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ABSTRACT

One segment of a larger study (which explores whether secondary teachers and their students alter their discussant roles after being made aware of their classroom interaction; examined the extent to which reading the textbook is necessary for engaging in discussion. Three English teachers and their classes were selected as participants. The teacher with low reading ability students received supervisory intervention, which consisted of a preobservation conference, videotaped observation of 12 postreading discussions, a stimulated recall session while both watched the videotape of the lesson, and a postlesson conference. The other two teachers and their classes served as controls. Observations made during taping, interviews, questionnaires, contest analysis of textbooks, and the students' written work provided data which showed (1) that the intervention did not alter teacher-student roles or patterns of verbal interaction, and (2) that a move away from literal-level discussion resulted in a decreased reliance on the textbook for participation in discussions. The study raises questions about discussion as a language art, a focus for research, and a classroom activity about which teachers' expectations may vary depending on their students' reading abilities. (Attachments include the timeline of the study, the coding system for transcriptions of student-teacher interactions, samples of observation data, and primary and secondary data sources with resulting hypotheses.) (LLZ)

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Discussion: The Forgotten Language Art
Becoming Literate in the Secondary School

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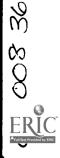
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TO THE EDUCATIONAL RESOURCES INFORMATION CENTER (ERIC)

Paper presented as part of a symposium, Explorations of the Reading Curriculum of Secondary School Content Area Classrooms, at the annual meeting of the American Educational Research Association, San Francisco, April 16-20, 1986.



Discussion is a curricular task selected by content area teachers for a variety of reasons. Some may perceive discussion as a means of extending the secondary curriculum, as a forum in which important issues can be raised in response to a textbook reading assignment. Others may perceive discussion as an opportunity for identifying and clarifying students' misconceptions, while still others may view it as a way of checking on who did or did not read the assigned material. For whatever the reason, discussion remains a popular though infrequently researched curricular task, particularly at the secondary school level.

Posner (1982), in an attempt to outline a theory of curriculum and instruction based on recent work in cognitive psychology, asserted that a teacher's percention of a curricular task (e.g., discussion) is not necessarily the same as a student's perception of that same task. Students' preconceptions, assumptions, and purposes for completing a task color what and how much they learn. A good example of this phenomenon at work in the secondary school classroom can be seen in a study by Davidson (1985). In that study, students' surface level participation in a post-reading discussion was not a valid indicator of the actual learning that was taking place. Subsequent reports by Berglund (1985), Padak (1985), and Wilkerson (1985) have helped to clarify how teachers' verbal patterns differentially affect their students' ability to interact in group discussions of science content.

The purpose of the present study was to explore whether, over a period of time, secondary school teachers and students would alter their discussant roles (and hence their patterns of verbal

17, 6

interaction) when they were made aware of how they responded to each other during the course of normally scheduled classroom discussions. This paper, which represents a segment of the larger study, documents how three English teachers (one of whom participated in a collaborative staff development project) and their respective classes perceived the common curricular task of post-reading discussion. The paper also describes the extent to which reading the assigned textbook was necessary for engaging in a discussion of its contents.

Methodology and Data Collection

The qualitative methodology employed in this study permitted a long term and multifaceted exploration of what life is like in secondary content area classrooms, particularly in classrooms where the reading curriculum is most clearly manifested in the post-reading discussions that follow content area textbook Transcripts of videotaped discussions and the accompanying field notes comprised the bulk of the data gathered. To a lesser extent and for triangulation purposes, the data came from interviews, questionnaires, content analyses of textbook assignments, and students' written work (when it was a follow up to a discussion). A timeline of the study (Figure 1) details the activities that occurred in the three stages of the investigation: the planning stage, the data collection stage, and the post data collection stage. Components of the data analysis procedure included data reduction, data display, verification, and hypothesizing. Although these components appear in a linear fashion, in actuality they were interwoven during and after data collection.



Selection of the Participants and the Site

According to Goetz and LeCompte (1984), a qualitative research design offers researchers the advantage of composing "...a set of criteria or a recipe that constitutes a portrait of the group they want to study" (p. 70). This purposive approach to sample selection also helps to insure greater internal validity (Denzin, 1978). Since the purpose of the present study was to explore changes in verbal interaction patterns among teachers and students as they participated in post-reading discussion tasks, only teachers who used discussion on a regular basis and who volunteered to be part of the collaborative staff development project were considered. Two further restrictions were that participants be nominated by their principal and be at least average in their teaching effectiveness. The particular site was chosen for its proximity to the university and for its successful participation in an earlier study involving videotaped lessons.

Geographically, the study site could be described as typical of rural Georgia and most of the rural Southeast. Although the county high school selected was integrated, a thriving private school on the outskirts of the community drew heavily from the upper and middle class white population. Still, education was highly valued by parents of lower SES standing as well, and the administrators and teachers of the selected high school generally agreed that students behaved well even if they did not achieve up to standard. There were some students who expressed general dissatisfaction with their teachers and the schooling they received. Most, however, found their classes socially if not academically stimulating.



As a lot, the teachers of the selected high school were well educated and expressed a desire to provide students with the kind of basic education that would enable them to find happiness and gainful employment upon graduation. The three English teachers in question were typical of the faculty at large. The one male teacher taught a group of low (reading) ability students basic English. Although all but four of the 17 juniors and seniors in his class had passed the Basic Skills Test in reading, their reading skills fell far below the average for the rest of the student body. Nonetheless, with much help from the teacher, these basic English students were able to read selections from a watered down literature anthology and an occasional paperback, such as Steinbeck's Of Mice and Men. The one black English teacher in the study taught a group of remedial readers, and unlike the male teacher, she depended upon an upper level book in a popular basal reading series as a source of literature for her students. Possibly because of the serious reading disabilities and lack of motivation displayed by her students, this teacher taught with unusual zeal and projected a good sense of humor. The remaining teacher in the study taught English Literature to a large group of average and above-average juniors. The three teachers and their classes complemented one another and reflected the range in student ability across grades throughout the high school.

The teacher who taught basic English was selected as the one who would participate in the ongoing collaborative staff development project. This teacher was particularly suited for the project because he was recognized by his peers and the principal as being the most concerned about the impact his teaching had on



students' learning. His students, too, were well suited for participation in the project because their achievement level, on the average, fell somewhere between the advanced English Literature class members and the remedial English class members. Collaborative Staff Development Project

The collaborative staff development project, to summarize it briefly, was an attempt to involve teachers in a partnership between themselves (the practitioners) and the researchers. As collaborators, teachers were fully informed at all stages of the study as to its objectives and working hypotheses. The major function of the staff development project was to structure a supervisory intervention or coaching arrangement between one teacher and one researcher. This one-on-one supervisory process was patterned after the work of Goldhammer (1969) and Cogan (1972). It consisted of these four components: a) a brief preobservation conference in which the teacher and the researcher (supervisor) discussed the purpose of the forthcoming observation; b) the observation itself; c) a stimulated recall session in which the teacher and the researcher watched a replay of the just completed lesson, discussed points of interest, and analyzed where to go next; and d) a post-lesson conference in which the teacher and supervisor planned the next observed lesson to incorporate the mutually agreed upon changes.

Data Collection

The recursive nature of qualitative research methodology favors the simultaneous collection and analysis of data (Glaser & Strauss, 1967), but for ease of reporting the two will be discussed separately. Because of the study's exploratory focus,



there was no attempt to draw conclusions from the data collected; rather, data collection proceeded with one goal in mind, namely, the generation of hypotheses about observed discussion patterns in secondary content area classrooms.

Videotaped observations and field notes. The basic English teacher's class was observed and videotaped a total of 12 times over a 6-month period. This included a videotape of a discussion which contributed baseline data and one which contributed post-study data. The advanced and remedial English classes served as the comparison classes (meaning they were not part of the collaborative staff development project). As such, only baseline and post-study videotaped observations (separated also by a 6-month period) were made of these two classes. In each of the three classes, field notes were used to supplement the videotapes and to record observer comments regarding unusual or revealing instances on the tapes. These observer comments also served as the bases for the theoretical memos described further on.

Interviews. Teacher interview data were collected informally during the stimulated recall sessions immediately following each videotaped lesson. During these sessions teachers were encouraged to stop the videotape and talk with the researcher about his or her reactions to what was being shown on the monitor. Typically, this information was incorporated in the field notes for that day. Interview data of a more formal nature were collected during the initial meetings with the teachers and as part of the recruitment procedure. For the most part, student interviews were spontaneous and usually conducted before and after classes; e.g., students sometimes volunteered to help carry the video equipment to the

researcher's car or several students might stay after class to talk.

Questionnaires. A 15-item questionnaire that also asked for students' definitions of the term <u>discussion</u> and their perceptions of why discussion is important was distributed to two of the five teachers' classes in the larger study. Responses from these students were assumed to be representative of the student body.

Content analyses of textbook assignments. Because verbal interaction patterns among teachers and students were coded not only for their structural functions but for their relationship to the text as well, it was necessary to read each textbook assignment prior to coding a transcribed videotape. Consequently, all textbook chapters or trade paperbacks that were used in a lesson were collected.

Students' written work. Occasinally the basic English teacher gave students a written assignment to complete immediately following a class discussion. When this occurred, the teacher saved the papers for the researcher. The contents of the papers were then analyzed for evidence of the discussion's influence on students' thinking about what they had read.

Data Analysis

Data reduction. Selecting from the raw data and abstracting what was selected was a continuous process that began with the transcription of field notes. The field notes, in turn, provided a focus when it was time to simplify the vast array of information contained in the transcribed videotapes. (The transcription of the videotapes was in itself a three-step procedure that consisted of editing the typed rough draft by reviewing the tape, matching



speakers with names from the seating charts provided by the teachers, and proofing the final copy of the transcript for errors.) The simplification of data contained in the videotape transcriptions involved rereading an entire transcript several times to determine which of several sections were most representative of the tape as a whole. Those sections were then coded using a system (see Figure 2) derived from procedures used in previous research in sociolinguistics (Cherry, 1978), in educational anthropology (Philips, 1983), and in education (Purves & Ri pere, 1968). The coding system provided a means for identifying the functions of elicitation-response-evaluation patterns of talk as well as for identifying characteristics of the discussants' talk that referred to information in the text. A sample page from one of the coded sections of a basic English class transcript is included as Figure 3.

Insert Figures 2 and 3 here.

Finally, representative sections containing 50 codable units each (see Figure 3 for an example of a codable unit, such as RS1 or LOX1) were taken from an early, midway, and late transcript in the basic English teacher's class. Because the advanced and remedial English classes served as comparison groups, only transcripts from early and late in the study were available on them. Figure 4 contains the plotted data from each of the classes just mentioned.

Insert Figure 4 here.

<u>Data display</u>. Reducing the verbal interactions to a plot helped in visually comparing the common elicitation-response-



evaluation patterns that existed prior to the collaborative development project with those that existed after the project had ended. The plotted data, along with the field notes, interview and questionnaire data, were displayed in narrative case studies for each of the three English teachers involved in this study. These case studies provided a focus in formulating the hypotheses derived from the larger corpus of data.

A further display of the data included the charts that contain information from each of the triangulated data sources (e.g., videotaped transcripts, field notes, interviews, and so on). These charts, some of which appear in Table 1, permitted a visual inspection of the data and aided in the formulation of the hypotheses that grew out of the study.

Insert Table 1 here.

Verification and hypothesizing. Interview and questionnaire data, plus the occasional written products of students' thinking and work related to a specific class discussion, were used to validate impressions gained from analyzing the primary data sources (videotape transcriptions and field notes). As noted above, charts that were developed from this process of triangulating the data can be found in Table 1. Hypothesizing about what the data meant was continuous throughout the data collection and data analysis stages of the investigation.

Theoretical memos (see Figure 5 for an example) were written and saved. Rereading those memos from time to time helped to clarify how the three English teachers and their respective classes

perceived a common curricular task such as the post-reading discussion. The memos, which served to crystallize hunches and other random thoughts, also provided direction in looking at the data from a variety of perspectives, such as the sociolinguistic perspective of reading described by Bloome and Green (1984).

Insert Figure 5 here.

Finally, no discussion of the verification and hypothesizing processes used in an investigation can afford to omit the in_fluence of the researcher in those processes. A public school teaching background that spanned more than a decade did have an effect on the interpretation of the data, as did the researcher's current interest in the role of the textbook in discussion. As much as possible, the researcher tried to make the familiar (the everyday occurrences in classroom discussion) strange (viewed carefully, as if for the first time) and then in reverse far ion, the strange (what was observed) familiar or believable to others (Spindler, 1982).

Discussion of the Findings

The purpose of the study was to explore whether secondary school teachers and students would alter their roles as discussants (and hence their patterns of verbal interaction) when they were made aware of how they communicated with each other within a common curricular task — the discussion of previously assigned content area reading material. We were particularly interested in learning whether teachers' and students' perceptions of this common task would change or remain the same over time, and



also to what extent reading the assigned text was deemed important for subsequent participation in a discussion. A sociolinguistic analysis of the teacher-student interactions produced hypotheses, not conclusions, about the data collected in this exploratory study.

Because of the contrastive nature of the data, the findings are presented in like form. First, the hypothesis is offered. Second, portions of the basic English teacher's narrative case study (see section on data display for source of information in this case study) are presented. Third, portions of the advanced and remedial English telchers' case studies follow, respectively. Although the three teachers were not ranked in any way, it made intuitive sense to describe the basic English teacher and his class first inasmuch as he was part of the ongoing collaborative staff development project. The other two teachers and their classes viewed the tapes of their discussions, but they did not participate in the staff development project.

Discussant Roles and Patterns of Verbal Interaction

Enabling secondary English teachers and their students to watch themselves as they engage in post-reading discussions via videotaped lessons will not alter discussant roles and patterns of verbal interaction to any noticeable degree. Although the basic English teacher set as one of his two goals, "...improved participation on the part of all students ..with less talk from himself and the two talkers in the class," he expressed frustration from time to time at not being able to reach that goal. Despite any number of creative attempts on this teacher's part to increase participation, the students made little movement



away from their pattern of short one- to ten-word responses to his questions. Even when he tried to share the role of questioner (as in the ReQuest procedure), students reverted to their simple response pattern when it was time for them to answer his questions, and this despite the fact that the teacher had modeled several elaborated responses to their questions. Certainly the argument could be made that he did not stay with the ReQuest procedure an adequate amount of time for a change in response patterns to occur. However, judging from the negative feedback he received from the class regarding this procedure, it is understandable that he, too, would welcome the security of the tried and true. Quantitative analysis showed that for every question the teacher asked, he gave evaluative feedback on only one. When he asked a question that brought forth a series of responses, one after the other from different students, his pattern was to ask the students who had answered incorrectly to explain their reasoning. This finding is consistent with what Green (1983) reported in her analysis of teacher-student interactions at the elementary level. Although the person working with him as his coach in the collaborative staff development project provided excellent feedback in terms of which individuals tended to dominate among the students, the teacher found it hard to ignore those individuals. Frequently his nonverbal behavior (gaze, positioning of body) cued the two talkers to contribute, and Margo in particular was adept at drawing him into a dialogue with her while the rest of the class looked on passively. Finally, like many teachers, this teacher found it difficult to remain quiet and on the sidelines, especially when a discussion



did heat up. In fact, on more than one occasion as we sat viewing his videotapes, we were reminded of Holt's (1969) description of the expert teacher in a chapter entitled "Teachers Talk Too Much."

His high school class talked freely, but he outtalked them. However much they managed to say, answering his questions, he managed to say more in commenting on their answers and setting up his next question. (p. 48).

The English teacher who taught the advanced group of students also dominated the discussion but in a way that differed from the basic English teacher. Her acknowledgment of a studer.'s simple response often took the form of an elaboration that was anywhere from 5 to 30 times longer, in terms of the number of words uttered. Among the students, typically no one volunteered to contribute information about the topic under discussion, but neither did anyone refuse to answer once he or she had been nominated. Six months after the baseline videotape had been made, the transcript of a post-study tape showed that there were few changes in the interaction patterns in this teacher's classrcom. Those changes that were noted included longer elaborations by the teacher, an absence of any student response in excess of 6 words, and more chorus-like responses (e.g., several students voicing the same words simultaneously). There were also a few more instances of mumbled and inaudible responses which brought gentle reprimands from the teacher. Of the three teachers, this one appeared to have the most recitation-like discussion, yet she did not view it as that. Because the students made themselves generally unavailable for informal



interviewing before and after class, it was impossible to know whether they shared the teacher's view.

The English teacher who taught the remedial group of secondary school students differed from the other two teachers in three important ways. One, she repeated a student's simple response either in its entirety, or at the very least, the last two words. This lent an echo-like quality to her acknowledgment of students' responses, and while not unpleasant to the ear, it did confuse students at times, especially those who were insensitive to the slightly different inflection she gave to incorrect responses. Two, she did not dominate to the extent that the other teachers did in her role as discussant. In fact, if there were elaborated responses, they were more likely to come from the students than from her. Three, compared to her colleagues, she tended to nominate a greater number of different students for discussant roles. Judging from the teacher-student interaction profiles (see Figure 4) for this teacher's classroom, there were few changes in verbal patterns between the time of the baseline videotape and the post-study tape.

Teachers' and Students' Perceptions of the Discussion Task

Teachers construct, not lead, discussions; thus, when their perception of what the constructed discussion should look like differs from their students' perception of the same task, the resulting discussion will be less than satisfactory to both parties. As Posner's (1982) theory of curriculum and instruction would predict, teachers and students in the present study did not always share the same perception of the post-reading discussion task. In the basic English teacher's class, for example, students



interpreted the teacher's withdrawal from a discussion as an indication of his disinterest. It appeared that a few individuals even thought he was shirking his teaching responsibilities. the teacher's way of thinking, a discussion was the shared responsibility of both himself and his students. He valued what they had to say and prided himself on being a good listener. Moreover, he believed that students should be encouraged to carry on an extended discussion with each other, an expectation that Pinnell (1984) points out is rarely met in the schools today.

Unlike the basic English teacher who viewed discussion as being appropriate in either large group or small group settings, depending on the function it was meant to serve, the advanced English teacher perceived whole group discussion as the only configuration that would give her enough time to meet the state requirements for covering the curiculum. According to Wells and Wells (984), this concern for covering the curriculum is what "...pressures many teachers...to adopt a more formal and didact)? teaching style...with teacher and pupil roles clearly defined" (p. 194). With reduced opportunity to interact verbally in a meaningful way with each other, the students in this advanced English class had essentially retreated into their own world. Consequently, much to their teacher's disappointment, they were content to offer one- and two-word responses during a discussion of Edgar Allan Poe's chilling tale of The Cask of Amontillado.

The students in the remedial English teacher's class perceived discussions to be opportunities for showing the teacher what they knew. In stark contrast to their peers in the advanced English class, the remedial students volunteered to talk. At times they



interrupted the teacher and one or more of their peers to blurt out a comment that may or may not have been relevant to the topic In their eagerness to show the teacher what they knew (cf. Clements & Emmer, 1984; Green, 1983), these students rarely missed an opportunity to help a friend pronounce a word or answer a question. Ironically, the remedial teacher's perception of how to structure a discussion closely matched that of the advanced English teacher. To an outsider the remedial teacher appeared to be concerned only with the development of content knowledge. During the taping of the baseline lesson, fully two-thirds of the post-reading discussion was devoted to defining vocabulary words. Although the teacher attempted to get the students to talk about the new words in terms of what they already knew, this activity would hardly pass as a discussion. At the time of the post-study videotaped lesson, the teacher again demonstrated her conccern for developing content knowledge. This time she quizzed the students on the names of the characters (both minor and major) in their basal reader story. The activity consumed a disporportionate amount of time, and in effect denied the students an opportunity to become involved in a discussion that followed the story line itself. According to one student informant, however, who spoke out a lot in class and claimed to know the correct procedure for discussing a story "...you'll do okay if you know what the new words mean and who the characters are."



Reading the Text in Preparation for Discussion

The less emphasis teachers place on the factual recall of textual information, the less essential worksheets and end-of-selection questions for discussion will be to students case in point was the basic English teacher's gradual movement, within a six month period, away from literal level questions toward questions that required students to go beyond the text for answers which, in turn, could be checked out or compared against relevant information in the text. (Compare increased use of text verification in Figure 4 class profiles for basic English.) At the beginning of the study, students in basic English read short, easy selections from a watered down literature anthology and completed worksheets that prepared them to respond at the factual recall level during the post-reading discussion. However, because the teacher's second goal in the collaborative staff development project was to broaden students' view of the text so that it would be seen as a reference for verifying real world hunches about certain aspects of a story (e.g., a character's motive), he began to give students fewer worksheets and more post-reading assignments that fostered small group discussion and writing activities, which in turn prepared them for the large group discussion that followed.

The students in the advance English class were by far some of the best readers in the school. They prepared for class discussion of the previous day's homework assignment by answering the questions at the end of a selection or selection part.

Although some of the questions were fairly open ended, students' written responses seemed to follow closely the pattern of their



oral responses during discussion -- short and devoid of any elaboration. In fact, frequently the written response was the oral response a student gave when nominated by the teacher to respond to one of her questions. There were no significant changes in either the written or oral responses over the six month period in which the study was conducted.

The remedial English teacher provided students with an adequate amount of time in class to complete their reading assignment prior to a class discussion of the material. On each of the days that we observed, students were discussing the same questions over the same selection that they had discussed the previous day. The teacher requested that they keep their books closed so that she would know how much they had remembered. However, after it became clear to her that the students were not capable of giving the definitions of the new words in the story, not even with the help of contextual cues, the teacher permitted them to turn to their glossaries. For the most part, students read the definitions verbatim from their books after that. Thus it seemed that the text was deemed essential for "discussion" by the students and the teacher, although the use to which it was put (e.g., a source of vocabulary definitions) resulted in anything but a discussion. What was surprising was the students' general liking for the repetitious nature of discussion as defined in that classroom.

Summary

The findings of this study have pointed tentatively to some hypotheses about teaching with discussion. The nature of the study precludes drawing conclusions or implications based on the



data, but it does not preclude asking the question, has discussion become the forgotten language art in the high school curriculum? If not forgotten, has discussion assumed so many different parameters as a common curricular task that study of the task itself is unfeasible because of its undefined nature? Another question to arise from the study is whether we can assume, based on previous sociolinguistic research (cf. Bloome & Green, 1984), that differences exist in teachers' expectations for low and high ability readers' participation in discussion, at least as the task was perceived by participants in this study?



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 National Reading Conference, San Diego, CA.



Timeline of Study

Planning Stage

December, 1983

 Submitted proposal to International Reading Association for Elva Knight Grant to conduct the study

April, 1984

 Notified that proposal was accepted; award given at IRA annual meeting in Atlanta.

June, 1984

- Met with teachers at high school who had participated in the previous year's classroom interaction study (internally funded grant from the University of Georgia Research Foundation).

August, 1984

 Met again with high school teachers to secure volunteers for the present study. Completed human subjects review at University.

September, 1984

- Spent a week at study site talking to administrators and support staff about the project. Also nailed down exact class periods to be observed, dates for gathering baseline data, and the scheduling for 1st and 2nd 10-week sessions.

Data Collection Stage

October-December, 1984

 Weekly videotaped observations, post-observation stimulated recalls, and planning sessions. Transcribed field notes and videotaped lessons.

January-March, 1985

- Bi-weekly videotaped observations, post-observation stimulated recalls, and planning sessions. Transcribed field notes and vide taped lessons.

Post Data Collection Stage

April, 1985 - March, 1986

Scored all pre- and post-test critical reading measures; finished videotape transcriptions, coded classroom interactions; reduced data to manageable corpus; and analyzed that data according to Elva Knight grant proposal.

April, 1986

Completed final written report of study.
 Report results at IRA special research session in Philadelphia.



Figure 2

Coding System For Transcriptions of Teacher-Student Interactions*

STRUCTURAL FUNCTIONS

- L = <u>Elicitation</u>. A request for information, usually by the teacher. A complete correct response is expected.
 - Explicit elicitation. An interrogative specifying the kind of information requested by the use of wh words: what, which, why, how, who, and where.
 - Inexplicit elicitation: A request for information containing a vocative standing alone, e.g., a person's name.
 - LOX <u>Overexplicit elicitation</u>. A request for information that uses declarative, imperative, or interrogative expressions to focus on the acts involved in responding, e.g., "Bive me Example..."
- R = Response. An answer to a request for information.
 - RR Response resignation. An expression of inability to give complete and correct answer.
 - RS <u>Simple response</u>. An affirmative, negative, or list-like response given in very few words.
 - RE <u>Elaborated response</u>. An answer developed beyond simple affirmative, negative, or list items.
- A = <u>Ratification</u>. Siving evidence of having heard an individual's response and incorporating it into the discussion.
 - AD <u>Direct ratification</u>. Explicit acknowledgement of an individual's response.
 - AR <u>Incorporation</u>. Ellipsis and substitution of pronouns for an individual's unit of speech.
 - AE <u>Expansion</u>. Developing or filling out an individual's response.
 - AR Repetition. Repeating all or part of an individual's response.
- # = No Ratification. Failure to hear or incorporate an individual's response into the discussion.
 - #N <u>Rejection</u>. A direct statement of a response's unacceptability.
 - Progression. Giving a correct answer when there is no response or the individual's response is incorrect.
 - Repetition. Repeating one's own utterance when there is no response from the individual addressed or when the response is apparently unacceptable.
- * Adapted by D. Hayes and D. Alvermann from procedures used in previous research in sociolinguistics (Cherry, 1978), in educational anthropology (Philips, 1983), and in education (Purves & Rippere, 1968).



REFERENCES TO TEXT

Limited Text Reference

- 1 <u>Literal retelling, or paraphrase</u>. A summary or citation of specific content of a text.
- Inference. A text-based statement about possibilities beyond that which is explicitly stated in the text.
- Generalization. Statement of general meaning or conclusion drawn from the text.
- ans <u>Superficial analysis</u>. Statements about surface aspects of the text such as its format, length, etc.
- ane <u>Eiaborated analysis</u>. Substantive statements about the content and meaning affecting features of the text.
- Text verification. Reading from the text to find evidence to support or refute an idea posed by self or others.
- Comparison within a text. Reference to another section of the text presently in use; usually but not necessarily a section that has been read previously.
- Reads from text. Reading from the text but not for verification purposes.

Personal Reference

- Personal comment. Statements about oneself that are tangentially related to the text.
- pan Personal analysis. Text-based statements about oneself that are linked to specific aspects of the text.

Other Text Reference

- Reference to other texts in general. Statements that classify, place, or compare the text to other literature.
- Reference to other specific texts. Statements that compare or contrast the text content to other texts that are named.
- otj Evaluation. Judgments about the worth of a particular text compared to other texts.
- * Adapted by D. Hayes and D. Alvermann from procedures used in previous research in sociolinguistics (Cherry, 1978), in educational anthropology (Philips, 1983), and in education (Purves & Rippere, 1968).



Figure 3

(Reading assignments from H. C. Neal's "Who Shall Dwell . . . ")

Phillip: And both of them were white.

ADL; ULT: All right, only two kids?

Rs' Stan: Yeh -- three?

AEJ : T: All right there was a girl and a boy and, but a boy was

LXL out doors -- Ok. What was the one out doors doing?

R\$1 Margo: Inventing samething?

RSL Yvette: He was at the barn?

LXL T: Doing what? Cleaning what?

RSI Several Students: The harnesses.

AR 1: LX1; T: Cleaning harnesses, good! How 'bout the uh, the 2

LOXI children that were inside? (Interruption from someone

outside, no answer given to question). All right, husband

and wife, three chillren. Since you know the size of the

family give me some details after the main action of the

story starts. Uh, what interrupts them and give me some

time details about the interruption after it's made - all

right, Yvette?

RSL Yvette: They were listening 'to the radio and they say' stop bomb

- didn't they say something about the bomb?

AD; LXL T: All right, good, do they give Yvette, do they give them

any time once they interrupt them?

RSL Yvette: 20 minutes.

ØCL T: It took 19 minutes to get there, 15 minutes from the time

they heard the announcement. (Other students interrupt the

teacher and give their guesses). 16 minutes from the time

they hear the announcement. So you have 16 minutes to

take cover. Uh, let's see which of the following items,

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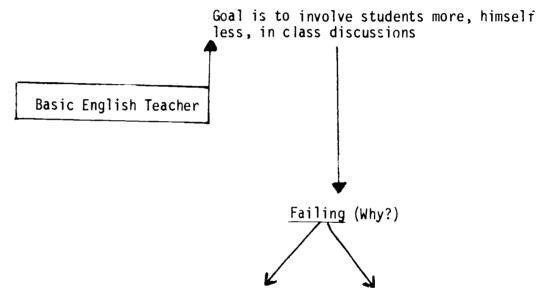
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Class Discussions are
Successful When:

Variety of students respond

Margo is absent

Teacher is dramatic



Two or three students dominate when he relinquishes his role?

Needs the attention of the whole class to "perform," appear lively, interested?



Table 1
Triangulation of the Primary Data Sources with Secondary Data Sources and Resulting Hypotheses

Videotape Transcriptions	Field Notes	Interviews	Questionnaires	Students' Written Work	Hypotheses
Less than 25% of the total number of words spoken came from students in remedial English during a discussion that did not entail any written work. On a day when the students had a completed written assignment before them (in fact, one that had been checked the previous day), over 41% of the total words uttered came from the students.	The basic English teacher almost always has a follow-up writing assignment for the students to do after they have discussed a selection.	Jamie told the researcher that the class had gone over the same worksheet the previous day.	Students generally agree, whether low or high ability readers, that discussions help them remember the material they read.		1. Low ability readers contribute more orally to a discussion on days when they have completed worksheets in front of them (meaning they know the answer and in some instances may have discussed the same questions the day before).
Whe the basic English teacher backed off from the leadership role that he had always assumed in class discussions, two or three students rushed in to fill his place. However, unlike the teacher, they dominated the discussion by going off on tangents, and they rarely listened to what their peers had said, preferring instead to keep the spotlight on themselves.	Sometimes the dominating that the teacher does appears to result from talking a lot in order to cajole the students into responding.	Students believe that teachers who sit back and don't ask many questions during a discussion are really bored, spaced off.		The characteristics of Curley's wife (Of Mice and Men) that the teacher contributed in class discussion were ignored in favor of the students' own descriptive terms (e.g. tart) when they completed their written character sketches.	2. Teachers who dominate a discussion do not nacessarily destroy students' motivations to share their own ideas.

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