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# An Investigation of the Perceptions of Students' Proficiency in Reading and Writing as Indicated by Twelfth Grade English Teachers and College English Instructors 

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# AN INVESTIGATION OF THE PERCEPTIONS OF STUDENTS' PROFICIENCY IN READING AND WRITING AS INDICATED BY TWELFTH GRADE ENGLISH TEACHERS AND COLLEGE ENGLISH COMPOSITION INSTRUCTORS 

## by

Lara King Charbonnet, M.S.

A Dissertation<br>Submitted in Partial Fulfillment of the<br>Requirements for the Degree of<br>Doctor of Education

Major: Instruction and Curriculum Leadership

The University of Memphis
May 2013

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## Dedication

This dissertation is dedicated to my husband Edward and to all educators like him who continue to do the most frustrating yet rewarding, exhausting but inspiring, challenging and amazing job day in and day out.

## Acknowledgements

First, I would like to thank my husband Edward for the time and energy he's devoted to this process alongside me. He has been my sounding board, my pen and paper supplier, my cheering section, and so much more. I am eternally grateful for all the days when he allowed me peace and quiet to work and also for the other days when he listened and supported me when I was anything but peaceful or quiet about this work. I will never have the perfect words to thank you, Edward, but I want you to know that your belief in me has meant more than you will ever know.

I would also like to thank and acknowledge the support of my father, John King, my grandparents Franklin and Naomi Terry, my mother-in-law Elona Charbonnet, and my mother, Velda King. All of these wonderful people have encouraged and supported me as a person, student, and educator, and I would not be the person I am today without them.

I also wish to thank the members of my dissertation committee, Dr. J. Helen Perkins, Dr. Louis Franceschini, Dr. Jeffrey Byford, and Dr. Joseph Jones for their thoughtful guidance throughout this process. I am so grateful for their time, patience, and expertise these past years.


#### Abstract

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The purpose of this study was to examine the differences in perceptions regarding students' proficiency in reading and writing skills between 12th grade English teachers and college English Composition instructors. A purposive, nonrandom sample of $12^{\text {th }}$ grade English teachers and college English Composition instructors from West Tennessee were surveyed using an instrument whose indicators were based on the Common Core Reading and Writing Standards. The high school teachers rated how proficient students are in these reading and writing skills at the end of the two semesters of instruction. The college instructors identified what percent of students were proficient in these same skills at the start of the semester.

An analysis of the frequency and percentages of the responses was conducted. In addition, a "mixed" analysis of variance with repeated measures analysis of variance was used to explore the "within" groups results.

The results of this study indicated that significant differences in perception of student proficiency in reading and writing exist between high school and college English instructors. Overall, the high school teachers deemed more students proficient on every reading and writing standard than the college instructors.

A significant difference was found across the means of the reading standards for the high school and college instructors combined. A significant difference was also found when the groups were contrasted. Student proficiency in understanding a text's craft and structure was rated highest by both high school and college groups.

There was no significant "within group" difference for either the high school or the college respondents on the writing standards. There was a significant difference between the high school and college respondents.

A multivariate and univariate analyses of variance indicated a significant difference between experienced and inexperienced teachers for how students understand key ideas and details within a text. In addition, a significant difference was found between the ways suburban and non-suburban high school teachers rated students' ability to create different types of texts.

## TABLE OF CONTENTS

Chapter Page

1. Introduction
Introduction ..... 1
Context of Problem ..... 8
Purpose of Study ..... 10
Research Questions ..... 10
Scope and Limitations ..... 11
Definition of Terms ..... 11
2. Literature Review ..... 13
Introduction ..... 13
The Mission of the High School ..... 14
Curriculum in Early America ..... 14
The First High Schools ..... 17
The Evolution of English Language Arts ..... 21
The Early Study of English ..... 21
English for College Admissions ..... 22
The Modern Study of English ..... 23
Determining College Readiness ..... 26
Curricular Alignment ..... 33
Common Core Standards Initiative ..... 33
P-20 Alignment ..... 35
Tennessee's P-16 Commitment ..... 39
3. Research and Design Methodology ..... 43
Research Questions ..... 44
Site of Research and Participants ..... 44
Data Collection and Analysis ..... 47
Limitations of Study ..... 49
4. Results ..... 51
Research Question 1 ..... 52
Research Question 2 ..... 65
Research Question 3 ..... 77
Research Question 4 ..... 85
Summary of Findings ..... 89
5. Discussion ..... 91
Discussion of Findings ..... 92
Limitations of Study ..... 99
Recommendations for Further Research ..... 101
Conclusion ..... 101
References ..... 106
Appendix A. Survey Instrument ..... 113

## LIST OF TABLES

Table ..... Page

1. Frequencies and Percentages of Responses for Reading Standard 1: ..... 54
High School
2. Frequencies and Percentages of Responses for Reading Standard 1: ..... 55
College Instructors
3. Frequencies and Percentages of Responses for Reading Standard 2: ..... 57
High School
4. Frequencies and Percentages of Responses for Reading Standard 2: ..... 58
College Instructors
5. Frequencies and Percentages of Responses for Reading Standard 3: ..... 60
High School
6. Frequencies and Percentages of Responses for Reading Standard 3: ..... 61
College Instructors
7. Frequencies and Percentages of Responses for Reading Standard 4: ..... 63
High School
8. Frequencies and Percentages of Responses for Reading Standard 4: ..... 64
College Instructors
9. Frequencies and Percentages of Responses for Writing Standard 1: High ..... 66 School
10. Frequencies and Percentages of Responses for Writing Standard 1: ..... 67
College Instructors
11. Frequencies and Percentages of Responses for Writing Standard 2: ..... 69 High School
12. Frequencies and Percentages of Responses for Writing Standard 2: ..... 70
College Instructors
13. Frequencies and Percentages of Responses for Writing Standard 3: ..... 72
High School
14. Frequencies and Percentages of Responses for Writing Standard 3: ..... 73
College Instructors
15. Frequencies and Percentages of Responses for Writing Standard 4:
16. Frequencies and Percentages of Responses for Writing Standard 4: College Instructors
17. Means, Standard Deviations, and Effect Size Differences for Reading 78 Standard and Writing Standards
18. Mixed Analysis of Variance Results for Reading Standards, with Repeated Measures and Multivariate Analysis of Variance FollowUp Test Results
19. Mixed Analysis of Variance Results for Writing Standards, with
Repeated Measures and Multivariate Analysis of Variance Follow-
Up Test Results
20. Multivariate and Univariate Analyses of Variance F Ratios for Measures of Students' Reading Competencies by High School Faculty Subgroups
$\begin{array}{ll}\text { 21. Multivariate and Univariate Analyses of Variance F Ratios for } & 88 \\ \text { Measures of Students' Writing Competencies by High School } & \\ \text { Faculty Subgroups } & \end{array}$

## CHAPTER 1

## INTRODUCTION

The purpose of this investigation is to study the perceptions of $12^{\text {th }}$ grade English Language Arts (ELA) teachers and First Year Composition (FYC) instructors regarding the reading and writing proficiency of their students.

It is no longer sufficient to have only a high school diploma. The job market has changed so that by 2018 , almost $80 \%$ of the jobs in Tennessee will require some type of postsecondary training (National Skills Coalition). President Barak Obama (2012) has made college graduation a national priority by setting a goal of increasing the number of college graduates by 2020, yet the number of students who require remediation once they enter college or who fail to graduate college suggest gaps in student knowledge and skill between the secondary and postsecondary levels. The most recent nationwide ACT test results (2011b) affirm this shortcoming; according to the test's benchmarks, only one in four high school students is college or career ready. Most college admissions applications require students to take either the SAT or ACT test; both tests provide subject-specific benchmark scores that, if met, predict success in college coursework. The ACT and its benchmark scores will be used in this study since it is a required test for all high school juniors in Tennessee. Currently, there is little collaboration between the secondary and postsecondary levels; in fact, the types of assignments and expectations often vary greatly between the two levels. As a result, students may not be adequately prepared for the challenges they will face at their colleges or careers once they leave the secondary environment. ACT (2010a) suggests "improving college and career readiness is crucial to the development of a diverse and talented labor force that can maintain and increase U.S.
economic competitiveness throughout the world" (p.8). ACT has defined college and career readiness as:
the acquisition of the knowledge and skills a student needs to enroll and succeed in credit-bearing, first year courses at a postsecondary institution (such as a twoor four-year college, trade school, or technical school) without the need for remediation. (p. 1)

A student's potential success can be determined by his or her ability to meet College Readiness Benchmarks in the four tested areas of the ACT: Reading, English, Math, Science. According to ACT (2010a), a student who meets the benchmarks has approximately a $75 \%$ chance of earning a C or better, and a $50 \%$ chance of earning a B or better, in an entry-level college course. ACT notes that "improving the preparation of students for life beyond high school is larger than simply focusing on results at the high school level- this is a systems issue that must be addressed by all levels (P-16) of our education systems" (p. 8). P-16 and P-20 curricular alignment aim to match learning expectations across grade levels, preschool or "P" to graduate studies in year 16 or 20 of schooling. Tennessee has committed to curricular alignment with the acceptance of First to the Top funding, a $\$ 501$ million grant given to Tennessee as part of the Race to the Top education challenge by the White House, and the creation of the Complete College Tennessee Act of 2010 ("Tennessee First to the Top").

Prior to the twentieth century, college admissions requirements dictated the reading and writing knowledge needed for college readiness; thus the secondary school curriculum was developed and aligned from the top down with college entrance exams in mind. This entrance exam tested students on a variety of subjects as well as asked students to write on a given topic. For example, Harvard's 1874 exam asked students to compose an essay on a classic work of literature (Applebee, 1974). In response to
entrance exam requirements, secondary schools altered their curriculum to reflect the changing entrance exams; the subject of English shifted from a study of grammar and rhetoric, following the Classical model, to a study of literature (Applebee, 1974; Conley, 2005).

However, as secondary school enrollment grew during the twentieth century, and the student population became more diverse, the public questioned the direction that the curriculum should take, whether curriculum should be geared toward preparing students for college or for careers, or both. The Committee of Ten, a group organized by the National Education Association in 1893, met resistance when it proposed that a curriculum designed for college students would be beneficial for all students. Proponents of the classical model favored a separate curriculum for college bound students, and groups like the National Society for the Promotion of Industrial Education argued for hands-on training for secondary students to prepare them for their future vocations (Urban \& Wagoner, 1996). While the stated goal of many schools was to prepare students for both college and careers, in practice many teachers still focused on the college demands (Applebee, 1974).

Today, instead of aligning expectations to college requirements, state standards stem from the lower grades to the top, kindergarten to $12^{\text {th }}$ grades. Currently curriculum is derived from state-created K - 12 standards that increase in complexity as a student progresses through the grade levels, and high school teachers align their instruction and assessments to measure student progress toward and mastery of these standards. These standards number in the hundreds for each course and range in clarity from the vague to the specific. As a result, the types of assignments and expectations are likewise varied
and often focused on the end-of-course test or writing assessment. Public high school English teachers and their students are held accountable for meeting a course's standards by end-of-course tests and writing assessments. Until recently, the Tennessee high school version of these assessments were called "gateways" because a student could not graduate high school without demonstrating proficiency on the test. While the "gateways" are no longer a graduation requirement in Tennessee, virtually the same assessments are now used as end-of-course tests ("EOCs") which are given at the end of ninth, tenth, and eleventh grades. These standards, and their accompanying assessments, are in place to ensure that each student has met certain standards in order to earn a high school diploma. While many students successfully surpass this basic set of expectations, there is no accurate way to know which particular expectations students have mastered. Today many employers may expect more than just a high school diploma, suggesting that a diploma alone might not carry significant weight. For example, the diploma might only imply that "a graduate can read and write at a rudimentary level, or lacking those skills, will at least show up for work on time, follow directions, and not take drugs" (Conley, 2010, p. 3).

The majority of graduates, $70 \%$ of the 2.5 million American high school graduates, expect to continue on to college following high school, and $75 \%$ of these graduates do attend a postsecondary institution within five years of high school graduation (Conley \& Bracco, 2004; Venezia, Kirst, \& Antonio, 2003). Despite these numbers, nationwide only $23 \%$ of high school graduates who took the ACT are prepared in English, Math, Science, and Reading to take college level coursework (American Community Survey, 2008). The large number of remedial courses required as well as low
college retention and graduation rates imply that a high school diploma does not always mean that a student possesses college readiness skills. Approximately 40\% of college students take at least one remedial course, reducing the likelihood that these students will earn a college degree. Nationally, only $17 \%$ of students who take a remedial reading course ever obtain a bachelor's degree (Conley, 2010). To combat this need for remediation and to improve the low graduation rate, Adelman (2006) suggests "postsecondary education has to begin in high school, if not by AP then by the growing dual enrollment movement or other, more structured current efforts" (p. 108).

The reality is that programs and tests are already in place to prepare students for the rigor of college level work. In addition to dual enrollment courses between high schools and postsecondary institutions, these "more structured current efforts" include the College Board's Advanced Placement (AP) and the International Baccalaureate (IB) programs which both seek to prepare students for the types of challenging assignments they might face in college coursework. Dual enrollment courses allow students to earn college credit while also earning high school credits needed for graduation.

However, while only a certain set of students might take dual enrollment or AP courses, every student in Tennessee is required to take the ACT; this test has College Readiness benchmark scores in English, Mathematics, Reading, and Science to determine whether a student is college ready. A student needs an 18 in English, 22 in Math, 21 in Reading, and a 24 in Science to meet the benchmark. According to ACT, a student whose ACT scores meet these benchmarks has a $50 \%$ chance of earning a B in a college course in English Composition, Algebra, Social Science or Biology, or a 75\% chance of earning a C. Nationally, only $24 \%$ of ACT-tested high school graduates meet all four benchmark
scores. In Tennessee, where $100 \%$ of high school graduates take the ACT, the number is even lower, with only $16 \%$ of students meeting all four (ACT.org, 2010).

Examining the courses a student has taken in high school may seem to be the most obvious method of determining college readiness, and certainly, the type of courses taken in high school is important in determining whether or not a student will be successful in college. One study (Adelman, 2006) suggests that students who take a math course beyond Algebra 2 in high school are more likely to attain a bachelor's degree. But course titles alone may be misleading; there may be a wide variation in the quality and rigor of courses even within one school. Just as course titles can be unreliable when determining college readiness, so can GPAs and test scores. Some GPAs are weighted, meaning that more credit is given to Honors or Advanced Placement courses. End of course testing is often completed at the end of tenth and eleventh grade; these tests are more a measure of whether students have a proficiency in core subjects than if they are prepared for college (Conley, 2010).

Recently many states have agreed to adopt the Common Core State Standards (CCSS), a set of national standards for English Language Arts and Mathematics, as part of the application for $\$ 4.35$ billion in federal funds under President Obama's Race to the Top education initiative (McCluskey, 2010). Tennessee has been using its own set of curriculum standards that are currently assessed through "End of Course" testing. In the past few years, these current standards and their accompanying assessments have been criticized for the low level of knowledge that they require of students compared to what is nationally expected. The US Chamber of Commerce even noted as recently as 2007 that "Tennessee gets very poor marks on the credibility of its student proficiency scores.

While the state identified large percentages of its students as proficient on 2005 state math and reading exams, smaller percentages posted proficient scores on the NAEP [National Assessment of Educational Progress exam] in 2005." The adoption of the CCSS thus represent the state's effort to raise standards to a higher level consistent with national expectations. These findings prompted the Tennessee Diploma Project and the later application to the national Race to the Top. Tennessee was one of the first two states to win some of the Race to the Top money; as a result, under Tennessee's "First to the Top" agreement, CCSS will take the place of the current standards during 2013-2014 school year.

This researcher compares the perceptions of student proficiency on these standards between twelfth grade ELA teachers and first year composition instructors, specifically by posing following questions:

1. How do $12^{\text {th }}$ grade English teachers and college English instructors rate their students' reading proficiency in the areas of key ideas and details, craft and structure, integration of knowledge and ideas, and range of reading and level of text complexity?
2. How do $12^{\text {th }}$ grade English teachers and college English instructors rate their students' writing proficiency in areas of text types and purposes, product and distribution of writing, research to build and present knowledge, and range of writing?
3. Do differences occur regarding $12^{\text {th }}$ grade English teachers and college English instructors' perceptions of their students' proficiencies in reading and writing?
4. Do differences occur between $12^{\text {th }}$ grade English teachers' perceptions of their students proficiencies in reading and writing within the following demographics:
(a) grade level primarily taught, (b) academic level of students taught, (c) years of teaching experience, (d) level of education, and (e) locale of school?

## Context of the Problem

Secondary educators are charged with both meeting the curricular requirements of the state or school district as well as preparing students for college. At times, these tasks can seem mutually exclusive. While secondary educators are well versed in the expectations of grade levels in their building, most of the teachers are isolated from what goes on in a college classroom and might have little knowledge of what will be required of their students once they exit the high school's doors. Secondary educators might base their assumptions on their own recollections of their college experiences or on the reports of former students. Indeed, teachers regularly tell students that they will "need this in college," but the communication between the institutions may often be sparse.

Ensuring a seamless transition from high school to college is important for the continued success of students. While high school graduation rates are increasing in Tennessee, the number of remediation courses students must take and the four and sixyear college graduation rates suggest that many students are not prepared for college success. Sixty-seven percent of Tennessee students graduate high school in four years, and of those students, $43 \%$ enroll in college immediately following high school. Only $29 \%$ are still enrolled their sophomore year, and only $19 \%$ earn a college degree (Achieve.org, 2011). Despite these low numbers, Achieve.org predicts that by 2014, 32\%
of the jobs in Tennessee will require a bachelor's degree and $81 \%$ will require training past high school (2011).

The Common Core Standards Initiative (CCSI), led by the Council of Chief State School Officers (CCSSO) and the National Governors Association Center for Best Practices (NGA Center), represents the latest movement toward national standards and national K-12 curriculum alignment. While the majority of states have adopted the standards, they were not created by the federal government. In fact, in addition to the CCSSO and the NGA Center, teachers also had a role in creating these standards through subject areas' national organizations such as the National Education Association, National Council of Teachers of Mathematics and National Council of Teachers of English. The creators of the CCSI claim that the standards include "rigorous content and skills" that are based in both what students need to succeed at college or in the workplace and in what student in high-performing countries are learning (CCSI, 2010). The standards do not dictate lesson or unit plans; rather, they are a set of specific skills for each grade level. Currently, CCSS exist for K-12 English Language Arts and Mathematics. In 2010, Tennessee agreed to implement the CCSS for the 2013-2014 school year. With the advent of the Race to the Top competition and the First to the Top requirements for Tennessee, secondary and postsecondary institutions must work together to establish aligned expectations and curriculum to ensure success on both levels. All of this information will be stored and compiled at the University of Tennessee Knoxville in a database at its College of Business and Economics.

## Purpose of the Study

This researcher desires to study whether there are differences in perceptions regarding students' proficiency in reading and writing between English instructors at the twelfth grade English teachers and college English Composition instructors. Twelfth grade educators will be asked to rate how proficient their students are, at the end of the academic term, for each reading and writing skill based on the Common Core standards. First Year Composition instructors will be asked to rate how proficient their students are in the same skills upon entry into the course. Both groups also have the option to answer an open-ended question to comment on their answers. The results of this study will contribute to the larger body of research concerning college preparation, language arts curriculum, and P-20 alignment. Curriculum designers, instructional specialists, administrators and educators of both high schools and colleges could benefit from this research. Findings could indicate that not only is there a discrepancy between high schools and colleges regarding the perception of student proficiency reading and writing, but there could also be a discrepancy in perceptions of student proficiency between educators at the same academic level. The differences could indicate an insufficient level of alignment between the secondary and postsecondary language arts curriculum.

## Research Questions

Three research questions will guide the current study:

1. How do $12^{\text {th }}$ grade English teachers and college English instructors rate their students' reading proficiency in the areas of key ideas and details, craft and structure, integration of knowledge and ideas, and range of reading and level of text complexity?
2. How do $12^{\text {th }}$ grade English teachers and college English instructors rate their students' writing proficiency in areas of text types and purposes, product and distribution of writing, research to build and present knowledge, and range of writing?
3. Do differences occur regarding $12^{\text {th }}$ grade English teachers and college English instructors' perceptions of their students' proficiencies in reading and writing?
4. Do differences occur between $12^{\text {th }}$ grade English teachers' perceptions of their students proficiencies in reading and writing within the following demographics:
(a) grade level primarily taught, (b) academic level of students taught, (c) years of teaching experience, (d) level of education, and (e) locale of school?

## Scope and Limitations

This study was designed to examine how both secondary and postsecondary English instructors view their students' proficiency in reading and writing. This study is first limited in scope; it will be limited to twelfth grade English instructors in West Tennessee and postsecondary instructors at three universities, a community college and a college in West Tennessee only. Since the survey will be conducted through email, a $100 \%$ response rate is unlikely, as email addresses can be invalid or educators may not complete the survey.

## Definition of Terms

The following terms will be used in the literature review and will be referenced throughout the study.

Career readiness: Possessing the academic and behavioral skills to gain employment and eventually proceed beyond an entry-level career.

College readiness: Possessing the academic and behavioral skills required for success in entry-level coursework at a two or four-year postsecondary institution.

Common Core State Standards Initiative (CCSSI): an effort to define the knowledge and skills students need to graduate high school and successfully complete college or work-related coursework ("About the Standards," n.d.).

First Year Composition: an introductory writing course commonly taken during the first year of collegiate work.
$P$-20: The movement to align curricular expectations from preschool to graduate studies. The P-16 concept includes curricular alignment only from preschool through undergraduate studies.

Postsecondary institution: Any two or four-year college or university where a student can earn a degree or certificate.

Remediation: Non-credit bearing courses that may be required by a postsecondary institution when a student is deficient in a specific subject area.

Secondary school: A level of education between elementary school and college (Merriam-Webster Dictionary).

## CHAPTER 2

## LITERATURE REVIEW

## Introduction

This literature review will examine the development and mission of the American high school curriculum, specifically the subject of English Language Arts (ELA) in that curriculum, the factors that determine college readiness, and the methods and benefits of from a clear alignment of expectations from preschool through college. At times in the history of the American high school the mission and goals have been clear, but now, even as standards-based education is the norm, it remains unclear whether the standards align between secondary and postsecondary schools. The following articles and studies lay the foundation of knowledge concerning curricular alignment between secondary and postsecondary institutions.

First, this chapter will investigate the history of the curriculum of the American school. When the first American high school opened its doors in the early 1800s, the high school educated students using a classical model and mostly served the needs of the children of the elite. As the nation became industrialized, and opportunities for education expanded across the country, the public secondary school's enrollment grew, and, as a result, the school took on the dual purpose of preparing students for both postsecondary studies and future vocations. Thus, the secondary school's curriculum and the skills needed for college or career readiness also changed.

A second focus of this chapter will be on the nature of the study of English Language Arts (ELA) as it transitioned to a college preparatory model. In elementary schools of the American colonies, students were taught reading to further their moral
development. In the nineteenth and early twentieth century secondary schools, college entrance exams set the tone for secondary English curriculum; the initial focus on grammar and vocabulary began to include a study of classic literature such as Shakespeare and Milton as required by colleges. Today, ELA curriculum is guided by a set of state or local standards, with many states now supporting a national set of ELA standards. Following this discussion of the changing nature of ELA, this chapter will discuss the various methods used to determine college readiness, including ACT score benchmarks.

The final focus of this chapter will be the current Common Core State Standards Initiative (CCSSI) and the importance of curricular alignment. States have signed on to adopt the Common Core Mathematics and ELA standards as part of the Race to the Top program, and these standards align learning expectations K-12 with the skills needed for college and career readiness serving as a basis.

## The Mission of the High School

Curriculum in Early America. From its origin, the mission of schools has been complex and has changed depending on the needs of the current population. In seventeenth century colonial America, education was a community's, or even a family's, concern, with emphasis placed on moral education and learning through sermons and scripture (Urban \& Wagoner, 1996). A child's education might take one of two paths: the path toward an occupation through apprenticeship or the path to a profession through further academic study. According to a law passed by the Massachusetts Bay Colony in 1642, parents chose one of two paths for their children: parents either took on the task of educating their children or they sent them to a master who could apprentice them. Under
this same law, education in the Colony meant that children at least should be able to read and understand the principles of law and religion. This law had its base in the troubling economic times that the colonists had experienced in England that had led many colonists to immigrate to America in the first place. It was presumed that if children were educated, they would have fewer reasons to lean upon public assistance (Good, 1962). Those not on the path to college could seek out a master for an apprenticeship, the primary method of education for boys in colonial America. Some children came to America without a family or were orphaned once here, and becoming an apprentice gave these children certain rights and privileges they might otherwise not have been afforded. Apprenticeship added to the skilled workforce and prevented "vagrancy, idling, and begging" (Good, 1962, pp. 28-29). Education in colonial America was "essentially hierarchical, class bound, and markedly uneven in terms of opportunity" due to the local nature of its administration and funding (Conley, 2003c; Urban \& Wagoner, 1996, p. 61). Schools were created and maintained by local communities, not by a centralized federal organization. Additionally, access to college was scarce. Harvard was founded in 1636, and instruction at the College of William and Mary did not officially begin until 1712 (Urban \& Wagoner, 1996).

Later, as enlightenment ideals began to permeate American leaders in the eighteenth century, the goals of education began to shift. Even though the Enlightenment placed a high value on education, the method of delivering that education continued to be debated. Urban and Wagoner (1996) noted the following comparison between the American colonies' and republic's purpose for education:

Just as the Puritans and other religious leaders of the Colonial era saw in education a means of heavenly salvation and earthly social harmony, so too did
republican theorists envision educational schemes that would serve the ends of national salvation and social control. (p. 86)

Viewing education as necessary for the greater good of society, Benjamin Franklin was instrumental in asserting that education was an important part of an individual's "pursuit of happiness" as called for in the Declaration of Independence. Franklin's contemporaries in Philadelphia opened schools that offered both classical and practical education (Urban \& Wagoner, 1996). Men like Franklin and Jefferson viewed education as a means of civic education, For Benjamin Rush, a University of Pennsylvania professor, education was a patriotic imperative, a necessity if America wanted to cultivate leaders, and he called for a American system of education separate from the education many men had received aboard, including Rush during his years at the University of Edinburgh. According to Rush, an American education was necessary for the country in order to "increase our understanding of finance, promote more profitable agriculture and manufacturing, and lead to improvements in transportation" (Urban \& Wagoner, 1996, p. 77). In addition, Rush argued, the increased costs of an education would be offset by the decreased costs of incarcerating criminals (Urban \& Wagoner, 1996).

During the nineteenth century, American schools fell into one of two categories: the classical school and the common school. The classical school was modeled on European schools and saw its goal as preparing future doctors and lawyers, while the common school offered practical courses and vocational preparation. The common school's purpose was to develop "common learning and cultural values" (Conley, 2003c, p. 18). The "academy" of the American South was similar to the classical school except that it offered a more diverse selection of courses, initially only to male students (Urban \& Wagoner, 1996). Upper schools of the colonies were either Latin grammar schools
that prepared students for college or practical schools that offered an English, or nonclassical, education (Good, 1962, p. 48). The Latin Grammar School offered a purely classical education for the purpose of preparing students for college and featured a fiveyear program including the study of Latin and Greek (Stout, 1969). Latin schools and colleges were exclusively male; there was no need for a college preparatory curriculum for girls since girls did not attend college (Good, 1962, p. 48).

During his seven years at a Latin grammar school or classical school, a boy's week might have been as follows: "Typically, mornings were devoted to grammar drill, afternoons to reading in the classic texts, Fridays to review and testing, Saturdays to writing themes, and Sundays to catechizing and religious exercises" (Urban \& Wagoner, 1996, p. 47). This routine emphasized what they viewed as the fundamentals and prepared boys for college or a profession (Urban \& Wagoner, 1996, p. 47). College entrance requirements reflect the classical school's focus on grammar and practice. A boy might be admitted to Harvard in 1642 if he could: "read Cicero at sight, speak Latin, make Latin verses, and give the forms, the declensions and conjugations, of the Greek nouns and verbs" (Good, 1962, p. 56). The admissions requirements of Yale and Princeton were similar, except that Yale added arithmetic to its list in 1745.

The First High Schools. In what is considered the first American high school, the curriculum was based on the vocational needs of its male students. This high school began as Boston's English Classical School and was later renamed English High School. Opened in 1821, the English High School was created following a committee's recommendation that a school was needed to train students for future work. Boston citizens were concerned that these needs were not being met by the primary schools;
indeed, many taxpayers bemoaned the fact that they had to send their sons out of town to receive the training required for their vocations. The English High School was thus created to prepare boys aged twelve to fifteen for work in "mercantile and mechanical employments" (Good, 1962, p. 241). Despite this stated goal, the curriculum was more in line with traditional academic offerings rather than vocational. Schools were given the title of "English" if Greek and Latin were not taught (Stout, 1969). Regardless, initially the school was not intended to prepare its students for college. The 100 male pupils took three years of English, mathematics, social studies, and science, and, in addition, courses in engineering, geology, drawing, and logic were offered (Stout, 1969). The English curriculum focused mostly on writing and speaking, with less emphasis on the study of literature. Students stayed with one instructor the entire year, and all of these instructors were college educated (Good, 1962).

As the population of cities grew and New England flourished during the industrial revolution, many new high schools opened, and the curriculum reflected the growing need to produce citizens prepared to handle the business needs of the community. Subjects in these new schools included "bookkeeping, composition, public speaking, drawing, and mathematics including surveying" (Good, 1962, p. 242). High schools for girls also opened; Boston established a high school for girls in 1826, though it was shut down only two years later due to a lack of funds to support the growing school. The coeducational high school in Lowell opened in 1831 and offered both a classical and an English course of studies (Good, 1962). In the Report of 1840 (Stout, 1969), the Lowell School listed its goal as:
to place within reach of the poorest citizen such means of preparing his children for college, or for giving instruction, or for any branch of active business, as the
richest shall be glad to avail themselves of, for their own children. (Stout, 1969, p. 5)

The Central High School of Philadelphia, the city's first high school, is notable for its unique curriculum and the controversy it sparked. Central High School opened its doors to boys only in 1838, and at first the school allowed students a choice of courses of study. The first course, the "principal course," included four years of study in fields such as English, French, sciences, and mathematics. This course of study was the most popular. A second course, the "classical course," was similar in length and study except that Latin and Greek were studied instead of French and the mathematics requirements were less. This course of study was intended for college bound students. A third course was available that did not include foreign languages and was only two years long (Good, 1962). Over time, however, the classical and two year course of study were dropped in favor of a standard curriculum for all students (Urban \& Wagoner, 1996). More than twothirds of Central's student population was middle class, and the curriculum attempted to address the needs of that community. Central High School prided itself on creating "a prestigious, undifferentiated curriculum that would also qualify its students for the city's commercial occupations" (Urban \& Wagoner, 1996, p. 175.) In fact, as state revenue decreased, the school's curriculum was called into question because many parents and taxpayers wanted the school to include additional vocational courses such as bookkeeping (Good, 1962).

In this early period, high school enrollment was still very small; Good (1962) estimates that only three people per thousand attended high school around 1890. This number grew to 40 per 1,000 by 1930. Curriculum changed as rural schools consolidated and focused on preparing students for later occupations. For example, in Iowa, the
curriculum was geared toward what the students would need to become teachers in the common schools (Good, 1962). Enrollment in public schools in the South developed much slower than in other areas of the country due to the large number of private academies preferred by the wealthy. Urban and Wagoner (1996) blame the slow development of schools in the South on "strong caste, class, and sectional divisions, scattered population patterns, economic crisis, and a widespread acceptance of the laissez-faire attitude" (p. 121). The children of the wealthy attended secondary institutions while many children of the poor often did not attend secondary schools at all. Former slave owners and southern businessmen of the day deemed education for all as both "impractical and undesirable" and that "the greater part of mankind must work for bread" (Good, 1962, p. 265). In fact, only four public high schools deemed worthy of preparing students for colleges existed in Tennessee as of 1887 . However, for the public high schools that did exist, the curriculum centered on agriculture and farm skills. As more students began to attend public high schools, more were able to eventually attend the states' public universities. These universities realized that they would need a larger budget and more appropriations from the state. As public universities called upon state governments for increased funding, their focus shifted toward the high schools and their future pupils. For example, Georgia appointed a professor of secondary education in 1904 to help local schools align curriculum between the preparatory and college level (Good, 1962). Thus, the focus of high school curriculum began to encompass both vocational as well as collegiate needs. Perplexingly, the requirements for college admission were rather unclear. In 1898, "a tabulation of the entrance requirements of almost 500 colleges showed that the demands of no two were identical" (Good, 1962, p. 256). As such, the
high school curriculum was varied and not completely geared toward college preparation, since what that preparation looked like was ambiguous.

Efforts were underway to make sense of the high school curriculum. The National Education Association's 1893 Committee of Ten set the tone for secondary curriculum. This committee decided on four separate courses of studies that students could choose from based on their interests, all of which were seen as beneficial whether a student was college bound or not. These four courses were the Classical, the Latin-Scientific, the Modern Languages, and the English. The major difference between the four courses was the amount and type of foreign language taken. Many were critical of the Committee's report because they claimed it ignored the needs of college-bound students by assuming that they needed the same curriculum as students who would enter the workforce. As public education expanded beyond urban areas to reach more children in suburban and rural areas, and more students entered schools from a variety of socioeconomic backgrounds, critics argued that the curriculum should likewise shift and reflect the needs of the students (Urban \& Wagoner, 1996).

## The Evolution of the English Language Arts

The Early Study of English. Just as the mission of American schools was divided from its early days, so was the study of English. Stout (1969) claims "in no other field have the changes been so radical and important as in the field of English" (p. 123). Initially, the teaching of reading was seen as instrumental in a child's moral education. In elementary schools, the teaching of reading focused on ethical and moral development; children learned to read at school, and one of the primary reading texts was the Bible (Good, 1962). Colonial school children also read from a primer, specifically The New

England Primer, which contained an alphabet, religious creed, and stories chosen for their moral lessons (Applebee, 1974). However, at the secondary level, curriculum followed the classical model that prioritized intellectual over religious growth. Under this model, "the purpose of education was to exercise and train the mental faculties," a task that was achieved through an intensive study of grammar (Applebee, 1974, p. 6). English curriculum consisted of students studying language with a focus on mastering vocabulary and grammar. Literature was considered "too easy- it had no substance, no organized body of knowledge, no rules, no theory, in short, nothing to promote the rigorous mental training" that instructors desired (p. 6). Students were expected to be well-read, but literature did not have a place in what was considered the academic curriculum of secondary schools and colleges. Certainly, literature could be read for pleasure; colleges in the nineteenth century condoned and encouraged an appreciation of literature in their literary and debating societies. Until 1873, grammar was the only English requirement on college entrance exams, and until 1890, composition was taught informally as part of other courses or as a means of demonstrating the rules of grammar, but not as a course by itself. As the close examination of literature gained prominence in the classroom, so did composition (Stout, 1969). It was not until 1900 that literature became a standard part of the secondary curriculum, and this shift was partially the result of changing college entrance requirements (Applebee, 1974).

English for College Admissions. In some ways, college entrance exams helped determine secondary school curricula in the nineteenth century. Students were not admitted solely based on what they had studied in high school; instead, elite schools required an entrance exam that students have to pass had to gain admittance. The topics
on the exam were announced ahead of time, allowing schools a chance to alter their curriculum to meet these requirements. For example, Harvard's entrance exam in 1874 required students to compose an essay in response to one of six specified pieces of literature (titles included three Shakespearean plays). Other colleges soon followed suit and chose literature of their own, inundating secondary schools with authors and titles to teach. This shift to literature as a tool for composition by colleges secured literature's place in the secondary school course of studies (Applebee, 1974).

In light of college entrance exam requirements, the Committee of Ten set out to establish the basic tenets of English instruction. The National Education Association brought together committees on nine different subject areas, including English, in 1892. Each subject wrote a summary of the contemporary viewpoints on their subject. According to the Conference on English,

The main objects of the teaching in English in schools seem to be two: (1) to enable the pupil to understand the expressed thoughts of others and to give expression to thoughts of his own; and (2) to cultivate a taste for reading, to give the pupil some acquaintance with good literature, and to furnish him with the means of extending that acquaintance. (as cited in Applebee, 1974, p. 33)

The Conference on English also recommended that students study English for five hours a week for four years, the only subject out of the original nine to receive such a recommendation for every student for all four years (Applebee, 1974). Thus, through the Committee of Ten's report in 1894 and the current college entrance exams of the times, English, including the study of literature, was established as a subject in its own right and as a discipline important for college readiness.

The Modern Study of English. While English as a subject was now given the importance it deserved, English educators struggled to determine the ways in which the
secondary school English curriculum would prepare students for college or for life. The National Education Association decreed in 1899 that secondary school curriculum should be the same for students who would attend college as for those who would not. Students studied classic literature such as Shakespeare, Milton, and Coleridge because they would appear on college entrance exams (Applebee, 1974). The necessity of a focus on the classics came into question as public school enrollment expanded, and some schools added vocational programs and courses of study. Did a student in a vocational program need less of a focus on literature or perhaps more? Some vocational English courses essentially became courses in composition as they included writing for business and commerce (Applebee, 1974). A 1917 report titled Reorganization of English in Secondary Schools argued that a college preparatory program in English was not always beneficial for students who would not attend college and suggested that students needed "skills in thinking, high ideals, right habits of conduct, healthy interests, and sensitiveness to the beautiful" (as cited in Applebee, 1974, p. 66). Gradually, secondary English course content became more varied, and by the 1920s and 30s, some schools had moved away from the college entrance exam list of texts in favor of what was included in textbooks. Textbooks and their anthologized selections provided a wider range of study, a shift favored by progressives who applauded the movement from classic texts to a broader focus in literature (Applebee, 1974). Regardless, college preparation was still the basis for curriculum. Many textbooks simply used the texts from the college entrance examinations (Aulbach, 1994). By the 1960s, language and composition joined literature as the primary areas of ELA curriculum. Through the 1980s, teachers were divided as to whether the subject's purpose was for reflection and personal growth or for more
efficient reading and communicating (McNeil, 2003). Those in the first camp favored a more reflective study of English that focused on writing and reading based on student interests, while those in this second wanted students to demonstrate competency of a list of reading, writing, and grammar objectives (McNeil, 2003). Today, in Tennessee, high school ELA curriculum consists of eight major standards: Language, Communication, Writing, Research, Logic, Informational Text, Media, and Literature, and over 200 combined "Checks for Understanding" and "Student Performance Indicators" for all eight standards.

Today almost every American college requires four credits of high school English, so secondary schools have designed their curriculum to meet this requirement (Conley, 2005). High schools, as well as the new Common Core standards, recommend that students receive an intensive study of writing and reading, including both literary and informational texts, to be truly prepared for the work they will complete in college. Unfortunately, many high school English courses only repeat instruction of similar skills, with very little vertical alignment between courses (Conley, 2005). The concerns an English teacher had in 2000 are similar to those of the 1890s, and, indeed, they still ring true for English teachers today (Nelms, 2000). These concerns include: "(1) to reconcile the disparate strands of our discipline, and (2) to focus the efforts of teachers at different levels toward goals that, if not uniform, are at least harmonious" (Nelms, 2000, p. 50). Even though the National Council of Teachers of English Standards for English Language Arts exists, they do not provide guidelines for implementation and instead simply state desired ideals (Nelms, 2000).

## Determining College Readiness

In the 1920s, as little as $5 \%$ of high school students went on to college (Conley, 2005). At that time, with this small, elite group of students, American colleges prepared young men for their roles as future business leaders. Ivy League colleges saw their purpose as both to increase a student's intellectual abilities as well as to "develop the character traits necessary to assume one's destined position of leadership in society" (Conley, 2005, p. 33). Following the World Wars, and the passing of the G. I. Bill, college enrollment increased, leading high schools in the 1950s to develop a college preparatory program of study. Today around 2.5 million students graduate from American high schools, with about 70\% continuing on to postsecondary institutions (Conley \& Bracco, 2004).

The ACT test, including its preliminary tests the EXPLORE and the PLAN, also offers an analysis of college readiness. ACT has created College Readiness benchmark scores in English, Mathematics, Reading, and Science. A student needs an 18 in English, 22 in Math, 21 in Reading, and a 24 in Science to meet the benchmark. According to ACT, a student whose ACT scores meet these benchmarks has a $50 \%$ chance of earning a B in a college course in English Composition, Algebra, Social Science or Biology, or a 75\% chance of earning a C. ACT.org (2011a) describes the College Readiness Standards as being "linked to college instruction. More than 40 years of research has shown that performance on the ACT is directly related to first-year college grade point average."

With a complex mission of preparing students for life as well as college, secondary schools must determine which skills are the most important for success no matter the student's postsecondary choice. Conley (2007) defines college readiness as:
the level of preparation a student needs to enroll and succeed- without remediation- in a credit-bearing general education course at a postsecondary institution that offers a baccalaureate degree or transfer to a baccalaureate program. Success is defined as completing entry-level courses with a level of understanding and proficiency that makes it possible for the student to be eligible to take the next course in the sequence of the next level course in the subject area. (p. 1)

This definition of success is based on the idea that if a student can succeed in entry level coursework, the student will be successful in other courses later on in the college experience as well. Yet many high schools, students and teachers alike, are not aware of exactly what will be needed for success. According to Conley (2007), "there is no tool to help shape a high school preparation programs so that they do a better, more intentional job of fostering student capabilities" in all areas related to college readiness (p. 2).

More students than ever are attending college, but not all students may be aware of ways in which the expectations of college differ from that of high school. Most high school graduates anticipate attending some form of postsecondary education following high school (Adelman, 2006). Ninety percent of ninth graders desire to attend college, and $75 \%$ of high school graduates attend a postsecondary school within five years of graduation (Conley, 2005). Venezia et al. (2003) contend that many students simply expect to continue on to college, regardless of what coursework they have completed in high school. Expectations between high school and college can vary widely, and as a result, many students are not prepared for the type of assignments and expectations they meet in college (Adelman, 2006; Venezia et al., 2005). Kirst and Bracco (2004) describe a downward trend during students' senior year of high school, in which effort is at a minimum yet grades are high, leaving students to expect college to be the same. Conley (2007) describes a scenario of a college freshman that is failing an entry-level course and
asks the professor for extra credit to bring up the grade. While this might be a typical and often granted request in some high school classrooms, in college this request could be inappropriate. The professor's bafflement and the surprise this freshman feels after being rebuked by the professor demonstrates that, between high school and college, "the cultural and social expectations about learning and performance that students encounter tend to vastly differ as well" (p. 3).

Adelman (2006) suggests that a glimpse at a high school transcript is one way to determine if a student is college ready, and he argues that a rigorous course load can indicate success in college. Adelman asserts that a challenging high school curriculum can thus lead to the "academic momentum" needed for bachelor degree attainment (p. 24). Rigorous coursework in a student's academic background can provide the needed momentum a student needs to complete an undergraduate degree (Adelman, 2006). Specifically, Adelman noticed that whether or not a student has taken a math course in high school above Algebra 2 is one of the largest predictors of obtaining a bachelors degree within eight years of high school graduation. After completing a high school mathematics course beyond Algebra 2, the odds of attaining a bachelors degree for African American students who had began college at a four-year institution increased from $45 \%$ to $73 \%$, for Latino students the percentage increased from 61 to $79 \%$. For the class of 1992, the odds of obtaining a bachelors degree if a student had taken calculus in high school were 7.52 to 1 . This type of analysis is not available for high school English courses, since most school districts require four years of English/Language Arts. Additionally, course titles may be misleading when determining college readiness (Callan et al., 2006). "We are learning," writes Callan et al., "that the number of course that high
school students take, and the units and names assigned to them, are often inadequate proxies for whether or not high school graduates are prepared to succeed in college-level work" (p. 7). Certainly, the mere presence of a course title on a transcript does not automatically imply that the course was challenging or provided the academic intensity necessary for college readiness or success, but it may be one indicator.

In addition, many students may not know whether or not they are ready for college coursework (Callan et al., 2006). Likewise, teachers, who in many ways serve as "informal advisors" for students during high school, may not be aware of what students will meet in terms of college coursework (Conley, 2005). Teachers rely on their own college experiences, reports from previous graduates, or their work with Advanced Placement courses. A high school's curriculum may be called "college prep," but that description might amount to no more than a schools estimation of what constitutes college level work (Conley, 2005, p. 7). Success in college is truly dependent upon whether or not a student can pass entry-level coursework, and those who arrive at college, unable to pass their entry-level courses, such as First Year Composition, are less likely to continue past their first year and ultimately (Conley 2007). In order to give both high school teachers and students a better idea of the expectations of college, Adelman (2006) urges colleges to make public the types of assignments given in "gateway" courses such as world civilization, American literature, general chemistry, or introduction to philosophy.

It takes more than academic skills to succeed in college; certain behaviors may also aid in readiness and success (Conley, 2005). Of course, acceptance to a postsecondary institution does not automatically equal success or degree attainment
(Conley, 2007). Adelman (2006) found factors outside of secondary school coursework that were strongly and positively associated with bachelor degree obtainment, including, "continuous enrollment, transfer from a community college to a four-year institution after more than 10 credits earned at the community college, and the trend in students' grades" (p. 6). Sullivan (2006) notes that "the single most important variable in considering whether a student is capable of doing college level work" is the student's ability to consider abstract ideas (p. 16). Conley (2007) lists seven "key cognitive strategies" that detail the type of intellectual skills associated with college readiness (p. 9). These include: intellectual openness; inquisitiveness; analysis; reasoning, argumentation, proof; interpretation; precision and accuracy; and problem solving (pp. 9-10). These behaviors are necessary for success, yet they are rarely at the center of the high school curriculum and are addressed tangentially and differently subject to subject, or even teacher to teacher, though proficiency in these behaviors may be one of the most important indicators of a student's later college success (Conley, 2005). Conley (2007) notes the following relationship between academic skills and behaviors:

The underlying premise is simple: academic success requires the mastery of key skills necessary to comprehend material and complete academic tasks successfully, and the nature of college learning in particular requires that significant amounts of time be devoted to learning outside of class for success to be achieved in class. (p. 12)

In addition to a college preparatory program, other options are available for students to begin preparing for college expectations. The International Baccalaureate Diploma Programme (IB) and the College Board's Advanced Placement program (AP) are two ways that schools have hoped to introduce students into the workload of college. The IB program, through its interdisciplinary focus and emphasis on writing and
intellectual inquiry, prepares students for a college's general education requirements. On top of easing the transition from high school to college, an AP program can help align instruction across grade levels if all courses in a subject work toward the specific goals of the AP class at the same time lending integrity to the coursework as being truly college preparatory (Conley, 2005). Kirst and Bracco (2004) argue that the AP and IB programs provide "clear and explicit signals about college preparation from the challenging content of their courses." Students who are not in these programs may not receive these signals, which are especially necessary when students come from varying backgrounds and homes in which parents may not have attended college and may not know what the college environment is like (Kirst \& Bracco, 2004).

However, increasing the number of Advanced Placement courses in a high school does not automatically equate to greater success for students in college writing courses, nor can a class like AP English always serve as an adequate substitute for a college level composition course. AP English Literature, one of the oldest AP tests, was originally designed as a way to "rescue" academically talented students from what some say was curriculum solely designed for the average student. While over 300,000 students yearly take the Advanced Placement English Literature and Composition exam, the demands of this AP class in particular might not match up with what is taught in a First Year Composition (FYC) course (Jones, 2010). The course requires a close analysis of literary works: poems, novels, plays, and on the exam, students write three essays in a two-hour period: one on a poem, one on a short prose passage, and one on a novel or play of the students' choice. Students also spend one hour answering multiple-choice questions about literary passages. Though this is certainly a demanding and rigorous exam, its
content is not necessarily reflective of the expectations and syllabus of most FYC classrooms (Hansen, 2010; Jones, 2010). The gap between the course content of AP English Literature and Composition and first year composition courses emphasizes what Jones (2010) terms "the absence of shared enterprise" in the definition of what college writing should look like (p. 65). College-level writing in a FYC class could vary in a multitude of ways from school to school; even the term "college-level writing" lacks a clear definition (Sullivan, 2006). Thus, while not always the most accurate definition, AP English Literature, by virtue of the institutions continuing to offer credit for those who pass its exam, remains one definition of college expectations.

The difference between AP English Literature and course content in FYC classes might be emblematic of the differences between high school and college expectations, and in order to communicate expectations with the schools who are educating their future students, colleges and universities must actively partner with secondary schools, particularly those secondary schools who are not graduating students with the academic skills and behaviors desired by the college (Adelman, 2006). Communication, however, might not be enough. Farris (2010) cautions that a simple sharing of college writing expectations might not be sufficient to alter high school writing programs to appropriately prepare their students for college. While high school English classrooms might adopt some of the strategies of the college writing class, high school teachers may not be teaching the critical inquiry skills needed in a college composition course.

Two-year community colleges also play a large role in the transition from high school to college. The mission of the community college is to provide "low-cost, convenient alternatives with open access and high standards" (Bueschel, 2004, p. 278).

Some students are concurrently enrolled in high school taking dual enrollment credit, others are simply moving on to the next step in their education, while others are remediating coursework before attending a university. The curriculum is designed for anyone seeking further education, and many community college students may be part of demographics who traditionally may not have attended college (Bueschel, 2004). In addition to providing a general course of studies, community colleges also offer remedial coursework to prepare students for four-year institutions. Students who need this remediation are less likely to continue enrollment from semester to semester and to complete a degree (Bueschel, 2004).

## Curricular Alignment

Common Core Standards Initiative. Launched in 2009, the Common Core Standards Initiative (CCSI) began in an effort to align standards K-12 in ELA and Mathematics. These standards have been adopted by the state of Tennessee, as well as 48 other states. The Common Core standards, which were completed in 2010, are divided into two categories: the first focuses on college and career readiness standards, the second on K-12 standards. While not explicitly endorsing the CCSI, the Obama administration supports and wants all states to adopt college and career readiness standards (White House, 2010). Arne Duncan argued that many states have set their standards low, hoping to more easily meet the No Child Left Behind Act's requirements (Staley \& Peterson, 2009). Thus, if national standards can set the same high expectations across the country, student achievement could likewise increase. Additionally, a national set of standards means that the United States could compare its students with those in other countries. The College Board (2009) echoes this sentiment and fully supports the Common Core
initiative, stating that these standards are necessary "if the U.S. is to return to a position of leadership in college completion and prepare students for high-skills jobs in a global economy." In a press release by the U.S. Education Secretary (2009), Arne Duncan likewise spoke in support of the Common Core Standards, saying, "There is no work more important than preparing our students to compete and succeed in a global economy, and it is to the credit of these states that this work is getting done." The Department of the Army issued a similar press release, echoing the idea that there is "no more important work" than raising the national standard of education to produce students who will be "fully prepared for higher education, the military, or the workforce" (n.d.)

The call for national standards is not new. The New Standards Project of 1991 set about creating a set of national standards (Finn, 1995). In 1992, Congress established the National Council on Education Standards and Testing, a panel created to study the idea of a national achievement test and who supported national standards under certain conditions, specifically that the standards must be voluntary and not mandated by the federal government (Ravitch, 1995, p. 5). This same panel dismissed the idea of a national test in favor of multiple, comparable assessments linked to national standards. While academic expectations should be rigorous for all children, regardless of their geographic location, critics note some of the shortcomings of the Common Core standards. First, it has not been established that academic achievement will improve simply because a national curriculum is in place. Second, a set of national standards implies that one set will be good for all children. Some question the political implications of a federal government controlling the curriculum for all, and they fear that this transfer
of power from the local to the federal level will only make local decisions more subject to political whims and initiatives ("Closing the Door on Innovation," 2011).

In a comparison of the current California and Massachusetts state standards to the new Common Core, the Pioneer Institute (2010), a Massachusetts public policy thinktank, found that the Common Core standards were lacking in several areas. First, the Pioneer Institute, noticed that the new standards reduce the focus on literature and language and instead emphasize literary nonfiction and informational texts, reflecting the National Assessment of Educational Progress's reading test in which 70\% of the passages are nonfiction while only $30 \%$ are literary. As such, the preparation many English teachers received in college will need to be altered to address this changing focus. In regards to California and Massachusetts, the Pioneer Institute concludes that the Common Core standards are not more academically rigorous than what already exists and will not increase the college level rigor that is currently in place in these states. The Institute charges that the Common Core standards too narrowly define college preparedness, ignoring the needs of students who may not benefit from a traditional curriculum.

P-20 Alignment. Even though approximately 70\% of high school graduates continue on to postsecondary institutions, as many as $50 \%$ need to take remedial courses once there (Venezia et al., 2003). Clearly, high school graduation does not automatically anticipate college success. The disconnect between high schools and colleges might be blamed partially on the unique way in which these institutions were created for the general public in America (Conley, 2005; Kirst, 2007). Unlike America, in Europe only students who were destined for university proceeded onto to secondary studies; therefore, the universities set the tone for what needed to be taught in high schools. Early American
postsecondary institutions, such as Cornell, Harvard, and Johns Hopkins, developed to allow older students to experience a liberal arts curriculum as well as research and specialize in a certain area of knowledge. Attending college became a sign of status and prestige (Urban \& Wagoner, 1996).

Currently, with an a majority of American high school students aspiring to and enrolling in some form of postsecondary schooling, it is important that states establish alignment and communication of expectations between all levels of education (Venezia et al., 2005). Many students must take remedial courses in college and many do not finish college at all (Callan, Finney, Kirst, Usdan, \& Venezia, 2006). The task of creating a model to track students and align all levels of education can be especially problematic for states when students are attending many different types of postsecondary institutions and the needs of these vary widely.

Many states address these concerns through efforts to align curriculum and expectations across all educational levels and institutions, preschool through graduate school. The K-16 concept encourages alignment from kindergarten through a four-year degree, $\mathrm{P}-16$ suggests that the alignment should start with preschool, and the P-20 model also includes graduate school. Begun in 1996 with the first council in Georgia, P-16 or P-20 councils now exist in 38 states. There are nineteen P-16 councils, $16 \mathrm{P}-20$ councils, and one P-21 council in South Dakota (Education Commission of the States, 2008).

Kirst (2007) bemoans the lack of interaction between high schools and colleges:
Policy makers for the secondary and postsecondary schools work in separate orbits that rarely interact, and the policy focus for K-16 has been more concerned with access to postsecondary education than with the academic preparation needed to complete a postsecondary degree or certificate. (p. 4)

Leadership and collaboration at all levels are essential to bridging the gap between secondary and postsecondary education (Venezia et al., 2005). This leadership can come from elected officials or from people who take charge through constituency groups or councils. In Georgia, the P-16 concept had the support of Governors Miller and Barnes, in addition to a director of P-16 initiatives, and together they pushed for reform through the creation of state and regional P-16 councils. A survey of four states published by the Institute for Educational Leadership (Venezia et al., 2005) found the following:

Strong leadership directed toward collaborative work- from elected officials, from those in state agencies, and from those within and across sate systems of higher education- appears to make a significant difference in terms of creating the support and energy necessary to move the agenda forward and create sustainable change. (p. 38)

However, Venezia et al. (2005) caution that when reform is led and championed only by those at the top of the political food chain, the movement appears as yet another mandate from above and is taken less seriously. For reform to truly enact change, participation cannot be limited to just politicians. Furthermore, reform must be systematic, not in addition to already existing policies, in order to be the most effective.

This same report (Venezia et al., 2005) identified four "key levers" that must be addressed if states are serious about seeking P-16 alignment and reform: assessment and curricula, finance, data systems, and accountability. A comprehensive tool for students and educators to use to assess academic and behavioral college readiness and link these elements of secondary and postsecondary levels is not currently available (Callan et al., 2006; Conley, 2007; Venezia et al., 2005). Conley (2007) calls for the following:
one set of scores or indicators across multiple dimensions and measures that could be tracked over time from perhaps sixth grade through high school that would allow everyone involved to be aware of where a student stood relative to the various dimensions of college readiness at any given point in time. (p. 18)

Likewise, Venezia et al. (2005) recommends that an integrated data system should:
identify good practices, diagnose problems, provide information about all education levels, provide students with diagnostic information to help them prepare better, assess and improve achievement, and track individual students over time across levels. (pp. 32-33)

Creating such a database can be a daunting task for a state, many of which do not even accurately determine yearly high school graduation rates, much less what paths students take once they leave high school. One P-16 model may work for one state and not for another, but it is up to the each state to set the policies that will allow institutions to coordinate and align most effectively. Florida has made an effort to combine existing data to track students' progress (Callan et al., 2006). Florida's Data Warehouse and the Florida Education and Training Placement Information Program follow students through their education and into their future jobs. The Data Warehouse gathers data on students, public universities, and employment. The Florida Education and Training Placement Information Program tracks students to see if they are in college, employed or unemployed, incarcerated, on public assistance, or in a vocational training program.

In an effort to increase the number of students prepared for college and the $21^{\text {st }}$ Century workplace, Texas has taken the first step in aligning secondary and postsecondary expectations (Conley et al., 2010). Through the creation of the Texas College and Career Readiness Initiative (TCCRI) in 2008, thirty-nine secondary and postsecondary instructors worked together to develop a set of standards that detailed what would be necessary for students to succeed in entry-level college coursework. Rather than a list of standards that a student must master to graduate high school, the College and Career Readiness Standards (CCRS) define what is necessary for success in those
entry-level courses. The TCCRI defined success in these classes as the ability to work at such a level that would imply that the student could continue academic work in that subject if the student chose to do so. These standards include "key cognitive skills," such as reasoning and problem solving, and "proficiency skills" that students will need in various courses such as reading and writing. These standards were both assessed by college instructors and compared with entry-level course syllabi to determine how well they aligned with current expectations. Following the vetting of the CCRS, reference course profiles were created to provide secondary educators a glimpse into what common assignments and requirements look like in entry-level classes. These profiles included grading policies, sample reading assignments, projects, and due dates as well as behavioral expectations such as attendance policies. These profiles are important because they "move the alignment discussion beyond anecdote and assertion regarding the nature of postsecondary expectations by offering concrete, specific descriptions of college courses against which high school programs of study can be aligned" (p. 33). They allow postsecondary instructors to compare course expectations across content areas.

Tennessee's P-16 Commitment. Tennessee has prioritized the need for more college graduates. According to Achieve.org (2011), 67\% of Tennessee's high school students graduate in four years, and 43\% enroll in college immediately following high school. Only $29 \%$ of that same group of high school graduates are still enrolled their sophomore year, and only $19 \%$ eventually earn a college degree. By 2014, Achieve.org predicts that $81 \%$ of jobs in Tennessee will require college or training beyond high school. Thirty-two percent of jobs will require a bachelor's degree or higher, and only
$30 \%$ of Tennessee's adults have an associate's degree or higher. Clearly, Tennessee's desire for college graduates is necessary for the state's future economic success. In examining Tennessee's NAEP results, Achieve.org (2011) states that only $25 \%$ of eighth graders are proficient in math and science, and only $28 \%$ in reading. $28 \%$ of students enrolled in college require remediation in reading, writing, or math. Fifty-four percent of students in Tennessee at a two-year institution require remediation, and $18 \%$ at a four-year institution. Every junior in Tennessee is required to take the ACT. Tennessee is one of only ten states that have such a requirement. ACT's College Readiness Benchmarks show that students in Tennessee are not college ready. Only 18\% of ACTtested Tennessee students in 2010 met the ACT's benchmarks for college readiness, compared to $74 \%$ of ACT-tested Tennessee students indicating an interest in obtaining a bachelor's degree (2010). In the 2011 report, only $15 \%$ of Tennessee students met all four benchmarks, while $39 \%$ met none. In the Tennessee report by ACT (2011b), many students who are interested in high growth industries such as health care, marketing, education, management, and community services are not meeting the college benchmarks, indicating that they are not on a path to participation in these fields.

Tennessee's current Public Agenda for Tennessee Higher Education 2010-2015 (2010) includes a master plan to raise the number of undergraduate degrees awarded in Tennessee to the national average by 2025. This plan focuses on what needs to be accomplished at the postsecondary level to increase degree obtainment, including making transferring between schools easier and unifying the course numbering system at community colleges. However, the plan does state that P-20 collaboration is the most successful way for Tennessee to meet its projections of increasing undergraduate degree
attainment by $3.5 \%$ each year through 2015 (p. 35). The plan also notes that this goal must take place despite the hardships that lie ahead for Tennessee institutions; starting in 2011-2012, revenues for Tennessee colleges will be cut by $\$ 200$ million, marking the "single largest change in the State's recent higher education history" (p. 8). This dramatic budget reduction will require that schools try new approaches in order increase the number of degrees awarded. As an incentive, the master plan includes new models of funding for Tennessee institutions based on graduation and retention rather than enrollment. While schools will still receive funding from tuition, under the performance funding guidelines, schools will earn part of their budget based on working toward desired outcomes concerning institutional quality and degree attainment.

Measures are currently being set in place to align curriculum at two-year and four-year colleges. Under the Complete College Tennessee Act (2010), a student may be enrolled in both a community college and four-year college at the same time. The student would take any necessary remedial or developmental courses at the community college and complete a common curriculum at the four-year school. This common curriculum, the first 41 lower division hours at a Tennessee institution, will be fully transferrable to other Tennessee colleges. In addition, if a student has completed an associate's degree at a Tennessee community college, upon transfer to a four-year institution they will be granted completion of the general curriculum and will enter as a junior (p. 4).

According to Achieve.org (2011), Tennessee has yet to establish P-20 longitudinal data systems. Tennessee does have regional P-16 councils whose mission is to encourage collaboration between schools and colleges. One initiative of the Tennessee $\mathrm{P}-16$ council is to encourage the transition from high school to postsecondary studies or
work. These councils were first formed in 2005, and currently 12 regional councils exist in Tennessee (Education Commission of the States, 2008). According to the Tennessee Higher Education Commission (2002), this committee's goals are to work toward reform from preschool through college, strengthen the connection between these different levels, and increase the number of minority students who complete a four-year degree.

As part of Tennessee's participation in the American Diploma Project, it is the state's job:
to require high school graduates to take challenging courses that prepare them for life after high school, to streamline assessments to allow that tests students take in high school to serve as readiness tests for college and work, to hold high schools accountable for graduating students ready for college and careers, and to hold postsecondary institutions accountable for students' success once enrolled. (Election Commission of the States, 2008)

In fact, even in 2002, the Tennessee Higher Education Commission stated that curriculum alignment is the "most defining element of $\mathrm{P}-16$ education by creating a seamless transition" from high school to college (p. 4). The commission's website also mentions that there are economic reasons why $\mathrm{P}-16$ alignment is necessary in Tennessee. For example, a Nissan plant left Tennessee and moved to Mississippi because it felt that it had "maximized the skilled labor supply in middle Tennessee" (p. 5). This problem is not limited to Tennesseee; Callan et al. (2006) state that the percentage of people in the United States with a bachelor's degree is declining, leading to the anticipated shortage of a skilled workforce in the decades to come.

Tennessee was chosen as one of the winners of the Race to the Top initiative and awarded the $\$ 500$ million federal grant partially because of the current and proposed collaboration between levels of education in the state. P-16 councils exist across the state. A P-16 summit in Tennessee was scheduled to meet in 2010-2011 (ACT.org, 2010).

## CHAPTER 3

## RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

The purpose of this study was to investigate $12^{\text {th }}$ grade English teachers and First Year Composition instructors' perceptions of their students' proficiency in reading and writing and to determine the discrepancies between these two levels. This researcher used a quantitative methodology for this study by administering a content-valid survey derived from the Common Core State standards for English Language Arts. This study was designed to examine educator perceptions of student ability in reading and writing and to provide insights into English Language Arts curricular alignment between the secondary and postsecondary environments.

First, this researcher wanted to determine how $12^{\text {th }}$ grade English teachers and college English instructors rated their students' reading proficiency in the areas of key ideas and details, craft and structure, integration of knowledge and ideas, and range of reading and level of text complexity. Second, this study asked these same educators to rate their students' writing proficiency in areas of text types and purposes, product and distribution of writing, research to build and present knowledge, and range of writing. And finally, this study examined the differences regarding twelfth grade English teachers and college English instructors' perceptions of their students' proficiencies in reading and writing, as well as the differences between $12^{\text {th }}$ grade English teachers' perceptions of their students proficiencies in reading and writing within the following demographics: (a) grade level primarily taught, (b) academic level of students taught, (c) years of teaching experience, (d) level of education, and (e) locale of school.

This chapter describes the methodology used to conduct this study as well as a description of the participants, instruments, and methods of data collection.

## Research Questions

Four research questions guided the current study:

1. How do $12^{\text {th }}$ grade English teachers and college English instructors rate their students' reading proficiency in the areas of key ideas and details, craft and structure, integration of knowledge and ideas, and range of reading and level of text complexity?
2. How do $12^{\text {th }}$ grade English teachers and college English instructors rate their students' writing proficiency in areas of text types and purposes, product and distribution of writing, research to build and present knowledge, and range of writing?
3. Do differences occur regarding $12^{\text {th }}$ grade English teachers and college English instructors' perceptions of their students' proficiencies in reading and writing?
4. Do differences occur between $12^{\text {th }}$ grade English teachers' perceptions of their students proficiencies in reading and writing within the following demographics:
(a) grade level primarily taught, (b) academic level of students taught, (c) years of teaching experience, (d) level of education, and (e) locale of school?

Site of Research and Participants. Two survey instruments were created. Both surveys contained the same questions, but one asked high school teachers to rate student proficiency at the end of the academic term, while the survey for the college educators asked them to rate student proficiency on the same skills at the start of the academic term. The survey instrument intended for high school educators was sent to $12^{\text {th }}$ grade English
teachers at twelve public high schools in three school districts. The high schools in these school districts represented various sizes, student demographics, and location (suburban, urban, and rural). The companion survey was sent to Composition instructors at one community college, one private university, one private college, and one public university in West Tennessee. These schools were chosen based on their location within West Tennessee.

The survey instrument was sent to $12^{\text {th }}$ grade English teachers in three public school districts in West Tennessee. The first school district contains only one high school, enrolling approximately 900 students in grades $9-12$. The majority of the students in this district, $81.7 \%$ in 2011, were categorized as economically disadvantaged. The 2011 ACT Composite score for students in this district was 16.4; the state average for Tennessee was 19.1. The graduation rate for this school system in 2011 was 78.8\% (Tennessee Department of Education, 2011b).

The second school district surveyed in this study contains three high schools with a combined total of approximately 3,700 students. More than half of the students in this system, $58.5 \%$, are considered economically disadvantaged. The 2011 ACT Composite score for students in this district was 20.1. The graduation rate for this school system in 2011 was $96.5 \%$ (Tennessee Department of Education, 2011b).

The largest public school district that was used in this research enrolls approximately 47,000 students in 51 schools overall, including 14,000 students in 8 high schools. The survey was sent to $12^{\text {th }}$ grade English teachers at all 8 high schools. This school system spends $\$ 8,957$ per pupil each year. The school system is $37 \%$ African American, 52.5\% White, 5\% Hispanic, 5.1\% Asian / Pacific Islander, and .3\% Native

American/Alaskan. For 2011, 38.3\% of students are economically disadvantaged and 3\% are Limited English Proficient. The average 2011 ACT Composite score for eleventhgrade students in this school district was 20.7, with average scores of 21 in English and 20.8 in Reading. The graduation rate for 2011 was $88.9 \%$, and the $9-12$ attendance rate was 94.3\% (Tennessee Department of Education, 2011b).

The community college used in this research has campuses in both urban and suburban areas of West Tennessee and enrolls over 13,000 undergraduates annually. Forty-four percent of these students are full-time and $56 \%$ are part-time. Fifty-five percent of the undergraduates are 24 years old and under, and $97 \%$ are residents of Tennessee. The graduation rate for the Fall 2007 cohort group, representing full-time degree seeking students who finish within $150 \%$ of "normal time" or two years, was $5 \%$ and the transfer-out rate was $13 \%$. The fall to fall semester retention rate for Fall 2009 to 2010 was $46 \%$ of full-time students and $36 \%$ for part-time students (Institute of Education Sciences, n.d.). The survey instrument was sent to sixteen First Year Composition instructors at this community college.

The private college and private university used in this research are both located in the urban areas in West Tennessee. The private college enrolls approximately 1800 undergraduate students. The four-year graduation rate for full-time, first-time students at this private college is $71 \%$, while the six-year graduation rate for full-time, first-time students is $75 \%$. The private university surveyed in this study enrolls approximately 1600 undergraduates. The four-year graduation rate for full-time, first-time students at this private university is $36 \%$, while the six-year graduation rate for full-time, first-time students is $52 \%$ (Institute of Education Sciences, n.d.).

The public university chosen for this research is located in an urban area with satellite campuses around the city and county. Over 22,000 students attend this university, including 17,525 undergraduates. Seventy-four percent of these undergraduates are full-time and $26 \%$ are part-time. Seventy-one percent of the undergraduates are 24 years old and under, and $90 \%$ are residents of Tennessee. The graduation rate for the Fall 2004 cohort group, representing full-time degree seeking students who finish within $150 \%$ of "normal time" or four years, was $36 \%$ and the transfer-out rate was $4 \%$. Ten percent of the students who started at the university in 2002 graduated in four years, $28 \%$ graduated in six years, and $46 \%$ graduated in eight years (Institute of Education Sciences, n.d.).

Tennessee was chosen for the site of research is because it was one of two states to receive the initial Race for the Top funding, a $\$ 500$ million grant over four years. As part of Tennessee's application for Race to the Top funding, it agreed that it would use the Common Core Standards for ELA and Mathematics as well as create a P-20 database to be housed at The University of Tennessee Knoxville's College of Business and Economics.

Participants were selected by using a purposeful, non-random sampling technique. Participants at the different locations were chosen based on the school district in which they teach as well as on their status as a current $12^{\text {th }}$ grade English teacher or first year composition instructor.

Data Collection and Analysis. Two surveys were created to measure both secondary and postsecondary instructors' perceptions of their students' proficiency in reading and writing skills (Appendix A). In order to ensure validity, the survey items
were derived from the Common Core Reading Literature and Writing Standards. The Common Core State Standards have been adopted by Tennessee for grades K-12 and are being piloted during 2012-2013 school year.

A pilot instrument was administered to a pilot sample of ELA teachers; after the administration of the survey the participants gave feedback regarding the mechanics of taking the survey. The survey will be emailed to participants. The first survey asks the twelfth grade English teachers in the two school districts to rate what percent of their students are proficient on the survey items by the time they leave their classes at the end of the academic term. The second survey, which will be emailed to the First Year Composition instructors at the community college and university, asks these instructors to rate what percent of their students are proficient on the survey items for their incoming students at the start of the academic term. Survey respondents will rate the proficiency of their students separately on reading and writing, and answered an open-ended question giving respondents a chance to explain the ratings they chose. Each of the reading survey items fall under one of four categories: key ideas and details, craft and structure, integration of knowledge and ideas, and range of reading. These are the four areas used by the ACT to determine college readiness. On the writing section of the survey, the survey items fall under four categories as well: text type and purposes, production and distribution of writing, range of writing, and research to build and present knowledge. While the ACT tests the first three categories, it does not test research. However, the research skills were included in this survey as they are taught at both the high school and college level and are certainly seen as important for college readiness and success.

Prior to administering the survey instrument, this study was approved through the Institutional Review Board (IRB) process. A copy of the IRB approval is included in the Appendix section. Each participant was contacted via electronic mail. All participation was voluntary and anonymous. The results were analyzed by the researcher by first examining the means, standard deviations, and effect sizes for the high school and college responses. Then, the researcher used a "mixed" Analysis of Variance (ANOVA), followed by a "repeated measures" ANOVA to explore the "within groups" part of the results, as well as a Multivariate Analysis of Variance (MANOVA) to explore the "between groups" parts of the results.

Limitations of Study. This study examined the perceptions of $12^{\text {th }}$ grade English Language Arts teachers and First Year Composition instructors in one area in West Tennessee. As a result, the location and number of respondents are limitations of this study. This sample size limits comparisons to other regions in Tennessee as well as other states.

Additionally, students at the colleges and universities may have attended multiple school systems prior to enrollment at their current institution; similarly, many years may have passed since these students were enrolled in a high school. First Year Composition instructors encounter students of various ages in their classes, and from various school systems from around the country. Since the First Year Composition instructors have no way of knowing if their perceptions are based on students who attended the school districts studied, their perceptions are based on the average student, regardless of where that student was previously enrolled.

Additionally, since the Common Core State Standards do not include behavioral expectations for students, this research does not study instructors' perceptions of their students' academic behaviors, even though these behaviors may be important for both secondary and postsecondary success.

## CHAPTER 4

## RESULTS

The purpose of this study is to determine how $12^{\text {th }}$ grade English teachers and college English instructors rate their student's proficiencies in reading and writing. This chapter presents the results of the data analysis for each of the research questions. The results are organized by the following four research questions:

1. How do $12^{\text {th }}$ grade English teachers and college English instructors rate their students' reading proficiency in the areas of key ideas and details, craft and structure, integration of knowledge and ideas, and range of reading and level of text complexity?
2. How do $12^{\text {th }}$ grade English teachers and college English instructors rate their students' writing proficiency in areas of text types and purposes, product and distribution of writing, research to build and present knowledge, and range of writing?
3. Do differences occur regarding $12^{\text {th }}$ grade English teachers and college English instructors' perceptions of their students' proficiencies in reading and writing?
4. Do differences occur between $12^{\text {th }}$ grade English teachers' perceptions of their students proficiencies in reading and writing within the following demographics: (a) grade level primarily taught, (b) academic level of students taught, (c) years of teaching experience, (d) level of education, and (e) locale of school?

The responses to each survey item were divided into three categories which group together responses indicating if $50 \%$ of students or fewer, $51 \%$ to $79 \%$, or $80 \%$ or more students could demonstrate mastery of a skill. These three categories represent whether some, most, or nearly all students have mastered a given skill. Davis and Sorrell (1995) suggest that $80 \%$ mastery indicates that a student is able to move on to the next unit. For this study, $80 \%$ indicates the point at which a teacher would consider moving to the next concept with his or her students.

## Research Question 1

## Analyses of Frequencies and Percentages of Responses for Reading Standard

1: Key Ideas and Details. As seen in Table 1, the majority of the high school teacher respondents indicated that more than $50 \%$ of their students, by the end of the academic term, were proficient in every reading skill for this standard. Providing a summary of a text was the highest rated skill in this reading standard. Thirty-six high school teachers responded to the items under this standard, and $66.6 \%$ of those teachers indicated that more than $80 \%$ of their students could "provide a summary of a text" (1a) by the end of the academic term. "Construct an argument concerning a text" (1c) was the lowest rated skill, with $44.4 \%$ of high school teachers responding that more than $80 \%$ of their students were proficient at this skill. However, even though constructing an argument was the lowest rated skill, $86 \%$ of high school teachers responded that more than $50 \%$ of their students were proficient it. "Draw inferences from a text" (1b) and "analyze why an author makes certain choices within a text" (1g) were rated highly, with a $58.3 \%$ and $58.4 \%$, respectively, of high school teachers indicating that $80 \%$ or more of their students are able to master those skills. "Analyze why an author makes certain choices within a
text (such as setting, order of events, or characterization)" (1h) also received the largest percentage of responses ( $27.8 \%$ ) indicating that fewer than $50 \%$ of students were proficient at this skill. More than half of the high school teachers (50.1\%) indicated that fewer than $80 \%$ of their high school students were proficient at analyzing a theme over the course of a text (1f).

For college English instructors, as seen in Table 2, providing a summary of a text (1a) was the highest rated skill in this reading standard; of the 34 respondents in this standard, $26.4 \%$ of the college instructors responded that more than $80 \%$ of their incoming students could "provide a summary of a text." Not a single college instructor indicated that $80 \%$ or more of their students could demonstrate proficiency at constructing an argument concerning a text (1c), citing a text to support an argument concerning the meaning of a text (1d), and analyze how an author's choices (such as setting, order of events, or characterization) affect a text's meaning (1h). "Analyze why an author makes certain choices within a text (such as setting, order of events, or characterization)" (1h) also received the largest percentage of responses (82.3\%) indicating that fewer than $50 \%$ of students were proficient at this skill, and $17.6 \%$ responded that 51 to $79 \%$ of students were proficiency at this skill.

Table 1
Frequencies and Percentages of Responses for Reading Standard 1: High School Teachers

| Key Ideas and Details | $50 \%$ or Fewer Mastery |  | $\frac{51 \% \text { to } 79 \%}{\text { Mastery }}$ |  | $80 \%$ or More Mastery |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | $n$ | \% | $n$ | \% | $n$ | \% |
| 1a) Provide a summary of a text. | 2 | 5.6 | 10 | 27.8 | 24 | 66.6 |
| 1b) Draw inferences from a text. | 4 | 11.2 | 11 | 30.6 | 21 | 58.3 |
| 1c) Construct an argument concerning a text. | 5 | 14 | 15 | 41.6 | 16 | 44.4 |
| 1d) Cite the text to support an argument concerning the meaning of a text. | 6 | 16.8 | 14 | 38.9 | 16 | 44.4 |
| 1e) Determine two or more themes or central ideas of a text. | 5 | 14 | 11 | 30.6 | 20 | 55.5 |
| 1f) Analyze a theme over the course of a text. | 9 | 25.1 | 9 | 25.0 | 18 | 49.9 |
| 1g) Analyze why an author makes certain choices within a text (such as setting, order of events, or characterization). | 10 | 27.8 | 5 | 13.9 | 21 | 58.4 |
| 1h) Analyze how an author's choices (such as setting, order of events, or characterization) affect a text's meaning. | 7 | 19.6 | 10 | 27.8 | 19 | 52.8 |

Table 2
Frequencies and Percentages of Responses for Reading Standard 1: College Instructors

| Key Ideas and Details | $\frac{50 \% \text { or Fewer }}{\text { Mastery }}$ |  | $\frac{51 \% \text { to } 79 \%}{\text { Mastery }}$ |  | $\frac{80 \% \text { or More }}{\underline{\text { Mastery }}}$ |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | $n$ | \% | $n$ | \% | $n$ | \% |
| 1a) Provide a summary of a text. | 16 | 47 | 9 | 26.5 | 9 | 26.4 |
| 1b) Draw inferences from a text. | 24 | 70.5 | 7 | 20.6 | 3 | 8.8 |
| 1c) Construct an argument concerning a text. | 27 | 79.4 | 7 | 20.6 | 0 | 0 |
| 1d) Cite the text to support an argument concerning the meaning of a text. | 26 | 76.5 | 8 | 23.5 | 0 | 0 |
| 1e) Determine two or more themes or central ideas of a text. | 22 | 64.7 | 11 | 32.4 | 1 | 2.9 |
| 1f) Analyze a theme over the course of a text. | 25 | 75.8 | 7 | 21.3 | 1 | 3 |
| 1g) Analyze why an author makes certain choices within a text (such as setting, order of events, or characterization). | 28 | 82.3 | 5 | 14.7 | 1 | 2.9 |
| 1h) Analyze how an author's choices (such as setting, order of events, or characterization) affect a text's meaning. | 28 | 82.3 | 6 | 17.6 | 0 | 0 |

## Analyses of Frequencies and Percentages of Responses for Reading Standard

2: Craft and Structure. The items for the second reading standard asked high school teachers to rate how well a student can understand an author's craft and purpose within a text (Table 3). For high school teachers, student proficiency in determining a point of view in a text (2d) was rated the highest; of the 36 respondents to this section, $75 \%$ of high school teachers responded that $80 \%$ of more of their students could demonstrate proficiency for this skill. While the teachers responded that students would be able to determine the point of view, fewer students would able to analyze how words and phrases affect meaning and tone (2c) or distinguish what is directly stated in a text from what is really meant (2e). This last skill was also the lowest rated skill; $44.6 \%$ of respondents indicated that fewer than $80 \%$ of students were proficient at this skill, and $14 \%$ responded that $50 \%$ or fewer of their students could demonstrate proficiency.

For college instructors, as seen in Table 4, student proficiency in determining a point of view in a text (2d) was rated the highest; $30.3 \%$ of the 33 college English instructors responded that $80 \%$ of more of their students could demonstrate proficiency for this skill. Analyzing how words and phrases affect meaning and tone (2c) was the lowest rated skill; $72.8 \%$ responded that $50 \%$ or fewer of their students could demonstrate proficiency.

Table 3
Frequencies and Percentages of Responses for Reading Standard 2: High School Teachers

| Craft and Structure | 50\% or Fewer <br> Mastery |  | $\frac{51 \% \text { to } 79 \%}{\text { Mastery }}$ |  | $80 \%$ or More <br> Mastery |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | $n$ | \% | $n$ | \% | $n$ | \% |
| 2a) Determine the meaning of words and phrases as they are used in the text. | 4 | 11.2 | 10 | 27.7 | 22 | 61.1 |
| 2b) Determine the meaning of figurative language in a text. | 5 | 13.9 | 10 | 27.8 | 21 | 58.3 |
| 2c) Analyze how words and phrases affect meaning and tone. | 5 | 13.9 | 11 | 30.5 | 20 | 55.6 |
| 2d) Determine point of view in a text. | 2 | 5.6 | 7 | 19.4 | 27 | 75 |
| 2e) Distinguish what is directly stated in a text from what is really meant (e.g., satire, sarcasm, irony, or understatement). | 5 | 14 | 11 | 30.6 | 20 | 55.6 |

Table 4
Frequencies and Percentages of Responses for Reading Standard 2: College Instructors

| Craft and Structure | $\frac{50 \% \text { or Fewer }}{\text { Mastery }}$ |  | $\frac{51 \% \text { to } 79 \%}{\text { Mastery }}$ |  | $\frac{80 \% \text { or More }}{\text { Mastery }}$ |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | $n$ | \% | $n$ | \% | $n$ | \% |
| 2a) Determine the meaning of words and phrases as they are used in the text. | 14 | 42.4 | 12 | 36.4 | 7 | 21.3 |
| 2b) Determine the meaning of figurative language in a text. | 20 | 60.6 | 11 | 33.4 | 2 | 6.1 |
| 2c) Analyze how words and phrases affect meaning and tone. | 24 | 72.8 | 8 | 24.2 | 1 | 3 |
| 2d) Determine point of view in a text. | 13 | 39.5 | 10 | 30.4 | 10 | 30.3 |
| 2e) Distinguish what is directly stated in a text from what is really meant (e.g., satire, sarcasm, irony, or understatement). | 22 | 66.6 | 7 | 21.3 | 4 | 12.1 |

## Analyses of Frequencies and Percentages of Responses for Reading Standard

3: Integration of Knowledge and Ideas. The third reading standard asked the high school teachers and college instructors to rate how well students are able to analyze ideas across multiple texts and interpretations of a text. Table 5 contains the responses for the high school teachers. Overall, the high school teachers rated student proficiency highly for all three skills, with more than $75 \%$ of 35 respondents indicating that more than $50 \%$ of students are able to demonstrate mastery of each skill in this standard. Student proficiency in understanding how two or more texts treat similar themes or topics (3c) was rated the highest; $62.9 \%$ of high school teachers responded that $80 \%$ of more of their students were proficient at this skill. Student proficiency in analyzing multiple interpretations of a text (e.g., recorded or live production of a play or recorded novel or poetry) (3a) was rated the lowest, with $25.7 \%$ indicating that 51 to $79 \%$ demonstrated proficiency, and $23 \%$ indicating that $50 \%$ or fewer student students were proficient at that skill.

For college instructors, as seen in Table 6, all three standards are also rated similarly, with $75 \%$ or more of the 33 respondents indicating that fewer than $50 \%$ of students could demonstrate mastery of each skill in this standard. Student proficiency in understanding how two or more texts treat similar themes or topics (3c) was rated the highest; $9.4 \%$ of college instructors responded that $80 \%$ or more of their students were proficient at this skill. Skills 3 a and 3 b were rated exactly the same, with the vast majority ( $78.2 \%$ ) of respondents indicating that $50 \%$ or fewer of their students were proficient at this skill.

Table 5
Frequencies and Percentages of Responses for Reading Standard 3: High School Teachers

| Integration of Knowledge and Ideas | 50\% or Fewer |  | 51\% to 79\% |  | 80\% or More |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
|  | $n$ | \% | $n$ | \% | $n$ |  |

3a) Analyze multiple interpretations of a text (e.g., $\begin{array}{llllllll}\text { recorded or live production of } & 8 & 23 & 9 & 25.7 & 18 & 51.4\end{array}$ a play or recorded novel or poetry).

3b) Identify differences in how multiple versions of a text (e.g., recorded or live production of a play or recorded novel or poetry) interpret the source text.

3c) Understand how two or $\begin{array}{lllllll}\text { more texts treat similar themes } & 4 & 11.5 & 9 & 25.7 & 22 & 62.9\end{array}$ or topics.

Table 6
Frequencies and Percentages of Responses for Reading Standard 3: College Instructors

| Integration of Knowledge and Ideas | 50\% or Fewer |  | $\frac{51 \% \text { to } 79 \%}{\text { Mastery }}$ |  | 80\% or More |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | Mastery |  |  |  | Mastery |  |
|  | $n$ | \% | $n$ | \% | $n$ | \% |

3a) Analyze multiple interpretations of a text (e.g., recorded or live production of a play or recorded novel or poetry).

3b) Identify differences in how multiple versions of a text (e.g., recorded or live production of a play or

25
78.25
15.7

2
6.3 recorded novel or poetry) interpret the source text.
3c) Understand how two or $\begin{array}{llllllll}\text { more texts treat similar themes } & 24 & 75 & 5 & 15.7 & 3 & 9.4\end{array}$ or topics.

## Analyses of Frequencies and Percentages of Responses for Reading Standard

 4: Range of Reading and Level of Text Complexity. The final reading standard asked the high school teachers and the college instructors to determine how proficient their students are at reading both narrative and informational texts. As seen in Table 7, both reading skills, 4 a and 4 b , were similarly rated by the 35 high school teacher respondents. Less than half of respondents, $45.7 \%$ for 4 a and $48.6 \%$ for 4 b , indicated that $80 \%$ or more of their students were proficient at these skills. These two skills were among the lowest rated for all four standards for high school teachers.For college instructors, as seen in Table 8, 12.5\% of the 31 respondents indicated that $80 \%$ or more of their students were proficient at reading and comprehending literary texts appropriate for a twelfth grade student (4a), while only $9.7 \%$ of respondents rated skill $4 b$, the ability to read and comprehend informational texts appropriate for a twelfth grade student, similarly. The majority of respondents indicated that $50 \%$ or fewer students were proficient in both skill 4 a and 4 b .

Table 7
Frequencies and Percentages of Responses for Reading Standard 4: High School Teachers

|  | $\frac{50 \% \text { or Fewer }}{\text { Mastery }}$ |  | $51 \%$ to $79 \%$ <br> Range of Reading and Text <br> Complexity | $\underline{\text { Mastery }}$ |
| :--- | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |

4a) Read and comprehend literary texts appropriate for a twelfth grade student, such as The Great Gatsby, Jane Eyre, or The Scarlet Letter.

4b) Read and comprehend informational texts appropriate for a twelfth grade student, such as Thomas Paine's $\begin{array}{llllllll}\text { Common Sense, The } & 9 & 25.8 & 9 & 25.7 & 17 & 48.6\end{array}$ Declaration of Independence, Henry David Thoreau's Walden, or John Hershey's Hiroshima.

Table 8
Frequencies and Percentages of Responses for Reading Standard 4: College Instructors

| Range of Reading and Text Complexity | 50\% or Fewer <br> Mastery |  | $\frac{51 \% \text { to } 79 \%}{\text { Mastery }}$ |  | $\frac{80 \% \text { or More }}{\text { Mastery }}$ |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | $n$ | \% | $n$ | \% | $n$ | \% |
| 4a) Read and comprehend literary texts appropriate for a twelfth grade student, such as The Great Gatsby, Jane Eyre, or The Scarlet Letter. |  |  |  |  |  |  |
|  | 18 | 56.3 | 10 | 31.3 | 4 | 12.5 |
| 4b) Read and comprehend informational texts appropriate for a twelfth grade student, such as Thomas Paine's |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| Common Sense, The <br> Declaration of Independence, <br> Henry David Thoreau's Walden, or John Hershey's Hiroshima. | 20 | 64.6 | 8 | 25.9 | 3 | 9.7 |

## Research Question 2

## Analyses of Frequencies and Percentages of Responses for Writing Standard

1: Text Types and Purposes. The items for the first writing standard deal with a student's ability to write various types of texts for a variety of purposes. As seen in Table 9, the 33 high school teacher respondents highly rate student proficiency for all four skills under this standard. The majority of the respondents indicated that more than $50 \%$ of their students, by the end of the academic term, were proficient in every writing skill for this standard. Teachers rated skill 1d, writing narratives to develop real or imagined experiences or events using effective technique, well-chosen details, and well-structured event sequences, the highest, with $54.6 \%$ responding that $80 \%$ or more of their students were proficient at this skill. Skill 1 b was rated the lowest; $21.1 \%$ of high school teachers responded that $50 \%$ or fewer of their students were proficient at this skill.

The 32 college instructors, as seen in Table 10, rated student proficiency on all four skills in this standard very low; however, more students appear proficient at narrative writing. Skill 1d, writing narratives to develop real or imagined experiences or events using effective technique, well-chosen details, and well-structured event sequences, was rated the highest, with $9.4 \%$ responding that $80 \%$ or more of their students were proficient at this skill. While 1 a and 1 b were rated similarly, more college instructors ( $81.2 \%$ ) responded that $50 \%$ or fewer of their students could engage in writing informative/explanatory texts to examine and convey complex ideas, concepts, and information proficiently (1c).

Table 9
Frequencies and Percentages of Responses for Writing Standard 1: High School Teachers

| Text Types and Purposes | 50\% or Fewer |  | 51\% to 79\% |  | 80\% or More |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  |  | ery |  |  |  |  |
|  | $n$ | \% | $n$ | \% | $n$ | \% |

1a) Write arguments to support claims in an analysis of
$\begin{array}{llllll}6 & 18.1 & 11 & 33.3 & 16 & 48.5\end{array}$ substantive topics or texts.

1b) Use valid reasoning and relevant and sufficient evidence to support a claim.

1c) Write informative/ explanatory texts to examine and convey complex ideas, $\begin{array}{llllll}8 & 24.3 & 8 & 24.3 & 17 & 51.5\end{array}$ concepts, and information.

1d) Write narratives to develop real or imagined experiences or events using effective technique, well-chosen details, and well-structured event sequences.

Table 10
Frequencies and Percentages of Responses for Writing Standard 1: College Instructors

|  | $\frac{50 \% \text { or Fewer }}{\text { Mastery }}$ |  | $\frac{51 \% \text { to } 79 \%}{\text { Mastery }}$ |  |  |
| :--- | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Text Types and Purposes | $\underline{80 \% \text { or More }}$ |  |  |  |  |
|  | $n$ | $\%$ | $n$ | $\%$ | $n$ |

1a) Write arguments to support claims in an analysis of substantive topics or texts.
$\begin{array}{llllll}25 & 78.3 & 6 & 18.7 & 1 & 3.1\end{array}$

1b) Use valid reasoning and relevant and sufficient evidence to support a claim.

1c) Write informative/ explanatory texts to examine and convey complex ideas, 26 $\begin{array}{lll}81.2 & 6 & 18.8\end{array}$

0
0 concepts, and information.

1d) Write narratives to develop real or imagined experiences or events using effective technique, well-chosen details, and well-structured event sequences.

## Analyses of Frequencies and Percentages of Responses for Writing Standard

2: Product and Distribution of Writing. The items in the second writing standard asked the high school teachers and college instructors to rate student proficiency in creating, strengthening, and publishing writing products. For high school teachers, as seen in Table 11, more than half of the 33 respondents indicated that $80 \%$ or more of their students were proficient at skills 2 b (54.6\%) and 2c (50.1\%). Skill 2c, using "technology, including the Internet, to produce, publish, and update individual or shared writing products in response to ongoing feedback," had the highest number of respondents (25.1\%) indicating that $50 \%$ or fewer of their students were proficient at this skill.

The majority of 31 college instructors, as seen in Table 12 responded that $50 \%$ or fewer of their students were proficient at all three skills in this standard. Skill 2c, using "technology, including the Internet, to produce, publish, and update individual or shared writing products in response to ongoing feedback," had the highest number of respondents (6.4\%) indicating that $80 \%$ or more of their students were proficient at this skill.

Table 11
Frequencies and Percentages of Responses for Writing Standard 2: High School Teachers

| Production and Distribution of Writing | 50\% or Fewer |  | 51\% to 79\% |  | 80\% or More |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
|  | $n$ | \% | $n$ | \% | $n$ | \% |

2a) Produce clear and coherent writing in which the development, organization, and style are appropriate to task, purpose, and audience.

2b) Develop and strengthen $\begin{array}{llllllll}\text { writing as needed by planning, } & 6 & 18.1 & 9 & 27.3 & 18 & 54.6\end{array}$ revising, editing, rewriting, or trying a new approach.

2c) Use technology, including the Internet, to produce, publish, and update individual $\begin{array}{llllll}8 & 25.1 & 8 & 25 & 16 & 50.1\end{array}$ or shared writing products in response to ongoing feedback.

Table 12
Frequencies and Percentages of Responses for Writing Standard 2: College Instructors

| Production and Distribution of Writing | 50\% or Fewer |  | 51\% to 79\% |  | 80\% or More |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | Mastery |  | Mastery |  | Mastery |  |
|  | $n$ | \% | $n$ | \% | $n$ | \% |

2a) Produce clear and coherent writing in which the development, organization,

| 25 | 80.7 | 6 | 19.4 | 0 | 0 |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | and style are appropriate to task, purpose, and audience.

2b) Develop and strengthen $\begin{array}{llllllll}\text { writing as needed by planning, } & 23 & 74.3 & 7 & 22.6 & 1 & 3.2\end{array}$ revising, editing, rewriting, or trying a new approach.

2c) Use technology, including the Internet, to produce, $\begin{array}{llllllll}\text { publish, and update individual } & 19 & 61.3 & 10 & 32.3 & 2 & 6.4\end{array}$ or shared writing products in response to ongoing feedback.

## Analyses of Frequencies and Percentages of Responses for Writing Standard

3: Research to Build and Present Knowledge. The items in the third writing standard relate to a student's ability to conduct research, and skills in this standard range from understanding a research topic to choosing, understanding, and incorporating sources effectively and accurately. As indicated in Table 13, while $70 \%$ of the 32 high school teachers indicated that $80 \%$ or more of their students could demonstrate understanding of a research topic (3d), only $39.4 \%$ responded that students could narrow or broaden a research topic when appropriate (3b). High school teachers highly rated students' proficiency at following a standard format for source citation (3j). Even though 51.6\% of the high school teachers felt that $80 \%$ or more of their students could gather relevant information from sources (3e), only $42.4 \%$ responded that students could assess the strengths and limitations of these sources (3f).

The majority of 30 college instructors, as indicated in Table 14, responded that $50 \%$ or fewer of their students were proficient in all of the skills in this standard. With the exception of avoiding plagiarism (3h), $65 \%$ of college instructors responded that $50 \%$ or fewer of their students were proficient in all of the skills in this standard. The four highest rated skills were avoiding plagiarism (3h), demonstrating an understanding of a research topic (3d), follow a standard format for citation (3j), and avoiding overreliance on one source (3i). The lowest rated skill was assessing the strengths and limitations of each source (3f).

Table 13
Frequencies and Percentages of Responses for Writing Standard 3: High School Teachers

| Research to Build and Present Knowledge | $\frac{50 \% \text { or Fewer }}{\text { Mastery }}$ |  | $\frac{51 \% \text { to } 79 \%}{\text { Mastery }}$ |  | $\frac{80 \% \text { or More }}{\text { Mastery }}$ |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | $n$ | \% | $n$ | \% | $n$ | \% |
| 3a) Conduct short and more sustained research projects to answer questions/solve problems. | 6 | 18.2 | 13 | 39.4 | 14 | 42.5 |
| 3b) Narrow or broaden a research topic when appropriate. | 6 | 18.1 | 14 | 42.4 | 13 | 39.4 |
| 3c) Synthesize multiple sources on a research topic. | 6 | 18.2 | 9 | 27.3 | 18 | 54.5 |
| 3d) Demonstrate understanding of a research topic. | 4 | 13.4 | 5 | 16.6 | 21 | 70 |
| 3e) Gather relevant information from multiple sources, using advanced searches effectively. | 6 | 18.2 | 10 | 30.3 | 17 | 51.6 |
| 3f) Assess the strengths and limitations of each source in terms of task, purpose, and audience. | 9 | 27.2 | 10 | 30.3 | 14 | 42.4 |
| 3 g ) Add information into a piece of writing while maintaining a coherent flow of ideas. | 7 | 21.2 | 10 | 30.3 | 16 | 48.6 |
| 3h) Avoid plagiarism. | 6 | 18.2 | 10 | 30.4 | 17 | 51.5 |
| 3i) Avoid overreliance on any one source. | 8 | 24.2 | 10 | 30.3 | 15 | 45.5 |
| 3j) Follow a standard format for citation. | 3 | 9 | 9 | 27.3 | 21 | 63.7 |
| 3k) Draw evidence from literary or informational texts to support analysis, reflection, and research. | 7 | 21.2 | 8 | 24.3 | 18 | 54.5 |

Table 14
Frequencies and Percentages of Responses for Writing Standard 3: College Instructors

| Research to Build and Present Knowledge | $50 \%$ or Fewer Mastery |  | $\frac{51 \% \text { to } 79 \%}{\text { Mastery }}$ |  | $80 \%$ or More Mastery |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | $n$ | \% | $n$ | \% | $n$ | \% |

3a) Conduct short and more sustained research projects to answer questions/ solve $22-73.3-6$ problems.
3b) Narrow or broaden the research topic when
$\begin{array}{llllll}26 & 83.9 & 4 & 13 & 1 & 3.2\end{array}$
appropriate.
3c) Synthesize multiple sources on a research topic.
$\begin{array}{llllll}26 & 83.9 & 5 & 16.2 & 0 & 0\end{array}$
3d) Demonstrate understanding of a research topic.
3e) Gather relevant information from multiple sources, using advanced searches effectively.
3f) Assess the strengths and limitations of each source in terms of the task, purpose, and audience.
3 g ) Add information into a piece of writing while maintaining a coherent flow of26 ideas.

3h) Avoid plagiarism.
3i) Avoid overreliance on any

| 23 | 74.3 | 7 | 22.6 | 1 | 3.2 |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | one source.

3j) Follow a standard format for citation.
3k) Draw evidence from literary or informational texts to support analysis, reflection, and research.

## Analyses of Frequencies and Percentages of Responses for Writing Standard

4: Range of Writing. The final writing standard asked the high school teachers and the college instructors to determine how proficient their students are at writing over extended and shorter time frames. The 32 high school teacher respondents, as indicated in Table 15 , rated students' proficiency in writing for shorter time frames higher than students' proficiency when writing over extended time frames. More respondents (56.6\%) indicated that $80 \%$ or more of their students were proficient at writing routinely for shorter time frames (4b) than 43.9\% who indicated the same level of proficiency for writing routinely over extended time frames (4a).

College instructors, as indicated in Table 16, rated students' proficiency in writing for shorter time frames higher than students' proficiency when writing over extended time frames. More respondents $(9.7 \%$ of 31 respondents total) indicated that $80 \%$ or more of their students were proficient at writing routinely for shorter time frames (4b) than $3.2 \%$ who indicated the same level of proficiency for writing routinely over extended time frames (4a).

Table 15
Frequencies and Percentages of Responses for Writing Standard 4: High School Teachers

|  | $\frac{50 \% \text { or Fewer }}{\text { Mastery }}$ | $\frac{51 \% \text { to } 79 \%}{\text { Mastery }}$ |  | 80\% or More <br> Range of Writing |
| :--- | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | $n$ | $\%$ | $n$ | $\%$ |

4a) Write routinely over extended time frames (time for $\begin{array}{llllllll}\text { research, reflection, and } & 8 & 24 & 10 & 31.2 & 14 & 43.9\end{array}$ revision) for a range of tasks, purposes.

4b) Write routinely for shorter $\begin{array}{llllllll}\text { time frames (a single sitting or } & 5 & 15.6 & 9 & 28.2 & 18 & 56.3\end{array}$ a day or two) for a range of tasks, purposes.

Table 16
Frequencies and Percentages of Responses for Writing Standard 4: College Instructors

|  | $\frac{50 \% \text { or Fewer }}{\text { Mastery }}$ | $\frac{51 \% \text { to } 79 \%}{\text { Mastery }}$ |  |  |
| :--- | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Range of Writing | $n$ | $\%$ | $n$ | $\%$ |

4a) Write routinely over extended time frames (time for research, reflection, and revision) for a range of tasks, purposes.

4b) Write routinely for shorter time frames (a single sitting or a day or two) for a range of tasks, purposes.

## Research Question 3

Table 17 presents the means, standard deviations, and effect sizes for the high school and college responses for each reading and writing standard. For the reading standards, based on effect sizes, the largest difference between the high school and college responses exists for standard 1 , followed by standards 3,2 , and 4 . For the writing standards, based on effect sizes, the largest difference between the high school and college responses exists for standard 3 , followed by standards 4,1 , and 2 .

Table 17
Means, Standard Deviations, and Effect Size Differences for Reading Standards and Writing Standards

| Reading |  |  |  |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Measure | High school$(n=35)$ |  | College$(n=30)$ |  | Effect |
|  | M | $S D$ | M | $S D$ | $g$ |
| Standard 1 | 8.32 | 2.11 | 4.81 | 1.78 | 1.76 |
| Standard 2 | 8.62 | 1.85 | 5.88 | 2.03 | 1.40 |
| Standard 3 | 8.20 | 2.21 | 4.97 | 1.97 | 1.52 |
| Standard 4 | 8.01 | 2.33 | 5.37 | 2.28 | 1.13 |
| Writing |  |  |  |  |  |
| Measure | High school$(n=31)$ |  | College$(n=31)$ |  | Effect |
|  | M | $S D$ | M | $S D$ | $g$ |
| Standard 1 | 8.02 | 2.23 | 4.92 | 1.83 | 1.51 |
| Standard 2 | 8.06 | 2.24 | 5.15 | 1.87 | 1.39 |
| Standard 3 | 8.10 | 1.94 | 4.82 | 1.55 | 1.84 |
| Standard 4 | 8.26 | 1.96 | 5.06 | 1.95 | 1.61 |

Reading Standards. Presented in Table 18 the results of the "mixed" Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) for the reading standards, followed up with a "repeated measures" ANOVA to explore the "within groups" part of the results and a Multivariate Analysis of Variance (MANOVA) to explore the "between groups" parts of the results. As shown in this table and as graphically depicted in Figure 1, the main effect for the "within-group" analyses suggested that there was significant difference across the means for the four reading standards with high school and college respondents combined $(F(3,61)=9.10, p$ $<.001)$. At the same time, however, the interaction effect of reading standards by group indicated a significant difference in the pattern of means when the "within group" responses of high school teachers or college instructors were contrasted $(F(3,61)=3.03$, $p<.05)$. Follow-up results of the repeated measures ANOVA for the high school teachers revealed that their rating of reading standard $2(M=8.62, S D=1.85)$ was significantly higher than their rating of reading standard $4(M=8.01, S D=2.33)$. However, the results of the repeated measures ANOVA for the college instructors suggested that their rating of reading standard $2(M=5.88, S D=2.03)$ was significantly higher than their ratings of both reading standard $1(M 4.81, S D=1.78)$ and reading standard $3(M=4.97, S D=$ 1.97). Concerning the "between-group" aspect of the "mixed" ANOVA and consistent with what shown in Figure $1(F(1,63)=39.83, p<.001)$, the follow-up MANOVA revealed an across-the-board difference in how the two groups compared in their rating of the four standards, with high school teacher respondents rating students' reading competencies systematically higher than their college instructor counterparts.

Table 18
Mixed Analysis of Variance Results for Reading Standards, with Repeated Measures and Multivariate Analysis of Variance Follow-Up Test Results

| Source | $\lambda$ | F | $d f$ | $p$ | $\eta_{\mathrm{p}}{ }^{2}$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Within-Group Effects |  |  |  |  |  |
| Effect of Standard | . 691 | 9.10 | 3,61 | 0.000 | . 309 |
| Effect of Standard X Education level | . 871 | 3.03 | 3,61 | 0.036 | . 129 |
| High School Follow-up Analyses (Standard $2>$ Standard 4) | . 688 | 4.83 | 3,32 | 0.007 | . 312 |
| College Follow-up Analyses (Standard $2>$ Standards 1, 3) | . 642 | 5.03 | 3,27 | 0.007 | . 358 |
| Between-Group Effects |  |  |  |  |  |
| Effect of Education Level |  | 39.83 | 1,63 | 0.000 | 0.387 |
| Follow-up MANOVA | 0.514 | 14.16 | 4,60 | 0.000 | 0.486 |
| Standard 1 Mean Comparison |  | 51.54 | 1,63 | 0.000 | 0.450 |
| Standard 2 Mean Comparison |  | 32.45 | 1,63 | 0.000 | 0.340 |
| Standard 3 Mean Comparison |  | 38.25 | 1,63 | 0.000 | 0.378 |
| Standard 4 Mean Comparison |  | 21.31 | 1,63 | 0.000 | 0.253 |



Figure 1. Line graph of Mean Competency Ratings in Reading by Educational Level

Writing Standards. Presented in Table 19 are the results of the "mixed" ANOVA for the writing standards, with repeated measures ANOVA and MANOVA follow-up test results. Along with the graph in Figure 2, this table indicates that no significant "within-group" difference was observed with respect to the means for the four writing standards, whether across all respondents $(F(3,58)=0.939, p=0.428)$ or for respondents grouped within their respective educational levels $(F(3,58)=0.632, p=$ 0.597 ). However, as may also be seen in Table 19, comparing writing standards means by the respondents' educational level suggested a significant "between group" difference in the ratings $(F(1,60)=47.94, p<0.001)$. Consistent with what is shown in Figure 2, the results of the MANOVA revealed systematic differences in the responses of high school teachers and college instructors when their group ratings for each of the four writing standards were directly compared.

Table 19
Mixed Analysis of Variance Results for Writing Standards, with Repeated Measures and Multivariate Analysis of Variance Follow-Up Test Results

| Source | $\lambda$ | F | $d f$ | $p$ | $\eta_{\mathrm{p}}{ }^{2}$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Within-Group Effects |  |  |  |  |  |
| Effect of Standard | . 954 | 0.939 | 3,58 | 0.428 | . 046 |
| Effect of Standard X Education level | . 871 | 0.632 | 3,58 | 0.597 | . 032 |
| High School Follow-up Analyses | . 942 | . 630 | 3,28 | 0.634 | . 058 |
| College Follow-up Analyses | . 878 | 1.30 | 3,28 | 0.294 | . 122 |
| Between-Group Effects |  |  |  |  |  |
| Effect of Education Level |  | 47.94 | 1,60 | 0.000 | 0.444 |
| Follow-up MANOVA | 0.495 | 14.51 | 4,57 | 0.000 | 0.505 |
| Standard 1 Mean Comparison |  | 36.01 | 1,60 | 0.000 | 0.375 |
| Standard 2 Mean Comparison |  | 30.87 | 1,60 | 0.000 | 0.340 |
| Standard 3 Mean Comparison |  | 53.91 | 1,60 | 0.000 | 0.473 |
| Standard 4 Mean Comparison |  | 41.36 | 1,60 | 0.000 | 0.408 |



Figure 2. Line graph of Mean Competency Ratings in Writing by Educational Level

## Research Question 4

In order to answer the final research question, MANOVAs and follow-up ANOVAs were conducted for each of the subgroups: grade level primarily taught (Grade), academic level of students (Students), years of teaching experience (Experience), level of education (Education), and locale of school (Locale). For the first category (Grade), teachers who primarily teach $12^{\text {th }}$ grade were compared to teachers who teach twelfth grade, but primarily teach a different grade level $\left(9^{\text {th }}, 10^{\text {th }}, 11^{\text {th }}\right.$ grade English). In the second category (Students), teachers who primarily teach honors, Dual Enrollment, or Advanced Placement English were contrasted with teachers who primarily teach other levels of English. Teachers with more than 15 years of experience were compared in the third category to teachers with fewer years of experience (Experience). Teachers who have received a Masters, Doctorate, or other advanced degree were contrasted with teachers who have earned Bachelor's degrees (Education). Finally, suburban teachers were compared with teachers in urban, rural, and small town areas (Locale).

While no multivariate differences between groups emerged with the standards were compared by the various subgroups, two univariate differences were observed, one with respect to reading and one with respect to writing. With regard to reading and as shown in Table 20, the only significant difference was observed for Standard 1 by teachers' years of experience $(F(1,33)=4.50, p<.05)$, with more experienced teachers $(M=9.01, S D=1.58)$ appearing to rate the competencies of their students somewhat higher than their less experienced counterparts ( $M=2.66, S D=2.30$ ). Similarly, with respect to the results for Writing Standards presented in Table 21, only one significant
difference was found between any of the subgroups for any of the four writing standards. As regards Standard One $(F(1,29)=5.32, p<.05)$, a difference was observed concerning the way that suburban high school teachers $(M=8.53, S D=1.91)$ and teachers from other locales $(M=6.56, S D=2.53)$ rated their students' ability to create different types of texts.

Table 20
Multivariate and Univariate Analyses of Variance F Ratios for Measures of Students' Reading Competencies by High School Faculty Subgroups

| Source | ANOVA |  |  |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | $\frac{\text { MANOVA }}{F(4,30)}$ | Standard 1 $F(1,33)$ | Standard 2 $F(1,33)$ | Standard 3 $F(1,33)$ | Standard 4 $F(1,33)$ |
| Grade | 2.34 | 0.15 | 1.84 | 0.57 | 0.61 |
|  |  |  | ANOVA |  |  |
|  | $\begin{gathered} \text { MANOVA } \\ F(4,30) \\ \hline \end{gathered}$ | Standard 1 $F(1,33)$ | Standard 2 $F(1,33)$ | Standard 3 $F(1,33)$ | Standard 4 $F(1,33)$ |
| Students | 1.01 | 0.15 | 1.84 | 0.57 | 0.61 |
|  |  |  | ANOVA |  |  |
|  | $\begin{aligned} & \text { MANOVA } \\ & F(4,30) \\ & \hline \end{aligned}$ | Standard 1 $F(1,33)$ | Standard 2 $F(1,33)$ | Standard 3 $F(1,33)$ | Standard 4 $F(1,33)$ |
| Experience | 1.60 | 4.50* | 2.44 | 2.54 | 3.43 |
|  |  |  | ANOVA |  |  |
|  | $\begin{gathered} \text { MANOVA } \\ F(4,30) \\ \hline \end{gathered}$ | Standard 1 $F(1,33)$ | Standard 2 $F(1,33)$ | Standard 3 $F(1,33)$ | Standard 4 $F(1,33)$ |
| Education | 0.16 | 0.24 | 0.07 | 0.13 | 0.07 |
|  |  |  | ANOVA |  |  |
|  |  | Standard 1 | Standard 2 | Standard 3 | Standard 4 |
|  | $\frac{\text { MANOVA }}{F(4,30)}$ | $F(1,33)$ | $F(1,33)$ | $F(1,33)$ | $F(1,33)$ |
| Locale | 1.89 | 0.07 | 0.14 | 0.08 | 0.50 |

Table 21
Multivariate and Univariate Analyses of Variance F Ratios for Measures of Students' Writing Competencies by High School Faculty Subgroups

| Source | ANOVA |  |  |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | $\frac{\text { MANOVA }}{F(4,26)}$ | Standard 1 $F(1,29)$ | Standard 2 $F(1,29)$ | Standard 3 $F(1,29)$ | Standard 4 $F(1,29)$ |
| Grade | 2.34 | 3.06 | 0.64 | 1.02 | 0.53 |
|  | ANOVA |  |  |  |  |
|  | $\frac{\text { MANOVA }}{F(4,26)}$ | Standard 1 $F(1,29)$ | Standard 2 $F(1,29)$ | Standard 3 $F(1,29)$ | Standard 4 $F(1,29)$ |
| Students | 1.01 | 0.17 | 0.54 | 0.46 | 0.64 |
|  | ANOVA |  |  |  |  |
|  | $\begin{gathered} \text { MANOVA } \\ \hline F(4,26) \\ \hline \end{gathered}$ | Standard 1 $F(1,29)$ | Standard 2 $F(1,29)$ | Standard 3 $F(1,29)$ | Standard 4 $F(1,29)$ |
| Experience | 1.60 | 3.15 | 3.34 | 2.96 | 2.48 |
|  | ANOVA |  |  |  |  |
|  | $\frac{\text { MANOVA }}{} \frac{F(4,26)}{}$ | Standard 1 $F(1,29)$ | Standard 2 $F(1,29)$ | Standard 3 $F(1,29)$ | Standard 4 $F(1,29)$ |
| Education | 0.16 | 0.59 | 0.08 | 0.03 | 0.80 |
|  | ANOVA |  |  |  |  |
|  | MANOVA Standard 1 Standard 2 Standard 3 Standard 4 |  |  |  |  |
|  | $\frac{\text { MANOVA }}{F}$ | $F(1,29)$ | $F(1,29)$ | $F(1,29)$ | $F(1,29)$ |
| Locale | 1.89 | 5.32* | 3.53 | 2.33 | 3.06 |

## Summary of Findings

Overall, the high school teachers deemed more students proficient on every reading and writing standard than the college instructors. Significant differences were found between the ways the high school and college respondents rated student proficiency within the reading and writing standards.

An analysis of responses to the reading standards reveals that Standard 2, understanding how and why an author makes certain choices about the language and point of view of a text, was the highest rated standard by both high school and college instructors. Within the high school teachers, Standard 2 was rated significantly higher than Standard 4, the ability to read both literary and informational grade-level appropriate texts. The college instructors rated student proficiency in craft and structure (Standard 2) significantly higher than student proficiency in key ideas and details (Standard 1) as well as integrating knowledge and ideas (Standard 4).

When examining the writing standards, the high school teachers also rated student proficiency significantly higher than the college instructors. However, there was not significant variation within both of these groups for the writing standards.

The multivariate and univariate analyses of variance indicated that within the high school teachers, there was no significant difference in the way each reading and writing standard was rated for the majority of standards. However, a significant difference between experienced and inexperienced teachers was found for how students understand key ideas and details within a text (Reading Standard 1). In addition, a significant difference was found between the ways suburban and non-suburban high school teachers
rated students' ability to create different types of texts, argumentative, informative, and narrative (Writing Standard 1).

## CHAPTER 5

## DISCUSSION

The purpose of this study was to examine $12^{\text {th }}$ grade English teachers and college English instructors' perceptions of their students' proficiency in reading and writing. The high school and college English educators were sent a survey through email, and survey participants responded by stating what percentage of their students were proficient in skills under four reading and four writing standards. These standards and their accompanying skills were adapted from the Common Core State Standards (CCSS), a new set of English Language Arts (ELA) and Mathematics standards that Tennessee, as well as other states around the country, have adopted. Tennessee was one of the first states to win the Race to the Top education initiative in 2010 and adopted these new standards in the same year. The CCSS and their assessment, the Partnership for Assessment of Readiness for Colleges and Careers (PARCC) assessment, will be administered in 23 states, including Tennessee beginning in the 2014-2015 school year. The PARCC test will replace the current "End of Course" (EOC) test for high school English Language Arts.

In addition to these tests, every $11^{\text {th }}$ grader in the public schools in Tennessee must take the American College Testing (ACT) test. ACT has determined College Readiness Benchmark scores for English, Reading, Math, and Science; ACT claims that these scores predict if students are likely to experience success in introductory college courses. According to ACT (2011), the percentage of students who are able to meet the English and Reading College Readiness Benchmarks is similar to the percentage of students who will be proficient under the CCSS assessments. However, the nature of the

ACT test, a standardized test with an optional writing portion, prevents it from assessing every CCSS skill, such as the Speaking and Listening skills.

This researcher anticipated that there would be a difference between the way high school and college educators would rate student proficiency in reading and writing. Prior to this study, the researcher hypothesized that the college educators would rate student proficiency in both reading and writing lower than the high school teachers.

The following section discusses the results of the four research questions.

## Discussion of the Findings

Research Question 1. As was the case with every Reading and Writing Standard, responses to the items in the Key Ideas and Details category indicated that more students were perceived to be proficient by the high school teachers than by the college instructors. When examining the results of the responses to Reading Standard 1, providing a summary of a text (Skill 1a) was the highest rated by both high school and college instructors. This skill is not as complex as the others in this category; providing a summary, compared to the other skills listed under this Standard, would not require the student to analyze or interpret any information. The student might simply be repeating back what happened in a story or recalling information from a text. In addition, this skill does not state how detailed that summary must be or whether a student would have to provide that summary through speaking or writing. Performance expectations are not available for any of the CCSS, and this unclear expectation might have resulted in the varying perceptions of proficiency. For example, a skill such as "drawing inferences from a text" might be interpreted differently by a high school teacher than by a college instructor since both could have varying ideas of the level of complexity of the inference
that is needed. The more complex skills, such as constructing an argument concerning a text (1c), which perhaps could be assessed through both speaking or writing, was rated lower by both groups, but like the other skills listed, the performance expectation is not clear.

Both high school and college instructors perceived that more students were proficient in the skills in the Craft and Structure Standard, Standard 2, than in any other Reading Standard. The skills listed under this Standard appear in the Tennessee ELA Standards and are commonly taught and tested in both middle and high school ELA classrooms in Tennessee. Concepts such as vocabulary, figurative language, and point of view are commonly assessed on EOC testing. Determining a point of view was one of the highest rated among all of the reading and writing skills, possibly because it is not as complex a task as the other skills listed. It is also a skill that is part of the Tennessee English curriculum beginning in middle school and can be easily assessed on a multiplechoice test. The emphasis on these skills might have contributed to the difference in mean competency ratings between the high school and college respondents, which is not as great with Standard 2 as it is with Reading Standards 1 and 3.

The skills listed under Reading Standard 3, Integration of Knowledge and Ideas, specifically Skills 3a and 3b which pertain to literature, are not commonly taught by either high school English teachers or college instructors in a Composition course. The majority of reading assessments for high school students do not include more than one version of a text, and that version is always in print. Teachers might use different versions in class, such as reading a play and then watching a staged performance of the same play, these other versions are used to supplement instruction and aid in overall
understanding rather than being used for students to analyze the differences between the mediums. Therefore, while both levels of instructors may use visuals or audio to help students understand or interpret a text, the analysis of a play, novel, or poem would be part of a high school English class but not necessarily a college Composition course. Similarly, the results of Reading Standard 4, Range of Reading and Text Complexity, also reflected the differences in focus between high school English classes, which are more likely to focus on literature, and college Composition courses.

Of the Reading Standards, Standard 4 had the smallest difference in mean competency rating between the high school and college respondents. The low rating by both groups suggests that instructors perceive students as deficient in reading skills. Recent ACT results confirm this perception of low reading ability; only $43 \%$ of Tennessee's students met the ACT College Readiness Benchmark in Reading (ACT, 2012). In many high schools, students arrive with below grade-level reading abilities. As a result, the types of texts that teachers might assign are also below grade-level simply to meet the needs of their students. The CCSS call for a shift to more complex, grade-level appropriate texts. If teachers are not scaffolding the reading, and students are only reading at their ability level and not above it, they might not make progress toward reading complex, on grade-level materials.

Research Question 2. The Common Core Writing Standards focus on three modes of writing: argumentative, informative, and narrative. The responses to the items under Writing Standard 1, Text Types and Purposes, indicate once again that high school teachers ranked student proficiency higher than the college instructors. While narrative writing is not part of any high school EOC test yet, high school teachers at all grade
levels typically teach narrative writing, particularly the personal narrative, early in the school year in order get to know their students better. Narrative writing is also emphasized through journal writing, a common technique used by high school teachers in many different content areas. Twelfth grade teachers commonly teach narrative writing through the personal narrative or memoir, a type of essay often used as a starting point for students' college admissions essays.

For Writing Standard 2, high school teachers again perceived more students to be proficient when compared to the perceptions of the college instructors. This high rating by the high school teachers might be due to the methods high school teachers traditionally use to teach writing. Every high school junior currently must take the Tennessee Comprehensive Assessment Program (TCAP) Writing Assessment. Prior to the 2013 school year, this assessment required students to write a persuasive essay in 35 minutes. Starting in the 2012-2013 school year, high school juniors will read a short text and then type an argumentative essay using the text. The time has been extended to 60 minutes for this year's TCAP Writing Assessment. In response to these timed writing assessments, teachers walk students through the requirements of these types of "on demand" writing in the weeks before the assessment. Every step in the development of these essays is directly taught by the teacher prior to the assessment, from the introductory paragraph to the conclusion. In the case of TCAP essays, writers are often scored higher for very formulaic essay writing that is simply clear and coherent rather than stylistically sophisticated. Student performance on these types of writing assessments might explain why Skill 2 a is ranked lower by high school teachers than 2 b and 2 c .

Skill 2c seems to directly relate to much longer writing assignments.
Traditionally, lengthy writing assignments are taught in extended units in high school; for example a teacher might teach a research paper unit or a personal memoir unit. This unit, which might take place over a few days or weeks, would involve scaffolding all of the skills listed under Writing Standard 2. The responses to Writing Standard 3, Research to Build and Present Knowledge, describe student proficiency with researched writing, one type of writing that teachers typically devote a unit to teaching. High school teachers perceived that many students were proficient at these skills, including research. The higher rating might stem from the language of the skills under Writing Standard 3; student performance expectations for the skills listed under Writing Standard 3 are more straightforward than those under the other Writing Standards. In addition, these skills are similar to the current Tennessee standards for research papers and are more closely aligned with what high school English teachers are already teaching. Based on this researcher's experience and knowledge, high school teachers might be teaching these skills, but they are typically relegated to one large unit rather than being taught and emphasized throughout the year. In high school, students may write one research paper, often an informative or expository essay with multiple sources, per school year. This essay is most commonly only assigned in English classes, although some other content areas may require a smaller version of a research paper. High school students may demonstrate proficiency in researched writing during that one large unit, however the teacher has often taken a step-by-step approach over multiple weeks, with multiple versions, revisions, and suggestions by both teachers and peers. Once this unit is completed, these skills are often not used again until the following year. When faced with
both short and sustained research projects in college, students may not have retained the skills that were used in isolation in high school.

Writing Standard 4 supports the results of Writing Standard 3. High school classes typically spend multiple days or weeks on major writing assignments. The teacher is directly involved in the creation of each draft, often reading student work and suggesting revisions prior to submission of the final draft. High school teacher perceptions of student proficiency, which were again higher than the college instructors, may reflect their view of student proficiency on these final drafts rather than on earlier versions of student writing.

Research Question 3. This study concludes that differences do occur between the way the high school and college educators perceive their students' proficiencies in the reading and writing skills. The high school teachers perceived their students to be much more proficient at the various reading and writing skills than the college instructors. It is important to remember that the high school teachers were asked to rate how proficient students were at the end of the academic term. Thus, these teachers were assessing students who had been present in their classroom over the course of a whole school year. Students then had a few months during the summer to forget the skills they learned during their senior year before entering the college Composition course. Students were comfortable in the high school environment and had adjusted to the high school English class expectations. The college instructors were asked to rate how proficient students were at the beginning of the academic term. The students that the college instructors teach may be only a few months removed from high school or the students may be adult learners who have been out of the classroom for many years. These students could be
new to the college environment and to the expectations of college reading and writing assignments.

Given recent ACT scores in Tennessee, it is not surprising that the college educators ranked student proficiency in reading and writing overall so low. The average Tennessee ACT score is a 19.7, a score which by itself only meets the benchmark score in English (ACT, 2012). High school teachers are aware of their students' and their schools' average ACT scores as well as the published College Readiness Benchmarks. High school teachers, including this researcher, know that many students do not meet these benchmark scores, yet students still graduate high school and attend college despite possibly never demonstrating proficiency in core subject areas. Students could have a "D" grade point average in high school, an average that may mean that a student passed a course but is not necessarily proficient, yet that student still attends a postsecondary school the following year.

Research Question 4. A larger sample size might have yielded additional statistically significant comparisons. However, despite the small sample size, two statistically significant differences were noted in this study. The first exists between inexperienced and experienced high school teachers and their perceptions of students' reading abilities in Reading Standard 1. The skills under Reading Standard 1, as mentioned in the discussion of Research Question 1, do not provide precise performance expectations. The exact requirements to meet proficiency for each skill are not given, thus allowing these skills to be misinterpreted, especially by an inexperienced teacher. A more experienced teacher might have a better definition of what each of these skills would entail, and she would be able to teach the skill more effectively since he or she
would know the various components necessary for students to be able to understand and master the given concept.

The second statistically significant comparison was found between teachers in suburban locations and teachers in other locations (urban, rural, or small town). Suburban teachers rated student proficiency for Writing Standard 1 higher than their counterparts in other locales. The suburban high school teachers who participated in this study are part of one of the highest achieving school districts in the state. Some of the teachers from the suburban districts might also teach students in Dual Enrollment or Advanced Placement classes, while rural school districts, with a smaller student enrollment, do not always offer the same advanced courses.

## Limitations of Study

The following limitations may have affected the results of this study:

1. The sample for this study was very limited; respondents taught high school or college English in three school districts or at three universities, one college, or one community college. Any conclusions may be limited to this sample only.
2. The small sample size can also be attributed to the researcher's inability to administer the survey to high school educators in the largest school district in the state. The survey instrument was sent to high school and college English educators in one area of Tennessee only. This area's largest public school district refused to give permission for this study, stating that a moratorium on surveying teachers was in affect. This school system employs over 7000 teachers in 207 elementary, middle, and high schools. It contains over 40 high schools, each with multiple high school English teachers. Had these teachers been allowed to
participate in the study, the sample size could have been much larger and the results could have been dramatically different.
3. In this study, the student population described by the high school teachers may not be exactly the same population described by the college instructors. Students from all over the country attend the five colleges used in the study; these college students may have entered college right after high school or many years may have passed in-between. Similarly, not all of the students described by the high school teachers will attend the five colleges described here so there is not a direct correlation between the two student populations described by the participants. In addition, since the largest school district in the state was not allowed to participate in the study, even though many of the students in that district do attend the colleges surveyed, the students described by the college English educators might include a mix of students whose high school teachers were not given the opportunity to participate in the study.
4. The method of administering the survey instrument was also a limitation. The survey was sent to potential respondents through email. While the researcher attempted to alleviate email problems through follow-up emails and phone calls, it is possible that some educators did not receive this survey for various reasons, including incorrect email addresses or full mailboxes.
5. Of the educators who responded to the survey, not all respondents answered every question, thus limiting the number of responses as well as the quality of the results as a whole.
6. Instructors were asked to rank whether or not a student was proficient at a given skill, but proficiency was only described as the ability to earn a "B" on a skill. Even with this descriptor attached, it is possible that instructors could still define proficiency differently.

## Recommendations for Further Research

A broader, larger sample could likely yield more informative results. This study only focused on $12^{\text {th }}$ grade English teachers and college instructors; a larger study might include teachers at other grade levels. Rather than limiting the study to one area of Tennessee, as this study did, a nation-wide study of educators at additional grade levels could provide more depth.

Since the Common Core State Standards (CCSS) are being implemented in elementary, middle, and high schools across the country, these standards should continue to be studied through further research. Currently CCSS exist for English Language Arts and Mathematics. While this study focused only on high school students' reading and writing skills as designated by the Common Core, a similar study of students' proficiency in the Mathematics skills listed under the CCSS would be important. This study could be replicated for ELA or Mathematics using middle school and high school teachers. Also, It would be informative to compare how students view their individual proficiency on each of these skills in comparison with how their teachers and professors rate each student's proficiency.

## Conclusion

The purpose of this study was to examine the differences in perceptions regarding students' proficiency in reading and writing skills between twelfth grade English teachers
and college English Composition instructors. The results of this study demonstrate that differences in perception certainly exist. The high school teachers rank student proficiency in these skills much higher than their college counterparts. In fact, the high school teachers perceived that the majority of their students were proficient in almost every reading and writing skill.

If one focus of the high school is to prepare students for college-level academic work, then this study, as well as recent ACT results, demonstrate that this goal is often missed. The college instructors in this study indicated that less than half of their students were proficient in many of the reading and writing skills. The 2012 ACT results also indicate that few students are college ready based on whether or not a student has met the ACT benchmarks in Math, Science, English, and Reading. Only 25\% of students nationwide, and only $16 \%$ of students in Tennessee, met all four ACT College Readiness Benchmarks in 2012, implying that the majority of students who took the ACT were not prepared to succeed in college, despite the perceptions of the high school teachers in this study. For the most recent year, approximately $28 \%$ of ACT test takers nation-wide did not meet any of the ACT benchmarks (ACT, 2012).

In Tennessee, where all high school graduates must take the ACT, less than half of the test takers, $43 \%$, met the ACT benchmark in Reading, and $59 \%$ met the benchmark in English (ACT, 2012). In contrast to these numbers, over $80 \%$ of ACT test takers aspire to some level of college degree attainment (ACT, 2012). While these students desire a college degree, their performance on the ACT suggests that these degrees may be outside their grasp. The number of students taking remedial or developmental coursework supports this conclusion; over $40 \%$ of college students must take a remedial course prior
to moving on to credit-bearing coursework (Conley, 2010). Some who are deemed not ready must take these remedial, not-for-credit courses, and the vast majority who take remedial coursework do not graduate college within six years, if they graduate at all (Conley, 2010).

If high school teachers are overestimating student preparedness for college level work, they might not be equipping students with the skills needed in order to be successful in their introductory college courses. The current Tennessee standards for English Language Arts are lengthy and at times do not seem to relate to the types of tasks expected of students in college. For example, there are over 200 different ELA standards for tenth grade English, with tasks ranging from understanding camera angles in film to writing a work memo. The CCSS are more succinct, raise the level of expectation, and many of the skills are much more complex than the current Tennessee standards, However, some of the reading and writing skills in the CCSS still do not seem to correlate with college expectations. Narrative writing, for example, is one of the three modes of writing defined by the CCSS, yet this type of writing would mostly be limited to a Creative Writing course, rather than general college coursework. Similarly, one of the Reading Standards of the CCSS deals with literature only, yet the study of the literature would not likely be a focus of introductory college courses.

In addition, performance expectations for students under the CCSS are not yet clear. While this survey defined proficiency as whether or not a student could earn a "B" on a given skill, a letter grade of "D" is still considered "passing" in most schools. Therefore, a student could "pass" even though he or she is not proficient in any of the required skills. Likewise, if a student passes a unit, possibly without actual
demonstrating proficiency at any of the required skills, the teacher might move on to the next concept or unit. It is also possible that teachers are not aware of how proficient their students are in these various skills, since the assessments for the CCSS have not yet been made available to teachers. Therefore, teachers are relying purely on their own assessments, created either by the teacher herself, other teachers, or by an outside source such as the textbook company. These assessments may or may not truly measure whether a student is proficient at a given skill since their relation to the CCSS assessment cannot be determined. While Tennessee has adopted the CCSS, which claim to be based on what students need to know for colleges and careers, performance expectations have not been set. It is not clear whether the skills listed in the CCSS are directly related to the kinds of work that will be expected of students once they enter college.

It is necessary to alleviate the poor communication of performance expectations between high school and college English instructors. Even when teaching and assessing the same reading or writing skill, two teachers could define proficiency in two very different ways. While the CCSS seek to align K-12 standards, no such standards cross into the postsecondary curriculum. Currently secondary and postsecondary institutions currently work in two very isolated universes. Curricular expectations vary between schools at both the secondary and postsecondary levels, without much communication between the two. If states like Tennessee wish to increase the number of college graduates, teachers and students must be given the tools for eventual college success at the secondary level. This can only be achieved if secondary and postsecondary schools communicate what is expected at both levels, academically and behaviorally, and the curriculum is aligned to reflect those expectations. It is also necessary that policymakers
create a tool, as some states have already done, that collects and analyzes data across the grade levels and after students have left all levels of school and entered the workforce. States could track how students are performing once they leave their public school system. While school systems are currently evaluated based on whether or not students sufficiently surpass the predicted score on a standardized test, school systems are not evaluated on whether or not their students are successful later in life. Longitudinal data systems to track student outcomes from elementary school to college and the work place are necessary to determine the success of students.

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Venezia, A., Kirst, M.W., \& Antonio, A. L. (2003). Betraying the college dream: How disconnected K-12 and postsecondary education systems undermine student aspirations. Stanford, CA: The Bridge Project.

## Welcome to the ELA College and Career Readiness Standards Questionnaire

## WELCOME!

And thank you for responding to our request for questionnaire participants. Your responses will be used as part of a dissertation investigating English-Language Arts curricular alignment.

The ELA College and Career Readiness Standards Questionnaire consists of three parts.

In PART I, you are asked six demographic items regarding your current teaching assignment, your educational background, and your experience.

In PART II, you are asked to indicate the level of proficiency you have observed among twelfth grade students in regular English classes with respect to the recently-published College and Career Readiness Standards in READING.

In PART III, you are asked to indicate the level of proficiency you have observed among twelfth grade students in regular English classes with respect to the recently-published College and Career Readiness Standards
in WRITING.

## Informed Consent

## PLEASE NOTE FOR PURPOSES OF INFORMED CONSENT

This research is part of a dissertation for the College of Education at The University of Memphis.

Participation in this study is voluntary, your answers will be kept strictly confidential within the limits of the law, and you will not be identified in any report associated with this study. There is minimal risk to you by participating. If you do not want to participate, you can stop at any time.

If you have any questions, please feel free to contact the researcher, Lara Charbonnet at 901-218-3451. Questions regarding the rights of research subjects may be directed to the Chair of the University of Memphis Institutional Review Board (901-678-2533).

Note: The University of Memphis does not have any funds budgeted for compensation for injury, damages, or other related expenses.

If you agree to participate in this study, please check the "agree" response below. If you wish to drop out, please check the "decline" button to exit the questionnaire immediately.

Yes, I agree to participate. Take me to the questionnaire
ONo, I do not wish to participate. I wish to exit the questionnaire

## PART I: Demographic Information, Page 1

Please provide the following information about yourself.

1. What grade level represents your primary teaching assignment?

Grade Nine
Grade TenGrade ElevenGrade TwelveOther Grade Level (please specify)
2. In the main, what type of English classes do you teach?

3. In all, how many years of teaching experience do you have?

Less than one year
One to three yearsFour to six yearsSeven to nine years

Please provide the following information about yourself.
4. Which of these represents the highest degree you have completed?MastersDoctorate

Other degree not listed (please specify)
5. Which statement better represents your teaching experience?I have experience teaching high school English

I have experience teaching BOTH high school English and college English
6. Which of these locales best describes the school where you are currently teaching?

OUrban
Small Town
RuralOther locale (please specify)

## END OF PART I. BEGIN PART II: READING STANDARDS AND TASKS

## PART II. GCR Anchor Standards in Reading: Gluster 1, Key Ideas and Details

General Directions for Part II: The tasks presented on the following pages are based on the College and Career Readiness (CCR) Anchor Standards in Reading and are divided into four clusters. For each task, indicate the percentage of your students in a regular English course who can demonstrate proficiency (that is, earn a grade of " B " on that task)
by the time they leave your classroom, at the end of the academic term.
PART II, \#1: The tasks below are derived from the CCR reading standards concerning KEY IDEAS and DETAILS. For each of these, indicate the approximate percentage of your 12th grade students who, by the time they leave your classroom at the end of the academic term, demonstrate that they can with proficiency...


Use the space below to comment on what your have observed as regards student proficiency and the tasks related to KEY IDEAS and DETAILS.


## PART I: GCR Anchor Standards in Reading: Gluster 2, Graft and Structure

General Directions for Part II: The tasks presented on the following pages are based on the College and Career Readiness (CCR) Anchor Standards in Reading and are divided into four clusters. For each task, indicate the percentage of your students in a regular English course who can demonstrate proficiency (that is, earn a grade of " B " on that task)
by the time they leave your classroom, at the end of the academic term.
PART II, \#2. The tasks below are derived from the CCR reading standards concerning CRAFT and STRUCTURE. For each of these, indicate the approximate percentage of your 12th grade students who, by the time they leave your classroom at the end of the academic term, demonstrate that they can with proficiency...


Use the space below to comment on what your have observed as regards student proficiency and the tasks related to CRAFT and STRUCTURE.


## PART II: GCR Anchor Standards in Reading: Cluster 3, Integration of Knowled...

General Directions for Part II: The tasks presented on the following pages are based on the College and Career Readiness (CCR) Anchor Standards in Reading and are divided into four clusters. For each task, indicate the percentage of your students in a regular English course who can demonstrate proficiency (that is, earn a grade of " B " on that task)
by the time they leave your classroom, at the end of the academic term.
PART II, \#3. The tasks below are derived from the CCR reading standards concerning INTEGRATION OF KNOWLEDGE and IDEAS. For each of these, indicate the approximate percentage of your 12th grade students who, by the time they leave your classroom at the end of the academic term, demonstrate that they can with proficiency...


Use the space below to comment on what your have observed as regards student proficiency and the tasks related to INTEGRATION of KNOWLEDGE and IDEAS.


General Directions for Part II: The tasks presented on the following pages are based on the College and Career Readiness (CCR) Anchor Standards in Reading and are divided into four clusters. For each task, indicate the percentage of your students in a regular English course who can demonstrate proficiency (that is, earn a grade of " B " on that task)
by the time they leave your classroom, at the end of the academic term.
PART II, \#4. The tasks below are derived from the CCR reading standards concerning RANGE of READING and TEXT COMPLEXITY. For each of these, indicate the approximate percentage of your 12th grade students who, by the time they leave your classroom at the end of the academic term, demonstrate that they can with proficiency ...


Use the space below to comment on what your have observed as regards student proficiency and the tasks related to RANGE of READING and TEXT COMPLEXITY.


END OF PART I. BEGIN PART III: WRITING STANDARDS AND TASKS

## PART II: GCR Anchor Standards in Writing: Cluster 1, Text Types and Purpos...

General Directions for Part III: The tasks presented on the following pages are based on the College and Career Readiness (CCR) Anchor Standards in Writing and are divided into four clusters. For each task, indicate the percentage of your students in a regular English course who can demonstrate proficiency (that is, earn a grade of " B " on that task)
by the time they leave your classroom, at the end of the academic term.
PART III, \#1: The tasks below are derived from the CCR writing standards concerning TEXT TYPES and PURPOSES. For each of these, indicate the approximate percentage of your 12th grade students who, by the time they leave your classroom at the end of the academic term, demonstrate that they can with proficiency...


Use the space below to comment on what your have observed as regards student proficiency and the tasks related to TEXT TYPES and PURPOSES.

## PART II: GCR Anchor Standards in Writing: Cluster 2, Production and Distri...

General Directions for Part III: The tasks presented on the following pages are based on the College and Career Readiness (CCR) Anchor Standards in Writing and are divided into four clusters. For each task, indicate the percentage of your students in a regular English course who can demonstrate proficiency (that is, earn a grade of " B " on that task)
by the time they leave your classroom, at the end of the academic term.
PART III, \#2: The tasks below are derived from the CCR writing standards concerning PRODUCTION and DISTRIBUTION of WRITING. For each of these, indic ate the approximate percentage of your 12th grade students who, by the time they leave your classroom at the end of the academic term, demonstrate that they can with proficiency...


Use the space below to comment on what your have observed as regards student proficiency and the tasks related to PRODUCTION and DISTRIBUTION of WRITING.


General Directions for Part III: The tasks presented on the following pages are based on the College and Career Readiness (CCR) Anchor Standards in Writing and are divided into four clusters. For each task, indicate the percentage of your students in a regular English course who can demonstrate proficiency (that is, earn a grade of " B " on that task)
by the time they leave your classroom, at the end of the academic term.
PART III, \#3. 1: The tasks below are derived from the CCR writing standards concerning RESEARCH to BUILD and PRESENT KNOWLEDGE. For each of these, indicate the approximate percentage of your 12th grade students who, by the time they leave your classroom at the end of the academic term, demonstrate that they can with proficiency ...


## PART III: GCR Anchor Standards in Writing: Cluster 3, Research to Build and...

General Directions for Part III: The tasks presented on the following pages are based on the College and Career Readiness (CCR) Anchor Standards in Writing and are divided into four clusters. For each task, indicate the percentage of your students in a regular English course who can demonstrate proficiency (that is, earn a grade of " B " on that task)
by the time they leave your classroom, at the end of the academic term.
PART III, \#3.2: The tasks below are derived from the CCR writing standards concerning RESEARCH to BUILD and PRESENT KNOWLEDGE. For each of these, indicate the approximate percentage of your 12th grade students who, by the time they leave your classroom at the end of the academic term, demonstrate that they can with proficiency...


Use the space below to comment on what your have observed as regards student proficiency and the tasks related to RESEARCH to BUILD and PRESENT KNOWLEDGE.


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Use the space below to comment on what your have observed as regards student proficiency and the tasks related to RESEARCH to BUILD and PRESENT KNOWLEDGE.


## Part III: GCR Anchor Standards in Writing: Cluster 4, Range of Writing

General Directions for Part III: The tasks presented on the following pages are based on the College and Career Readiness (CCR) Anchor Standards in Writing and are divided into four clusters. For each task, indicate the percentage of your students in a regular English course who can demonstrate proficiency (that is, earn a grade of " B " on that task)
by the time they leave your classroom, at the end of the academic term.
PART III, \#4: The tasks below are derived from the CCR writing standards concerning RANGE of WRITING. For each of these, indicate the approximate percentage of your 12th grade students who, by the time they leave your classroom at the end of the academic term, demonstrate that they can with proficiency . . .
< 10\% $\approx 10 \% \approx 20 \% \approx 30 \% \approx 40 \% \approx 50 \% \approx 60 \% \approx \mathbf{~ 7 0 \%} \approx 80 \% \approx 90 \%>90 \%$
4a) Write routinely over extended time frames (time for research, reflection, and revision) for a range of tasks, purposes

a day or two) for a range of tasks, purposes
Use the space below to comment on what your have observed as regards student proficiency and the tasks related to RANGE of WRITING.


Thanks for responding to our survey. We appreciate your interest and cooperation!

## SurveyMonkey

Clicking the "Done" button below will redirect you to the Survey Monkey homepage.

## WELCOME!

And thank you for responding to our request for questionnaire participants. Your responses will be used as part of a dissertation investigating English-Language Arts curricular alignment.

The ELA College and Career Readiness Standards Questionnaire consists of three parts.

In PART I, you are asked six demographic items regarding your current teaching assignment, your educational background, and your experience.

In PART II, you are asked to indicate the level of proficiency you have observed among your First Year English
Composition students with respect to the recentlypublished College and Career Readiness Standards in READING.

In PART III, you are asked to indicate the level of proficiency you have observed among your First Year English Composition students with respect to the recently-
published College and Career Readiness Standards in WRITING.

## Informed Consent

## PLEASE NOTE FOR PURPOSES OF INFORMED CONSENT

This research is part of a dissertation for the College of Education at The University of Memphis.

Participation in this study is voluntary, your answers will be kept strictly confidential within the limits of the law, and you will not be identified in any report associated with this study. There is minimal risk to you by participating. If you do not want to participate, you can stop at any time.

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Note: The University of Memphis does not have any funds budgeted for compensation for injury, damages, or other related expenses.

Participation in this survey is voluntary and your reponses will be kept strictly confidential.

If you agree to participate, please check the "agree" response below. If you wish to drop out, please check the "decline" button to exit the questionnaire immediately.

Yes, I agree to participate. Take me to the questionnaire.
No, I do not wish to participate. I wish to exit the questionnaire.

## PART I: Demographic Information, Page 1

Please provide the following information about yourself.

1. At what sort of institution do you teach?

Two-Year Junior or Community CollegeFour-Year College or University
Other Type of Institution (please specify)
2. In the main, which of these areas best describes your primary teaching assignment?
composition
LiteratureOther Teaching Area (please specify)
3. In all, how many years of teaching experience do you have?Less than one year
One to three years
Four to six years
Seven to nine years

Please provide the following information about yourself.
4. Which of these represents the highest degree you have completed?MastersDoctorateOther degree not listed (please specify)
5. Which statement better represents your teaching experience?I have experience teaching college English

I have experience teaching BOTH high school English and college English.
6. Which of these locales best describes the school where you are currently teaching?

OUrban
Small Town
RuralOther locale (please specify)

## END OF PART I. BEGIN PART II: READING STANDARDS AND TASKS

## PART II. GCR Anchor Standards in Reading: Gluster 1, Key Ideas and Details

General Directions for Part II: The tasks presented on the following pages are based on the College and Career Readiness (CCR) Anchor Standards in Reading and are divided into four clusters. For each task, indicate the percentage of your students in a First Year English Composition course who can demonstrate proficiency (that is, earn a grade of
" B " on that task) when they enter your classroom, at the beginning of the academic term.
PART II, \#1: The tasks below are derived from the CCR reading standards concerning KEY IDEAS and DETAILS. For each of these, indicate the approximate percentage of your First Year Composition students who, when they enter your course at the beginning of the term, demonstrate that they can with proficiency...


Use the space below to comment on what your have observed as regards student proficiency and the tasks related to KEY IDEAS and DETAILS.


## PART I: GCR Anchor Standards in Reading: Gluster 2, Graft and Structure

General Directions for Part II: The tasks presented on the following pages are based on the College and Career Readiness (CCR) Anchor Standards in Reading and are divided into four clusters. For each task, indicate the percentage of your students in a First Year English Composition course who can demonstrate proficiency (that is, earn a grade of " B " on that task) when they enter your classroom, at the beginning of the academic term.

PART II, \#2. The tasks below are derived from the CCR reading standards concerning CRAFT and STRUCTURE. For each of these, indicate the approximate percentage of your First Year Composition students who, when they enter your course at the beginning of the term, demonstrate that they can with proficiency ...


Use the space below to comment on what your have observed as regards student proficiency and the tasks related to CRAFT and STRUCTURE.


## PART II: CCR Anchor Standards in Reading: Cluster 3, Integration of Knowled...

General Directions for Part II: The tasks presented on the following pages are based on the College and Career Readiness (CCR) Anchor Standards in Reading and are divided into four clusters. For each task, indicate the percentage of your students in a First Year English Composition course who can demonstrate proficiency (that is, earn a grade of
" B " on that task) when they enter your classroom, at the beginning of the academic term.
PART II, \#3. The tasks below are derived from the CCR reading standards concerning INTEGRATION OF KNOWLEDGE and IDEAS. For each of these, indicate the approximate percentage of your First Year Composition students who, when they enter your course at the beginning of the term, demonstrate that they can with proficiency ...


Use the space below to comment on what your have observed as regards student proficiency and the tasks related to INTEGRATION of KNOWLEDGE and IDEAS.


General Directions for Part II: The tasks presented on the following pages are based on the College and Career Readiness (CCR) Anchor Standards in Reading and are divided into four clusters. For each task, indicate the percentage of your students in a First Year English Composition course who can demonstrate proficiency (that is, earn a grade of
" B " on that task) when they enter your classroom, at the beginning of the academic term.
PART II, \#4. The tasks below are derived from the CCR reading standards concerning RANGE of READING and TEXT COMPLEXITY. For each of these, indicate the approximate percentage of your First Year Composition students who, when they enter your course at the beginning of the term, demonstrate that they can with proficiency ...


Use the space below to comment on what your have observed as regards student proficiency and the tasks related to RANGE of READING and TEXT COMPLEXITY.


## END OF PART I. BEGIN PART III: WRITING STANDARDS AND TASKS

## PART II: GGR Anchor Standards in Writing: Cluster 1, Text Types and Purpos...

General Directions for Part II: The tasks presented on the following pages are based on the College and Career Readiness (CCR) Anchor Standards in Writing and are divided into four clusters. For each task, indicate the percentage of your students in a First Year English Composition course who can demonstrate proficiency (that is, earn a grade of
" B " on that task) when they enter your classroom, at the beginning of the academic term.
PART III, \#1: The tasks below are derived from the CCR writing standards concerning TEXT TYPES and PURPOSES. For each of these, indicate the approximate percentage of your First Year Composition students who, when they enter your course at the beginning of the term, demonstrate that they can with proficiency ...


Use the space below to comment on what your have observed as regards student proficiency and the tasks related to TEXT TYPES and PURPOSES.

## PART II: GCR Anchor Standards in Writing: Cluster 2, Production and Distri...

General Directions for Part II: The tasks presented on the following pages are based on the College and Career Readiness (CCR) Anchor Standards in Writing and are divided into four clusters. For each task, indicate the percentage of your students in a First Year English Composition course who can demonstrate proficiency (that is, earn a grade of " B " on that task) when they enter your classroom, at the beginning of the academic term.

PART III, \#2: The tasks below are derived from the CCR writing standards concerning PRODUCTION and DISTRIBUTION of WRITING. For each of these, indic ate the approximate percentage of your First Year Composition students who, when they enter your course at the beginning of the term, demonstrate that they can with proficiency...

2a) Produce clear and coherent writing in which the development, organization, and style are appropriate to task, purpose, and audience.
2b) Develop and strengthen writing as needed by planning,
revising, editing, rewriting, or trying a new approach
2c) Use technology, including the Internet, to produce, publish, and update individual or shared writing products in response to ongoing feedback.

Use the space below to comment on what your have observed as regards student proficiency and the tasks related to PRODUCTION and DISTRIBUTION of WRITING.


## PART III: GCR Anchor Standards in Writing: Cluster 3, Research to Build and...

General Directions for Part II: The tasks presented on the following pages are based on the College and Career Readiness (CCR) Anchor Standards in Writing and are divided into four clusters. For each task, indicate the percentage of your students in a First Year English Composition course who can demonstrate proficiency (that is, earn a grade of
" B " on that task) when they enter your classroom, at the beginning of the academic term.
PART III, \#3. 1: The tasks below are derived from the CCR writing standards concerning RESEARCH to BUILD and PRESENT KNOWLEDGE. For each of these, indicate the approximate percentage of your First Year Composition students who, when they enter your course at the beginning of the term, demonstrate that they can with proficiency...

3a) Conduct short as well as more sustained research projects to answer a question (including a self-generated question) or solve a problem.
3b) Narrow or broaden the a research topic when appropriate.

3c) Synthesize multiple sources on a research topic.
3d) Demonstrate understanding of a research topic.
3e) Gather relevant information from multiple authoritative print and digital sources, using advanced searches effectively.

3f) Assess the strengths and limitations of each source in
terms of the task, purpose, and audience.

## PART III: GCR Anchor Standards in Writing: Cluster 3, Research to Build and...

General Directions for Part II: The tasks presented on the following pages are based on the College and Career Readiness (CCR) Anchor Standards in Writing and are divided into four clusters. For each task, indicate the percentage of your students in a First Year English Composition course who can demonstrate proficiency (that is, earn a grade of " B " on that task) when they enter your classroom, at the beginning of the academic term.

PART III, \#3.2: The tasks below are derived from the CCR writing standards concerning RESEARCH to BUILD and PRESENT KNOWLEDGE. For each of these, indicate the approximate percentage of your First Year Composition students who, when they enter your course at the beginning of the term, demonstrate that they can with proficiency...


Use the space below to comment on what your have observed as regards student proficiency and the tasks related to RESEARCH to BUILD and PRESENT KNOWLEDGE.


## Part III: GCR Anchor Standards in Writing: Cluster 4, Range of Writing

General Directions for Part II: The tasks presented on the following pages are based on the College and Career Readiness (CCR) Anchor Standards in Writing and are divided into four clusters. For each task, indicate the percentage of your students in a First Year English Composition course who can demonstrate proficiency (that is, earn a grade of " B " on that task) when they enter your classroom, at the beginning of the academic term.

PART III, \#4: The tasks below are derived from the CCR writing standards concerning RANGE of WRITING. For each of these, indicate the approximate percentage of your First Year Composition students who, when they enter your course at the beginning of the term, demonstrate that they can with proficiency...
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4a) Write routinely over extended time frames (time for research, reflection, and revision) for a range of tasks, purposes

a day or two) for a range of tasks, purposes
Use the space below to comment on what your have observed as regards student proficiency and the tasks related to RANGE of WRITING.


Thanks for responding to our survey. We appreciate your interest and cooperation!

## SurveyMonkey

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