twelve hours in administrative supervision.// (table cont.)	Credential	1.1 - Education 1.12 - Faculty/Staff
4 - I taught nineteen years.//	Teaching experience	1.1 - Education 1.12 - Faculty/Staff
5 - I taught at Randolph for one year.//	Teaching experience	1.1 - Education 1.12 - Faculty/Staff
6 - It is considered a good school.//	Good school	1.3 - Relations 1.31 - School
7 - Education is for every child.//	Students' education	1.1 - Education 1.13 - Student
8 - Every child can learn and be successful.//	Students' education	1.1 - Education 1.13 - Student
9 - Reading is one of the important basics in education.//	Instruction	1.2 - Curriculum 1.21 - Instruction
10 - Every child needs to learn to read.//	Students' education	1.1 - Education 1.13 - Student
11 - I have fifteen graduate hours in reading.//	Graduate School	1.1 - Education 1.12 - Faculty/Staff
12 - It was originally an all-white school.//	Education	1.1 - Education 1.13 - Student
13 - Now, it is diversified.//	Education	1.1 - Education 1.13 - Student

(table cont.)

14 - It is a very safe campus for both staff and faculty.//	School safety	1.3 - Relations 1.31 - School
15 - School has a safe environment for students.//	School safety	1.3 - Relations 1.31 - School
16 - Student enrollment is generally 75% African American and 25% non-Black.//	Student enrollment	1.3 - Relations 1.31 - School
17 - School staff is 100% African American.//	School staff	1.3 - Relations 1.31 - School
18 - School faculty is 50% 50%.//	School faculty	1.3 - Relations 1.31 - School
19 - Class is 80% African American and 20% non-Black.//	Student enrollment	1.3 - Relations 1.31 - School
20 - Achievement is above average.//	Student achievement	1.1 - Education 1.13 - Student
21 - School achievement is good.//	School achievement	1.1 - Education 1.13 - Student
22 - Expected school level of achievement is good.//	School achievement	1.1 - Education 1.13 - Student
23 - Level of achievement of class is above average.//	Class achievement	1.1 - Education 1.13 - Student
24 - Level of retention at this school is 10% to 15%.//	Class retention	1.1 - Education 1.13 - Student
25 - 70% of students expect to complete high school.//	Student achievement	1.1 - Education 1.13 - Student
26 - 35% of students expect to attend college.//	Student achievement	1.1 - Education 1.13 - Student

(table cont.)

27 - We teach because we believe in our students.//	Student achievement	1.1 - Education 1.13 - Student
28 - They will achieve.//	Student achievement	1.1 - Education 1.13 - Student
29 - Students learn more when they have and do home-work.//	Student achievement	1.1 - Education 1.13 - Student
30 - School work is important for students.//	Student achievement	1.1 - Education 1.13 - Student
31 - It is required.//	Instruction	1.2 - Curriculum 1.21 - Instruction
32 - Yes, faculty has input in the school improvement process.//	School improvement	1.2 - Curriculum 1.21 - Instruction
33 - I discuss what is important a curriculum for my grade level.//	School improvement	1.2 - Curriculum 1.21 - Instruction
34 - We participate after school at our regular scheduled meetings.//	School improvement	1.2 - Curriculum 1.21 - Instruction
35 - They are very supportive because of the HILT Program.//	School resources	1.2 - Curriculum 1.22 - Resources
36 - I use a balanced literacy Framework.//	Instruction	1.2 - Curriculum 1.21 - Instruction
37 - Phonics.//	Instruction	1.2 - Curriculum 1.21 - Instruction
38 - Cooperative grouping.//	Instruction	1.2 - Curriculum 1.21 - Instruction
39 - Peer sharing.//	Instruction	1.2 - Curriculum 1.21 - Instruction

(table cont.)

40 - Literature-driven basal framework.//	Instruction	1.2 - Curriculum 1.21 - Instruction
41 - The students enjoy and feel very positive about themselves.//	Instruction	1.2 - Curriculum 1.21 - Instruction
42 - Parent participation is about 20%.//	Parent involvement	1.3 - Relations 1.32 - Parent/Community
43 - Parents' concern about child's grades is about 40%.//	Parent involvement	1.3 - Relations 1.32 - Parent/Community
44 - Staff development is provided.//	Staff development	1.1 - Education 1.12 - Faculty/Staff
45 - Reading and writing skills.//	Curriculum	1.2 - Curriculum 1.21 - Instruction
46 - Total learning environment is good.//	Student learning	1.1 - Education 1.13 - Student
47 - I graduated from Grammercy State University and Southern University.//	Education	1.1 - Education 1.12 - Faculty/Staff
48 - I have a Master's + 30 in elementary education.//	Education	1.1 - Education 1.12 - Faculty/Staff
49 - I have no degrees in administration, but I have taken some courses, 6 hours.//	Education	1.1 - Education 1.12 - Faculty/Staff
50 - I have taught 30 years.//	Education	1.1 - Education 1.12 - Faculty/Staff
51 - I have not been a principal.//	Education	1.1 - Education 1.12 - Faculty/Staff

(table cont.)

52 - I have taught 21 years at Magnolia and LaBelle elementary school, 5th grade.//	Education	1.1 - Education 1.12 - Faculty/Staff
53 - General feeling of school reputation is great.//	Education	1.1 - Education 1.13 - Student
54 - It needs more discipline.//	Education	1.1 - Education 1.13 - Student
55 - I believe that all children can learn.//	Education	1.1 - Education 1.13 - Student
56 - I love reading and I work hard at it.//	Instruction	1.2 - Curriculum 1.21 - Instruction
57 - I believe that all children should learn to read//	Education	1.1 - Education 1.13 - Student
58 - Because it helps them in all in all areas.//	Education	1.1 - Education 1.13 - Student
59 - I have a reading specialist, 30 hours.//	Education	1.1 - Education 1.12 - Faculty/Staff
60 - It was formerly all-white school before integration.//	Education	1.1 - Education 1.13 - Student
61 - It is now 50-50 in race.//	Relations	1.3 - Relations 1.31 - School
62 - It is 50 years old.//	Relations	1.3 - Relations 1.32 - Parent/Community
63 - It has a safe environment for staff and faculty.//	School safety	1.3 - Relations 1.31 - School
64 - It has a safe environment for students.//	School safety	1.3 - Relations 1.31 - School



(table cont.)

65 - 50/50 school student environment.//	Student enrollment	1.3 - Relations 1.31 - School
66 - 50/50 school staff.//	School staff	1.3 - Relations 1.31 - School
67 - 53 in the faculty, 25% White 75% African American.//	School faculty	1.3 - Relations 1.31 - School
68 - 25 children , 50%/50%.//	Student enrollment	1.3 - Relations 1.31 - School
69 - Achievement is average.//	Student achievement	1.1 - Education 1.13 - Student
70 - School achievement is above average.//	School achievement	1.1 - Education 1.13 - Student
71 - Class achievement is average.//	Class achievement	1.1 - Education 1.13 - Student
72 - Level of retention is low, 2%.//	Class retention	1.1 - Education 1.13 - Student
73 - Most of them will complete high school, 60%.//	Student achievement	1.1 - Education 1.13 - Student
74 - 50% of students expect to attend college.//	Student achievement	1.1 - Education 1.13 - Student
75 - Most faculty believe that they will achieve//	Student achievement	1.1 - Education 1.13 - Student
76 - A few don't.//	Student achievement	1.1 - Education 1.13 - Student
77 - It is policy.//	Homework	1.2 - Curriculum 1.21 - Instruction
78 - I think that they need to have it.//	Homework	1.2 - Curriculum 1.21 - Instruction

(table cont.)

79 - Same as above.//	Homework	1.2 - Curriculum 1.21 - Instruction
80 - Yes, faculty has input in the school improvement process.//	School improvement	1.2 - Curriculum 1.21 - Instruction
81 - Yes, I am involved//	School improvement	1.2 - Curriculum 1.21 - Instruction
82 - We sign up at the beginning of the year for the committee we want to be involved with.//	School improvement	1.2 - Curriculum 1.21 - Instruction
83 - For active participation, 1 hour plus, depending on the activity.//	School improvement	1.2 - Curriculum 1.21 - Instruction
84 - Resources are getting better Better.//	Resources	1.2 - Curriculum 1.22 - Resources
85 - Especially with reading and language.//	Resources	1.2 - Curriculum 1.22 - Resources
86 - Small group.//	Instruction	1.2 - Curriculum 1.21 - Instruction
87 - Peer sharing.//	Instruction	1.2 - Curriculum 1.21 - Instruction
88 - Independent reading.//	Instruction	1.2 - Curriculum 1.21 - Instruction
89 - Role playing.//	Instruction	1.2 - Curriculum 1.21 - Instruction
90 - Modeling.//	Instruction	1.2 - Curriculum 1.21 - Instruction
91 - Literacy-based balanced.//	Instruction	1.2 - Curriculum 1.21 - Instruction

(table cont.)

92 - Most of the time is helpful.//	Instruction	1.2 - Curriculum 1.21 - Instruction
93 - Parent participation is very little, 2%.//	Parent participation	1.3 - Relations 1.32 - Parent/Community
94 - Parent concern is very low.//	Parent participation	1.3 - Relations 1.32 - Parent/Community
95 - Staff development is provided.//	Staff development	1.1 - Education 1.12 - Faculty/Staff
96 - Discipline.//	Discipline	1.3 - Relations 1.31 - School
97 - Class size.//	Instruction	1.2 - Curriculum 1.21 - Instruction
98 - Instructional help.//	Resources	1.2 - Curriculum 1.22 - Resources
99 - Total learning environment is that they are learning and highly motivated.//	Student learning	1.1 - Education 1.13 - Student
100 - I graduate from Southern University.//	Education	1.1 - Education 1.12 - Faculty/Staff
101 - I have a BS in Elementary Education.//	Education	1.1 - Education 1.12 - Faculty/Staff
102 - No formal administrative preparation.//	Education	1.1 - Education 1.12 - Faculty/Staff
103 - I have taught 2 years.//	Education	1.1 - Education 1.12 - Faculty/Staff
104 - I have not been a principal.//	Education	1.1 - Education 1.12 - Faculty/Staff
105 - I taught one year at this school.//	Education	1.1 - Education 1.12 - Faculty/Staff

(table cont.)

106 - It has a good reputation.//	Good school	1.3 - Relations 1.31 - School
107 - All children can learn.//	Student learning	1.1 - Education 1.13 - Student
108 - Reading is the important teaching.//	Curriculum	1.2 - Curriculum 1.21 - Instruction
109 - I have 3 classes in reading instruction.//	Education	1.1 - Education 1.12 - Faculty/Staff
110 - This was an all-white school.//	School environment	1.3 - Relations 1.31 - School
111 - It is very old.//	School environment	1.3 - Relations 1.31 - School
112 - Faculty and staff have safe environment.//	School safety	1.3 - Relations 1.31 - School
113 - Students have safe environment.//	School safety	1.3 - Relations 1.31 - School
114 - Student enrollment is 65% African-American, 35% non-Black.//	Student enrollment	1.3 - Relations 1.31 - School
115 - Staff is 100% African American.//	School staff	1.3 - Relations 1.31 - School
116 - School faculty is 65% African American and 35% non-Black.//	School faculty	1.3 - Relations 1.31 - School
117 - School class is 85% African American and 15% non-Black.//	Class enrollment	1.3 - Relations 1.31 - School
118 - School achievement is average.//	School achievement	1.1 - Education 1.13 - Student

(table cont.)

119 - Expected school level of achievement is above average.//	School achievement	1.1 - Education 1.13 - Student
120 - Class level of achievement is average.//	Class achievement	1.1 - Education 1.13 - Student
121 - Level of retention is about 10%.//	Class retention	1.1 - Education 1.13 - Student
122 - 60% of students expect to complete high school.//	School achievement	1.1 - Education 1.13 - Student
123 - Over 35% expect to attend college.//	School achievement	1.1 - Education 1.13 - Student
124 - Faculty attitude to student achievement is good.//	Student achievement	1.1 - Education 1.13 - Student
125 - Homework is good.//	Instruction	1.2 - Curriculum 1.21 - Instruction
126 - It is required.//	Homework	1.2 - Curriculum 1.21 - Instruction
127 - For students to learn, they need practice.//	Instruction	1.2 - Curriculum 1.21 - Instruction
128 - Faculty has input in the school improvement process.//	Instruction	1.2 - Curriculum 1.21 - Instruction
129 - We discuss at regular schedule meetings.//	Instruction	1.2 - Curriculum 1.21 - Instruction
130 - About 1 to 2 hours.//	Relations	1.3 - Relations 1.31 - School
131 - Parish is very supportive especially K-3.//	Resources	1.2 - Curriculum 1.22 - Resources
132 - Grouping.//	Instruction	1.2 - Curriculum 1.21 - Instruction

(table cont.)

133 - Shared reading.//	Instruction	1.2 - Curriculum 1.21 - Instruction
134 - Buddy reading.//	Instruction	1.2 - Curriculum 1.21 - Instruction
135 - Read Aloud.//	Instruction	1.2 - Curriculum 1.21 - Instruction
136 - Literature-based framework.//	Instruction	1.2 - Curriculum 1.21 - Instruction
137 - Literature-driven basal.//	Instruction	1.2 - Curriculum 1.21 - Instruction
138 - It is enjoyable and fun for the students.//	Instruction	1.2 - Curriculum 1.21 - Instruction
139 - Parent participation is not enough.//	Relations	1.3 - Relations 1.32 - Parent/Community
140 - Parent concern is 1/3.//	Relations	1.3 - Relations 1.32 - Parent/Community
141 - Staff development is provided.//	Staff development	1.1 - Education 1.12 - Faculty/Staff
142 - Reading and writing.//	Instruction	1.2 - Curriculum 1.31 - Instruction
143 - Total learning environment is good.//	Student learning	1.1 - Education 1.13 - Student
144 - I graduate from University of Texas and Southern University.//	Education	1.1 - Education 1.12 - Faculty/Staff
145 - I have a BS, Magna Cum Laude.//	Education	1.1 - Education 1.12 - Faculty/Staff
146 - I have a Master of Education, Summa Cum Laude.//	Education	1.1 - Education 1.12 - Faculty/Staff

(table cont.)

147 - I am certified in administrative supervision.//	Education	1.1 - Education 1.12 - Faculty/Staff
148 - I have taught 30 years.//	Education	1.1 - Education 1.12 - Faculty/Staff
149 - I have not been a principal.//	Education	1.1 - Education 1.12 - Faculty/Staff
150 - I have been here 12 years.//	Education	1.1 - Education 1.12 - Faculty/Staff
151 - It has a good reputation.//	Good school	1.3 - Relations 1.31 - School
152 - All children can learn.//	Student learning	1.1 - Education 1.13 - Student
153 - The road to success is based on how well a child reads.//	Curriculum	1.2 - Curriculum 1.21 - Instruction
154 - I have at least 7 classes in reading instruction.//	Education	1.1 - Education 1.12 - Faculty/Staff
155 - This was an all-white school when it opened.//	School environment	1.3 - Relations 1.31 - School
156 - Today, we have the HILT Program.//	Instruction	1.2 - Curriculum 1.21 - Instruction
157 - Faculty and staff have safe environment.//	School safety	1.3 - Relations 1.31 - School
158 - Students have safe environment.//	School safety	1.3 - Relations 1.31 - School
159 - Mostly African Americans and 15% non-Black.//	Student enrollment	1.3 - Relations 1.31 - School
160 - Staff is 100% African American.//	School staff	1.3 - Relations 1.31 - School

(table cont.)

161 - More than half are African American and 30% are non-Black.//	School faculty	1.3 - Relations 1.31 - School
162 - About 90% are African Americans and 30% are non-Black.//	Class enrollment	1.3 - Relations 1.31 - School
163 - School achievement is average.//	School achievement	1.1 - Education 1.13 - Student
164 - Expected school level of achievement is above average.//	School achievement	1.1 - Education 1.13 - Student
165 - Class level of achievement is average.//	Class achievement	1.1 - Education 1.13 - Student
166 - Level of retention is about 10%.//	Class retention	1.1 - Education 1.13 - Student
167 - More than half are expected to complete high school.//	School achievement	1.1 - Education 1.13 - Student
168 - About 40% expect to attend college.//	School achievement	1.1 - Education 1.13 - Student
169 - Faculty attitude to student achievement is good.//	Student achievement	1.1 - Education 1.13 - Student
170 - Homework is good.//	Instruction	1.2 - Curriculum 1.21 - Instruction
171 - It is school policy.//	Homework	1.2 - Curriculum 1.21 - Instruction
172 - Children need to practice to learn.//	Instruction	1.2 - Curriculum 1.21 - Instruction
173 - Faculty has input in the school improvement process.//	Instruction	1.2 - Curriculum 1.21 - Instruction



(table cont.)

174 - I discuss what is considered the best curriculum for my level.//	Instruction	1.2 - Curriculum 1.21 - Instruction
175 - About 2 hours.//	Relations	1.3 - Relations 1.31 - School
176 - They are supportive of the lower grades, K-3.//	Resources	1.2 - Curriculum 1.22 - Resources
177 - Oral reading.//	Instruction	1.2 - Curriculum 1.21 - Instruction
178 - Phonics.//	Instruction	1.2 - Curriculum 1.21 - Instruction
179 - Oral role playing.//	Instruction	1.2 - Curriculum 1.21 - Instruction
180 - Read Aloud.//	Instruction	1.2 - Curriculum 1.21 - Instruction
181 - Picture books.//	Instruction	1.2 - Curriculum 1.21 - Instruction
182 - A genre of literature.//	Instruction	1.2 - Curriculum 1.21 - Instruction
183 - Literature-driven basals.//	Instruction	1.2 - Curriculum 1.21 - Instruction
184 - It is very helpful.//	Instruction	1.2 - Curriculum 1.21 - Instruction
185 - Children enjoy learning.//	Instruction	1.2 - Curriculum 1.21 - Instruction
186 - Parent participation is 35%.//	Relations	1.3 - Relations 1.32 - Parent/Community
187 - Parent concern is 40%.//	Relations	1.3 - Relations 1.32 - Parent/Community

(table cont.)

188 - Staff development is provided.//	Staff development	1.1 - Education 1.12 - Faculty/Staff
189 - Reading skills.//	Instruction	1.2 - Curriculum 1.21 - Instruction
190 - Phonics.//	Instruction	1.2 - Curriculum 1.21 - Instruction
191 - I am concerned about the gifted.//	Instruction	1.2 - Curriculum 1.21 - Instruction
192 - So I am returning to the university to begin classes in the Gifted Program.//	Education	1.1 - Education 1.12 - Faculty/Staff
193 - Total learning environment is good.//	Student learning	1.1 - Education 1.13 - Student

Table 9 follows with a comprehensive visual presentation of the frequency distribution of answers and percentages in regards to the faculty interview in the various categories and sub-categories.

**Table 9: Frequency Distribution**

Faculty Interviews

FREQUENCY DISTRIBUTION		
CATEGORY	NUMBER OF RESPONSE	PERCENTAGE
Education	82	43%
Curriculum	68	35%
Relations	43	22%
TOTAL	193	100%

(table cont.)

SUB-CATEGORY	NUMBER OF RESPONSE	PERCENTAGE
Instruction/Curriculum	62	32%
Student/Education	50	25%
School/Relations	34	18%
Faculty/Staff/Education	32	17%
Parent/Community/ Relations	9	5%
Resources/Curriculum	6	3%
TOTAL	193	100%

## **CHAPTER 5 SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS**

### **Single Case Study Summary**

#### Hispanic Student

This was a multiple-imbedded exploratory case study. The case study analysis was focused on six individuals, specifically Hispanic elementary school students. The primary focus was on what was happening to the six students in a kindergarten, first, and third grade elementary school setting, how were these Hispanic students affected by the classroom setting within the context of the balanced literacy reading instructional framework of the kindergarten, first, and third grades, and what were the similarities and differences in the learning styles of the Hispanic students.

When Alicia Trujillo arrived at Randolph Elementary School, she spoke no English. Upon entering third grade, she scored 0 on the LAS/CTB Oral Language Level. This score signified a category of Non-English Speaker. Based on the initial instructional level of the Second Grade Level Indicators of Essential Knowledge at the beginning of the third grade, she had mastered zero indicators in essential knowledge of oral language out of twenty-eight indicators; partially mastered, three; and non-mastered, twenty-five (Appendix G). The three partially mastered indicators were: recognized and used consonants, vowels, blends, and digraphs during reading (2.2); read silently for sustained time (2.15); and progressed through the stages of inventive spelling (initial, final, and medial sounds) (2.19). She had attended school in Central America and possessed readiness skills when she arrived at Randolph Elementary School.

At the completion of the third grade, Alicia Trujillo scored 1+ on the LAS/CTB Oral Language Level. This score still signified a category of Non- English Speaker, but she had improved since she had scored 46.3 and the Limited English Speaker category scores ranged from 55 to 64. Based on the final instructional level of the Third Grade Level Indicators of Essential Knowledge, she mastered two indicators of essential knowledge out

of twenty-three indicators; partially mastered, fourteen; and non-mastered, seven (Appendix H).

Based on her third grade indicators of essential knowledge, Alicia Trujillo read silently for a sustained time. She used references such as a dictionary, glossary, thesaurus, and reference book. She knew how to use a computer to access information and demonstrated knowledge of word processing and graphic software. In the partial mastery, she had learned to use prefixes, suffixes, and root vowels to increase understanding of word meaning. She was limited in using contextual clues to guide her through meaningful reading due to her lack of grade appropriate vocabulary and high frequency words. Even though she lacked an understanding of phonics, she could recognize and use some consonants, vowels, blends, digraphs, and variant vowel sounds. To increase her understanding of word meanings, she used, as best as possible, prefixes, suffixes, and root vowels. Limited by her lack of fluency, she attempted to distinguish between fiction/non-fiction and fact/opinion in paragraphs and stories, including figurative speech and generalizations based on the text read. Her limitations affected her ability to write a story with a beginning, middle and end, including story elements such as setting, characters, and solution. Her reading ability demonstrated she could use reading strategies, monitor reading for meaning, and reread when appropriate self-correct errors. When she realized she made an error, she searched for meaning using pictures, visually searching through words using letters/sound knowledge. Her writing ability also affected her not being able to write in complete sentences, especially descriptive and narrative paragraphs. However, she could write in cursive, but her lack of English grammar prevented her from proofreading for meaning, punctuation, capitalization, and high frequency words. In conclusion, she learned sufficiently a little English in the two or three months she attended Randolph Elementary School. Without parental help in her reading or homework at home, Alicia improved because of her desire to become a fluent speaker of Standard English.

When Arturo Serrano arrived at Randolph Elementary School, he spoke English. Upon entering third grade, he scored 4 on the LAS/CTB Oral Language Level. This score signified a category of Fluent English Speaker. As a third grade transfer student from a public school system of Texas, Arturo showed mastery of twelve indicators of Essential Knowledge in oral language out of twenty-eight indicators; partial mastery, fifteen; and non-mastery, one, on the initial instructional level of the Second Grade Level Indicators of Essential Knowledge (Appendix G). Arturo possessed readiness skills when he arrived at Randolph Elementary School from Texas.

Based on his Second Grade Level Indicators of Knowledge, Arturo had mastered twelve indicators. Because he was a Fluent English Speaker and an avid reader, he read and understood appropriate vocabulary and high-frequency words. He loved to read, so he recalled stories including setting, characters, main events, problems, and solutions. He identified main characters, supporting details, and main ideas. Arturo comprehended and interpreted what he read and distinguished between fiction and non-fiction. Since he was an avid reader, he read silently for sustained time. He listened and responded to discussions of various genres of literature, using Standard English to communicate. When he read, he recognized and used consonants, vowels, blends, and digraphs. When he wrote, he progressed through the stages of inventive spelling, that is, initial, final, and medial sounds; he also showed awareness of uses and differences between a dictionary and encyclopedia. The only non-mastery indicator was planning, organizing, and presenting oral and written reports.

Based on his third grade indicators of essential knowledge, Arturo mastered eighteen indicators out of twenty-three and rated proficient at his grade level. Proficiency is a score of sixteen indicators out of twenty-three with a percentage of 70% or better (Appendix H). In addition to the twelve at the second grade level, he mastered the use of contextual clues to skim for key words and phrases and integrated cue sources during text reading. He had knowledge of reading strategies and understood figurative language. He demonstrated basic

knowledge of word processing and graphic software. When he wrote, he wrote with proper grammar and could write in complete sentences a story with a beginning, middle and end, which included story elements such as setting, characters, and solution. In conclusion, since he was a fluent English speaker, he spoke proper English with confidence and understood what he read with accuracy and detail.

When Roberto Alvarez arrived at Randolph Elementary School, he spoke no English. Upon entering second grade, he scored 0 on the LAS/CTB Oral Language Level. His score signified a category of Non-English Speaker. When entering third grade, he scored 1 on the LAS/CTB Oral Language Level. This score still signified a category of Non-English Speaker. But it also showed that he had improved in his learning of English. Based on the initial instructional level of the Second Grade Level Indicators of Essential Knowledge at the beginning of the third grade, Roberto had mastered in his oral language zero indicators of essential knowledge out of twenty-eight indicators; partially mastered, one; and non-mastered, twenty-seven (Appendix G). Roberto attended school in Mexico and possessed readiness skills when he arrived at Randolph Elementary School.

Having completed third grade, Roberto's scores on the Third Grade Level Indicators of Essential Knowledge slightly improved. Even though he said he liked to read, his scores were not indicative of his reading ability since his scores were not a great improvement when compared to those of the second grade. His score went from zero to one; Roberto felt he was learning English, and he was happy. At the third grade level, he did not master any indicator out of twenty-three; however, he did improve at the partial mastery level with seven and non-mastery of sixteen (Appendix H). The partial mastery scores showed improvement in recognizing and using consonants, vowels, blends, digraphs, diphthongs and variant vowel sounds, in reading silently for a sustained time, and in using references such as dictionary, glossary, thesaurus, and a reference book. In writing, Roberto wrote legible in cursive writing and wrote simple complete sentences. He had the ability to use a computer and access information. But he lacked appropriate vocabulary, high frequency

words, and contextual cues to guide him in meaningful reading. He had the ability to make generalizations based on interpretation of text read, to use reading strategies, to monitor reading for meaning, and to realize when a reading error was made. As for Roberto, he felt he had improved, wanted the teacher to practice more, read more, and give less homework. No one read to Roberto at home; no one read to him in English or in Spanish. But he did have books of his own, which were about animals. To Roberto, every new English word meant he was learning English.

Marcos Valenzuela is in the first grade. When Marcos arrived to kindergarten at Randolph Elementary School, he only spoke Spanish. He scored 0 on the LAS/CTB Oral Language Level. This score signified a category of Non-English Speaker. Based on the initial instructional level of the Kindergarten Grade Level Indicators of Essential Knowledge, Marcos showed mastery of two indicators out of thirty-one; partial mastery, three, and non-mastery, twenty-six (Appendix E). The following year, upon entering first grade, Marcos took the LAS/CTB and scored 63/2, which categorized him as a Limited English Speaker. Upon taking the First Grade Level Indicators of Essential Knowledge, he had mastered five out of thirty indicators; partial mastery, twenty-one; and non-mastery, four (Appendix F).

Completing first grade, Marcos showed great improvement in essential knowledge. At the kindergarten grade level, Marcos had only mastered associating letters with sounds (K.3) and beginning to use inventive spelling (K.27) (Appendix E). At the first grade level, he mastered five indicators. He learned to read left-to-right with return sweep, read silently for a sustained time, progressed through the stages of inventive spelling, listened and responded to discussion, and distinguished between fiction and non-fiction. His greatest improvement was in partial mastery since he had only three indicators at the kindergarten grade level but he mastered twenty-one indicators in first grade. For proficiency, twenty-one indicators were required out of thirty or 70%. Marcos has great potential because he was able to recognize and use consonants, vowels, blends, and digraphs during reading. In his



limited fluency, he loved to retell a story with detail and accuracy. Having learned to use reading strategies, reread for comprehension, and visually search for meaning by using letters/sounds knowledge, Marcos considered himself smart and a good student. He listened to his teacher read and was the first to raise his hand to participate in the class discussion. He understood and interpreted what he read or what was read. At home, his mother read to him every night in English from a chapter book. He also had his own books to read. Practice at home helped him to develop into a better reader.

Jose Fernandez is in kindergarten at Randolph Elementary School. Jose is from Cuba. When he arrived at Randolph Elementary School, Jose spoke only Spanish. He was only four and a half years old when he entered kindergarten. On the LAS/CTB Oral Language Level, he scored 0. This score signified the category of Non-English Speaker. The following year, he scored in the category of Limited English Speaker, Level 3, on the LAS/CTB Oral Language Level. On the Pre-Kindergarten Grade Level Indicators of Essential Knowledge, he scored zero on mastery; partial mastery, eight; and non-mastery, twenty, out of twenty-eight indicators (Appendix D). He greatly improved by the end of his kindergarten year. Based on the instructional level of the Kindergarten Grade Level Indicators of Essential Knowledge, he mastered seventeen indicators; partial mastery, eleven; and non-mastery, three, out of thirty-one indicators (Appendix E). Even though his mother read to him in Spanish at home, he had his own books, which were picture books and about science. Being the youngest of four children, he also learned English from his older sister and two older brothers. Because he had the opportunity to hear and speak English at home, he learned English.

In Pre-Kindergarten, Jose did not master any indicators out of twenty-eight. But at the kindergarten level, he mastered seventeen indicators out of thirty-one and was four indicators from proficiency or 70% mastery.

Based on the instructional level of the Kindergarten Grade Level Indicators of Essential Knowledge, Jose understood the concept of a “letter” and a “word” and associated

letters with sound. He realized that print carried a message, and he recognized environmental print. He began to demonstrate one-to-one word correspondence and left-to-right directionality. Since he loved to read, he could recall sequence of events in a story, begun to distinguish between fiction and non-fiction, and reacted to a story through drama and discussion. He was able to identify main characters in a story and understood that illustrations could be used as source of meaning to determine main idea from story details. Jose identified subject matter of a story through titles and illustrations. He knew story structure; it had a beginning, middle, and end. He demonstrated the ability to compare and contrast stories and interact with books for a sustained time. Most of all, Jose applied reasoning skills in all forms of communication and used Standard English to communicate. His scores indicated that he would become a fluent English speaker within the next two years or less.

Carlos Arriola is in kindergarten at Randolph Elementary School. Carlos is from Mexico. When he arrived at Randolph Elementary School, Carlos spoke only Spanish. Upon entering kindergarten, he scored 1 on the LAS/CTB Oral Language Level. This score signified the category of Non-English Speaker. At the end of the kindergarten grade year, Carlos still scored 1 in Non-English Speaker category of the LAS/CTB Oral Language Level. On the Pre-Kindergarten Grade Level Indicators of Essential Knowledge, he scored zero on mastery; partial mastery, four; and non-mastery, twenty-four, out of twenty-eight indicators (Appendix D). Based on the instructional level of the Kindergarten Grade Level Indicators of Essential Knowledge, he mastered seven indicators; partial mastery, fifteen; and non-mastery, nine, out of thirty-one indicators (Appendix E). Even though his mother read to him in Spanish and a little English and he did not have his own books, he read library books. Being the youngest of five children, he also learned English from his two sisters and two brothers. Having the opportunity to hear and speak English at home, Carlos learned English.

At the completion of kindergarten grade, Carlos' scores on the LAS/CTB Oral Language Level still ranked the same: Non-English Speaker. But he had improved, for he had mastered seven indicators rather than zero. Carlos understood the concept of a "letter" and a "word." He associated letters with sounds and realized that print carried a message. He recognized environmental print and began to demonstrate one-to-one word correspondence and left-to-right directionality. He distinguished between fiction and non-fiction. His love of reading permitted him to interact with books for a sustained time. He had partial mastery of fifteen indicators. With more time and practice, Carlos would master many of these indicators. Some of these indicators were identifying upper and lower case letters, reading pattern books which contained high frequency words, recalling sequence of events in a story, identifying main characters in story, and determining main idea from story details. Other indicators were to understand illustrations could be used as a source of meaning, to demonstrate an understanding of rhyming words, to identify subject matter of a story through titles and illustrations, to identify story structure (beginning, middle, and end), to react to a story through drama and discussion, and to listen and discuss various genres of literature, Carlos wrote his name legibly, applied reasoning skills in all forms of communication, and used Standard English to communicate, as best as possible. With time and more school interaction, Carlos would achieve proficiency because he had the desire to become a fluent English speaker.

#### Teachers/Classrooms

This exploratory case study consisted of four classroom teachers, who were purposely selected according to the instructional framework each used in teaching reading, which was Balanced Literacy.

As the unit of analysis was a Hispanic elementary student, the primary focus of the data collection was on what was happening to the individual student in an elementary school setting. This description analysis was how these Hispanic students were affected by the

classroom setting within the context of the Balanced Literacy reading instructional framework of their respective classroom and grade level.

Ms. Veronica Winston taught third-fourth combination in the morning at Randolph Elementary School. Her Hispanic student was Alicia Trujillo.

Ms. Winston's demographic setting of her class scored a rating of good. Classroom effectiveness was also good in leadership, teacher expectations, basic skills, and school climate. The demographic setting for students scored a rating of good. Alicia Trujillo loved her teacher, the students, and classroom. The over-all environment was positive in attitude and in nature. As a student, Alicia Trujillo, a third grader, was an average learner in the Balanced Literacy Reading Instructional Framework. The reading process incorporated the sensory and perceptual elements emphasized the visual and auditory; the sequential element, emphasized print awareness, top to bottom, grammar, and logic patterns; the experiential included direct, indirect, and vocabulary; the cognitive element enhanced comprehension, critical readiness, and questioning; learning element promoted meaningful, reinforcement, and active learner; association dealt with appropriate, immediate, and prior knowledge; and the affective element considered the emotional, interest, attitude, self-esteem, and sociocultural. Ms. Winston modified the reading process in her teaching lessons by the methods and strategies that she used to teach.

Ms. Winston's teaching that affected the learning mode of the classroom, specifically Alicia Trujillo, was the areas of language experience, vocabulary, and literature. Ms. Winston used directed reading activity (DRA) in oral reading. Graded books, controlled vocabulary, language experience, language driven reader, and literature driven reader were used as methods to teach reading. Students mastered or showed partial mastery when they were taught hierarchy of skills, readiness, literal comprehension, recall information, repetitive words in isolation and in context. Reinforcement was the follow-up strategy for proficiency.

Vocabulary was introduced by word identification, word recognition, or phonic analysis. Word recognition was developed by picture cues and phonetic analysis. Phonetic awareness was introduced by the use of questions, both literal and inferential. “Think Alouds” helped students identify vocabulary

Language experience was developed by picture illustrations, reinforcement, and high interest literature. Scaffolding and modeling were used to develop free expression, for students to become independent learners. Comprehension was improved with shared reading and language and literature driven readers. She exposed students to reading and writing with the use of critical creative reading in cooperative grouping. Peer sharing or buddy system was helpful for oral language and grammar.

Ms. Sarah Fairchild taught a third-fourth combination in the morning. Her Hispanic students were Arturo Serrano and Roberto Alvarez. Her teaching was language experience, literature, and vocabulary.

Ms. Fairchild’s demographic setting of her class scored a rating of good. Class effectiveness was also good. The demographic setting for students scored a rating of good. Arturo Serrano and Robert Alvarez loved their teacher, the students, and classroom. The over-all environment was positive in attitude and in nature. Arturo Serrano was a good student and Roberto Alvarez was an average student in the Balanced Literacy Reading Instructional Framework. The reading process incorporated the sensory and perceptual elements emphasized visual and auditory; the sequential element emphasized print awareness, top to bottom, grammar, and logic patterns; the experiential element included direct, indirect, and vocabulary; the cognitive element enhanced comprehension and critical readiness for Arturo, not for Roberto, and for both in questioning; the learning element promoted meaningful, reinforcement for both, but only Arturo became an active learner; association dealt with appropriate, immediate, and prior knowledge; and the affective element considered the emotional, interest, attitude, self-esteem, and sociocultural. Ms.

Fairchild modified the reading process in her teaching lessons by the methods and strategies that she used to teach.

Ms. Fairchild's teaching that affected the learning mode of the classroom, specifically Arturo Serrano and Roberto Alvarez, was the areas of language experience, thematic units, literacy elements, genre based, chapter books, webbing, picture books, oral role playing, and grouping. They mastered or showed partial mastery when they were taught creative language, "Language Together," reading skills, integrative and independent dimension of thematic units, story development with use of symbolism, figurative speech, pictorial setting, and characterization, style in writing, category of literary composition, especially chapter books. Webbing developed unit teaching by expanding schemata and conceptual process. Reading and writing developed critical thinking and vocabulary. The students' language capabilities were built up by focusing on oral and written forms of language. Language was more than a skill continuum. Language was a creative engagement of how language worked. "Language together" represented the use of speech, phonics, and grammar in a more natural learning instructional setting. This strategy permitted students many more opportunities to listen, write, read, and think.

In conclusion, grouping was implemented in various configurations: entire class, individual student, collaborative, and one-to-one interaction. Silent sustained reading was used where students read to themselves; collaboration was used for oral and written reports by using independent small groups. Retelling and reinforcement for comprehension and review used the entire class grouping. Peer sharing and the "buddy" system were used extensively in the class learning setting.

Ms. Carole Fletcher taught a first-second combination in the morning. Her Hispanic student was Marcos Valenzuela.

Ms. Fletcher's demographic setting of her class scored a rating of average. Class effectiveness was average in leadership and school climate and good in teacher expectations and basic skills. The demographic setting for students scored a rating of average. Marcos

Valenzuela loved his teacher, the students, and classroom. The over-all environment was positive in attitude and in nature. The problem for Ms. Fletcher was she had only taught for one year and was off task because she attempted to correct papers or prepare lesson plans during the time she assigned silent reading. The students had to wait for her to assign the next learning task since they would complete their assignment before she had completed hers. Marcos Valenzuela was an average student in the Balanced Literacy Reading Instructional Framework. The reading process incorporated sensory and perceptual elements which emphasized visual and auditory; sequential emphasized print awareness, top to bottom, grammar, and logic patterns; experiential included direct, indirect, and vocabulary; cognitive enhanced comprehension, critical readiness, and questioning; learning promoted meaningful, reinforcement, and active learner; association dealt with appropriate, immediate, and prior knowledge; and the affective promoted the emotional, interest, attitude, self-esteem, and sociocultural. Ms. Fletcher modified the reading process in her teaching lessons by methods and strategies that she used to teach.

The areas of teaching that affected these two Hispanic students were: flexibility, continuous progress organization, learning stations, reading activities, phonemic awareness, and grouping. Reading was independent, content, functional and oral. There was also instruction in learning and writing components and spelling with the use of the Action Oriented Reading Strategy. They mastered or showed partial mastery when they were taught good management, instructional strategies, and independent study. Developmental reading consisted of word identification and meaning, comprehension, and content skills. There were also independent reading and self-selected books for the students. Content reading involved comprehension skills, and functional reading included cognitive skills. Oral reading instructional experiences also stressed comprehension and linguistic resources for language acquisition. Action Oriented Reading Strategy consisted of comprehension and immediate feedback. On the other hand, spelling instruction included its developmental stages, decoding instruction, and phonemic awareness of both analytic (indirect) analysis

and synthetic (direct) analysis. Ms. Fletcher implemented literacy skills of decoding used in phonics, structural analysis, and contextual analysis. Students summarized stories, critically reacting to what was read, and learning to use scaffolding. She always reverted to direct instruction whenever there was a learning difficulty.

In conclusion, Ms. Fletcher used informal assessment. It consisted of observation, "Kid Watching," checklists, and participation observation. Informal reading inventories consisted of graded word list, comprehension questions, retelling, both oral and silent reading, and the cloze procedure. In the area of performance assessment, interaction and "Read Aloud" were used frequently. Grouping arrangements aided her to promote active learning.

Ms. Gloria Villanueva taught a kindergarten-first combination in the morning. Her Hispanic students were Jose Fernandez and Carlos Arriola.

Ms. Villanueva's demographic setting of her class scored a rating of good. Classroom effectiveness was also good in leadership, teacher expectations, basic skills, and school climate. The demographic setting for the students scored a rating of good. Jose Fernandez and Carlos Arriola loved their teacher, the students, and classroom. The over-all environment was positive in attitude and in nature. As students, Jose Fernandez and Carlos Arriola, both in kindergarten, were average students in the Balanced Literacy Reading Instructional Framework. The reading process in Ms. Valenzuela's classroom incorporated the sensory and perceptual elements which emphasized the visual and auditory; the sequential element emphasized print awareness, top to bottom, grammar, and logic patterns that enhanced the learning of Jose but not Carlos; experiential included direct, indirect, and vocabulary that helped Jose but Carlos had vocabulary problems; cognitive element enhanced comprehension, critical readiness, and questioning that aided Jose but Carlos had difficulty due to the lack of vocabulary and shyness; learning element promoted meaningful reinforcement, and an active learner where Jose blossomed and Carlos only did well with reinforcement; association emphasized appropriate, immediate, and prior knowledge which



helped Jose but not Carlos; and the affective element considered the emotional, interest, attitude, self-esteem, and sociocultural which allowed Jose to excel but Carlos lacked the emotional and sociocultural due to his shyness. Ms. Villanueva modified the reading process in her teaching lessons by the methods and strategies that she used to teach.

Ms. Villanueva's teaching that affected the learning mode of the classroom, specifically Jose Fernandez and Carlos Arriola, were the areas of language experience, vocabulary, phonics, and literature. Ms. Villanueva used directed reading activity in oral reading by retelling and repeating with Think Alouds and Writing Alouds. She used constantly positive reinforcement by stressing vocabulary and word identification. She motivated self-esteem by asking about their prior knowledge and prior experiences. Grouping was extensive: picture books reading utilized small group instruction, later to develop into peer sharing or the "buddy" system.

Vocabulary was introduced by phonic analysis, word identification, or word recognition. She introduced the students to inventive spelling, cursive writing, uppercase and lowercase letters, and letters of the alphabet, so that students could convert letters to sounds.

In conclusion, Ms. Villanueva developed language experience by picture illustrations, reinforcement, and high interest literature, fairy tales, and poetry.

#### Administration/School

There was one administrator in this exploratory case study. Ms. Carla Cameron, Randolph Elementary School principal, was interviewed with open-ended interview questions as were the teachers: Ms. Veronica Winston, Ms. Sarah Fairchild, Ms. Carole Fletcher, and Ms. Gloria Villanueva. With Lincoln and Guba's (1985) Constant Comparative Method Analysis, the actual responses were unitized, coded, and categorized.

With the use of the Constant Comparative Method Analysis, the emerging themes of the administration were in the order of importance: relations, curriculum, and education. Further study into the subcategories showed that instruction was the number one priority in

the eyes of the administration. Curriculum had to be well-grounded in the basic skills for students to be successful. Ms. Cameron also recognized that the relationship of the school with the students was just as important. This relationship would determine the educational achievement of the students. The parent and community relations with administration and school were held to be significantly valuable for students to carry their learning from school to their home because the most needed component in the success of the student was the parent/community relationship with the school. This was considered extremely important by the administration but the least attainable in actuality. The education preparation of the administration, faculty, and staff would determine the level of success for the students.

On the other hand, with the use of the Constant Comparative Method Analysis, the emerging themes of the faculty were in the order of importance: education, curriculum, and relations. For the teachers, the priority was the education of the students. Their focus was the student. Secondly, the teachers felt that curriculum, the foundation of learning, had to be at the top of each teacher's goals. Next were school relations as important as the education preparation of the faculty and staff. School management, especially, discipline, was important because without it curriculum could not be taught to the maximum level of achievement and comprehension if students were not aware of the rules to live by and learn. The relations of the parent and community were important; but, due to the lack of parental concern, teachers felt that they needed to do more. They considered this effort to be difficult to achieve and even a losing battle.

### **Cross Case Study Summary**

#### Hispanic Students

All six Hispanic students learned to speak, read, and write standardized English. What were the common components or indicators of essential knowledge that they learned by the instruction of their own respective teachers in the Balanced Literacy Reading Instructional Framework?

All six Hispanic students learned with mastery or partial mastery the following common grade level indicators of essential knowledge. With total mastery by all six Hispanic students, these were as follows:

- 1) Associate letters with sounds
- 2) Begin to demonstrate one-to-one correspondence and left-to-right directionality
- 3) Begin to distinguish between fiction and non-fiction
- 4) Read silently for a sustained time.
- 5) Write name legibly.
- 6) Recognize and use consonants, vowels, blends, digraphs, diphthongs, and variant vowel sounds.
- 7) Listen to and discuss various genres of literature
- 8) Use and get meaning from variety of media
- 9) Use Standard English to communicate.

There were level indicators where (all) student(s) attained non-mastery. These were as follows: Kindergarten Level – 1) Attempt to write sentences with or without punctuation, 2) Give meaning to personal writing and illustrations; First Grade Level – 1) Read and understand grade appropriate vocabulary and high frequency words, 2) Identify grade appropriate parts of speech, 3) Use contextual clues to guide meaningful reading, 4) Begin to proofread for meaning, punctuation, capitalization, and high frequency words; Third Grade Level – 1) All listed indicators were mastered or partially mastered by the third grade at least by one Hispanic student,

#### Teachers/Classrooms

With four different teachers in three different instructional grade levels, the question needs to be asked were there any common methods or strategies used to teach reading to all six Hispanic students across kindergarten, first, and third grades?

By the use of Spradley's Developmental Research Sequence, specifically the Componential Analysis stage where Dimension of Contrast is qualitative described, there were evident 46 common methods and 22 strategies found across the three different instructional frameworks of the basal reader, literature-based, and the balanced literacy.

For the reading process to have been most effective for the six Hispanic students, both the sensory and perceptual elements needed to be visual, auditory, and tactile, including kinesthetic for the sensory. The experiential was also direct and indirect. Learning was by reinforcement, questioning, and immediacy. Finally, the affective element needed to include interest, attitude, and, above all, self-esteem.

Now, instructional materials were varied. The most basic were graded books that followed a scope and sequence. These were good for the Hispanic students because there was a hierarchy of skills learned at a logical and reasonable pace for the students. Their lack of fluency and vocabulary hindered their learning process. However, they received readiness skills through literal comprehension and recalling information.

Controlled vocabulary was processed by repetitiveness of words, by learning words in isolation context, picture cues, and word recognition. In developmental reading, vocabulary must be identified and meanings given as a student is introduced to a new word. Spelling instruction was taught on the basis of developmental stages with decoding.

Students enjoyed both silent and oral reading, especially after having the knowledge of phonetic analysis. Oral reading was based on students' experiences, linguistic resources, immediate feedback, and the Action Oriented Reading Strategy. Phonemic awareness was taught both by analytic (indirect) and synthetic (direct) analysis. The use of each type of analysis was determined by the teaching objective in the instructional lesson. In addition, guided reading, shared reading, and creative reading were also of great enjoyment to the Hispanic students, for they learned from the teacher and their classmates. Learning was a process of constant reinforcement.

Their language experience increased with the use of picture illustrations, reinforcement, and literature of high interest, of diversity of genre, and of literary quality. Language driven readers and literature books aided Hispanic students because these readers helped them learn English in a lesser stressful environment. Reading became fun. In the area of language experience, children's literature was an important consideration since this

literature was at child's level of interest and improved reading skills by the use of creative language and "language together." Literature was not simply a chapter book with related literary elements but also a series of stories based on thematic units with an integrative and independent dimension. To understand what reading was about, literary elements needed to be taught such as story development, figurative speech, characterization, and pictorial style, including style in writing.

Language experience was genre-based. Chapter books were introduced with their related literary elements. Topical materials focused on topics that expand the conceptual process and schemata of the unit teaching by the use of webbing. The intent of every teacher was to connect reading and writing. To achieve this connection, interest and communication were focal points. Learning vocabulary and using picture books were good basic elements for this connection of reading and writing. Writing Aloud was a strategy that helped Hispanic students because it was oral, visual, and conceptual.

Good management was essential in classroom effectiveness. Knowing instructional strategies was a greater priority. There were various grouping that promoted reading and learning. In guided reading, the use of the entire class was best; in shared reading, it was one-to-one interaction; in creative reading, the collaborative group was most desired; and in independent reading, the individual student worked at a learning station or by self-selected books. All reading activities were based on individual needs based on a systematic instruction of skills.

This is a list of instructional materials and instructional organizations to check the effectiveness of the learning process of Hispanic students in a highly culturally diverse elementary school. These are listed as a means for accountability in a classroom setting.

Instructional materials:

- 1) Graded books
- 2) Picture books
- 3) Controlled vocabulary

- 4) High interest literature
- 5) Teacher's materials
- 6) Students' materials
- 7) Students' workbook
- 8) Literature books
- 9) Diagnostic material
- 10) Diversity of genre
- 11) Literary quality
- 12) Language driven reader
- 13) Literature driven books
- 14) Children's literature
- 15) Series of stories
- 16) Thematic units
- 17) Literary elements
- 18) Chapter books
- 19) Related literary elements
- 20) Topical materials
- 21) Developmental reading
- 22) Self-selected books
- 23) Linguistic resources
- 24) Informal reading inventories

Instructional organization:

- 1) Accountability
- 2) Good management
- 3) Learning stations
- 4) Record keeping
- 5) Diagnostic tests
- 6) Observation
- 7) Kid watching
- 8) Checklists
- 9) Participation observation
- 10) Performance based assessment
- 11) Interaction
- 12) Interviewing
- 13) Attitude interest inventory
- 14) Anecdotal records
- 15) Portfolios

#### Administration/School

Administrators and teachers disagreed on the priority for the teaching of all students.

The administrator categorized her priorities as follows: 1) relations, 2) curriculum, and 3) education. For the administration, relations were important because teachers and students

must be able to respect each other due to mutual understanding and acceptance. As an administrator, Ms. Cameron saw her responsibility to create a safe and orderly school environment, a strong academic orientation, and a highly educated staff and faculty. For the faculty, the teachers categorized their priorities as follows: 1) education, 2) curriculum, and 3) relations. The education preparation of administration, faculty, staff, and, above all, students was the greatest priority because there was a need of a role model and the general attitude that without education there can not be any achievement or success for anyone, who ever they may be. For administration and faculty, curriculum was the second priority because school was of no value without the teaching and learning of knowledge.

Purkey and Smith (1985) identified four characteristics that identify effective schools. They were: 1) administrative leadership, 2) teacher expectations, 3) emphasis on basic skills, and 4) school climate. Carter and Chatfield (1986) reported that an effective school for language minority students would support: 1) a safe and orderly school environment, 2) positive leadership, 3) strong academic orientation, 4) high staff/faculty expectations for students, and 4) well-defined roles and responsibilities for everyone. Therefore, by definition and by practice, Randolph Elementary School was an effective school promoting education for the six Hispanic students; the administration, faculty, and staff promoted leadership, expectations, basic skills, and climate for every student to learn, above all, the six Hispanic students who loved their school, their teacher, and classmates. They were happy to go to school and learn English.

### **Conclusions**

The case study report concluded by formulating answers to the three research questions that were stated in Chapter 1, entitled Introduction.

Question One was as follows: Is a Balanced Reading instructional program appropriate for educating Hispanic students in a highly culturally diverse elementary school?

The answer is yes. A Balanced Reading instructional program is appropriate because it is defined as an eclectic approach where a variety of teaching approaches, strategies and materials are used to meet the individual needs of students with skills being taught as they are needed, without reference to any specific reading instructional framework.

Question Two was as follows: How does a Balanced Reading instructional program impact Hispanic students' learning in a highly culturally diverse elementary school?

A Balanced Reading instructional program impacts Hispanic students' learning in a culturally diverse elementary school by using an integrated language arts instructional approach. It brought together speaking, listening, and writing together as a language experience; it represented language/learning as a whole and not as a part in isolation. The Balanced Literacy instructional framework was an eclectic approach. The basal reader instructional framework seemed appropriate for those who were non-English speakers because of the developmental instruction that it provided to the students. The Balanced Literacy instructional framework implemented and was beneficial to those students who still had difficulty with English and were not totally fluent. This particular instructional framework emphasized the individual needs of the students with skills being taught as they were needed. However, for those students who were fluent in English and were grounded in the elements or components of reading, active learners, these students were suited for the literature-based instructional framework since their emphasis of learning was more on the metacognitive skills and were geared into a more active and independent role of a reader and learner. The instructional framework represented more the style of the reader than the method and was more readily effective to learning how to read. The composite elements of



basal and literature instructional framework was the eclectic approach of the Balanced Literacy instructional framework.

Question Three was as follows: What are the most appropriate and effective teaching methods and strategies in reading for Hispanic students in highly culturally diverse elementary schools?

By cross-case analysis, there were found 46 common methods and 22 strategies that were used by all three teachers teaching reading to students, including Hispanic students. Hispanic students who were known to have difficulties in oral communication and in the ability to read were shown to have learned how to read and to improve their reading abilities by these 46 common methods and 22 strategies used by their own respective teacher in the areas that they showed improvement or proficiency. These 46 common methods and 22 strategies allowed the Hispanic students to acquire the competence in understanding written language. Since reading is an active process of constructing meaning from the written text in relation to their experiences and knowledge as a reader, the Hispanic students were able to gain perception, comprehension, reaction, and integration to the written text. These methods and strategies provided these students cognitive experiences and linguistic experience in a more systematic and comprehensive instructional approach in order for them to develop reading techniques and strategies to actively learn how to improve their reading. These methods and strategies implemented an eclectic method of instruction to reading instruction. With modification to their own personal needs, Hispanic students had a knowledge base to provide themselves practice in critical thinking, cognitive skills, and creative reading. These methods and strategies denied the exclusive use of any one instructional framework. They allowed the student the flexibility to adjust to their own personal needs in reading. There

was a constant interaction between the student and the methods and strategies. This systematic and comprehensive instructional set of methods and strategies facilitated conversation and writing.

In conclusion, these 46 common methods and 22 strategies reaffirmed the principles of effective language-based teaching. They reaffirmed that learning is a social process, and learning best occurs when it is whole, functional, and meaningful. These methods and strategies improved students' reading and writing because they gave students abundant opportunities to use reading and writing as modes for learning. It allowed the students to interrelate and interactive reading and writing as a process. Above all, these methods and strategies helped students become independent and responsible learners, in addition to increasing their awareness of their own abilities and interests.

This is a listing of the instructional methods and strategies that were found to be effective and appropriate in the teaching of reading of Hispanic elementary school students. The list is as follows:

Instructional methods:

- 1) Scope and Sequence Hierarchy of skills
- 2) Readiness
- 3) Silent/Oral Reading
- 4) Picture cues
- 5) Language experience
- 6) Detailed lesson plans
- 7) Word cues
- 8) Shared reading
- 9) Creative reading
- 10) Phonics
- 11) Cooperative grouping
- 12) Creative language
- 13) Story development
- 14) Characterization
- 15) Style in writing
- 16) Focused topics

- 17) Unit teaching
- 18) Expanded schemata
- 19) Picture illustrations
- 20) Reading-Writing Connection
- 21) Entire class
- 22) Individual student
- 23) Collaborative group
- 24) One-to-one interaction
- 25) Independent study
- 26) Programmed learning
- 27) Reading activities
- 28) Individual need
- 29) Phonemic awareness
- 30) Student reading
- 31) Independent reading
- 32) Systematic reading skills
- 33) Immediate feedback
- 34) Spelling instruction
- 35) Decoding instruction
- 36) Learning-Writing components
- 37) Interrelated
- 38) Specific reading strengths
- 39) Specific reading weaknesses
- 40) Graded word list
- 41) Comprehension questions
- 42) Administered oral/silent
- 43) Cloze procedure
- 44) Literacy capabilities
- 45) Experience inventories
- 46) Guided reading

Instructional strategies:

- 1) Literal comprehension
- 2) Recall information
- 3) Repetitive words
- 4) Vocabulary in isolation context
- 5) Word recognition
- 6) Reinforcement
- 7) Reading process
- 8) "Language Together"
- 9) Integrative dimension
- 10) Independent dimension
- 11) Figurative speech
- 12) Pictorial style
- 13) Webbing

- 14) Conceptual process
- 15) Rotational scheduling
- 16) Word identification and meaning
- 17) Analytic (indirect) analysis
- 18) Synthetic (direct) analysis
- 19) Action Oriented reading
- 20) Writing Aloud
- 21) Retelling
- 22) Read Aloud

#### Limitations

There was a missing link in this systematic and comprehensive set of methods and strategies regarding Hispanic students learning to read. This missing link was their parents. Students stated that they needed help at home with their reading. The students felt that English should also be spoken at home. Not only the students but also the parents needed help and support from education (Smith & Elish-Piper, 2002; Little & Box, 2002; Criscuolo, 1991). One needed the other. The vicious cycle, which was not speaking or knowing English, must be broken by including parents, who are the child's first teacher, in the learning process. Garcia (1999) had stated that theorists claimed that any population, no matter what their cultural background, could achieve academically if appropriate teaching methods were implemented. Thus, it was evident by the research of reading theorists such as Carlo, August, and McLaughlin, et al., (2004), Luftig (2003), Collins and Cheek (2000), Garcia (2000), and Banks (1994), that it is possible for a multicultural student population to achieve reading success in the near future.

## REFERENCES

- Adams, M. J. (1994). Beginning to read: Thinking and learning about print. Cambridge, MA: The MIT Press.
- Alexandrowicz, M. (2002). Effective instruction for second language learners: What tutors must know. Reading Improvement, Vol. 39, No. 2, Summer 2002 (pp. 71-78).
- Allen, V., et al., (1995). Amos and Boris: A window on teachers' thinking. The Reading Teacher, 48, 384-389.
- Allington, R. L. (1983). The reading instruction provided readers of different reading abilities. Elementary School Journal, 83, 549-559.
- Allington, R. L. (2002). Research on reading/learning disability interventions. In A. E. Farstrup & S. J. Samuels (Eds.), What research has to say about reading instruction (pp. 261-290). Newark, DE: International Reading Association.
- Allington, R. L., Cunningham, P. M. (2001). Schools that work: Where all children read and write, (2nd ed.). New York: Allyn & Bacon.
- American Educational Research Association, (2002). Ethical standards of the American Educational Research Association. Washington, DC: Author.[www.aera.net](http://www.aera.net)
- Anderson, P. C., Hiebert, E. H., Scott, J. A., & Wilkinson, I. A. G. (1985). Becoming a nation of readers: The report of the Commission on Reading. Washington, D. C.: The National Institute of Education. Institute of Education.
- Applegate, M. D., Quinn, K. B., & Applegate, A. J. (2002). Levels of thinking required by comprehension questions in informal reading inventories. The Reading Teacher, Vol. 56, No. 2, October 2002 (pp. 174-180).
- Apthorp, H. S., Dean, C.B., Florian, J. E., Lauer, P. A., Reichardt, R., & Snow-Renner, R. (2001). Standards in classroom practice: Research synthesis. Washington, D.C.: Office of Educational Research and Improvement.
- Au, K. H. (2002). Multicultural factors and effective instruction of students of diverse backgrounds. In A. E. Farstrup & S. J. Samuels (Eds.), What research has to say about reading instruction (pp.370-414). Newark, DE: International Reading Association.
- Aulls, M. W., & Sollars, V. ((2003). The differential influence of the home environment of the reading ability of children entering grade one. Reading Improvement, Vol. 40, No. 4, Winter 2003, (pp. 164-178).

- Austin, M. C., Bush, C. L., & Huebner, M. H. (1961). Reading evaluation. New York: The Ronald Press Company.
- Banks, J. A. (1994). An introduction to multicultural education, (7th ed.). Boston: Allyn & Bacon.
- Barbe, W. B. (1961). Educator's guide to personalized reading instruction. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall, Inc.
- Barr, R., & Johnson, B. (1996). Teaching reading in elementary classrooms, (2nd ed.). Boston: Allyn & Bacon.
- Barrentine, S. (2002). Engaging with reading through interactive read-alouds. In S. L. Swartz, R. E. Shook, A. F. Klein, C. Moon, K. Bunnell, M. Belt, & C. Huntley (Eds.), Readings in literacy learning in the primary grades (pp. 77-84). Redlands, CA: University Associates Press.
- Baumann, J. F. (1984). How to expand a basal reader program. The Reading Teacher, 37(7), 604-607.
- Baumann, J. F. (1991). Teaching comprehension strategies. In B. L. Hayes (Ed.), Effective strategies for teaching reading (pp. 61-83). Boston: Allyn & Bacon.
- Bear, D., & Templeton, S. ((2002). Explorations in developmental spelling: Foundations for learning and teaching, phonics, spelling, and vocabulary. In S. L. Swartz, R. E. Shook, A. F. Klein, C. Moon, K. Bunnell, M. Belt, & C. Huntley (Eds.), Readings in literacy learning in the primary grades (pp.7-26). Redlands, CA: University Associates Press.
- Berghoff, B., & Egawa, K. (1991). No more `rocks': Grouping to give students control of their learning. The Reading Teacher, 44, 536-541.
- Betts, E. A. (1957). Foundations of reading instruction, (2nd ed.). New York: American Book Company.
- Bintz, W., & Harste, J. (1991). A vision for the future of assessment in whole language classrooms. In B. Harp (Ed.), Assessment and evaluation in whole language programs (pp. 219-242). Norwood, MA: Christopher-Gordon Publishers Inc.
- Blair, T. R. (1984). What makes an effective reading program?. In R. Thompson (Ed.), Reading Research Review (pp. 273-281). Afton, MN: Burgess Publishing Company.

- Block, C. C., Oakar, M., & Hurt, N. (2002). The expertise of literacy teachers: A continuum from preschool to grade 3. Reading Research Quarterly, Vol.37. No. 2, April/May/June 2002, (pp. 178-206).
- Bogdan, R. C., & Biklen, S. K. (2002). Qualitative research for education: An introduction to theory and methods, (4th ed.). Boston: Allyn and Bacom.
- Brandsford, J., & Vye, N. (1989). A perspective on cognitive research and its implications for instruction. In L. Resnick & L. Klopfer (Eds.), Toward the thinking curriculum: Current cognitive research. Alexandria, VA: Association of Supervision and Curriculum Development.
- Bredenkamp, S. (1999). Developmentally appropriate practice in early childhood programs serving children from birth through age eight, (rev.ed.). Washington, D.C.: National Association for the Education of Young Children.
- Brozo, W. G., & Simpson, M. L. (2002). Readers, teachers, learners, (4th ed.). Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall, Inc.
- Burns, P. C., Roe, B. D., & Ross, E. P. (1995). Teaching reading in today's elementary schools, (6th ed.). Boston: Houghton Mifflin.
- Cambourne, B. (2002). Holistic, integrated approaches to reading and language arts instruction: The constructivist framework of an instructional theory. In A. E. Farstrup, & S. J. Samuels (Eds.), What research has to say about reading instruction (pp. 25-47). Newark, DE: International Reading Association.
- Carlo, M. S., August, D., McLaughlin, B., Snow, C. N., Dressler, C., Lippman, D. N., Lively, T. J., & White, C. E. (2004). Closing the gap: Addressing the vocabulary needs of English-language learners in bilingual and mainstream classrooms. Reading Research Quarterly, Vol. 39, No. 2, April/May/June 2004, (pp. 188-215).
- Carter, T. P., & Chatfield, M. L. (1986). Effective bilingual schools: Implications for policy and practice. American Journal of Education, 5(1), 200-234.
- Chalkins, L. (1994). The art of teaching writing. Portsmouth, NH: Heinemann Educational Books.
- Chall, J. S. (1995). Learning to read: The great debate, (2nd ed.). New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company.
- Chall, J. S. (1983). Stages of reading development. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company.

Chall, J. S. (1996). Stages of reading development, (2nd ed.). Fort Worth, TX: Harcourt Brace.

234

Cheek, E. H., & Cheek, M. C. (1983). Reading instruction through content teaching. Columbus, OH: Charles E. Merrill Publishing Company.

Cheek, E. H., Flippo, R. F., & Lindsey, J. D. (1997). Reading for success in elementary schools. Madison, WI: WCB Brown & Benchmark.

Church, J. (1991). Record keeping in whole language classroom. In B. Harp (Ed.), Assessment and evaluation in whole language programs (pp. 177-200). Norwood, MA: Christopher-Gordon Publishers, Inc.

Clay, M. (2002). Introducing a new storybook to young readers. In S. L. Swartz, R. E. Shook, A. F. Klein, C. Moon, K. Bunnell, M. Belt, & C. Huntley (Eds.), Readings in literacy learning in the primary grades (pp. 91-100). Redlands, CA: University Associates Press.

Clymer, T. (2002). The utility of phonic generalizations in the primary grades. In S. L. Swartz, R. E. Shook, A. F. Klein, C. Moon, K. Bunnell, M. Belt, & C. Huntley (Eds.), Readings in literacy learning in the primary grades (pp. 27-32). Redlands, CA: University Associates Press.

Cole, J. E. (2003). What motivates students to read? Four literacy personalities. The Reading Teacher, Vol. 56, No. 4, December 2002/January 2003 (pp. 326-336).

Collins, M. D. (1991). Teaching effective word identification strategies. In B. L. Hayes (Ed.), Effective strategies for teaching reading (pp. 13-34). Boston: Allyn & Bacon.

Collins, M. D., & Cheek, E. H. (2000). Diagnostic-prescriptive reading instruction: A guide for classroom teachers, (4th ed.). Madison, WI: WCB Brown & Benchmark.

Criscoe, B. L., & Gee, T. C. (1984). Content reading: A diagnostic/prescriptive approach. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall, Inc.

Criscuolo, N. P. (1973). Supervising the reading program. Midland, MI: Pendell Publishing Company.

Criscuolo, N. P. (1991). Using parents, partners, and volunteers. In B. L. Hayes (Ed.), Effective strategies for teaching reading (pp. 326-340). Boston: Allyn & Bacon.

Crockrum, W. A., & Castillo, M. (1991). Whole language assessment and evaluation strategies. In B. Harp (Ed.), Assessment and evaluation in whole language programs (pp. 73-86). Norwood, MA: Christopher-Gordon, Inc.



- Cullinan, B. E. (Ed.). (1992). Invitation to read: More children's literature in the reading program. Newark, DE: International Reading Association, Inc.
- Cunningham, P. M., & Cunningham, J. W. (2002). What we know about how to teach phonics. In A. E. Farstrup & S. J. Samuels (Eds.), What research has to say about reading instruction (pp. 87-109). Newark, DE: International Reading Association.
- D'Alessandro, M. (1990). Accommodating emotionally handicapped through a literature-based reading program. The Reading Teacher, 44, 288-293.
- Danielson, K. E. (1992). Picture books to use with older students. Journal of Reading, 35, 652-654.
- Dechant, E. (1981). Diagnosis and remediation of reading disabilities. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall, Inc.
- Dechant, E. (1981). Teacher's directory of reading skill aids and materials. New York: Parker Publishing Company, Inc.
- Delpit, L. D. (1991). A conversation with Lisa Delpit. Language Arts, 68, 541-547.
- Dixon-Krauss, L. (1996). Vygotsky in the classroom. White Plains, NY: Longman Publishers USA.
- Dole, J.A., Duffy, G. G., Roehler, L. R., & Pearson, P. D. (1991). Moving from old to the new: Research on reading comprehension instruction. Review of Educational Research, 61, 239-264.
- Donahue, P. L., Finnegan, R. J., Lutkus, A. D., Allen, N. L., & Campbell, J. R. (2001). The nation's report card: Fourth-grade reading 2000. Washington, D.C.: National Center for Education Statistics.
- Duffy, G. G., & Roehler, L. (1987). Teaching reading skills as strategies. The Reading Teacher, 40, 414-418.
- Duffy, G. G., Roehler, L., & Herrmann, B. A. (1987). Modeling mental processes helps poor readers become strategic readers. The Reading Teacher, 41, 762-769.
- Duffy, G. G., Sherman, G. B., & Roehler, L. R. (1977). How to teach reading systematically, (2nd ed.). New York: Harper & Row, Publishers.
- Duke, N. K., & Pearson, P. D. (2002). Effective practices for developing reading comprehension. In A. E. Farstrup & S. J. Samuels (Eds.), What research has to say about reading instruction (pp. 205-242). Newark, DE; International Reading Association.

- Durkin, D. (1981). Reading comprehension instruction in five basal reader series. Reading Research Quarterly, 16, 515-544.
- Durkin, D. (2004). Teaching them to read, (classic ed.). Boston: Pearson Allyn & Bacon, Inc.
- Duval, E. V., Johnson, R. E., & Litcher, J. (1977). Learning stations and the reading class. In R. A. Earle (Ed.), Classroom practice in reading (pp. 109-119). Newark, DE: International Reading Association.
- Eamon, M. K. (2002). Effects of poverty on mathematics and reading achievement of young adolescents. Journal of Early Adolescence, 22, 49-74.
- Edmonds, R. (1979). Effective schools for the urban poor. Educational Leadership, 37, 20-24.
- Ehri, L. C., & Nunes, S. R. (2002). The role of phonemic awareness in learning to read. In A. E. Farstrup & S. J. Samuels (Eds.), What research has to say about reading instruction (pp. 110-139).. Newark, DE: International Reading Association.
- Elderedge, J. L., Reutzel, D. R., & Hollingsworth, P. M. (1996). Comparing the effectiveness of two oral reading practices: Round-robin reading and shared book experiences. Journal of Literacy Research, 28, 201-225.
- Elley, W. (1991). Acquiring literacy in a second language: The effect of book-based programs. Language Learning, 41, 375-411.
- Elley, W., & Mangubhai, F. (1983). The impact of reading on second language learning. Reading Research Quarterly, 19, 53-67.
- Farr, R. (1986). Reading: What can be measured?, (2nd ed.). Newark, DE: International Reading Association.
- Farstrup, A. E., & Samuels, S. J. (Eds.). (2002). What research has to say about reading instruction, (3rd ed.). Newark, DE: International Reading Association, Inc.
- Fawson, P., & Reutzel, R. (2002). But I only have a basal: Implementing guided reading in the early grades. In S. L. Swartz, R. E. Shook, A. F. Klein, C. Moon, K. Bunnell, M. Belt, & C. Huntley (Eds.), Readings in literacy learning in the primary grades (pp. 101-114). Redlands, CA: University Associates Press.
- Flood, J., Lapp, D., & Farnan, N. (1986). A reading-writing procedure that teaches expository paragraph structure. The Reading Teacher, 29, 556-562.

- Flores, B., & et al. (1991). Transforming deficit myths about learning, language, and culture. Language Arts, 68, 369-379.
- Fountas, I. C., & Pinnell, G. S. (2001). Guiding readers & writers, grades 3-6. Portsmouth, NH: Heinemann.
- Freiberg, H. J., & Driscoll, A. (2000). Universal teaching strategies. (3rd ed.). Boston: Allyn and Bacon.
- Friedman, M. I., & Rowls, M. D. (1980). Teaching reading & thinking skills. New York: Longman.
- Gambell, L. B., & Almasi, J. F. (1996). Lively discussions: Fostering engaged reading. Newark, DE: International Reading Association.
- Garcia, G. E. (2000). Bilingual children's reading. In M. Kamil, P. Mosenthal, P. D. Pearson, & R. Barr (Eds.), Handbook of reading research (Vol. 3, pp. 813-834). Mahwah, NJ: Erlbaum.
- Garcia, E. (1999). Understanding and meeting the challenge of student cultural diversity. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company.
- Garland, C. (1978). Developing competence in teaching reading. Dubuque, IA: Wm. C. Brown Company Publishers.
- Garrett, J. E. (2002). Enhancing the attitudes of children toward reading: Implications for teachers and principals. Reading Improvement, Vol. 39, No. 1, Spring 2002 (pp. 21-24).
- Gee, J. P. (1996). Social linguistics and literacies (2<sup>nd</sup> ed.). London: Taylor & Francis.
- Gemake, J. (1981). Interference of certain dialect elements with reading comprehension for third graders. Reading Improvement, 18, 183-189.
- Gentry, R. (1982). An analysis of developmental spelling in GYNS AT Work. The Reading Teacher, 36, 192-200.
- Gibbons, P. (1993). Learning to learn in a second language. Portsmouth, NH: Heinemann Educational Books.
- Gibson, E., & Levin, H. (1975). The psychology of reading. Cambridge, MA: MIT Press.
- Gillet, J. W., & Temple, C. (2003). Understanding reading problems: Assessment and instruction, (6th ed.). Boston: Little, Brown and Company.

- Glasser, W. (1998). Choice theory in the classroom, (rev. ed). New York: Harper Collins.
- Goodman, K., & Goodman, Y. (Eds.). (1989). The whole language evaluation book. Portsmouth, NH: Heinemann.
- Goodman, Y. M. (1983). Roots of the whole-language movement. Elementary School Journal, 90, 113-128.
- Gotowala, M. C. (1977). Continuous progress: A management system. In R. A. Earle (Ed.), Classroom practice in reading (pp. 99-103). Newark, DE: International Reading Association.
- Graves, D. (2003). Writing: Teachers and children at work, (20th anniversary ed.). Portsmouth, NH: Heinemann Educational Books.
- Graves, M. F., & Watts-Taffe, S. M. (2002). The place of word consciousness in a research-based vocabulary program. In A. E. Farstrup & S. J. Samuels (Eds.), What research has to say about reading instruction (pp. 140-165). Newark, DE: International Reading Association.
- Graves, M. F., Watts-Taffe, S. M., & Graves, B.B. (1999). Essentials of elementary reading, (2nd ed.). Boston: Allyn & Bacon.
- Gray, W. S. (1960). Reading and physiology and psychology of reading. In E. W. Harris (Ed.), Encyclopedia of Educational Research. New York: Macmillan.
- Green-Wilder, J. L., & Kingston, A. J. (1986). The depiction of reading in five popular basal series. The Reading Teacher, 38(6), 399-402.
- Guthrie, J. T. (1983). Children's reasons for success and failure. The Reading Teacher, 36, 279-297.
- Guthrie, J. T. (2002). Preparing students for high-stakes test taking in reading. In A. E. Farstrup & S. J. Samuels (Eds.), What research has to say about reading instruction (pp.370-391). Newark, DE: International Reading Association.
- Guthie, J. T., & Alvermann, D. E. (Eds.). (1999). Engaged reading: Processes, practices, and policy implications. NY: Teachers College Press.
- Harp, B. (Ed.). (1991). Assessment and evaluations in whole language programs. Norwood, MA: Christopher-Gordon Publishers, Inc.

- Harp, B. (1991). The whole language movement. In B. Harp (Ed.), Assessment and evaluation in whole language programs (pp.1-16). Norwood, MA: Christopher-Gordon Publishers, Inc.
- Harste, J. C., Woodward, V. A., & Burke, C. (1984). Language stories and literacy lessons. Portsmouth, NH: Heinemann.
- Hayes, D. (1989). Helping students GRASP the knack of writing summaries. Journal of Reading, 33, 96-101.
- Hayes, B. L. (Ed.). (1991). Effective strategies for teaching reading. Boston: Allyn & Bacon.
- Hayes, B. L. (1991). The effective teaching of reading. In B. L. Hayes (Ed.), Effective strategies for teaching reading (pp. 3-12). Boston: Allyn & Bacon.
- Hayes, B. L. (1991). Using the newspaper to enhance reading. In B. L. Hayes (Ed.), Effective strategies for teaching reading (pp. 379-394). Boston: Allyn & Bacon.
- Hiebert, E. H. (2002). Standards, assessments, and text difficulty. In A. E. Farstrup & S. J. Samuels (Eds.), What research has to say about reading instruction (pp.337-370). Newark, DE: International Reading Association.
- Heilman, A W., Blair, T. R., & Rupley, W. H. (2001). Principles and practices of teaching reading, (10th ed.). Upper Saddle River, NJ: Prentice-Hall, Inc.
- Hennings, D. G. (2002). Communication in action: Teaching literature-based language arts, (8th ed.). Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company.
- Hodges, R. E., & Rudorf, E. H. (Eds.). (1984). Language and learning to read, (reprint). Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company.
- Hoffman, J. V., McCarthy, S. J., Abbot, J., Christian, C., Corman, L., Curry, C., Dressman, M., Elliot, B., Matherne, D., & Stahle, D. (1993). So what's new in the new basals?: A focus on first grade. Journal of Reading Behavior, 26, 47-73.
- Holdaway, D. (1982). Shared book experience: Teaching reading using favorite books. Theory into Practice, 21, 293-300.
- Horst, T. (1998). The U.S. Hispanic population is growing. The Dismal Scientist. Internet: Dismal Sciences, Inc.
- Huck, C. S., Hepler, S., & Hickman, J. (2004). Children's literature in the elementary school (8th ed.). New York: Holt, Rinehart, & Winston.

- Huebsch, W. R. (1991). Organizing for effective instruction. In B. L. Hayes (Ed.), Effective strategies for teaching reading (pp.237-253). Boston: Allyn & Bacon.
- Hunter, M. (2004). Madeline Hunter's mastery teaching: Increasing instructional effectiveness, (rev updated ed.). El Segundo, CA: TIP Publications.
- Johnson-Weber, M. (1989). Picture books for junior high. Journal of Reading, 33, 219-220.
- Kader, S. A., & Yawkey, T. D. (2002). Problems and recommendations: Enhancing communication with culturally and linguistically diverse students. Reading Improvement, Vol. 39, No. 1, Spring 2002 (pp. 43-51).
- Kao, G., & Tienda, M. A. (1995). Optimism and achievement: The educational performance of immigrant youth. Social Science Quarterly, 77, 1-19.
- Kaufman, P., & Frase, M. J. (1990). Dropout rates in the United States: 1989. Washington, DC: National Center for Educational Statistics.
- King, D. (1991). Assessment and evaluation in bilingual, multicultural classrooms. In B. Harp (Ed.), Assessment and evaluation in whole language programs (pp. 159-176). Norwood, MA: Christopher-Gordon Publishers, Inc.
- Kleitzien, S. B. (1996). Reading programs in nationally recognized elementary schools. Reading Research and Instruction, 35, 260-274.
- Kontos, S. (1988). Development and interrelationships of reading knowledge and skills during kindergarten and first grade. Reading Research and Instruction, 35, 260-274.
- Kramsch, C. (1995). The cultural component in language teaching. Language, Culture, and Curriculum, 8, 83-92.
- Krashen, S. D. (1998). Every person a reader. In C. Weaver (Ed.), Reconsidering a balanced approach to reading (pp 425-452). Urbana, IL: National Council of Teachers of English.
- Krashen, S., & McQuillan, J. (1998). The case for late intervention once a good reader, always a good reader. In C. Weaver (Ed.), Reconsidering a balanced approach to reading (409-422). Urbana, IL: National Council of Teachers of English.
- Lapp, D., & Flood, J. (1986). Teaching students to read. New York: MacMillan Publishing Company.
- Laughlin, M. K., & Swisher, C. L. (1990). Literature-based reading: Children's books and activities to enrich the K-5 curriculum. Phoenix, AZ: The Oryx Press.

- Lawler-Prince, D., Altieri, J. L., & Cramer, M. M. (1996). Moving toward an integrated curriculum in early childhood education. Washington, DC: National Education Association.
- LeCompte, M. D., & Goetz, J. P. (1982). Ethnographic data collection in evaluation research. Educational Evaluation and Policy Analysis 4:387-400.
- Leu, D. J. & Kinzer, C. K. (2003). Effective literacy instruction, K-8, (5th ed.). Upper Saddle River, NJ: Merrill.
- Leu, Jr., D. J. (2002). The new literacies: Research on reading instruction with the internet. In A. E. Farstrup & S. J. Samuels (Eds.), What research as to say about reading instruction (pp.310-336). Newark, DE: International Reading Association.
- Lewin, L. (1992). Integrating reading and writing strategies using an alternating teacher-led student-selected instructional pattern. The Reading Teacher, 45, 586-591.
- Lincoln, Y. S., & Guba, E. G. (1985). Naturalistic inquiry. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.
- Little, D. C., & Box, J. A. (2002). Developing early reading and writing skills of young children: A program for parents. Reading Improvement, Vol. 39, No. 2, Summer 2002 (pp. 97-100).
- Louisiana Department of Education (2003). Louisiana progress profiles: District composite report, East Baton Rouge Parish. Baton Rouge, LA: Author
- Louisiana Department of Education (1997). School effectiveness and assistance program. Baton Rouge, LA: Author
- Luftig, R. L. (2003). What a little bit means a lot: The effects of a short-term reading program on economically disadvantaged elementary schoolers. Reading Research and Instruction Summer 2003, 42 (4) 1-13.
- Manzo, A. V. (1975). Guided reading procedure, Journal of Reading, 18, 287-291.
- Marshall, C., & Rossman, G. B. (1999). Designing qualitative research, (3rd ed.). Newbury Park: Sage Publications.
- Martinez, M., & Roser, N. (2002). Read it again: The value of repeated readings during storytime. In S. L. Swartz, R. E. Shook, A. F. Klein, C. Moon, K. Bunnell, M. Belt, & C. Huntley (Eds.), Readings in literacy learning in the primary grades (pp.127-130). Redlands, CA: University Associates Press.

- Martinez, M., & Teale, W. H. (1987). The ins and outs of kindergarten writing programs. The Reading Teacher, 4, 444-451.
- Mather, D. (1984). The language learner in school. In R. E. Hodges & E. H. Rudorf (Eds.), Language and learning to read (pp. 44-51). New York: Houghton Mifflin Company.
- McCafferty, S. G. (2002). Adolescent Second Language Literacy: Language-Culture, Literature, and Identity. Reading Research and Instruction Spring 2002, 41 (3) 279-288.
- McCarthy, S. J., & Hoffman, J. V. (1995). The new basals: How are they different? National Reading Research Center. The Reading Teacher, 49, 72-75.
- McGee, L., & Richgels, D. (2002). "K is Kristen's": learning the alphabet from a child's perspective. In S. L. Swartz, R. E. Shook, A. F. Klein, C. Moon, K. Bunnell, M. Belt, & C. Huntley (Eds.), Readings in literacy learning in the primary grades (pp.33-42). Redlands, CA: University Associates Press.
- McKenna, M. and D. Kear (1990). Measuring attitude toward reading: A new tool for teachers. The Reading Teacher, 43, 626-639.
- Meloth, M.S., & Deering, P. D. (1994). Task talk and task awareness under different cooperative learning conditions. American Educational Research Journal, 31, 138-165.
- Morrow, L.M. (1992). The impact of a literature-based program on literacy achievement, use of literature, and attitudes of children from minority backgrounds. Reading Research Quarterly, 27, 94-106.
- Morrow, L. M., Smith, J. K., & Wilkinson, L. C. (1994). Integrated language arts. Boston: Allyn and Bacon.
- Morrow, L. M. (2002). Designing the classroom to promote literacy development. In S. L. Swartz, R. E. Shook, A. F. Klein, C. Moon, K. Bunnell, M. Belt, & C. Huntley (Eds.), Readings in literacy learning in the primary grades (pp.115-126). Redlands, CA: University Associates Press.
- National Center for Education Statistics. (2000). The kindergarten year. Washington, D. C.: U.S. Department of Education.
- National Center for Education Statistics. (2001). The nation's report card: Fourth-grade reading highlights 2000. Washington, D.C.: U.S. Department of Education.



- National Center for Education Statistics (2000). The kindergarten year: Findings from the early childhood longitudinal study, kindergarten class of 1998-99. Washington D.C.: U.S. Department of Education.
- National Center for Education Statistics. (2000). NAEP 1999 Trends in academic progress: Three decades of student performance. Washington, D.C.: U.S. Department of Education.
- National Council of Teachers of English (1998). In C. Weaver (Ed.), Reconsidering a balanced approach to reading. Urbana, ILL: National Council of Teachers of English.
- National Institute for Literacy (2001). Reading: Know what works. Washington, D.C.: U.S. Department of Education.
- National Research Council (1998a). Starting out right. Washington, DC: National Academy Press.
- National Research Council (1998b). Preventing reading difficulties in young children. Washington, DC: National Academy Press.
- Neuman, S. B., & Roskos, K. (1993). Language and literacy learning in the early years: An integrated approach. Orlando, FL: Harcourt Brace Jovanovich.
- Newman, J. (1985). Whole language: Theory and use. Portsmouth, NH: Heinemann.
- Norton, D. E. (2004). The effective teaching of language arts, (6th ed.). Upper Saddle River, NJ: Merrill/Prentice Hall.
- Ogle, D. M. (1989). The know, want to know, learn strategy. In K. D. Muth (Ed.), Children's comprehension of text (pp. 205-223). Newark, DE: International Reading Association.
- Osborne, J. (1984). Workbooks that accompany basal reading programs. In G. G. Duffy, L. R. Roehler, & J. Mason (Eds.), Comprehension instruction: Perspectives and suggestions (pp. 163-186). New York: Longman.
- Paratore, J. R. (2002). Home and School Together: Helping beginning readers succeed. In A. E. Farstrup & S. J. Samuels (Eds.), What research has to say about reading instruction (pp. 48-68). Newark, DEL: International Reading Association.
- Pardo, L., & Raphael, T. (1991). Classroom organization for instruction in content areas. The Reading Teacher, 48, 556-564.

- Park, B. (2002). The big book trend: Discussion with Don Holdaway. In S. L. Swartz, R. E. Shook, A. F. Klein, C. Moon, K. Bunnell, M. Belt, & C. Huntley (Eds.), Readings in literacy learning in the primary grades (pp.131-136). Redlands, CA: University Associates Press.
- Patton, M. Q. (2002). Qualitative evaluation and research methods, (3rd ed.). Newbury Park, CA: Sage Publications
- Pearson, P.D., & Fielding, L. (1991). Comprehension instruction. In R. Barr, M. Kamil, P. Mosenthal, & P. Pearson (Eds.), Handbook of Reading Research Vol. II, 815-860.
- Peskin, A. (1988). In search of subjectivity-one's own. Educational Researcher, 17(7), 17-22.
- Pittelman, S., & Heimlich, J. E. (1991). Teaching vocabulary. In B. L. Hayes (Ed.), Effective strategies for teaching reading (pp. 35-60). Boston: Allyn & Bacon.
- Porter, J. (1972). Research report by James Martin - The development of sentence writing skills at grade three, four, and five. Elementary English, 49, 867-870.
- Pransky, K., & Bailey, F. (2003). To meet your students where they are, first you have to find them: Working with culturally and linguistically diverse at-risk students. The Reading Teacher, Vol. 56, No. 4, December 2002/January 2003 (pp. 370-383).
- Pressley, M. (2002). Metacognition and self-regulated comprehension. In A. E. Farstrup & S. J. Samuels (Eds.), What research has to say about reading instruction (pp.291-309). Newark, DE: International Reading Association.
- Pressley, M. (2002). Reading instruction that works, (2nd ed.). New York: The Guilford.
- Purcell-Gates, V., & Dahl, K.L. (1991). Low-SES children's success and failure at early literacy learning in skills-based classrooms. Journal of Reading Behavior, 23:1, 1-10.
- Purkey, S. C., & Smith, M. S. (1983). Effective schools: A review. Elementary School Journal, 83, 52-78.
- Quintero, E., & Huerto-Macias, A. (1990). All in the family: Bilingualism and biliteracy. The Reading Teacher, 44, 306-311.
- Rasinski, T. (2002). Fluency for everyone: Incorporating fluency instruction in the classroom. In S. L. Swartz, R. E. Shook, A. F. Klein, C. Moon, K. Bunnell, M. Belt, & C. Huntley (Eds.), Readings in literacy learning in the primary grades (pp.137-141). Redlands, CA: University Associates Press.

- Ratekin, N. (1978). A comparison of reading achievement among three racial groups using standard reading materials. In D. Feitelson (Ed.), Cross-cultural perspectives on reading and reading research (pp. 62-71). Newark, DE: International Reading Association.
- Reichel, A. G. (1994). Performance assessment: Five practical approaches. Science and children, 22, 21-25.
- Reutzel, D. R. (1991). Understanding and using basal readers effectively. In B. L. Hayes (Ed.), Effective strategies for teaching reading (pp. 254-280). Boston: Allyn & Bacon.
- Rhodes, L. (2002). I can read! Predictable books as resources for reading and writing instruction. In S. L. Swartz, R. E. Shook, A. F. Klein, C. Moon, K. Bunnell, M. Belt, & C. Huntley (Eds.), Readings in literacy learning in the primary grades (pp. 141-146). Redlands, CA: University Associates Press.
- Rhodes, L. K., & Nathenson-Mejia, S. (1992). Anecdotal records: A powerful tool for ongoing literacy assessment. The Reading Teacher, 43, 502-511.
- Roe, B. D., Stoodt, B. D., & Burns, P. C. (2004). Secondary school literacy instruction: The content areas, (8th ed.). Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company.
- Rosen, C. L. (1977). Action oriented strategies. In R. A. Earle (Ed.), Classroom practice in reading (pp. 74-80). Newark, DE: International Reading Association.
- Rosenshine, B. (1979). Content time and direct instruction. In P. Peterson & H. Walberg (Eds.), Research on teaching: Concepts findings and implications (pp. 28-56). Berkeley, CA: McCutcheon.
- Rosenshine, B. (1976). Recent research on teaching behaviors and student achievement. Journal of Teacher Education, 27, 61-64.
- Rosenshine, B., & Meister, C. (1995). Scaffolds for teaching higher-order cognitive strategies. In A. C. Ornstein (Ed.), Teaching: Theory into practice (pp. X-XX). Boston: Allyn & Bacon.
- Rosenshine, B., & Stevens, R. (1995). Functions for teaching well-structured tasks. Journal of Educational Research, 88, 262-268.
- Rosenshine, B. V., & Stevens, R. (1986). Teaching functions. In M. C. Whitrock (Ed.), Handbook of Research on Teaching, (3rd ed.). NY: Collier, Macmillan.

- Rosenthal, A. S., Baker, K., & Ginsburg, A. (1983). The effects of language background on achievement level and learning among elementary school students. Sociology of Education, 56, 157-169.
- Routman, R. (1994). Invitations: Changing as teachers and learners K-12. Portsmouth, NH: Heinemann.
- Rudell, R. B., Rudell, M. R. (1994). Language acquisition and literacy process. In R. B. Rudell, M. R. Rudell, & H. Singer (Eds.), Theoretical models and processes of reading (4th ed.) ( pp. 83-103). Newark, DE: International Reading Association.
- Rupley, W. H., & Blair, T. R. (1989). Teaching reading: Diagnosis, direct instruction, and practice, (2nd ed.). Upper Saddle River, NJ: Merrill/Prentice Hall.
- Rupley, W. H., Wise, B. S., & Logan, J. W. (1986). Research in effective teaching: An overview of its development. In J. V. Hoffman (Ed.), Effective teaching of reading: Research and practice . Newark, DE: International Reading Association.
- Russavage, P. M., Lorton, L. L., & Millham, R. L. (1985). Making responsible instructional decisions about reading: What teachers think and do about basals. The Reading Teacher, 39(3), 314-317.
- Russell, A. (2003). Literacy development for students with no voice: Scheme and schema. Reading Improvement, Vol. 40, No. 3, Fall 2003 (pp. 104-109).
- Samuels, S. J. (2002). Reading fluency: Its development and assessment. In A. E. Farstrup & S. J. Samuels (Eds.), What research has to say about reading instruction (pp. 166-183). Newark, DE: International Reading Association.
- Sanders, W.L. and Rivers, J.C. (1998). Cumulative and Residual Effects of Teachers on Future Student Academic Achievement. Knoxville, Tenn: University of Tennessee.
- Sandstrom, R. (Ed.) (1994). Programming for Literacy Learning. Victoria, AUS: Shortrun Books.
- Schickedanz, J. (2002). Please read that story again. In S. L. Swartz, R. E. Shook, A. F. Klein, C. Moon, K. Brunnell, M. Belt, & C. Huntley (Eds.), Readings in literacy learning in the primary grades (pp. 147-152). Redlands, CA: University Associates Press.
- Shanahan, T. (1995). Avoiding some of the pitfalls of thematic units. The Reading Teacher, 48, 718-719.
- Shannon, P., & Goodman, K. (1994). Basal readers: A second look. Katonah, NY: Richard C. Owen Publishers, Inc.

- Sharer, P. L., Peters, D., & Lehman, B. A. (1995). Lessons from grammar school: How can literature use in elementary classrooms affect middle-school instruction?. Journal of Adolescent & Adult Literacy, 39, 28-34.
- Shepherd, D. L. (1982). Comprehensive high school reading methods. Columbus, OH: Charles E. Merrill.
- Silvern, S. B., & Silvern, L. R. (1990). Beginning literacy and your child. Newark, DE: International Reading Association.
- Simpson, H. D. (1974). Black dialect and learning to read. In J. L. Johns (Ed.), Literacy for diverse learners, (pp. X-XX). Newark, DE: International Reading Association.
- Simpson, M. (1986). PORPE: A Writing Strategy for studying and learning in the content areas. Journal of Reading, 29, 407-414.
- Sleeter, C. E., & Grant, C. A. (1987). An analysis on multicultural education in the U.S. Harvard Educational Review, 57(4).
- Smith, C. B. (1996). How to get information from your child's school. The ERIC parent reader. Bloomington, IN: ERIC/Family Literacy Center, Indiana University.
- Smith, F. (1983). Reading like a writer. Language Arts, 60, 558-567.
- Smith, M. C., & Elish-Piper, L. (2002). Primary-grade educators and adult literacy: Some strategies for assisting low-literate parents. The Reading Teacher, Vol. 56, No. 2, October 2002 (pp. 156-165).
- Snow, C.E., Burns, S. M., & Griffin, P. (Eds.). (1998). Preventing Reading Difficulties in Young Children. Washington, D.C.: National Academy Press.
- Sipe, L. (2002). Invention, convention, and intervention: Invented spelling and the teacher's role. In S. L. Swartz, R. E. Shook, A. F. Klein, C. Moon, K. Bunnell, M. Belt, & C. Huntley (Eds.), Readings in literacy learning in the primary grades (pp.43-52). Redlands, CA: University Associates Press.
- Spradley, J. P. (1980). Participant observation. New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston.
- Stahl, S. (2002). Saying the "P" word: Nine guidelines for exemplary phonic instruction. In S. L. Swartz, R. E. Shook, A. F. Klein, C. Moon, K. Bunnell, M. Belt, & C. Huntley (Eds.), Readings in literacy learning in the primary grades (pp. 53-60). Redlands, CA: University Associates Press.

- Stallings, J. (1975). Implementation and child effects of teaching practices in follow-through classrooms. Monographs of the Society for Research in Child Development, 40, 7-8.
- Stanovich, K. E. (1993/1994). Romance and reality. The Reading Teacher, 47, 280-291.
- Strickland, D. S. (1998). Teaching phonics today. Newark, DE: International Reading Association.
- Strickland, D. S. (2002). The importance of effective early intervention. In A. E. Farstrup & S. J. Samuels (Eds.), What research has to say about reading instruction (pp. 69-86). Newark, DE: International Reading Association.
- Strong, W. J. (1991). Writing strategies that enhance reading, In B. L. Hayes (Ed.), Effective strategies for teaching reading (pp. 153-172). Boston: Allyn & Bacon.
- Tadlock, D. F. (1978). SQ3R-Why it works, based on an information processing theory of learning. The Journal of Reading, 22, 110-116.
- Taylor, J. A. (1987). Teaching children who speaks a nonstandard dialect to read. Reading improvement, 24, 160-162.
- Taylor, B. N., Peterson, D. S., Pearson, P. D., & Rodriguez, M. C. (2002). Looking inside classrooms: Reflecting on the “how” as well as the “what” in effective reading instruction. The Reading Teacher, Vol. 56, No. 3, November 2002, (pp. 270-279).
- Thames, D. G., & York, K. C. (2003). Disciplinary border crossing: Adopting a broader, richer view of literacy. The Reading Teacher, Vol. 56, No. 7, April 2003 (pp. 602-610).
- The Partnership for Reading (2002). The Reading Leadership Academy Guidebook. Washington, D.C.: U. S. Department of Education.
- Templeton, S. (1986). Literacy, readiness, and basals. The Reading Teacher, 39(5), 403-409.
- Templeton, S. (1997). Teaching the integrated language arts, (2nd ed.). Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company.
- Tierney, R., Carter, M., & Desai, L. (1991). Portfolio assessment in reading-writing classrooms. Norwood, MA: Christopher-Gordon.
- Tierney, R. J., Readence, J. E., & Dishner, E. K. (2000). Reading strategies and practices: A compendium, (5th ed.). Boston: Allyn and Bacon.

- Tunnell, M. O., & Jacobs, J. S. (1998). Using "real" books: Research findings on literature-based reading instruction. In C. Weaver (Ed.), Reconsidering a balanced approach to reading (pp. 373-386). Urbana, IL: National Council of Teachers of English.
- U.S. Department of Education, (2003). No child left behind: A parent's guide. Washington, D. C.: Office of the Secretary of Public Affairs.
- Vacca, R. T. (2002). Making a difference in adolescent' school lives: Visible and invisible aspects of content area reading. In A. E. Farstrup & S. J. Samuels (Eds.), What research has to say about reading instruction (pp. 184-204). Newark, DE: International Reading Association.
- Weaver, C. (1998). Introduction: A perspective. In C. Weaver (Ed.), Reconsidering a balanced approach to reading (pp xv-xxvi). Urbana, IL: National Council of Teachers of English.
- Weaver, C. (1998). Toward a balanced approach to reading. In C. Weaver (Ed.), Reconsidering a balanced approach to reading (pp 11-74). Urbana, IL: National Council of Teachers of English.
- Weber, R. M., & Longhi-Chirlin, T. (2001). Beginning in English: The growth of linguistic and literate abilities in Spanish-speaking first graders. Reading Research and Instruction, Fall 2001, 41 (1) 19-50.
- Weiss, M. J., & Hagan, R. (1988). A key to literacy: Kindergartens' awareness of the functions of print. The Reading Teacher, 6, 574-579.
- Wepner, S. (1993). Technology and thematic units: An elementary example. The Reading Teacher, 46, 442-445.
- White, J. H., Vaughan, J. L., & Rorie, L. (1986). Picture of a classroom where reading is for real. The Reading Teacher, 40, 84-86.
- Wiggins, R. A. (1994). Large group lesson/small group follow up: Flexible grouping in a basal reading program. The Reading Teacher, 47, 450-460.
- Williams, J. P. (2002). Reading comprehension strategies and teacher preparation. In A. E. Farstrup & S. J. Samuels (Eds.), What research has to say about reading instruction (pp.243-261). Newark, DE: International Reading Association.
- Williamson, A. P. (1977). Affective strategies at the secondary level. In R. A. Earle (Ed.), Classroom practice in reading (pp 81-88). Newark, DE: International Reading Association.

- Winograd, P., & Jones, D. L. (1992). The use of portfolios in performance assessment. In J. Craig (Ed.), New directions for education reform: Performance assessment (pp. 37-50). KY: Western Kentucky University.
- Winograd, P., Paris, S., & Bridge, C. (1991). Improving the assessment of literacy. The Reading Teacher, 45, 108-116.
- Wright, J. P. (1977). Management system and open classrooms. In R. A. Earle (Ed.), Classroom practice in reading (pp. 104-108). Newark, DE: International Reading Association.
- Yin, R.K. (2003). Case study research: Design and methods, (3rd ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.
- Yin, R. K., Bateman, P. G., & Moore, G. B. (1983). Case studies and organizational innovation: Strengthening the connection. Washington, DC: COSMOS Corporation.
- Young, P., & Bastianelli, C. (1990). Retelling comes to Chiloquin High. Journal of Reading, 34, 194-196.
- Yopp, H. K., & Yopp, R. H. (2002). Supporting phonemic awareness development in the classroom. In S. L. Swartz, R. E. Shook, A. F. Klein, C. Moon, K. Bunnell, M. Belt, & C. Huntley (Eds.), Readings in literacy learning in the primary grades (pp.61-73). Redlands, CA: University Associates Press.
- Zarrillo, J. (1989). Teachers' interpretations of literature-based reading. The Reading Teacher, 43, 22-28.



APPENDIX A  
LETTER TO SCHOOL DISTRICT

3450 Nicholson Drive  
Apartment 2045  
Baton Rouge, LA 70802

Mr. Don Mercer  
Associate Superintendent  
Curriculum and Instruction  
East Baton Rouge Parish School System  
1050 South Foster Drive  
Baton Rouge, LA 70806

Dear Mr. Mercer,

I am currently a full-time Ph.D. candidate at Louisiana State University in the Department of Curriculum and Instruction, specializing in Reading; and I am in process of writing my dissertation, entitled A Case Study Inquiry into the Relative Impact of Balanced Reading Instruction on Hispanic Students in a Highly Culturally Diverse Elementary School. At Louisiana State University, I teach EDCI 3137, Assessing and Guiding Classroom Reading Instruction. In California, I am a full-time tenured Professor of History, Political Science, Spanish, and Reading. I have taught thirty-three years with twenty-seven years at the College of the Desert, Palm Desert, California.

I am requesting permission to conduct the research of my dissertation on six Hispanic students in four classrooms at XXXXX Elementary School. I have spoken to Ms.XXXX and have received permission. My research entails observing the three most frequently used instructional approaches: 1) Basal Readers, 2) Literature-Based, and 3) Balanced Literacy. I have enclosed my Case Study Prospectus to inform you with my research intentions.

I hope that I will receive your support and approval in conducting this research. I will be happy to meet with you to answer any questions or to receive information about the research. I can be reached at the above address or at 383-3360.

Sincerely yours,

Professor Rita Ramirez

APPENDIX B  
LETTER FROM SCHOOL DISTRICT

Professor Rita Ramirez  
3450 Nicholson Drive  
Apartment 2045  
Baton Rouge, LA 70802

Dear Professor Ramirez,

We are happy to approve your request to conduct your dissertation research. Upon the approval of the school administration and faculty, we grant permission to you.

We wish you the best in your endeavors.

Sincerely yours,

Mr. Don Mercer  
Associate Superintendent  
Curriculum and Instruction  
East Baton Rouge Parish School System

APPENDIX C  
PARENT PERMISSION LETTER

3450 Nicholson Drive  
Apartment 2045  
Baton Rouge, LA 70802

Dear Family,

I am completing my Ph.D. at Louisiana State University. My dissertation is entitled, A Case Study Inquiry into the Relative Impact of Balanced Reading Instruction on Hispanic Students in a Highly Culturally Diverse Elementary School.

I have received permission from the East Baton Rouge Parish School System, the principal and the school teacher of your elementary school to conduct this research.

My research will comprise of observing your child in class for fifteen hours, which will be approximately one week of class attendance. I will study how your child is learning to read and what makes learning easy for some children and difficult for others. I will observe the activities, take notes, collect work samples, and talk with your child about what and how he/she is learning. The interest inventory will be written and taped to provide clarification for later review. I will also need to preview your child's academic records regarding reading performance. I will be in your child's classroom to answer any questions that you may have.

I am asking for your permission to observe your child as he/she learns to read. I would also like to interview you as parents so that you can contribute your thoughts and discuss issues relating to your child's ability to learn to read. Please complete the following permission letter and return it to your child's teacher.

Thank you for this opportunity. Please call me at 383-3360 if you have any questions.

Sincerely,

Professor Rita Ramirez

I give permission for my child, \_\_\_\_\_, to participate in Professor Ramirez's research study. I understand that she will observe and talk with my child, collect work samples, audiotape and write a report of her findings. She may preview my child's academic records relating to reading performance.

I understand that all information, including my child's identity and mine own, will remain anonymous during and after the completion of the research.

\_\_\_\_\_  
Parent's signature

\_\_\_\_\_  
Date

\_\_\_\_\_  
Home Telephone

APPENDIX D  
 INSTRUCTIONAL LEVEL OF PARTICIPANTS CHECKLIST PRE-KINDERGARTEN  
 GRADE LEVEL INDICATORS OF ESSENTIAL KNOWLEDGE

STUDENTS: 1= Carlos Arriola 2= Jose Fernandez	SYMBOLS: M - Mastery PM - Partial Mastery NM - Non-Mastery	STUDENT CODE	
		1	2
Pre-K.1	Understand that print carries a message.	NM	NM
Pre-K.2	Recognize own name or part of it in print.	NM	NM
Pre-K.3	React to environmental print.	NM	NM
Pre-K.4	Display reading behaviors and knowledge of how to use a book.	PM	PM
Pre-K.5	Use correct names of objects and events in speech.	NM	NM
Pre-K.6	Recognize words in the environment.	NM	NM
Pre-K.7	Demonstrate awareness of directionality. (left-right) (top-to-bottom).	PM	PM
Pre-K.8	Tell a story in sequence following pictures in a book or using personal experiences.	NM	NM
Pre-K.9	React to a story through discussion.	NM	NM
Pre-K.10	Recite parts of favorite poems, songs, or stories.	NM	NM
Pre-K.11	Use story language when retelling a story.	NM	NM
Pre-K.12	Communicate a message to others.	NM	NM
Pre-K.13	Distinguish between like and different sounds.	NM	PM
Pre-K.14	Experiment with rhyme and repetition.	NM	PM
Pre-K.15	Role play real and make-believe situations.	NM	NM
Pre-K.16	Predict story text from illustrations.	NM	NM

STUDENTS: 1= Carlos Arriola 2= Jose Fernandez	SYMBOLS: M - Mastery PM - Partial Mastery NM - Non-Mastery	STUDENT CODE	
		1	2
Pre-K.17	Interact with books for sustained time	PM	PM
Pre-K.18	Use books, pictures, charts, etc. for a variety of purposes.	NM	NM
Pre-K.19	Begin to ask questions for information.	NM	NM
Pre-K.20	Relate word labels to graphics on a computer.	NM	NM
Pre-K.21	Display writing-like behaviors.	NM	PM
Pre-K.22	Assign messages to own symbols.	PM	PM
Pre-K.23	Dictate a message, letter, story, song, etc.	NM	NM
Pre-K.24	Use writing and drawing tools with control and intention.	NM	NM
Pre-K.25	Attempt to write own name.	NM	PM
Pre-K.26	Listen to and discuss various genres of literature.	NM	NM
Pre-K.27	Get meaning from a variety of media.	NM	NM
Pre-K.28	Apply reasoning skills in all forms of communication.	NM	NM
Mastery of 20/28 Indicators = 70%		0	0
Partial Mastery of 28 Indicators		4	8
Non-Mastery of 28 Indicators		24	20

APPENDIX E  
 INSTRUCTIONAL LEVEL OF PARTICIPANTS CHECKLIST KINDERGARTEN  
 GRADE LEVEL INDICATORS OF ESSENTIAL KNOWLEDGE

STUDENTS: 1= Carlos Arriola 2= Jose Fernandez 3= Marcos Valenzuela	SYMBOLS: M - Mastery PM - Partial Mastery NM - Non-Mastery	STUDENT CODE		
		1	2	3
K.1 Understand the concept of a "letter" and a "word."		M	M	NM
K.2 Realize that print carries a message.		M	M	PM
K.3 Associate letters with sounds.		M	M	M
K.4 Identify upper and lower case letters.		PM	PM	PM
K.5 Recognize environmental print.		M	M	NM
K.6 Begin to demonstrate one-to-one word correspondence and left-to-right directionality.		M	M	NM
K.7 Begin to read pattern books which contain high frequency words.		PM	PM	NM
K.8 Recall sequence of events in a story.		PM	M	NM
K.9 Begin to distinguish between fiction and non-fiction.		M	M	NM
K.10 React to a story through drama and discussion.		PM	M	NM
K.11 Identify main characters in story.		PM	M	NM
K.12 Determine main idea from story details.		NM	PM	NM
K.13 Plan, organize, and present information.		NM	PM	NM
K.14 Demonstrate an understanding of rhyming words.		PM	PM	NM
K.15 Understand that illustrations can be used as a source of meaning.		PM	M	NM

STUDENTS: 1= Carlos Arriola 2= Jose Fernandez 3= Marcos Valenzuela	SYMBOLS: M - Mastery PM - Partial Mastery NM - Non-Mastery	STUDENT CODE		
		1	2	3
K.16	Identify subject matter of a story through titles and illustrations.	PM	M	NM
K.17	Demonstrate understanding of positional words.	NM	PM	NM
K.18	Identify story structure: beginning, middle, and end.	PM	M	N M
K.19	Demonstrate the ability to compare and contrast stories.	NM	M	NM
K.20	Interact with books for a sustained time.	M	M	NM
K.21	Use books, charts, etc., for a variety of purposes.	PM	PM	NM
K.22	Use a variety of resources and strategies to obtain information: ask questions, look in books, conduct experiments.	NM	PM	NM
K.23	Relate word label to graphics on a computer.	NM	PM	NM
K.24	Attempt to write sentences with or without punctuation.	NM	NM	NM
K.25	Give meaning to personal writing and illustrations.	NM	NM	NM
K.26	Write name legibly.	PM	PM	PM
K.27	Begin to use inventive spelling.	NM	NM	M
K.28	Listen to and discuss various genres of literature.	PM	PM	NM
K.29	Use and get meaning from variety of media.	PM	M	NM
K.30	Apply reasoning skills in all forms of communication.	PM	M	NM
K.31	Use standard English to communicate	PM	M	NM



STUDENTS: 1= Carlos Arriola 2= Jose Fernandez 3= Marcos Valenzuela	SYMBOLS: M - Mastery PM - Partial Mastery NM - Non-Mastery	STUDENT CODE		
		1	2	3
Mastery of 22/31 Indicators = 70%		7	17	2
Partial Mastery of 31 Indicators		15	11	3
Non-Mastery of 31 Indicators		9	3	26

APPENDIX F  
INSTRUCTIONAL LEVEL OF PARTICIPANTS CHECKLIST FIRST GRADE LEVEL  
INDICATORS OF ESSENTIAL KNOWLEDGE

STUDENTS: 1= Marcos Valenzuela	SYMBOLS: M - Mastery PM - Partial Mastery NM - Non-Mastery	STUDENT CODE
		1
1.1	Read and understand grade appropriate vocabulary and high frequency words.	NM
1.2	Recognize and use consonants, vowels, blends, and digraphs during reading.	PM
1.3	Read left-to-right with return sweep.	M
1.4	Identify grade appropriate parts of speech.	NM
1.5	Use contextual clues to guide meaningful reading.	NM
1.6	Retell a story including setting, characters, main events, supporting, details, problems, and solution.	PM
1.7	Identify main characters, supporting details, main events, problems, and solutions in a story.	PM
1.8	Plan, organize, and present information, oral and written.	PM
1.9	Distinguish between fiction and non-fiction.	M
1.10	Comprehend and interpret what is read.	PM
1.11	Integrate cue sources (meaning, structure, and visual).	PM
1.12	Demonstrate the use of reading, strategies: monitor reading for meaning, reread when appropriate, self-correct errors, realize when a reading error has been made, search for meaning using pictures, and visually search through words using letters/sounds knowledge.	PM
1.13	Identify synonyms and antonyms.	PM
1.14	Compare and contrast literature and authors.	PM

STUDENTS: 1= Marcos Valenzuela	SYMBOLS: M - Mastery PM - Partial Mastery NM - Non-Mastery	STUDENT CODE
		1
1.15	Use known parts of words to help identify new words.	PM
1.16	Read silently for a sustained time.	M
1.17	Skim a paragraph or story to search for specific facts.	PM
1.18	Complete charts, tables, or graph.	PM
1.19	Progress through the stages of inventive spelling.	M
1.20	Use consonants, vowels, blends, and digraphs during writing.	PM
1.21	Write in complete sentences.	PM
1.22	Write a story with a beginning, middle, and end.	PM
1.23	Develop a story using details and sequence.	PM
1.24	Begin to proofread for meaning, punctuation, capitalization, and high frequency words.	NM
1.25	Spell color words, number words, and grade appropriate high frequency words.	PM
1.26	Listen to and discuss various genres of literature.	PM
1.27	Get meaning from a variety of media.	PM
1.28	Apply reasoning skills in all forms of communication	PM
1.29	Use standard English to communicate.	PM
1.30	Listen and respond to discussion.	M
Mastery of 21/30 Indicators = 70% Proficiency		5
Partial Mastery of 30 Indicators		21
Non-Mastery of 30 Indicators		4

APPENDIX G  
INSTRUCTIONAL LEVEL OF PARTICIPANTS CHECKLIST SECOND GRADE  
LEVEL INDICATORS OF ESSENTIAL KNOWLEDGE

STUDENTS: 1= Roberto Alvarez 2= Alicia Trujillo 3= Arturo Serrano	SYMBOLS: M - Mastery PM - Partial Mastery NM - Non-Mastery	STUDENT CODE		
		1	2	3
2.1	Read and understand grade appropriate vocabulary and high-frequency words.	NM	NM	M
2.2	Recognize and use consonants, vowels, blends, and digraphs during reading.	NM	PM	M
2.3	Identify grade appropriate parts of speech.	NM	NM	PM
2.4	Use contextual clues to guide meaningful reading.	NM	NM	PM
2.5	Retell a story including setting, characters, main events, problem, and solution.	NM	NM	M
2.6	Identify main characters, supporting details, main ideas, problems, and solution in a story.	NM	NM	M
2.7	Plan, organize, and present reports: oral and written.	NM	NM	NM
2.8	Distinguish between fiction and non-fiction.	NM	NM	M
2.9	Comprehend and interpret what is read.	NM	NM	M
2.10	Integrate cue sources (meaning, structure, and visual) during text reading.	NM	NM	PM
2.11	Demonstrate the use of reading strategies: monitor reading for meaning, reread when appropriate, self-correct errors, realize when a reading error has been made, search for meaning using pictures, and visually search through words using letters-sound knowledge.	NM	NM	PM
2.12	Identify synonyms, antonyms, and homonyms.	NM	NM	PM
2.13	Compare and contrast literature and authors.	NM	NM	PM
2.14	Use known parts of words to help identify new words	NM	NM	PM
2.15	Read silently for sustained time.	PM	PM	M

STUDENTS: 1= Roberto Alvarez 2= Alicia Trujillo 3= Arturo Serrano	SYMBOLS: M - Mastery PM - Partial Mastery NM - Non-Mastery	STUDENT CODE		
		1	2	3
2.16	Skim a paragraph or story to search for a specific fact.	NM	NM	PM
2.17	Compose charts, tables, or graphs.	NM	NM	PM
2.18	Show awareness of uses and differences between dictionary and encyclopedia.	NM	NM	M
2.19	Progress through the stages of inventive spelling (Initial, final, and medial sounds).	NM	PM	M
2.20	Use consonants, vowels, blends, and digraphs during writing.	NM	NM	PM
2.21	Write in complete sentences.	NM	NM	PM
2.22	Write a story with a beginning, middle, and end which includes story elements.	NM	NM	PM
2.23	Proofread for meaning, punctuation, capitalization, and high-frequency.	NM	NM	PM
2.24	Listen to and discuss various genres of literature.	NM	NM	M
2.25	Get meaning from a variety of media.	NM	NM	PM
2.26	Apply reasoning skills in all forms of communication	NM	NM	PM
2.27	Use standard English to communicate.	NM	NM	M
2.28	Listen and respond to discussion.	NM	NM	M
Mastery of 20/28 Indicators = 70% Proficiency		0	0	12
Partial Mastery of 28 Indicators		1	3	15
Non-Mastery of 28 Indicators		27	25	1

APPENDIX H  
INSTRUCTIONAL LEVEL OF PARTICIPANTS CHECKLIST THIRD GRADE LEVEL  
INDICATORS OF ESSENTIAL KNOWLEDGE

STUDENTS: 1= Roberto Alvarez 2= Alicia Trujillo 3= Arturo Serrano	SYMBOLS: M - Mastery PM - Partial Mastery NM - Non-Mastery	STUDENT CODE		
		1	2	3
3.1	Read and understand grade appropriate vocabulary and high frequency words.	NM	NM	M
3.2	Recognize and use consonants, vowels, blends, digraphs, diphthongs and variant vowel sounds.	PM	PM	M
3.3	Use prefixes, suffixes, and root vowels to increase understanding of word meaning.	NM	NM	PM
3.4	Use contextual clues to guide meaningful reading.	NM	PM	M
3.5	Distinguish between fiction/non-fiction and fact/opinion in paragraphs and stories.	PM	PM	M
3.6	Use charts and graphs to locate, select, and organize information.	NM	NM	M
3.7	Identify and read a variety of literary selections.	NM	PM	M
3.8	Skim to identify key words and phrases.	NM	PM	M
3.9	Integrate cue sources during text reading.	NM	PM	M
3.10	Demonstrate the use of reading strategies, monitor reading for meaning, reread when appropriate, self-correct errors, realize when a reading error has been made, search for meaning using pictures, and visually search through words using letters/sound knowledge.	NM	PM	M
3.11	Understand figurative language.	NM	PM	M
3.12	Read silently for a sustained time.	PM	M	M
3.13	Make generalizations based on interpretation of text read.	NM	PM	M
3.14	Use references such as a dictionary, glossary, thesaurus, and reference book.	PM	M	M

STUDENTS: 1= Roberto Alvarez 2= Alicia Trujillo 3= Arturo Serrano	SYMBOLS: M - Mastery PM - Partial Mastery NM - Non-Mastery	STUDENT CODE		
		1	2	3
3.15	Use a computer to access information.	PM	PM	PM
3.16	Demonstrate basic knowledge of word processing and graphic software.	NM	NM	PM
3.17	Write in complete sentence.	PM	PM	M
3.18	Write a story with a beginning, middle and end, which includes story elements such as setting, characters, and solution.	NM	PM	M
3.19	Write descriptive and narrative paragraphs.	NM	NM	M
3.20	Plan and write using notes, lists, diagrams and other relevant information.	NM	NM	PM
3.21	Proofread for meaning, punctuation, capitalization, and high frequency words.	NM	NM	PM
3.22	Spell grade level appropriate high frequency words.	NM	PM	M
3.23	Write legibly in cursive writing.	PM	PM	M
Mastery of 16/23 Indicators = 70% Proficiency		0	2	18
Partial Mastery of 23 Indicators		7	14	5
Non-Mastery of 23 Indicators		16	7	0

APPENDIX I

A. ATTITUDE AND INTEREST STUDENT INVENTORY OF ALICIA TRUJILLO

Name: Alicia Trujillo Grade: 3rd Grade Birthday: May 10, 1990

Place of Birth: Florida

Family:

1. How many brothers do you have? 4 Sisters? 4
2. Are you the oldest? No Youngest? Yes Select rank: 9
3. Who lives at home with you? Aunt, Uncle, and myself
4. What do you do at home? Work? Yes Like what? Do dishes, sweep, and clean Play? Yes With who? Cousins Study? Yes Alone? Yes  
With who? \_\_\_\_\_
5. What do you like to do at home? Homework and the clean the home
6. What time do you go to bed usually? 8:00 p.m.
7. What time do you go to bed on school days? 8:00 p.m.
8. Do you have breakfast every morning? Yes
9. Are you rested when you leave for school? No, tired
10. Are you happy when you leave for school? Yes Unhappy? Sometimes  
Other? \_\_\_\_\_

School:

1. Do you like school? Yes Why? I learn English and help other students.
2. Who is your best friend(s) in class? Leticia  
Why? She speaks Spanish
3. What do you like best in your class? I like the teacher because she has everyone speak English.
4. What is the worst thing that you dislike in class?  
I don't like students who tease me.
5. Do you like to read? Yes Why? The stories help me learn English.
6. What do you like to read the most? Adventure



7. Do you like reading in class? Yes Why? If I don't know, the teacher and the students help me.
8. Do you think school is important? Yes Why? School helps the student learn English.
9. Do you think homework is important? Yes Why? Homework helps you learn to read and learn new words.
10. Do you do your homework every day? No Sometimes? Yes, I go to my aunt and uncle for help.
11. Do you plan to graduate from high school? Yes Why? To go to college
12. Do you plan to go to college or university? Yes Why? To learn more
13. Do your parents expect you to attend college or university? No Why? They aren't here.
14. What do you plan to be when you grow up? Teacher or nurse
15. How can the teacher help you be a better student? Teach me English
16. What type of help do you want from the teacher? Help with homework
17. What type of help do you want from the school? I don't know.
18. What type of help do you want from your parents? Help me with homework and teach me English. Mother understands but doesn't speak English.
19. Does anyone read to you at home? No What? \_\_\_\_\_
20. Do they read to you in Spanish? Yes English? Some
21. Do you have any reading books of your own at home? Yes What? Short stories

Interests:

1. Do you like sports? Yes What? Jai Alai
2. Do you like computer games? Yes What? Education
3. Do you have any hobbies? Yes What? Cooking
4. Do you have any pets? No What kind? \_\_\_\_\_

5. If you could have or do anything in the world, what would you want or do? Name three. Clothing and food
6. Who do you admire the most? Ms. Stacy Why? She helps me with homework and English.
7. What are your favorite TV programs? Nature  
Why? English and I understand.
8. Do you go to the movies? No Museums? No Concerts? No  
Church? Yes
9. What type of movies do you like? Action
10. Do you have a computer at home? No
11. Do you know how to work a computer? Yes
12. Describe yourself for me so I can know you better. Nice, friendly

APPENDIX I

B. ATTITUDE AND INTEREST STUDENT INVENTORY OF ARTURO SERRANO

Name: Arturo Serrano Grade: Third Grade Birthday: May 23, 1989

Place of Birth: Texas

Family:

1. How many brothers do you have? 3 Sisters? 3
2. Are you the oldest? No Youngest? No Select rank: 3
3. Who lives at home with you? Mother, Stepfather, 3 brothers, and 3 sisters
4. What do you do at home? Work? Yes Like what? Trash, clean truck, wash dishes  
Play? Yes With who? Brothers, sisters, and neighbors  
Study? Yes Alone? Sometimes With who? Sisters and brothers
5. What do you like to do at home? Play with friends and watch TV
6. What time do you go to bed usually? 8:00 p.m.
7. What time do you go to bed on school days? 7:00 p.m.
8. Do you have breakfast every morning? Sometimes
9. Are you rested when you leave for school? Sometimes
10. Are you happy when you leave for school? Yes Unhappy? No  
Other? \_\_\_\_\_

School:

1. Do you like school? Sometimes Why? Boring, I like movies and games the most
2. Who is your best friend(s) in class? Alicia  
Why? She speaks Spanish.
3. What do you like best in your class? I like science.
4. What is the worst thing that you dislike in class?  
I like everything in school.
5. Do you like to read? Yes Why? Just because.
6. What do you like to read the most? I like chapter books and fiction.

7. Do you like reading in class? Yes Why? Reading is nice.
8. Do you think school is important? Yes Why? You learn English and avoid mistakes.
9. Do you think homework is important? Yes Why? It helps you learn more.
10. Do you do your homework every day? No Sometimes? Yes
11. Do you plan to graduate from high school? Yes Why? To get a better job.
12. Do you plan to go to college or university? Yes Why? Study and play sports
13. Do your parents expect you to attend college or university? Yes  
Why? You are smarter when you go to college.
14. What do you plan to be when you grow up? Football player, basketball player, or soccer player.
15. How can the teacher help you be a better student? Help me more and explain.
16. What type of help do you want from the teacher? Small groups.
17. What type of help do you want from the school? Computers.
18. What type of help do you want from your parents? I wish they could help me with English homework.
19. Does anyone read to you at home? Mother and sisters What? Chapter books and regular books
20. Do they read to you in Spanish? Yes English? Yes
21. Do you have any reading books of your own at home? No What? Mother and sisters have magazines and adventure books.

Interests:

1. Do you like sports? Yes Which? Soccer and basketball
2. Do you like computer games? Yes Which? Donkey Kong
3. Do you have any hobbies? Yes Which? Dinosaurs and books
4. Do you have any pets? Yes What kind? A cat

5. If you could have or do anything in the world, what would you want or do? Name three. Buy a computer, have a horse, be a dinosaur scientist
6. Who do you admire the most? Michael Jordan  
Why? Helps his mother and plays baseball and basketball
7. What are your favorite TV programs? Cartoons  
Why? They are funny.
8. Do you go to the movies? Sometimes Museums? Yes Concerts? No  
Church? Yes
9. What type of movies do you like? Action
10. Do you have a computer at home? Buying one today
11. Do you know how to work a computer? A little
12. Describe yourself for me so I can know you better. Nice, smart, and all the time  
I am a good student

APPENDIX I

C. ATTITUDE AND INTEREST STUDENT INVENTORY OF ROBERTO ALVAREZ

Name: Roberto Alvarez Grade: 3rd Grade Birthday: December 21, 1990  
Place of Birth: Mexico

Family:

1. How many brothers do you have? 3 Sisters? 0
2. Are you the oldest? No Youngest? No Select rank: 2
3. Who lives at home with you? Parents, 3 brothers, and myself
4. What do you do at home? Work? Yes Like what? Help clean  
Play? Yes With who? Brothers  
Study? Yes Alone? Yes With who? \_\_\_\_\_
5. What do you like to do at home? Play
6. What time do you go to bed usually? 9:00 p.m.
7. What time do you go to bed on school days? 7:00 p.m.
8. Do you have breakfast every morning? Yes
9. Are you rested when you leave for school? No, tired
10. Are you happy when you leave for school? Yes Unhappy? Sometimes  
Other? \_\_\_\_\_

School:

1. Do you like school? Yes Why? They help me in English.
2. Who is your best friend(s) in class? Nathaniel  
Why? He plays with me.
3. What do you like best in your class? PE
4. What is the worst thing that you dislike in class?  
Nothing
5. Do you like to read? Yes Why? Fun
6. What do you like to read the most? Animals
7. Do you like reading in class? Yes Why? Fun

8. Do you think school is important? Yes Why? They teach me.
9. Do you think homework is important? No Why? Here in school, yes. At home, no.
10. Do you do your homework every day? No Sometimes? Yes
11. Do you plan to graduate from high school? Yes Why? To go to college
12. Do you plan to go to college or university? Yes Why? Be a professional
13. Do your parents expect you to attend college or university? Don't know.  
Why? They haven't discussed it.
14. What do you plan to be when you grow up? Veterinarian
15. How can the teacher help you be a better student? To practice more reading in class
16. What type of help do you want from the teacher? Less homework, more practice
17. What type of help do you want from the school? Books
18. What type of help do you want from your parents? Help in homework, father in English but not mother
19. Does anyone read to you at home? No What? \_\_\_\_\_
20. Do they read to you in Spanish? No English? No
21. Do you have any reading books of your own at home? Yes  
What? About animals

Interests:

1. Do you like sports? Yes What? Football
2. Do you like computer games? Yes What? Education
3. Do you have any hobbies? Yes What? Painting
4. Do you have any pets? Yes What kind? Snake

5. If you could have or do anything in the world, what would you want or do? Name three. Disneyland, Nintendo, Cassettes
6. Who do you admire the most? Mother  
Why? Nice and she loves me
7. What are your favorite TV programs? Dragonball Z  
Why? Cartoon
8. Do you go to the movies? Yes Museums? Yes Concerts? Yes  
Church? Yes
9. What type of movies do you like? Action
10. Do you have a computer at home? Yes
11. Do you know how to work a computer? A liitle bit
12. Describe yourself for me so I can know you better. Nice



APPENDIX I  
D. ATTITUDE AND INTEREST STUDENT INVENTORY OF MARCOS  
VALENZUELA

Name: Marcos Valenzuela Grade: 1st Grade Birthday: October 18, 1992  
Place of Birth: Mexico

Family:

1. How many brothers do you have? 1 Sisters? 2
2. Are you the oldest? No Youngest? No Select rank: 3
3. Who lives at home with you? Parents, 1 brother, and 2 sisters.
4. What do you do at home? Work? Yes Like what? Clean the room, make the bed, and throw the trash Play? Yes With who? Brother and neighbors  
Study? Yes Alone? No With who? Sister
5. What do you like to do at home? TV, play basketball and play with the cat
6. What time do you go to bed usually? 9:00 p.m.
7. What time do you go to bed on school days? 8:30 p.m.
8. Do you have breakfast every morning? Sometimes
9. Are you rested when you leave for school? Yes
10. Are you happy when you leave for school? Yes Unhappy? No  
Other? \_\_\_\_\_

School:

1. Do you like school? Yes Why? I want to learn everything.
2. Who is your best friend(s) in class? Tony  
Why? We play tag.
3. What do you like best in your class? Reading
4. What is the worst thing that you dislike in class? Homework
5. Do you like to read? Yes Why? Discussion
6. What do you like to read the most? Science

7. Do you like reading in class? Yes Why? I read outside of class.
8. Do you think school is important? Yes Why? Because you become smarter and get a good education
9. Do you think homework is important? Yes Why? So you can learn extra information
10. Do you do your homework every day? Yes Sometimes? Yes
11. Do you plan to graduate from high school? Yes Why? Mother says I have to because she did not finish.
12. Do you plan to go to college or university? Yes Why? I want to go to LSU and become a basketball player or a science teacher.
13. Do your parents expect you to attend college or university? Yes Why? You wouldn't make a big mistake.
14. What do you plan to be when you grow up? A soccer player or science teacher
15. How can the teacher help you be a better student? Help and explain the homework, give more individual help
16. What type of help do you want from the teacher? Small groups
17. What type of help do you want from the school? School to look nicer
18. What type of help do you want from your parents? Mother to help me in Spanish and English
19. Does anyone read to you at home? Mother What? Chapter book every night
20. Do they read to you in Spanish? No English? Yes
21. Do you have any reading books of your own at home? Yes What? Chapter books

Interests:

1. Do you like sports? Yes Which? Soccer and basketball
2. Do you like computer games? Yes Which? Wildcat
3. Do you have any hobbies? No Which? \_\_\_\_\_
4. Do you have any pets? Yes What kind? A cat

5. If you could have or do anything in the world, what would you want or do? Name three. Famous football player, be a baseball player, fly an airplane
6. Who do you admire the most? My father  
Why? He knows how to handle problems, he loves me, and he never gets mad.
7. What are your favorite TV programs? Cartoons  
Why? Fun
8. Do you go to the movies? Yes Museums? No Concerts? No  
Church? Yes
9. What type of movies do you like? Action adventure
10. Do you have a computer at home? No
11. Do you know how to work a computer? A little
12. Describe yourself for me so I can know you better. Nice, smart, and a good student

APPENDIX I

E. ATTITUDE AND INTEREST STUDENT INVENTORY OF JOSE FERNANDEZ

Name: Jose Fernandez Grade: Kindergarten Birthday: January 1, 1993  
Place of Birth: Cuba

Family:

1. How many brothers do you have? 2 Sisters? 1
2. Are you the oldest? No Youngest? Yes Select rank: 4
3. Who lives at home with you? Parents, 2 brothers, and 1 sister
4. What do you do at home? Work? Yes Like what? Help my mother  
Play? Yes With who? Brothers  
Study? Yes Alone? Yes With who? \_\_\_\_\_
5. What do you like to do at home? Enjoy watching TV and cartoons
6. What time do you go to bed usually? 7:00 p.m.
7. What time do you go to bed on school days? 7:00 p.m.
8. Do you have breakfast every morning? Yes
9. Are you rested when you leave for school? Yes
10. Are you happy when you leave for school? Yes Unhappy? No  
Other? \_\_\_\_\_

School:

1. Do you like school? Yes Why? I like to read and play games.
2. Who is your best friend(s) in class? Ray  
Why? He's nice.
3. What do you like best in your class? Reading about animals
4. What is the worst thing that you dislike in class? Nothing
5. Do you like to read? A lot Why? It's fun
6. What do you like to read the most? Picture books
7. Do you like reading in class? I like listening. Why? I like stories.

8. Do you think school is important? Yes Why? My mother wants me to go.
9. Do you think homework is important? Yes Why? I want to learn.
10. Do you do your homework every day? Yes Sometimes? No
11. Do you plan to graduate from high school? Yes Why? I want to go to college.
12. Do you plan to go to college or university? Yes Why? To be a doctor
13. Do your parents expect you to attend college or university? Yes  
Why? "See how smart I am right now."
14. What do you plan to be when you grow up? A doctor
15. How can the teacher help you be a better student? Read more in class.
16. What type of help do you want from the teacher? More help
17. What type of help do you want from the school? More books
18. What type of help do you want from your parents? Help me in English
19. Does anyone read to you at home? Yes What? Mother reads picture books.
20. Do they read to you in Spanish? Yes English? No
21. Do you have any reading books of your own at home? Yes What? Science and picture books

Interests:

1. Do you like sports? Yes Which? Soccer
2. Do you like computer games? Yes Which? Games
3. Do you have any hobbies? No Which? \_\_\_\_\_
4. Do you have any pets? No What kind? \_\_\_\_\_
5. If you could have or do anything in the world, what would you want or do? Name three. Be good for my parents and have perfect attendance

6. Who do you admire the most? Teacher  
Why? I learn a lot.
7. What are your favorite TV programs? Cartoons  
Why? They are funny.
8. Do you go to the movies? Yes Museums? No Concerts? No  
Church? Yes
9. What type of movies do you like? Adventure
10. Do you have a computer at home? Yes
11. Do you know how to work a computer? A little
12. Describe yourself for me so I can know you better. Nice and good and smart

APPENDIX I

F. ATTITUDE AND INTEREST STUDENT INVENTORY OF CARLOS ARRIOLA

Name: Carlos Arriola Grade: Kindergarten Birthday: March 8, 1993  
Place of Birth: Mexico

Family:

1. How many brothers do you have? 2 Sisters? 2
2. Are you the oldest? No Youngest? Yes Select rank: 5
3. Who lives at home with you? Parents, 2 brothers, and 2 sisters
4. What do you do at home? Work? Yes Like what? Help my brothers  
Play? Yes With who? My brothers, sisters, and cousins  
Study? Yes Alone? Sometimes With who? My family
5. What do you like to do at home? Watch TV and see cartoons
6. What time do you go to bed usually? 7:30 p.m.
7. What time do you go to bed on school days? 7:30 p.m.
8. Do you have breakfast every morning? Yes
9. Are you rested when you leave for school? Yes
10. Are you happy when you leave for school? Yes Unhappy? No  
Other?

School:

1. Do you like school? Yes Why? I play games.
2. Who is your best friend(s) in class? Jose  
Why? He's nice.
3. What do you like best in your class? Picture books
4. What is the worst thing that you dislike in class? Nothing
5. Do you like to read? A little bit Why? I don't know how to read yet.
6. What do you like to read the most? About animals
7. Do you like reading in class? No Why? I haven't learn to read.

8. Do you think school is important? Yes Why? You learn everything.
9. Do you think homework is important? Yes Why? You become smart.
10. Do you do your homework every day? No Sometimes? Yes
11. Do you plan to graduate from high school? Yes Why? To get a good job
12. Do you plan to go to college or university? I don't know. Why? My parents haven't said.
13. Do your parents expect you to attend college or university? I don't know. Why? They haven't talk to me but only to the oldest.
14. What do you plan to be when you grow up? A teacher, maybe
15. How can the teacher help you be a better student? Help me more
16. What type of help do want from the teacher? Read more
17. What type of help do you want from the school? Have more books
18. What type of help do you want from your parents? Help me more in English
19. Does anyone read to you at home? Yes What? Mother
20. Do they read to you in Spanish? Yes English? A little
21. Do you have any reading books of your own at home? No What? I read library books.

Interests:

1. Do you like sports? Yes Which? Soccer and running
2. Do you like computer games? Yes Which? Donkey Kong
3. Do you have any hobbies? No Which? \_\_\_\_\_
4. Do you have any pets? No What kind? \_\_\_\_\_
5. If you could have or do anything in the world, what would you want or do? Name three. Help people
6. Who do you admire the most? My teacher Why? She is nice and smart.



7. What are your favorite TV programs? Cartoons  
Why? They are fun.
8. Do you go to the movies? Yes Museums? No Concerts? No  
Church? Yes
9. What type of movies do you like? Adventure
10. Do you have a computer at home? Yes
11. Do you know how to work a computer? A little
12. Describe yourself for me so I can know you better. Quiet and nice

APPENDIX J  
ADMINISTRATIVE INTERVIEW OF MS. CARLA CAMERON

1. What colleges or universities have you graduated from and attended?

I graduated from Southern University but I have done classes through LSU, Baton Rouge, Southeastern in Hammond, and LSU in Eunice.

2. How much formal teaching preparation do you possess such as degrees, years, or completed units?

I taught 14 years at the middle school level before becoming a principal. This is my 19th year and I was an assistant principal for 2 1/2 years. This is my second year being a principal. My highest degree is a Masters Degree in Education with 34 credits.

3. How much formal administrative preparation do you have such as degrees, years, or completed units ?

I took a sabbatical leave of an entire year which was called an administrative internship program in East Baton Rouge Parish System. This was a sabbatical leave with pay and then pay back the parish. They sent you to different schools to learn different administrative styles so to learn different policies for the school system. You took a leave and you worked. I worked at the middle school level and then I decided I wanted to change and I wanted to learn about the elementary school level. They gave us two mentor principals to work under.

4. How long have you taught school?

I have taught school for 14 years.

5. How long have you been a principal?

This is my second years as a principal and an assistant principal for 2 1/2 years.

6. How long have you been a principal at this school?

Same as above.

7. What is the general reputation of this school among teachers?

They enjoyed it. One thing that I can truly say is that we don't have a big teacher turnover. Last year, we had only one teacher request a transfer because she wanted to be closer to home. This year they did not share that information and none have asked for a transfer. They transfer to be closer to home because they have small children.

8. What is your philosophy of education?

My philosophy is that all children can learn but at different rates. We as educators have to find whatever rate that is and teach to that child's learning style.

9. What is your philosophy regarding reading instruction?

I think that the earlier the reading process begins better for the child. We should not strictly go with the developmental appropriateness. We should be able to tell when the child is ready and not say that the child is not four or five years old. We should be able to teach a child when that is ready to read. That is when we start; we start when the child is ready to get started.

10. How many classes have you taken in reading instruction?

A number of classes

11. What is the history of this elementary school?

It was built in 1956. The roof has been replaced and it has been well-kept. This school is the center for children in this area who come from different countries. Their parents may be professors at LSU or they may be refugees that the Catholic Rights Center bring to settle in this area. It has been predominantly African-American but it has not been counted as predominantly African-American because of the HILT children make the non-black population let it be integrated. Well, we use to get children that were 7 to 8 miles away from the school and they would cause misbehavior problems because they would be tired by the time they arrived here. The school has been rezoned and now those children go to three other elementary schools, so we get only the neighborhood children. This really has helped out with behavior.

12. Does this school provide staff and faculty with a safe environment?

Speaking of the administrative, we try very, very hard to do that. We try

to look upon that we are not going to be concerned with what is happening in the community. We try to keep it very safe here. I am a roaming administrator which means that I am walking about all the time to prevent things from happening and I ask my custodian staff to be cognizant of what is going on. We kept gates locked because we don't want intruders on the campus. We have many teachers that are told by others people, even police officers, that have been told that they feel save. We don't have a big teachers' turnover because they truly feel save coming here.

13. Does this school provide students with a safe environment?

Most students feel the same as faculty. In fact, I read a letter this morning where a parent had written to a teacher that she felt extremely good about her child coming here because she felt the teacher really took an interest in the children to make sure that the children were safe and well cared while they were here.

14. What is the composition of this school's student enrollment?

Right now we probably have 75% African-American and 25% non-black but that involves 44 different countries, 44 different groups of people. We have from Bosnia, Somalia, Turkey, from all over the world.

15. What is the composition of this school's staff?

100% African-American.

16. What is the composition of this school's faculty?

It is about 57% white and 43% African-American.

17. What is the level of achievement at this school?

We are proud to announce that are scores soared last year. It used to be a school that was in the lower bottom but our math scores in the 5th grade rose from about 60 percentile to 90 percentile last year. Our reading scores also soared.

18. What is the expected level of achievement at this school?

One goal that I have for the next 2 years if I am here because I heard about some administrative movement is that I want this school to become a Blue Ribbon School of Excellence. We have all the components to become one that way we can the new standards I want us to be in the big prestigious category or categories of the new standardized testing. Our goal

is to have at least 90% of our students reading on grade level or above in the next 5 years. There are some circumstances that probably would not let that happen but that is not going to hold us back.

19. What is the level of retention at this school?

Right now out of 496 students, I have been given a list of names of approximately 68 students. We have offered those students summer school and then we have a meeting at the end of summer school and we decide if they have improved and we let them go on with their education.

20. What percentage of students do you expect to complete high school?

About 75% of the students because the population of parents have changed with the population of our school.

21. What percentage of students do you expect to attend college, vocational/technical school, or university?

Out of the 75%, possibly 40%

22. What is the general attitude of the faculty toward achievement?

They expect them to achieve, there is no and's or but's. We don't say because you can from this place or that place that you are not going to get it anyway. Oh, no. Expectations here are very high. When you walk through that door, you are expected to put out your best effort.

23. What is the general attitude of the faculty toward school work?

Well, we have a written out school plan that it can be given out four days out of the week and the consensus of the parents was that they wanted it five days plus the weekend. They have it 4 days of the week.

24. Does faculty have input in the school improvement process?

They put their input at the regular scheduled meetings. They talk at meetings and at teas. They are the main. We do it by grade level, so each grade level put in to the school plan and should be done at that grade level. The chairperson of that grade level gives input at the meeting.

25. What is your role in the school improvement process?

Well, I am an overseer and a facilitator. I put input as an administrative concern and I have a lot to do with the discipline plan and management plan. I'm a team member.

26. What percentage of time does your work permit for active participation in the school improvement process?

We meet monthly and for whatever long we need to finish our business.

27. How supportive is the parish as to resources for instructional purposes?

They have given us many resources for this year with the K-3 Initiative. A lot of it is what we can do on our own.

28. What strategies or methods do teachers use for teaching instruction?

At grade level and what ever the parish concerns are we share with others whatever works or borrow from each other.

29. Which reading instructional framework do you believe that the majority of teachers use in teaching?

They used literature and basal because of K-3 and cooperative grouping. We take children from where they are and put different reading together to help each other. We use literacy around the room, especially up to third grade. In 4th and 5th grade we are starting a new literacy approach for next year that we are using in K-3.

30. How much do parents participate in school activities?

Not as much as we want

31. What percentage of parents are concerned about their child's grades in class?

About 50% of the parents

32. Does this school provide staff development for its faculty?

Yes

33. What teaching issues, concepts, and/or skills have been important to the faculty?

Reading instruction, discipline since you can not do instruction without good discipline, being safe.

34. How would you rate the total learning environment of this school?

There is progress, 85% - we are not where we were or where we want to be. We have teachers who are doing a great job teaching some students who have never had any schooling, such form Somalia.

APPENDIX K  
A. FACULTY INTERVIEW OF MS. VERONICA WINSTON

1. What colleges or universities have you graduated from and attended?

I graduated from Southern University.

2. How much formal teaching preparation do you possess such as degrees, years, or completed units?

I have a Bachelor of Arts Degree in Elementary Education plus fifteen graduate hours.

3. Do you have formal administrative preparation such as degrees, years, or completed units?

I have ten to twelve hours in administrative supervision.

4. How long have you taught school?

I have nineteen years.

5. Have you been a principal?

No

6. How long have you been a teacher at this school?

I have taught one year.

7. What is the general reputation of this school among teachers?

It is considered a very good school.

8. What is your philosophy of education?

Education is for every child and every child taught can learn and be successful.

9. What is your philosophy regarding reading instruction?

Reading is one of the important basics in education. Every child needs to learn to read.



10. How many classes have you taken in reading instruction?  
Fifteen graduate hours
11. What is the history of this elementary school?  
It was originally an all-white school. Now, it is very diversified.
12. Does this school provide staff and faculty with a safe environment?  
It is a very safe campus for both staff and faculty.
13. Does this school provide students with a safe environment?  
Yes, this school has a safe environment for students.
14. What is the composition of this school's student enrollment?  
About 75% African American and 25% non-Black.
15. What is the composition of this school's staff?  
The staff is entirely African American.
16. What is the composition of this school's faculty?  
About 50% African American and 50% non-Black.
17. What is the composition of your class?  
About 80% African American and 20% non-Black
18. What is the level of achievement at this school?  
Above average
19. What is the expected level of achievement at this school?  
Good
20. What is the level of achievement of your class?  
Above average

21. What is the level of retention at this school?  
About 10% to 15% are retained.
22. What percentage of students do you expect to complete high school?  
About 70%
23. What percentage of students do you expect to attend college, vocational/technical school, or university?  
About 35%, half
24. What is the general attitude of the faculty toward achievement?  
We teach because we believe in our students and they will achieve.
25. What is the general attitude of the faculty toward school work?  
Students learn more when they have and do homework.
26. What is your attitude toward school work?  
School work is important for students and it is required.
27. Does faculty have input in the school improvement process?  
Yes
28. What is your role in the school improvement process?  
I discuss what is important as a curriculum for my grade level.
29. What percentage of time does your work permit for active participation in the school improvement process?  
We participate after school is over at our regular scheduled meetings.
30. How supportive is the parish as to resources for instructional purposes?  
They are very supportive because of the HILT Program.

31. What strategies or methods do you use for teaching instruction?  
I use a balanced literacy framework, phonics, cooperative grouping, and peer sharing.
32. Which reading instructional framework do you believe that the majority of teachers use in teaching?  
Literature driven basal framework.
33. How helpful is your reading instruction framework in class?  
The students enjoy and feel very positive about themselves.
34. How much do parents participate in school activities?  
About 20%
35. What percentage of parents are concerned about their child's grades in class?  
About 40%
36. Does this school provide staff development for its faculty?  
Yes
37. What teaching issues, concepts, and/or skills have been important to you this last year?  
Reading and writing skills
38. How would you rate the total learning environment of this school?  
Good

APPENDIX K  
B. FACULTY INTERVIEW OF MS. SARAH FAIRCHILD

1. What colleges or universities have you graduated from and attended?

Grammer State University and Southern University

2. How much formal teaching preparation do you possess such as degrees, years, or completed units?

Master's + 30 in elementary education

3. Do you have formal administrative preparation such as degrees, years, or completed units ?

No degrees but I have taken some courses, 6 hours.

4. How long have you taught school?

30 years

5. Have you been a principal?

No

6. How long have you been a teacher at this school?

21 years I have taught at Magnolia Elementary and LaBelle Elementary,  
5th grade

7. What is the general reputation of this school among teachers?

General feeling is that it is great. It needs more discipline.

8. What is your philosophy of education?

I believe that all children can learn.

9. What is your philosophy regarding reading instruction?

I love reading and I work hard at it. I believe that all children should learn  
to read because it helps them in all areas.

10. How many classes have you taken in reading instruction?  
I have a reading specialist, 30 hours.
11. What is the history of this elementary school?  
It was formerly all-white school before integration. It is now 50-50 in race. it is 50 years old
12. Does this school provide staff and faculty with a safe environment?  
Yes, it does.
13. Does this school provide students with a safe environment?  
Yes
14. What is the composition of this school's student enrollment?  
50 - 50
15. What is the composition of this school's staff?  
50 - 50
16. What is the composition of this school's faculty?  
53 in the faculty, 25% white - 75% African-American
17. What is the composition of your class?  
25 children, 50-50
18. What is the level of achievement at this school?  
Average
19. What is the expected level of achievement at this school?  
Above Average
20. What is the level of achievement of your class?  
Average

21. What is the level of retention at this school?  
Low, 2%
22. What percentage of students do you expect to complete high school?  
Most of them, 60%
23. What percentage of students do you expect to attend college, vocational/technical school, or university?  
50%
24. What is the general attitude of the faculty toward achievement?  
Most of them believe that they will achieve and a few don't.
25. What is the general attitude of the faculty toward school work?  
It is the policy and I think that they need to have it.
26. What is your attitude toward school work?  
Same as above.
27. Does faculty have input in the school improvement process?  
Yes
28. What is your role in the school improvement process?  
Yes, I am involved and we sign up at the beginning of the year for the committee we want to be involved with.
29. What percentage of time does your work permit for active participation in the school improvement process?  
1 hour +, depending on the activity.
30. How supportive is the parish as to resources for instructional purposes?  
They are getting better at it, especially with reading and language.

31. What strategies or methods do you use for teaching instruction?  
Small group, peer sharing, independent reading, role playing, modeling.
32. Which reading instructional framework do you believe that the majority of teachers use in teaching?  
Literacy based - balanced
33. How helpful is your reading instruction framework in class?  
Most of the time.
34. How much do parents participate in school activities?  
Very little, 2%
35. What percentage of parents are concerned about their child's grades in class?  
Very low
36. Does this school provide staff development for its faculty?  
Yes
37. What teaching issues, concepts, and/or skills have been important to you this last year?  
Discipline, class size, instructional help
38. How would you rate the total learning environment of this school?  
They are learning and highly motivated.

APPENDIX K  
C. FACULTY INTERVIEW OF MS. CAROLE FLETCHER

1. What colleges or universities have you graduated from and attended?

I graduated from Southern University.

2. How much formal teaching preparation do you possess such as degrees, years, or completed units?

I have a Bachelor of Science Degree in Elementary Education.

3. Do you have formal administrative preparation such as degrees, years, or completed units?

No

4. How long have you taught school?

I have taught two years.

5. Have you been a principal?

No

6. How long have you been a teacher at this school?

I have been here one year.

7. What is the general reputation of this school among teachers?

Good

8. What is your philosophy of education?

All children can learn.

9. What is your philosophy regarding reading instruction?

Reading is the most important in teaching.

10. How many classes have you taken in reading instruction?

Three classes



11. What is the history of this elementary school?  
This was an all-white school. It is very old.
12. Does this school provide staff and faculty with a safe environment?  
Yes
13. Does this school provide students with a safe environment?  
Yes
14. What is the composition of this school's student enrollment?  
About 65% African American and 35% non-Black
15. What is the composition of this school's staff?  
100% African American
16. What is the composition of this school's faculty?  
About 65% African American and 35% non-Black
17. What is the composition of your class?  
About 85% African American and 15% non-Black
18. What is the level of achievement at this school?  
Average
19. What is the expected level of achievement at this school?  
Above average
20. What is the level of achievement of your class?  
Average
21. What is the level of retention at this school?  
About 10%

22. What percentage of students do you expect to complete high school?

About 60%

23. What percentage of students do you expect to attend college, vocational/technical school, or university?

About 35%

24. What is the general attitude of the faculty toward achievement?

Good

25. What is the general attitude of the faculty toward school work?

Good and it is required.

26. What is your attitude toward school work?

For students to learn, they need practice.

27. Does faculty have input in the school improvement process?

Yes

28. What is your role in the school improvement process?

We discuss at regular schedule meetings.

29. What percentage of time does your work permit for active participation in the school improvement process?

About 1 to 2 hours

30. How supportive is the parish as to resources for instructional purposes?

They are very supportive, especially K-3.

31. What strategies or methods do you use for teaching instruction?

Grouping, shared reading, buddy reading, Read Aloud, literature-based framework.

32. Which reading instructional framework do you believe that the majority of teachers use in teaching?  
Literature- driven basals
33. How helpful is your reading instruction framework in class?  
It is enjoyable and fun for the students.
34. How much do parents participate in school activities?  
Not enough
35. What percentage of parents are concerned about their child's grades in class?  
About 1/3
36. Does this school provide staff development for its faculty?  
Yes
37. What teaching issues, concepts, and/or skills have been important to you this last year?  
Reading and writing components
38. How would you rate the total learning environment of this school?  
Good

APPENDIX K  
D. FACULTY INTERVIEW OF MS. GLORIA VILLANUEVA

1. What colleges or universities have you graduated from and attended?

I have graduated from University of Texas and Southern University.

2. How much formal teaching preparation do you possess such as degrees, years, or completed units?

I hold a Bachelor of Science Degree, Magna Cum Laude, and a Master of Education, Summa Cum Laude.

3. Do you have formal administrative preparation such as degrees, years, or completed units ?

I am certified in Administrative Supervision.

4. How long have you taught school?

I have thirty years.

5. Have you been a principal?

No

6. How long have you been a teacher at this school?

I have been here twelve years.

7. What is the general reputation of this school among teachers?

Good

8. What is your philosophy of education?

All children can learn.

9. What is your philosophy regarding reading instruction?

The road to success is based on how well a child reads.

10. How many classes have you taken in reading instruction?  
At least seven classes
11. What is the history of this elementary school?  
This was an all-white school when it opened. Today, we have the HILT Program here.
12. Does this school provide staff and faculty with a safe environment?  
Yes
13. Does this school provide students with a safe environment?  
Yes
14. What is the composition of this school's student enrollment?  
Mostly African Americans and 15% non-Black
15. What is the composition of this school's staff?  
100% African Americans
16. What is the composition of this school's faculty?  
More than half are African Americans and 30% are non-Black.
17. What is the composition of your class?  
About 90% are African Americans and 10% are non-Black.
18. What is the level of achievement at this school?  
Average
19. What is the expected level of achievement at this school?  
Above average
20. What is the level of achievement of your class?  
Average

21. What is the level of retention at this school?  
About 10%
22. What percentage of students do you expect to complete high school?  
More than half
23. What percentage of students do you expect to attend college, vocational/technical school, or university?  
About 40%
24. What is the general attitude of the faculty toward achievement?  
Good
25. What is the general attitude of the faculty toward school work?  
Good. It is school policy.
26. What is your attitude toward school work?  
Children need to practice to learn.
27. Does faculty have input in the school improvement process?  
Yes
28. What is your role in the school improvement process?  
I discuss what is considered the best curriculum for my level.
29. What percentage of time does your work permit for active participation in the school improvement process?  
About two hours
30. How supportive is the parish as to resources for instructional purposes?  
They are supportive of the lower grades, K-3.

31. What strategies or methods do you use for teaching instruction?  
Oral reading, phonics, oral role playing, Read Aloud, Picture books, a genre of literature
32. Which reading instructional framework do you believe that the majority of teachers use in teaching?  
Literature-driven basals
33. How helpful is your reading instruction framework in class?  
It is very helpful, and children enjoy learning.
34. How much do parents participate in school activities?  
About 35%
35. What percentage of parents are concerned about their child's grades in class?  
About 40%
36. Does this school provide staff development for its faculty?  
Yes
37. What teaching issues, concepts, and/or skills have been important to you this last year?  
Readiness skills and phonics I am concerned about the gifted, so I am returning to the university to begin classes in the Gifted Program.
38. How would you rate the total learning environment of this school?  
Good

APPENDIX L  
CORRELATION BETWEEN THE LOUISIANA ENGLISH LANGUAGE ARTS  
CONTENT STANDARDS AND THE DEVELOPMENTAL READING ASSESSMENT

Standards/Benchmarks K-4	Correlation to DRA
Standard 1: Students read, comprehend, and respond to a range of materials, using a variety of strategies for different purposes.	
ELA-1-E1: Gaining meaning from print and building vocabulary using a full range of strategies (e.g., self-monitoring and correcting, searching, cross-checking), evidenced by reading behaviors while using the cuing systems (e.g., phonics, sentence structure meaning);	Each assessment contains a running record showing the strategies used. DRA allows recording of strategies used, accuracy rate, number of told words by teacher and analysis of miscues.
ELA-1-E2: Using the conventions of print (e.g., left-to-right directionality, top-to-bottom, one-to-one matching);	Same as above.
ELA-1-E3: Adjusting speed of reading to suit the difficulty of materials and the purpose for reading;	Beginning with Text level 4, the DRA assesses the reading rate and the intonation used by the reader.
ELA-1-E4: Identifying story elements (e.g., setting, plot, character, theme) and literary devices (e.g., figurative language, dialogue) within a selection;	Beginning with Text level 4, the DRA asks the reader for a retelling of the story. Assessment records characters, events in sequence, vocabulary from story and setting.
ELA-1-E5: Reading, comprehending, responding to written, spoken, and visual texts in extended passages;	Same as above.



Standards/Benchmarks K-4	Correlation to DRA
<p>ELA-1-E6: Interpreting texts to generate connections to real-life situations;</p>	<p>Beginning with Text level 4, the Dra asks the reader, "What does this story make you think of?" giving the reader a chance to make connections, to life experiences and/or other literature.</p>
<p>ELA-1-E7: Reading with fluency for various purposes (e.g., enjoying, learning, problem solving).</p>	<p>At the end of each assessment the reader is asked about the reading vary depending on the reading level of the child. Students are asked 'with whom, where and why' they read. Favorite stories, authors and ways of choosing a book are all recorded on the assessment form.</p>
<p>Standard 2: Students write competently for a variety of purposes and audiences.</p> <p>ELA-2-E1: Dictating or writing a composition that clearly states or implies a central idea with supporting details in a logical, sequential order;</p> <p>ELA-2-E2: Focusing on language, concepts, and ideas that show an awareness of the intended audience and/or purpose (e.g., classroom, real-life, workplace) in developing compositions;</p> <p>ELA-2-E3: Creating written texts using the writing process;</p> <p>ELA-2-E4: Using narration, description, exposition, and persuasion to develop compositions (e.g., notes, stories, letters, poems, logs);</p>	<p>Not applicable to the DRA</p>

Standards/Benchmarks K-4	Correlation to DRA
<p>ELA-2-E5: Recognizing and applying literary devices (e.g., figurative language);</p> <p>ELA-2-E6: Writing as a response to texts and life experiences (e.g., journals, letters, lists).</p> <p>Standard 3: Students communicate using standard English grammar, usage, sentence structure, punctuation, capitalization, spelling, and handwriting.</p> <p>ELA-3-E1: Writing legibly;</p> <p>ELA-3-E2: Demonstrating use of punctuation (e.g., comma, apostrophe, period, question mark, exclamation mark), capitalization, and abbreviations in final drafts of writing assignments;</p> <p>ELA-3-E3: Demonstrating standard English structure and usage;</p> <p>ELA-3-E4: Using knowledge of the parts of speech to make choices of writing;</p> <p>ELA-3-E5: Spelling accurately using strategies (e.g., letter-sound correspondence, hearing and recording sounds in sequence, spelling patterns, pronunciation) and resources (e.g., glossary, dictionary) when necessary.</p>	<p>Not applicable to the DRA</p>

Standards/Benchmarks K-4	Correlation to DRA
<p>Standard 4: Students demonstrate competence in speaking and listening as tools for learning and communicating.</p> <p>ELA-4-E1: Speaking intelligibly, using standard English pronunciation;</p> <p>ELA-4-E2: Giving and following directions/ procedures;</p>	
<p>ELA-4-E3: Telling or retelling stories in sequence;</p>	<p>Beginning with Text level 4, the DRA asks the reader for a retelling of the story. Assessment records characters, vocabulary from story, setting and events in sequence.</p>
<p>ELA-4-E4: Giving rehearsed and unrehearsed presentations;</p> <p>ELA-4-E5: Speaking and listening for a variety of audiences (e.g., classroom, real-life, workplace) and purposes (e.g., awareness, concentration, enjoyment, information, problem solving);</p> <p>ELA-4-E6: Listening and responding to a wide variety of media (e.g., music, TV, film, speech);</p> <p>ELA-4-E7: Participating in a variety of roles in group discussions (e.g., active listener, contributor, discussion leader).</p>	

Standards/Benchmarks K-4	Correlation to DRA
<p>Standard 5: Students locate, select, and synthesize information from a variety of texts, media, references, and technological sources to acquire and communicate knowledge.</p> <p>ELA-5-E1: Recognizing and using organizational features of printed text, other media, and electronic information (e.g., parts of a text, alphabetizing, captions, legends, pull-down menus, keyword searches, icons, passwords, entry menu features);</p> <p>ELA-5-E2: Locating and evaluating information sources (e.g., print materials, databases, CD-ROM references, Internet information, electronic reference works, community and government data, television and radio resources, audio and visual materials);</p> <p>ELA-5-E3: Locating, gathering, and selecting information using graphic organizers, simple outlining, note taking, and summarizing to produce texts and graphics;</p> <p>ELA-5-E4: Using available technology to produce, revise, and publish a variety of works;</p> <p>ELA-5-E5: Giving credit for borrowed information by telling or listing sources;</p> <p>ELA-5-E6: Interpreting graphic organizers (e.g., charts/graphs, tables/schedules, diagrams/maps).</p>	<p>Not applicable to the DRA</p>

Standards/Benchmarks K-4	Correlation to DRA
<p>Standard 6: Students read and analyze, and respond to literature as a record of life experiences.</p> <p>ELA-6-E1: Recognizing and responding to the United States and world literature that represents the experiences and traditions of diverse ethnic groups;</p>	
<p>ELA-6-E2: Recognizing and responding to a variety of classic and contemporary literature from many genres (e.g., folktales, legends, myths, biography, autobiography, poetry, fiction, and nonfiction);</p>	<p>The DRA Continuum records the students selection of various genre for their reading.</p>
<p>ELA-6-E3: Identifying key differences of various genres.</p>	

Standards/Benchmarks K-4	Correlation to DRA
Standard 7: Students apply reasoning and problem solving skills to their reading, writing, speaking, listening, viewing, and visually representing.	
ELA-7-E1: Using comprehension strategies (e.g., predicting, drawing conclusions, comparing and contrasting, making inferences, determining main ideas) in assessment records.	Beginning with Text level 4, the DRA asks the reader for a retelling of the story assessment records characters, vocabulary from story, setting and characters and events in sequence. Additional questions are listed to ask the reader if needed to verify comprehension.
ELA-7-E2: Problem solving by using reasoning skills, life experiences, and available information;	In Text levels 3-13 the reader is asked to preview the pictures in the book, predict the content of the story. Beginning the Text level 18 the child is asked to read a portion of the story and make a prediction about the story.
ELA-7-E3: Recognizing an author's purpose and point of view;	Beginning with Text level 4, the DRA asks the reader for a retelling of the story. Assessment records characters, vocabulary from story, setting and events in sequence. Additional questions are listed to ask the reader if needed to verify comprehension. DRA Continuum allows the recording of a retelling that includes interpretation of the story read.
ELA-7-E4: Distinguishing fact from opinion, skimming and scanning for facts, determining cause and effect, generating inquiry, and making connections with real-life situations;	Beginning with Text level 4. The DRA asks the reader "What does this story make you think of?" giving the reader a chance to make connections to life experiences and/or other literature.

APPENDIX M  
CORRELATION OF KINDERGARTEN GRADE LEVEL INDICATORS OF  
ESSENTIAL KNOWLEDGE OF LOUISIANA ENGLISH ARTS CONTENT  
STANDARDS AND BENCHMARKS

Indicators	Correlation to	
	Standards	Benchmarks
Indicator 1: Understand the concept of a "letter" and a "word."	Standard 1 Standard 3	ELA-1-E2 ELA-3-E1
Indicator 2: Realize that print carries a message.	Standard 1 Standard 2	ELA-1-E1 ELA-2-E1
Indicator 3: Associate letters with sounds.	Standard 1	ELA-1-E1
Indicator 4: Identify upper and lower case letters.	Standard 1 Standard 2 Standard 3	ELA-1-E1 ELA-2-E2 ELA-3-E1
Indicator 5: Recognize environmental print.	Standard 1 Standard 3	ELA-1-E6 ELA-3-E5
Indicator 6: Begin to demonstrate one-to-one word correspondence and left-right directionality.	Standard 1 Standard 3	ELA-1-E2 ELA-3-E1
Indicator 7: Begin to read pattern books which contain high-frequency words.	Standard 2 Standard 3	ELA-2-E5 ELA-3-E3
Indicator 8: Recall sequence of events in a story.	Standard 1 Standard 4	ELA-1-E4, E5 ELA-4-E3
Indicator 9: Begin to distinguish between fiction and non-fiction.	Standard 5 Standard 6 Standard 7	ELA-5-E2 ELA-6-E2 ELA-7-E4
Indicator 10: React to a story through drama and discussion.	Standard 1 Standard 2	ELA-1-E5, E6 ELA-2-E5

Indicators	Correlation to	
	Standards	Benchmarks
Indicator 10: (cont) React to story through Drama and discussion	Standard 3 Standard 4 Standard 6	ELA-3-E3 ELA-4-E3, E4, E5, E7 ELA-6-E2
Indicator 11: Identify main characters in story.	Standard 1	ELA-1-E4
Indicator 12: Determine main idea from story details.	Standard 7	ELA-7-E1
Indicator 13: Plan, organize, and present informations.	Standard 1 Standard 2 Standard 3 Standard 4  Standard 7	ELA-1-E1 ELA-2-E2 ELA-3-E3, E4 ELA-4-E1, E2, E3, ELA-4-E4, E5 ELA-7-E4
Indicator 14: Demonstrate an understanding of rhyming words.	Standard 1 Standard 2 Standard 3	ELA-1-E1 ELA-2-E5 ELA-3-E3
Indicator 15: Understand that illustrations can be used as a source of meaning.	Standard 1 Standard 4	ELA-1-E1 ELA-4-E3
Indicator 16: Identify subject matter of a story through titles and illustrations.	Standard 1	ELA-1-E1, E4
Indicator 17: Demonstrate understanding of positional words.	Standard 1	ELA-1-E1
Indicator 18: Identify story structure: beginning, middle, and end.	Standard 4	ELA-4-E3
Indicator 19: Demonstrate the ability to compare and contrast stories.	Standard 7	ELA-7-E2
Indicator 20: Interact with books for a sustained time.	Standard 1	ELA-1-E5, E7



Indicators	Correlation to	
	Standards	Benchmarks
Indicator 21: Use books, charts, etc. for a variety of purposes.	Standard 2 Standard 3 Standard 5	ELA-2-E6 ELA-3-E5 ELA-5-E3, E6
Indicator 22: Use a variety of resources and strategies to obtain information: ask questions, look in books, conduct experiments.	Standard 2 Standard 3 Standard 5 Standard 7	ELA-2-E3 ELA-3-E1, E2 ELA-5-E3, E6 ELA-7-E2, E3, E4
Indicator 23: Relate word labels to graphics on a computer.	Standard 2 Standard 5	ELA-2-E1, E2, E3 ELA-5-E4, E6
Indicator 24: Attempt to write sentences with or without punctuation.	Standard 3	ELA-3-E2
Indicator 25: Give meaning to personal writing and illustrations.	Standard 2  Standard 3	ELA-2-E1, E2, E3 ELA-2-E4, E6 ELA-3-E4
Indicator 26: Write name legibly.	Standard 1 Standard 2 Standard 3	ELA-1-E1 ELA-2-E3 ELA-3-E1
Indicator 27: Begin to use inventive spelling.	Standard 2 Standard 3	ELA-2-E3, E6 ELA-3-E5
Indicator 28: Listen to and discuss various genres of literature.	Standard 6	ELA-6-E1, E2, E3
Indicator 29: Use and get meaning from variety of media.	Standard 4 Standard 5 Standard 7	ELA-4-E6 ELA-5-E1, E2, E4 ELA-7-E3
Indicator 30: Applying reasoning skills in all forms of communication.	Standard 7	ELA-7-E1, E2, E4
Indicator 31: Use standard English to communicate.	Standard 4	ELA-4-E1

APPENDIX N  
CORRELATION OF FIRST GRADE LEVEL INDICATORS OF ESSENTIAL  
KNOWLEDGE TO LOUISIANA ENGLISH ARTS CONTENT STANDARDS AND  
BENCHMARKS

Indicators	Correlation to	
	Standards	Benchmarks
Indicator 1: Read and understand appropriate vocabulary and high frequency words.	Standard 1	ELA-1-E1
Indicator 2: Recognize and use consonants, vowels, blends, and digraphs during reading.	Standard 1 Standard 4	ELA-1-E1 ELA-4-E5
Indicator 3: Read left-to-right with return sweep.	Standard 1 Standard 4	ELA-1-E2 ELA-4-E7
Indicator 4: Identify grade appropriate parts of speech.	Standard 3 Standard 4 Standard 7	ELA-3-E1, E3, E4, E5 ELA-4-E1, E4 ELA-7-E3
Indicator 5: Use contextual clues to guide meaningful reading.	Standard 1	ELA-1-E1
Indicator 6: Retell a story including setting, characters, main events, problems and solutions.	Standard 1 Standard 4	ELA-1-E6 ELA-4-E1, E2, E3, E4, ELA-4-E5, E7
Indicator 7: Identify main characters, supporting details, main events, problems and solution.	Standard 1 Standard 4  Standard 6 Standard 7	ELA-1-E4 ELA-4-E3, E4, E5, ELA-4-E6, E7 ELA-6-E1 ELA-7-E1, E3
Indicator 8: Plan, organize, and present information, oral, and written.	Standard 4	ELA-4-E1, E4, E7

Indicators	Correlation to Standards                      Benchmarks	
Indicator 9: Distinguish between fiction and non-fiction.	Standard 1 Standard 5 Standard 6 Standard 7	ELA-1-E4 ELA-5-E2 ELA-6-E1 ELA-7-E3
Indicator 10: Comprehend and interpret what is read.	Standard 1	ELA-1-E4, E5
Indicator 11: Integrate cue source.	Standard 1	ELA-1-E3, E4, E7
Indicator 12: Demonstrate the use of reading strategies.	Standard 1	ELA-1-E2, E3, E7
Indicator 13: Identify synonyms and antonyms.	Standard 1 Standard 3	ELA-1-E1 ELA-3-E4
Indicator 14: Compare and contrast literature and authors.	Standard 1 Standard 6 Standard 7	ELA-1-E4 ELA-6-E1, E3 ELA-7-E2
Indicator 15: Use known parts of words to help identify new words.	Standard 3	ELA-3-E4, E5
Indicator 16: Read silently for a sustained time.	Standard 1	ELA-1-E7
Indicator 17: Skim a paragraph or story to search for specific facts.	Standard 1 Standard 7	ELA-1-E3 ELA-7-E4
Indicator 18: Complete charts, tables or graphs.	Standard 5	ELA-5-B3, B6
Indicator 19: Progress through the stages of inventive spelling.	Standard 1 Standard 3	ELA-1-E1 ELA-3-E5
Indicator 20: Use consonants, vowels, blends and digraphs during writing.	Standard 1 Standard 2 Standard 3	ELA-1-E7 ELA-2-E3, E5, E6 ELA-3-E5

Indicators	Correlation to Standards                      Benchmarks	
Indicator 21: Write in complete sentences.	Standard 2 Standard 3	ELA-2-E4 ELA-3-E1, E3
Indicator 22: Write a story with a beginning, middle, and end.	Standard 2 Standard 4 Standard 5	ELA-2-E1 ELA-4-E3 ELA-5-E4
Indicator 23: Develop a story using details and sequence.	Standard 1 Standard 2	ELA-1-E4, E5 ELA-2-E1, E4
Indicator 24: Begin to proofread for meaning, punctuation, capitalization, and high frequency words.	Standard 2 Standard 3	ELA-2-E2, E3, E6 ELA-3-E1, E3
Indicator 25: Spell color words, number words, and grade appropriate, high frequency words.	Standard 3	ELA-3-E5
Indicator 26: Listen to and discuss various genres of literature.	Standard 1 Standard 3 Standard 4 Standard 6 Standard 7	ELA-1-E5, E7 ELA-3-E2 ELA-4-E1, E3, E4, E5 ELA-6-E1, E2 ELA-7-E1, E2, E3, E4
Indicator 27: Get meaning from a variety of media.	Standard 4 Standard 5	ELA-4-E5, E6 ELA-5-E1, E2
Indicator 28: Apply reasoning skills in all forms of communication.	Standard 1 Standard 7	ELA-1-E2 ELA-7-E1
Indicator 29: Use standard English to communicate.	Standard 3	ELA-3-E2, E4
Indicator 30: Listen and respond to discussion.	Standard 4	ELA-4-E7

APPENDIX O  
CORRELATION OF SECOND GRADE LEVEL INDICATORS OF ESSENTIAL  
KNOWLEDGE TO LOUISIANA ENGLISH ARTS CONTENT STANDARDS AND  
BENCHMARKS

Indicators	Correlation to	
	Standards	Benchmarks
Indicator 1: Read and understand appropriate vocabulary and high frequency words.	Standard 1 Standard 3 Standard 7	ELA-1-E1 ELA-3-E5 ELA-7-E2
Indicator 2: Recognize and use consonants, vowels, blends, and digraphs during reading.	Standard 1	ELA-1-E1
Indicator 3: Identify grade appropriate parts of speech.	Standard 1 Standard 2 Standard 3 Standard 7	ELA-1-E1, E6 ELA-2-E3 ELA-3-E2,E3,E4 ELA-7-E2,E3
Indicator 4: Use contextual clues to guide meaningful reading.	Standard 1 Standard 3 Standard 5	ELA-1-E1 ELA-3-E2 ELA-5-E1
Indicator 5: Retell a story including setting, characters, main events, problems, and solution.	Standard 4 Standard 6	ELA-4-E3 ELA-6-E2
Indicator 6: Identify main characters, supporting details, main idea, problems, and solution in a story.	Standard 1 Standard 4 Standard 7	ELA-1-E4 ELA-4-E4 ELA-7-E1
Indicator 7: Plan, organize, and present reports, oral and written.	Standard 2 Standard 4 Standard 5	ELA-2-E2 ELA-4-E4 ELA-5-E1, E2,E3,E4,E5,E6

Indicators	Correlation to	
	Standards	Benchmarks
Indicator 8: Distinguish between fiction and non-fiction.	Standard 7	ELA-7-E3,E4
Indicator 9: Comprehend and interpret what is read.	Standard 4 Standard 5 Standard 7	ELA-4-E3,E4 ELA-5-E1 ELA-7-E1,E3,E4
Indicator 10: Integrate cue sources (meaning, structure, and visual) during text reading.	Standard 1	ELA-1-E3
Indicator 11: Demonstrate the use of reading strategies: monitor reading for meaning, reread when appropriate, self-correct errors, realize when a reading error has been made, search for meaning using pictures, and visually search through words using letters/sound knowledge.	Standard 1	ELA-1-E2
Indicator 12: Identify synonyms, antonyms, and homonyms.	Standard 1	ELA-1-E1
Indicator 13: Compare and contrast literature and authors.	Standard 1 Standard 6 Standard 7	ELA-1-E3 ELA-6-E1 ELA-7-E1
Indicator 14: Use known parts of words to help identify new words.	Standard 1	ELA-1-E1
Indicator 15: Read silently for sustained time.	Standard 1	ELA-1-E7
Indicator 16: Skim a paragraph or story to search for a specific fact.	Standard 1	ELA-1-E2
Indicator 17: Compose charts, tables, or graphs.	Standard 5 Standard 7	ELA-5-E6 ELA-7-E6

Indicators	Correlation to	
	Standards	Benchmarks
Indicator 18: Show awareness of uses and differences between dictionary and encyclopedia.	Standard 3 Standard 5	ELA-3-E5 ELA-5-E1,E2
Indicator 19: Progress through the stages of inventive spelling (Initial, final, and medial sounds).	Standard 3	ELA-3-E5
Indicator 20: Use consonants, vowels, blends, and digraphs during writing.	Standard 1 Standard 2	ELA-1-E1 ELA-2-E4
Indicator 21: Write in complete sentences.	Standard 1 Standard 2 Standard 3 Standard 4	ELA-1-E5 ELA-2-E1,E2,E4,E6 ELA-3-E3 ELA-4-E1,E4
Indicator 22: Write a story with a beginning, middle, and end which includes story elements.	Standard 2 Standard 5	ELA-2-E1,E3,E4 ELA-5-E3
Indicator 23: Proofread for meaning, punctuation, capitalization, and high-frequency.	Standard 2 Standard 3 Standard 4	ELA-2-E2,E3 ELA-3-E1 ELA-4-E4
Indicator 24: Listen to and discuss various genres of literature.	Standard 2 Standard 4 Standard 6	ELA-2-E5 ELA-4-E5,E7 ELA-6-E1,E2
Indicator 25: Get meaning from a variety of media.	Standard 4 Standard 5	ELA-4-E5,E6 ELA-5-E2
Indicator 26: Apply reasoning skills in all forms of communication.	Standard 4 Standard 7	ELA-4-E1 ELA-7-E1,E2,E4
Indicator 27: Use standard English to communicate.	Standard 3 Standard 4	ELA-3-E2,E4 ELA-4-E1,E2

Indicators	Correlation to Standards                      Benchmarks	
Indicator 28: Listen and respond to discussion.	Standard 2 Standard 3 Standard 4  Standard 7	ELA-2-E1,E4,E6 ELA-3-E5 ELA-4-E1, E3,E4,E5,E6,E7 ELA-7-E1,E2,E3,E4



APPENDIX P  
CORRELATION OF THIRD GRADE LEVEL INDICATORS OF ESSENTIAL  
KNOWLEDGE TO LOUISIANA ENGLISH ARTS CONTENT STANDARDS AND  
BENCHMARKS

Indicators	Correlation to	
	Standards	Benchmarks
Indicator 1: Read and understand grade appropriate vocabulary and high-frequency words.	Standard 1 Standard 2 Standard 3 Standard 4 Standard 7	ELA-1-E1 ELA-2-E2,E4,E5,E6 ELA-3-E5,E6 ELA-4-E7 ELA-7-E4
Indicator 2: Recognize and use consonants, vowels, blends, digraphs, diphthongs, and variant vowel sounds.	Standard 1 Standard 3	ELA-1-E2 ELA-3-E5
Indicator 3: Use prefixes, suffixes, and root vowels to increase understanding of word meaning.	Standard 1 Standard 3	ELA-1-E1 ELA-3-E5
Indicator 4: Use contextual clues to guide meaningful reading.	Standard 1 Standard 7	ELA-1-E2 ELA-7-E5
Indicator 5: Distinguish between fiction/ non-fiction and fact/opinion in paragraphs and stories.	Standard 1 Standard 6 Standard 7	ELA-1-E1,E6 ELA-6-E1,E2 ELA-7-E4
Indicator 6: Use charts and graphs to locate, select, and organize information.	Standard 5	ELA-5-E6
Indicator 7: Identify and read a variety of literary selections.	Standard 2 Standard 3 Standard 4 Standard 6 Standard 7	ELA-2-E1,E2 ELA-3-E3,E4 ELA-4-E1,E5,E6 ELA-6-E1,E2,E3 ELA-7-E3,E4

Indicators	Correlation to	
	Standards	Benchmarks
Indicator 8: Skim to identify key words and phrases.	Standard 1 Standard 7	ELA-1-E3 ELA-7-E4
Indicator 9: Integrate cue sources during text reading.	Standard 1	ELA-1-E1
Indicator 10: Demonstrate the use of reading strategies, monitor reading for meaning, reread when appropriate, self-correct errors, realize when a reading error has been made, search for meaning using pictures, and visually search through words using letters/sound knowledge.	Standard 1	ELA-1-E1
Indicator 11: Understand figurative language.	Standard 1	ELA-1-E4
Indicator 12: Read silently for a sustained time.	Standard 1 Standard 5	ELA-1-E7 ELA-5-E7
Indicator 13: Make generalizations based on interpretation of text read.	Standard 1 Standard 7	ELA-1-E4,E5 ELA-7-E1
Indicator 14: Use references such as a dictionary, glossary, thesaurus, and reference book.	Standard 3 Standard 5	ELA-3-E5 ELA-5-E1
Indicator 15: Use a computer to access information.	Standard 1 Standard 3 Standard 5	ELA-1-E2 ELA-3-E5 ELA-5-E4
Indicator 16: Demonstrate basic knowledge of word processing and graphic software.	Standard 1 Standard 3	ELA-1-E2 ELA-3-E5

Indicators	Correlation to	
	Standards	Benchmarks
Indicator 17: Write in complete sentence.	Standard 1 Standard 2 Standard 3 Standard 7	ELA-1-E1,E5 ELA-2-E1,E2,E3,E4 ELA-3-E3 ELA-7-E3
Indicator 18: Write a story with a beginning, middle and end, which includes story elements such as setting, characters, and solution.	Standard 2 Standard 3  Standard 5	ELA-2-E1,E2,E3,E4 ELA-3-  ELA-5-E4
Indicator 19: Write descriptive and narrative paragraphs.	Standard 2 Standard 3 Standard 5	ELA-2-E1,E2,E3,E4 ELA-3-1,E2,E3,E4,E5 ELA-5-E4
Indicator 20: Plan and write using notes, lists, diagrams and other relevant information.	Standard 2 Standard 4 Standard 5	ELA-2-1,E3,E4,E5,E6 ELA-4-E2,E4 ELA-5-E3,E6
Indicator 21: Proofread for meaning, punctuation, capitalization, and high frequency words.	Standard 2 Standard 3 Standard 5	ELA-2-E2,E3 ELA-3-E1,E2 ELA-5-E4
Indicator 22: Spell grade level appropriate high frequency words.	Standard 1 Standard 3	ELA-1-E1 ELA-3-E5
Indicator 23: Write legibly in cursive writing.	Standard 3	ELA-3-E1

APPENDIX Q  
EAST BATON ROUGE PARISH SCHOOL SYSTEM MISSION

The mission of the East Baton Rouge Parish School System owned jointly with the community is to provide quality education which will equip all students to function at their highest potential in a complex and changing society thereby enabling them to lead full productive and rewarding lives.

Approved by School Board

October 26, 1995

APPENDIX R  
EAST BATON ROUGE PARISH SCHOOL SYSTEM GOALS

The School System is Actually Unitary.

- \*We have a desegregated system respecting the community school concept.
- \*There is quality and equity throughout the system.
- \*There is system-wide understanding and respect for diversity and all cultures.

The Community Supports Public Education.

- \*EBR Parish School System is the first choice for education.
- \*Our schools address the educational needs of all our students.
- \*The public appreciates the knowledge, skills and values demonstrated by our students as they become productive and responsible citizens.

Each of our Schools is an Effective School.

- \*Principals are instructional leaders.
- \*Teachers have high expectations.
- \*School mission and curriculum are clear.
- \*Environment within well maintained facilities is safe and orderly.
- \*Student achievement is frequently monitored.
- \*Home/school links are strong.
- \*Student time on task to learn the intended curriculum is appropriate.

Note: These goals are not prioritized.  
All must be accomplished.

Approved by School Board  
October 26, 1995

## VITA

Rita Ramirez was born in Santa Ana, California. Her family has lived in California since 1900. She is a Mexican American by heritage. She graduated with honors from Santa Ana Senior High School, Santa Ana, California. She attended and graduated from Chapman University, Orange, California. She received her Bachelor of Arts (1965) with a major in history and a minor in Mathematics, a Standard Secondary Credential (1966) in history and mathematics, and a Master of Arts (1971) in curriculum and instruction/political history. She also attended Northern Arizona University for secondary school administration; California State University, Fullerton, minor in Spanish and sociology; and California State University, San Bernardino, minor in business. She graduated from Louisiana State University (1999) with an Education Specialist Credential in curriculum and instruction/reading. She became a secondary school teacher (1966-1972) and a community college professor (1973-2004) at College of the Desert, Palm Desert, California. She is a former Copper Mountain College Trustee (1999-2001). She was a member of California Teachers Association (1966 -2004), Faculty Association of California Community Colleges (1992-2004), and the Latina Leadership Network (1999-2003). At present, she is the Democratic candidate for the 65th California State Assembly (2004/2006). When she is elected, she will be the first Hispanic and first woman in 100 years for the 65<sup>th</sup> State Assembly District. Her platform is education, business, and health care.

Rita Ramirez is divorced and has two sons. James Dean, her oldest son, attends State University of New York, Albany, and will receive his doctorate in sociology. He will teach at California State University, Sonoma. Gene Dean, her youngest son, graduated from Occidental College and attends California State University, Los Angeles, where he is completing his Secondary

School Credential in English. He plans to continue his studies at University of California, Los Angeles.

Publications: "Reading Instruction in Science at the Transitional Grades: Perception vs. Practice," Konopak, et al., National Reading Conference Yearbook, 1989. "Reading Strategies in Content Areas," Dr. Earl Cheek, Jr., and Rita Ramirez Dean, The High School Journal, February-March, Volume 74, No.3, The University of North Carolina Press, Chapel Hill, North Carolina.

She will receive the degree of Doctor of Philosophy in curriculum and instruction at Louisiana State University in August, 2005.