THE EFFECTS OF RHETORICAL READING INTERVENTIONS ON THE

READING AND WRITING PERFORMANCES OF STUDENTS ENROLLED IN

COLLEGE COMPOSITION CLASSES

A Dissertation

by

BERNICE Y. SANCHEZ

Submitted to the Office of Graduate Studies of
Texas A&M University
in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of

DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY

December 2009

Major Subject: Curriculum and Instruction

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Approved by:

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ABSTRACT

The Effects of Rhetorical Reading Interventions on the Reading and Writing

Performances of Students Enrolled in College Composition Classes.

(December 2009)

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The purpose of the study was to determine the impact of rhetorical reading interventions on ELL and dominant English speaking college students' perceptions of reading-writing connections, reading performances as measured by the Accuplacer Reading Test, and writing performances as measured by a holistic rubric. ELL, as defined here, refers to a student who is in the process of acquiring English and has knowledge of a first language other than English. The researcher applied a quasi-experimental comparison and treatment group post test design that included four composition classes. The independent variable was the rhetorical reading intervention. The dependent variables included: student reading- writing connection surveys, the Accuplacer Reading Test, and student generated essays. The rhetorical reading intervention applied focused on constructing awareness of an author's purpose, context, and effect on audience (reader).

Reading performance scores for the comparison group indicated an observed change in the mean score from pre-test to post-test of 0 .17. The observed change in the mean score from pre to post test performance for treatment group participants was 9.16. Repeated measures ANOVA test yielded a main effect for pre-post reading performance scores across groups, $F(1,70)=16.153$, $p<.05$. Results indicated that comparison group participants displayed minimal change between the pre and post Accuplacer Reading scores; while, treatment group participants reading scores increased significantly. Writing performance scores for the comparison group indicated an observed change from pre-post scores of .74. An observed change was indicated from pre-post scores of 1.02 for treatment group subjects. A repeated measures (ANOVA) test within groups yielded a main effect for pre-post writing performance scores across all groups, $F(1,70)=60.327$, $p<.05$. The greater increase for the treatment group suggests that rhetorical reading interventions had an enhanced positive influence on writing performance scores.

The analyses reported suggest varying degrees of the effects, on both reading and writing, the integration of reading with specific rhetorical guidelines appeared to maximize not only the connections between reading and writing, but also provide students opportunities to apply critical thinking skills when reading like a writer. The study provides noteworthy insights for educators in the areas of ELL instruction at the college level and provides information that facilitates bridging the achievement gap between dominant English speakers and ELL students.

DEDICATION

I would like to dedicate this dissertation to my family, including my two biggest supporters, who not only supported me, but tolerated me throughout this process. To Mom and my loving husband, both of you made the impossible seem possible, and for that I am truly grateful. Thank you.

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A special thanks to Dr. Lira and Dr. Kilburn for your continued support and expertise. Many thanks to the testing center and all colleagues who contributed, assisted, or gave of their time to assist me in the research process. I want to extend my gratitude to everyone at the First Year Writing Program for your volunteer assistance with this research project.

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

Diversity of students in the United States has transformed traditional American

educational systems and has influenced curricula across the country including K-12

public and private schools and postsecondary institutions. International and immigrant

students entering US colleges and universities have shaped a population of English

language learners (ELL) with varying levels of English conversational and academic

skills. ELL, as defined here, refers to a student who is in the process of acquiring

English and has knowledge of a first language other than English. The National Council

of Teachers of English (NCTE, 2006) and the National Clearinghouse for English

Language Acquisition (NCELA, 2006) reported that over five million English language

learners enrolled in public school institutions K-12 in the United States in 2003-2004.

The overall general ELL population has grown 65% in the last ten years and 82% of

ELLs in the US are native Spanish speakers (NCELA, 2006).

Spanish speaking ELL students enter institutions of higher education with

varying degrees of linguistic and academic levels of proficiency in English, along with

differing degrees of knowledge of their first language. These varying proficiency levels

have pedagogical implications for colleges and universities to develop instructional

programs and courses to meet the demands of this growing population. Institutions

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This dissertation follows the style of *Reading & Writing Quarterly*.

across the country have developed programs referred to as Intensive English Programs (IEP), English as a Second Language Programs (ESL), or Intensive Language Institutes (ILI) that focus on conversational language discourse and academic language discourse. Programs differ across the country and have been created in efforts to accommodate and meet the needs of student populations. Because English is the primary language of instruction, English literacy is a key factor in determining the success of ELL students in post-secondary institutions. It is essential that the ELL population gain sufficient proficiency in the areas of reading and writing in the English language in order to participate in the academic discourse communities within educational institutions in the United States. ELL students face numerous challenges that include cultural and social adaptation; while, they are learning a second language, as well as engagement in an academic discourse community that is often inconsistent with their home discourse environment (Bizzell, 1986).

Tierney and Pearson (1983) posit that students employ similar cognitive processes when engaging in reading and writing activities as a way of creating meaning. Theorists and researchers alike hypothesize that there is strong evidence to suggest correlational, directional, and bidirectional relationships between reading and writing (Eisterhold, 1990; Shanahan, 1990; Tierney & Pearson, 1983). Furthermore, Shaughnessy (1977) asserts that students must have an awareness of the interactive nature of reading and writing, for meaning resides in this interactive encounter between both processes. While there is research evidence on reading and writing connections for dominant English speaking students as described above, there is limited research that

explores the reading and writing connections of ELL Spanish speakers, the largest growing subgroup in the United States.

Problem Statement

Teaching composition to ELL college students is a challenge for instructors and professors at institutions of higher education across the country. Ballenger (2005) describes the writing process as a complex activity that requires students to engage in dialectical thinking in which a writer shifts in and out of two modes of thinking: creative and critical. College students often describe their composition course as having a culture of its own. Bartholomae (1985) and Bizzell (1986) posit that students become cognizant of differences within academic discourse communities and their own world discourse communities when they enroll in college composition courses. When the general populations of students enter a college or university environment, they are asked to adapt to a new culture of college life that encompasses a new way of functioning in which students may not be accustomed. Bartholomae (1985) examines the concept of college level writing and the dissonance between what is considered academic discourse and student discourse. Similarly, Bizzell (1986) argues that basic writers come to college with a "home world view environment" that is distinctively different from the academic college environment. Bizzell (1986) suggests that students from different cultures bring different dialects, different ways of thinking, and different written discourse conventions to the college environment; meanwhile, the academic college writing environment reflects Standard English, which is the preferred dialect/form of

academic or professional writing. Bizzell (1986) asserts that students' worldviews of home and academic cultures interconnect and often influence student writing. Furthermore, the difficulties encountered by dominant English basic writers, upon entering college, decreases their self-confidence because of their unfamiliarity with the common language practices within the academic discourse community. Consequently, ELL students acquiring language skills and academic skills, in addition to academic writing skills, often times find themselves even further disconnected from academic discourse communities.

The position statement of the Conference on College Composition and Communication (*CCCC*, 2001) recognizes a growing population of second-language writers enrolled in institutions of higher education. According to the *CCCC*'s position statement, second language writers enrolled at institutions of higher education come from diverse backgrounds with a wide variety of linguistic, cultural, and educational backgrounds and stresses the importance of understanding these characteristics and cultural needs of second language writers and to develop and incorporate instructional practices that meet the needs of second language writers. Additionally, the National Council of Teachers of English (NCTE, 2006) emphasizes that it is important for educators to learn about ELL students' literacy backgrounds and to recognize that first and second language growth occurs over time with abundant opportunities that engage students in the process of reading and writing. Early research suggests that students can take between 4 to 8 years for attainment of English proficiency necessary for academic success (Cummins, 1980; Collier, 1995). Organizations and institutions of higher

education have recognized the need for differentiation of curriculum in order to meet the needs of the growing ELL population.

Zamel (2002) conducted an ethnographic study involving faculty and ESL students enrolled in college courses across the curriculum. The study reported evidence of tensions and conflicts between diverse ELL students and general faculty due to cross cultural perspectives and misunderstandings or lack of understandings in regards to expectations and communication. Zamel's (2002) findings assert that too often faculty working with ELL students assumed that "language use was confounded with intellectual ability" (p.261). In order to raise the level of educational attainment for ELL students, instructors of second language learners must understand that the process of second language acquisition is a continuous process that requires exposure and engagement in learning opportunities where ELL students participate in the construction of meaning and knowledge. Bartholomae (1985) and Bizzell (1986) describe the academic discourse community as a world in which students must adapt their home discourse communities to become a part of the academic discourse community to succeed in the world of academia.   Furthermore, discourse features of written compositions in English and Spanish provide further evidence of differences between the discourse communities.

Montano-Harmon (1991) conducted a study analyzing the discourse features of 850 written essays by ninth graders enrolled in public schools and students enrolled in *secundaria* in Mexico. Findings revealed that students writing in English often wrote in a linear pattern of development that included the use of connectors to show a pattern of

chronological order or a listing of ideas in order of importance. English writers frequently wrote shorter sentences and fewer sentences than the Spanish writers. In contrast, students from Mexico who wrote in Spanish exhibited different rhetorical patterns when writing. Spanish writers relied on run-on constructions excluding conjunctions and punctuation marks. In addition, Spanish writers strayed away from logical developments and often times lead to disconnections between ideas. Spanish writers tended to organize their writings based on additive relationships utilizing synonyms to organize their writing. Overall, Montano-Harmon's (1991) research asserts that discourse patterns of written text in English and in Spanish differ greatly. Awareness and knowledge of these linguistic differences is central to the teaching of writing and to those learning to write in another language.

The academic writing discourse community must assist ELLs in gradually acquiring the academic skills necessary to succeed. This includes understanding and working with the diversity and strengths that students bring into the classroom and building on those strengths that assist ELL students in transitioning towards academic language proficiency in English.

Altogether, the challenges involving the complexity of teaching writing, the dissonance between academic and student discourse communities, and the need for differentiation of curriculum to address the growing ELL population have contributed to achievement gaps between ELL and dominant English speaking students. Research regarding instructional practices involving reading and writing that emphasize exposure and practice opportunities into the academic discourse conventions of composition

courses is a positive step towards addressing some of these challenges. The current study provides insights into the rhetorical reading discourse effects on reading and writing performances of ELL and dominant English speaking college composition students.

Significance of the Study

Tierney and Shanahan (1991) have explored the reading-writing relationship by focusing on cognitive constructs of how students engage in reading and writing processes, for dominant English speakers. Hirvela and Belcher (2004) explore the historical evolution of the reading-writing connection for dominant English speakers and use this knowledge as a basis for exploring and further understanding the constructed discourses that have influenced the reading-writing relationship connections of ELLs. Hirvela and Belcher (2004) posit, "While we cannot at this point cite a complete model of L2 reading-writing connections, we can draw from ideas and findings presented in the L1 literature and from these sources of input discussed earlier (L2 research)" (p.37). Based on significant implications of the reading-writing relationship and on the generalization that most ELL students have limited exposure to reading experiences in English, it is important to bring an awareness of this relationship to ELL students. Kroll (1993) suggests that in order for students to become effective writers they must "understand how the texts they produce are readings and how they can utilize their knowledge of the ways readers behave to help them learn to write better" (p.73).

The concept of integrating reading and writing has been established for dominant English speakers. As for ELL students, the integration process has been acknowledged and has been approached differently by various theorists and practitioners, primarily focusing on the transfer of skills from native language to second language. Flower, Stein, Ackerman, Knatz, McCormick, and Peck (1990) approach this relationship from a reading-to-write perspective. They tracked 72 (L1) freshmen college students as they engaged in short reading assignments and then wrote in relation to what they read. The students were then asked to discuss and reflect on their perception/interpretation of the task, and finally students were asked to fully develop their writing piece and engage in the revision process. The assertion is that these reading activities and group discussions can be utilized as instruments for motivating students to improve their writing. Krashen's (1993) "reading input hypothesis" suggests extensive pleasure reading in the target language can enhance writing proficiency and style. Comparable to this hypothesis, Janopoulos (1986) conducted a study that examined the relationship between pleasure reading and writing proficiency for ESL students. The correlational findings suggested that L2 students that spent more hours on extensive pleasure reading activities were better L2 writers.

Research Statement

The current study was designed to contribute to the body of research in the areas of reading and writing, with an emphasis on ELL college composition students. The purpose of the study was to determine the impact of rhetorical reading interventions on

ELL and dominant English speaking college students' perceptions of reading-writing connections, reading performances as measured by the Accuplacer Reading Test, and writing performances as measured by a holistic rubric. Pedagogically, this quantitative study aims at providing noteworthy insights for educators in the areas of ELL instruction at the college level. Altogether, the study was designed to provide information that could facilitate bridging the achievement gap between dominant English speakers and ELL students which is limited and a direct response to the increasing growth of the ELL Spanish speaking college population.

Definition of Terms

1. ELL- (English language learner)- student who is in the process of acquiring English and has knowledge of a first language other than English

2. ESL- (English as a second language)- student who is the process of acquiring a second language

3. Dominant English speaker- student whose primary language (native language) is English

4. L1- designated as first language

5. L2- designated as second language

6. Rhetorical reading- instructional strategies focused on constructing awareness of an author's purpose, context, and effect on audience; strategies focused on the process by which a text was written (Hairston, 1986).

Research Questions

The study seeks to answer the following questions:

1. Are there differences between the comparison group and treatment group in the degree of change in perceptions of the reading-writing connections as indicated by the nature and frequency of responses on pre-post reading-writing connection surveys?

2. Are there differential intervention effects, as indicated by the differences between pre and post reading-writing connection surveys, upon the perceived reading-writing connections for ELL and dominant English speaking subjects in the comparison and rhetorical reading treatment groups?

3. Are there differences between the post intervention reading performances (Reading Accuplacer Test score) attained by the comparison and the rhetorical reading treatment groups?

4. Are there differential intervention effects upon reading performances of ELL and dominant English speaking subjects within the comparison and the rhetorical reading treatment groups as indicated by the differences between pre to post Reading Accuplacer Test scores?

5. Are there differences between the post intervention writing performances (holistically scored essays) attained by the comparison and the rhetorical reading treatment groups?

6. Are there differential intervention effects upon the writing performances of ELL and dominant English speaking subjects within the comparison and the rhetorical

reading treatment groups as indicated by the differences between pre to post

holistic writing performance scores?

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

According to Fitzgerald and Shanahan (2000), reading and writing were historically taught as separate content areas within American educational systems. Theoretical and pedagogical research in the areas of reading and writing have evolved and developed several underlying themes and beliefs that have merged both content areas. Tierney and Pearson (1983) were pioneers in the field of reading to suggest that reading and writing shared similar processes of constructing meaning because both reading and writing engaged students in acts of composing. Furthermore, Tierney and Shanahan (1991) assert that there are three categories that are reflective of the reading-writing relationship: Reading and writing as shared knowledge and as shared processes, reading and writing as interactions between reader, writer, and text, and reading and writing as collaborative events. The historical overview of reading-writing connections were examined through underlying themes that emerged from research through correlational studies, cognitive approach research, and social constructivist approach research.

Previous research on the reading-writing relationship often reflected first language learners (L1). For the reading-writing connections of second language learners (L2), Hirvela (2001) suggests that reading-writing connections for L1 learners can serve as a basis for exploring that relationship for L2 learners. Carson and Leki (1993), Hirvela and Belcher (2004), and Grabe (2001) are among the researchers that have explored the reading-writing connection for L2 learners which is further delineated.

While limited research provided some insights into the reading-writing connections of L2 learners; however, there does not appear to be a universal or single model (L2) that has been developed such as in the reading-writing relationship for L1 learners. Correlational studies, cognitive and social aspects, and interlingual transfer of information are areas addressed in relation to L2 learners.

The review of literature provides a historical overview of reading-writing connections for dominant English speakers as a basis for understanding the limited research available on reading-writing connections of L2 learners. Then an overview of the writing process and the implications of the directionality approach, effects of reading on writing, through the integration of rhetorical reading discourse are examined.

Historical Context of Reading and Writing L1

Tierney (1992) summarized the changing perspectives and the changing classroom practices by tracing the ongoing development of the reading-writing relationship. Tierney's (1992) analyses of collective research led to the construction of two tables that traced the evolving development of the reading-writing relationship from the 1970's to the 1990's. One table focused on the changing perspectives of the reading-writing relationship and the second table reflected the changes in classroom practices based on these perspectives. Tierney (1992) posits that reading was viewed as a passive receiving action and writing was viewed as an act of producing in the 1970's; whereas, reading and writing collaboratively were viewed as active, composing, and problem solving activities in the 1990's. Reading and writing in the 1970's were viewed as a

means of transmitting ideas; whereas, in the 1990's both processes were viewed as vehicles for critical thinking. Furthermore, in the 1970's reading was considered a predecessor to writing development; whereas, in the 1990's the prevailing views were that reading and writing development occurred simultaneously.

<div style="text-align:center">Correlation between Reading and Writing L1</div>

Loban (1963) conducted a performance based correlational study that focused on relationships between oral language, listening, reading and writing. The study measured the reading achievement and writing abilities of 338 students. This seven year longitudinal study traced economically diverse subjects enrolled in school from kindergarten to sixth grade. Students' annual performances on the Stanford Achievement Test and a single writing sample that was scored holistically were the dependent variables. The results suggested a positive relationship between reading and writing. Loban (1963) asserted that there was strong evidence of a high interrelation between reading and writing and students who read well often wrote well; whereas, students who read poorly also write poorly (p. 75).

Grobe and Grobe (1977) conducted a study on freshmen college students enrolled in a composition course. The McGraw-Hill Basic Skills System Reading Test and students' writing samples were the variables measured. Grobe and Grobe (1977) concluded that there was a positive correlation coefficient of .50 which was statistically significant at .01 confidence level between the writing and reading abilities of these freshmen students.

Shanahan (1984) conducted a multivariate analysis study examining the nature of reading-writing relationships comparing second and fifth graders and achievement levels of beginning and advanced readers. The study included 256 second and 251 fifth graders. Second grade analysis revealed an overlapping of reading and writing as a relationship of general reading and word construction. Fifth grade analysis yielded similar results with only one significant difference which involved an increase in vocabulary. The data suggests that word meanings played a more significant role in the reading process as children became older (fifth graders) than in comparison to second graders. The results yielded a correlation between both reading and writing that accounted for 43% of the variance in both grade levels. With beginning readers, spelling and phonics skills accounted for the majority of the total variance and as proficiency increased story structures and vocabulary (writing) accounted for the majority of the total variance. Shanahan (1984) concluded that reading and writing were significantly related in both grade levels and that reading components and writing components were correlated at about $r = .50$. The findings suggest that reading and writing share an interacting relationship and that the relationship changes as development in one area or the other changes.

While correlational studies provided evidence that a relationship exists between reading and writing, the nature of the relationship is not addressed. Tierney and Shanahan (1991) agree that there is an interactive relationship between reading and writing, but whether the relationship is one of directionally, influences the other, or vice versa, is arguable.

Cognitive Dimensions of Reading and Writing L1

Empirical research examined performance and product-based correlational studies of the reading and writing connection, but the reading and writing connection is also inclusive of process-based studies. Tierney and Shanahan (1991) asserted, "In terms of methodology, research on reading and writing has moved beyond comparing global measures of reading with global measures of writing to consider their underlying constructs and the ongoing thinking that readers and writers pursue" (p. 274). Historically, research studies gradually shifted from performance/product based to more emphasis on cognitive dimension-based research.

Tierney and Pearson (1983) posit that reading and writing were similar acts of composing that shared characteristics of meaning construction. Their theory suggests that a reader determines what their purpose for reading (planning) is and then engages in renegotiating their goals (drafting) and refining drafts of meaning (aligning) to achieve greater understanding. Readers then reevaluate their effectiveness and revise their understanding (revising and monitoring) of each stage of the composing process. Thus, these characteristics of a reader are reflective of a writer. Tierney and Pearson (1983) presented their landmark theory of a "symbiotic relationship" between reading and writing through the development of a model: planning, drafting, aligning, revising and monitoring.

 Kirby (1986) conducted a study of five high risk level 9th grade freshmen students and examined their construction of meaning making strategies used during reading and writing activities. These high risk participants were at risk for potentially

dropping out of school attributed to both academic and social factors. Kirby (1986) videotaped the five students during four different sessions where students engaged in reading and writing activities. The students were interviewed and asked about the processes they engaged in when reading and writing. The subjects read realistic fiction and factual texts and they wrote on topics that were expressive and transactively reflective of the texts. Kirby's (1986) findings revealed that the subjects utilized similar processes when engaging in the acts of reading and writing; primarily, creating meaning and revising meaning through personal experiences. In addition, the researcher reported observations on how students encountered difficulties in applying a strategy or lack of a strategy in reading and that sometimes carried over into difficulties in writing and vice versa.

Langer (1986) conducted a study on randomly selected 3rd, 6th and 9th grade students. Langer (1986) examined the construction of meaning behaviors of 67 students including their reasoning operations and strategies by monitoring their behaviors. The students engaged in similar activities (age appropriate) that required students to read and write. Langer (1986) focused on the following reasoning operations: metacomments, using schemata, hypothesizing, citing evidence and validating. Strategies observed included evaluating, generating ideas, making meaning, and reevaluating. The researcher's findings concluded that there were numerous similarities on how students utilized both reasoning operations and strategies when engaging in reading and writing activities. The subjects' behaviors became increasingly varied and complex with each grade level. Overall, the subjects focused more on generating ideas when they read;

whereas, subjects focused more on creating meaning when they wrote. Furthermore, Langer (1986) concludes that reading and writing share common characteristics of reasoning strategies; however, as the developmental growth of students' transpires more complex cognitive engagement in reading and writing occurs and as a result changes and different patterns of reasoning strategies develop.

Tierney, Soter, O'Flahavan, and McGinley (1989) conducted a study to examine the impact of reading and writing combined, when working on a particular task. The main purpose of the study was to determine whether students engaged in critical thinking when a task involved combined both reading and writing acts. The results suggested that students utilized different reasoning processes when engaging in different tasks, but for the most part students utilized more advanced reasoning processes when reading and writing acts where combined on a task, as opposed to simple reasoning operations when engaging in reading or writing acts independently.

Tierney and Shanahan (1991) suggest:

For researchers in the field of literacy the focus of research should not be *between* reading and writing, but *of reading* and writing together. We believe strongly that in our society, at this point in history, reading and writing, to be understood and appreciated fully, should be viewed together, learned together, and used together. (pg. 274-275)

Social Constructivist Perspectives on Reading and Writing L1

Empirical research on reading and writing is also approached from a social constructivist perspective. According to Rosenblatt (1994), reading is an interaction between the information in the text and the reader's knowledge. Rosenblatt's (1994) transactional theory describes the reading process as a relationship between the text and the reader engaging in a recursive process that occurs at a particular time in which each element conditions the other. Rosenblatt (1994) describes this transaction as "the observer being confronted with a definitely structured stimulus, but he/she selects, organizes, and interprets the cues according to his/her past experiences…" (p.18). This transaction involves knowledge of printed text and reflections of past and present experiences and preconceptions the reader brings to the text (social dimensions). Additionally, Ackerman (1990) describes writing as a social activity reflective of cultural influences, social context, and university environment. Vygotsky's (1978) sociocultural theory posits that individuals learn within the context of their own cultural environment and through interactions with the environment. This theory suggests that despite the perception that each individual has distinctive individual experiences, all individuals communally share meanings that occur through communication and common experiences. Vygotsky (1978) and Rosenblatt (1994) agree that our social cultural environment influences our learning.

 Flower, Stein, Ackerman, Knatz, McCormick, and Peck (1990) recognize the reading and writing relationship from a cognitive and social dimension. Researchers conducted a longitudinal study of college freshmen transitioning from reading and

writing skills they acquired in high school to reading and writing at the collegiate level.

Flower et.al. (1990) utilized interviews and think aloud protocols in a naturalistic setting

with one quasi-experimental manipulation. Researchers examined how students

approached a given situation in relation to reading to writing situations. The findings

revealed that students for the most part had knowledge of basic skills in summarizing

and distinguishing key points. Students had the most difficulty in "task representations,"

recognizing and understanding what was required of them including expectations within

the academic discourse community. Flower et al. (1990) also noted deficiencies in

students being able to assimilate ideas and knowledge and adapting knowledge to solve

problems (critical literacy). The implications suggest that most students transferred

reading and writing basic skills from high school to college; however, students are

influenced by their own individual experiences and influenced by the social

constructions of academic discourse communities that their interpretations of tasks in

reading and writing situations varied.

Overview of Reading and Writing Relationship L2

A vast amount of research in the reading and writing connection for L1 has

emerged since the early 70's. However, due to the growing numbers of ELL students

enrolled in educational institutions, research designed to further understand the reading

and writing connection for L2 subjects has emerged. Hirvela and Belcher (2004)

suggest that research in the reading and writing connections of the L1 population have

served as a basic foundation and have influenced new research developments in the

reading and writing connections of L2 students. Carson and Leki (1993) and Hirvela and Belcher (2004) describe various influences that apply to L2 in regards to the reading and writing relationship and that caution should be taken when applying L1 findings directly to L2 environments. Despite some of the overlapping influences of the research conducted in L1 to L2 in reading and writing connections, some of the research in L2 reading and writing connections have also developed into new directions due to the interlingual transfer of information from the first to the second language.

Research in L2 reading and writing emphasizes the importance of exposing L2 learners to texts in the target language in order to create knowledge base in the target language. Hirvela and Belcher (2004) suggest that selection of appropriate texts reflective of meaningful experiences would provide the most effective learning environments possible for L2 learners. Research conducted in L2 reading and writing connections are examined based on the following themes: correlational studies, cognitive and social aspects, and interlingual transfer of information.

Correlation between Reading and Writing L2

Janopoulos (1986) conducted a study to determine if there was a relationship between pleasure reading in L1 or L2 and writing proficiency in college leveled ESL students. The subjects included 79 adult ESL students and their task was to write a composition that was evaluated holistically with each student given a choice of three open ended topics. The subjects were also provided a questionnaire to measure how many hours a week they engaged in pleasure reading (not for school purposes) in

English and in their native language. The correlational findings suggested that students that spent more hours on extensive pleasure reading activities in English were better writers in English. Subjects that spent extensive hours on pleasure reading in L2 did not reveal evidence of being better writers in English. Furthermore, there was no significant correlation between pleasure reading in both L1 and L2 languages resulting in better writers in English.

Flahive and Bailey (1993) conducted a correlational study similar to that of Janopoulos (1986) with the inclusion of grammatical variables.   Flahive and Bailey (1993) tested the following generalizations for L1 learners and applied them to L2 learners: 1) Subjects who read more are better writers 2) Subjects who are better readers are better writers 3) Subjects who read more with better "comprehension" write more complex, more grammatically correct prose. The subjects included 40 ESL learners enrolled in ESL courses or college composition courses. The variables included reading, writing, and grammar styles. Flahive and Bailey's (1993) findings suggest that reading habits in L1 were consistent with reading habits reported in the L2. Secondly, researchers reported a modest correlation of .35, p<.05 between reading comprehension and holistic writing scores. Flahive and Bailey (1993) revealed no evidence of strong correlations between L1 and L2 pleasure reading and increased grammatical proficiency. The final results suggested significant positive relationships between the amount of time spent in pleasure reading in both L1 and L2 and reading achievement test scores.

Tsang (1996) conducted a study of 144 secondary-level L2 students across four grade levels, utilizing the directional model.   The participants were divided into three

groups and each received 24 weeks of instruction: group one regular writing instruction, group two regular writing instruction with additional writing activities, group three regular writing instruction with extensive reading practices. Tsang's (1996) post treatment findings suggested students who received additional extensive reading instruction wrote significantly better and better understood the content information they read.

The studies described are inclusive of variables such as the genre of pleasure reading, reading experiences, writing instruction, and language proficiency levels all appear to influence the findings in each study. While each study undertakes a different approach, they all provide some evidence of connections between reading and writing for L2. The generalization that has emerged from these research studies is that exposure to reading can enhance/affect writing abilities.

Researchers and practitioners hypothesize that better readers are better writers and that better readers often employ more elaborate writing styles. These generalizations are often tested, such as those described above, and are reflective of Krashen's (1993) "reading input" hypothesis. Krashen (1993) asserts that extensive exposure to reading, self-directed reading, or voluntary reading can influence and support L2 learners' writing abilities because of the exposure to print in the target language (English).   Krashen's (1993) "reading input hypothesis" suggests that L2 learners become better writers by extensively engaging in L2 instructional practices that combine reading and writing.

Cognitive and Social Context Perspectives L2

Carson and Leki (1993) hypothesize that in order to better understand the reading and writing processes of L2 learners that the cognitive internal dimensions of L2 learners must be considered. Carson and Leki (1993), similar to Tierney and Shanahan's (1991) theory on reading and writing relationships, suggests that processes that readers use to make meaning are similar to those processes that writers use to create meaning and can be applied to L2 learners.

Sarig (1993) conducted a case study investigation that proposed the following questions: 1) What cognitive processes are manifested during the construction of a study-summary? 2) How do processes and end-products of summaries produced for L1 texts compare with those composed for L2 texts? The subject for this case study investigation was an English foreign language (EFL) college student who exhibited high proficiency linguistic levels in English. The researcher relied on think-aloud protocols that involved summary composing processes which included reading, speaking, and writing in L1 and L2. The study included quantitative and qualitative data that examined cognitive operations across languages and text-types. The findings reported in this case study suggest that the subject focused primarily on transforming skills when reading and on revising skills when writing. Despite the subjects' high proficiency level in L2 a "mediocre" quality level product of a study-summary was the end result (L2). Sarig (1993) asserts that L2 learners with high proficiency levels still struggle with the reconceptualization of texts. Secondly, the comparison of results from summarizing from L1 texts and L2 texts seem to be related considerably. The data reported a r =.74

(p<.001) correlation among the processes of summarizing texts from L1 and L2 texts. Sarig's (1993) findings indicate a transfer of skills and evidence of a relationship between L1 and L2 summarizing abilities.

Johns and Mayes (1990) examined the strategies utilized by high and low proficiency levels of ESL students' processes of composing summaries. They discovered that proficiency levels influenced ESL students' performance levels in summary writing. They asserted from their findings that students with low proficiency levels engaged in more direct copying of information whereas high proficiency level students exhibited evidence of combining ideas within paragraphs and elaboration of ideas. Johns and Mayes (1990) suggested that background knowledge and proficiency levels influenced the writing processes of ESL students. Sarig (1993) and Johns and Mayes (1990) provide some evidence of cognitive processes involving reading for writing, but a definite model of the functionality of this relationship is still unclear for L2 learners.

Grabe (2001) conjectures that in order to better understand the reading and writing interaction it is important to include theories that relate to social contextual influences and theories of motivation. Nelson (1993) hypothesizes that students bring numerous perceptions, attitudes, values, and cultural behaviors that contribute to the social contexts of reading and writing. Limited research on the reading and writing relationship of L2 learners has embraced both cognitive and social behavioral themes.

Basham, Ray, and Whalley (1993) conducted a qualitative study of task representation in reading-to-write on students representative of three different cultural backgrounds. The data that were collected from three different universities included: 16

Asian students, 14 Alaskan Native students, and 11 Mexican American students.   All

students were enrolled in ESL composition courses at the three different universities.

Subjects were prescreened and all were proficient English speakers, whose first language

was not English, and for this reason they were required to receive additional assistance

with their writing skills. These researchers posed the following questions: 1) What

strategies do bilingual students utilize when they engage in reading a text for writing

purposes? 2) What are the similarities/differences among the groups' representations? 3)

Do bilingual students engage in different processes than mainstream students?   The

investigators provided specific passages and verbal instructions for the reading and

writing protocols. Subjects' written essays and transcripts of think aloud protocols (tape

recordings of linguistic and rhetorical features) were investigated and analyzed. Basham

et al. (1993) categorized the data according to the differences among groups. They

cautioned that their findings suggest generalizations based on the students' protocols and

not generalizations about the cultural groups themselves.   The findings revealed that

the: Mexican American students tended to orient themselves toward the specific topic,

but seemed to relate and engage in personal opinions/experiences when relating to the

topic, Asian students seem to orient themselves more towards text and expressed a high

value on exact quoting from the assigned text, and Alaskan Native students also seemed

to orient themselves towards the text, but with uncertainties about the task and meaning

of the text. Basham et al. (1993) assert that reading to write tasks require more than

critical thinking. These tasks require an understanding of the "sociocultural framework"

(p.311) within the reading and writing relationship. They suggest that background

knowledge, cultural behaviors, and socialized discourses all influence the reading and writing relationship and that these factors should be considered when working with ESL/ELL students.

The transactional theory by Rosenblatt (1994) in which a reader creates meaning based upon their knowledge base and interaction with the text is similar to Nelson's (1993) contention that writer, reader, and text all merge together to create a social dimension. Grabe (2001) and Basham et al. (1993) suggest that L2 learners bring background knowledge and cultural behaviors into the social context environment when engaging in reading and writing tasks. The evidence suggests that the reading and writing relationship for L2 learners is influenced by social contexts when all these variables come together. Furthermore, Nelson (1993) concludes that what students learn about the reading and writing relationship in their first language transfers over to the second language within the social contextual dimensions.

Transfer Skills Perspectives L2

Hirvela and Belcher (2004) assert that "enabling learners to learn how to access and make effective use of their L1 literacy skills while reading and writing in the L2 is a key element in linking L2 reading and writing constructively" (p.23). Cummins (1979) threshold hypothesis and interdependence hypothesis suggests that students exhibiting stronger academic skills in L1 can facilitate in acquiring the necessary academic skills in L2; therefore, literacy skills in the L1 transfer over into L2 literacy skills. Furthermore,

Cummins (1979) suggests that students with weak literacy skills or nonstrategic skills in L1 often impede the process of transferring skills into L2.

Cummins (1979) conducted a qualitative and quantitative (mixed design) study to examine first language proficiency, English language proficiency, and L1 to L2 transfer of knowledge for 22 Community College subjects enrolled in ESL courses. The subjects were divided into 2 groups: late immigrants (10 years of education in L1) and early immigrants (less than 10 years of education in L1). Subjects were given pre and post tests to measure academic language proficiency, questionnaires (background information), and writing samples (L1 and L2). Cummins' (1979) findings suggested correlations between L1 and L2 proficiency ranged from .60 to .80, indicating that subjects who read well in their L1 were likely to read well in the L2. Furthermore, there were indications of a moderate positive relationship between students' L1 and L2 writing scores. Overall, the late immigrant group made more progress in L2 learning than did the early immigrant group. The conclusion drawn based on the findings reveal those students who received 10 years of education in their native or first language (L1) progressed further in L2 learning.

Carson, Carrell, Silberstein, Knoll, and Kuehn (1990) conducted a study of 105 Japanese and Chinese native speakers to examine the relationship between reading and writing across languages. Carson et al. (1990) examined first and second language reading and writing abilities, and the relationship between reading and writing in L1 and in L2. The results revealed a modest correlation between L1 and L2 reading scores for both Japanese and Chinese subjects. Chinese students' data revealed a low (non-

significant correlation between L1 and L2 writing scores; whereas, there was a positive

correlation between L1 and L2 writing scores for Japanese students. Finally, there was a

modest correlation between L1 reading and writing scores for both groups and a

moderate correlation between L2 reading and writing scores for both groups.

Research on the reading and writing relationship for L2 in the transfer skills area

deviates from traditional research themes of L1.   Evidence suggests that reading and

writing skills in L1 can be transferred into reading and writing skills in L2. However,

not all students who possess proficiency in L1 effectively transfer these skills into L2

instantly. As indicated by previous studies, level of language proficiency, level of

academic proficiency, similarities/differences among languages, and social context

issues are all determining factors that influence the transfer of skills from L1 to L2.

Integrated Approach of Reading-Writing Connections

Various researchers and theorists in the areas of composition, reading, and

psycholinguistics are in agreement with the underlying theory that reading and writing

are interactive processes (Flower, 1979, Rosenblatt, 1994, Bleich, 1975). Diverse

terminology has been used to describe the integrated approach towards reading and

writing where composing meaning emerges from an effective use of language when

readers and writers merge text with experiences through language. Burkland and

Petersen (1986) assert that "the process of composition and the process of reading are

based in a matrix that *composes* meaning as we read, write, and interpret" (p.194).

Tierney and Pearson (1983) suggested that because reading and writing are acts

of composing, they strongly encouraged all educational practitioners to bring an awareness of the functionality of both reading and writing as active composing processes. Kroll (1993) emphasized the importance of making students aware of the concept that written texts students produce are readings and that their knowledge as readers should be applied to help them become better writers. Krashen (1984) posits that "it is reading that gives the writer the feel for the look and texture of reader-based prose" (p. 39). Krashen's (1984) competence/performance theory suggests that students gain knowledge of writing by exposure to form (conventions of writing) through reading. Reading instructional materials centered on meaningful reading activities that provide opportunities for meaningful exposure to writing will facilitate learning in writing, with an emphasis on L2 language learners who may have limited experiences with reading in the target language (English).

The research provided described historically how reading and writing have merged and have transformed over the past two decades. Empirical research findings have led researchers to recognize the existence of a relationship between reading and writing. This relationship has evolved around various themes and has prompted further investigations for the ESL/ELL population due to the lack of sufficient research and the growing number of ELL students in academic institutions.

Models of Reading-Writing Relations

The reading-writing relationship for L1 and L2 students has been reviewed, but the functionality of this relationship has been approached differently by researchers and practitioners. Eisterhold (1990) posits an interrelated model of the reading-writing relationship which is applicable to both L1 and L2 students. Eisterhold (1990) suggests three possible models for reading-writing relationships for L1 and L2 individuals. directional model, nondirectional model, and bidirectional model. The directional model in the reading-writing relationship refers to the transfer of skills and information that occurs in one direction, for example, from reading to writing or from writing to reading.   The nondirectional model suggests that the transfer of skills and information occurs in both directions, for example because the cognitive processes of constructing meaning are similar in reading and writing then improvement in one area results in improvement in the other. The bidirectional model suggests that both reading and writing are interdependent, whereas, reading is writing and writing is reading. The assertion is that proficiency in one area affects the other area, but that development occurs at various degrees and stages. Eisterhold's (1990) models are reflective of the diversity of research previously reviewed. For purposes of this study, the directional model was assumed: that rhetorical reading intervention would directly affect writing as well as reading performances.

Process Writing with L1 and L2 Individuals

Emig's (1971) *The Composing Processes of Twelfth Graders* is considered

milestone research in the writing process approach with L1 individuals. Emig's (1971)

qualitative research investigated the cognitive composing process of writing utilizing

12th grade students and professors as part of her case study. A variety of methods were

employed to collect data including, interviews, think aloud protocols, observations, and

written products. The study reported that students were constantly engaged in processes

of creating meaning in communicating their thoughts when engaged in the writing

process. Furthermore, student behavior from the data reported that writing was not a

linear process, but instead non-linear composing process. Emig's (1971) research

contributed new insights into questions that could be asked about writing as a process

and add to the knowledge obtained by analysis of written products.

Flower and Hayes (1980, 1981) (L1) further elaborated on Emig's (1971)

research by establishing a cognitive theory of writing. They utilized think-aloud

protocols as a form of investigating how students recognized the mechanisms of

memory, planning, and translating thoughts into text. Flower and Hayes (1980)

identified three major processes as part of their cognitive theory model: planning,

translating, and reviewing.

Limited research has evolved in the writing process of L2 students (Zamel, 1983;

Raimes, 1985). Zamel (1983) conducted a study in which she compared composing

processes of skilled writers of L1 with the composing processes of ESL writers. The case

study investigation included six participants representative of five different language

backgrounds. The participants were ESL University students enrolled in composition courses; they included highly skilled and unskilled ESL writers. Zamel (1983) identified pre-writing, planning, writing, and revising as characteristics of the composing processes of L1 skilled writers. Reported findings suggested that all ESL participants, skilled or unskilled writers, recognized the various actions of the composing process which were reflective of the characteristics of the composing processes of L1 skilled writers. However, highly skilled ESL writers not only recognized the processes, but were more effective in engaging in all characteristics of the composing process of L1 skilled writers, as opposed to unskilled writers. Some unskilled writers, voiced frustrations with their inabilities to communicate or find the appropriate words to convey their messages and could verbalize the importance of a plan, but encountered problems with constructing a plan. Zamel (1983) asserts that while all ESL participants appeared to identify with the composing processes of L1 skilled writers; highly skilled ESL writers were more effective in the application of the composing processes than unskilled ESL writers.

Raimes (1985) conducted a similar study of eight unskilled ESL students to determine if these students engaged in the same processes as skilled L1 writers. She utilized think-aloud protocols in her collection of data. Raimes' (1985) findings suggested that all unskilled ESL writers appeared to write, review, and revisit their writing rather than focus on specific errors. Raimes (1985) also discovered that unskilled ESL writers required assistance and more time to engage in the composing process.

The studies described seem to suggest similarities between L1 writing processes and L2 writing processes. Empirical evidence suggests that reading and writing are meaning composing processes (Emig, 1971; Tierney and Pearson, 1983). Clearly the aspect of discovery or creating meaning through reading and writing processes is significant to the reading-writing connection. Emphasizing both processes as acts of composing (reading-writing connection) by incorporating various instructional practices is important to the development in both areas. The significance of incorporating reading practices into composition classes does not in any way deflect from the importance of writing, but rather based on research evidence provided of the reading and writing connection, it facilitates the teaching of these acts of composing.

Pedagogical Approach to Teaching Reading-Writing Connections

Several research studies included in this review of literature reported that L1 and L2 are reflective of the directional model, that is, the effects of reading on writing (Flower et al., 1990; Janopoulos, 1986; Flahive and Bailey, 1993; Tsang, 1996). Extensive reading practices, direct or indirect reading instruction, reader response activities, and reading literature for writing purposes are all examples of pedagogical approaches that have been utilized to facilitate the writing process. Bartholomae (2002) and Kroll (1993) agree that reading a text is not about reading for context or for fixed information, but rather what can be said about a text and choices that writers make in the process of creating this text. Kroll (1993) asserts that "writing teachers need to

understand how to train their students in reading a text rhetorically, because this is a process that promotes the integration of reading and writing" (p. 71-72).

The current study is focused on the concept that Haas and Flowers (1988) refer to as "knowledge getting" and "knowledge telling/knowledge transforming." "Knowledge getting" refers to comprehending and obtaining knowledge from reading. "Knowledge telling/knowledge transforming" refers to transforming that information from reading into writing for meaningful purposes (critical thinking), as opposed to simply getting information. Haas and Flower (1988) assert that "knowledge transforming" moves students beyond the simple task of getting information from a text. They suggest that teaching students how to analyze rhetorical situations/reading for rhetorical purposes builds a level of connectivity between both knowledge telling and transforming and allows students to gain knowledge of writing through their reading. Haas and Flowers (1988) refer to rhetorical strategies as activities that require students to read a text and understand the author's purpose, effects, motivations, and furthermore, infer/predicate the rhetorical situation of the text. Haas and Flowers (1988) describe this pedagogical approach of rhetorical strategies as "seeing reading as a constructive act encourages us as teachers to move from merely teaching texts to teaching readers" (p. 169). They suggest that while this plays a significant role for L1, that L2 would benefit because of the exposure to L2 reading and print. From a pedagogical perspective, rhetorically based reading and writing instruction teaches and brings awareness to the reading and writing connection and how both are composing processes.

Hairston (1986) suggests that often times writing courses focus extensively on end written products rather than on the process of how the written product was produced. Hairston (1986) suggests that instructional practices that teach students to read rhetorically can facilitate in the teaching of composing processes to students. She asserts that too often literature is incorporated into composition classes without meaningful purposes outside of the idea of reading. Hairston (1986) recommends guidelines for using nonfiction literature in composition classrooms along with reading rhetorical strategies that emphasize how discussions in classrooms should focus on the process of writing and how a work was created, as opposed to the finished written product.

Bartholomae's (2002) article "Teaching Basic Writing: An Alternative to Basic Skills" describes the curriculum that he incorporates into his basic reading and writing courses at the University of Pittsburg. He supports pedagogy that integrates the teaching of composition where "we are not concerned with decoding, with questions about what a text said, but with what one could say about a text and with what could be said about any individual act of saying" (p. 44). The philosophy behind this approach is that teaching reading is teaching invention, which is important to the development of writing.

The information presented describes the basic empirical support and the theoretical framework in forming this quantitative study. The literature review has provided a basic understanding of the development and themes surrounding the reading and writing connections of L1 and L2. The review has also provided insights into the writing process and pedagogical implications of combining both reading and writing

processes as interrelated. The following study examined the effects of rhetorical reading

interventions as a method of interrelating both reading and writing processes.

CHAPTER III

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

Overview of the Study

This study employed a quasi-experimental comparison and treatment group post test and repeated measures design. It included four composition classes that were stratified, matched and assigned to either a comparison or treatment group based on preliminary reading and writing performance scores. Subjects were provided a consent form and asked to voluntarily participate in the study. All potential subjects were informed that participation or non-participation in the study would not affect their course status or final course grade. While the participants were informed of the study, they were unaware as to whether they were members of the comparison or treatment groups. They were also not informed about the purpose of the study.

The study subjects were students enrolled in 4 English 1301 composition classes at a four year regional public university. Each class met 2 days a week for an hour and 15 minutes during a 16 week semester. The independent variable in this study was the rhetorical reading intervention. Participants in the comparison group followed the traditional department approved course syllabus for English 1301 with an additional 8 assigned readings. The treatment group participants followed the same required course syllabus for English 1301 with the addition of 8 assigned readings and rhetorical reading interventions. The rhetorical reading strategies implemented focused on constructing awareness of an author's purpose, context, and effect on audience; strategies that focused on the process by which a text was written (Hairston, 1986). Participants in the

comparison and treatment groups were assigned the same 8 short readings over the course of the 16 week semester. The comparison group was asked to respond to each selected reading through journal reflections that followed each reading. The treatment group received the 8 weekly interventions consisting of explicit instructions and guidelines on reading rhetorically. Subjects were asked to respond through informal writing to the guidelines provided.

Measures of the dependant variables included: student reading and writing connection surveys, the Accuplacer Reading Test, and student generated essays. All instruments were administered at the beginning and at the completion of the semester to ELL and dominant English subjects. The data reported on all dependant variables were analyzed by employing various inferential statistical procedures.

Research Questions

The purpose of this study was to determine the impact of rhetorical reading interventions on college aged ELL and dominant English students' perceptions of their reading-writing connections, their reading performances as measured by the Accuplacer Reading Test, and their writing performances as measured by the holistic rubric. The study seeks to answer the following questions:

1. Are there differences between the comparison and rhetorical reading intervention groups in the degree of change in perceptions of the reading-writing connections as indicated by the nature and frequency of responses on pre-post reading-writing connection surveys?

2. Are there differential intervention effects, as indicated by the differences between pre and post reading-writing connection surveys, upon the perceived reading-writing connections for ELL and dominant English speaking subjects in the comparison and rhetorical reading treatment groups?

3. Are there differences between the post intervention reading performances (Reading Accuplacer Test score) attained by the comparison and the rhetorical reading treatment groups?

4. Are there differential intervention effects upon reading performances of ELL and dominant English speaking subjects within and between the comparison and the rhetorical reading treatment groups as indicated by the differences between pre to post Reading Accuplacer Test scores?

5. Are there differences between the post intervention writing performances (holistically scored written essays) attained by the comparison and the rhetorical reading treatment groups?

6. Are there differential intervention effects upon the writing performances of ELL and dominant English speaking subjects within and between the comparison and the rhetorical reading treatment groups as indicated by the differences between pre to post holistic writing performance scores?

Setting of the Study

This study was conducted at an institution of higher education in South Texas. According to the *US Census Bureau Report* in July 2006, the population of the city in which the study was conducted was an estimated 233,152. A *US Census Bureau Report Survey* conducted in 2000 reported that 92% of the city residents spoke a language other than English at home. The population is reflective of a bicultural and biliterate community of Spanish and English speakers.

Within this institution of higher education, the composition curriculum is designed to fulfill the basic minimum writing requirements of all college students enrolled in any degree program. The writing curriculum consists of two composition courses English 1301 and English 1302. College students enrolled in English 1301 composition courses were the primary focus of this study. English 1301 students involved in this study were representative of all students enrolled in English 1301 and inclusive of both dominant English speakers and English Language Learners (ELL).

Examiners

Two English 1301 instructors volunteered to participate in the study. One full time faculty instructor had 29 years of combined teaching experience including public schools, community college, and university levels. The second faculty member had 8 years of teaching experience at the university level. Each faculty member administered instruction for one class section of a treatment group and one class section of a comparison group as a means of counter balancing or controlling for examiner effect. Two training sessions were conducted for the instructors to explain both instructional

approaches and to provide specific guidelines to implement for each individual class section. The purpose of the study, research questions, and the treatment and comparison group information was not disclosed to the instructors as a means of controlling individual biases for or against the instructional procedures implemented for each group.

Subjects

During the fall semester, four sections of English 1301 Composition courses were selected from a total of 28 English 1301 Composition course offerings in a stratified random manner. The four composition courses were stratified on the basis of holistically graded writing performance scores on student generated essays submitted at the beginning of the study. The four courses were then paired based on similarities in writing performance scores. The groups were identified as C for comparison groups and T for treatment groups. At the inception of the study there were a total of 81 subjects. Due to attrition, there were 74 participants remaining at the conclusion of the study. A total of 7 students had withdrawn from their respective courses due to various academic or personal reasons. Of the 7 students who withdrew from their respective courses, 4 subjects withdrew from the comparison group and 3 subjects withdrew from the treatment group. The 4 participants withdrawing from the comparison group included 2 ELL subjects and 2 dominant English speakers. Of the 3 participants withdrawing from the treatment group, 2 were classified as ELL and 1 was classified as a dominant English speaker. It should be noted that data from all 81 participants who began the study were used for the assignment of classes to the treatment or comparison groups. However,

only the 74 participants, who completed the courses, completed all surveys, assignments, and written essays were included in any subsequent data analysis.

Language Survey

A language survey was administered to determine students' native language (Appendix A) at the inception of the study. The survey instrument provided student information including: native language, primary functional language, language practices, and educational background in respect to language practices. The survey responses were quantified accordingly using the following criteria. Subjects that meet all of the following criteria were grouped as ELL students: 1) native language Spanish 2) primary language of communication Spanish 3) immigrants, 1st or 2nd generation immigrants 4) received at least 1 year or more of schooling in Mexico and 5) received at least 1 year or more of ESL/ Bilingual classes in American schools. Subjects not meeting all criterion listed above were sub grouped as dominant English speakers. Once baseline measures were implemented and subjects were assigned to comparison and treatment groups, they were also sub grouped as ELL or dominant English speakers based on language survey outcomes. Of the 74 subjects completing the study, 38 were identified as ELL (51% participants) while 36 subjects were identified as dominant English speakers (49% participants). The treatment group was comprised of 19 ELL and 20 dominant English participants and the comparison group was comprised of 19 ELL and 16 dominant English participants respectively (see Table 1).

Table 1. Language Survey Respondents Sub Grouped

Classes	ELL	English
(C1)	11(52%)	10 (48%)
(T1)	8 (50%)	8 (50%)
(T2)	11(48%)	12 (52%)
(C2)	8 (57%)	6 (43%)
Total N=74	N=38 (51%)	N=36 (49%)

C= Comparison Group Participants

T=Treatment Group Participants

Because the students could not be randomly selected and assigned, and intact classes were used, two baseline measures were applied to determine the degree of individual differences or similarities among writing and reading ability levels between the participants assigned to comparison and treatment conditions enrolled in the four English Composition courses. The writing performance baseline measure was a student generated essay addressing a specific prompt.   The reading performance baseline measure was the Accuplacer Reading test which was used to measure the areas of Reading Comprehension.

Student Essays

Participants in both groups were required to complete a pre and post essay. Subjects in treatment and comparison groups were administered the same pre writing prompt at the beginning of the semester and both groups were provided the same post writing prompt at the end of the study. The pre writing essay prompts invited

participants to reflect on and describe their writing experiences and processes. The post

essay prompt asked participants to reflect on their writing process throughout the

semester with the additional context of the reading component. Rubrics were used to

holistically grade the essays which served as quantitative measures of participants'

overall writing performance for the comparison of treatment and comparison groups.

Pre-Writing Prompt

As an incoming college freshman enrolled in a writing course, what do you see
as your strengths as a writer and what do you assess as your weaknesses? What do you
look forward to learning in a writing course, and what are your concerns? What areas of
writing would you like to specifically address? Use these questions to form a thesis, and
answer as many as you believe apply to you. Formulate brainstorming/outline
techniques previously learned and revise before turning in essay. 550-650 words

Post-Writing Prompt

Reflect on the essay by Kurt Vonnegut (pgs. 66-70) "How to Write with Style" -
Mercury Reader. Write a logically, unified, and coherent essay between 550-650 words
in length. Generate a brief brainstorming/clustering outline, including a thesis statement
and organize your information accordingly. Be sure to edit for clarity, logical
organization, and grammatical errors before turning in final draft. Respond to the
following essay questions:

Essay Question**:**
1) Briefly summarize and analyze the essay "How to Write with Style" by Vonnegut
2) Discuss elements of the writing process from the reading selection that reflect on your
development of the writing process
3) Briefly discuss your experiences with reading and writing processes throughout the
semester

All essays were submitted in electronic and hard copy format. All participants

were registered under the web-based learning system *E-Learning* when they enrolled in

the course. Participants were provided instructions on how to gain access and navigate

through the on-line system. All pre and post essays were electronically submitted by participants using this on-line system. The researcher gathered the data and assigned codes for treatment and comparison groups upon entering the data for statistical analysis. Hard copy forms of the essays were also collected from the students in the event that technological errors occurred.

A rubric was used by the examiners to score all essays. The pre and post writing samples were holistically graded utilizing a rubric focused on the following areas: Focus, Organization and Development, Style and Sentence Structure, and Grammar and Mechanics (Appendix E).

The two examiners scored a sub-set of essays, prior to the beginning of the study, to establish consensus in scoring in using a holistic scoring rubric instrument. The sub-set of essays included a class set of 25 student sample essays from a collection of student portfolios from previous English composition courses. Both examiners had prior experience in utilizing the rubric, but were provided a review session on how to apply the holistic scoring rubric and they agreed to analyze and discuss any discrepancies and scoring differences in order to reach a consensus. The examiners that evaluated the sub-set of essays were consistent in their scoring at an inter-rater reliability of $r = .80$ (20 out 25). On the five essays where the examiners did not agree on the final score, no consistent pattern of scoring higher or lower was evident for either examiner. Both examiners discussed their reasoning for scoring the essays, identified the differences between their scores, and came to a consensus score for each essay upon reviewing the scoring rubric.

Accuplacer Reading Test

The reading baseline measure was the Accuplacer Reading Test which measured participants' basic reading comprehension skills. The Accuplacer System includes a variety of college entrance exams; however, for purposes of this study only the Reading Comprehension Test was utilized. The test provided by the College Entrance Examination Board is used to determine appropriate course placement for college students, to determine whether or not remedial work is needed, and to track student progress for future course recommendations. The computerized adaptive technology of this on-line exam allows for accurate and efficient measurements of students' knowledge and skills due to the selection of specific test questions suited for each test taker. The computerized adaptive testing system selects and provides test items to examinees based on proficiency. The Reading Comprehension test presents a series of 20 questions in two different formats that address the areas of reading comprehension (70%) and sentence relationships (30%). The first format consists of a combination of long and short reading passages that reflect main ideas, direct and secondary ideas, inferences, and applications. The second format consists of two sentences followed by a question about the relationship between the sentences. The College Entrance Examination Board (2003) conducted comprehensive analyses on the reliability of the Accuplacer which was internally consistent at $r = 0.87$. Criterion-related and construct validity coefficients were at or above $r = .60$ which provided support for the use of Accuplacer scores for placement decisions.

Reading-Writing Connection Survey

Tierney and Shanahan (1991), Hirvela and Belcher (2004), and Stotsky (1983) describe reading-writing connections as beliefs and characteristics in a field of research that examine how reading and writing connections interact and share similar processes in the construction of meaning and how instruction or improvement in reading influences or facilitates improvement in writing performance and vice versa. At the beginning of the study all participants completed a pre reading-writing connection survey (Appendix B) that consisted of 15 questions as a means of assessing or measuring how students perceived the reading process and the writing process and whether they understood how and if reading-writing are connected. At the conclusion of the study a post reading-writing connection survey that consisted of 20 questions was administered to students (Appendix C). Questions (1-15) were equivalent for both pre and post surveys; however, an additional 5 questions were added to the post survey to determine students' perceptions on the addition of reading into a writing course.

The 15 questions examined connections, disconnections, similarities or differences between reading and writing processes, and whether reading influences writing or vice versa. Surveys were analyzed and then classified into one of three categories based on participant responses: 1) connection 2) some degree of evidence of connection 3) no evidence of a connection present. Respondents categorized under 1) connection, responded with a clear understanding of how reading and writing are connected provided a response to 6 or more questions reflecting an awareness of the connection between reading and writing. Respondents categorized under 2) some

degree of evidence of a connection, reflected some understanding of a connection, but not exhibiting a fully clear understanding of reading and writing responded to 3 to 5 questions in a way that indicated an awareness of a reading-writing connection. Respondents categorized as 3) no evidence of a connection, responded with limited or no knowledge of understanding that reading and writing are connected or how each process functions or influences one another and provided fewer than 3 responses that indicated an awareness of the connection between reading and writing. The surveys were disseminated by the examiners in their respective courses and then analyzed by the researcher.

Sampling Procedures: Writing Performance

Intact classes were used in this study and because random selection and random assignment of individual subjects was not possible, the comparability of the comparison and treatment groups relative to the dependant variables in the study was established. In an effect to establish equivalence of the comparison and treatment group participants, the 81 participants were baseline tested measuring their writing abilities and their reading abilities. Independent t- tests were conducted to compare the means of treatment (2 classes combined) to comparison group subjects (2 classes combined). Comparison group participants (N=39) attained a $M=1.72$ with a $SD=1.33$ and treatment group participants (N=42) attained a $M=1.93$ with a $SD=$ of 1.93. The computed t-test $t (79)=.75, p> .05$ revealed no significant differences in writing performances of the comparison and treatment groups at the beginning of the study. Based on this finding,

the two groups were interpreted to be comparable or equivalent in their writing

performance levels based on the holistic scoring of their pre writing performances.

ANOVA tests were also computed for purposes of determining degrees of

similarities and or differences between participants enrolled in each of the four classes.

Student data were coded based on group assignment and numerically (C1; T1; T2; C2)

for confidentiality purposes and were analyzed utilizing SPSS software. The means,

standard deviations, degrees of freedom, and F values are reported (see Table 2).

ANOVA results $F_{(3, 77)}=10.84$, $p<.05$ suggests differences in writing performance scores

among the four classes.

Table 2. ANOVA Pre-Writing Performance Scores

Group	Writing	Std. Deviation
C1	1.33	1.47
T1	1.00	1.18
T2	2.63	.50
C2	2.33	.81

	SS	df	Mean Square	F
Between groups	37.28	3	12.40	10.84*
Within groups	88.30	77	1.14	
Total	125.58	80		

p<.05

A TUKEY test of multiple comparisons was computed to determine which of the

four classes were different from each other on the baseline writing measure

(see Table 3). The writing performance scores showed that C1 and T1 shared a small

MD of .333 with a Sig. Level of .751 which suggests they were closer in writing levels

in comparison to Groups T2 and C2. Groups T2 and C2 share a small *MD* of .292 with a

Sig. level of .841 which suggests they were closer in writing level abilities in

comparison to Groups C1 and T1. The primary focus of the study was to determine

whether students writing abilities were affected by rhetorical reading interventions and

for these purposes the writing scores were used as the primary baseline measure for

treatment and comparison group assignments. Based on the results participants in Group

T1, the lowest scoring group was assigned as a treatment group and Group C1, which is

similar in abilities, was assigned as a comparison group. Group T2, the highest scoring

group, was assigned a treatment group and Group C2, which was similar, was assigned

as a comparison group. The 2 similar ability groups have a treatment and comparison

group within each group, (C1) (T1), and (T2) (C2) and the TUKEY analysis provides

justification for the assigned groups.

TABLE 3. TUKEY Analysis of Pre-Writing Performance Scores

Groups		Mean Difference	Sig. Level
(C1)	(T1)	.333	.751
	(T2)	1.29	.000
	(C2)	1.00	.029
(T1)	(C1)	.333	.751
	(T2)	1.63	.000
	(C2)	1.33	.003
(T2)	(C1)	1.30	.000
	(T1)	1.63	.000
	(C2)	.292	.841
(C2)	(C1)	1.00	.029
	(T1)	1.33	.003
	(T2)	.292	.841

Sampling Procedures: Reading Performance

The scores on the Accuplacer Reading Test completed at the beginning of the semester were utilized as baseline measures of reading used as dependant variables in the current study. Independent t- tests were employed to compare the rhetorical reading treatment (2 classes combined) to the comparison group (2 classes combined). The comparison group consisted of 39 participants that attained a $M=72.64$ with a $SD=17.67$. The treatment group consisted of 42 participants that attained a $M= 73.12$ with a $SD= 17.30$. The computed $t\ (79)=.12, p> .05$ reveals no significant differences in

reading performance between the comparison and treatment groups at the beginning of the study.

For purposes of this investigative study, it was determined that the two groups were equivalent in reading performances. To further analyze the comparability of the four classes an ANOVA was computed. Table 4 provides descriptive data, means, standard deviations, degrees of freedom, and *F* values. The results $F_{(3,77)}=1.85, p>.05$ suggests no significant differences in reading scores among the four composition classes. It should be noted that Group T2 which yielded the highest mean in writing also scored the highest $M= 77.71$ in Reading Comprehension. Group T1 which yielded the lowest mean in writing also scored the lowest $M=67.00$ in reading scores. Group C1 which ranked 3rd in writing performance had a $M= 75.29$ in Reading Comprehension which was the second highest group. Group C2 scored a $M= 68.40$ which ranked 3rd in reading, but was the second highest group in writing performance scores.

Table 4. ANOVA Pre-Reading Performance Scores

Group	Reading	Std. Deviation
C1	75.29	16.71
T1	67.00	19.60
T2	77.71	14.07
C2	68.40	18.90

	SS	df	Mean Square	F
Between groups	1622.48	3	540.83	1.85*
Within groups	22501.52	77	292.23	
Total	24124.00	80		

*$p>.05$

Selected Readings

Classes in the comparison group followed the required course syllabus for

English 1301 with an additional 8 selected readings. The treatment group followed the

same required course syllabus for English 1301 with an additional 8 selected readings

and rhetorical reading interventions. The course calendar provided the pre-determined

weeks for the assigned readings during the 16 week semester. Participants in the

comparison and treatment groups were assigned each of the same 8 short readings,

during the same week, within the 16 week semester. The readings are part of the

supplemental text *Mercury Reader* (Pearson Publishing- General Editors Include: Janice

Neuleib, Kathleen Cain, and Stephen Ruffus) that is required for the course. The selected

readings were reflective and inclusive of issues addressing racism, diversity, literacy,

poverty, and internal and external conflicts.   The rationale behind the selected readings

was to engage students in readings that were meaningful and readings that allowed them

opportunities to explore issues or topics from various perspectives.   The selected

readings included a collection of short essays, narratives, and short stories reflective of

fiction and nonfiction literature:

Assigned Reading #1- Week 3- "Spanglish"- Castro & Cook pg.113

Assigned Reading #2- Week 4- "The Human Cost of an Illiterate Society" – Kozol pg.80

Assigned Reading #3- Week 6- "The Myth of a Latin Woman"- Ortiz Cofer pg. 263

Assigned Reading#4- Week 8- "A Homemade Education"- Malcolm X pg. 16

Assigned Reading #5- Week 10- "A Modest Proposal"- Swift pg. 325

Assigned Reading #6- Week 12- "Mother Tongue"- Tan pg. 201

Assigned Reading #7- Week 14- "Gay"- Quindlen pg. 386

Assigned Reading #8- Week 15- "Let's Just Admit that Iraq was a Disaster"-Liddle

pg. 374

Comparison Group

The comparison group participants read and responded to each selected reading

through eight journal reflections. Participants did not receive explicit instructions on

what to write about, but rather were prompted with ideas that allowed the participants to

decide for themselves, the only criteria was that it be reflective of the reading in one

form or another. The comparison groups were provided with a series of questions that focused on comprehension, understanding, and personal response as options for guiding their journal writing:

1. Summarize the selected reading.
2. What is the message/moral of the selection?
3. Do you agree with the author's message?
4. Do you disagree with the author's message?
5. What is your personal view on the selected reading?

Rhetorical Reading Treatment Group

The treatment group received the 8 week intervention of explicit instructions and guidelines on reading rhetorically. The intervention procedures were repeated during each assigned reading for each of the 8 readings. Participants in the treatment group responded to the readings through informal written responses specifically based on the guidelines provided. The reading rhetorically intervention provided students opportunities to read like a writer and to put into practice how reading and writing are similar composing processes. The intervention provided explicit instructional guidelines and required students to address each of the eight questions in their responses.

1. What prompted the author to write this essay/selected reading?
2. What problem is addressed here? Is there an issue or area of concern?
3. Who is the audience the writer is trying to reach or influence?
4. What questions does the audience have that they would expect the writer to respond to?
5. What is the writer's intention or action that the writer hopes to invoke?
6. Describe and analyze the techniques the writer uses to influence or communicate their message?
7. Does this work answer the reader's questions and does it respond to a problem or purpose? Does this work change or influence your opinion in any way?
8. Why do you think it works or does not work?
(Hairston, 1986)

Observations

Observations were conducted for both the treatment and comparison groups throughout the 16 week semester. Classes met 2 days a week (T/TH) for 1 hour and 15 minutes. Control for examiner effect and fidelity of interventions, included unannounced classroom observations of 35-40 minutes of both comparison and treatment groups.   Observations of groups engaged in discussions over assigned readings, selection of approaches for journal writings, and rhetorical reading guideline responses were digitally recorded. A Sony ICD-P620 audio recorder recorded the instruction and discussions that occurred during the unannounced visits. The primary purpose of the observations was rendered as a means of checking for fidelity of treatment and implementation for both comparison and treatment groups.

Data Analysis

The purpose of data analysis was to bring together all collected data and organize, catalog, and provide meaning to the information collected throughout the duration of the study. Independent sample t-tests were calculated to determine comparability of reading and writing performances between comparison and treatment groups at the beginning of the study. Another baseline measure of writing and reading performance scores were conducted by utilizing ANOVA to compare the four classes at the beginning of the study. The research questions are addressed in the following chapter based on the statistical analyses that were employed: Chi- square analyses were

computed to analyze the categorical data on the survey indicating any changes in reading-writing connections of the comparison and the treatment group, independent t-test to compare the post score performances of comparison and treatment groups at the completion of the study, a 2(pre-post) x2 (comparison-treatment) x2 (ELL-ENG). Analysis of variance with repeated measures on one factor was used to analyze main effects and interaction among these variables.

CHAPTER IV

RESULTS

This chapter examines the data collected to measure the effects of rhetorical

reading interventions on the perceptions of reading-writing connections, the

performances on the Accuplacer Reading Test, and on the holistically graded writing

performances of all subjects in the comparison and the treatment groups, as well as the

ELL and dominant English speakers within these groups of college composition

students.   The findings are reported as outlined in this quasi-experimental design and in

accordance with the research questions proposed.

Comparison and Treatment Pre-Reading-Writing Connection Survey

Are there differences between the comparison group and the treatment group in the

degree of change in perceptions of the reading-writing connections as indicated by the

nature and frequency of responses on pre-post reading-writing connection surveys?

At the beginning of the study, a survey was administered to 39 participants in the

comparison group and 42 participants in the treatment group. Due to course attrition, 35

participants remained in the comparison group and 39 remained in the treatment group,

respectively. Chi-Square statistics were applied to compare the categorical data of the

comparison and treatment groups on the reading-writing connection survey. Comparison

group participants included 16 subjects that identified a connection, 12 subjects that

identified some evidence of a connection, and 7 subjects that identified no connection.

In the treatment group,   9 subjects identified a connection, 8 respondents that identified

some evidence of a connection; whereas, 22 subjects provided no evidence of any type

of connection between reading-writing. Chi-Square analysis x^2 (2, 74) = 10.3, $p<.05$

reported significant differences between comparison and treatment groups at the

beginning of the study. Overall, comparison group participants displayed higher levels

of reading-writing connectivity than treatment group participants at the inception of the

study (see Table 5).

Table 5. Comparison and Treatment Group Pre-Reading-Writing Connection Survey

	Comparison	Treatment
Connection	16	9
Some Evidence of Connection	12	8
No Connection	7	22
Total	35	39

x^2 (2, N=74) = 10.3, $p<.05$

Comparison and Treatment Post-Reading-Writing Connection Survey

The post intervention reading-writing connection survey administered to

comparison group respondents revealed that 19 subjects identified a connection, 13

subjects identified some evidence of a connection; whereas, 3 subjects provided no

evidence of a connection. The treatment group post reading-writing connection survey

results revealed that 15 subjects identified a connection, 13 subjects revealed some

evidence of a reading-writing connection, and 11 subjects revealed no evidence of a

reading-writing connection. A Chi-Square analysis x^2 (2, 74) = 4.8, $p>.05$ revealed no

significant differences between the comparison and treatment groups on the post

investigation survey. Overall, comparison group participants displayed similar levels of

connectivity with treatment group participants at the completion of the study. Subjects

in the treatment group pre to post intervention survey exhibited noteworthy increases

which resulted in statistically equivalent or similar levels of connectivity at the

conclusion of the study. Treatment group pre to post subjects increased from 9 to 15 in

identifying a connection and from 8 to 13 subjects identifying some evidence of a

connection between reading and writing. Notably, changes between pre-post surveys

where 22 subjects revealed no evidence of a connection at the beginning of the study this

number decreased to 11 subjects by the end of the study. The data suggests treatment

group participants that received rhetorical reading interventions had an effective change

on increasing the perceived reading-writing connections of participants (see Table 6).

Table 6. Comparison and Treatment Group Post-Reading-Writing Connection Survey

	Comparison	Treatment
Connection	19	15
Some Evidence of Connection	13	13
No Connection	3	11
Total	35	39

x^2 (2, N=74) = 4.8, *p>.05*

Sub Groups Reading-Writing Connection Survey

Are there differential intervention effects as indicated by the differences between pre and post reading-writing connection surveys upon the perceived reading-writing connections for ELL and dominant English speakers in the comparison and rhetorical reading treatment groups?

At the beginning of the study, a Chi-Square analysis x^2 (2, 35) = .13, p>.05 reported no significant differences between ELL and ENG comparison group participants. Comparison subjects in both sub groups were similar in perceived levels of recognizing a reading-writing connection. A Chi-Square analysis x^2 (2, 35) = .82, p>.05 of survey data collected at conclusion of the study once again revealed no significant differences between ELL and ENG comparison group participants reading-writing connections. The data presented in Table 7 indicates that ELL and ENG comparison subjects were comparable in their levels of perceived reading-writing connections. At the beginning as well as at the end of the study, both groups were equivalent in their pre to post perceptions and both exhibited small increases in levels of reading-writing connections (see Table 7).

Table 7. ELL and ENG Comparison Group Reading-Writing Connection Survey Results

Comparison Groups	ELL		ENG	
	Pre	Post	Pre	Post
Connection	9	10	7	9
Some Evidence of Connection	6	8	6	5
No Connection	4	1	3	2
Total		19		16

ELL- ENG Pre Comparison Survey= $x^2 (2, 35) = .13, p>.05$
ELL- ENG Post Comparison Survey= $x^2 (2, 35) =.82, p>.05$

At the beginning of the study, treatment group ELL and ENG subjects were nonequivalent in their perceived reading-writing connections. A Chi-Square test, $x^2 (2, 39) = 6.2$, p<.05 revealed differences between ELL and ENG treatment subjects in the treatment group. It appears that the dominant English subjects demonstrated higher levels of reading-writing connectivity than ELL subjects. At the conclusion of the study, however, the Chi-Square analysis $x^2 (2, 39) = 3.9$, p>.05 revealed no significant differences between ELL and ENG treatment group participants at the completion of the semester. It appears that after the intervention, both the ELL and ENG sub groups demonstrated comparable levels of perceived connectivity on the survey. While both groups reflected a higher level of perceived reading-writing connections, ELL subjects apparently changed their perceptions to a greater extent resulting in no significant differences from the dominant English group at the end of the study (see Table 8).

Table 8. ELL and ENG Treatment Group Reading-Writing Connection Survey Results

Treatment Groups	ELL		ENG	
	Pre	Post	Pre	Post
Connection	4	5	5	10
Some Evidence of Connection	1	6	7	7
No Connection	14	8	8	3
Total		19		20

ELL-ENG Pre Treatment Survey= x^2 *(2, 39) = 6.2, p<.05*
ELL-ENG Post Treatment Survey= x^2 *(2, 39) = 3.9, p>.05*

Comparison and Treatment Group Accuplacer Reading Test Scores

Are there differences between the post intervention reading performances (Reading Accuplacer Test score) attained by the comparison and the rhetorical reading treatment groups?

An independent t-test was conducted to examine the comparison and treatment group post reading scores. The comparison group at inception scored a $M=72.89$ with a $SD=16.15$ and post test performance resulted in $M=73.06$ with a $SD=15.79$. The observed change in the mean score from pre-test to post-test was 0 .17. Participants in the comparison group did not change significantly from the beginning to the end of the study. The treatment group attained a pre-test M= 73.38 with a $SD=16.80$. On the post test, the mean score was a $M=82.54$ with a $SD=13.65$ for the treatment group (see Table 9). The observed change in the mean score from pre to post test performance for treatment group participants was 9.16. Results of the t-test revealed

t (72) = 2.77, p<.05. The 95% CI further reflects the differences in the degree of change

between pre-post means of the comparison and the treatment groups (see Figure 1).

Table 9. Comparison and Treatment Group Accuplacer Reading Test Scores

Comparison Group

Accuplacer Test	N	Mean	Std. Deviation
Pre- Reading	35	72.89	16.15
Post-Reading	35	73.06	15.79

Treatment Group

Accuplacer Test	N	Mean	Std. Deviation
Pre- Reading	39	73.38	16.80
Post-Reading	39	82.54	13.65

t (72) = 2.77, p<.05

95% Confidence Interval for Pre-Post Comparison-Treatment Reading

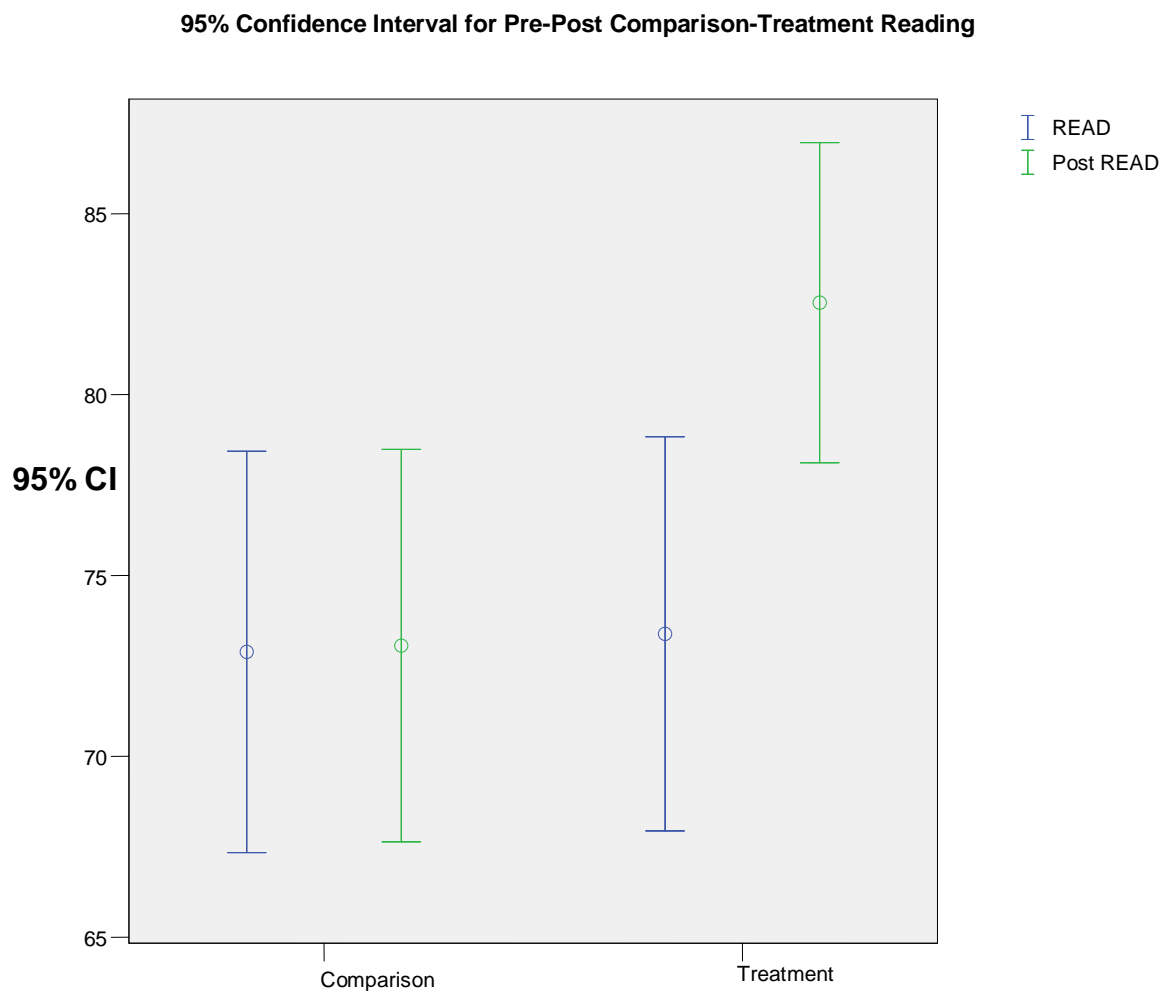Figure 1. Pre-Post Comparison and Treatment Accuplacer Reading Scores

A within groups repeated measures ANOVA test yielded a main effect for pre-post reading performance scores across groups, $F_{(1,70)} = 16.153$, $p < .05$. A significant pre-post by treatment (treatment and comparison) group was attained, $F_{(1,70)} = 15.980$, $p < .05$ (see Table 10). The nature of this interaction is also depicted in Figure 2.

Table 10. Repeated Measures ANOVA Pre-Post Comparison and Treatment

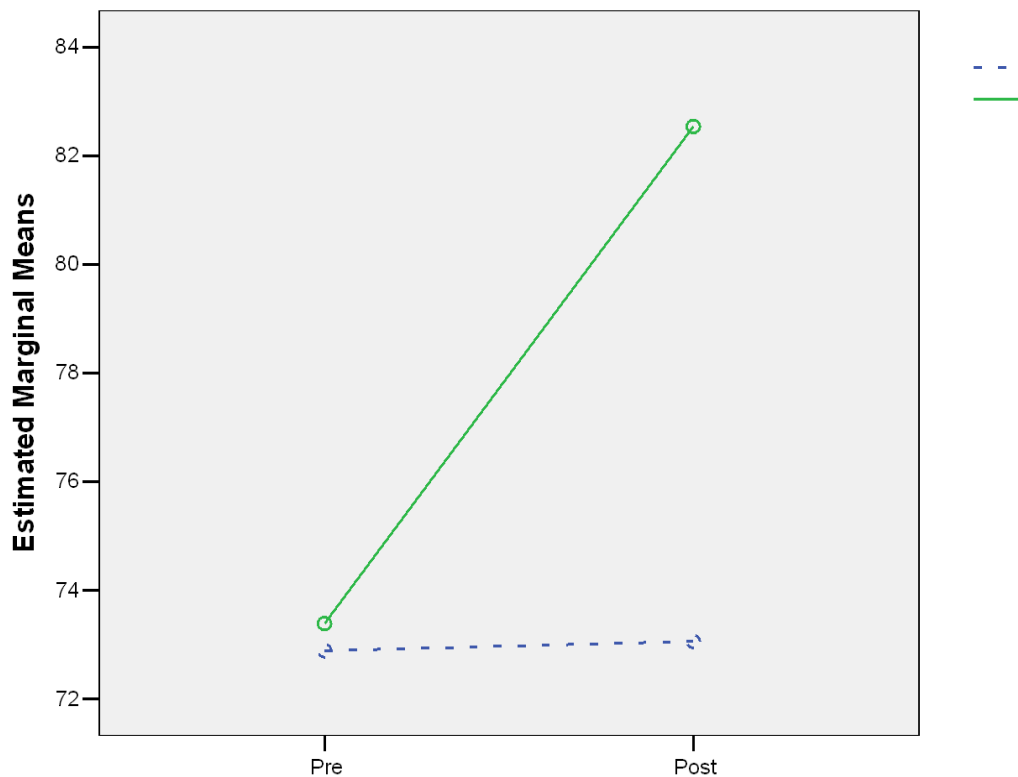| Accuplacer Reading Scores	SS	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Within groups Pre-Post	1559.056	1	1559.056	16.153	.000
Within groups C-T	1542.400	1	1542.400	15.980	.000
Total	17223.784	70			

C=Comparison

T=Treatment

Figure 2. Interaction Effect within Pre-Post Treatment and Comparison

Comparison and treatment group participants were assigned the same eight selected readings during the semester. The difference was the associated task assigned to each group: the comparison group read the selected readings and responded through unstructured open ended response journals, while treatment group participants read and responded to the selected readings based on structured guided questions geared towards "reading like a writer." Comparison group participants displayed minimal change between the pre and post Accuplacer Reading scores; while, treatment group participants reading scores increased significantly, as reflected in the significant pre-post by group interaction effect. The observed pre-post mean difference for the treatment group was 9.16. This finding suggests that the rhetorical reading intervention had a greater effect on participants' reading scores than the comparison group participants who read the assigned selected readings followed by journal responses.

ELL and ENG Comparison and Treatment Group Accuplacer Reading Test Scores

Are there differential intervention effects upon reading performances of ELL and dominant English subjects within the comparison and the rhetorical reading treatment groups as indicated by the differences between pre to post Reading Accuplacer Test scores?

At the beginning of the investigation, the ELL comparison group participants attained a $M = 73.74$ with a $SD = 16.63$ and then attained a $M = 75.47$ with a $SD = 16.42$ on the post test.

As indicated by the 95% CI in Figure 3, the pre-post scores of the ELL comparison group revealed no significant changes in reading for the ELL comparison subjects from the beginning to the end of the semester. Dominant English speaking comparison group participants attained a *M*= 71.88 with a *SD*=16.04 on the Accuplacer Reading pre test and a *M*= 70.19 with a *SD*=15.02 on the post test. The pre-post test assessment revealed no significant differences as reflected by the 95% CI in Figure 3, further, it should be noted that dominant English speakers demonstrated a minimal observed decrease between the pre-post test performances. Overall, both the ELL and the ENG comparison group subjects remained relatively unchanged in their reading performances on the Accuplacer Tests (see Figure 3).

95 % Confidence Intervals ELL and ENG Comparison Groups Accuplacer Reading Scores
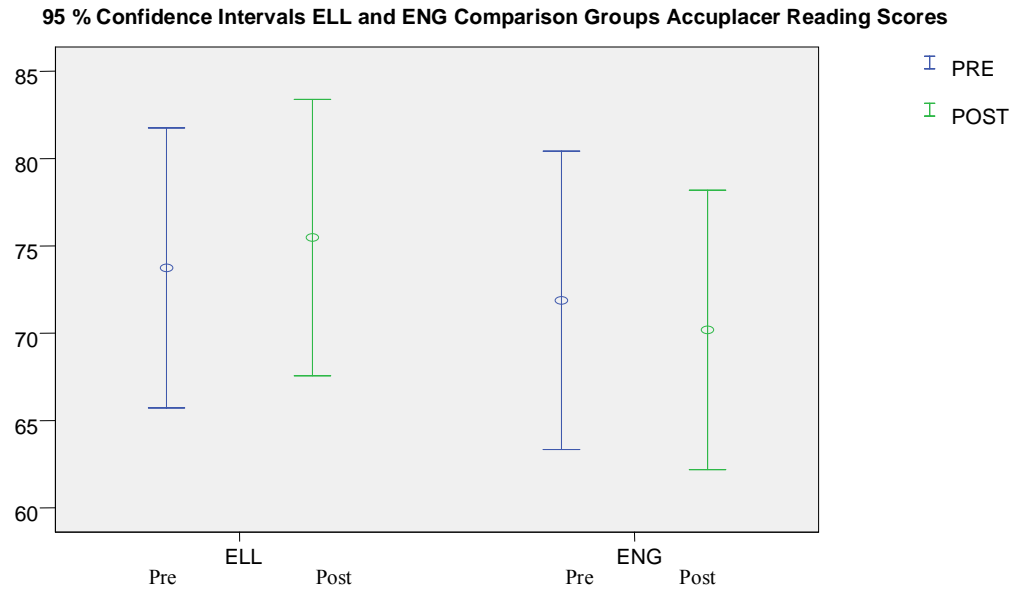
Figure 3. ELL and ENG Comparison Pre-Post Accuplacer Reading Scores

The ELL treatment group participants attained a *M*= 66.11 with a *SD*=15.45 on the pretest and then attained a *M*= 76.63 with a *SD*= of 11.26 at the conclusion of the study. The 95% CI reflect significant increases from pre-post reading test scores for ELL treatment participants. Dominant English treatment group participants attained a *M*= 80.30 with a *SD*= 15.33 on the pre test and attained a *M*= 88.15 with a *SD*=13.60 on the post test. The 95% CI revealed differences between the pre to post means for ENG treatment group subjects. Once treatment was applied, both subgroups seemed to thrive significantly with a 7.85 increase for dominant English speakers and 10.52 increase for ELL subjects (see Figure 4).

95 % Confidence Intervals ELL and ENG Treatment Groups Accuplacer Reading Scores
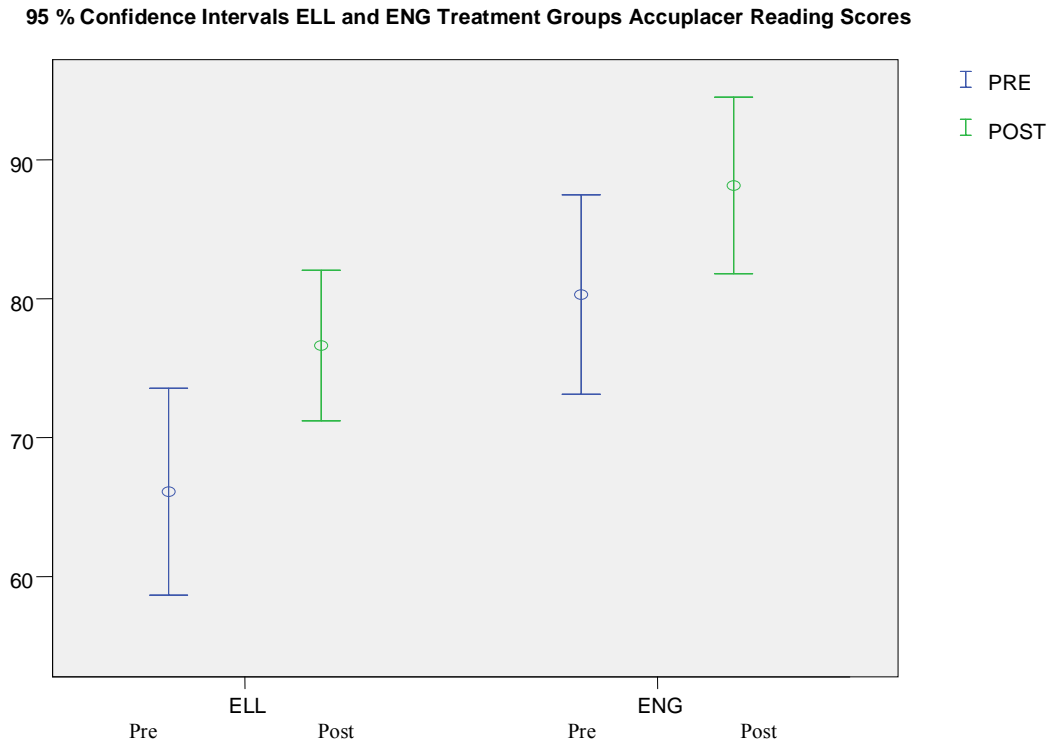
Figure 4. ELL and ENG Treatment Pre-Post Accuplacer Reading Scores

The repeated measures ANOVA comparing the ENG and the ELL subgroups across treatments resulted in no significant main effect for overall differences between pre-post ENG and ELL subgroups, $F_{(1, 70)} = 1.96$, $p > .05$. However, a significant pre-post by treatment condition interaction was reflected by the repeated measures ANOVA, $F_{(1, 70)} = 6.14$, $p < .05$ (see Table 11). This interaction indicates that a differential effect for ELL and ENG by treatment condition occurred. The nature of the interactions is presented in Figure 5 and Figure 6.

For the ELL subgroup, the rate of increase was far greater within the treatment condition when compared to the rate of change in the comparison condition. Because the treatment group attained a lower mean score at the beginning of the study it could be posited that they had more room for improvement and that the observed change between pre and post for treatment condition ELLs might be attributed to a test score regression factor due to the initial lower score than that attained by the ELL comparison group subjects. Never the less, it should be noted that the scores for neither of the groups approached any test ceiling effect.

Table 11. Repeated Measures ANOVA Comparison/Treatment and ENG/ELL

Accuplacer Reading Scores	SS	df	Mean Square	F	Sig
(ENG/ELL)	395.687	1	39.6	1.96	.166
(ENG/ELL*Comparison/Treatment)	1239.715	1	1239.71	6.14	.016
Within groups		70			
Total	1635.402	71			

ELL Comparison and Treatment Pre and Post
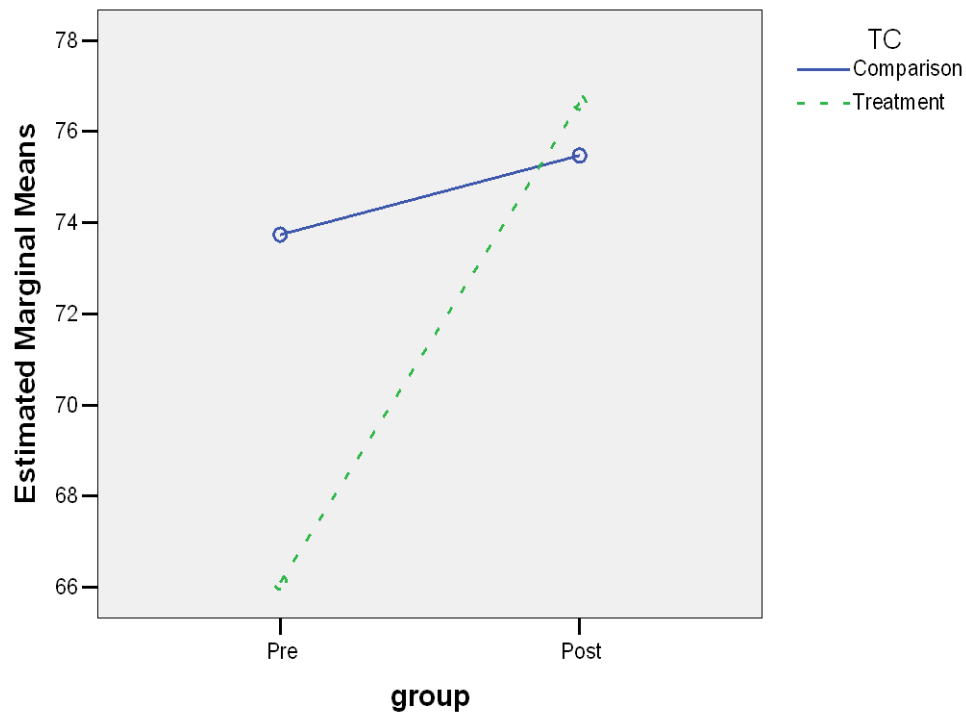
Figure 5. ELL Comparison and Treatment Pre-Post Reading Performance Scores

For the ENG subgroup the subjects in the treatment group mean scores improved from 80.33 on the pre-test to 88.15 on the post test while the ENG subgroup subjects in the comparison group reflected little change (regressed slightly from 71.88 on the pre test to 70.19 on the post test).
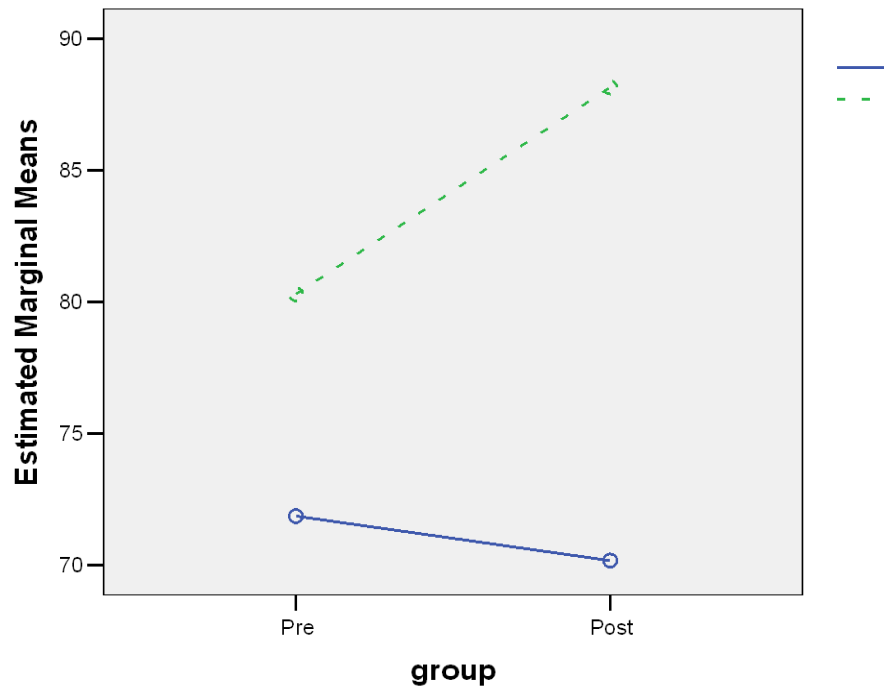
ENG Comparison and Treatment Pre and Post

Figure 6. ENG Comparison and Treatment Pre-Post Reading Performance Scores

Comparison and Treatment Group Writing Performance Scores

Are there differences between the post intervention writing performances (holistically scored written essays) attained by the comparison and the rhetorical reading treatment groups?

An independent t-test was computed to examine the comparison and treatment group post writing scores. The comparison group at inception exhibited a $M=1.69$ with a $SD=1.32$ and post writing performance scores revealed a $M=2.43$ with a $SD=1.00$. There was an observed change from pre-post scores of .74. The treatment group attained a $M=2.03$ with a $SD=1.14$ pre-writing. On the post writing performance scores a $M=3.05$ with a $SD=.826$ was attained. There was an observed change from pre-post scores of 1.02 for treatment group subjects (see Table 12). Results of the t-test revealed $t(72)=2.91$, p<.05 suggest differences between the post intervention writing performances attained by the comparison and treatment groups. The 95% CI further reflects the significant differences between the mean post test scores achieved by the comparison and the treatment groups (see Figure 7). In addition, Figure 7 also indicates that both the comparison and the treatment groups achieved significant gains over the semester when the pre-post mean writing scores are compared within each group.

Table 12. Comparison and Treatment Group Writing Performance Scores

Comparison Group

_____

Writing Scores	N	Mean	Std. Deviation
Pre- Writing	35	1.69	1.32
Post-Writing	35	2.43	1.00

Treatment Group

_____

Writing Scores	N	Mean	Std. Deviation
Pre- Writing	39	2.03	1.14
Post-Writing	39	3.05	.826

_____

t (72) = 2.91, p<.05

95% Confidence Interval for Pre- Post Comparison-Treatment Post Writing Performance Scores
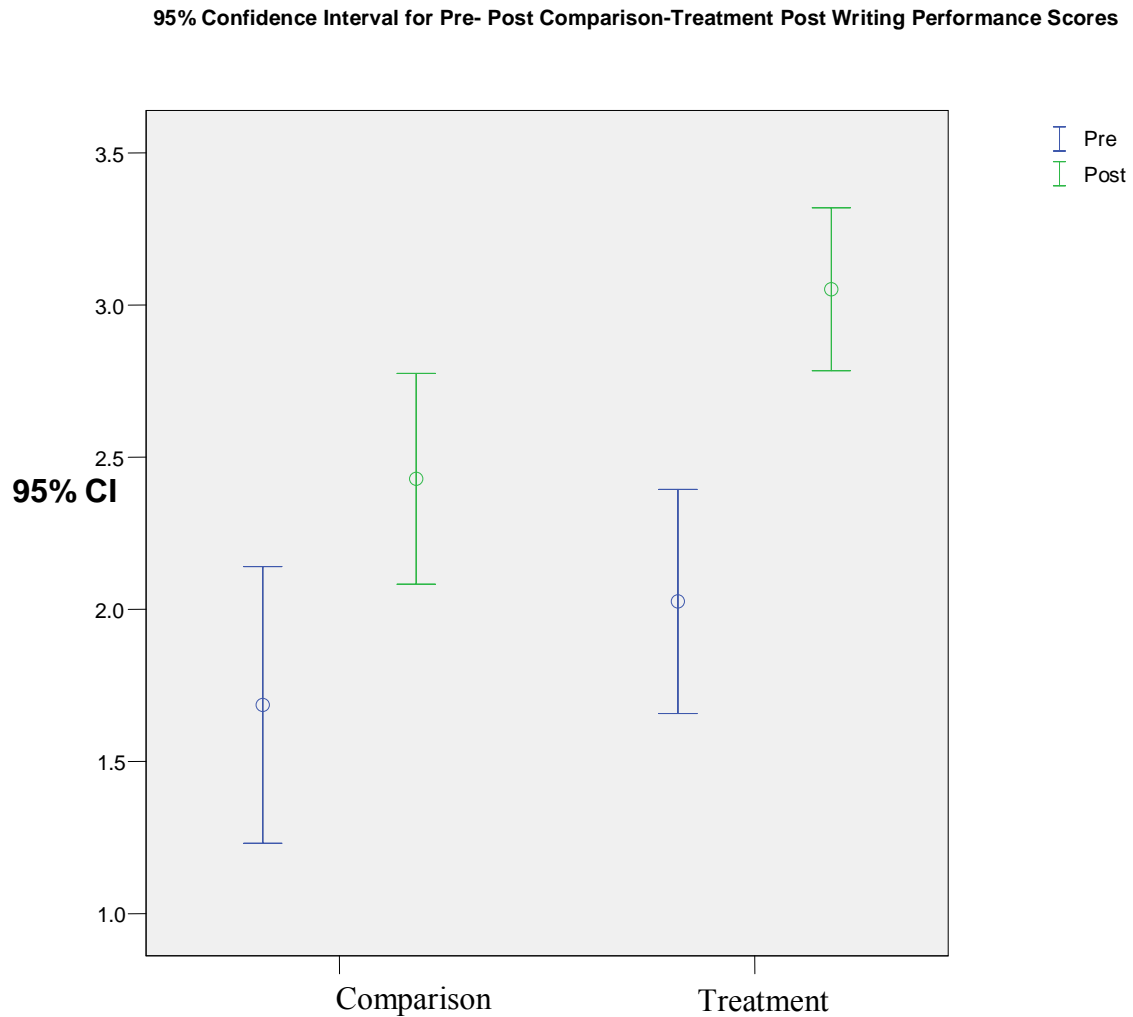
Figure 7. Pre-Post Comparison and Treatment Writing Performance Scores

A repeated measures (ANOVA) test within groups yielded a main effect for pre-post writing performance scores across all groups, $F(1,70)= 60.327$, $p<.05$. Furthermore, a between treatment and comparison groups analysis was significant as indicated by the attained a main effect for treatment conditions, $F (1,70)= 4.252$, $p<.05$ (see Table 13).

Table 13. Repeated Measures ANOVA Pre-Post Comparison and Treatment

Writing Performance Scores	SS	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Within groups Pre-Post	27.653	1	27.653	60.327	.000
Between groups C-T	8.055	1	8.055	4.252	.043
Total	35.708	70			

C=Comparison

T=Treatment

Figure 8. Writing Performance Scores - Main Effect for within Pre-Post and between

Treatment and Comparison Conditions

Overall, the data suggests that both the comparison group and the treatment groups achieved significant gains in writing performance over the course of a semester in a freshman c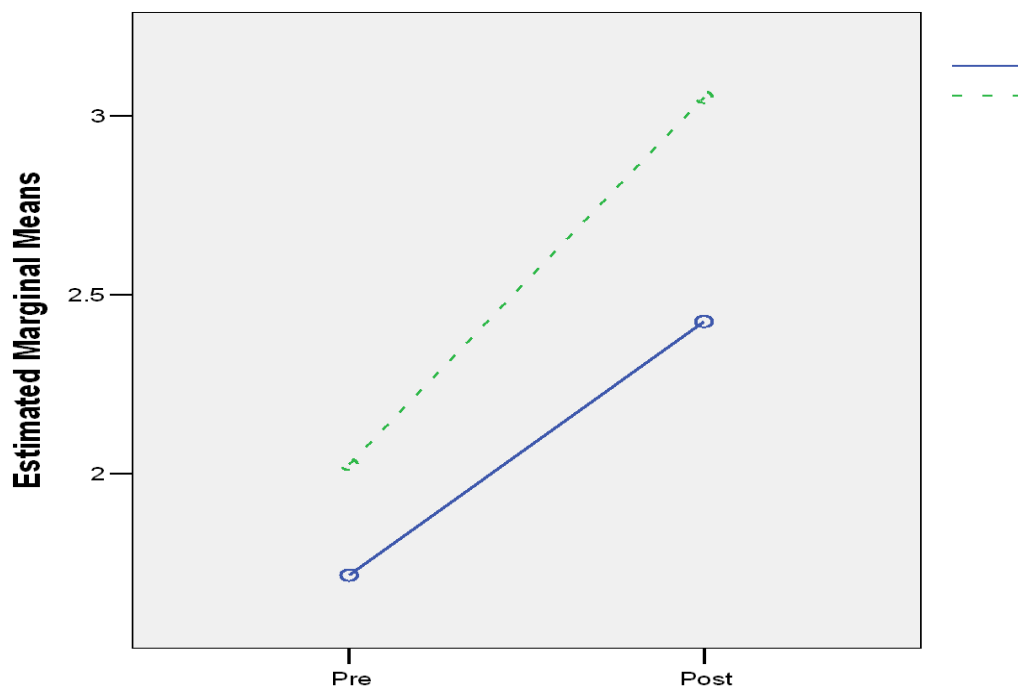omposition course. The comparison group increases may be attributed to a course of instruction that included a combination of writing strategies along with selected readings that were followed up with journaling activities. The treatment group included a combination of writing instruction strategies and selected readings that focused on rhetorical reading interventions. As indicated by the significant main effect for treatment condition along with the degree of change reflected by the 95% confidence intervals presented in Figure 8. The treatment group attained greater gains in writing performances in contrast to the comparison group. The greater increase for the treatment group suggests that rhetorical reading interventions may have an enhanced positive influence on writing performance scores as measured with the use of a holistic scoring rubric.

ELL and ENG Comparison and Treatment Group Writing Performance Scores

Are there differential intervention effects upon the writing performances of ELL and dominant English speakers within the comparison and the rhetorical reading treatment groups as indicated by the differences between pre to post holistic writing performance scores?

The pre-post scores of the ELL comparison group revealed increases in writing performance scores from the beginning to the end of the semester. At the beginning of the study, the ELL comparison group participants attained a *M*= 1.37 with a *SD*= 1.26

and then attained a *M*= 2.47 with a *SD*= .90 on the post test measure. Dominant English

speaking comparison group participants attained a *M*= 2.06 with a *SD*=1.34 on the pre-

writing performance and then achieved a *M*= 2.38 with a *SD*=1.15 on the post writing

performance. The 95% CI for pre-post comparison group ELL subjects and ENG

subjects indicate that the ELL subjects achieved significant gains as indicated by the CI

in Figure 9. While the ENG comparison group did not appear to attain significantly

different pre-post test mean scores on the same measures of writing performance.

Notably, the ELL comparison group participants at the beginning of the study

appeared to be at a disadvantage as they attained the lowest performance writing scores

overall for all subgroups suggesting that these participants had more room for

improvement. It should also be noted that ELL comparison students' post writing

increased to the extent that they attained similar observed writing performance scores on

the post writing measure (M = 2.47) which was at least comparable and perhaps slightly

higher than the post writing performance score (M = 2.38) attained by the dominant

English speaking comparison group (see Figure 9).

95% Confidence Intervals ELL and ENG Comparison Groups Writing Performance Scores
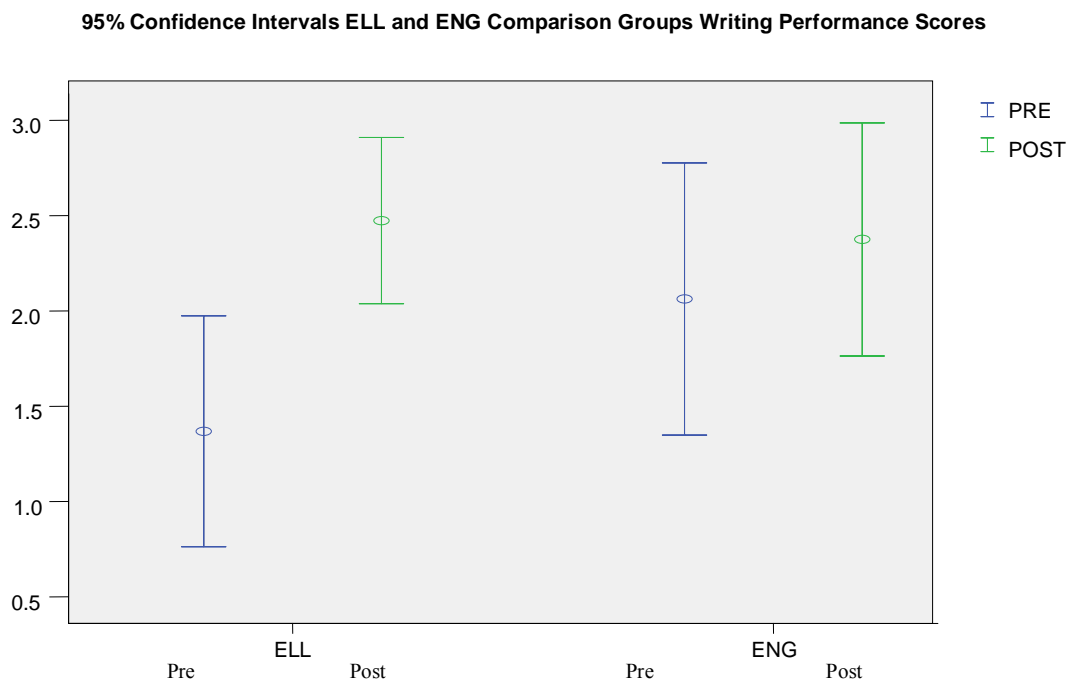
Figure 9. ELL and ENG Comparison Pre-Post Writing Performance Scores

The ELL treatment group participants attained a $M= 2.00$ with a $SD=1.15$ at the

beginning of the study and then attained a $M= 3.05$ with a $SD=$ of .62 at the conclusion

of the study. The dominant English treatment group participants attained a M= 2.05 with

a $SD= 1.15$ on pre writing performance scores and then attained a $M= 3.05$ with a

$SD=1.00$ on the post writing performance scores. The associated 95% CI presented in

Figure 10 reflects that significant increase between pre-post writing scores for the ELL

treatment group participants as well as the ENG treatment group participants.   While

writing instruction and the reading selections may have contributed to significant

increases for ELL students for the comparison group, rhetorical reading interventions

appear to have influenced the writing performance scores of both ELL and English

treatment group participants to a greater degree (see Figure 10).

95% Confidence Intervals ELL and ENG Treatment Groups Performance Scores
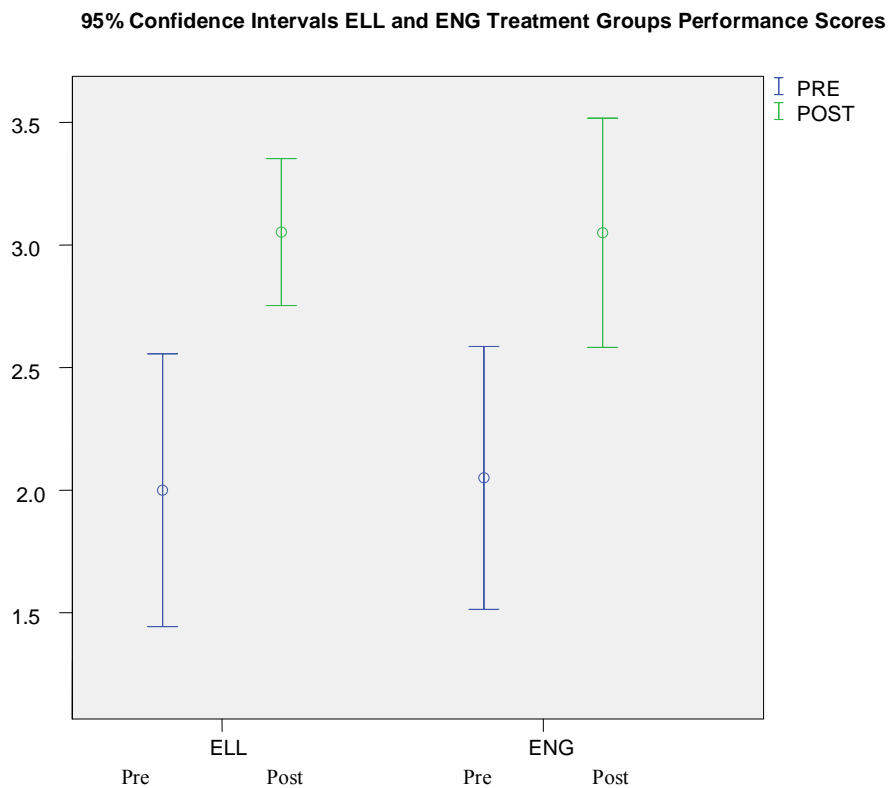
Figure 10. ELL and ENG Treatment Pre-Post Writing Performance Scores

The ANOVA repeated measures between the ENG and the ELL subgroups

resulted in no significant main effect for groups $F (1, 70) = .50$, $p>.05$. The ANOVA

repeated measures between the comparison and treatment groups within ENG and the

ELL subgroups revealed no significant interaction effect $F (1, 70) = .36$, $p>.05$ (see Table

14). When sub grouped into ENG and ELL groups and then into comparison and

treatment groups there is no significant interaction present which can be attributed to the

observed similar or parallel rates of improvement in writing performances reflected by

ELL students in the comparison and treatment groups (see Figure 11). While the ENG

participants in the treatment group appeared to make more progress in writing

performance, than the ENG comparison group subjects, this apparent difference

reflected in Figure 12 was not significant.

Table 14. ANOVA Comparison/Treatment and ENG/ELL Writing Performance Scores

Writing Performance Scores	SS	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
(ENG/ELL)	.949	1	.949	.50	.482
(ENG/ELL*Comparison/Treatment)	.690	1	.690	.36	.548
Within groups		70			
Total	1.639	71			

ELL Comparison Treatment Pre and Post

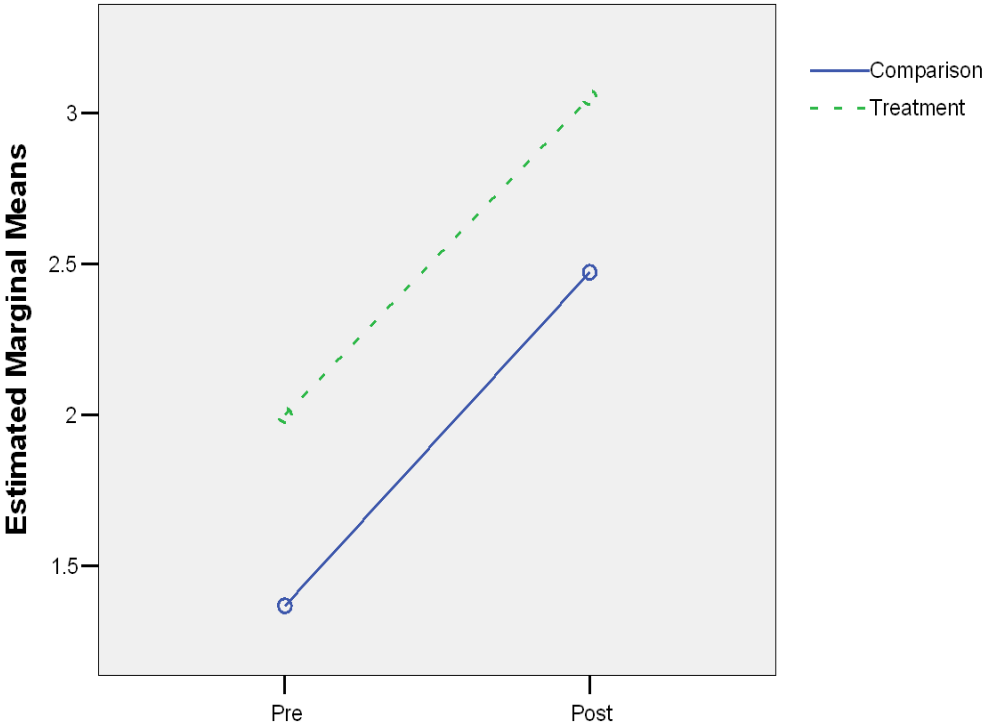Figure 11. ELL Comparison and Treatment Pre-Post Writing Performance Scores

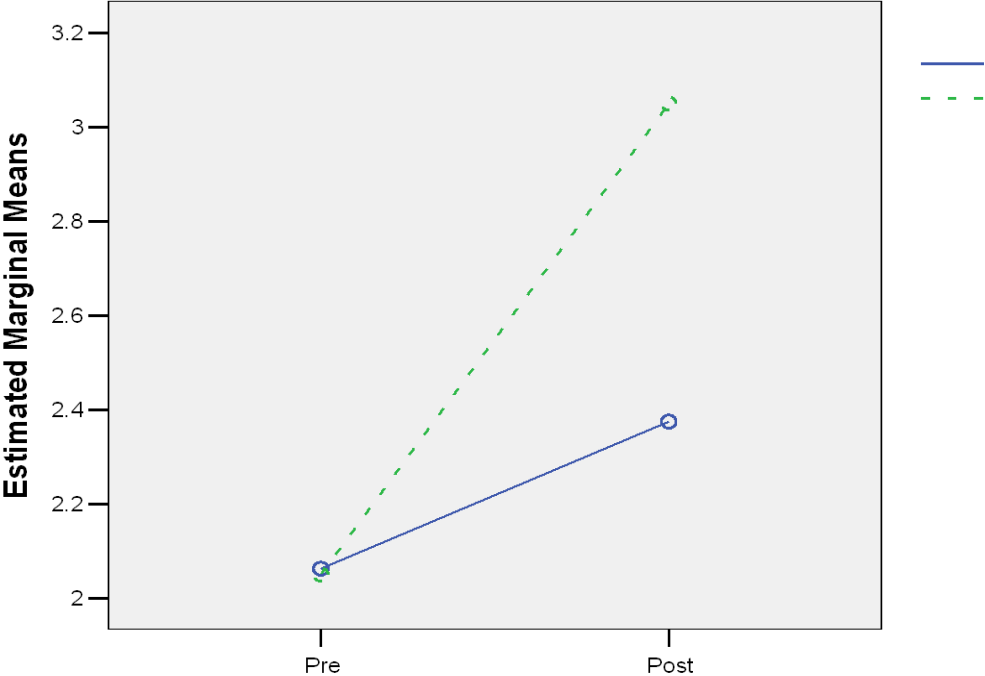**ENG Comparison and Treatment Pre and Post**

Figure 12. ENG Comparison and Treatment Pre-Post Performance Scores

CHAPTER V

CONCLUSIONS

This final chapter provides discussions on the research questions, pedagogical implications, and future recommendations for researchers. The discussions presented are reported as outlined by the research questions proposed in Chapter IV. The pedagogical implications suggested will reflect the research and reported findings. Finally, limitations and recommendations for further research are suggested.

Are there differences between the comparison group and treatment group in the degree of change in perceptions of the reading-writing connections as indicated by the nature and frequency of responses on pre-post reading-writing connection surveys?

All participants completed a reading-writing connection survey as a means of assessing or measuring how students perceived the reading process and the writing process and whether they understood how and if reading-writing are connected. The survey questions examined connections, disconnections, similarities or differences between the subjects perceptions on reading and writing processes, and whether reading influences writing or vice versa. Surveys were qualitatively analyzed and then quantified and categorized into three categories based on participant responses: 1) connection 2) some degree of evidence of connection 3) no evidence of a connection present.

Chi-Square analysis x^2 (2, N=74) = 10.3, $p<.05$ reported significant differences between the comparison and treatment groups at the beginning of the study, with comparison group participants displaying higher levels of connectivity than treatment

group participants. At the conclusion of the study, a Chi-Square analysis

x^2 (2, N=74) = 4.8, $p>.05$ revealed no significant differences between the comparison

and treatment groups. On the post connection survey, the comparison group participants

exhibited no significant changes in perceived reading and writing connections; while, the

rhetorical reading treatment group increased significantly when compared to the survey

responses at inception.

The findings reported suggest there are differences between the comparison and

rhetorical reading groups in degrees of change in perceptions of the reading-writing

connections and that rhetorical reading intervention may have contributed to that change.

The surveys provided evidence that not all students perceived or understood the

connection between reading and writing. Thus, when reading and writing strategies

(intervention) were presented an awareness of this connection was introduced and some

students identified with, as the evidence in the post surveys suggest. This awareness

allows students to see how both processes are similar and share similar levels of

functionality. These findings coincide with Shaughnessy's (1977) assertion that students

must have an awareness of the interactive nature of reading and writing, for meaning

resides in this interactive encounter between both processes.

Are there differential intervention effects as indicated by the differences between

pre and post reading-writing connection surveys upon the perceived reading-writing

connections for ELL and dominant English speakers in the comparison and rhetorical

reading treatment groups?

At the beginning of the study, a Chi-Square analysis of the comparison group x^2 (2, N=35) = .13, p>.05 reported no significant differences between ELL and ENG comparison group participants. Subjects in both sub groups were similar in perceived levels of connectivity in reading- writing connections. At the end of the study, the survey once again reflected the comparability of the ELL and ENG subjects as the Chi-Square analysis x^2 (2, N=35) = .82, p>.05 revealed no significant differences between ELL and ENG comparison group participants perceived reading-writing connections. Comparison subjects in both groups in the end were comparable in levels of perceived connectivity in reading- writing connections. Both groups were equivalent in their pre to post perceptions and both exhibited small observable increases in levels of reading-writing connections from the beginning of the study to the end of the semester.

ELL and dominate English speakers in the treatment group demonstrated differences in their degree of change in reading-writing connections at the beginning of the study as the Chi-Square statistics x^2 (2, N=39) = 6.2, p<.05 revealed differences between ELL and ENG treatment group participants. It was observed that the ENG participants demonstrated higher levels of connections than ELL subjects. At the conclusion of the study, the ELL and ENG subjects were not statistically different in the degree of changes in reading- writing connections as the Chi-Square analysis x^2 (2, N=39) = 3.9, p>.05 revealed no significant differences between the ELL and ENG treatment group subjects. After the rhetorical reading intervention was implemented both groups demonstrated increases in levels of perceived reading-writing connections with statistical results suggesting equivalent levels of connections at the completion of

the study. These findings support the interpretation that the rhetorical reading treatment did have differential effects on the perceived reading-writing connections of ELL and dominant English speakers; ELL subjects apparently changed their perceptions to a greater extent resulting in no significant differences between the ENG group at the conclusion of the study. Dominant English speakers exhibited higher levels of connections, but the treatment applied seemed to position both subgroups at similar levels of connectivity at the conclusion of the study. The findings suggest that rhetorical reading interventions can affect and influence both ENG and ELL sub groups, but the findings are also suggestive that rhetorical reading intervention might have a greater influence on ELLs.

Are there differences between the post intervention reading performances (Reading Accuplacer Test score) attained by the comparison and the rhetorical reading treatment groups?

An independent t-test was conducted to examine the comparison and treatment group post reading scores. The comparison group at inception scored a $M=72.89$ with a $SD=16.15$ and post test performance resulted in $M=73.06$ with a $SD=15.79$. Participants in the comparison group did not change significantly from the beginning to the end of the study. The treatment group attained a pre-test M= 73.38 with a $SD=16.80$. On the post test, the mean score was a $M=82.54$ with a $SD=13.65$ for the treatment group. The observed change in the mean score from pre to post test performance for treatment group participants was 9.16. The results of the t-test $t(72) = 2.77$, p<.05 support differences among the groups and the repeated measures

ANOVA test yielded a main effect for pre-post reading performance scores across groups, $F(1,70)=16.153$, $p<.05$. Further support was provided by repeated measures ANOVA results that reveal a significant pre-post by treatment (treatment and comparison) group was attained, $F(1,70)=15.980$, $p<.05$.

The significant differences between the post intervention reading performances on the Accuplacer Reading scores attained by the comparison and treatment groups suggest that the rhetorical reading intervention had a significantly greater effect on the reading performances of the treatment group reading scores. Comparison and treatment group participants were assigned the same eight selected readings during the semester. The difference was the associated task assigned to each group: the comparison group read the selected readings and responded through unstructured open ended response journals and treatment group participants read and responded to the selected readings based on structured guided questions geared towards "reading like a writer." These findings support Haas' and Flower's (1988) assertion that teaching students how to analyze rhetorical situations/reading for rhetorical purposes helps to build a level of connection between both knowledge telling and transforming knowledge (critical skills). Thus in turn, reading comprehension scores increased for treatment group participants because they engaged in critical thinking activities (transforming knowledge) rather than just "knowledge telling."

Are there differential intervention effects upon reading performances of ELL and dominant English speakers within the comparison and the rhetorical reading treatment

groups as indicated by the differences between pre to post Reading Accuplacer Test scores?

The pre-post scores of the ELL comparison group revealed no significant changes in reading for the ELL comparison subjects from the beginning to the end of the semester. Dominant English speaking comparison group participants pre-post test assessment revealed no significant differences, however, it should be noted that dominant English speakers demonstrated a minimal decrease on the pre-post test performance. The ELL treatment group participants revealed increases from pre-post reading test scores. Dominant English treatment group participants revealed differences between the pre to post means. Once treatment was applied, both subgroups seemed to increase significantly with a 7.85 increase for dominant English subjects and 10.52 increase for ELL subjects. Repeated measures ANOVA comparing the ENG and the ELL subgroups across treatments resulted in no significant main effect for overall differences between pre-post ENG and ELL subgroups, $F (1, 70) =1.96$, $p>.05$. However, a significant pre-post by treatment condition interaction was reflected by the repeated measures ANOVA, $F (1, 70) =6.14$, $p<.05$ and this interaction indicates that a differential effect for ELL and ENG by treatment condition occurred. For the ELL subgroup, the rate of increase was far greater within the treatment condition when compared to the rate of change in the comparison condition. Because the treatment group attained a lower mean score at the beginning of the study it could be posited that they had more room for improvement and that the observed change between pre and post for treatment condition ELLs might be attributed to a test score regression factor due to

the initial lower score than that attained by the ELL comparison group subjects. Never the less, it should be noted that the scores for neither of the groups approached any test ceiling effect.

Are there differences between the post intervention writing performances (holistically scored written essays) attained by the comparison and the rhetorical reading treatment groups?

An independent t-test was computed to examine the comparison and treatment group post writing scores. The comparison group at inception exhibited a $M=1.69$ with a $SD=1.32$ and post writing performance scores revealed a $M=2.43$ with a $SD=1.00$. There was an observed change from pre-post scores of .74. The treatment group attained a $M=2.03$ with a $SD=1.14$ pre-writing. On the post writing performance scores a $M=3.05$ with a $SD=.826$ was attained. There was an observed change from pre-post scores of 1.02 for treatment group subjects. Results of the t-test reflect this observed change $t(72) = 2.91$, p<.05. These findings are further supported by the repeated measures ANOVA test within groups that yielded a main effect for pre-post writing performance scores across all groups, $F(1,70)= 60.327$, p<.05. Furthermore, a between treatment and comparison groups analysis was significant as indicated by the attained a main effect for treatment conditions, $F(1,70)= 4.252$, p<.05. The comparison group increases may be attributed to a course of instruction that included a combination of writing strategies along with selected readings that were followed up with journaling activities. The treatment group included a combination of writing instruction strategies and selected readings that focused on rhetorical reading interventions.

The findings reported revealed that a combination of writing instruction strategies and selected readings that focused on rhetorical reading interventions for the treatment group made higher gains in overall writing performance. These findings coincide with Kroll's (1993) emphasis on the importance of making students aware of the concept that written texts students produce are readings and that their knowledge as readers should be applied to help them become better writers. In addition, Krashen's (1984) competence/performance theory further supports the findings reported which suggests that students gain knowledge of writing by exposure to form (conventions of writing) through reading. Reading instructional materials centered on meaningful reading activities that provide opportunities for meaningful exposure to writing will facilitate learning in writing, with an emphasis on L2 language learners who may have limited experiences with reading in the target language (English).

Are there differential intervention effects upon the writing performances of ELL and dominant English speakers within the comparison and the rhetorical reading treatment groups as indicated by the differences between pre to post holistic writing performance scores?

At the beginning of the study, the pre-post scores of the ELL comparison group revealed increases in writing performance scores from the beginning to the end of the semester. Dominant English speaking comparison group participants revealed minimal increases in writing performance scores pre-post. Notably, ELL comparison group participants at the beginning of the study were at a disadvantage attributed to the lowest performance writing scores overall for all groups which suggest that participants had

more room for improvement. It should also be noted that ELL students post writing scores increased significantly that they were comparable to writing performance scores post writing for ENG participants. The ELL treatment group attained significant increases between pre-post writing scores. Dominant English treatment group participants also attained significant increases on writing performance scores. Once treatment was applied, both groups thrived significantly with a 1.00 average increase for English subjects and 1.05 average increase for ELL subjects. The repeated measures ANOVA test between the ENG and the ELL subgroups resulted in no significant main effect for groups $F (1, 70) = .50, p > .05$. The ANOVA repeated measures between the comparison and treatment groups within ENG and the ELL subgroups revealed no significant interaction effect $F (1, 70) = .36, p > .05$. When sub grouped into ENG and ELL groups and then into comparison and treatment groups there is no significant interaction present which can be attributed to the observed similar or parallel rates of improvement in writing performances reflected by ELL students in the comparison and treatment groups.

While writing instruction and the reading selections may have contributed to student increases for the comparison group, rhetorical reading interventions appear to have influenced the writing performance scores of ELL and ENG treatment group participants to a greater extent. These findings reported support Krashen's (1993) "reading input hypothesis" that L2 learners become better writers by extensively engaging in L2 instructional practices that combine reading and writing.

Pedagogical Implications

The primary purpose of the study was to determine if rhetorical reading interventions, from the directionality approach, had any effects on college aged students' perceptions of reading and writing connections, on reading comprehension, and on writing performances. While the framework of the study was based on Eisterhold's (1990) directionally approach model, the findings reported provide evidence in support of the bidirectional model, which suggest that both reading and writing are interdependent, whereas, reading is writing and writing is reading and proficiency in one area affects the other area. While the data reported suggests varying degrees of the effects, in both reading and writing, the integration of reading with specific rhetorical guidelines appeared to maximize not only the connections between reading and writing, but also provide students opportunities to apply critical thinking skills when reading like writers. This supports Montano-Harmon's (1991) assertion that while discourse patterns in writing English and in Spanish differ; awareness and knowledge of these differences is central to the teaching of writing and to those learning to write in another language. In order to close the achievement gap in educational attainment for ELL students, instructors of second language learners must understand that the process of second language acquisition is a continuous process of exposure and involvement in learning opportunities where ELL students participate in the construction of meaning and written discourse of knowledge in English (L2).

Furthermore, ELL and dominant English speakers may have varying degrees of academic performance levels, but rhetorical reading interventions seem to positively

influence both groups. This study provides preliminary support on the importance of

literacy and how the inter connectedness of reading and writing can affect student

learning, especially the largest growing segment of the population ELL students.

Further research should be conducted to corroborate these findings and strengthen the

level of confidence on the positive impact that rhetorical reading instruction can have

on the reading-writing performances of ELL and dominant English speaking college

students.

Future Recommendations

Throughout the duration of the study, various ideas and recommendations for

future studies became more evident. First, the time frame of the study was limited to a

16 week period; future studies involving consecutive semesters are recommended to

extend over longer periods of time to allow possible maturation and a further extension

of the benefits of the rhetorical reading interventions. Other viable options for future

studies include comparing two semesters of treatment group interventions to determine

the degree of the treatment with delayed post testing. In addition, the option of

randomly assigning participants and groups might provide noteworthy insights of the

influences that rhetorical reading interventions might present.   The other issue

addresses the notion of the small number of student participants. It is recommended

that future studies employ a larger number of students. Other considerations in regards

to using other measures such as a standardized writing measure could also be explored

for further studies.   As for the reading-writing connection survey instrument, it is

recommended that exploration of other instruments be conducted in order to retrieve more detailed information on reading-writing connections.   While this study focuses on a bicultural and biliterate border town environment, it is recommended that other studies be conducted to determine if the findings can be generalized to other ELL populations.

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APPENDIX A

"LANGUAGE SURVEY"

1. What is your native language? English or Spanish

2. What is your parents' native language?

3. What is your parents' primary language of communication?

4. What is your grandparents' native language?

5. What is your grandparents' primary language of communication?

6. What is your primary language of communication in your home environment?

7. What is your primary language of communication at work/ amongst friends?

8. How long (months/years) have you lived in the US?

9. Are you a -1st generation (you were born in this country, and parents in another country),   -2nd generation (you and your parents were born in this country, and grandparents born in another country),   or -3rd generation (you, parents, and grandparents born in this country)?

10. Have you received formal education in the United States?   Yes/No If yes, for how long (months/years)?

11. For how long (months/years) did you receive formal education outside of the United States in your native language?

12. What is the primary language that you think in, when you do academic school work at the college level?

13. Describe how you process information from your native language to another language?

APPENDIX B

PRE-CONNECTION SURVEY

1. Describe your perception of the reading process?

2. Describe your understanding of the reading process?

3. Describe your perception of the writing process?

4. Describe your understanding of the writing process?

5. Do you view any connections/relationships between reading and writing? Yes/No

   If yes, describe the connection/relationship?

6. Do you see any similarities between reading and writing? Describe.

7. Do you see any differences between reading and writing? Describe.

8. What skills/strategies do you use when reading?

9. What skills/strategies do you use when writing?

10. Describe these strategies and the positive and negative experiences you

    encounter when using these strategies.

11. Describe your thoughts/ideas during the reading process. (Describe them when

    working in your native language and then when working in English)

12. Describe your thoughts/ideas during the writing process.   (Describe them when

    working in your native language and then when working in English)

13. How do your reading experiences influence your writing? If, any?

14. How do your writing experiences influence your reading? If, any?

15. Do you think that reading helps you write well? Yes/No.   Explain why?

APPENDIX C

POST-CONNECTION SURVEY

1. Describe your perception of the reading process?

2. Describe your understanding of the reading process?

3. Describe your perception of the writing process?

4. Describe your understanding of the writing process?

5. Do you view any connections/relationships between reading and writing? Yes/No

   If yes, describe the connection/relationship?

6. Do you see any similarities between reading and writing? Describe.

7. Do you see any differences between reading and writing? Describe.

8. What skills/strategies do you use when reading?

9. What skills/strategies do you use when writing?

10. Describe these strategies and the positive and negative experiences you

    encounter when using these strategies.

11. Describe your thoughts/ideas during the reading process. (Describe them when

    working in your native language and then when working in English)

12. Describe your thoughts/ideas during the writing process. (Describe them when

    working in your native language and then when working in English)

13. How do your reading experiences influence your writing? If, any?

14. How do your writing experiences influence your reading? If, any?

15. Do you think that reading helps you write well? Yes/No.   Explain why?

16. Do you think your approach and ability to write has changed during the semester? If so, how do you think it has changed?

17. Do you think that being a better reader makes you a better writer? Yes or No. Explain.

18. I believe the writing process is_____

19. I believe the reading process is _____

20. Do you have any general comments about receiving reading instruction in a writing course?

APPENDIX D

COURSE SYLLABUS AND CALENDAR

First Year Writing Program
Fall 2008- English 1301

*New Policy: Students must have an average of 70 or higher to pass English 1301. Those earning a score of 69 or below will fail this course and will need to repeat it before registering for English 1302.

Texts:
All texts will be packaged and should include the following:
1. *The Curious Writer,* Custom Publication, 2nd ed. Bruce Ballenger
2. *The Mercury Reader,* Custom Publication, First Year Writing Program Faculty
3. *LB Brief,* Jane Aaron
4. *MyCompLab Course Compass*
5. Journal/Notebook – purchase separately
6. Diskette, pin drive, or zip drive designated for this class only – purchase separately
    *You will use these texts for both semesters of the First Year Writing Program, English 1301 and 1302.

Portfolio:
All writing assignments should be carefully filed in a Writing Portfolio in the order they were assigned, including any pre-writing activities, drafts, and revisions. **In order to pass this course, you must turn in your completed portfolio at the end of the semester, and it must include all completed, graded writing assignments listed under "Writing Assignments and Grade Values," plus any pre-writing, drafting, and rewriting required during the writing process of the essay**. If you wish to have a copy of any essay during the semester, you will need to make your own or save it in a computer file. For one year, your portfolio will be the property of the Department. After one year, you may come to the Writing Suite, and collect your portfolio.   For more about the portfolio, see Appendix A, *The Curious Writer.*

Program Outcome:
Graduates will be able to produce a portfolio of selected writings culled from their coursework in English that demonstrates writing effectiveness.

Student Learning Outcomes:
You should have achieved the following as a writer by the end of the semester:
1. You should be able to write employing several rhetorical strategies and purposes.
2. You should be familiar with several pre-writing and invention strategies.
3. You should be able to write an effective introduction or opening that establishes focus, purpose, main idea, and direction; you should be able to create a body to any writing assignment that is organized, unified, and developed; you should be able to create an effective conclusion, one comparable in depth and precision to your introduction.

Writing Requirements and Grade Values:
1. Diagnostic Essay – in-class, grade value assigned but not counted toward final grade
2. Personal Essay – 15%
3. Profile – 20%
4. Review with sources – 20%
5. Final Exam – 15%
6. Three in-class written responses – 15%

7. Journal / *MyCompLab* / Misc. 10%
8. Class Participation and Attendance- 5%

Other Assignments:
In addition to the reading and writing assignments designated on your course schedule, you will be expected to complete any in-class assignments, such as invention and pre-writing activities, in-class drafting, grammar exercises, and quizzes. You will also have three written responses intended for you to have free range in expression and will not be assigned a grade value, but will be counted toward your final grade in this course. You will also keep a journal in this course. Your instructor may assign one day per week for in-class journal writing or may ask that you write each class period. Topics may range from responses to events in the news, to your readings, or you may be asked to explore a topic on your own.

Tests:
Since this is a writing course, most of the emphasis will be placed on your producing a number of pieces of writing, demonstrating a variety of techniques. There will be a pre and post test in grammar to assess your knowledge of grammar, diction, and usage prior to enrolling in this course and to measure improvements made in your understanding and use of these principles at the time you leave this course. Under "miscellaneous" for Writing Requirements, your instructor may choose to give the occasional quiz over your reading or over a grammatical concept.

Manuscript Requirements:
All writing assignments will be typed and will conform to MLA guidelines. Some assignments, such as your written responses, will be written in-class at the computer. Instructors will explain MLA format prior to completing the first assignment; however, *The Curious Writer* and *MyCompLab Course Compass* provide examples of essays that conform to MLA guidelines.

Editing and Revisions:
Each marked essay will be returned to you for editing. The editing must be completed during the assigned class period, unless otherwise instructed. <u>If you fail to turn in an edited essay for each assignment, you will not receive credit for this course.</u> Editing should be done in pencil and means that you merely correct identified errors in your writing. You do not rewrite the entire work unless asked. Your grade does not change because you have edited your work; this is merely a requirement for the course and will benefit you because it keeps you apprised of the types of recurrent errors you are making.

If asked, you may revise one or several of your essays, which means that you will use the original as a draft. You will not only change the grammatical and usage errors, but you will develop your paper by adding more examples, removing poor examples or unnecessary sentences. You might supply a more focused thesis, clearer topic sentences, or better organization throughout the assigned piece of writing. Suggestions for improving essays will be provided in the terminal comments of the original essay. All writing assignments prior to being submitted for a grade will be discussed by your peer workshop group. Their recommendations should provide the basis for revision prior to completing the final draft for instructor evaluation.

Late Papers:
Regardless of the assignment, papers that are late will be lowered a letter grade for each day's delay, and you have up to one five day school week to present the late work. It is better to turn in an assignment late than not at all. An F carries a grade value of 50 points**. If you fail to turn in one of the major writing assignments, are missing any one of the in-class written responses, or do not complete the required journal entries, it will be impossible for you to pass this course**. These essays, written responses, and journal entries constitute the requirements for the course, and failure to complete any one of these obviously means that you have not fulfilled the requirements for the course.

If you arrive late or leave before class is over and you, therefore, miss a quiz, exercise, or time for writing in your journal, then you have simply missed these assignments; there will not be any make-ups of any kind.

If there are extreme circumstances that prevent you from turning in work on time, please notify your instructor. If you cannot personally get your work to your instructor, have a friend or family member either deliver the assignment to class or leave it in the instructor's mailbox. If possible, please have the assignment stamped and dated by the departmental secretary. It is up to individual instructors to determine if your excuse for turning in late work is legitimate enough to excuse the late grade policy.

Plagiarism and Cheating Policy:
Cheating includes any attempt to defraud, deceive, or mislead the instructor in arriving at an honest grade assessment. Plagiarism is a form of cheating that involves presenting as one's own ideas the ideas or work of another. The Department takes plagiarism and cheating very seriously, and, as a Department, it has been determined that students who are guilty of either of these infractions will automatically fail the course. In addition to earning an F for the course, the matter will be referred to the Executive Director of Student Life for possible disciplinary action.

Attendance and Tardiness:
If <u>you miss five or more class periods, you will fail this course.</u> If by mid-term you have missed this number of class periods, you must initiate your own withdrawal in the Registrar's Office. After mid-term, if you have exceeded this number of absences, you will have earned an F in this course. <u>If you are more than five minutes late to class, your instructor will begin to count such tardiness toward attendance; for example, two "tardies" equal one absence. No distinction is made between excused and unexcused absences; an absence is an absence, regardless.</u>

Attendance Policy for Students Involved in University Events:
Often students who participate in sporting and musical programs miss class more than the required number of absences allowed for other students. The five class period policy is in effect for all students, including athletes and musicians. For each class period missed beyond those stated in the Attendance Policy, students must write a two page, double spaced report, due the day they return to class, that will cover the material missed that period. Your instructor will tell you what portion of *The Curious Writer* or *The Mercury Reader* was discussed during class so that you can submit your report for the next class period. Students must produce written documentation prior to leaving class for such events; otherwise, the instructor will note this absence as just another, perhaps exceeding the five class limit, and you will fail the course. If you do not submit your written report the next class period, you will be marked absent, and you will then fail the course, having exceeded the five class absence rule.

Essay Grading:
The most important consideration for all essays is content; however, grammar and usage are also important. If you have too many grammatical errors or have too many errors in general mechanics and usage, it begins to be difficult, if not impossible, to read a piece of writing for content; and, a person's literacy is often judged according to the number of distracting sentence errors that appear in writing. Thus, if you have three or more of the major grammatical errors listed below, it will be difficult for your writing to earn a grade higher than a C.

Major Grammatical Errors: fragment; comma splice; run on; subject/verb agreement error; pronoun/antecedent agreement error; verb problem; excessive apostrophe and semi-colon errors; four or more spelling errors

Final Grade:
All essays will be graded on the usual A through F scale and will be averaged according to numerical equivalents, for example: B+ (88); B (85); B- (82), etc. An F is worth 50 points. Remember, if you do not turn in all essay assignments and all pre-writing activities that are included with the essay assignments, you will not pass this course. Again, grading is as follows:

Personal Essay: 15%
Profile: 20%
Review: 20%
Final Exam Essay: 15%
Three in-Class Written Responses: 15%
Journal/*MyCompLab* / Misc. 10%
Class Participation and Attendance- 5%

Incompletes:
Incompletes are discouraged and are assigned only under extenuating circumstances. In fairness to those students who complete the course as scheduled, under no circumstances will an Incomplete ("I") be changed to an "A" unless the student has experienced a death in the immediate family or has a written medical excuse from a physician.

Classroom Etiquette:
1. All cell phones and beepers must be turned off.
2. Arrive to class on time.
3. Do not speak while others are speaking.
4. No children allowed.
5. Food and drink are not permitted in the computer labs – bottled water only

Independent Study Courses:
Independent Study (IS) courses are offered only under exceptional circumstances. Required courses intended to build academic skills may both be taken as IS (e.g., clinical supervision and internships). No student will take more than one IS course per semester. Moreover, ID courses are limited to seniors and graduate students. Summer IS courses must continue through both summer sessions.

Copyright Restrictions:
The Copyright Act of 1976 grants to copyright owners the exclusive right to reproduce their works and distribute copies of their work. Works that receive copyright protection include published works such as a textbook. Copying in a textbook without permission from the owner of the copyright may constitute copyright infringement. Civil and criminal penalties may be assessed for copyright infringement. Civil penalties include damages up to $100.00; criminal penalties include a fine up to $250,000 and imprisonment.

Copyright laws do allow students and professors to make photocopies of copyrighted materials under strict conditions. You may not copy most, much less all, of a work, but you may copy a limited portion of a work, such as an article from a journal or a chapter from a book. These copies must be for your own personal academic use or, in the case of a professor, for personal, limited classroom use. In general, the extent of your copying should not suggest that the purpose or the effect of your copying is to avoid paying for the materials. And, of course, you may not sell these copies for a profit. Thus, students who copy textbooks to avoid buying them or professors who provide photocopies of textbooks to enable students to save money are both violating the law.

Student E-mail Address:
All students must obtain an e-mail address.

Students with Disabilities:
The University seeks to provide reasonable accommodations for all qualified persons with disabilities. The University will adhere to all applicable federal, state, and local laws, regulations and guidelines with respect to providing reasonable accommodations as required to afford equal educational opportunity. It is the student's responsibility to register with the Director of Student Counseling and to contact the faculty member in a timely fashion to arrange for suitable accommodations.

Disability Services Phone Number and Office Hours: Student Center, 124

Student Counseling Services Phone Number and Office Hours

Important Dates:

Last Day Courses Can Be Dropped without Record:
Last Day to Drop a Course or to Withdraw from the College:
Mid-point of the Semester:
Last Class Day:
Final Exam:

*Your instructor reserves the right to add additional assignments as needed and to modify all assignments and the reading schedule as needed.

<div align="center">

First Year Writing Program
English 1301-Course Schedule

</div>

Week 1
1. Introduction to course
2. Distribution of syllabus
3. The writing portfolio, A1, *The Curious Writer*
4. **Diagnostic Essay** – in class

Week 2
1. Return **Diagnostic Essay** – discussion of essays' strengths and weaknesses
2. Discussion of the writing process
3. Discussion and practice of invention strategies
4. "Writing as Inquiry," Ch. 1, *The Curious Writer*
5. "Writing a **Personal Essay**," Ch. 4, *The Curious Writer*
6. **Personal Essay** topic, 109, *The Curious Writer*
    *Generating ideas for **Personal Essay**, 110
    *Drafting and revision strategies for **Personal Essay**, 122
7. Self-evaluation survey, 20, *The Curious Writer* – discussion of results
8. *Testing Center *
9. *Consent and Survey Forms**

Week 3

1. Grammar diagnostic, *MyCompLab Course Compass*
2. *LB Brief,* review fragments, 326; comma splices, and run ons, 332
3. In-class **Written Response One** *
4. **Written Response One** – editing for fragments, comma splices, run ons
5. *Mercury Reader selections, TBA ***
*Collect Written Response One

Week 4

1. Return **Written Response One** – in-class editing of errors
2. Kuchta, evaluating student draft, 118, *The Curious Writer*
3. **Personal Essay** – draft due, peer workshop
4. *Mercury Reader selections, TBA**
5. *MyCompLab Course Compass,* Journal Writing

Week 5

1. *LB Brief*, review or subject/verb agreement, 280; pronoun/antecedent agreement errors, 296
2. *LB Brief*, review of sentence variety, 191
3. *LB Brief*, review conciseness, 216
4. Arredondo, 128, final draft of student essay, *The Curious Writer*
5. *MyCompLab Course Compass,* Journal Writing
6. **Personal Essay** – revisions and final peer workshop – editing for fragments, comma splices, run ons, agreement errors
*Collect Essay #1 – Personal Essay

Week 6

1. *LB Brief,* verb problems, 250
2. *Mercury Reading selections, TBA**
3. In-class **Written Response Two**
4. **Written Response Two** – editing for agreement errors and verb problems
5. *MyCompLab Course Compass,* Journal Writing

Week 7

1. Return **Personal Essay #1** – in-class editing of errors
2. *LB Brief,* apostrophes, 373
3. "Writing a **Profile**," Ch. 5 *The Curious Writer*
4. **Profile** Writing Assignment Topic, 152, *The Curious Writer*
   *Generating ideas, interviewing, drafting, 153, *The Curious Writer*
5. Evaluating student draft and interview notes, 162, *The Curious Writer*
Collect Written Response Two

Week 8

1. Return **Written Response Two** – in-class editing of errors
2. *LB Brief,* commas, 348
3. **Profile** Writing Assignment – draft due, peer workshop
4. *Mercury Reader selections, TBA***
5. *MyCompLab Course Compass,* Journal Writing
6. *Mid-surveys**

Week 9

1. Comma discussion, cont.
2. **Profile** Writing Assignment – revisions and final peer workshop, editing for commas and apostrophes
3. Parker, 171, final draft of student written profile, *The Curious Writer*
4. **Mid-semester assessment conferences and letters**
*Collect Essay #2 – Profile**

Week 10

1. *LB Brief*, review of semi-colons, 365 and colons, 369
2. In-class **Written Response Three**,
3. *Mercury Reader selections, TBA**
4. *MyCompLab Course Compass,* Journal Writing

Week 11

1. Return Writing Assignment #2, **Profile** – in class editing of errors
2. *LB Brief*, review of parallelism, 187
3. Peer workshop of **Written Response Three** – editing for conciseness, sentence variety, parallelism
4. "Writing a Review," Ch. 6, *The Curious Writer*
5. Review Writing Assignment Topic, 195, *The Curious Writer* – 2 quotations, 2 sources
 *Generating ideas, drafting, 195, *The Curious Writer*
 Collect Written Response Three

Week 12

1. Return **Written Response Three** – in-class editing of errors
2. *LB Brief,* review of quotation marks, 378
3. "Avoiding Plagiarism and Documenting Sources," Ch. 54 and " MLA Documentation and Format," Ch. 56, *LB Brief*
4. Claymore, 204, evaluating student draft, *The Curious Writer*
5. Claymore, 213, final draft of student essay, *The Curious Writer*
6. **Review** Writing Assignment – draft due, peer workshop
7. *MyCompLab Course Compass,* Journal Writing
8. *Mercury Reader selections, TBA **

Week 13

1. *LB Brief,* review of italicizing, 404
2. More work with documentation
3. **Review** Writing Assignment – revisions and final peer workshop, editing for conciseness, parallelism, sentence variety
Collect Essay #3 – Review

Week 14

1. Grammar and punctuation review
2. Grammar Post-Test, *My CompLab Course Compass*
3. *Mercury Reader selections, TBA**
4. *MyCompLab Course Compass,* Journal Writing

Week 15

1. Return **Review** Writing Assignment – in-class editing of errors
2. Rest of week to catch up
3. ***Mercury Reader selections, TBA*****
4. *MyCompLab Course Compass,* Journal Writing
* Collect portfolios

Week 16

Final Exam Essay: In-class prompt

APPENDIX E
RUBRIC

Analytical Rubric

	Exceptional **4/A**	Better Than Avg. **3/B**	Average **2/C**	Poor **1/D**	Failing **0/F**
Focus	• Prompt is completely & clearly addressed • Clear, interesting central idea stated or implied so focus of the piece is evident or gradually revealed • Writing appropriate for & clearly directed at a specific audience &/or for a specific situation or occasion. • Well-developed, enticing opening leads to essay's central idea.	• Prompt is clearly addressed • Clear central idea, stated either explicitly or implicitly • Writing demonstrates awareness of audience, situation, & occasion • Effective, though less detailed opening leads to central idea	• Prompt is addressed • Central idea may not be immediately clear but is evident by the end of the piece • Writing demonstrates occasional awareness of audience, situation, & occasion • Adequate opening leads to central idea	• Prompt is partially or unclearly addressed • Ambiguous or unclear central idea • Little or no awareness of audience, situation, or occasion • Rudimentary opening to writing sample	• Prompt is partially or not addressed • Unclear or no central idea • Inconsistent or no awareness of audience, situation, or occasion • Rudimentary or no opening to writing sample
Organization & Development	• Consistently logical & effective ¶ing with smooth transitions between & within ¶s • Consistently clear & logical structure • Body ¶s provide substantial detailed evidence and thorough discussion & explanation • Effective, convincing discussion of topic • Interesting, effective,	• Usually logical & effective ¶ing with mostly smooth transitions between & within ¶s • Usually clear & logical structure • Frequent evidence, proof, discussion in body ¶s with only occasional lapses • Mostly convincing, competent discussion of topic • Ends paper effectively	• Logical ¶ing with transitions between & within ¶s • Organization is sometimes unclear or illogical • Body ¶s contain adequate though sometimes inconsistent levels of evidence & examples • General, occasionally convincing discussion of topic • Final ¶(s offer sufficient closure	• Rarely logical, mostly ineffective ¶ing with some abrupt transitions between & within ¶s • Organization is often confusing • Body ¶s lack adequate examples, details, & explanations • Content of essay is rarely convincing	• No ¶ing and/or absent or illogical transitions between & within ¶s • Lack of organization consistently confuses reader • Body ¶s provide little or no

	insightful ending			• Weak, mechanical, or incomplete ending	evidence, discussion, &/or explanation • Ineffective, unconvincing discussion of topic • Missing, ineffective, dull, incoherent, or irrelevant ending
Style & Sentence Structure	• Sophisticated, effective, appropriate diction • Consistently varied, sophisticated sentence length and structure • Consistent tone • Consistently maintains task-appropriate voice • Consistently smooth, clear, readable syntax • Free of errors in sentence structure, i.e., fragments, run-ons, and comma splices • No wordiness	• Sometimes sophisticated, mostly accurate diction • Frequently varied sentence length & structure • Usually consistent tone • Frequently maintains task-appropriate voice • Frequently smooth, clear, readable syntax • Infrequent errors in sentence structure, i.e., fragments, run-ons, and comma splices • Little wordiness	• Unsophisticated but generally accurate diction • Some variety in sentence length and structure • Occasionally inconsistent tone • Occasional lapses in task-appropriate voice • Clear, relatively free of unidiomatic syntax & expressions • Occasional errors in sentence structure, i.e., fragments, run-ons, and comma splices • Some wordiness	• Often limited, frequently imprecise diction • Mostly simple, rarely varied sentence length and structure • Frequently inconsistent tone • Frequent lapses in task-appropriate voice • Some unidiomatic expressions & syntax, but not distracting • Frequent errors in sentence structure, i.e., fragments, run-ons, and comma splices • Frequent wordiness	• Limited, imprecise diction prevents communication of complex ideas • Repetitive, unsophisticated sentence length & structure • Inconsistent, inappropriate tone • Consistently uses task-inappropriate voice • Frequent & distracting unidiomatic syntax & expressions • Widespread errors in sentence structure make meaning

					unclear
					• Excessive wordiness
Grammar & Mechanics	• Free of grammatical errors, i.e., errors in subject-verb agreement, verb & adjective forms, pronoun-referent agreement, etc. • Free of mechanical errors in punctuation, capitalization, spelling, use of numbers, etc.	• Infrequent grammatical errors, i.e., errors in subject-verb agreement, verb & adjective forms, pronoun-referent agreement, etc. • Infrequent mechanical errors in punctuation, capitalization, spelling, use of numbers, etc.	• Some grammatical errors, i.e., errors in subject-verb agreement, verb & adjective forms, pronoun-referent agreement, etc. • Some mechanical errors in punctuation, capitalization, spelling, use of numbers, etc.	• A distracting number of grammatical errors, i.e., errors in subject-verb agreement, verb & adjective forms, pronoun-referent agreement, etc. • A distracting number of mechanical errors in punctuation, capitalization, spelling, use of numbers, etc.	• Excessive errors in grammar &/or mechanical conventions distort and/or obscure writer's intended meaning
Research	• Consistently uses reliable, relevant, appropriate sources • Consistently and correctly cites sources both in-text and parenthetically • Unfailingly uses appropriate documentation style • Complete absence of plagiarism • Thoughtful, insightful synthesis of writer's ideas with info from sources	• Frequently uses reliable, relevant, appropriate sources • Infrequent errors citing sources both in-text & parenthetically • No or few lapses in use of appropriate documentation style • Complete absence of plagiarism • Often insightful synthesis of writer's ideas with info from sources	• Uses sources, most of which are reliable and relevant • Occasional errors citing sources in-text &/or parenthetically • Occasional lapses in use of appropriate documentation style • Complete absence of plagiarism • Some effective synthesis of writer's ideas with info from sources	• Uses frequently unreliable and/or irrelevant sources • Frequent errors citing sources in-text and/or parenthetically • Frequent lapses in use of appropriate documentation style • Complete absence of plagiarism • Attempts to synthesize writer's ideas with info from sources but rarely succeeds	• Lacks sources or uses unreliable, irrelevant, inappropriate sources • Missing citations &/or widespread errors citing sources in-text or parenthetically • Little or no evidence that writer understands how to use appropriate documentation style • Evidence of plagiarism • No or consistently

					ineffective synthesis of writer's ideas with info from sources
Discipline-specific Writing	• Demonstrates exceptional creativity and/or higher order critical thinking skills appropriate for discipline	• Demonstrates frequent creativity and/or higher order critical thinking skills appropriate for discipline	• Demonstrates adequate creativity and/or higher order critical thinking skills appropriate for discipline	• Infrequently demonstrates creativity and/or higher order critical thinking skills appropriate for discipline	• Demonstrates little or no creativity or higher order critical thinking skills appropriate for discipline

VITA

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Texas Certifications:
Classroom Teacher-Secondary (Grades 6-12)
Secondary English Language Arts (Grades 6-12)
Classroom Teacher-Elementary (Grades 1-8)
Bilingual/ESL- Spanish (EC-12)
Reading Specialist (Grades EC-12)

Professional Profile:
Accomplished educator with a combined 12 years of teaching experience including elementary school, middle school, community college, and university college level. Excellent teaching credentials along with strong leadership skills, communication skills, and student advocacy skills.