MOTIVATION FOR LEARNING THROUGH

AUTHENTIC PRINT LITERACY PRACTICES:

A CRITICAL REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

by

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ABSTRACT

This project reviews professional research literature regarding motivation for learning, authentic instruction, and literacy instruction for the purpose of examining the impact of authentic print literacy practices in secondary classrooms. Findings of the critical review of literature indicate authentic teaching practices motivate students and motivation leads to higher levels of achievement. As a result, this paper advocates authentic print literacy practices through: instruction, materials, activities, and purposes. Additionally, this project provides information regarding areas for future research.

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CHAPTER ONE: RATIONALE

Introduction

I sat on the floor scribbling on the wall with markers, in a variety of colors, when my mother walked into my bedroom. Though I did not realize it at the time, this would be one of the first times my name would be shouted as a form of expletive in my home. Far more important than the paint used to cover my sullied wall, was this first step in my writing process. As development and instruction progressed, the colorful scribbles began to take the shape of letters, which in turn formed sentences, paragraphs, and eventually the dreaded five-paragraph essay.

Bruning and Horn (2000) described the ideal developmental process of writing which results "in highly capable and motivated writers, able to deploy a variety of approaches as their purposes and audiences change" (p. 25). This ideal process demonstrates writing as a natural process of entering conversation with ideas, authors, and papers. Additionally, perfect writers hold "positive views not only about writing's utility, but about engaging in its processes, and approaching writing with anticipation, feelings of control, and minimal anxiety" (p. 25). Unfortunately, this idealized picture of writing development is far from an accurate depiction of writing development as it is employed in schools across the United States.

Rationale

Anderson's (1999) protagonist, Melinda, expressed the idea of motivation as it commonly occurs, or doesn't occur, in English classroom across the United

States:

Hair woman is torturing us with essays. Do English teachers spend their

vacations dreaming up these things? The first essay this semester was a dud:

'Why American Is Great' in five hundred words. She gave us three weeks. Only

Tiffany Wilson turned it in on time…the next essay was supposed to be fictional:

'The Best Lost Homework Excuse Ever" in five hundred words. We had one

night. No one was late. (p. 84)

     While many teachers do not spend their vacations dreaming up torturous

essays, researchers depict visions of learning print literacy similar to Melinda's

fictitious classroom. Bruning and Horn (2000) asserted that many traditional print

literacy activities occur within artificial conditions, "writing tasks such as

abstracting chapters and books, completing essay exams, and writing term

papers…largely of the teachers making" (p. 28). In the case of Anderson's

fictitious classroom, students appeared more motivated to complete work, which

held relevance in their life. Motivational conditions are an integral part of the

reading and writing processes.

     In a famous quip, Fowler stated, "writing is easy, you simply start staring

at a blank sheet of paper until the drops of blood form on your forehead" (Bruning

& Horn, 2000). There is a propagated belief that writing is easy. This belief fails

to take into account that writing "is a complex and effortful activity that requires

systematic attention to motivational conditions" (Lam & Law, 2006). Baker and

Wigfield (1999) suggested that, like writing, "reading is an effortful activity that

children choose to do or not to do, it also requires motivation" (p. 452). In addition

to conquering the complex and effortful activity required by print literacy, literacy education requires movement from artificial to authentic learning conditions.

Educational research indicates a variety of dimensions, which motivate students. Guthrie and Wigfield (1997) asserted that three categories comprise educational motivation: competence and efficacy belief constructs (self-efficacy, challenge, and work avoidance), children's purposes for task completion (intrinsic motivation, extrinsic motivation, achievement goal orientations, and achievement values), and social purposes (social reasons for task completion and compliance). Bruning and Horn (2000) identified four clusters of conditions key to developing academic motivation: nurturing functional beliefs about writing, fostering engagements using authentic writing tasks, providing supportive context for writing, and creating a positive emotional environment. In conjunction, Lam and Law (2006) identified six instructional components relevant to students' motivation: challenge, real-life significance, curiosity, autonomy, recognition, and evaluation. These dimensions of motivation may be explored individually to gain a better understanding of their application to print literacy.

Competence and efficacy belief structures, purpose for task completion, and social purposes for learning affect motivation in literacy. Baker and Wigfield (1999) stated, "individual low in self-efficacy will not seek challenging activities" (p. 469). These students often fail to seek challenging activities because they believe they are not successful with reading/writing and as a result do not like to compete with other children seeking recognition in literacy activities. In addition to students avoiding competition due to low self-efficacy, students with high-self

efficacy may avoid competitions they may not win (Baker & Wigfield, 1999).

Students failing to participate for these reasons require motivation, as well as

learning opportunities, to build greater self-efficacy and competence, however,

this may not be possible if students do not see the purpose in literacy activities

as they progress through their education. Baker and Wigfield believed "when

students see activities as important to them, they are more likely to continue

doing them; if they do not see the importance of the activity they will not persist"

(p. 470). Teaching and learning should emphasize students' social and learning

goals to provide motivation.

Nurturing functional beliefs about writing, fostering engagement using

authentic writing tasks, providing supportive contexts for writing and creating a

positive emotional environment affect motivation in literacy. Like Baker and

Wigfield (1999), Bruning and Horn (2000) asserted that "belief in one's

competence as a writer also seems essential to writing motivation; self-efficacy

has emerged as a major focus in studies of writing motivation" (p. 27). To nurture

functional beliefs about writing, teachers may create environments, which

"provide students the opportunity for input and choice, promote student

interaction, and provide challenging tasks which particularly impact the goal

orientations of lower ability students in positive ways," (p. 27). Teachers may

foster engagement using authentic writing tasks by viewing "writing as a critical

tool for intellectual and social development and as serving a broad range of

important student aims-for cognitive stimulation and growth, self expression, or

social affiliation-they provide setting aimed at fostering similar beliefs" (Bruning &

Horn, p. 30). Teachers create opportunities to students to fully engage and succeed in literacy activities when they tap into "the motivational resources embedded in the task itself, in [students'] own interests and motivational histories, and in the feedback they receive or give themselves during the process" of literacy (p. 32). Through removing conditions, which create negative literacy experiences, teachers eliminate unnecessary stress, which in turn allows students to engage in enjoyable, successful literacy activities (Bruning & Horn, 2000).

Akin to Baker and Wigfield (1999) as well as Bruning and Horn (2000), Lam and Law (2006) asserted self-efficacy as a prime correlate to motivation with print literacy activities. In this case, self-efficacy is affected by challenge, real-life significance, curiosity, autonomy, recognition, and evaluation. Lam and Law believed students to be motivated "when they expect that they can successfully complete a [task] they value" (p. 147), meaning a curious task with genuine reasons (real-life significance) which students help design, create, or implement to achieve their learning goals. In summary:

Students will be motivated when their teachers provide them with challenging tasks, ensure real-life significance in their learning activities, stimulate their curiosity, grant them autonomy, recognize their efforts, and give them useful feedback for improvement. When students are motivated, they will have better writing performance (Bruning & Horn, 2000, p. 158).

Authentic print literacy may hold the power to motivate students. Bruning and Horn (2000) asserted that many traditional print literacy activities occur

within artificial conditions, "writing tasks such as abstracting chapters and books, completing essay exams, and writing term papers…largely of the teachers making" (p. 28), which do not take into account larger social or communication frameworks which may create interest and a sense of relevance. Authentic print literacy may open the doorway to larger social and communication frameworks through literacy with real-life significance and purpose. Honeyghan (2000) asserted authentic texts "can enrich and enhance the curriculum with information that is current, practical, relevant and significant. Students are able to appreciate the main purpose of reading, which is to read for pleasure, information, and survival" (p. 3), through reading authentic texts, students develop a connection between literacy at home and in school, allowing them to broaden their knowledge base and deepen their learning. Additionally, Turner (1995) believed authentic tasks to "have much in common with the best of real-world experience, affording opportunities for challenge and self-improvement, student autonomy, interest-based learning, and social interaction." The ideas raised by Turner, Hiebert, Honeyghan, and Bruning and Horn about authentic print literacy directly address the dimensions proposed by educational researchers to increase student motivation, however, there are dissenting opinions.

Marzulf (2006) and Myer (1992) provided dissenting opinions to the authenticity bandwagon. Marzulf asserted that authentic writing tasks hold the capability of exoticising minority voices. He stated that "although concentrating upon the authenticity of students' vernaculars and expression is a seductive strategy in the writing classroom, especially as a means to counter student

resistance…it reveals a 'Salvationist' desire in composition," where students are tokenized to represent their minority cultural group. While Marzulf criticized authentic print literacy for its potential harmful effects, Myers criticized authentic print literacy for its narrow view of authenticity in classroom activities. Myers asserted that all literacy events are authentic because "every literate action is meaningful within a social context composed of language conventions and social relations negotiated as a social practice through ongoing symbolic intelligence" (p. 298). Through this assertion, in conjunction with qualitative research exploring achievement/academic/schooling literacy clubs done by Frank K. Smith, Myers argued that "the question is not whether one form of literacy is less than literacy; it is which form of literacy should be most valued in society and, therefore, should be most promoted in school" (p. 303).

<div align="center">Limitations</div>

The scope of this paper explores motivation in learning with particular attention paid to the authentic print literacy of secondary students. The rationale, historical background, and conclusion are derived from a variety of literary texts, while the critical review of the literature is derived from qualitative and quantitative research.

<div align="center">Statement of Purpose</div>

A connection appears to exist between students' motivation to participate in classroom activities and authentic print literacy. The limitations of this paper focus on critically examining the literature of educational motivation and authentic print literacy in secondary classrooms. Therefore the purpose of this paper is to

explore the effects of authentic print literacy on motivation in secondary classrooms.

Students will be motivated when their teachers provide them with challenging tasks, ensure real-life significance in their learning activities, stimulate their curiosity, grant them autonomy, recognize their efforts, and given them useful feedback for improvement. When students are motivated, they will have better writing performance (Bruning & Horn, 2000, p. 158)

Authentic print literacy may hold the power to motivate students. Bruning and Horn (2000) asserted that many traditional print literacy activities occur within artificial conditions, "writing tasks such as abstracting chapters and books, completing essay exams, and writing term papers…largely of the teachers making" (p. 28), which do not take into account larger social or communication frameworks which may create interest and a sense of relevance. Authentic print literacy may open the doorway to larger social and communication frameworks through literacy with real-life significance and purpose. Honey Han (2000) asserted authentic texts "can enrich and enhance the curriculum with information that is current, practical, relevant, and significant. Students are able to appreciate the main purpose of reading, which is to read for pleasure, information, and survival" (p. 3). Through reading authentic texts, students develop a connection between literacy at home and in school, allowing them to broaden their knowledge base and deepen their learning. Hiebert (1994) described authentic literacy tasks as involving learning for immediate use rather than some

unspecified future use. Additionally, Turner (1995) believed authentic tasks to "have much in common with the best of real-world experience, affording opportunities for challenge and self-improvement, student autonomy, interest-based learning, and social interaction." The ideas raised by Turner (1995), Hiebert (1994), Honeyghan (2000), and Bruning and Horn (2000) about authentic print literacy directly address the dimensions proposed by educational researchers to increase student motivation, however, there are dissenting opinions. Therefore the purpose of this paper is to explore the effects of authentic print literacy on motivation in secondary classrooms.

Summary

Traditional print literacy typically occurs within an artificial environment, which suppresses student motivation. Student motivation is suppressed in this artificial environment because literacy activities fail to promote: competence, self-efficacy, real-life significance, curiosity, autonomy, recognition, evaluation, and social/communicative purpose. Authentic print literacy may offer an engaging environment which cultivates student motivation by promoting competence and self-efficacy through engaging curiosity, providing autonomy, providing real-life significance, recognizing students learning and efforts as well as providing meaningful evaluation. The historical background chapter explores the issues of print literacy and motivation in education through the founding of the United States to the present.

CHAPTER TWO: HISTORICAL BACKGROUND

Introduction

Chapter one provided the rationale, limitations, and statement of purpose guiding this critical review of professional literature. Reading and writing are often viewed as tasks which should come naturally to students at all levels of literacy experiences. Unfortunately, the naturalness of print literacy is not a reality for many students in the U.S. education system. As a result, education advocates debate strongly for implementation of the best possible practices in literacy instruction. The purpose of this paper is to explore the effects of authentic print literacy, one approach to literacy instruction, on motivation in secondary classrooms. To bridge the rationale behind this examination with current research, chapter two examines the historical viewpoint of authentic teaching practices as well as the great debate between phonics approach instruction and whole-word instruction.

Authenticity

Authentic teaching practices offer students powerful learning experiences. The power of authenticity comes with the potential of offering school experiences that closely resemble and are connected to students real lives (Cronin, 1993; Newmann and Wehlage, 1993). Edelsky and Smith (1984) argued that inauthentic tasks frustrate students and promote passive participation. Additionally, Edelsky and Smith argued that when offered opportunities for authenticity, students reflect on topics they care about, construct various resources, and produces works that are personally meaningful. As students

recognize connections within the school curriculum, they discover relationships between the classroom and their lives at home. As such, learning becomes more personal and relevant which, in terms of literacy, may lead to the internalization of life long literacy skills (Bergeron and Rudenga, 1996).

Kreeber, Klampfleitner, McCune, Bayne, and Knotternbelt (2007) completed a comparative review of the literature of conceptions of authenticity in teaching. Through this comparative review, Kreber et al. identified the under-examined nature of authenticity with respect to teaching practice. The majority of literature available for review focused on authenticity as a philosophical perspective and authenticity of teaching personae with minimal literature referencing authentic teaching practices. The literature review did not identify literature defining authentic materials and tasks within teaching practices. As such, the following information summarizes literature regarding conceptions of authenticity in teaching.

Authenticity is employed in different ways by different authors. Identified by Kreeber et al. (2007) as a fore-runner in the movement of authenticity, Jung (1973) defined authenticity through the notion of individualization. The concept of authenticity as individualization remains a strong notion. Tisdell (2003) identified authenticity as, "having a sense that one is operating from a sense of self that is defined by ones self as opposed to being defined by other peoples expectations" (p. 32). The identification of authenticity as individualization carried through to aide in initially defining authenticity within the classroom; the individualization of learning through becoming more conscious and gaining in self-awareness and

knowledge (Cranton, 2001, 2006).

During the 1980's, a shift from teaching personae to effecting a positive classroom environment defined authenticity within the classroom experience. Rogers (1983) defined authenticity in terms of teaching personae: trustworthiness, genuiness, realness and congruence, in essence being yourself with students. Rogers also defined authenticity in terms of atmosphere: mutual trust, teaching congruency, belief in students, and becoming a learner through interactions with students. Zimmerman (1986) continued Roger's progress toward establishing an authentic classroom environment: "to care for something inauthentically would mean to manipulate it for selfish purposes. To care for something authentically means to let it manifest itself in its own way" (p. 44).

During the 1990's, the shift toward authentic classroom environment was fully underway. Kegan (1994) defined three pedagogical principles for authenticity: 1) learners validated as knowers, 2) learning is situated within students' experience, and 3) learning itself is conceptualized as mutually constructing knowledge. Each of Kegan's three pedagogical principles work toward students' self-ownership of intellectual, moral and personal complexities which aide in coping with the multiple personal, vocational, and civic challenges they encounter (Baxter-Magolda, 1999, 2001). In order for students to successfully navigate these challenges, Palmer (1998) asserted the need for authentic teachers whom have the capacity to bring about connections between self, subject, and student. Essentially, schools need teachers whom care deeply about their subject and their students, and as Jarvis (1992) stated, "authentic

action is found to be when individuals freely act in such a way that they try to foster growth and development in each others being" (p. 113).

Through the use of authentic pedagogy, teachers motivate students to engage curriculum. With regard to print literacy instruction, Snowball (1992) indicated that students involved in real-life tasks strive to construct meaning from their experience. As such, Rhodes and Shanklin (1993) identified the importance of curriculum in which reading and writing events reflect the same communicative purposed used outside of the classroom. Bergeron and Rudenga (1996) continued this thought, "to be purposeful, literacy events need to be embedded within meaningful experiences that have communication and shared meaning as a focus." However, debated exists regarding focus in literacy instruction. The importance of meaningful authentic literacy experience is challenged by the historical and current push for literacy achievement.

The Great Debate

Xue and Meisels (2004) posited a perspective which views literacy instruction as a foundation for educational success. Under this assumption, the core of students' school success is viewed through literacy achievement. With such a great emphasis placed on literacy instruction as a representation of scholastic achievement, there exists a dispute over the most appropriate approach to teach children to read and write. Two polarized perspectives, phonics approach and whole-word approach, fuel "The Great Debate" (Chall, 1968).

Phonics approach advocates and whole-word approach proponents

address literacy instruction from different theoretical and practical viewpoints. Phonics advocates call for explicit, systematic skills instruction that emphasizes the alphabetic principle, phonemic awareness, word recognition, decoding, and relationships between sounds and spellings during literacy emergence (Adams, 1990; Adams and Bruck, 1995; Chall, 1967, 1983, 1989, 1995, 1996; Stanovich, 1991; Sweet, 1977). Whole language proponents emphasize the importance of literature based reading, construction of meaning for purposeful functions, child-centeredness, teacher empowerment, and the naturalness of reading acquisition (Bergeron, 1990; Edelsky, 1993; Goodman, 1965, 1967, 1986, 1984, 1996, 1997, 1998; Routman, 1996; Smith, 1978, 1979, 1982, 1988). Both parties involved in the great debate utilize reasonable elements to justify their approaches, a commitment to providing a solid foundation for proficient reading and writing (Xue and Meisels, 2004).

Theoretical perspectives regarding literacy and literacy instruction guide instructional materials, practices, and tasks. In 2000, the National Reading Panel directly addressed the phonics approach in juxtaposition to authentic print literacy practices, "the purpose of reading is to support instruction instead of for enjoyment and other authentic purposes." Because the phonics approach places emphasis in skills based direct instruction, behavioral transmission models of learning influence the teachers transmission of knowledge (Rosenshire and Stevens, 1984). From the phonics approach perspective, reading is viewed as a bottom up process in which readers first learn to decode print and then comprehend meaning. Therefore, phonics approach proponents advocated

learning to read as a systematic and explicit teaching of subskills which build

toward mastery and integration, placing an emphasis on the desired product

rather than the learning process itself (Gough, 1972; Hoover and Gough, 1990;

LeBerge and Samuels, 1974; Stanovich, 1991).

The phonics approach to literacy education is supported by research.

Chall (1997, 1983, 1986) reviewed research addressing beginning reading

instruction, and she concluded that code emphasis reading programs were more

effective than meaning emphasis programs for most children, particularly those

from lower socio-economic status and those with reading difficulties. In

conjunction, studies comparing phonics instruction and meaning-based

instruction showed systematic phonics instruction leads to higher word reading

and spelling achievement, but does nothing for comprehension, and this effect is

only until 3rd grade (Adams, 1990; Ball and Blachman, 1991; Juel, 1991). Finally,

the recent National Reading Panel (2000) synthesized studies in a meta-analysis

investigating phonic instruction and concluded that phonics instruction was more

effective in enhancing children's growth in decoding and word recognition than

non-systematic phonics instruction or no phonics instruction, especially in

kindergarten and first grades, and especially with at risk children.

With respect to theoretical perspective, Morrow (1997), Stahl (1999) and

Weaver (1994) identified three components of whole-language instruction: 1)

approach emphasizes the use of natural, whole texts as rich literacy materials for

reading and writing, 2) literacy learning is designed to be meaningful and

functional for children relying on authentic reading and writing tasks, and 3)

curriculum is focused on children-centered learning which allows for empowerment through self-directed learning and choices. From a constructivist theoretical perspective, whole language proponents advocate readers active construction of knowledge through problem solving (Y.M. Goodman, 1989; Weaver, 1994) with the construction of meaning as the primary goal for emergent literacy.

From a whole-language perspective, reading is a top-down process in which making direct connections between text and meaning is central (Goodman, 1967, 1996; Goodman and Goodman, 1979; Pressley, 1998; Smith, 1978, 1979). Because the focus of whole-language instruction is meaning making, proponents argue that reading should be viewed as a holistic process rather than a process to be broken down into component skills and taught in sequence (Brown, Goodman, and Marek, 1996; Goodman, 1973; Smith, 1975, 1999).

Qualitative research creates the majority of research available regarding the effectiveness of whole-language/whole-word approaches. As a result, only a small body of quantitative research is available using standardized means of measuring achievement for whole-language practices (Weaver, 1998). In support of whole language approaches, several studies showed that engaging children in literature and writing in whole language classrooms increases understanding of the nature of reading and writing (Dahl and Freppon, 1995; Freppon, 1991; Graham and Harris, 1994; Morrow, 1990, 1992; Newman and Roskos, 1990, 1992, 1997). Additionally, children in whole language classrooms: showed a greater likelihood of reading for meaning rather than to simply identify words

(Rasinski and Deford, 1985; Stice and Bertrand, 1990), are more likely to consider themselves to be good readers (Sephens, 1991), and are found to be more persistant in their approaches to learning to read and write (Dahl and Freppon, 1995; Stice and Bertrand, 1990; Turner, 1995). Whole-language programs also have positive effects on children's attitudes toward reading (Rasinski and Deford, 1985; Stephens, 1991). Other research results provide mixed response. In comparison with other programs, literature based programs positively effect print awareness and word recognition (Reutzel, Oda, and Moore, 1989; Ribowsky, 1985). Other studies do not reveal significant differences on standardized tests of decoding skills and reading rediness (Morrow, O'Conner, and Smith, 1990; Stahl and Miller, 1989).

Despite the great debate, current research suggests an approach which synthesizes rather than dichotomizes phonics approach and whole-word/whole-language approach. Substantial evidence suggests that phonics and whole-language can coexist and compliment each other (Baumann, Hoffman, Duffy-Hester, and Moon, 2000; Bauman, Hoffman, Moon, and Duffy-Hester, 1998; Pressley, 1998; Pressley, Rankin, and Yokoi, 1996). Through blending phonics and whole-language approaches, instruction may emphasize the holistic process of reading and writing and also ensure that children have a strong foundation in systematic phonics: a blend of practices emphasized by whole language advocates and skill proponents. Finally, literacy instruction is best viewed as a continuum of whole language and phonics rather than a dichotomy (Xue and Meisels, 2004).

Summary

Chapter two examined recent historical trends which set the stage for current research regarding authentic print literacy practices. Specially, this chapter examined the recent history of conceptions of authenticity and teaching as well as the theoretical, practical, and research backgrounds with support the great debate between skills-based and meaning-based approaches to literacy instruction. The aim of this examination is to provide an adequate foundation for understanding the critical review of recent research literature occurring in chapter three.

Throughout the previous decade, application of components which define authenticity with regard to teaching have shifted slightly. While definitions maintain a focus on the individual facing social constructs, useful applications of authenticity have shifted. Initially, authenticity occurred within classrooms through the use of teaching personae. Through the use of authentic personae, teachers created a space for reality in their classrooms in which student engagement increased as a result of viewing teachers as real human beings. As time and perspectives progressed, the singular authenticity of the teacher shifted to demonstrate the importance of a classroom environment. Through creating, developing, and maintaining an authentic classroom environment, student motivation and engagement increased. In order to create such environments, proponents suggested specific teaching practices: validate learners as knowers, situate learning within a framework of students' experiences, and conceptual learning as the mutual construction of knowledge. As authentic environments

impacted student learning, a third shift occurred within the frame of individualization. Instead of teachers becoming the foci of individualized authenticity, students become important components and contributors to authentic classroom experiences. With a new focus on integrating students' individualized experiences with the greater classroom and curriculum as a whole, authenticity began to take a new turn. Until recently, a limited amount of research exists focusing specifically on authentic practices in teaching. This being said, the importance of authentic print literacy practices as an extension of generalized authentic pedagogy are explored in greater detail in chapters three and four.

In the hope of providing a productive education, a great debate arose as the result of distinct theoretical approaches to literacy instruction. Because literacy instruction is viewed as a vessel of greater scholastic achievement (Xue and Meisels, 2004), the importance of this debate developed deeply rooted and polarized positions. Phonics approach proponents advocate a bottom-up approach which indicates the importance of mastering and integrating literacy skills prior to comprehension of reading and writing tasks. Whole language approach proponents advocate a top-bottom approach which places emphasis on individualized construction of meaning from literacy tasks in conjunction with utilizing and understanding literacy strategies. Because research exists which support both approaches and theoretical perspective, the debate rages on. However, current research indicates the possibility and strength of integrating phonics and whole-language based approaches. Through a blending of conceptual and skills based learning which values students prior knowledge and

current constructions, authentic print literacy practices may occur; in return, the blended approach may see the holistic and compartmentalized engagement and achievement benefits of both phonics and whole language programs. Finally, chapter three critically reviews literature related to authentic print literacy practices through regarding: instructional motivation, basal instruction and whole language instruction, and authentic literacy. Chapter four provides a conclusion through summarizing the findings, providing classroom implications, providing suggestions for future research, and summarizing the bulk of this paper.

CHAPTER THREE: CRITICAL REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

Introduction

Chapter one discussed the important role motivation plays in learning as well as the difficulty of literacy processes in order to rationalize the need for a critical review of literature pertaining to motivation for learning, literacy practices, and the conjunction of both within authentic print literacy. Chapter two examined the historical background of authentic print literacy practices. This examination occurred through the explication of modern research and scholarly opinion regarding conceptions of authenticity in teaching as well as the polarized positions of basal approaches and whole-word approaches which support the intent of best practices in literacy education. Chapter three reviews research regarding learning motivation. The research used in this chapter is organized in three sections: instructional motivation, basal instruction and whole language instruction, and authentic literacy. Each study is summarized and analyzed, based on the conclusion provided. The research is reviewed to examine how the use of authentic print literacy in secondary language arts classrooms affects students' motivation for learning.

Instructional Motivation

The 13 studies in this section analyze motivation, most specifically, in terms of generalized instruction, typically outside the context of language arts classrooms. Lam and Law (2007) begin the literature review because their examination of the instructional practices associated with student motivation and

performance in writing firmly provides a foundation for subsequently review literature. Ferrery-Caja and Weiss (2002) build on Lam and Law's argument through providing findings regarding intrinsic motivation and its connection to differing cognitive states. From students' cognitive states, Hardre, Crowson, Debacker, and White (2007) address specific factors related to learning motivation and achievement. Edelsky, Draper, and Smith (1983) examine specific strategies for engaging students' motivation to learn in a whole language classroom, prior to Yair's (2000) examination of motivation with regard to students' mood and sense of accomplishment. Next, Applebee, Langer, Nystrand, and Gamoran (2003) examine discussion-based approach to developing understanding within classroom contexts. Langer (2001) then explicates difference in higher-performing and lower-performing schools as they apply to motivation, achievement, and comprehension. Following this study, Langer, Bartolome, Vasquez, and Lucas (1990), Spielmann and Pandofsky (2001), and Gerstein (1996) explore comprehension, achievement, and motivation with regard to prior knowledge in English language learning students. Building from the previous literature regarding factors for learning motivation and instructional practices related to learning motivation, Ryan and Patrick (2001) examine the classroom social environment and changes in adolescents' motivation and engagement during middle school. Finally, Nemann, Marks, and Gamoran (1996) close the section with a study focused on authentic pedagogy rooted in motivational instructional practices.

Lam and Law (2007) examined instructional practices associated with

student motivation and performance in writing through a field study composed of empirical data collected from 209 seventh and eighth grade students in four secondary schools, in Hong Kong. At the beginning of their study, Lam and Law expected instructional tasks to be motivating when teachers provided challenging tasks, highlighted real-life significance, stimulated curiosity, allowed a high level of autonomy, recognized students' efforts and provided useful feedback. They also expected that students would have better writing performance when motivated by writing tasks, because they viewed motivation as a mediator between instructional practices and writing performance.

Over the course of three 40-minute sessions, six teacher interns taught students how to write expository essays. The first session introduced the expository genre of writing to students. Independent, in-class expository essays were written and collected at the end of the second session, graded after class, and returned during the third session. Teachers provided students with feedback regarding how to improve their essays during the third session. Relatively long lectures and brief small group discussion among students characterized instruction in this study. At the end of the instructional unit, after teacher interns left the room, research assistants asked students to complete a questionnaire regarding self-reported motivation.

Lam and Law (2007) measured instructional practices and students self-reported motivation through questionnaires. To measure instructional practices, Lam and Law used the motivating instructional contexts inventory (MCI) consisting of six subscales to measure the extent two which students perceived

teachers provided challenging tasks, ensured real-life significance in learning activities, aroused curiosity, granted autonomy, recognized efforts, and provided useful feedback for improvement. For each of the 18 items of the MCI, the researchers asked students to agree with how accurately the statements described practices of their teachers in writing lessons, through a 6-point Likert scale. Lam and Law recoded students self-reported motivation through a questionnaire containing a 6-point Likert scale measuring student motivation in writing expository essays.

Lam and Law (2007) found a high correlation among the six subscales of motivating instructional practices. First, the path between instructional practices and students' motivation was significant (bb=.70, p<.001), identifying the importance pedagogy holds in influencing students' motivation. From the path between instructional practices and student's motivation, Lam and Law reported student's feeling more motivation in the writing task when they perceived that their teacher provided them with challenging tasks, ensured real-life significance in the learning activities, stimulated the curiosity, granted them autonomy, acknowledged their effort, and gave them useful feedback for improvement. This suggests that, writing tasks which challenge students, utilize real-life significance, stimulate curiosity, grant autonomy, acknowledge effort and provide useful feedback for improvement, motivate students. Second, the path between motivation and writing performance was also significant statistically (bb=.22, p<.05), the more the students reported that they were motivated in the writing task, the better the score they would received from the two raters. The path

between motivation and writing performance suggests that students who feel motivated to complete a writing tasks receiver greater scores on their work, potentially demonstrating higher levels of achievement. Finally, the path between instructional practices and writing performance were not statistically significant (bb=.15, p<.05) because the total effect is the sum of directed effect and indirect effect, the total effect of instructional; practices on writing performance was .19 - exactly the Pearson zero-order correlation between instructional practices and writing performance.

Lam and Law's (2007) study of instructional practices associated with student motivation and performance in writing identifies two important pathways directly related to motivation for learning through authentic print literacy. First, instructional practices influence students' motivation in writing tasks. Second, students' who demonstrate motivation toward the completion of a writing task demonstrate higher levels of achievement. Authentic tasks, identified as those which: provide challenge, ensure real-life significance, stimulate curiosity, grant autonomy, acknowledge effort, and provide useful feedback, motivate students. As a result, authentic tasks motivate students and motivation leads to higher levels of achievement.

Lam and Law's (2007) study of instructional practices associated with student motivation and performance in writing demonstrated strength in conscious efforts to utilize and build on previous studies and providing questionnaires for participants without their teacher's presence, while limitations of the study include: a small sample size of 209 participants and self-reported

measures gathered for data collection.

Ferrer-Caja and Weiss (2002) examined: intrinsic motivation tied to different cognitive states, consequences of required and voluntary participation, the relationship between self-determination and intrinsic motivation when activities are not obligatory, and how social-contextual factors and individual differences influence intrinsic motivation when the activity is not constrained by curriculum requirements, through a series of Likert-type scale questionnaires measuring: motivational climate, teaching style, goal orientation, perceived competence, self-determination, intrinsic motivation and motivated behaviors, through student and teacher self-reporting. Participants in the study included 219 high school students, 139 male and 80 female, ranging from 14 to 19 years old (M=16.56, SD=1.12) taking coed physical education as an elective course. The cross validation sample for this study consisted of 407 participants, 206 males and 201 females, ranging from 14 to 19 years old taking physical education as a required course. The two main sets of analyses conducted in this study included: a) multigrain analyses to examine model invariance across the two samples and b) single-group analyses using the sample of students from elective classes to test several alternative models.

Ferrer-Caja and Weiss (2002) tested five theory-based alternative models and involved only a sample of students from elective classes (n=219). The alternative models reflected different conceptualization of intrinsic motivation based on different theoretical frameworks as well as previous research on motivation. The first model replicated the original pattern of relationships among

variables reported by Ferrer-Caja (2000) and proposed four specific relationships: a) socio-contextual factors directly predict individual factors and indirectly predict intrinsic motivation and motivated behaviors, b) goal orientations predict intrinsic motivation both directly and indirectly through perceived competence and self-determination, c) perceived competence and self-determination direct predict intrinsic motivation and indirectly predict motivated behaviors, and d) intrinsic motivation directly predict motivated behaviors.

Though few statistics were reported, Ferrer-Caja and Weiss (2002) found it reasonable to differentiate among socio-contextual factors, individual factors, motivation, and consequences (RFI and NNFI values greater than or equal to 0.90; RMSEA less than 0.08). Individual factors directly predicted intrinsic motivation while socio-contextual factors indirectly predicted intrinsic motivation. The variable most strongly linked to intrinsic motivation was task goal orientation, while perceived competences were less substantially linked. Additionally, intrinsic motivation correlated with motivated behaviors. Perceived learning climate had a strong direct influence on self-determination as did performance climate on ego goal orientation. Task goal orientation and perceived competence indirectly predicted motivated behaviors whereas perceived learning climate had indirect influence on both intrinsic motivation and motivated behaviors.

Ferrer-Caja and Weiss (2002) identify individual and socio-contextual factors linked to motivation, these factors include: task goal orientation, perceived learning climate, and perceived competence. Ino rder to feel motivated, Ferrer-

Caja and Weiss' study suggests students should perceive their classroom climate as an environment for learning in which they will exhibit competence. As such, authentic instruction may be utilized to create a positive classroom environment and built students sense of competency through valuing factors of intrinsic motivation and motivated behaviors.

Hardre, Crowson, Debacker, and White (2007) quantitatively researched motivation for learning and achievement through examining student motivational-related perceptions of: classroom climate, ability, instrumentality of learning tasks and activities, goals, and school-related effort and engagement. In total, 900 students (138 ninth graders, 210 tenth graders, 144 11th graders, 153 12th graders; 272 identified as male, 376 identified as female; 401 Caucasian, 81 African American, 63 Latino/Hispanic, 84 Native American, and less than twp percent as another group; ages ranged from 14-19 years M = 16.24 years, SD = 1.26 years) from 18 public high schools in the southwestern United States participated in the study.

Hardre, Crowson, Debacker, and White (2007) utilized a series of five Likert-type questionnaires addressing factors related to motivation for learning and achievement: supportive classroom environment, achievement goals, perceived ability, perceived instrumentality, and school engagement and effort. The researchers used descriptive statistics, correlations, path analyses, and cross-validation to examine the data gathered in the surveys.

Hardre, Crowson, Debacker, and White (2007) identified several important findings related to motivation and achievement. In terms of correlations, the

researchers found: (1) school engagement correlated positively and significantly with learning goals (.69, p less than or equal to .001), performance-approach goals (.33, p less than or equal to .001), perceived ability (.37, p less than or equal to .001), perceived instrumentality (.43, p less than or equal to .001) and classroom environment (.35, p less than or equal to .001), (2) learning and performance goals correlated positively and significantly with perceived ability (.39 and .21, p < .001, respectively) and perceived instrumentality (.60 and .30, p less than or equal to .001, respectively), (3) learning goals correlated positively and significantly with classroom climate (.39, p < .001) while performance-approach goals did not (-.01), and (4) correlations of classroom climate with perceived instrumentality (.32, p less than or equal to .001) and perceived ability (.39, p less than or equal to .001) were both positive and statistically significant.

Hardre, Crowson, Debacker, and White (2007) indicate several factors positively and significantly correlated to engagement. Because motivation is tied to engagement, it is important to identify, value, and create best teaching practices which speak to each factor: learning goals, performance-approach goals, perceived ability, perceived instrumentality, and classroom environment. Additionally, it is important to recognize that learning and performance goals as well as the classroom environment hold the potential to influence students' perceived ability and perceived instrumentality. Additionally, path analyses indicated perceived relationships between identified factors: (1) perceived supported environment were positive predictors learning goals, perceived ability and perceived instrumentality (p < .005), (2) perceived ability and perceived

instrumentality were positive predictors of learning and performance-approach goals (p < .005), (3) perceived ability negatively predicted performance-avoidance goals (p < .005), and (4) learning and performance-approach goals positively predicted school engagement, negatively predicted by performance-avoidance goals(p < .005).

Hardre, Crowson, Debacker, and White (2007) identified correlations of value to authentic print literacy instruction. Learning goals, perceived instrumentality, perceived ability, and positive classroom environment correlate positively and significantly with engagement. Authentic print literacy practices utilize learning goals, strive toward student instrumentality, build students' perceived ability, and work to provide an enriched classroom environment which validates and respects all students on an individual and at a social level. As such, authentic instruction engages and thus motivates students.

Finally, this study exhibited both strength and weakness in implementation and design. Strengths of Hardre, Crowson, Debacker, and White's (2007) study include: building on and complimenting existing literature, contributing research in the rural high school setting, and a relatively large sample size in comparison to related research, while weaknesses include: lacking demographic information for 28 percent of the sample, single-event data collection limiting the view compared with multi-event profiles, using only students' self-report measures, use of a volunteer rather than random sample, and not reporting statistical information to support findings.

In their qualitative study with 25 sixth grade students from an inner-city

school in Phoenix, Arizona, Edelsky, Draper, and Smith (1983) explored the means through which on teacher hooked her students into a whole language classroom at the start of a new school year. The researchers identified their belief that children adapt to teacher's theoretical orientations to literacy as an underlying assumption of their study. Information for the Laurel School, not the sixth grade classroom, is as follows: 75 percent Mexican American, 10 percent Black, and 15 percent Caucasian; over 80 percent of children were eligible for free breakfasts and free lunches; and average reading achievement scores for the sixth grade students was one-and-a-half years below national grade level norms.

The researchers primarily collected data through participant observation of teacher-student interactions and also used field notes, periodic video recordings, periodic audio recordings, teacher interviews, and student interviews as additional data collection means. Participant observations included observing all day every day for the first two weeks of school, three days per week for the subsequent three weeks, and returns in December and January to verify interaction consistent with September observations. Observations and field notes were a primary source of data, with the videotapes and interviews helping to determine organizing categories for field notes. Finally, the researchers subdivided eight goal categories into roles, cues, and values in order to discuss the findings.

Though no statistics were reported, Edelsky et al. (1983) identified six values, four rules, six roles, and seven cues for effective initiation of whole

language instruction in their focal classroom. The six values included: respect, people are good, interdependence, independence, activity and work, and originality. The six values identified by Edelsky et al. play a part in establishing and maintaining a positive classroom environment with the ability to enable or disable teacher and peer support systems within the classroom community. The four rules include: do exactly as I say, use your head, do what is effective, and no cop-outs. The six (teacher) roles included: lesson leader, information dispenser, scout leader, consultant/coach, neutral recorder, and preacher. Finally, the seven cues included: using work of others as examples, giving directions, ignoring inappropriate behavior, reminding or checking up, behaving as if the desired were actual, modeling how to be, and structuring the environment and curriculum to provide the cues. Additionally, the researchers identified use of: providing minimal guidance, privatizing demands, using written clues, and providing exaggerated displays of desired ways to be as effective strategies. The aforementioned teacher behaviors hold the potential to significantly impact the learning environment, indirectly influencing students' perceived ability and perceived instrumentality, thus their engagement and ability to feel motivated. Through establishing positive individual and group relationships via teacher roles as well as enforcing expected behaviors through the seven cues, teachers build a persona and environment which sets the tone for accomplishing literacy tasks.

     In addition to values, rules, roles and cues, Edelsky et al. (1983) posited the following: (1) effective work depended on students access to the teacher through a role of more balanced power; (2) children come to school the first day

primed to look for signals about how to survive in the new classroom; (3) purposeful assignments and genuine literacy activity in a setting which acknowledges all participants ownership of tasks, texts, and contexts engages student interest in learning; and (4) children identify the importance of real-world reading and writing in projects largely under their control extending beyond the classroom through engaged behaviors.

Edelsky et al (1993) posited the significance of setting the stage for an entire school year o the first day of school. Through the use of six values (respect, people are good, interdependence, independence, activity and work, and individuality), teachers create a classroom climate which offers opportunities to develop students perceived instrumentality and perceived ability. In addition to these motivation factors, Edelsky et al. established other criteria which engage students: purposeful assignments, genuine literacy tasks, student ownership, and real-world significance. As they stand, each of these criteria meet, in part, criteria of authentic instruction. Therefore, an indirect connection exists among authentic instruction, motivation, and achievement. When teachers engage in authentic instruction, students are motivated to engage in tasks and reach higher levels of achievement.

Edelsky et al's (1983) qualitative study demonstrates strengths and limitations. Strengths of the study include: researchers identifying the assumptions they entered their work with, utilizing audio and video recordings, verifying observations from September in December and January, and providing quotes to support findings; while limitations include: a small sample size from one

inner-city classroom limiting transferability, and lack of member checking.

Yair (2000) examined data collected during the first year of the Sloan Study of Youth and Social Development from 1993, which studied how adolescents thought about their future lives. The initial researchers included twelve site locations geographically distributed across the United States representing urban, suburban, and rural areas in the sample. In total, the study gathered 33 schools, 865 students (41.4 percent male, 58.6 percent female; 7.6 percent Asian, 9.6 percent Hispanic, 15.5 percent African-American, 66.6 percent white, .7 percent Native American; 19.7 percent in sixth grade, 27.6 percent in eighth grade, 31 percent in tenth grade, 21.7 percent in 12th grade), and 28,193 experiences.

In the current study, Yair (2000) gathered data through the Experience Sampling Method. Researchers provided participants with digital wristwatches programmed to emit signals eight times in a day (7:30am to 10:30pm) at random intervals, for one week. Once the wristwatch emitted a signal, participants were to complete a short questionnaire about their experiences at the time of the beep, noting the activity they engaged in, their mood, and their level of engagement. Through confirmatory factor analysis, Yair arrived at a four-factor structure: control mood, active mood, intrinsic motivation, and sense of accomplishment. Independent variables included: authenticity of the activity, student choice or voluntary role in the activity, and levels of challenge and students' skills while learning.

Yair (2000) identified control mood, active mood, intrinsic motivation and

students' sense of accomplishment as factors affecting students' learning. Control mood, measures students feeling secure, content, and in command of their learning, and active mood ,estimates students' expressive, outgoing feelings while learning, were highly correlated (.96), while intrinsic motivation and sense of accomplishment were correlated to a lesser extent (.69). Yair found a moderate correlation between the two mood factors and intrinsic motivation and sense of accomplishment (.49-.55). While Lam and Law, 2007) hypothesized that authenticity, choice, and challenge influenced motivation, Yair found that students' active mood positively correlated with authenticity, choice, challenge, and skills, suggesting that authenticity, choice, challenge, and skills activate or maintain students expressive and outgoing feelings while learning - motivation. In terms of control mood, choice was most highly correlated (t = 35.76; p < .000), suggesting that students' afforded choice feel secure, content, and in command of their learning. Additionally, authenticity of an activity significantly predicted students' control mood while learning (t = 20.27; p<.000); however, challenge was not significantly correlated to students' control mood. As with Ferrer-Caja and Weiss (2000) intrinsic motivation was highly correlated with the structure of instruction, as was choice or sense of voluntary participation (t = 74.14; p < .000). In addition, the skills demanded by an activity ranked most predictive (t = 64.8; p < .000), while authenticity (t = 39.81; p < .000) and choice (t = 36.21; p < .000) came in second and third, and challenge somewhat negatively correlated with sense of accomplishment (t = -4.21; p < .000). Yair (2000) identified the importance of control mood in student engagement. As such, Yair posited that

authentic instruction, authentic materials, and authentic tasks activate students

sense of command and ability, thus engaging motivation to learn.

To conclude, Yair's (2000) empirical examination contained limitations and

strengths. Limitations include: gathering and selecting data from a previously

completed study rather than conducting original research and a small size in

terms of generalizability. Strengths include: a relatively substantial sample size in

comparison to other educational research, drawing the sample population from

urban, suburban, and rural areas across the United States, providing substantial

amounts of statistical information.

Applebee, Langer, Nystrand, and Gamoran (2003) examined

discussion-based approaches to developing understanding within the context of

classroom instruction and student performance in middle and high school

English. The examination focused on: (1)the interrelationships among variables

reflecting dialogic approaches to instruction, an emphasis on envisionment

building, extended curricular conversations, and high academic demands; (2) the

relationships between the variables and spring literacy performances; and (3) the

interactions between the variables and grade level, school context, level of

performance, and race/ethnicity. One thousand one hundred eleven students

attending 64 classes from 19 schools districts in five states (California, Florida,

New York, Texas, and Wisconsin) each providing one city and one urban middle

or high school (except for one Texas urban middle school which withdrew before

the first round of collection data) agreed to participate in the study.

A team of five field researchers gathered data for this study through

observations (four total; two in the fall, two in the spring) after distributing required consent forms and assessing initial literacy performance in early October (follow-up assessment occurred in May or June in conjunction with student questionnaires). Field researchers utilized the CLASS computer program to record classroom activities and interactions in real time, completing a variety of ratings about other aspects of curriculum and instruction immediately following observations. Field researchers audiotaped each observation in order to edit CLASS data. Measures for the study included: (1) a teacher questionnaire regarding educational background, experience, classroom composition, and instructional emphases related to dialogic instruction, envisionment building, and extended curricular conversations; (2) a student questionnaire regarding home background, school achievement, and the amount of work required by various classes; (2) CLASS 3.0 data gathered during observations; and (4) measures of student literacy performance (three writing tasks looking for level of abstraction and level of elaboration). Applebee et al. (2003) provided results within four categories: instructional emphases, writing activities and reading materials, relationships among instructional variables, and relationships between instruction and performance.

In terms of instructional emphases, the researchers found: (1) open discussion averaged one point seven minutes per 60 minutes of class time; (2) 19 percent of teachers' questions were rated as authentic (not seeking a specified answer) and 31 percent of all questions involved building on previous comments rather than moving through unrelated issues one at a time; (3) low-

track students engaged in considerably less open discussion than high-track students (42 seconds compared to 3.3 minutes per class); (4) the amount of open discussion did not vary significantly between middle school (1.65) and high school (1.74); (5) measure of engagement in extended curricular conversations were significantly higher for high school (.34, $p < .05$) than for middle school (-.36, $p <.05$); (5) middle school students had slightly higher grade point averages but lower scores on performance measures in spring and fall and showed a trend toward fewer homework hours per week than high school students ($p < .10$); and (6) teachers taught lower-track students with less emphasis on envisionment-building activities (-.52, $p < .05$), extended curricular conversations (-.44, $p < .05$); revising activities (.52, $p < .05$); and homework (.88, $p < .05$). Through these findings, Applebee et al. (2003) identified an initial understanding of the state of authentic literacy practices in the United States: authentic literacy practices appear to be minimal in nature and occurring less frequently in lower tracked classrooms. Applebee et al. continue the explication of these ideas as they provide findings with regard to writing and reading activities and materials, the heart of print literacy.

In terms of writing activities and reading materials, Applebee et al. (2003) reported the following, with few statistics: (1) the majority of observed classes included traditional literacy selections most frequently in the form of novels and short stories; (2) writing activities required approximately equal amounts of reporting and analyzing (middle school = 43.6 NS 41.9, respectively; high school = 53.3 and 39.2 respectively) and a considerable amount of class time involved

note-taking (middle school = 33.2; high school = 40.8) and short-answer activities (middle school = 37.9; high school = 25.8); (3) in comparison with high school classes, middle school classes were more likely to utilize young adult literature (2.2 and 21.7, respectively), less likely to use traditional selections and poetry (47 and 28.2, respectively), and use a greater amount of imaginative writing (middle school = 25; high school = 17.5); and (4) upper-track classes read more traditional literature and essays (42.3 compared to 40.4) while lower-track classes read more young adult literature (10.0 compared to 5.8) and poetry (18.3 compared to 7.7).

With regard to relationships among instructional variables, Applebee et al. reported that dialogic instruction, envisionment building, and emphasis on extended curricular conversations are related aspects of a common emphasis on discussion-based instructional activities which support emphasis on high academic demands and are independent of other aspects of instruction. In terms of relationships between instruction and performance: (1) urban schools demonstrated lower spring performance scores than suburban schools [-.19 (.107)]; higher performance scores in high school than in middle schools [.44 (.10)]; (2) students in classrooms with high academic demands and more emphasis on discussion-based approaches showed higher end-of-year literacy performance across track levels [.21 (.051), $p < .001$]; and (3) pattern of regression coefficients indicated that discussion-based approached [.11 (.043)] and high academic demands [.11 (.059)] benefited all students, Asian American students responded more positive to such instruction than their peers from other

racial and ethnic groups (.103). Through high academic demands, teachers build environments which set up students for higher levels of performance.

Cognitive demand impacts student engagement and achievement. In Applebee et al.'s (2003) study, classrooms with lower cognitive demand tasks and classrooms lacking extended curricular conversations demonstrated lower performance levels. When instruction included authentic materials and authentic purposes at higher cognitive levels, students demonstrated higher levels of achievement. Through providing authentic materials and authentic activities, teachers motivated students to engage in learning activities. When engaged in learning activities, students demonstrated greater achievement scores.

Finally, Applebee et al. (2003) demonstrated strength and limitation within their study. Limitations include: a lack of rural school districts included in the sample population, a mortality of 331 students due to lack of returned consent form (original participation included 1,442 students), and self-report measures utilized to gather information for the majority of variables analyzed, while strengths include: a large sample size in comparison with similar academic research, including a nearly even combination of urban and suburban schools across middle and high school, building on previous research generated, specifically, by Applebee and Langer.

Langer (2001) approached her qualitative study of teaching middle and high school students how to read and write well from a sociocognitive perspective. Participants in the study included 25 schools, 44 teachers, 88 classes, and 2640 students from four states: Florida, New York, California, and

Texas. Langer classified 14 of the participating schools as beating the Odds (performing better on state administered high-stakes reading and writing tests than school rated as demographically comparable to statewide criteria), while she classified the remaining schools as Typical.

Langer (2001) utilized a nested multicast design with each English program as a case, and teachers/students as cases within. Field researchers observed each classroom for approximately 5 weeks, per year, creating field notes for all meetings, classes, and conversations. In addition to field notes, field researchers gathered artifacts from school and professional experiences, tape-recorded observations, and created transcripts of all interviews and classroom observations. Also, field researchers e-mailed classroom teachers weekly to discuss ongoing classroom activities, and to gather reflections on lessons and future plans.

With regard to approaches to skills instruction, she found that: (1) more successful teachers were more likely to make systematic use of separated, simulated, and integrated skills instruction (73%); and (2) typical schools' approaches to skills development seem to be more restricted and separated from the ongoing activities of the English classroom (50%). In terms of approaches to skill instruction, Langer noted: (1) two qualitatively different approaches used by teachers in this study: (a) treating test preparation as a separated activity involving test practice and test taking tips, and (b) integrated test preparation with regular curriculum making sure to reformulate curriculum as necessary so students could develop the knowledge and skills necessary for accomplished

performance ; (2) more than 80 percent of the more successful teachers in both kinds of schools integrated the skills and knowledge to be tested with ongoing curriculum; (3) 75 percent of the more typical teacher utilized a separated approach to test preparation, using test preparation material separate from ongoing curriculum; (4) teachers in high performing schools utilized tests as an opportunity to revise and reformulate their curriculum, while teachers in typical schools treated tests as an extra hurdle in their curriculum.

In terms of approaches to connecting learning, Langer provided the following findings: (1) at least 88 percent of more successful teachers made three types of connections, amongst material, with equal focus: (a) connections among concepts and experiences within lessons; (b) connections across lessons, classes, and grades; and (c) connections between in-school and out-of-school knowledge and experiences; (2) typical teachers tended to make no connections at all, and if they did, the connections predominantly tended to be connections between school and home; (3) in higher performing schools, teachers worked consciously to create a web of connections; (4) very few connections linked content, knowledge, and skills in typical schools. Schools which create connections among concepts and experiences, content, knowledge and skills, as well as in-school and out of school knowledge and experiences set the stage for authentic instruction by creating and demonstrating the significance of all materials to be learned, as well as justified reasoning behind learning content knowledge and skills.

With regard to approaches to enabling strategies, Langer stated the

following: (1) all of the more successful teachers overtly taught strategies for organizing their thoughts and completing tasks, while 17 percent of more typical teachers did, leaving 83 percent of more typical teachers leaving strategies implicit; (2) most teachers in high performing schools shared and discussed rubrics for evaluating performances with students, utilizing rubrics throughout their curriculum in the process, suggesting the probability of greater authenticity for students who have the opportunity to demonstrate knowledge through the use of choice; (3) typical schools focused on content or skills without necessarily providing students with procedural or metacognitive strategies.

In terms of conceptions of learning, Langer compiled the following results: (1) all of the more successful teachers took a generative approach to student learning, going beyond acquisition of skills or knowledge, suggesting the creation of challenging coursework to motivate and engage students; (2) all of the more typical teachers tended to move on to other goals or activities once students evidenced the target skills or knowledge; (3) in more typical schools, once assigned tasks were completed or sought answers were provided, learning activity regarding the knowledge ceased, demonstrating a focus on in-school knowledge and activities rather than the significance of content, knowledge, and skills use outside of the classroom; and (4) in higher performing schools, teachers encouraged students to move beyond basic learning experiences in challenging and enriching ways.

Finally, with regard to classroom observation: (1) 96 percent of teachers in higher-performing schools helped students engage in thoughtful dialogue in order

to sharpen understanding with, against, and from one another; (2) teachers in more typical classes focused on individual parallel thinking; and (3) higher-performing teachers treated students as member of a dynamic learning community, whereas typical teachers treated learners as individuals under the assumption that interaction diminishes thinking and disrupts discipline, demonstrating the importance socio-contextual factors play in motivation, engagement, and achievement.

Langer (2001) provided insight to the distinctions between high performing schools and typical schools. Langer identified authentic instruction behaviors exhibited by more successful teachers: curriculum which integrates skills and knowledge, utilizing tests as opportunities to revise and reformulate curriculum, establishing connections with content, among other content areas and experiences and knowledge outside of school, overtly articulating strategies for organizing thoughts and completing tasks, and including students in the assessment process throughout the curriculum. Successful teachers in high performing schools, those with higher levels of achievement, demonstrate these behaviors which motivate students and engage them in behaviors which generate higher levels of achievement.

Langer's (2001) qualitative study exhibited the following limitations: because the study is observational it cannot prove causality, practices of higher-performing schools were present in lower-performing schools, though with lesser consistency, and the following strengths: a large sample size of 2640 students, a study duration of five years with two years spent in each classroom, tape

recording of all observations and interviews for comparative/clarification purposed, and consistent contact with participating teachers throughout the duration of the study.

From a literacy as a sociocognitive activity perspective, Langer, Bartolome, Vasquez, and Lucas (1990) examined how Mexican-American students constructed meaning when reading school materials, focusing on strategies used when reading English and Spanish as well as the knowledge sources utilized and the ways in which these related to understanding. Study participants included 12 fifth-grade students (six born in the United States, six born in Mexico; attended US schools for at least three years; seven proficient in English and Spanish, two proficient in neither language, one proficient in English and not Spanish, and two proficient in Spanish and not English) from a public elementary school in a lower-income, minority, northern California community. The researchers utilized four reading passages (two in English, two in Spanish) from two genres (story and report) at a fourth-grade reading level (measured by the Fry formula) from books in a library designed to serve Mexican-American students comparable in age to the studies participants.

Langer et al. (1990) conducted their research through student interviews aimed a obtaining information about students writing and writing experiences, language uses and perceptions of literacy in their lives, as well as oral and written recall tasks designed to analyze concepts recalled in comparison to original text for structural importance. They developed a set of open-ended questions, contextualized tasks to focus only on students' individual text-world,

broken into two categories: envisionment questions and probing questions. Additionally, the researchers utilized independent ratings to measure meaning-making abilities across the data sets, in four categories: (1) overall envisionment building; (2) ability to hypothesize; (3) understanding of text language; and (4) familiarity with genre characteristics. Finally, the researchers used student self-report measures, initial interviews, in conjunction with school records to examine home uses and support for literacy.

Though no statistics were provided, Langer et al. (1990) identified five major findings across the analyses. First, students' abilities to use good meaning-making strategies made a difference in how well they comprehended in both English and Spanish. Students' abilities to build envisionments, hypothesize about forthcoming information, understand text language, and use appropriate genre knowledge indicated that students who were rated highest in use of the strategies performed best on all meaning making measures. Second, the use of good meaning-making strategies rather than degree of fluency in English differentiated the better from poorer readers. Students who developed effective meaning-making strategies in one language utilized those strategies effectively in their second language, even if they were not fluent in it. Third, students' language competence in Spanish enriched their meaning making in both languages. Students who recalled more content, hypothesized more effectively and provided more elaborated recalls in Spanish answered decontextualized questions more successfully when they were asked, and answered, in Spanish. Fourth, students' familiarity with genre affected their ability to build appropriate text meaning.

Reports were consistently more different for students to comprehend and recall than stories. Fifth, and finally, the kinds of questions asked of students affected their ability to communicate what they understood. Open-ended questions tapping students' growing envisionment and understanding developed allowed them to better demonstrate what and how they understood texts. These findings demonstrate the significance of using previous knowledge students' gain inside and outside of the classroom. Specifically, the finding validates the important role authentic print literacy practice plays in student comprehension and meaning making strategies of content materials

Langer et al. (1990) identified the significance of meaning making strategies in literacy education. Meaning making strategies affect comprehension, having a greater affect than fluency in understanding texts. In addition, meaning making strategies transfer across languages, which is of particular importance for English language learners. Authentic instruction requires teachers to acknowledge and integrate students knowledge, skills, strategies, and resources into curriculum. Through the integration of students linguistic backgrounds, teachers authentically engage students while providing opportunities to engage meaning making strategies which allow students to demonstrate higher levels of comprehension (achievement).

The primary limitation of this study involves the sample. With a sample size of merely 12 students, all of Mexican-American heritage, at best the study exhibits minimal generalizability among a similar population. Strengths of the study include: tape recording for interviews and tasks for comparison with field-

notes, and allowing students to switch between Spanish and English in all oral and written tasks as well as interviews in order to focus on meaning.

In their qualitative study/ethnography, Spielmann and Pandofsky (2001) examined language learning under tensions with 30 second/foreign language acquisition students in a 7-week intensive beginners' class in the summer French School at Middlebury College. The researchers/authors, having spent the previous five summers in residence at the French school, conducted all interactions with informants in French.

Spielmann and Pandofsky (2001) participated with and observed students throughout the day, in and out of class, and conducted in-depth interviews with students and staff. Field data collection included: individual interviews, group interviews, observations, participant-teaching, impromptu casual interactions, analysis of student work and unobtrusive informational residues, through written notes, diagrams and charts, audio- and videotaping with Dictaphone and a Hi-8 camcorder. Field notes included: personal notes, research notes, interview notes, and theoretical notes.

Spielmann and Pandofsky (2001) identified three major findings. First, students were motivated and stimulated not simply by the level of difficulty, tension, and expectations in the course, but also by the quality of materials and activities that truly challenge their cognitive abilities and contribute to the satisfactory development of their L2 personalities. In addition to previous findings within this review of the literature, Spielmann and Pandofsky identify tension, quality of materials, and activities which build L2 personalities as additional

factors which impact student motivation. Second, self-referential activities tended to be particularly dysphonic, anxiety ridden, in proportion to their difficulty, contrary to content-based work with a student-centered basis and naturalistic development. Using simplistic materials contributed to dysphoric tension, anxiety/discomfort, by increasing feelings of infantilization caused by students' inability to communicate at their normal level of sophistication, adding to the importance of using authentically challenging content and course materials. Finally, pedagogical programs should not maintain an ideal goal of reducing dysphonic tension, but rather seek to maximize cognitive euphoric tension, stimulation/pleasure.

Speilmann and Panofsky (2001) address authenticity in direct connection with motivation. In addition to the benefits of authentic instruction, the researchers identified the importance of authenticity through quality materials and challenging tasks by stimulating students' cognitive abilities. Quality materials and challenging, cognitive abilities motivate and stimulate students, preparing them to engage tasks and materials toward higher levels of achievement.

Limitations of the study include: a small sample size of 30 students, a sample of students engaged in an intensive program (a dissimilar context to other studies), a lack of demographic information regarding participant characteristics, and a lack of identification of the researchers theoretical framework. Strengths of the study include: utilizing multiple techniques for collecting data, audio- and video-recording data, and intensive involvement with

students in and out of the classroom.

In a two year study, Gerstein (1996) examined literacy instruction for language-minority students in 24 classrooms from three schools in southern California. Two schools were primarily Latino (75.9 percent to 76.9 percent), while the third school had a large range of immigrant groups (44 percent Latino, 30 percent from Southeast Asian cultures. In total, between 12 percent and 22 percent of students in each school were African American and between 1 percent and 11 percent were Caucasian. Additionally, 91.4 percent to 96 percent of students in these schools were eligible for free lunch. In the second year of the study, Gerstein (1996) added two additional classrooms (El Paso; students no longer considered limited English proficient transitioning to fully English instruction) to the study. One teacher in the study utilized a conventional basal series for reading instruction, while all other teachers utilized children's literature. In total, eight teachers were bilingual, while the remaining 19 spoke only English (one-third had completed some coursework English as a second language or sheltered English techniques).

Gerstein (1996), in conjunction with six additional researchers, used a qualitative classroom observational method to gather data about each classroom, providing specified attention to at least one focal student in each class who teachers identified as experiencing difficulties in reading (noted students' performance while looking at class as whole). The researchers also interviewed teachers to learn about their concerns and beliefs about teaching language-minority students to read and write. Research team members interactions were

ongoing and recursive, scheduling periodic meetings to discuss findings, tentative trends, and possible themes.

While no statistics were identified, Gerstein (1996) published the following finding: (1) awareness of the importance of determining a balance of challenge and success is a crucial first step in learning to modulate instruction for language-minority students skillfully; this finding builds on previous statements regarding challenge as a motivational tool by identifying the need to balance challenge with success, particularly for language-minority students; (2) expert teachers accept Spanish responses but encourage students to attempt answers in English with the same manner they approach asking students how to explain reaching any given conclusion, providing students authenticity in the ability to use their primary language while pushing students to challenge their use of English; (3) acceptance of incorrect responses conveys to students that teachers do not hold high standards and expectations for them; and (4) authentic interactions not only treat students as real people, teachers remember what they say and find it of greater interest compared to inauthentic interactions.

With regard to authentic interactions, Gerstein (1996) identified the following benefits related to academic achievement: (1) students tended to work more like a roomful of adults--some individually, some with a partner, some talking through a problem, and some occasionally daydreaming; (2) a high level of sophistication and seriousness rose; (3) constructs of involvement, challenge, success, collaborative learning, and understanding of diversity were more likely to intersect; (4) teachers tended to encourage and assist in oral English language

development through taking students' remarks and comments seriously; and (5) teachers provided students with greater opportunities to engage in extended discourse in English, using complex concepts and attempting to explain concepts in their own words.

Gerstein's (1996) study exhibited strengths and limitations. Strengths of the study include: a duration of two years in comparison to one-year school studies and ongoing conversations between researchers regarding concerns, trends, and themes, while limitations include: populations samples solely from California and Texas, no given number of the total number of participant students, and a lack of information regarding how researchers observed and analyzed data.

Ryan and Patrick (2001) examined the classroom social environment and changes in adolescents' motivation and engagement during middle school with 233 students participating in a larger-scale longitudinal study from three middle schools within two Midwestern school district (45 percent European American and 55 percent African American; 40 percent of students eligible for free or reduced free lunch; 57 percent female, 43 percent male). Participants came from 30 different math classes taught by 15 different teachers (ten classes had one to four students; eight classes had five to eight students; five classes had 9-12 students; six classes had 13-19 students; and once class had 28 students). Ryan and Patrick (2001) collected data through: student surveys regarding students' perception of their classroom social environment, students' self-reported motivation, students' self-reported engagement; and prior achievement

as obtained through students' math grades on the final semester of seventh grade as collected from student records.

Ryan and Patrick (2001) identified findings, which highlight the important role of classroom social environment in supporting or undermining changes in young adolescents' motivation and engagement. The study indicated that classroom social environment is an overarching construct comprised of different and related dimensions indicated by: teacher support, the promotion of interaction with peers around academic tasks, the promotion of mutual respect among classmates, and the promotion of performance goals among classrooms, and which explain changes in students' efficacy relating to their teacher, efficacy in accomplishing schoolwork, self-regulated learning, and disruptive behavior. Ryan and Patrick (2001) identified the following dimensions of classroom social environment as having an impact on motivation and student engagement: (1) student belief that their teacher cared about and supported them; (2) the extent to which students were encouraged to interact with classroom regarding academic work; (3) teacher encouragement of mutual respect and social harmony among classrooms; and (4) the extent to which students were encouraged to view classmates as rivals.

Ryan and Patrick (2001) acknowledged attributes of classroom environments which scaffold motivation and engagement. These attributes include: students feeling cared for and supported by teachers, teachers encouraged students to interact with the classroom regarding academic work, teachers encouraged mutual respect and social harmony among classes, and

teachers pressed students to view peers as intellectuals not rivals. Through these teacher behaviors, students develop self-efficacy. As self-efficacy develops motivation develops, allowing students to engage academic tasks at higher levels, thus increasing performance and achievement.

Limitations of the study include: a small sample size (233 students), sample schools are only from two districts in the Midwestern U.S., a lack of information detailing data collection methods, and developing findings based on self-report measures, while strengths include: drawing students from a large-scale longitudinal study and extending and developing an earlier survey studies report finding from different communities.

Newmann, Marks, and Gamoran (1996) focused on three central issues: quality of and variability in observed authentic pedagogy and student performance, the link between pedagogy and performance, and the equitable distribution of authentic pedagogy and authentic student performance. The researchers worked with 24 restructured public schools (8 elementary, 8 middle, and 8 high school; 22 districts and 16 states; 2,128 students) in mathematics and social studies classrooms (grades four, five, seven, eight, nine, and ten).

Newmann et al. (1996) collected data through classroom observations, teacher questionnaires, student work and student questionnaires, to analyze in conjunction with three variables: authentic pedagogy, authentic academic performance, and student academic and social background. A major goal of the study was to understand how organizational features contributed to: authentic pedagogy; authentic academic performance; equity for students; empowerment

of teacher, parents, and principals; sense of community among staff and students; reflective professional dialogue; and accountability.

Nemann et al. (1996) provided the three major findings in their study. First, overall levels of authentic pedagogy observed fell well below the highest level of authentic pedagogy proposed by standards (elementary = 22.2, SD = 5.3, n = 46; middle school = 21.4, SD = 4.8, n = 21; high school = 21.4, SD = 4.6, n = 44), demonstrating the need, as proposed by standards, to implement authentic pedagogy. Second, authentic pedagogy improved authentic academic performance for students at all grade levels in both mathematics (6.1, n = 1,116) and social studies (6.7, n = 1282). Because authentic pedagogy improves authentic academic performance for students in both mathematics and social studies, there is a chance that authentic pedagogy improves academic performance in print literacy practices (as suggested by previous findings). Third, it is possible to provide authentic instruction reasonably equitably and affect students' academic achievement reasonable equitably (.37, p < .001). Finally, the researchers stated the findings as support for pursuit of authentic pedagogy to cultivate authentic academic performance in students, no matter how difficult the task may be.

Limitations within the study include: a lack of detailed description regarding the collection of data, a lack of information regarding demographic information for student, teacher, and school districts participating in the study, and lack of specific reference to the authors' theoretical framework; while strengths include: a relatively large sample size of over 2,000 students from 16

states.

In summary, instructional practices which motivate students occur through authentic pedagogy. Through the use of authentic pedagogy, teachers significantly impact the learning environment through establishing and maintaining appropriate classroom behaviors. Appropriate classroom behaviors include, and are not limited to: providing scaffolding for all students, promoting interaction with peers around academic tasks, promoting mutual respect among classmates, promoting performance based goals, building and engage students sense of self-efficacy, scaffolding self-regulated learning, encouraging mutual respect and social harmony (Patrick and Ryan, 2001). In addition to behaviors, authentic pedagogy impacts motivation for learning through the use of authentic tasks and materials (Edelsky, Draper, and Smith, 1983; Gerstein, 1996; Langer, 2001; Spielmann and Pandofsky, 2001; Yair, 2000). Finally, authentic pedagogy motivates students through addressing factors which account for intrinsic motivation and motivated behaviors including, but not limited to: challenge, real-life significance, stimulate curiosity, autonomy, choice, constructive and useful feedback, perceived learning climate, perceived ability, perceived instrumentality, (Appleebee, Langer, Nystrand, and Gamoran, 2003; Edelsky, Draper, and Smith, 1983; Ferrer-Caja and Weiss, 2002; Gersetein, 1996; Hardre, Crowson, Debacker, and White, 2007; Lam and Law, 2007; Newmann, Marks, and Gamoran, 1996; Ryan and Patrick, 2001; Speilmann and Pandofsky, 2001; Yair, 2000).

Basal Instruction and Whole Language Instruction

Ten studies in this section analyze motivation through the lens of basal

instruction and whole language instruction (one study examines problem based

learning). To begin, Berkel and Schmidt (2000) examine motivation for learning in

problem-based teaching model. Next, Langer (1984) examines the usefulness of

activating background knowledge as it affects comprehension and achievement.

Subsequently, Paterson, Henry, O'quin, Ceprano, and Blue (2003) investigate

the effectiveness of the Waterford integrated learning system on emergent

readers. From there, Barr and Sadow (1989) begin the examination of basal

instruction. Following Barr and Sadow, Xue and Meisels (2004) investigate the

influence of phonics instruction and integrated language arts instruction, as well

as their combination, among kindergarten children, from a school effects

research framework. Subsequently, Langer (1998) utilizes two strands of her

research to examine the thinking and doing of literature, first in context of the

literary and discursive mode and then in terms of teachers' support for students'

literary experiences. Then Purcell-Gates, McIntyre, and Freppon (1995) compare

low-SES children in skills-based and whole language classrooms, prior to

Turner's (1995) investigation of how literacy contexts influence young students'

behaviors during reading and writing instruction. Finally, Stahl and Miller (1990)

and Jeynes and Little (2000) provide meta-analyses of research regarding basal

instruction and whole/language experience approaches.

Berkel and Schmidt (2000) examined motivation for learning in Problem

Based Learning teaching models with approximately 1300 undergraduates

enrolled in a problem-based, four year, and health-science curriculum. The researchers collected data regarding: amount of prior knowledge, quality of problems, tutor performance, tutorial-group functioning, time spent on learning, achievement, attendance, and intrinsic interest.

At the end of each six week unit, Berkel and Schmidt (2000) used self-assessment measures for data analysis. Participants completed a rating-scale form consisting of 42 Likert-type items regarding various dimensions of Problem Based Learning, including tutoring functions, group functions, time spent on studying, attendance, and intrinsic interest. The researches estimated participants amount of prior knowledge through asking students the degree to which the unit's subject matter linked to prior knowledge. The researchers measured the quality of problems through exploring the extent to which participants felt problems were: clearly stated, stimulated group discussion, and encouraged self-directed learning activities. Finally, the researchers administered achievement tests consisting of 200 true/false questions at the end of each unit.

Although no statistics were provided, Berkel and Schmidt (2000) summarized the following findings: (1) attendance is an important determinant of learning in problem-based settings, as it adequately predicts academic achievement; this finding identifies the importance of establishing a classroom environment as well as classroom content and materials which motivate attendance (2) the better a problem-based group functions, the better the attendance was, resulting in higher scores on final examinations; (3) attending problem-based group instruction and engaging in its activities compensated to

some extent for individual learning; (4) prior knowledge influenced student

attendance at group meetings: students' attendance at meetings tended to be

particularly high if they considered their prior knowledge relatively low: the higher

the prior knowledge, the less students were inclined to be available for group

discussion, suggesting the need to create classroom environments which value

and challenge students who bring both relatively low and higher amounts of prior

knowledge; (5) poor quality in problems lead to more attendance in tutorial group;

and (6) contradictory to prior research, activation of prior knowledge may have

inhibited learning, rather than existing as precondition, in problem-based

contexts.

Berkel and Schmidt (2000) established a link between attendance and

achievement scores. Attendance is a determinant of learning as well as an

adequate predictor of achievement. In better functioning courses, attendance is

greater; when attendance is greater achievement scores are higher. Through the

use of authentic instruction practices, teachers motivate students to attend class

through engaging students with the process of learning. When students are

motivated to learn, they attend class. When students attend class, they typically

demonstrate higher achievement scores. Therefore, authentic instructional

practices lead to higher achievement scores through motivating students to

engage in the learning process.

Berkel and Schmidt's (2000) examination of Problem Based Learning

models demonstrated strength in sample size and following cohorts through out a

four year study, as well as limitations: the researchers provide minimal

information regarding data gathering procedures as well as data analysis, no statistics are provided, and a lack of information regarding detailed demographic information for participants.

Langer (1984) examined background knowledge and text comprehension with 161 sixth-grade students from a middle class suburban school system on Long Island, New York in order to: (1) validate the background knowledge measure, (2) explore the usefulness of certain variations in calculating the measure of knowledge; and (3) to test the usefulness of the knowledge measure in school contexts. Langer classified participants in the study according to achievement test grade placement scores on the Iowa Test of Basic Skills (above level - over 6.5; on level - 5.5 to 6.5; below level - under 5.5).

Langer (1984) utilized two passages (approximately 700 words in length) from a sixth-grade social studies text in conjunction with two 20 item criterion test measuring reading comprehension (one for each passage). Research assistants administered four distinct pre-reading activities (PReP, Motivation, Distractor, and No Activity) to randomly assigned groups of 10 to 11 in three sessions.

Langer (1984) identified results falling into two categories: passage-specific knowledge and passage comprehension scores. Regarding passage-specific knowledge, Langer produced the following results: (1) the background knowledge measure elicited just before the passages were read was a significant predictor of total comprehension; and (2) pre-reading activities had a significant effect on passage related knowledge for both passages [$F_{(2, 100)} = 15.46$; $p < .001$, $F_{(2, 98)} = 4.98$; $p<.01$]. In terms of passage comprehension scores,

Langer identified the following findings: (1) the pre-reading activities largely

effected the on-level reading group with a smaller effect on the above level

reading group and no effect on the below level readers; and (2) PReP

significantly raises the quality of knowledge that readers of all achievement

groups have available to bring to reading tasks.

Langer (1984) showed the significant role background knowledge plays in

reading activity. Contrary to Berkel and Schmidt (2000), Langer asserted prior

knowledge aides student comprehension. Specifically, Langer identified

background knowledge as a significant predictor of total comprehension. In

addition, Langer found pre-reading activities to significantly raise the quality of

knowledge all achievement groups bring to reading tasks. As authentic

instruction typically utilizes students' prior background knowledge and activation

of prior background knowledge increases total comprehension and quality of

knowledge, use of authentic instruction in literacy practice leads to higher levels

of achievement.

Langer's (1984) research demonstrated strength and limitations.

Limitations include: a sample size of only 161 students, one passage selected for

the study contained significantly higher narrow content knowledge than the other,

experiments conducted with relatively small class sizes, while strengths include:

random allocation of experimental or control condition, a low mortality rate, use of

the Iowa Test of Basic Skills in conjunction with IQ scores to establish

comparability.

From a theoretical framework influenced by Vygotsky and Cambourne;

Paterson, Henry, O'quin, Ceprano, and Blue (2003) investigated the effectiveness of an integrated learning system (the Waterford Program) on early emergent readers within 16 classrooms (seven kindergarten Waterford classrooms and one first grade Waterford classroom; seven kindergarten classrooms and one first grade classroom) from an urban school district in western New York state, through qualitative and quantitative study. District demographic information was provided as follows: 79 percent of teachers were Caucasian, 14 percent were African American, 5 percent were Hispanic, and less than 1 percent were Native American or Asian American; the district served 45,902 students 71.6 percent of whom were minority students; 43 percent of the schools had a poverty rate of 70 percent, and 67 percent of the students were eligible for free lunch; 6.1 percent of students were English language learners).

Fourteen graduate assistants (certified teachers), trained for the study, recorded descriptive data in conjunction with raw data from observations on uniform worksheets, noting: starting and ending times of activities, descriptions of activities, teacher's actions and strategies, children's actions, and children's activities. Additionally, teacher participants completed a two-page survey with checklist and open-ended responses regarding their perceptions of their literacy programs in conjunction with semi-structured interviews. Finally, the researchers used Brigance Screens and Clay's observational survey in each of the 16 classrooms to assess students potential for literacy learning.

Paterson et al. (2003) identified the following findings: (1) the multivariate main effect of Waterford was not significant [$F(16, 100) = 1.28$, $p < .28$]; (2) all

dependent variables were highly positively related to Brigance scores [$F(1, 105)$ > 29.23, $p < .001$, $n^2 > .21$ and $< .39$]; (3) the multivariate main effect of teachers control was significant [$F(12, 192) = 2.05$, $p < .03$, $n^2 = .11$]; (4) the multivariate main effect of literacy facilitation was statistically significant [$F(12, 194) = 2.59$, $p < .004$, $n^2 = .14$]; and (5) the multivariate main effect of instructional time was statistically significant [$F(12, 192) = 4.6$, $p < .001$, $n^2 = .23$]. These findings suggest that students in classrooms where teachers facilitated active engagement in instruction demonstrated a number of best practices in teaching literacy and that students who understand more about print literacy make better early attempts are reading authentic texts, apply their learning more frequently to new situations, and high levels of student engagement occur through literacy events utilizing speaking, reading, and writing. If teachers actively engage and motivate students with authentic print literacy tasks at an early age, they afford students the opportunity to value, appreciate and negotiate frequent personal and social interactions with literacy tasks inside and outside of the classroom, which leads to higher levels of achievement.

Limitations of the study conducted by Paterson et al. (2003) include: a sample of 16 classrooms with no information provided for the total number of participants, a sampling of classrooms only from one district in western New York, while strengths include: comparing eight Waterford and eight non-Waterford classes in similar kindergarten and first grade classrooms, following a previously established protocol for collection and analysis of data, and identifying

their theoretical framework.

Barr and Sadow (1989) examined the influence of basal programs on fourth-grade reading instruction through qualitative research utilizing observation, interview, and audio-recording with 160 fourth-grade students from seven separate classrooms in four schools within two all-white districts (one working class suburb, one affluent suburb) in the Chicago area. Barr and Sadow examined the characteristics of basal programs and their influence on reading instruction in four parts: (1) how are basal reading programs organized and what kinds of materials are included? (2) to what extent are materials available in basal programs actually assigned to and read by students, and how does the design of the program influence this selection, (3) how does the balance of skill practice and contextual reading in a basal program influence the use of time during instruction, and (4) to what extent are the recommendations in the teacher's guide followed by teachers during prep reading and post reading activities.

Barr and Sadow (1989) analyzed reading instruction in conjunction with student and teaching materials from two basal programs (Series A and B) through observation, interview, and audio recording. Over the course of a year, the researchers observed each classroom on eight occasions (4 times in fall, 4 times in spring) keeping a running record of classroom activities as well as exchanges between teacher and students during reading lessons. Used in conjunction with audio recording, the researchers utilized these records to document the amount of time dedicated to various types of reading and non-

reading activities. Additionally, the researchers used a coded form to identify the nature and duration of classroom activities. Finally, the researchers conducted a series of interviews with teachers involved in the study. Researchers conducted an initial interview in the summer preceding the study in order to collect background information regarding plans for reading instruction. The researchers also conducted interviews after each observation to gather additional information regarding implementation of lesson plans and student completion of intended tasks.

Finally, Barr and Sadow (1989) identified a number of vague findings with regard to the influence of basal programs on fourth grade reading instruction. Though teachers' work from a single basal program, instruction may vary greatly with regard to the number and types of skills teachers selected to focus on or omit from instruction. In conjunction with Newmann, Marks, and Gamoran (1996), this finding identifies that teaching practices vary from those required by provided standards. However, teachers' guides appeared to influence instruction activities: (1) teachers participating in the selected basal programs emphasized skills rather than contextual reading, likely placing an emphasis on inauthentic instruction and materials, (2) the majority of participating teachers did not change their instruction, from the beginning of the year, to incorporate student need or address specific problems with certain reading selections, a highly valuable attribute of authentic instruction. Without incorporating student needs or addressing specific problems, all students are left behind. (3) many teachers followed prepared guided questions from basal programs guides which lead to

ritualistic, inauthentic, progression through lessons in which teachers essentially answered their own questions when students failed to participate, suggesting a lack of challenge or curiosity for students and (4) teachers who changed their instruction to incorporate their own questions and activities noted higher student involvement, suggesting student motivation to engage with more authentic activity and instruction.

These findings indicate the level of individual influence teachers exhibit through instructional decisions. While teachers possess the ability to vary from provided curriculum, curriculum guides influence instructional decisions. Barr and Sadow's (1989) findings suggest inauthentic curriculum, those based in skill rather than contextual reading, leads to inauthentic practices, not incorporating changes in curriculum and instruction despite students need or specific problems with the curriculum. Without addressing student need, teachers develop a classroom environment which devalues students at an individual and group level. When students feel devalued, they lack motivation to engage with the established curriculum. A lack of engagement with established curriculum leads to lower achievement scores. Therefore, teachers who vary from established curriculum to provide authentic instructional practices, including changing instruction to meet student needs and address specific problems with curriculum, motivate students to engage curriculum and reach higher levels of achievement.

Barr and Sadow's (1989) research exhibited the following limitations: a sample size of merely 160 students, the sample is limited to all-white students in the Chicago area, demographics were not provided to participants (beyond being

all-white), and though the researchers utilized the Degrees of Reading Power test to gauge student comprehension schools prior to the study the researchers did not utilize a post-test to measure change in comprehension through the school year.

Xue and Meisels (2004) investigated the influence of phonics instruction and integrated language arts instruction, as well as their combination, among kindergarten children, from a school effects research framework. Study participants included 13,609 kindergarten children in 2,690 classrooms and 788 schools (65.3% White, 15% African American, 12.5% Hispanic, and 2.5% Asian; 51.3% boys, 48.7% girls; 5.7% non-English speaking households).

Xue and Meisels (2004) utilized three outcomes, at the end of kindergarten, to evaluate the effects of phonics and integrated language arts instruction on children's learning: (a) children's achievement as measured by a direct cognitive test focusing on language arts and literacy, (b) children's achievement measured by indirect teacher ratings of children's skills, knowledge, and behaviors according to the language and literacy subscale of the Academic Rating Scale (ARS), and (c) teacher ratings of children's approaches to learning according to the Social Ratings Scale (SRS). They measured outcomes based on the following covariates; child characteristics (gender, race/ethnicity, SES, parent's education, parent's occupation, age, English as the primary language spoken at home), teacher/classroom characteristics (teacher preparation and teaching experience), and school characteristics (school average SES, heterogeneity of SES, average entering reading ability, heterogeneity of entering

ability, sector, region, urban city, and grade levels served by the school). Data analysis included zero-ordered correlations between instructional measures and between initial status and outcomes and hierarchical linear modeling investigating instructional effects. All of the continuous variables used in the data analyses were z scored.

Xue and Meisels (2004) found phonics instruction and integrated language arts instruction was moderately correlated to one another. Both instructional measures positively associated with children's direct cognitive test scores at the end of kindergarten (integrated language arts effect size = .076; phonic approach effect size = .058); however, children reflected greater achievement when teachers more frequently utilized integrated language arts with phonics instruction (integrated language arts instruction had a larger positive effect ES = .194 than the phonics approach ES = .044). Both types of instruction were positively related to children's average test scores (ES = .052 and .075 for phonics and integrated language arts respectively). Phonics and integrated language arts were positively related to teaching ratings of achievement with the association much stronger for integrated language arts (ES = .205) than the phonics approach (ES = .040).

Though both phonics instruction and integrated language arts instruction positively associated with direct cognitive scores and higher ratings of achievement established by teachers, frequent utilization of integrated language arts lead to greater levels of achievement in direct cognitive scores and higher ratings of achievement as established by teacher ratings. As a result, Xue and

Meisels (2004) advocated balanced instruction centered on students needs

which combines phonics instruction and integrated language arts instruction in

order to provide beneficial and meaningful reading and writing activities.

Finally, Xue and Meisels' (2004) study exhibited both strengths and

limitations in implementation and design. The researchers identified a singular

strength within their study to be uniquely strong internal and external validity,

while they identified the following limitations: use of teachers' self-reported data

limited means of evaluating attitudes and practices, self-reported data may suffer

from low reliability and validity, measurement error is likely to be involved in

explanations of the associations between instructional measures and outcomes,

and the study was confined to a single academic year.

Langer's (1998) initial studies, spanning four years, identified two modes

of thinking for students of literature, literary (mental exploration through emotions,

relationships, motives, and reactions) and discursive (to gain or share ideas and

information), which help shape thinking. Additionally, Langer identified four

stances crucial to the development of student understanding: who people are,

what they've experienced, what they know, and how they feel.

In her second strand of work, spanning almost six years, Langer (1998)

focused on how teacher's can support students' thoughtful literary experiences.

Langer identified broad means of identifying the culture of classrooms in which

students thought richly and deeply about literature: (1) students are treated as

lifelong meaning makers; (2) questions are treated as part of the literary

experience; (3) class meetings are treated as a time to develop understanding

rather than receive right answers; and (4) multiple perspectives are used to enrich interpretation. Additionally, each of these classrooms was social, active, and participatory.

Across both strands of work, totaling eight years, Langer (1998) and ten field researchers collaborated with 50 classrooms (pre-kindergarten through adult education, with an emphasis on the middle and high school grades) in inner-city and suburban communities and included students from diverse cultural, linguistic, and economic backgrounds. Researchers collected data through observation and interview, though they are vague as to the details.

Langer (1998) found that students' combined sense of self and community affected: how students and teachers interacted, the ways they participated, the ideas they thought about, and where they situated themselves as learners and participants. These findings support the role socio-contextual factors play in the classroom. Specifically, how individual and community perceptions affect students' performance as learners and participants. Finally, Langer found that traditional curriculum goals were not lost in classes, which focused on students' understandings in conjunction with students' performance. In conjunction with previous studies, Langer's study supports the importance of teacher practices which focus on students' understanding of materials with balance placed in supporting performance.

The findings of Langer's (1998) two strand study advocate the use of authentic instruction. Langer found students' combined sense of self and community affects interaction, participation, and how learners situate themselves

as learners and participants. Additionally,s Langer identified a number of

authentic pedagogical practices which affect students sense of self through

incorporating: who students are, what students have experienced, what students

know and how students feel. Also, Langer identified authentic practices which

address students' sense of community through: treating students as lifelong

meaning makers, treating questions as part of the learning experience, treating

class meetings as opportunities to develop understanding rather than receiving

right answers, and incorporating multiple perspectives to enrich interpretation.

Through the incorporation of Langer's suggestions, teachers build authentic

classroom experiences which motivate student interaction, participation,

perceived ability and perceived instrumentality, which in turn engage students as

learners and participants increasing their levels of achievement.

Langer's (1998) eight year study exhibited limitations and strengths, as

with any research. Limitations included: a lack of demographic information for

participants, no report of the individual or cumulative totals for participants across

the eight years of studies, and use of empirical conclusions rather than providing

quotes or statistics. The strength of Langer's study lies in the compilation of eight

years of studies involving literature education.

Purcell-Gates, McIntyre, and Freppon (1995) explored learning written

storybook language in school through a comparison of low-SES children in skills-

based and whole language classrooms. Three groups of children comprised the

study. The first group (Well-Read-To) consisted of 20 randomly selected

kindergarten children (ten boys, ten girls; racially mixed, though predominantly

White, middle-to-low SES; three elementary schools in a large urban area of northern California) from Purcell-Gates (1989) study. The second group (Skills Based) consisted of 47 randomly selected children (almost even distribution of boys and girls; low-SES population; two thirds African American heritage, one third White, urban Appalachian) in three elementary classrooms centered in skills-based instruction during their kindergarten and first grade years. The third group (Whole Language) consisted of 25 children (13 boys, 11 girls; 46 percent African American, 54 percent White, urban Appalachian) in two identified whole language classrooms in two Midwestern low-SES cities.

Purcell-Gates, McIntyre, and Freppon (1995) explored learning written storybook language through a questionnaire procedure as well as a pretend-to read measure. Each child in the study individually met with a researcher to complete an oral narrative register as well as a written narrative register. In the oral narrative register, the researchers asked children to tell about their most recent birthday party or another recent significant event. The written narrative register consisted of three parts: (1)the researchers initially asked children to recall times when their parents or teacher read to them (all participants indicated they had been read to at least once), (2) the researchers provided the children with a wordless picture book and asked that they silently look through the book from beginning to end in order to discover the story, and (3) after silently peaking through their wordless picture book, researchers asked the children to read the book aloud and make it sound like a book story. The researchers transcribed children's language into intonations units by pause length and/or intonation curve

of either a final fall-rise or a sentence-final fall. After the intonation marking, the

researchers excluded the following intonation samples from the future analysis

and final count: (1) units that were immediately repeated for correction purpose,

(2) units that were abandoned before completion, (3) formulaic endings with no

other content than the signal that the store was ended, and (4) the formulaic

opening *Once upon a Time*, if it had been provided by the researcher as a

prompt. Finally, the researchers examined the resulting intonation units for 15

lexical and syntactic features chosen as potential differentiators of oral and

written narrative registers.

Purcell-Gates, McIntyre, and Freppon (1995) provided results from

beginning kindergarten comparisons to end of first grade comparisons. The

beginning kindergarten comparisons for the written register samples are as

follows: independent t-tests revealed significant differences on the written

features occurrences score between the Well-Read-To group and both the Skills-

Based (3.65, p = .002) and Whole Language groups (5.25, p = .0001), there was

no significant difference between the Skills-Based group and the Whole

Language group on this score, t-test results showed significant differences

between the Well-Read-To group and both the Skills-Based (3.35, p = .004) and

Whole Language groups (4.019, p = .001) on the breadth score and no

significant difference between the Skills-Base and Whole Language groups,

finally the Well-Read-To group scored significantly higher than both the Skills-

Based group (3.51, p = .002) and the Whole Language group (5.31, p = .0001)

for the written language total scores, with no significant difference between the

Skills-Based and Whole Language groups. By the end of first grade few scores

changed, but the scores which changed occurred as follows: t-tests results

indicated a significant difference between the Well-Read-To group (3.31, p =

.006) and the Whole Language group (3.77, p = .001) for the total score on oral

samples but not between the Well-Read-To group and the Skills-Based group,

and t-tests revealed the Whole Language group scored significantly higher on the

breadth score for pretend-reading than did the Skills-based group (2.62, p =

.018). In summary, Purcell-Gates, McIntyre, and Freppon found that children

beginning school with very little knowledge about the vocabulary and syntax of

written stories can acquire this knowledge through experiences with books in

school, suggesting that different initial literacy programs can affect the extent of

this knowledge, as demonstrated by the significantly higher scores attained by

children experiencing at last two years of Whole Language instruction compared

to scores obtained by children from Skills-Based classrooms.

In conclusion, the research provided by Purcell-Gates, McIntyre, and

Freppon (1995) demonstrated strength and limitations. Limitations of the study,

as identified by the researchers, include an inability to attribute results clearly to

one set of factors due to the combination of three studies drawn from different

purposes, and dimensions of difference between the classrooms were many and

varied, while strengths include: identification of areas for future research,

acknowledgement of the studies weaknesses, and building on a solid research

foundation by expanding research to low-SES students.

Turner (1995) investigated, from a social constructivist learning theory,

how literacy contexts influence young students' behaviors during reading and writing instruction and how those experiences help students form conceptions about literacy in two predominantly white middle class school districts in a suburban metropolitan area of Chicago. One district reported following a basal reader curriculum while the other described their curriculum as whole language. Six first grade teachers in each district and 84 first grade students (42 female and 42 male; half in basal classrooms; half in whole language classrooms) participated in the study.

Turner (1995) collected data through field notes, observations, and interviews spanning five consecutive days in each classroom. Field notes consisted of information detailing: character and sequence of all instructional activities, lesson goals, content, and teacher incorporated strategies within lessons. The author and research assistant of the study utilized structured time sampled observations to record motivated behaviors (reading strategy use, learning strategy use, persistence, and volitional control) of students during seatwork and individual assignments. Immediately following observations, observers interviewed students regarding the task they had just completed: (1) what are you supposed to learn from the activity you just did? (2) what were you thinking about when you did this activity? (3) what was the hardest part about the activity for you? and (4) how did you handle the hard parts?

Turner (1995) found reliable differences among basal and whole language classrooms in relation to instructional goals, curricula, organizational structures, opportunities for learning, and types of tasks completed by students. Students in

whole language classrooms employed learning strategies during the course of their literacy activities at a higher rate than expected and were 1.35 times as likely as their basal classroom counterparts to use learning strategies. This finding indicates increased engagement with learning strategies during literacy activities for students in whole language classrooms, suggesting a factor of increased motivation in whole language classrooms which in turn leads to higher levels of achievement. Basal students were more likely than whole language students to report procedures as learning goals, whereas whole language classes were more likely to report specific content as the lesson goal, indicating separate focuses in basal classrooms and whole language classrooms. Students in whole language classrooms are more likely to articulate what they are learning and why they are learning it, whereas students in basal classrooms are more likely to repeat task procedures without identifying learning content or purpose. Whole language students were more likely to identify learning difficulties by name. In closed tasks, students were more likely to mention difficulties with comprehension and following directions. Students in whole language classrooms and those engaged in open ended activities were more aware of the purposes for literacy activities and seemed to have a more conceptual notion of why they were learning to read and how it could be useful. These findings demonstrate the significance of more authentic activities. In closed tasks, typically identified as less authentic, students focused on learning difficulties whereas students completing open-ended tasks, typically identified as more authentic, focused conceptually on learning to read. As indicated by this study, students engaged in

more authentic activities demonstrate higher levels of motivation as evidenced through employing learning strategies at greater frequencies. Through employing learning strategies at greater frequencies, students demonstrate greater levels of comprehension and achievement.

Finally, Turner (1995) addressed motivation in her findings. Classroom tasks best predicted the effective use of reading strategies and persistence. The motivated behaviors were significantly likely to occur when students participated in open-ended rather than closed tasks (consistent across gender and instructional condition). In conjunction, Turner identified tasks as a significantly better predictor of motivated behaviors than instructional condition. She found that open-ended tasks elicited significantly more use of reading strategies, volitional control, and persistence. Additionally, she identified tasks as the best predictor of students' use of reading strategies, persistence, and volitional control. Students engaged in open-ended tasks were more likely to voluntarily use reading strategies, to persist when work became difficult, and to maintain attention to academic work, regardless of the type of classroom instruction. These findings suggest that learning tasks affect students' motivation toward literacy practices, which is important because higher levels of motivation lead to higher levels of achievement.

Turner's (1995) investigation of how literacy contexts influence young students' behaviors during reading and writing instruction demonstrated strength and limitations. Strengths of the study include: identifying the theoretical framework from which the study was approached, utilizing an equal distribution of

male and female participations, and utilizing and equal distribution of participants in basal and whole language classrooms. Limitations of the study include: small sample size (84 participants) and self regulated measures in interviews for the collection of data.

In a quantitative research meta-analysis, Stahl and Miller (1989) compared two data bases to explore whole language and language experience approaches for beginning reading. The two data bases for this meta-analysis include: (1) five projects conducted as part of the United States Office of Education (USOE) first grade studies; and (2) 46 additional studies comparing basal reading approaches to whole language approaches or language experience approaches.

Stahl and Miller (1989) computed searches for comparative studies (whole language or language experience to basal approaches) through ERIC and dissertation Abstract data bases under the descriptors Language Experience and Whole Language. The researchers did not include studies which: (1) compared students' readings of self-authored versus other authored materials; (2) studies that compared the number of words generated in experience stories to those used in basal text; (3) studies that only examined the effects of trade books or predictable books; (4) studies that only examined the effects of increased story reading on later reading achievement; and (5) were conducted prior to 1960. Finally, the researchers used a vote counting procedure in conjunction with effect sizes to analyze data.

Stahl and Miller (1989) provided results, few with statistical information

provided, in six categories: overall effects, readiness versus beginning reading, differential effects, older versus newer studies, disadvantaged and lower-SES populations, and standardized versus naturalistic measures. Overall findings concluded that whole/language experience approaches appear approximately equal to basal reader approaches in their effectiveness (p < .0001; mean of all 117 effect sizes was .09, SD = .61) with a few exceptions: (1) whole/language experiences may be more effective in kindergarten than in first grade; (2) whole/language experience may produce stronger effects on measures of word recognition than on measures of reading comprehension; (3) more recent studies show a trend toward stronger effects for basal reading programs relative to whole/language experience programs; and (4) whole/language experience approaches produce weaker effects with populations specifically labeled as disadvantaged or having lower-SES. While Turner's (1995), Barr and Sadow's (1989) and Xue and Meisel's (2004) findings indicated a difference in student behaviors and performance in whole-language and basal approach classrooms, these findings indicate the approaches appear approximately equal in their effectiveness.

Stahl and Miller's (1989) meta-analysis demonstrated strength in identifying the means through which they obtained studies; however, limitations abound. Limitations of this study include: the exclusion of studies not meeting the narrow criteria established by Stahl and Miller (such as studies only examining the effect of trade books or predictable books, studies only examining the effects of trade books or predictable books, studies comparing students' reading of self-

authored books, etc.), an integration of numerous studies under a singular definition of basal instruction, whole language instruction, and integrated language instruction (many of these studies likely defined basal, whole language, and integrated instruction in a different manner than the meta-analysis), separating the descriptors and analyses of outlying studies, and lacking identification of information regarding studies subjects and methodologies.

Jeynes and Little (2000) authored a meta-analysis which attempted to synthesize the results of 14 studies comparing the effect of whole language to basal instruction on the reading achievement of kindergarten to third-grade pupils with low SES. Jeynes and Little attempted to address the following questions in their meta-analysis: (1) how does whole language compare to basal treatment in general? (2) can whole language programs be subdivided into groups with different degrees of definitional purity? (3) how do the subgroups compare to basal treatments and to each other? (4) are quality, duration, or year of study related to effect size in any way? (5) are effect sizes related to types of outcome measures, especially standardized versus non-standardized tests? In addition, Jeynes and Little provided four definitions to operationalize the whole language treatment: pure, specific, broad, and eclectic.

Jeynes and Little (2000) coded each of the 14 included studies independently for acceptability, definition of whole language (does the study meet the specific, broad, or eclectic definition of whole language), and quality of study (Did it use randomization? Did it avoid mono-method bias? Did it avoid mono-operation bias? Did it avoid internal validity problems? Did researchers

check for proper implementation? Did it avoid selection bias?). Interrater

reliability was 85 percent. Preliminary analysis of the selected 14 studies

provided a computed mean sample size (630), the mean study duration (12

months), and the mean year of the study (1980). The researchers noted the

following important attributes in terms of establishing means (1) the sample size

mean and standard deviation result from two studies with sample sizes over

1,000 and 6,000 respectively as well as ten studies with sample sizes of 200 or

less, and (2) half of the studies (seven) were conducted for one school year.

Jeynes and Little (2000) identified several outcomes from their meta-

analysis. First, they noted that for all of the whole language studies combined,

low-SES children receiving basal instruction did consistently better on various

literacy measures than their whole language instruction counterparts, which

concurs with previous studies findings. When considering only standardized test

scores, excluding non-standardized test scores, the basal instruction advantage

proved even more substantial (effect size was -.70 with a confidence interval of

95 percent from -.74 to -.66 and p<.001). Additionally, standardized tests favored

basal instruction (-.59) more than non-standardized tests (.02), concurring with

Stahl and Miller's (1989) findings indicating effectiveness in basal instruction as

well as whole language instruction. Second, though only 2 of the 14 studies met

the pure definition of whole language, the whole language approach appears

preferable (total effect size of .83 and a 95 percent confidence interval of .34-

1.32). Pure whole language instruction proved favorable for non-standardized

tests (.89) in comparison to standardized tests (.63). Third, a positive correlation

emerged between a total effect size favoring whole language and the year in which a study was undertaken (r = .75, p < .001). Finally, when educators implement a clearly defined program of whole language, student performance improves. In contradiction to the findings listed above, these findings indicate approximately equal effectiveness for both basal approach and whole language approach instruction and improvement in student performance.

In conclusion, Jeynes and Little's (2000) demonstrated strength and limitation in their meta-analysis of studies examining the effect of whole language instruction on the literacy of low-SES students. Strengths of the study include: providing a range of definitions for whole language as it is widely defined in the research literature, independent coding of studies for the meta-analysis, providing and clarifying means for sample size, duration, and mean year of the study, and providing p values for statistically significant information. Jeynes and Little identified their limitations as follows: researchers find the treatment difficult to define, how thoroughly and precisely whole language instruction is implemented remains a source of variation in research literature, control treatments often poorly described, outcome measures vary greatly, and only a small percentage of studies in this realm offer quantitative results suitable for meta-analysis.

In summary, the research findings of this section helped define authentic tasks, practices which create authenticity, and the effects of authenticity on achievement scores. As indicated by research, authentic tasks are tasks which: activate and include students' prior knowledge; address student needs; address

specific problems with curriculum; integrate literacy practices with content knowledge; address who students are, what students have experiences, what students know, and how students feel (Barr and Sadow, 1989; Berkel and Schmidt, 2000; Langer, 1984; Langer, 1998; Turner, 1995; Xue and Meisels, 2004). In addition to authentic tasks, research in this section helped to define authentic practices: addressing and incorporating background knowledge students bring to class; varying from provided curriculum to establish open ended tasks which focus on concepts as well as skills; utilizing assessments to create changes in curriculum which incorporate student needs; integrating literacy instruction across content areas; balance instruction among content knowledge, skills, and concepts; treating students as life long meaning makers; addressing questions as part of the learning experience; and utilizing class meetings as time to develop understanding; addressing multiple perspectives to enrich interpretations (Barr and Sadow, 1989; Langer, 1984; Langer, 1998; Xue and Meisels, 2004). Together, authentic practices and authentic tasks affect achievement scores through motivation for learning (Berkel and Schmidt, 2000; Langer, 1984; Paterson, Henry, O'quin, Ceprano, and Blue, 2003; Purcell-Gates, McIntyre, and Freppon, 1995; Stahl and Miller, 1990; Turner, 1995; Xue and Meisels, 2004).

Authentic Literacy

The eight studies in this section combine knowledge from studies regarding instructional motivation, basal instruction, and whole language instruction within the context of authentic literacy experiences. The exploration of

authentic literacy begins with Myers (1992)examination of the social contexts,

which define authentic literacy. From the Myers examination of definition, Bryk,

Nagaoka, and Newmann (2000) provide results of the Chicago Annenberg

Research Project regarding the demands of authentic intellectual work in

elementary and middle school classrooms. Subsequently, Purcell-Gates (1996)

examines the relationship between home literacy practices and emergent literacy

knowledge. Lee and Croniger (1994) build on this examination through exploring

the importance of home and school in the development of literacy in middle

grade students. Mahiri and Sablo (1996) shift the focus from home or school

literacy practices to students' motivation, functions, genres, and themes of

voluntary writings. Next, Garcia and de Caso (2004) investigation motivation

within the context of literacy among low achieving or learning disabled students.

Following Garcia and de Caso, Morrow, Pressley, Smith, and Smith (1997)

examine the effect of literature based programs integrated into literacy and

science instruction. From here, Nolen (2001) explores emergent motivation to

read and write in relation to develop concepts of literacy and teachers'

instructional goals and classroom norms. Finally, Van meter, McCann, Wigfield,

Bennet, Poundstone, Rice, Faibisch, Hunt, and Mitchell (1996) study growth of

literacy engagement through change in motivation and strategies.

Myers (1992) examined the social contexts, which define authentic literacy

for students through a qualitative study with 140 eighth grade language arts

students. Myers' interpretive framework assumed social interaction negotiates

literacy's meaningfulness. Data collection focused on students' social interactions

involving literacy: how literacy functioned in social interactions, purposes for using literacy in social interactions, and purposes for using literacy in independent situations. Myers recorded data on three-by-five note cards in full view of students; he showed recorded data to students to check for accuracy of observation. After completing observations, Myers translated data collected on the three-by-five note cards into dialogue format in order to establish themes for the study, which resulted in an overlying metaphor: membership in literacy clubs determined students' purposes for reading and writing as well as the character of their thinking during reading and writing events.

Myers (1992) asserted literacy clubs as a social context that defines authentic literacy for students. In this study, he justified the existence of three primary literacy clubs: the achievement club, the academic club, and the personal club. Both assigned and non-assigned reading and writing tasks created gateways for membership into literacy clubs. The achievement club consisted of students engaged with school assigned reading and writing tasks focused on meeting teachers' expected criteria. Students more engaged with subject matter than meeting teachers expectations participated in academic literacy clubs. The personal literacy club included students focused on non-assigned reading and writing tasks. Myers associated different types of thinking and different forms of meaning for each type of membership, establishing the social contexts of students' literacy, a sociopsychosemiotic theory of literacy.

Myers (1992) identified three functions defining literacy clubs. Achievement literacy clubs functioned to maintain membership by reproducing

the meaning of authorities. Academic literacy clubs functioned to contest members by highlighting meaning in defiance to authorized meaning. Additionally, personal literacy clubs functioned to share membership by organizing and sharing experiences. Social interactions established contexts of relationships where literacy practices developed as valuable ways for students to share and negotiate meanings about experiences and themselves. The social interaction of club members rather than classrooms' authorized standards determined the quality of meaning shared in literacy club. In order for literacy and language to be meaningful to students in classroom social interactions, Myers asserted students must form literacy clubs in which they can gain the chance to negotiate the meaningfulness of academic ideas established by the teacher.

Myers (1992) study provides a slight shift in defining authentic literacy for students. Myers asserted student defined authenticity as determined by students goals and purposes for literacy activities, specifically negotiating experiences and themselves. In this case, authenticity is defined by students achievement, academic, and personal motivations. As a result, students seek to engage materials and tasks through a individualist lens. When capable of engaging literacy through an achievement, academic or personal lens, students become motivated to reach higher levels of achievement.

Myers (1992) qualitative study of authentic literacy instruction demonstrated areas of strength and limitation. Areas of strength in this study include recording data in full view of the participants and member-checking data with participants for accuracy. A small sample size (104 participants) limit's the

transferability of the study, as does the research being conducted solely in a rural school.

Bryk, Nagaoka, and Newmann (2000) of the Chicago Annenberg Research Project reported research conducted by the Consortium on Chicago School Research for the Chicago Annenberg Challenge regarding Chicago classroom demands for authentic intellectual work. The Chicago Annenberg Research Project adopted the analytic framework of authentic intellectual work originally developed by the federally funded National Research Center on School Organization and Restructuring and applied the framework to this study of classroom writing and mathematics assignments in grades three, six, and eight provided to 12 Annenberg elementary schools in 1996-1997, 18 schools in 1997-1998, and 16 schools in 1998-1999. The researchers gathered four typical (reflecting daily work occurring in the course of a regular school week) and two challenging (assignments teachers believed would provide the best indicators of how well students understand subjects at a high level) assignments per year for this study from two teachers in each participating sample school from grades three, six, and eight (target grades for the Illinois Goals Assessment Program).

In the summers of 1997, 1998 and 1999, groups of approximately 14-20 teachers applied scoring rubrics to assess the authenticity of intellectual work demanded by the provided assignments. Raters measured the authenticity of intellectual work against three standards: construction of knowledge (the extent to which the assignment asked students to use high cognitive demand functions in comparison to low cognitive demand functions), written communication (the

requirement of students to draw and support conclusions through elaboration),

and connections to students' lives (degree to which the assignment required

students to draw connections from the topic or problem to their lives in daily life

beyond school). Each rather received an assignment, at random, within their

subject matter/grade level to assess one standard: construction of knowledge,

written communication, or connections to students' lives. In total, each

assignment was independently reviewed by three different raters, and a second

rater to assess validity scored a random sub-sample of assignments. Finally, the

researchers utilized a multifaceted Rasch measurement model to create scales

for each grade a subject prior to transforming these measures into a ten point

school to provide a standards based interpretation of the data for computing

overall composite trends and separate trends for challenging and typical

assignments.

Bryk, Nagaoka, and Newmann (2000) reported trend results for each

school year. The overall classroom quality of classroom assignments in the field

sample of Annenberg Challenge schools improved between 1997 and 1999 with

overall schools generally higher in the two years following 1997, except in sixth

grade math that remained unchanged. The level of authenticity in challenging

assignments increased from 1997 (writing grade 6 = 4.82, writing grade 8 = 6.05,

mathematics grade 6 = 6.04, mathematics grade 8 = 5.33) to 1999 (writing grade

6 = 5.79, writing grade 8 = 6.19, mathematics grade 6 = 7.20, mathematics grade

8 = 6.54) while result for the typical assignments remained mixed. Results for

1998 (writing grade 6 = 7.61, writing grade 8 = 6.19, mathematics grade 6 = 6.11,

mathematics grade 8 = 5.11) and 1999 (writing grade 6 = 6.41, writing grade 8 =

5.97, mathematics grade 6 = 5.80, mathematics grade 8 = 5.63)   exceeded

result from the base year of 1997(writing grade 6 = 5.75, writing grade 8 = 5.36,

mathematics grade 6 = 6.00, mathematics grade 8 = 5.07) . Additionally,

assignments designated as challenging tended to score higher than those

designated as typical demonstrating students increase in performance with

challenging and authentic works. An overall trend of improvement in the

authenticity of intellectual work remains.

In conclusion, the report of research offered by Bryk, Nagaoka, and

Newmann (2000) demonstrated both strengths and limitations. Limitations of the

report include: a lack of background information about the Annenberg Challenge,

does not report academic improvement according to the ITBS used for the

pretest, the majority of assignments were rated on one occasion, while strengths

of the report include: a large sample size of total assignments spanning a series

of three years and notification of continuation of the study through 2001.

Purcell-Gates (1996) examined the relationship between home literacy

practices (type and frequency) and the types and degrees of written knowledge

held by children through a one year descriptive study on in-home uses of print

and its relation to emergent literacy knowledge. Informants were considered for

the study if they met the following criteria: they qualified according to federal

guidelines as low socioeconomic status, they had at least once child in the home

between four and six, and English was the primary language spoken in the

home. Twenty low-income families, all volunteers receiving US$200

compensation, participated in this study(10 African American, 7 Caucasian, 2 Hispanic, and 1 Asian American). Literacy levels of the parents ranged from low literate to functionally literate as ascertained by: observation, self-report, and background information from education or family literacy programs. The 24 children in the sample represented the children in the 20 families whose ages ranged from four to six during the course of the study; seven children were in some type of day care/preschool for part of the day; 14 were in kindergarten; 2 were in first grade. The low socioeconomic status of the families was primarily established through self-reports, with additional validation coming from observable favors such as residence in public housing projects, qualification for Aid to Families with Dependent children payments, and/or the qualification of children for head Start for free lunch. All families resided in the greater Boston metropolitan area, the majority in federally subsidized housing projects. Often, households consisted of extended families.

Data collection occurred through observation of daily life activity within participants' homes. Each family was assigned a graduate student research assistant, of the same ethnic heritage of the family, as its researcher/observer. Prior to the collection of data, researches visited each home two to five times to engage in the same types of participant observation activities they would for the duration of the study. Notes made during these visits were not included in the final data set. In total, observations spread over the course of several months as observation times were scheduled to fit both researcher and family availability. The length of each observation varied according to researcher and family

availability. (M=2,076 minutes per family, SD=706.86). Observations focused on all functional uses of literacy within the home context, defined to include excursion to outside sites such as stores and social agencies whenever children accompanied the adult(s). Researchers noted all activities, by those present in the home, that included print: reading, writing, looking at print, and talking about print. Researchers also noted the participant structure of the event, who was involved and what role each participant played. Researchers also made note of all material found in the home context that were related to literacy: books, printed notices, bills, signs, environmental print on household products, television guides, and writing materials. Field notes comprised the main method of data collection. Samples of writing, drawing, or scribbling done by the focal children were also collected as artifacts.

The average occurrence rate for all literacy events was 1.16 per hour of observation across all 20 families. For actual reading and writing events, the average rate per hour of observation was .76. The range of total literacy events in these low SES homes ranged from a low of .17 per hour observed to a high of 5.07 per hour observed. For reading and writing events only, the range was from .04 to 4.21. The families in this study utilized print the most often as they pursued entertainment and as they went about their daily routines. The families in this study rarely brought their work home with them in a way that involved reading and writing.

Purcell-Gates (1996) identified three clear patterns from the analysis that captured the intricate relationships between children's emerging knowledge of

written language and the home literacy contexts in which they developed: (1) grasping the signifying nature of print and the many ways in which it can function in the lives of people including furthering knowledge about forms and conventions of written language, (2) learning about the nature and form of written language as well as its alphabetic nature, and (3) instruction about written language in school with simultaneous onset of parental involvement in their language. These findings suggest that literacy sources outside of the classroom strongly impact students' emerging knowledge of written language. As a result, it is important for educators to incorporate the multiple functions, forms, and conventions of print literacy within the classroom. Through providing connections between literacy strategies, tasks, and skills inside and outside of school, educators provide students' meaningful opportunities to engage literacy in an authentic manner. The authentic approach to literacy instruction engages students' sense of competency through motivation. When students recognize connections between literacy in school and literacy outside of school, they perceive their ability as competent readers and writer and feel a greater sense of instrumentality. Together, students perceived ability and perceived instrumentality create motivation which leads to greater levels of participation, comprehension, and achievement.

Purcell-Gates (1996) qualitative study of home literacy practices demonstrated strength and limitation. Strengths of the study include collecting artifacts in conjunction with field notes, researchers avoiding initiation of literacy events, and striking from the analyses literacy events which directly involved

researchers. Limitations of the study include: a small sample size (20 families, 23 child participants), participants receiving $200 U.S. as compensation for participation in the study, and accepting only households where English was the primary language.

Lee and Croninger (1994) explored the relative importance of home and school in the development of literacy skills for middle grade students. They drew their sample, consisting of 6.099 students in 377 schools (averaged 16.2 students per school0, from the National Education Longitudinal Study of 1988 (NELS) based on the following criteria: (1) only students with data from their English teachers were included; (2) only poor and middle class students, defined as a family of four with an income below $48,250; (3) only schools with at least 10 NELS sampled students; and (4) students with data from all NELS data sources.

Lee and Croninger (1994) identified their analytic approach as proceeding from descriptive through bivariate to multilevel. The major method used for investigating home and school supports was hierarchical linear modeling (HLM). Lee and Croninger utilized data from the NELS study in conjunction with independent measures defining students (economic condition, demographic information, home supports for literacy) and schools (support for literacy, composition/structure, and conditions). Correlations between the model variables defining students and schools demonstrated the following: strong correlations exist between reading achievement and academic background ($r > .4$), minority status and language minority status ($r > .3$), home literacy resources and poverty

status (r > .3), literacy resources and parents education (r > .3), average achievement and minority concentration (r > -.5), and school social capital, average students absences and average number of books assigned (r > .4). Moderately strong relationships exist between minority concentration and school social capital (r < -.4), average achievement and home support for learning, social capital and average student absenteeism, and social capital and number of books assigned (r > .3, r < -.3). Authentic instruction and heterogeneous groupings are only very moderately correlated.

Finally, Lee and Croninger (1994) identified differences between poor and middle class students. Students from middle class families, in comparison to poor students, make more use of the public library system, have more resources in the home related to literacy, and spend more time discussing matters related to schooling with their parents. Principals of schools where predominantly middle-class students attended described greater home support for learning, more social capital, safer school environments, and use of more outside books in English classes. As indicated by Purcell-Gates (1996), home support for literacy learning positively impacts students. As a result of these findings, it is important for educators to connect and provide scaffolding between students lives as literacy participant inside and outside of the classroom. There was no difference between middle class and poor students schools in teacher cooperation or authentic instruction in English classes. Though urban location, poverty concentration, school sector, and grade grouping did not determine mean reading achievement, poor students' reading achievement was significantly below that of their middle

class counterparts (-2.753 points, SD=.5). Lee and Croninger found that schools receiving more support for learning from students home have higher achievement while schools with higher rates of English teachers absenteeism have lower achievement. Schools in which teachers cooperate and coordinate more and those with more books (other than textbooks) also positively related to average reading achievement, indicating a connection with collaborative, supportive classroom environments and authentic print materials. Higher levels of parental involvement in learning tasks foster higher mean reading achievement. Lee and Croninger interpreted this information to mean that authentic instruction in English classes and the prevalence of no grouped classes lead to social equity in achievement.

Lee and Croninger's (1994) exploration of literacy skills within the middle grades demonstrated strength and limitation. Strengths of the study include the use of a relatively large sample size (6,099) and longitudinal studies. The primary limitation of the study comes from performing analyses on other's collected data.

Mahiri and Sablo (1996) qualitatively explored the motivations, functions, genres, and themes of students' voluntary writing with two focal students (one 15-year-old African American female in the 10th grade and one 17-year-old African American male in the 11th grade) from two distinct English classrooms in the San Francisco Bay area. The focal students were selected from a larger pool of students, two intact classrooms, by their teachers as candidates for the current study. The focal students voluntarily selected to participate in the qualitative study.

Mahiri and Sablo (1996) collected data through: (1) descriptive and reflective field notes from participant observations; (2) personal interviews with focal student-writers, their teachers, and peers; and (3) solicited samples of students' voluntary and school-based writing, along with other associated artifacts.

Through these data collection steps, the researchers noted the following conclusions: (1) many students at the two observed school sites resisted or refused to participate in the majority of in-class writing assignments, indicating a lack of motivation and engagement with the tasks at hand, (2) according to interviews, students resisted work they viewed as unauthentic in nature, which suggests students are motivated by works which they view as authentic nature(3) literacy practices of the focal students fulfilled a number of related and authentic functions in their daily lives, (4) engaging in literacy practices outside of school allowed the focal students to make sense of their lives and their social worlds and provided partial refuge from the harsh realities of everyday experiences, demonstrating a willingness of students to engage in meaningful literacy practices which value their authentic experiences, (5) the focal students identified their literacy activities as providing a sense of personal status and personal satisfaction, (6) both focal students identified enjoying voluntary writing far more than writing for school assignments, noting the praise received for voluntary writing for family and friends in juxtaposition to demands for alteration from teachers, indicating the need for balanced feedback and overall impact of instructional decisions on student engagement and motivation toward writing, (7)

the culturally specific genres and themes written about by the focal students were not commonly seen in their classrooms (which follows the research trend in other studies), and (8) merely incorporating culturally relevant topics and issues in the curriculum does not constitute fundamental change. Fundamental change occurs, in part, with a shift toward authentic instruction, authentic materials, authentic tasks, and authentic purposes. As indicated by this study, students identify authenticity as a motivational factor in learning. When students feel motivated, they openly engage concepts, knowledge, skills, materials and tasks with a goal of learning and performance. With the goals of learning and performance, students demonstrate higher levels of achievement. Therefore, authenticity leads to higher levels of achievement through motivation.

Mahiri and Sablo's (1996) qualitative study of authentic literacy practice outside of academic contexts demonstrates slight strength and various limitations. The strength of the study lies in the author's depiction of student engagement with writing tasks outside of the classroom; however, limitations exceed: the larger study at hand samples merely two classrooms, the detail afforded the focal students creates a space of neglect for the study outside of the focal students' lives, the study occurring within the classroom occurs within two intact classrooms, and the study uses two African American students to represent the larger African American culture.

Garcia and de Caso (2004) included the following hypothesis in their quantitative study of 127 fifth- and sixth- grade primary students with low achievement and/or learning disabilities from 23 primary schools in western

Spain: (1) students trained using the proposed intervention would show an increase in motivation toward writing greater than that of students who received traditional instruction; (2) the written compositions of students with learning disabilities would improve significantly in quality and quantity; and (3) the measures used to assess both students' writing and their motivation would reveal positive change after training. Garcia and de Caso based their study on two convictions: (1) low-achieving and/or students with learning disabilities can learn strategies for producing high-quality written compositions; and (2) if individuals motivate students and make the context in which they learn attractive, they will learn to produce better texts than in the case of using typical classroom teaching.

Garcia and de Caso (2004) utilized an experimental study to test their hypotheses. Participants in the experimental group completed writing performance and motivation tests before and after exposure to intervention, and participants in the control group completed the tests at the same time in the school year within the same interval as those in the experimental condition. The control group, drawn from the same school as the experimental group, experienced typical class sessions. The experimental group experienced treatment in 25 sessions (45 to 60 minutes each) conducted by 32 trained teachers in the final year of their master's program in psychology and pedagogy. Intervention, conducted between March and May 2002, included: an initial session focused on the importance and relevance of writing, 16 sessions provided detailed instructions on the writing process in conjunction with focused planning strategies useful to students with learning disabilities, and eight final

sessions introduced important features of writing genres as they appear in a career setting. The researchers assessed writing performance and motivational factors through a battery of tests. In addition, Garcia and de Caso administered three questionnaires designed to measure motivational factors with writing, as well as a final questionnaire developed to determine students goals pursued with respect to writing.

Garcia and de Caso (2004) identified two strands for results: quality of written composition and motivation toward writing. In terms of quality of written composition, the researchers found that students trained in the process of text composition and motivation toward writing improved the quality of their writing, specifically: (1) although improvements arose in both groups, those of the experimental groups were larger (pretest intervention total coherence is approximately equal to 2.4, post-test intervention total coherence is approximately equal to 3.5; pretest control total coherence is approximately equal to 2.75, post-test control total coherence is approximately equal to 2.5), (2) the quality of descriptions from students with learning disabilities improved markedly, rising from below the control group in pretest to surpassing it in the posttest $[F(1,125) = 16,061, p = .0000]$, and (3) when compared to the before and after treatment interaction on the narration task, the intervention group scored higher on structure $[F(1,125) = 14,750, p = .0007]$ and coherence $[F(1,125) = 13,120, p = .0004]$. These results indicate the benefits of overt, transparent instruction. When teachers explicitly teach students how to succeed, students demonstrate greater learning at higher levels of achievement. As transparent, overt instruction

is part of authentic instruction, authentic instruction leads to greater levels of learning and higher achievement.

With respect to motivation toward writing, the researchers noted the following conclusions: (1) on the attitudes toward writing questionnaire, the contrast of the before-after with the treatment group indicated statistically significant differences on four items [F(1,125) = 5,179, p = ,0246]; (2) in total, attitudes were statistically significant [p = .0102] in favor of the experimental group; (3) across the entire sample, self-efficacy increased with a trend of attribution of success due to ability [p = .0751; experimental group mean increased from 5.02 to 5.56 while the control group increased from 5.03 to 5.04]. In summary, the researchers could not fully prove an increase in motivation toward writing with specific trained instruction; however, they demonstrated an improvement in the quality of writing compositions.

In conclusion, the research provided by Garcia and de Caso (2004) demonstrates strength and limitations. Limitations include: a sample size of only 127 students from intact classrooms, use of solely IQ testing as identifying history, application of intervention by pre-service teachers, while strengths include: random allocation of experimental or control condition, a low mortality rate, administration of a pretest and posttest on both the experimental and control group.

In their experimental study, Morrow, Pressley, Smith, and Smith (1997) examined the effect of a literature-based program integrated into literacy and science instruction with children from diverse backgrounds in an experimental

study of 128 participant students (68 girls, 60 boys; 49 African American, 46

Caucasian, 25 Latinos, and 8 Asian Americans; 28 percent receiving free

lunches) and six participant teachers (all female; 5 to 22 years teaching

experience averaging 12 years) from six heterogeneously grouped

(achievement) intact third-grade classrooms from one elementary school.

Morrow et al. (1997) administered the study as follows. The researchers

randomly assigned six classrooms to three treatment groups: two experimental

groups and one control group. Participants in the first experimental group

received a literature-based intervention in both literacy and science programs (21

boys, 22 girls). Participants in the second experimental group received a

literature-based intervention only in their literacy program (20 boys, 20 girls). The

control group continued their regular basal instruction and science textbook

instruction (19 boys, 26 girls).

Morrow et al. (1997) analyzed data separately using ANCOVA and post

hoc comparisons (p <.05). In terms of the story retelling measure, all groups were

significantly different from each other, with the literature/science group's scores

(ES was 1.1; SD = 2.5) statistically significantly better than the literature-only

group (ES was 2.1; SD = 2.1) and the literature-only group (SD = 1.0) statistically

significantly better than the control group scores. With regard to the rewriting

measure, all groups were different from each other with literature science scores

statistically significantly better than the literature-only group (ES = 0.5 SD),

literature/science outperforming the control group (ES = 1.5 SD), and the

literature-only group doing better than the control group (ES = 1.0 SD).

Additionally, the proved recall comprehension test demonstrated similar findings: the literature/science group scored statistically significantly better than the literature-only group (ES = .09 SD), and the literature-only group scored statistically significantly better than the control group (ES = .08 SD). The reading score and total language score showed the literature/science group scored statistically significantly better than the literature-only group (Ess = 1.1 and 1.2 respectively) and the control group (Ess = 2.2 and 1.5 Sds, respectively); the literature-only and control group were not significantly different from each other. Morrow et al. (2997) identified postest performances as statistically significant (p < .05) with the literature/science group scores statistically significantly better than the literature-only group (ES = 1.2 SD) and control group (ES = 2.7), and the literature-only group performed statistically significantly better than the control group (ES = 1.5 SD). In each case, students in integrated literature groups outperformed those in literature-only groups, which in turn outperformed students in control groups. In addition to students' self-reported higher rates of participation and enjoyment of content knowledge in literature-only and integrated-literature groups, these findings indicate greater recall and comprehension abilities with the use of literacy content, knowledge, and skills in classrooms which utilize challenging, authentic materials and instruction.

In their discussion, Morrow et al. (1997) noted the following conclusions and limitations. The researchers concluded that: (1) integrated literature based instruction is motivating as indicated by literature-based groups reading more than control students read; (2) students in the literature/science classroom

elected to read science on their own more often than did students in the literature-only group; and (3) enthusiasm for the literature/science approach was apparent as students expressed belief that the integrated approach made reading and writing more interesting and increased understanding. Morrow et al. identified two limitations with their study: (1) the use of intact classrooms in stead of randomly assigned teachers and students; and (2) restricted implementation of the treatment due to working within school district demands for curriculum. In addition, the relatively small sample size of the study in conjunction with incomplete demographic information makes generalizability difficult.

In an ethnographic study, Nolen (2001) explored emergent motivation to read and write in relation to developing concepts of literacy and teacher's instruction goals and classroom norms from literacy as social construction theoretical framework. Participants included four kindergarten teachers in three suburban school districts, as well as their students. However, Nolen selected 20 target children at-risk for reading and writing difficulties (lowest five qualifying children from each classroom; below the 25th percentile on the Test of Phonemic Awareness in the alphabet task).

Nolen (2001) collected data regarding task structures, collaboration, and motivation. Methods for data collection included: classroom observations, field notes, teacher interviews, and student interviews. The researcher utilized the software package ATLAS to analyze text documents created from field notes, interviews, and transcripts. Nolen identified general themes of collaboration, motivation for journal or story writing, teacher goals and beliefs, and type of

literacy activity through initial work with the collected data. She also identified

motivational constructs of effort, competence, perceived ability, and interest.

Finally, she looked across the data sources to find connections between

children's interviews responses and elaboration of the kinds of activity contexts

identified in field notes and teacher interviews.

Nolen (2001) utilized three guiding questions of her study: (1) what are the

shared contexts of meaning that constitute literacy-related social activity in these

classrooms? (2)how is the construction of what it means to read and write

enacted within particular activity structures? (3) what do individual children and

teachers contribute to this flow of literacy activity (4) how do the individual

children's reconstruction of social meaning of literacy change over time?, and

she found the following answers: (1) the organization and structure of schoolwork

can influence the saliency of individual differences in skill development; (2)

students literacy motivation reflects teachers' most frequent literacy tasks; (3)

teachers posses great influence over the flow of literacy activity in their

classrooms, as do students as individuals and in groups; (4) some students

began as reluctant participants and progressed to enthusiastic contributors by

the end of the school year while others seemed to be in the process of

withdrawal. Additionally, Nolen identified the following: children's developing

motivation to engage in school literacy depended on what it took to be successful

given the nature of literacy encountered in the classrooms; in classrooms where

reading and writing were used for multiple purposes and supported by the

teacher, student assistance and collaboration, there was nothing to interfere with

student's initial interest; and when reading and writing were narrowly defined and primarily used for teacher's purposes, indications identified that children saw school literacy tasks and real-life literacy as different entities.

Limitations of Nolen's (2001) study include: small sample size in solely suburban school districts limiting transferability; and a lack of information regarding demographic information for participants in the study; while strengths include: clearly described data gathering procedures, identification of theoretical framework, and identifying analytic strategy.

Van Meter, McCann, Wigfield, Bennnett, Poundstone, Rice, Faibisch, Hunt, and Mitchell (1996) quantitatively and qualitatively studied growth of literacy engagement through change in motivations and strategies during Concept-Oriented Reading Instruction (CORI) with 140 student participants from lower income ethnically diverse populations in two third-grade (each from distinct schools) and two English/Language Arts and science fifth-grade classrooms (each from distinct schools:) in a diverse suburban school district in the mid-Atlantic region of the United States over the course of one school year. Four teachers, two reading specialists, one university faculty, and one graduate student attended eight half-day workshops in preparation to implement CORI.

The researchers implemented the CORI program, designed to enhance literacy engagement, and charted growth of students from fall to spring. The researchers conducted performance assessments, in all classrooms, through teacher-led instructional units lasting between four and days. In addition to performance assessments, one graduate student conducted interviews with 20

focal students (October 1993; March 1994).

Though no statistics were tied directly, Van Meter et al. (1996) reported three major findings for this study: (1) literacy engagement of third and fifth graders increased during their year-long experience in CORI; (2) increases in literacy engagement during the year were tied to increases in intrinsic motivation; and (3) increases in intrinsic motivation were tied to frequency and breadth of reading. Researchers' observations of the CORI program suggested the following engaging classroom contexts: (1) observational, encouraging students to initiate learning by generating their own questions from real-world observation; (2) conceptual, with a focus on substantive topics rather than reading skills; (3) self-directing, supporting student autonomy and choice of topics, books, and peers; (4) metacognitive, with explicit teaching of reading strategies, problem solving, and composing; (5) collaborative, emphasizing social construction of meaning and communities of learners; (6) expressive, creating opportunities for self-expression through writing, debating, and group interaction; and (7) coherent, containing connections between classroom activities and tasks across the day, week, and month. Through the use of authentic practices, identified by Van Meter et al. as engaging classroom contexts, students experienced increased motivation and engagement. Increased motivation and engagement are important because they lead to higher levels of acheivement.

Like all studies, Van Meter et al. (1996) demonstrated limitations and strengths within their study. Self identified limitations of the study include: no attempt to compare the patterns of change in CORI classrooms to change in

control or comparison classrooms, no attempt to identify which dimensions of the complex classroom environment were more or less influential in promoting engagements, and no attempt to describe all aspects of literacy engagement they believed important to literacy growth. Strengths of the study include: quantitative and qualitative study in order to assure that the conclusions about the growth of literacy engagement were warranted for the population and exemplify group trends; and explicit connections to previous research which demonstrated similar or opposing patterns.

In summary, authentic literacy practices influence students' perceptions toward motivation and higher levels of achievement. Authentic literacy practices influence students' perceptions through: assessment tools, creating a sense of self-efficacy, classroom environment, feedback, organization and structure, selected materials, and selected tasks (Garcia and de Caso, 2004; Myers, 1992; Nolen, 2001; Van Meter, McCann, Wigfield, Bennett, Poundstoune, Rice, Faibisch, Hunt, and Mitchell, 1996). Through influencing students' perceptions, authentic literacy practices motivate students by meeting the following motivational practices: encouraging students to initiate learning by generating their own questions from real-world observations; supporting autonomy and choice of topics, materials, and peers; building a community of learners; creating opportunities for self-expression; instructional transparency; and drawing connections among and within content areas as well as to real-life significance, and providing meaningful, useful, positive feedback (Garcia and de Caso, 2004; Lee and Croninger, 1994; Mahiri and Sablo, 1996; Morrow, Pressley, Smith, and

Smith, 1997; Myers, 1992; Nolen, 2001; Purcell-Gates, 1996; Van Meter, McCann, Wigfield, Bennett, Poundstoune, Rice, Faibisch, Hunt, and Mitchell, 1996). As a result of these practices, students demonstrate higher levels of achievement (Bryk, Nagaoka, and Newmann, 2000; Garcia and de Caso, 2004; Lee and Croninger, 1994; Morrow, Pressley, Smith, and Smith, 1997; Nolen, 2001; Van Meter, McCann, Wigfield, Bennett, Poundstoune, Rice, Faibisch, Hunt, and Mitchell, 1996).

Summary

Chapter three reviewed research about instructional motivational strategies, basal instruction, whole language instruction and authentic literacy, with an emphasis on student comprehension and achievement. The purpose of the research review was to identify how the use of authentic print literacy in secondary classrooms affects students' motivation for learning. The research in the instructional motivation section indicated that challenge, curiosity, autonomy, recognition, real-life contexts, challenging tasks, orientation-goals, perceived ability, perceived learning environment, and prior knowledge affect student motivation for learning. The research in the basal instruction and whole language instruction indicated that: (1) teachers utilizing basal instruction focus on skills instruction rather than contextual reading; (2) basal instruction, integrated language instruction, and whole language instruction are all positively associated with students' cognitive test scores in the early elementary years; (3) all students benefit from whole language instruction with regard to comprehension and conceptual understanding; however low-SES students demonstrate little to no

benefit from whole language instruction in terms of achievement scores for

cognitive testing. Finally, the research in the authentic literacy section indicated:

an ability to incorporate authentic literacy instruction in classrooms across the

United States, a discrepancy in the education provided to students from higher-

and lower-SES in spite of authentic literacy instruction, student resistance to

unauthentic literacy practices as well as engagement with authentic literacy

practices, statistically significant differences in achievement scores (positive) for

students in authentic literacy programs, and teacher utilized literacy practices

coincide with students motivation to engage in such practice (the most utilized by

teachers become the preference for students). Next, chapter four outlines the

summary of findings from this chapter with respect to instructional motivation,

basal instruction and whole language instruction, and authentic literacy. Chapter

four also provides classroom implications and suggestions for future research.

CHAPTER FOUR: CONCLUSION

Introduction

Chapter one provided a rationale for the critical review of the literature. Specifically, traditional print literacy practices lead to a decrease in student motivation toward learning. The inauthentic classroom environment generated by traditional print literacy practices fail to promote motivational factors for learning: competence, self-efficacy, real-life significance, curiosity, autonomy, recognition, evaluation, and social/communicative purpose. As a result, this paper set out to explore impact of authentic print literacy practices on student motivation. Chapter two examined the modern historical background of research related to conceptions of authentic teaching instruction and the great debate between phonics advocates and whole language proponents. This chapter focused on the growing need to establish English and language arts classrooms, which reach and inspire growing diverse student populations across the nation. With the birth of the National Council for Teachers of English (NCTE), democracy in English and language arts education became a more obtainable goal, but as demonstrated, Progressivism was not an easy bandwagon to join. Obsession with efficiency and traditional education placed priority on maintenance of the system rather than conceptual change. While curriculum reform efforts affected numerous researchers and teacher views regarding literacy, the implication of authentic literacy practices remains a struggle in the modern classroom. Chapter three reviewed research pertaining directly and indirectly to authentic print literacy. The research reviewed was organized into three areas: instructional

motivation, basal instruction and whole language instruction, and authentic literacy. Research in the instructional motivation section indicated authentic pedagogical practices impact motivation for learning through: teaching persona, classroom environment, materials, activities, and assessments. Results of basal instruction and whole language instruction helped define authentic tasks, practices which create authenticity, and the effects of authenticity on achievement scores. Additionally, research regarding basal instruction and whole language instruction indicated authentic practices and authentic tasks affect achievement scores through motivation for learning. Finally, research regarding authentic literacy indicated authentic literacy practices influence students' perceptions toward motivation and higher levels of achievement through: assessment tools, creating a sense of self-efficacy, classroom environment, feedback, organization, and structure. Finally, chapter four concludes this paper. This chapter attempts to explicate answers regarding the guiding question through summarizing findings from chapter three, providing classroom implications, and suggesting pathways for future research.

Summary of the Findings

Through a critical review of research pertaining to authenticity, motivation and print literacy, this paper explored the effects of authentic print literacy on motivation in secondary classrooms. Examination of qualitative and quantitative literature provided two findings which address the purpose of this paper. First, authenticity in teaching increases student motivation. Second, students who

experience motivation and demonstrated motivated behaviors demonstrate higher levels achievement. Essentially, authenticity in teaching increases motivation and motivation leads to higher levels of achievement.

Instructional practices significantly impact student motivation. Current research suggests that authenticity in teaching leads to motivation (Barr and Sadow, 1989; Edelsky, Draper, and Smith, 1983; Garcia and de Caso, 2004; Gersetin, 1996; Hardre, Crowson, Debacker, and White, 2007; Lam and Law, 2007; Langer, 1984, 1998, 2001; Lee and Croninger, 1994; Mahiri and Sablo, 1996; Myers, 1992; Purcell-Gates, 1996; Ryan and Patrick, 2001; Spielmann and Pandofsky, 2001; Turner, 1995; Yair, 2000). Specific teaching practices, under the umbrella of authenticity, lead to motivation. These practices include, and are not limited to: providing meaningful, challenging tasks (Edelsky, Draper, and Smith, 1983; Lam and Law, 2007; Mahiri and Sablo, 1996; Nolen, 2001; Spielmann and Pandofsky, 2001; Turner, 1995; Van Meter et al., 1996; Yair, 2000); providing real-life significance (Edelsky, Draper, and Smith, 1983; Lam and Law, 2007; Langer, 1984, 1998, 2001; Lee and Croninger, 1994; Mahiri and Sablo, 1996; Purcell-Gates, 1996; Ryan and Patrick, 2001; Van Meter et al., 1996; Yair, 2000); developing students sense competence and efficacy (Edelsky, Draper, and Smith, 1983; Hardre, Crowson, Debacker, and White, 2007; Lam and Law, 2007; Langer, 1998; Lee and Croninger, 1994; Mahiri and Sablo, 1996; Myers, 1992; Ryan and Patrick, 2001; Van Meter et al., 1996; Yair, 2000); utilizing genuine classroom materials (Edelsky, Draper, and Smith, 1983; Lam and Law, 2007; Langer, 1998; Lee and Croninger, 1994; Mahiri and Sablo, 1996;

Nolen, 2001; Ryan and Patrick, 2001; Spielmann and Pandofsky, 2001; Van Meter et al., 1996; Yair, 2000); activating students' prior knowledge (Edelsky, Draper, and Smith, 1983; Lam and Law, 2007; Langer, 1984, 1998, 2001; Lee and Croninger, 1994; Purcell-Gates, 1996; Ryan and Patrick, 2001; Van Meter, McCan, Wigfield, Bennett, Poundstound, Rice, Faibisch, Hunt, and Mitchell, 1996; Yair, 2000); creating explicit connections within concepts, in other content areas and to contexts outside of the classroom (Edelsky, Draper, and Smith, 1983; Langer, 1998, 2001; Nolen, 2001; Purcell-gates, 1996; Van Meter, McCan, Wigfield, Bennett, Poundstound, Rice, Faibisch, Hunt, and Mitchell, 1996; Yair, 2000); and integrating students' personal lives into curriculum (Edelsky, Draper, and Smith, 1983; Lam and Law, 2007; Langer, 1998, 2001; Lee and Croninger, 1994; Mahiri and Sablo, 1996; Ryan and Patrick, 2001; Van Meter et al., 1996; Yair, 2000). Authenticity in teaching motivates students through activating students sense of perceived ability and perceived instrumentality (Edelsky, Draper, and Smith, 1983; Hardre, Crowson, Deback, and White, 2007; Lam and Law, 2007; Langer, 1998; Mahiri and Sablo, 1994; Van Meter et al., 1996), which in return affects student achievement.

Motivation significantly impacts student achievement. Current research suggests that increases in motivation lead to increases in achievement (Appleebee, Langer, Nystrand, and Gamoran, 2003; Berkel and Schmidt, 2000; Bryk, Nagaoka, and Newmann, 200; Ferrer-Caja and Weiss, 2002; Garcia and de Caso, 2004; Gerstein, 1996; Lam and Law, 2007; Langer, 2001; Langer, Bartolome, Vasquez, and Lucas, 1990; Morrow, Pressley, Smith, and Smith,

1997; Newmann, Marks, and Gamoran, 1996; Purcell-Gates, McIntyre, and Freppon, 1995; Stahl and Miller, 1989; Turner, 1995; Van Meter et al., 1996; Xue and Meisels, 2004). The research identified increases in achievement related to: self-reported measures (Berkel and Schmidt, 2000; Lam and Law, 2007; Ferrer-Caja and Weiss, 2002; Myers, 1992; Turner, 1995); direct cognitive testing (Applebee, Langer, Nystrand, and Gamoran, 2003; Bryk, Nagaoka, and Newmann, 2000; Garcia and de Caso, 2004; Morrow, Pressley, Smith and Smith, 1997; Newmann, Marks, and Gamoran, 1996; Stahl and Miller, 1989; Turner, 1995); trends of school improvement on standardized testing (Langer, 2001); improved comprehension (Langer, Bartolome, Vasquez, and Lucas, 1990; Newmann, Marks, and Gamoran, 1996; Purcell-Gates, McIntyre, and Freppon, 1995; Turner, 1995); and implementation of successful learning strategies (Gerstein, 1996; Myers, 1992; Purcell-Gates, McIntyre, and Freppon, 1995; Turner, 1995; Xue and Meisels, 2004).

Authentic teaching practices create motivation to engage in learning materials and learning tasks which in turn lead to higher levels of achievement. Teachers possess great influence with students. As a result, implementation of authentic teaching practices is an important attribute of sound pedagogy. The following section investigates the classroom implications; a result of the critical review of research literacy investigating authenticity, literacy instruction and motivation.

Classroom Implications

Social classroom contexts, teaching instruction, materials and academic

tasks influence literacy engagement which in turn influences motivation for learning. As a result, authentic print practices are an acceptable means of motivating student learning, while providing benefits to comprehension and achievement (as indicated in the findings). This section details possible avenues for implementing authentic print literacy practices in secondary classrooms.

Nemann, Marks, and Gamoran (1996) advocated for authentic pedagogy, providing support for its role, purpose, and benefits within schooling. Authentic pedagogy engages students in literacy practices through providing contexts, materials, and instruction that satisfy the following motivational variables: providing challenging tasks which create cognitive tension and stimulate curiosity, establishing the importance of learning goals rather than performance goals, ensuring the use of real-life significance in materials and activities, granting students choice and autonomy, establishing explicit connections between tasks, materials and real-life attributes related therein, and supporting students perceived competence through useful and specific feedback for improvement (Applebee, Langer, Nystrand and Gamoran, 2003; Crowson, Debacker and White, 2007; Lam and Law, 2007; Langer, Bartolome, Vasquez and Lucas, 1990; Nemann, Marks and Gamoran, 1996; Patrick and Ryan, 2001; Spielmann and Pandofsky, 2001; Yair, 2000).

Educators have the opportunity to motivate student learning through implementing authentic print literacy practices in their classrooms on a daily basis (Bryk, Nagaoka and Newmann, 2000.) Teachers provide challenges that create cognitive tension and stimulate curiosity when their materials, activities,

and learning objectives access higher cognitive demands such as: analysis, synthesis, and evaluation. In order to establish the importance of learning goals rather than performance goals, teachers must work diligently and with consistency to place emphasis on learning errors as opportunities for growth, rather than mistakes. Additionally, they must place emphasis on a goal of learning growth rather than producing polished pieces (performance goals). Ensuring the use of real-life significance in materials occurs when teacher use trade-books, student-authored work, and the like instead of textbooks and sources removed from students everyday lives. Likewise, real-life significant activities occur through publishing opportunities which reach a greater audience than the teacher and purpose of a grade. Teachers provide students choice and autonomy when they co-create and modify curricula with students in order to meet their learning needs. Teachers create connections for students through explicitly tying together the nature, purpose, outcome, and real-life significance of materials and activities for students, and feedback that establishes students strengths in conjunction with areas of growth and pathways for change bolster students sense of competency through providing positive and critical feedback with opportunities for change.

While each of the aforementioned factors positively impact student motivation toward literacy, a classroom, which thoroughly integrates each attribute into an authentic social environment, provides the opportunity for greater change. Such opportunities call on highly specific planning and implementation of authentic: instruction, materials, tasks and purposes, which meet the previously

mentioned motivational criteria. For example, authentic instruction often begins with open dialogue between teacher and students. In this dialogue, the teacher actively works to understand students' needs in conjunction with their desires, specifically their interests within the field of literacy. From specific interests at the whole-group, small-group, pair and individual level, teachers may establish tasks and purposes which serve real-life significance, such as: letter writing campaigns to the local newspaper or government official, student generated performance pieces enacted outside of the classroom for the greater community and student generated materials, such as posters, stickers, and pamphlets, to be distributed within the school community as well as the larger social community surrounding the school, which speak to specific student interests: local opportunities for positively affecting climate change, the truth about Gay/Lesbian/Bisexual/Transgendered/Questioning rights at the state and federal level, examination of power, privilege and difference within immediate, local, and global contexts, etcetera. Finally, providing students with reasonable, accessible, and relative materials regarding their areas of interest, which would be used by professionals and non-professionals in the larger community outsides of school.

In addition to the means through which authentic pedagogy will motivate students, chapter three discussed the importance of authentic pedagogy. In terms of authentic print literacy, authentic instruction, and authentic intellectual work, the review of research indicated: authentic pedagogy improves authentic academic performance for students at all grade levels, authentic pedagogy provides opportunities for equity in instruction and achievement, authentic

literacy practices in problem based learning and whole language approaches

create deeper conceptual understanding about how reading and writing work

within the traditional need for skills, teachers engaging in authentic pedagogy

practices note higher rates of student participation and engagement, whole

language instruction (often incorporating authentic pedagogy) produces stronger

measures of reading comprehension for higher-functioning and middle class

students in addition to creating more motivated behaviors, authentic materials

and activities allow student to make sense of their lives and social works outside

of the context of school and provide a sense of personal status and satisfaction,

and teachers possess the power to influence student motivation toward literacy

tasks (Barr and Sadow, 1989; Jeynes and Little, 2000; Marks and Gamoran,

1996; Newmann, Mahiri and Sablo, 1996; Nolen, 2001; Paterson, Henry, O'quin,

Ceprano and Blue, 2003; Stahl and Miller, 1989; Turner, 1995), hence the

significance of providing implications for classroom practice.

Suggestions for Future Research

Overall, the body of professional research reviewed in chapter three

demonstrates particular limitations with regard to research design and

populations studies. First, the majority of research available for review was

qualitative in nature. Because the nature of authentic print literacy practices tend

to come from a social-constructivist theoretical framework, so does the research

and as such the majority is conducted through qualitative, rather than

quantitative, study. Within the quantitative data in this study, there is a distinct

lack of quasi-experimental research. Additionally, the majority of quantitative

research easily accessible through research databases tended to be meta-analyses. Second, suburban and urban school districts were sampled more frequently than rural school districts in this research. In addition to this challenge in terms of demographics, elementary grade levels were the most frequently sampled, with undergraduate college students following closely. The target population of this paper, secondary school students, is vastly underrepresented in this paper as well as within the research. While the researcher attempted to draw from growingly diverse communities with regard to race/ethnicity and socioeconomic status, the majority of participants in the research were Caucasian and of middle-class socioeconomic status. Additionally, there is a lack of research addressing authentic print literacy and a lack of research addressing motivation in secondary education. An attempt to address the effects of authentic print literacy on motivation in secondary grades resulted in the application of studies focused in the primary grades toward middle and high school students. As a result, the Spanish study, one of few studies incorporated middle level students, and primary grade studies became relevant to the secondary audience due to a lack of research material. In conjunction, these attributes make generalizability/transferability with any degree of certainty difficult; however, future research will provide opportunities to eradicate this difficulty.

Future research regarding authentic print literacy and learning motivation should work to curtail these limitations. This may occur through: (1) researchers engaging in substantially more quantitative study; (2) researchers utilizing quasi-

experimental studies as deemed necessary by the No Child Left Behind Act; (3) expanding research demographics to include students, teachers, classrooms, and districts primarily from rural areas, but also in urban settings; (4) expanding the research demographics to include students focused at the middle- and high-school grade levels; and (5) sampling populations from racially/ethnically diverse communities. In addition, much of the research reviewed in chapter three utilized substantially small sample population sizes. Future research would benefit from sampling substantially larger populations, at least 1,000, to establish results with greater levels of reliability and generalizability.

As a result of these holes in current research, I suggest a longitudinal, quasi-experimental research design investigating the effects of authenticity in teaching on achievement. The quasi-experimental research design would utilize a comparison group pre-test/post-test design. Comparison groups would include teachers and students working in classroom designated as: authentic, inauthentic, and a mixture of both. Ideally, the total number of participants participating in the study would exceed 1,000 with approximately equal distribution of participants within each comparison group. Additionally, participants should be equally distributed across: age, class, gender, location, and race. Pre-tests would account for history through collection of students' achievement scores as measured by standardized measure and direct cognitive testing. Post-tests would account for affects of experimentation through standardized measure and direct cognitive testing. The use of standardized measures is important because it fills a gap in available research as the research

examined with respect to authentic print literacy instruction is overwhelmingly qualitative. Data would primarily be collected through: achievement pre and post test scores, observation of teacher behaviors, observation of student behaviors, as well as video, voice and written recordings of observations. Data would be analyzed by research observers as well as third-parties to account for potential impact as a result of involvement in the study by research observers/designers.

Summary

The purpose of this paper was to explore the effects of authentic print literacy on motivation in secondary classrooms. To support the purpose of this paper, chapter one attempted to justify a need for examining the effects of authentic print literacy on motivation by addressing related education issues. An idealized portrait of literacy depicts reading and writing as literacy tasks which come easily to anyone willing to invest a minimal amount of time and effort. Unfortunately, this depiction is far from truth for many students developing their literacy abilities. As a result of in authenticity in literacy education, teachers subject students to traditional practices which inhibit motivation and engagement with literacy materials and literacy tasks. The use of traditional practices is not without merit. As examined in chapter two, traditional phonics-approach instruction positively impacts student achievement during the years of emergent literacy; however, the monotonous focus on skills-based learning outside of meaningful contexts inhibits motivation for developing a loving, meaningful relationship with literacy.

Motivational research suggests an ability to impact students' willingness to

engage in meaningful literacy practices. This research suggest competence and efficacy belief structures, purpose for task completion, and social purposes for learning affect motivation in literacy (Bruning and Horn, 2007; Guthrie and Wigfield, 1997; Lam and Law, 2007). When students do not feel competent, capable and supported, they disengage from learning activities in order to avoid the potential social stigma attached to errors as mistakes rather than learning opportunities. As a result, teaching practices should provide students with a sense of self-efficacy, ability, and instrumentality. Through the creation of a classroom environment which nurtures functional beliefs about literacy activities, students move away from disengagement and toward motivated behaviors.

Motivational theorists Bruning and Horn (2000) suggested a number of means through which to motivate participation in literacy tasks: challenging tasks, ensure real-life significance in their learning activities, stimulate their curiosity, grant them autonomy, recognize their efforts, and give them useful feedback for improvement. These means, as well as others, are integral parts of authentic teaching practices. As motivational research indirectly identified authentic teaching practices as positively impacting motivation, this paper set out to examine the effects of authentic print literacy on motivation.

In order to develop a connection between question and context, chapter two briefly examined historical issues related to authentic print literacy. Chapter two began with a historical examination of conceptions of authenticity in teaching. As authenticity is an under examined field in research literature, the history of authentic teaching followed a progression from the 1970's to current conceptions.

Initially, scholars viewed authenticity in teaching as the portrayal of teachers as real-people. In essence, teaching practice was authentic if teachers were truly themselves in the classroom. During the 1980's and 1990's, conceptions of authenticity shifted to incorporate students. As a result, emphasis shifted from teachers individualistic perspective of self toward enriching classroom environments enhancing students individualistic perspectives of self. Recently, the shift came to incorporate the use of authentic materials and authentic tasks in conjunction with the growing demand for practices which authentic students as academic and personal beings in the classroom. After an examination of authenticity, chapter two progressed to recount modern historical issues related to authentic print literacy through the examination of research related to phonics instruction and whole-language instruction. Both phonics advocates and whole-language proponents work vigorously to offer students the most useful education possible. As both sides approach learning from different theoretical backgrounds and both sides are supported by research which suggests positive effects and limitations, a great debate continues about which approach constituted best practices. However, current research suggests a continuum for basal-approach and whole-language approach in which a middle ground might be the optimal literacy learning environment.

On developing an understanding of related historical issues, chapter three critically examined the research literature of instructional motivation, basal instruction, whole language instruction, and authentic instruction. Initial findings from instructional motivation suggested teaching significantly impacts motivation.

Then findings from basal instruction and whole language identified the impact of motivation on literacy achievement. Next authentic instruction findings indicated the impact of authentic instruction on motivation. Cumulative findings of the study suggest authentic instruction leads to motivation and motivation leads to higher levels of achievement.

Finally, chapter four addressed implications from findings of the literature review. Because teaching practices significantly impact students, the application of best practices is a professional responsibility held by all teachers. As a result of the findings of this review, I suggest the use of authentic teaching practices in literacy classrooms as well as across all content areas. Authentic pedagogy engages students in literacy practices through providing contexts, materials, and instruction that satisfy motivational factors: providing challenging tasks which create cognitive tension and stimulate curiosity, establishing the importance of learning goals rather than performance goals, ensuring the use of real-life significance in materials and activities, granting students choice and autonomy, establishing explicit connections between tasks, materials and real-life attributes related therein, and supporting students perceived competence through useful and specific feedback for improvement (Applebee, Langer, Nystrand and Gamoran, 2003; Crowson, Debacker and White, 2007; Lam and Law, 2007; Langer, Bartolome, Vasquez and Lucas, 1990; Nemann, Marks and Gamoran, 1996; Patrick and Ryan, 2001; Spielmann and Pandofsky, 2001; Yair, 2000). Educators have the opportunity to motivate student learning through implementing authentic print literacy practices in their classrooms on a daily

basis. Because authentic instruction develops motivation and motivation leads to

higher levels of achievement, it is in the best interest of educators to implement

authentic teaching practices in their classrooms.

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