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Implementing Writing in Content Areas: Teachers' Perceptions as Writing Instructors

by Matthew Davis Shemwell

This dissertation has been read and approved as fulfilling the partial requirement for the Degree of Doctor of Education in Curriculum and Leadership.

Erinn Bentley, PhD Chair	Jennifer L. Brown, PhD Director, Doctoral Program in Education
Jan G. Burcham, PhD Methodologist	Brian Tyo, PhD Director, COEHP Graduate Studies
Margie H. Yates, PhD Committee Member	Deirdre Greer, PhD Dean, COEHP

IMPLEMENTING WRITING IN CONTENT AREAS:

TEACHERS' PERCEPTIONS AS WRITING INSTRUCTORS

by

Matthew Davis Shemwell

A Dissertation
Submitted in Partial Fulfillment of
the Requirements for
the Degree of Doctor of Education
in Curriculum and Leadership
(CURRICULUM)

Columbus State University
Columbus, GA

May 2020

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DEDICATION

For my wife and the many cups of coffee

she provided to encourage the writing process.

For my children and their many ways

of reminding me of the importance of life.

For my students-past, present, and future-

that are a constant reminder of why I teach.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

Many people have helped me through this arduous journey, and I would not be where I am today with each of them. First and foremost, without the support and love of my wife and the constant encouragement she provided, I would not have endured to the end. I also thank my wonderful and loving children as they provided a constant reminder of what I am living for. Without the unconditional love of my children, I would not have had the strength to see this journey to the end.

My sincerest thanks to my committee chair, advisor, and mentor, Dr. Erinn Bentley, without whom I would still be waste deep in prior research and struggling through the literature review. She has provided constant guidance for not only draft revision but also life lessons. She was patient despite the many questions and emails sent throughout my journey. Above all, I truly appreciate the support and encouragement she provided with every email or conversation. Without her leadership, I would not be where I am today. I would also like to thank my committee for their words of encouragement and feedback that truly made me a better writer.

I would like to thank the participating high school and the principal that provided me with the opportunity to conduct this study. He also provided effective leadership that has left an indelible impact on me. Lastly, I extend a humble and gracious thanks to those who took the time to participate in my study by responding to the survey or sitting down with me for an interview. Thank you for your time and willingness to help me achieve my educational goals.

ABSTRACT

Teachers across content areas have a shared responsibility to incorporate writing instruction into the curriculum; however, analysis of needs assessment survey data collected during Striving Readers Comprehensive Literacy grant application in 2014 revealed that the faculty of the participating high school did not embrace writing instruction responsibility. The purpose of the study was to investigate teachers' perceptions, confidence, and use of writing instructional strategies throughout content areas at the conclusion of implementation of the five-year grant. The researcher conducted an explanatory sequential mixed methods design that utilized a survey, interviews, and lesson plan document analysis. The survey sample consisted of 31 faculty members of the participating high school and 8 interview participants selected from survey respondents. The researcher performed a series of descriptive and frequency analyses followed by cross-tabular analyses. Findings suggested that teachers perceived a shared role in writing instruction; however, the researcher discovered a lack of understanding existed as to the definition of content area writing instruction. The researcher further found a perceived stigma in English language arts ownership of writing; therefore, content area teachers perceived a minimal role in writing instruction in content areas. Teachers also reported that writing ability was a requirement to teach writing; however, many teachers did not feel confident in this regard. Furthermore, despite a lack of understanding of what constituted content area writing, each interview participant cited examples of content area writing strategies and tasks implemented during content area instruction geared toward helping students better understand the

content material. This research study could benefit development of professional learning opportunities for teachers in the area of content writing instruction.

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

Background of the Problem

Writing is a crucial skill that students must possess in order to communicate successfully in a competitive 21st century job market (Arnold et al., 2017; Balgopal & Wallace, 2013; Dede, 2009; Fry & Villagomez, 2012; Hill, 1994; Russell, 2013). Employers, therefore, understand the importance of writing and the value of possessing a skill that allows for communication and exchange of ideas. In a survey of 120 major U.S. corporations, researchers for the National Commission on Writing (NCW, 2004) noted that writing was an important factor in hiring and promoting, and was a requirement for professional opportunity. The NCW (2004) proclaimed that "people that cannot write and communicate clearly will not be hired, and if already working, are unlikely to last long enough to be considered for promotion" (p. 3). Business leaders viewed the ability to write effectively as a prerequisite for success in the business world and a skill that dictated students' career success. Writing is a gateway into the job market and ever present in daily operations of the business world, where "two-thirds of salaried employees in large American companies have some writing responsibility" (NCW, 2004, p. 3). Business leaders acknowledged that the importance of writing in the business world ranged from correspondence to formal analytical reports and understood the skill of writing as one that provided opportunity (Education Partnerships Inc., 2006; NCW, 2004). The ability to convey information in a direct manner shows writing as a useful

tool and critical in the corporate world at large: a skill that is imperative for student success (NCW, 2004).

Writing is important in both the business world and K-12 and postsecondary classrooms in that writing enables students to draw connections between among content to further develop content knowledge understanding (NCW, 2004). The NCW (2004) characterized the importance of writing in the classroom as "not simply a way for students to demonstrate what they know [… but] a way to help them understand what they know" (p. 13). Whereas the product of writing assesses student understanding of content, the act of writing actively encourages development of critical thinking and content knowledge. McLeod and Miraglia (2001) emphasized this connection between writing and content understanding and noted that "writing [was] an essential component of critical thinking and problem solving […] a way of constructing knowledge" (p. 16). In another study, researchers found that using writing as a tool in the content area classroom provided students the opportunity to further develop and discover knowledge of the content while creating opportunities for students to authentically learn (Gunel, Hand, & Prain, 2007). Writing is a critical aspect of the educational system in the form of a tool to encourage content knowledge acquisition and development of critical thinking skills.

Given the important role that writing plays in students' future employability and academic success, many K-12 schools have developed literacy plans or programs to ensure students are receiving needed writing instruction. This study focused on one particular high school and its implementation of a literacy program through the use of grant funding. The study further focused on the role of content area teachers in writing

instruction. Examples of academic content range from U.S. history and American literature to biology and geometry. The participating school district received the Striving Readers Comprehensive Literacy (SRCL) grant from the Georgia Department of Education (GaDOE) in 2014 to improve literacy and writing instruction at each of the four schools and area pre-K programs within the district. In order to complete the grant application process, all content area teachers at the high school completed a needs assessment survey to determine teachers' perceptions of areas of improvement regarding literacy instruction. The resulting analysis of data from the needs assessment survey formed the basis of the school literacy plan and identified key areas of need in that the majority of the teachers did not view writing instruction as their role and lacked a pedagogical understanding to confidently implement writing strategies.

Statement of the Problem

Despite the importance of writing to student success, results of the participating high school's needs assessment survey, conducted as part of the SRCL grant application process, revealed a lack of teacher understanding regarding the role of content area teachers in writing instruction (GaDOE, 2014). The survey "highlighted a lack of professional learning toward literacy instruction across the curriculum […and] a lack of understanding of the role literacy plays in all content areas and a perception that literacy is confined to the ELA classroom" (GaDOE, 2014, p. 3). The goal of the SRCL program was to improve literacy instruction throughout each level and content area within the district. In order to have successful implementation of content area writing and literacy instruction, teacher buy-in, or willingness, and confidence in writing and writing instruction were critical (Atwell, 1984; Frager, 1994; Romano, 2007). Teachers across

content areas have a shared responsibility to incorporate writing instruction into the curriculum; however, needs assessment survey data collected at the time of grant application revealed that the faculty did not embrace writing instruction responsibility (NCTE, 2011; Russell, 1994).

Furthermore, analysis of national, state, and school level assessment data showed a deficit in student writing ability in general despite the importance of writing on the success of students in both higher education and the job market. National, state, and local assessment of literacy scores generally showed that students needed more support and instruction in writing. Researchers for the National Center for Educational Statistics (NCES, 2012) assessed the writing ability of students in Grade 12 through an assessment, the National Assessment of Educational Progress (NAEP), which measures the ability to effectively communicate thoughts through narrative, persuasive, and informational writing. These researchers discovered that 24% of students nationally scored at the proficient level during the 2012 assessment (NCES, 2012). The state of Georgia currently uses a system of assessments, the Georgia Milestones, to measure the mastery of prescribed state standards in content areas from Grades 3 through 12 (GaDOE, 2016). The most recent state Milestones assessment data revealed that 47.1% of ninth-grade students and 51.1% of 11th-grade students scored in the lower two levels (GaDOE, 2016). These data showed that a staggeringly high percentage of students, over half of the 11th-grade students in Georgia did not have the literacy and writing skills required to be successful at the college and career level and required increased academic support. The participating high school data fell below the state averages, further reinforcing the need to focus on writing instruction at not only the national and state levels but also at the

local level. Figure 1 presents a visual representation in regards to the statement of the problem.

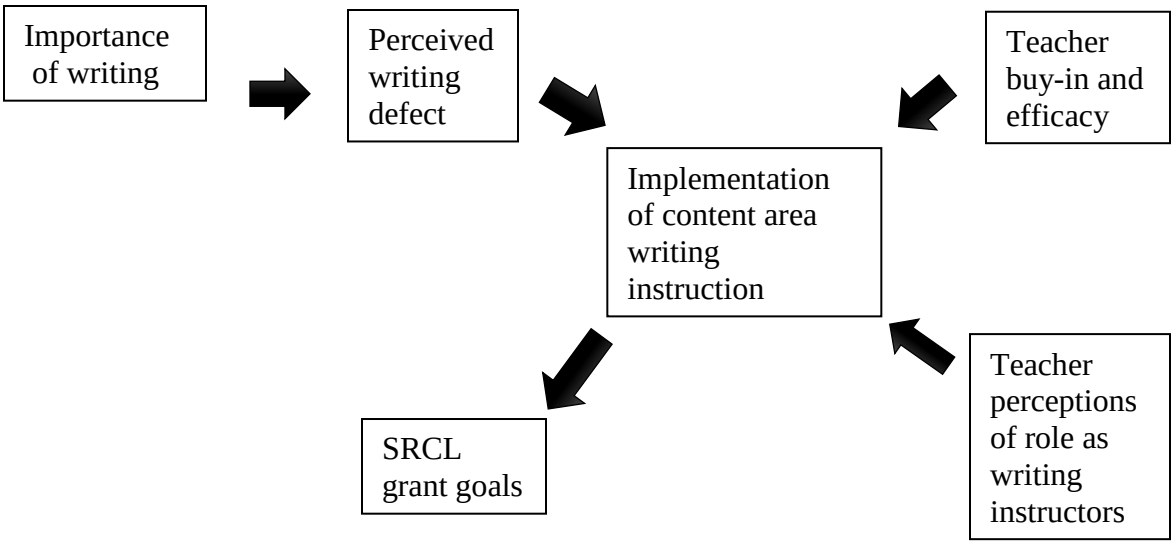

Figure 1. A visual representation of the problem statement. This figure illustrates the importance of teacher perceptions in order to achieve SRCL grant goals.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of the study was to investigate teachers' perceptions, confidence, and use of writing instructional strategies throughout content areas at the conclusion of implementation of the five-year SRCL grant. Through the study, the researcher sought to understand the perceptions of teachers as writing instructors and use of writing instructional strategies utilized in content area classrooms at the end of grant implementation as compared to initial data collected during the 2014 application process. Based on the reviewed needs assessment survey, a clear lack of understanding of content area teachers' role in writing instruction and usage of writing strategies at the time of the grant application in 2014 was revealed. Five years into grant implementation, the perceptions of the participating high school teachers' role as writing instructors and their

implementation of writing strategies in content areas were unknown. Furthermore, the implementation of writing strategies and amount of time given to dedicated writing instructional strategies throughout content areas remained unknown.

Research Questions

The overarching research focus for this study centered on content area teachers' perceptions as instructors of writing and their perceptions of writing instruction strategies used in their classrooms. The specific questions for this research study were

1. How do content area teachers perceive their role as instructors of writing?
2. How do teachers perceive their confidence and knowledge of writing instruction?
3. How are content area teachers implementing writing instruction strategies?

Conceptual Framework

The six goals of the state literacy plan, as determined by the Georgia Literacy Task Force (GLTF), were to (a) increase high school graduation rate and postsecondary enrollment, (b) improve teacher quality and retention, (c) improve workforce readiness, (d) improve educational leadership, (e) improve achievement scores, and (f) make policies that ensure academic and financial accountability (Fernandez & O'Conner, 2016). These six goals formed the basis of the state literacy plan with the understanding that increased writing instruction across the curriculum was an important aspect of the learning process and, therefore, a key component in the achievement of these goals (GaDOE, 2010; INWAC, 2014). The GLTF reinforced the importance of writing instruction across the curriculum as an effective tool to help students successfully convey thoughts, think critically, and build knowledge in all content areas (CCSS, 2010; GaDOE, 2010). Therefore, teachers' perceptions of writing and implementation of writing

instructional strategies are instrumental to the success of district literacy plans and the vehicle to accomplishing of the goals of the state literacy plan (GaDOE, 2010). However, the understanding of teachers' perceptions and buy-in when considering implementation of writing strategies was critical as teachers must possess a willingness to add newly learned strategies to their curriculum. Figure 2 details the relationship between teachers' perceptions of writing and the use of writing instructional strategies across the curriculum. Through the study, the researcher analyzed teachers' perceptions as writing instructors and confidence in implementation of writing instruction strategies in order to understand teachers' willingness to use writing instruction in content area classrooms to achieve the goals suggested by the GLTF.

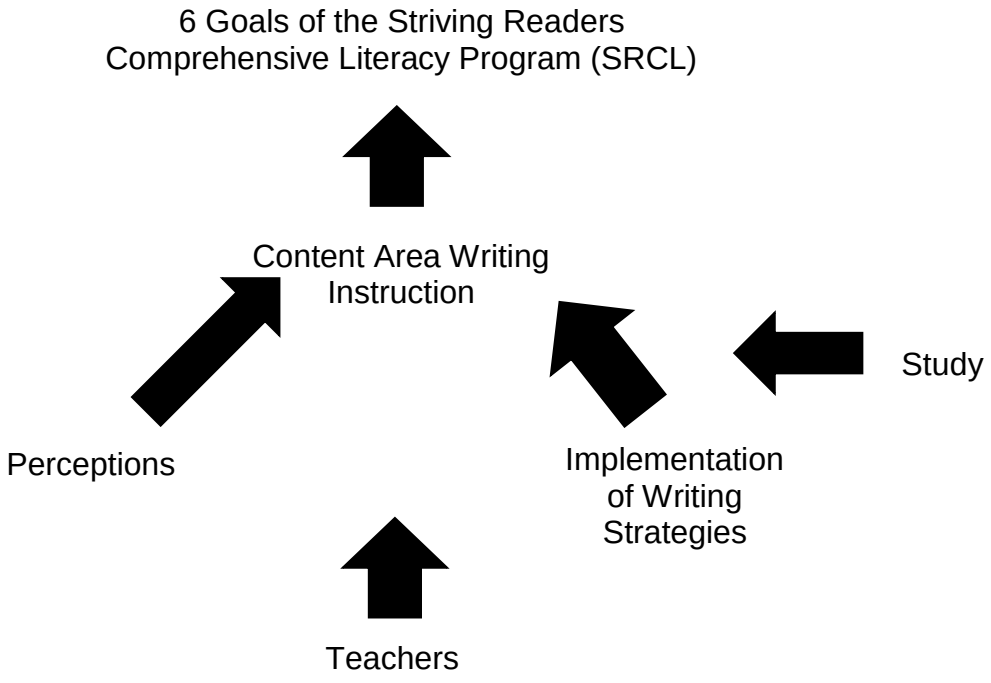

Figure 2. The constructs of the study in relationship to the goals of SRCL. This figure illustrates teachers' perceptions and use of writing strategies leads to writing instruction across the curriculum, which, in turn, leads to the goals of the SRCL grant.

Methodology Overview

The chosen methodology of the study was a mixed methods explanatory design that allowed for analysis of quantitative data in order to inform development and analysis of the qualitative data instrument. The qualitative phase followed the quantitative phase in order to inform and elaborate on results from the quantitative phase (Creswell, 2012). The quantitative data instrument was a survey created using Google Forms that consisted of items from the needs assessment survey used by the participating school during the grant application process combined with items that explored the writing strategies teachers utilized during classroom instruction. The survey was made available to the certified faculty of the participating school through email. The qualitative instrument consisted of an interview protocol that ensured consistency among each interview. These individual, semi-structured interviews were based on the findings from the quantitative phase. The second qualitative data source was teacher lesson plan documentation used to reinforce findings gained from the interviews. The desired sample size for the qualitative phase was eight participants who were selected through a stratified sampling process from each of the following four content areas: (a) ELA, (b) math, (c) science, and (d) social studies. The stratified sampling technique was non-proportional in that each of these five subgroups were given equal representation instead of population percentage of the subgroups.

Delimitations and Limitations

The study was limited due to the possible effect of the target population on participation and generalizability. With 57 certified teachers at the participating high school, a small population size could negatively affect the study due to lack of

participation. With a smaller population, the difficulty of obtaining a high survey return percentage was a concern. The small population size further created a limitation with the non-proportional stratified sampling technique used to select potential interview participants. The size of each content area department provided for fewer possible participants for the qualitative phase. Furthermore, the small population size created an inability to generalize study results to a greater population. Study results will be limited in that an understanding gained of teachers' perceptions as writing instructors at the participating high school will not translate to an understanding of teachers' perceptions at other SRCL high schools in the state of Georgia.

The delimitations of the study consisted of the use of the target population. Despite the limitations a small population size could potentially create, the accessibility and make-up of the population allowed for great value to the researcher. The entire desired target population was accessible due to researcher employment with the participant high school. With the desire to understand teachers' perceptions of writing at the participant high school, the researcher communicated and interacted with the population with ease. Furthermore, the researcher maintained professional connections and was well known to the population. These connections potentially increased the population's willingness to participate in the quantitative and qualitative aspect of the study.

Definition of Terms

Content area teachers are educators with specific knowledge and understanding of a certain academic area in regards to English language arts, mathematics, social studies, and science (Great Schools Partnership, 2014).

Explanatory sequential research design is a design in which, the researcher "first collects and analyzes quantitative data, then the findings inform qualitative data collection and analysis" (Fetters, Curry, & Creswell, 2013, p. 2136). The final aspect of this design is the interpretation of results in which both the quantitative and qualitative data are integrated and analyzed (Creswell, 2012; Fetters & Freshwater, 2015).

A shared responsibility of writing was described as an understanding that all content area teachers were considered teachers of writing and were responsible for content area writing instruction as related to the specific content taught (CCSS, 2010; GaDOE, 2010).

Striving Readers Comprehensive Literacy Program (SRCL) was a federal grant that allowed the state of Georgia, to develop a state literacy team, GLTF, to create a state literacy plan with goals and guidelines to aid districts in development of literacy instruction (U.S. Department of Education, 2010).

Significance of the Study

The significance of the study was related to the unique, singular focus of the target population of the participating high school, as opposed to a larger sample size. The researcher further embraced the opportunity to study a specific SRCL school and the understanding of teacher buy-in in relation to implementation of writing strategies. Through the understanding of teachers' perceptions, leadership could implement professional development at the conclusion of the SRCL grant that targets teacher confidence and willingness to use writing instruction. The current body of Georgia SRCL literature lacked a study that detailed the perceptions of teachers from a specific SRCL school, as teacher dedication and buy-in of writing and literacy instruction across

the curriculum are crucial in the implementation of the SRCL grant. With a statewide macro approach, current literature lacked analysis of a single school at a micro level. The current SRCL literature consisted of three annual reports, which were used to conduct a statistical analysis of SRCL data from the district and grade level. These reports included suggestions of strategies based on teacher feedback. Prior literature also consisted of a case study commissioned by the U.S. Department of Education, which described the experience, implementation, and results of all SRCL schools in Georgia based on Georgia Milestones data. To fill this gap, the researcher focused on a specific understanding of teachers' perceptions of a single Georgia high school.

Many stakeholders, ranging from district leadership to students, could benefit from the results of the study. First, at the district level, through understanding of teachers' perceptions of writing and use of writing tasks, district leadership could better utilize future funds to provide a more targeted professional development program to the high school teachers. Through the understanding of teachers' perceptions regarding writing instruction, district leadership could also better support content area classroom teachers' writing instruction implementation. Second, the results of this study pertained to the participating high school faculty. The original needs assessment survey conducted during the grant application process was used to determine initial perceptions of the faculty concerning writing instruction use in content area classrooms and correlated with the results from this study to determine the degree of change in teacher perceptions. Therefore, the results were of paramount importance to the participating high school and provided an understanding of current teacher perceptions of content area writing. These teachers also gained ideas of instructional strategies used by other teachers that could be

implemented in their classrooms. This understanding could lead to future faculty-led professional development sessions or implementation of professional learning communities within and across content area departments that could aid in implementation of new writing strategies and instructional models. Third, the students could benefit from the results of the study with the increased teacher knowledge of writing demonstrated through classroom writing instruction. Finally, with greater understanding of writing instruction, the community and business leaders could gain the benefit of graduates exposed to a greater degree of writing instruction. With the importance of writing in the business world, community business leaders would have a greater supply of potential quality employees. Consequently, the need of this study was of chief importance to all stakeholders of the district of the participating high school.

Summary

Writing is a critical aspect of both the educational and business worlds and is a critical skill for students to possess in order to succeed in a competitive job market. Despite this importance, there is a perceived student writing deficit characterized through high-stakes assessment scores and student inability to complete college level writing tasks. In order for teachers to utilize writing as a tool that gives students the opportunity to explore content knowledge and understanding, teachers must possess confidence and willingness to embrace writing instructional strategies. Despite the importance of writing to student success, results of teacher analysis of the participating high school's needs assessment survey, conducted as part of the SRCL grant application process, revealed a lack of teacher understanding regarding the role of content area teachers in writing instruction (GaDOE, 2014). The purpose of the study was to investigate teachers'

perceptions, confidence, and use of writing instructional strategies throughout content areas at the conclusion of the five-year SRCL grant.

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CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

Historical Overview

Importance of Writing

The ability to write is crucial in order to succeed in the aggressive business world and the competitive 21st century job market (Fry & Villagomez, 2012). According to a report by the National Writing Project and Negin (2006), "writing is the gateway for success in academia, the new workplace, and the global economy" (p. 2). Writing is a requirement for students to possess in order to communicate ideas quickly, efficiently, and clearly to endure the rigors of today's fast-paced and demanding world (NCW, 2004). This writing is evident in students' real-world need to convey thoughts, ideas, and arguments through both written and oral modes to be successful in an ever-changing and competitive job market. In a survey of 120 major U.S. corporations, researchers from the NCW (2004) noted that writing was an important factor in hiring and promoting, and was required for professional opportunity. The NCW proclaimed that "people that cannot write and communicate clearly will not be hired, and if already working, are unlikely to last long enough to be considered for promotion" (p. 3). The ability to write effectively is seen as a prerequisite to be successful in the business world and is a skill that can dictate a students' career success. The NCW further described the importance of writing in that "two-thirds of salaried employees in large American companies have some writing responsibility" (p. 3). Business leaders acknowledge the importance of writing in the

business world and understand the skill of writing as one that provides opportunity (Education Partnerships Inc., 2006). In the business world, writing exists in the form of memos, PowerPoints, email correspondence, technical reports, formal reports, and presentations (Education Partnerships Inc., 2006). The NWC (2004) reinforced this understanding and based on survey response data, reported that more than half of all responding companies described frequent use of writing through policy, technical reports, formal reports, PowerPoints, and correspondence. Writing is even present in the work lives of technical workers and engineers who are required to produce written documentation and reports once material technical work is completed (NCW, 2004). The importance of writing in the business world and workforce cannot be understated as writing ability is a necessary key to student career success.

With the arrival of the 21st century, writing instruction remains a critical aspect of our educational system (Coskie & Hornof, 2013; Dede, 2009; NCES, 2012). Writing is not only an important skill to possess in the business world but also one that is crucial to student learning in content areas. Kelly Gallagher (2017) described writing as "foundational to [students'] literate lives" (p. 25). This characterization of writing demonstrated the importance of writing as a foundational skill and basis on which students build on throughout their lives. In K-12 and university classrooms, writing enables students to draw connections between content to further develop knowledge (NCW, 2003). The NCW (2003) further epitomized the importance of writing in the classroom as "not simply a way for students to demonstrate what they know [… but] a way to help them understand what they know" (p. 13). Writing does not only assess student understanding, but also could be used to actively encourage development of

critical thinking and content knowledge. McLeod and Miraglia (2001) emphasized this connection between writing and content understanding and noted that "writing [was] an essential component of critical thinking and problem solving […] a way of constructing knowledge" (p.16). Therefore, writing is a tool for classroom instruction that can be effectively utilized in order to connect the content of the subject area with a students' deeper understanding of the material. Arnold et al. (2017) suggested that writing was a key component in students' ability to analyze, learn, and understand specific content material ranging from scientific theories to historical cause and effect. Just as McLeod and Miraglia (2001), Arnold et al. (2017) described writing as a tool in development of critical thinking and deeper understanding of content knowledge. Gunel et al. (2007), through analysis of six studies that related to writing in science classrooms, further reinforced the importance of writing in the content areas as a means of developing reasoning and critical thinking skills. Gunel et al. suggested that writing strategies that "requires students to re-represent their knowledge in different forms, and as such, greater learning opportunities exist" (p. 634). The practice of writing allows students to develop greater content understanding through reconstruction and synthesis of information in order to create a composition. Writing as tool in the content area classroom can provide students with the opportunity to further develop and discover knowledge of the content while creating opportunities for students to authentically learn. Writing in the content area classroom can have a significant influence on student learning and understanding of the content material. The NCW (2003) noted the educational value of writing in that "at its best, writing is learning" (p. 13).

Writing and Learning

Writing is a crucial ability for students to possess to be successful in the classroom and workforce of the 21st century, and an ability that potentially greatly influences learning (Arnold et al., 2017; Dede, 2009; Fitzgerald & Shanahan, 2000). The importance of writing in learning is apparent and cannot be understated, although it can be nebulous (Fitzgerald & Shanahan, 2000). Educators, administrators, and researchers all make common assumptions through observational means about the relationship between writing and learning in that writing directly leads to learning (Arnold et al., 2017; Balgopal & Wallace, 2013; Hill, 1994; Russell, 2013). The International Network of Writing-Across-the-Curriculum (INWAC, 2014) noted that "writing has long been recognized as enhancing the learning process" (p. 5). This common assumption regarding writing referred to when students write, they learn and improve literacy (Fry & Villanova, 2012; Hill, 1994). Writing was said to require students to synthesize content information in order to display understanding and learning of the content. However, despite these common assumptions based on observation and perceptions, little empirical research evidence existed that specifically defined the relationship between writing and literacy (Arnold et al., 2017; Balgopal & Wallace, 2013; Hill, 1994; Russell, 2013).

Many studies have been conducted to measure the relationship between writing and learning in order to gain empirical evidence that reinforced the assumptions of a positive connection between writing and learning held by many educators (Arnold et al., 2017; Balgopal & Wallace, 2013; Dede, 2009; Fitzgerald & Shanahan, 2012; Fry & Villagomez, 2012; Hill, 1994; Russell, 2013). Interestingly, researchers' results were mixed in that these studies (Arnold et al., 2017; Balgopal & Wallace, 2013; Dede, 2009;

Fitzgerald & Shanahan, 2012; Fry & Villagomez, 2012; Hill, 1994; Russell, 2013) found a positive connection between writing and learning; however, other studies showed little evidence to support a positive connection between writing and learning. Thus, the contradictory, or nebulous, nature of the relationship between writing and learning existed in contradicting research studies. Arnold et al. (2017) conducted an experimental study to determine the effectiveness of three different writing strategies (i.e., essay writing, note taking, and highlighting) on learning. Arnold et al. found that writing tasks requiring students to recall resulted in improved performance on a final assessment when compared to the other two selected writing strategies. Therefore, Arnold et al. concluded that essay writing and free recall led to a positive increase in learning as a result of the utilization of writing strategies. Furthermore, Arnold et al. also showed the importance of understanding the cognitive aspect of writing and how each cognitive process related to learning. Balgopal and Wallace (2017) suggested a similar conclusion that writing improved literacy. Balgopal and Wallace conducted a qualitative study with the purpose of determining the effectiveness of writing strategies in the development of scientific literacy. Based on the results of the study, Balgopal and Wallace found that writing allowed for greater development of scientific theory. Both studies (Arnold et al., 2017; Balgopal & Wallace, 2017) reinforced the assumption of the positive influence writing had on the development of literacy and learning. However, Fry and Villagomez (2012) argued that writing did not significantly improve student learning. Fry and Villagomez conducted a quasi-experimental mixed methods study in order to determine the impact of writing on student learning. Through the analysis of quantitative data, Fry and Villagomez (2012) noted that writing did not have a statistically significant influence on

student achievement and learning. Likewise, Klein (1999) noted that there was no evidence, based on assessments and empirical data, of the effect of writing and learning, but conceded that there was a positive yet inconsistent impact writing had on learning. The commonly accepted and nebulous assumption of the importance of writing in learning and the development of literacy are reflected in the contradicting empirical evidence related to the influence writing has on learning.

Positive Benefits of Writing

Despite the lack of empirical evidence that demonstrated the influence of writing on learning, researchers suggested that are definite benefits to the inclusion of writing strategies in the content areas (Arnold et al., 2017; Fry & Villagomez, 2012; Graham & Perin, 2007; Hill, 1994; Russell, 2013). Graham and Perin (2007) noted that "although the impact of writing activity on content learning is small, it is consistent enough to predict some enhancement in learning as a result of writing-to-learn activities" (p. 20). Writing-to-learn activities are strategies that used writing as a tool of learning content, which allow the content area teacher to encourage students to delve deeper into the content through writing in order to develop deeper content understanding. Graham and Perin conducted a meta-analysis using quasi-experimental and experimental research into the effect of writing on learning in order to offer strategies that demonstrated positive results of writing on learning. Graham and Perin found that although the meta-analysis effect size of content area writing was small, (.23), 75% of writing–to-learn studies revealed positive results on writing and learning. Through the meta-analysis of multiple research studies, Graham and Perin showed that writing not only had a positive influence on learning but that the act of writing could be an effective tool in content area classroom

instruction in order to encourage development of student content knowledge. In order to understand the role that writing has on learning, one simply has to observe and would realize "the idea that writing promotes learning and reasoning is still commonplace" (Hill, 1994, p. 3). Hill (1994) argued that there were observational perceptions of the common sense notion of the importance of writing and learning. This researcher further argued a key point in that there should be less emphasis on the lack of empirical evidence of writing influence on learning but more focus on instructional practices of writing as a crucial instructional tool. Hill conceded the difficulty of understanding the direct empirical connection between writing and learning, but suggested that there were numerous ways, such as external memory, that writing benefited the learning process. Writing, therefore, is an instructional tool that allows students to reinforce and understand content knowledge (Arnold et al., 2017).

Russell (2013) suggested that although much empirical data showed writing to have no effect on learning, the possible long-term effects of writing instruction strategies may be of more benefit than simple educational writing assessments. The value of writing on the learning process comes through the use of writing as a means of creating knowledge and understanding of content as opposed to assessment of knowledge. Fry and Villagomez (2012) analyzed qualitative data that described writing as helpful in making sense of content. Russell (2013) reflected this idea that writing was a tool for learning instead of simply a tool for assessing learning. Russell described writing in the same light as Fry and Villagomez (2012), "a means of engaging students with the problems and methods of a discipline" (p. 164). Hill (1994) noted the same characteristic, as writing helped students "identify problems in their understanding or

gaps in their knowledge" (p. 6). Writing is a tool for understanding the content or self-assessing students' gaps in knowledge. To write in a specific content, one must demonstrate and self-assess the knowledge of the material (Russell, 2013). Each of these researchers described that the benefits of writing came as a tool for learning and making sense of content material instead of an assessment of learning (Graham & Perin, 2007). Despite the lack of concrete, empirical evidence that suggested a positive relationship between writing and learning, writing strategies in content area classrooms aid students in development of critical thinking skills and content knowledge.

Perceived Student Writing Deficit

However, notwithstanding the importance of writing in relationship to learning and the business and education worlds, educators, researchers, and business leaders, nationally, have discerned a lack of K-12 and college level students' writing proficiencies, which has been a longstanding concern (McLeod, 2001; Russell, 1994). This lack of proficiency was evident through the multiple writing crises that arose during the 19th and 20th centuries, as Russell (1994) noted that "writing has always been an issue in American secondary and higher education since written papers and examinations came into wide use in the 1870s" (p. 3). A writing crisis occurred in the 1870s as a result of changes that came as a consequence of the Morrill Land Grant Act of 1862 and a shift in the university model geared towards departmentalization and research, which allowed for a wider range of education programs (McLeod, 2001; Russell, 1994). As a result, teachers perceived a lack of student writing ability because of an inability to complete university-level writing tasks (McLeod, 2001). This perceived lack of student writing deficiencies continued throughout the 20th century and became evident in the 1970s. The

decade of the 1970s brought further evidence of a writing crisis and reignited interest in the longstanding teacher perception of a lack of student writing ability in the United States. With the GI Bill of the post-World War II years and social and political upheaval of the 1960s, less strenuous university entrance requirements allowed for a more racially and ethnically diverse student population (Bazerman et al., 2005; McLeod, 2001; Russell, 1991). The crisis of the 1970s created a change in demographics at the postsecondary level, along with less rigorous admission standards, which opened universities to a wider range of students (McLeod, 2001; Russell, 1991). With a wider range of students entering universities, these students entered with a wider range of abilities and needs (McLeod, 2001). The lack of writing ability and inability to complete university-level writing assignments caused further reinforcement of a national writing crisis and concern over student writing ability. The writing crisis of the 1970s was further publicly fueled by Sheils (1975) and the *Newsweek* article "Why Johnny Can't Write". Sheils described the lack of college students' inability to write "ordinary, expository English with any real degree of structure and lucidity" (p. 58) and described the downhill descent of U.S. literacy. Sheils revealed the problems of secondary and postsecondary students and provided momentum and desire for writing instruction reform at the high school and university levels (Brewster & Klump, 2004). Despite the national press concerning the lack of secondary and postsecondary writing deficiencies, students continued to display a lack of writing ability throughout the latter years of the 20th century and into the 21st century.

National Writing Assessment Data

One must only look at current and past assessment data of writing in the United States to see evidence of this nationally perceived lack of writing proficiency and the need for focused and effective writing instruction to prepare students for the university classroom and 21st century workforce. Educator and researcher analysis of NAEP data at the national level and Georgia Milestones data at the state and local levels showed a declining trend of student writing ability. These data further highlighted teachers' perceived decrease in overall student writing ability (McLeod, 2001). Current national research concerning student writing in the United States showed a deficit in student writing ability. Researchers for NCES (2012) assessed the writing ability of students in Grade 12 through a computer-based writing assessment, the NAEP measures ability to effectively communicate thoughts through narrative, persuasive, and informational writing. These researchers discovered that 24% of students scored at the proficient level during the 2012 assessment, which was described as students at this level could effectively and clearly convey thoughts through written language (NCES, 2012). This percentage has changed little since the 1998 assessment with 22% and has remained at 24% based on the 2002 and 2006 assessments (NCES, 2007). Based on these assessment data, only one-fourth of students possess the writing abilities that are required for success in the university classroom and job market. This decade long trend only highlights students' deficit of a skill that is "fundamental in business" and prerequisite for job promotion (NCW, 2004, p. 8). NAEP data also showed that 54% of the 52,200 students in Grades 8 and 12 tested nationally scored at the "basic level" or had "partial mastery of the prerequisite knowledge and skills" to effectively communicate in writing (NCES,

2012, p. 2). NAEP data collected by NCES showed a national trend of little improvement in student writing ability in the new millennium. Over the past two decades, a consistent 24% of students showed the ability to effectively write to meet the needs and rigors of the 21st century, while over half of U.S. students are ill-prepared to write and communicate in the demanding world and job market.

State Writing Assessment Data

This national trend in the deficit of student writing ability was also visible at the state level, as noted by results of previously administered high-stakes assessments. The current study was situated in the state of Georgia, and, therefore, the relevance of high stakes assessment data at the state level was important in understanding the state of students' writing ability. The state of Georgia uses a system of assessments, Georgia Milestones, first implemented in the 2014-2015 school year, to measure the mastery of prescribed state standards in content areas from Grades 3 through 12 and provides students with an assessment for readiness for the next level (GaDOE, 2016). The English language arts (ELA) Milestones have open response questions based on provided texts that measure both the content and writing standards of the Georgia Standards of Excellence. These open response questions allowed educators to gain an understanding of Georgia students' writing ability. The Georgia Milestones also consist of multiple-choice questions that measure reading comprehension skills. The scores collected from the Georgia Milestones are holistic scores, which reflect students writing and reading ability in order to gauge students' college and career readiness. Milestones data analysis draws on the relationship between reading and writing. Milestones data analysis showed a trend that while student writing ability and reading comprehension seems to improve, a

large number of students still lack the ability to communicate effectively at the next level. Georgia Milestones were administered in the subjects of 9th grade literature and American literature, in which a majority of students displayed partial or lacked demonstration of needed writing skills (Fincher, 2016; GaDOE, 2014, 2015). For the initial year of implementation, educator analysis of Milestones data revealed that 61% of students in ninth grade and 63.9% of students in 11th grade scored in the beginning learner or developing learner levels, or the two lower levels of performance (Fincher, 2016; GaDOE, 2014). Students at the beginning learner level "need substantial academic support to be prepared for the next level" whereas developing level students "needed additional academic support" **(**GaDOE, 2016, p. 1). These percentages improved slightly in the 2015-2016 school year, with 58.8% of students in ninth grade and 56.8% of students in 11th grade scored in the same performance level. However, the most recent Milestones data showed that 47.1% of students in ninth grade and 51.1% of students in 11th grade scored in the lower two levels. Despite this decrease in the percentage of students at the lower two levels of performance, there remains a high percentage of students, over half, who do not have the skills required to be successful at the next level and require increased academic support, which are students who are entering their final year of high school and will be headed to colleges and the workforce in just over a year. Despite these scores being a combination of both reading comprehension and writing ability, analysis of the Milestones assessment data showed that a large number of Georgia students require additional academic support and are not ready to handle the communication rigors of the next level, or college.

Local Writing Assessment Data

Analysis of the participating high school's Milestones data, as presented in Table 1, showed a similar lack of student writing ability and a higher percentage of students ill-equipped to enter the university classroom or workforce (GaDOE, 2017). For the initial year of implementation, an educator analysis of the Milestones data revealed that 78.8% of students in ninth grade and 76.3% of students in 11th grade scored in the two lower levels of performance. These percentages changed slightly in the 2015-2016 school year with 72.7% of students in ninth grade and 80% of students in 11th grade tested in the bottom two performance levels. However, the most recent Milestones scores revealed improvement; 66.7% of students in ninth grade and 62.7% of students in 11th grade scored in the lower two levels. Each year, the participating high school has reported above state averages in the percentage of students scoring in the beginning and developing learner levels. The National Council of Teachers of English (NCTE, 2011) noted the importance of reading and writing in order to enhance student learning and achievement. NCTE (2011) also noted that "studies show that reading and writing […] are essential to learning. Without strategies for reading course material and opportunities to write thoughtfully about it, students have difficulty mastering concepts" (p. 16). These high-stakes assessments showed a definite need to improve writing instruction and focus on improvement of literacy. With the importance of writing capability as a prerequisite to success in the job market and university classroom, students continue to show a deficiency in that skill at the national, state, and local levels. Based on Georgia Milestones scores at the state and local levels, a large percentage of students are not

prepared for the writing rigors of the work force and academic world, and, therefore, these students require increased support and instruction for writing (GaDOE, 2016).

Table 1

Percentage of Students Scoring in the Beginning and Developing Learner Levels

	Year		
Test	2014-2015	2015-2016	2016-2017
State Ninth Grade Literature	61	58.8	47.1
Local Ninth Grade Literature	78.8	72.7	66.7
State American Literature	63.9	56.8	51.7
Local American Literature	76.3	80	62.7

Note: Milestones data for ninth grade literature and American literature comparing state and local assessment result percentages of students who scored in the beginning and developing learner levels.

Teachers' Perceptions

In order for teachers to utilize writing as a tool that gives students the opportunity to explore content knowledge and understanding, teachers must possess confidence and willingness to embrace writing instructional strategies. Teachers' self-perceptions of their role and confidence as writers and writing instructors directly influenced teachers' willingness and ability to teach writing and incorporate writing instruction into content curriculum (Bifuh-Ambe, 2013; Curtis, 2017; Lewis & Sanchez, 2017; Troia et al., 2011). Therefore, based on the purpose of the current study, to understand teachers' perceptions as writing instructors and use of writing instruction strategies, the understanding of prior research concerning teachers' perceptions was critical. Analysis of teachers' perceptions revealed two themes among the literature: (a) ELA writing instruction ownership, and (b) teacher efficacy. The theme of ELA writing instruction ownership, as presented in Table 2, aligned closely with Research Question 1, or how

content area teachers perceived their role as instructors of writing (Hanstedt, 2012; McLeod, 2001; NCTE, 2011; Russell, 1990, 1994). Based on content area teacher perceptions of ELA ownership, teachers lack buy-in or willingness to incorporate writing instruction (McLeod, 2001; Russell, 1994). The second theme, teacher efficacy, or confidence, reflected Research Questions 2 and 3, as noted in Table 3 (Bifuh-Ambe, 2013; Curtis, 2017; Gillespie, Graham, Kiuhara, & Hebert, 2013; Lewis & Sanchez, 2017; Troia et al., 2011). The understanding of teacher efficacy related to how teachers perceived their confidence, knowledge, and willingness to implement writing instruction. Furthermore, teachers should have buy-in or willingness to incorporate new writing strategies into content area classrooms despite perceptions of ELA ownership of writing instruction (Ates, Cetinkaya, & Yildirim, 2014).

Teachers across content areas share the responsibility for addressing the deficit in student writing ability and dire assessment results; however, based on prior research of teachers' perceptions, the common belief of ELA ownership, or writing instruction as solely the responsibility of English teachers, was prevalent among secondary and postsecondary educators (McLeod, 2001; Russell, 1990, 1994, 2013). The NCW (2003) described the importance of cross-curricular writing but noted the "near-total neglect of writing outside English departments" (p. 28). The perception of ELA ownership reinforced common assumptions of where writing instruction should take place and the perceived role content area teachers played in writing instruction. Prior research literature characterized K-12 and postsecondary content area teachers' perception of writing as being solely the responsibility and domain of the ELA department, thus allowing for content area teachers to focus solely on content instruction (Hanstedt, 2012;

NCTE, 2011; Russell, 1990, 1994, 2013). Russell (1994) described administrator and teacher perceptions, in principle, that "every teacher should teach writing" but did not hold true in practice (p. 4). This belief is a common thought in education; however, it is not an idea that is put into practice due to teachers' perceptions of ELA department ownership of writing and view of writing in content classrooms (Russell, 1994).

Since the inception of high schools in the late 19th century, disciplinary organization and focus with curriculum shaped by the entrance requirements of postsecondary institutions, which gave rise to ELA ownership of writing (Bazerman et al., 2005). With this disciplinary focus, English departments eventually became the caretakers of writing instruction and responsible for student writing and literary analysis (Bazerman et al., 2005). This disciplinary model also added to the assumption that writing instruction was to happen only in ELA classrooms, thus allowing other discipline instructors to focus solely on content (Bazerman et al., 2005). Further English department writing responsibilities came with changes to entrance requirements and waves of students who seemed to lack efficient writing ability to meet the demands of postsecondary education in the form of freshman or remedial composition classes (Russell, 1990). Russell (1994) further reinforced English department ownership of writing and noted "since the turn of the century, the American educational system has placed the responsibility for teaching writing outside the disciplines" (p. 4). Long has writing been considered the domain of ELA departments, which allowed content area teachers the freedom from complaints of the lack of student writing ability (Russell, 1990, 1994). In an anecdote, McLeod (2001) reinforced Russell's (1990, 1994) characterization and described a confrontation with a colleague over student

writing. This colleague in the history department was furious over the lack of writing ability as displayed through an assigned historical analysis essay. McLeod (2001) recalled the colleague blamed the English department for failure to teach students to write effectively. The assumption of ELA department ownership of writing further encouraged a disconnect between content disciplines and writing instruction.

Hanstedt (2012) reinforced the perception of writing responsibility laid solely with ELA departments, in that "people outside of the English department worry that they might be forced to do someone else's job" (p. 48). Hanstedt described a teacher perception that writing instruction was the job of ELA teachers and for content area teachers to teach writing meant that the ELA teachers were not doing their jobs. This perception allowed for content area teachers to ignore responsibility for the lack of student writing skills (McLeod, 2001). NCTE (2011) further described content area teachers' difficulty in coming to terms with how writing fit in the confines of content curriculum, which added to the ease of allowing English department ownership of writing. NCTE further defined this disconnect as teachers simply do not see how their content area is linked to reading and writing and, therefore, see little need to implement writing strategies in content area instruction. This negative perception of the benefit and need of writing instruction in content area classrooms limits successful implementation of writing instruction strategies within content area classrooms, which could encourage student development of content knowledge. This perceived English department ownership developed as a result of departmentalization of the disciplines, which caused the task of writing instruction to fall outside the content areas, persisted as a result of

content area teachers' perceived lack of role in writing instruction, and led to a deficit of teacher buy-in for content area writing (Russell, 1990, 1994).

With the perceived ELA ownership of writing, many teachers lack buy-in to willingly incorporate writing into content area instruction. This lack of buy-in is characterized by time, ability, and understanding. Secondary level content area teachers argue, because of immensity of the amount of content required by state and local standards, content area teachers simply lacked the time to include writing instruction (Brewster & Klump, 2004; McLeod, 2001). Educators at the post-secondary level also describe the importance of protecting time to focus on content material as opposed to sacrificing time to teach a skill that many believe students should already possess at the college level (McLeod, 2001). In addition to the issue of time, Russell (1990, 2013) emphasized content area teachers' lack of confidence in teaching writing as an important characteristic in the lack of willingness to use content area writing instructional strategies. Teachers who were self-conscious or lacked ability to write are unwilling to include teaching a skill they did not possess. Romano (2007) noted that "teachers who write demonstrate to students someone who loves to think, explore, and communicate through writing" (p. 171). However, teachers who lack the buy-in or willingness to incorporate demonstration of writing as a result of a lack of self-efficacy as a writer miss the opportunity to instruct students how a writer creates writing. NCTE (2011) suggested that content area teachers struggle with how their subjects are linked with writing and, therefore, lack buy-in and willingness to implement new writing instruction as a result of a lack of understanding of their role as instructors of writing. With the perceived ELA ownership of writing, many teachers do not see writing instruction as their responsibility

and lack understanding of their role as writing instructors. Therefore, they lack buy-in to willingly use time to incorporate writing into content area instruction strategies.

Teachers' Writing Efficacy

In addition to the limitations concerning content area teachers' perceptions of ELA department ownership of writing, teacher self-efficacy as writing instructors further contributes to content area teachers' lack of buy-in and willingness to implement effective writing instruction successfully. Albert Bandura's (1977) theory of self-efficacy described the importance of personal belief and confidence in one's own abilities. This concept of teachers' self-perceptions of efficacy as writers directly related to teachers' willingness and ability to incorporate writing instruction and, therefore, required support and instruction in order to implement instructional strategies successfully (Bifuh-Ambe, 2013; Troia et al., 2011). Confidence, or lack thereof, had an effect on content area teachers' willingness to implement writing strategies in classroom instruction based on the confidence in their ability to write effectively.

Teacher Self-Efficacy as Writers

Teacher self-efficacy, or perception of their own abilities in writing ability, was an important factor in writing instruction and lack of proficiency led to a lack of desire and difficulty to include writing instruction in classroom practices (Bifuh-Ambe, 2013; Russell, 2013, 1990). Albert Bandura's (1977) concept of self-efficacy characterized the importance of how one perceived their own abilities to accomplish a task. For teachers, this concept could be applied to how teachers perceived their own abilities as writing instructors or their ability to teach writing effectively based on their own writing ability. Taimalu and Oim (2005) reinforced Bandura's (1977) understanding of self-efficacy and

applied the concept to educators' ability influence student achievement. The confidence that educators possess in their abilities to convey content knowledge relate directly to student achievement. Within the concept of self-efficacy, Bandura (1977) described the idea of instructional choice based on self-efficacy in that "not only can perceived self-efficacy have direct influence on choice of activities and settings but through expectations of eventual success" (p. 194). Thus, teacher confidence can lead an educator to not implement a successful writing strategy simply because of fear of a negative outcome. A teacher's perception of personal writing ability could influence instructional choices. Russell (2013) also noted the importance of confidence in content area teachers' writing instruction practices as inherent in a lack of understanding in teaching writing form. Content area teachers do not perceive themselves as teachers of writing but as teachers of specific content (Russell, 2013). Content area teachers are experts in teaching their specific content but lack confidence and knowledge in teaching the form or structure of writing (Russell, 2013). For writing instruction, content area teachers should be able to teach students how to write in the form and expectations of the teachers' specific content areas. The difficulty for content area teachers, as noted by Russell (1990), came with teacher confidence to "explain (and to some extent conceptualize) the conventions of [the teacher's] discipline and--more difficult still--describe how the conventions she requires [...] are different from the conventions [...] in another class" (p. 56). As a result, content teachers have the added difficulty of instructing students of not only how to write but how to write in a specific content area that is guided by specific conventions and expectations. Teachers, therefore, who do not

perceive themselves as effective writers will limit the use of writing instructional strategies in the content area classrooms.

Content area teachers should possess a positive perception of self-efficacy in order to effectively implement writing instruction into the content area classroom. Bifuh-Ambe (2013) reflected the importance of teacher writing confidence, in that "teachers must feel competent as writers and writing teachers in order to provide the kind of instruction and modeling that will help students develop into proficient writers" (p. 137). Content area teachers must have the confidence and professional development in order to provide effective writing instruction (Bifuh-Ambe, 2013; Curtis, 2017). In a mixed methods study, Bifuh-Ambe (2013) examined teacher attitudes towards writing instruction, implemented a 10-week workshop, and utilized pre and post surveys to understand teacher perceptions. Bifuh-Ambe discovered that teachers' beliefs and epistemologies not only influenced instructional choices, but teacher efficacy also influenced student progress in writing. Through the analysis of survey data, Bifuh-Ambe described that the "improvement of teachers' writing ability and proficiency would in turn improve students' writing achievements" (p. 137). Furthermore, Lewis and Sanchez (2017) also noted the importance of teachers' self-perceptions of efficacy in regards to writing instruction. In a longitudinal study, which spanned the academic years of 2012-2014, Lewis and Sanchez surveyed over 160 preservice teachers and noted a "disconnection between the perception of overall writing proficiency and the perception of proficiency in revision and editing", and, therefore, there is a perceived lack of confidence in teacher writing ability in connection to writing instruction (p. 7). Teachers' perceptions and self-efficacy as writers have a direct influence in regards to writing

instruction in content area classroom. However, professional development and support are required.

Teacher Efficacy, Professional Development, and Writing Instruction

Teacher efficacy in their writing ability has a direct influence on content area teachers' willingness to implement writing instruction, and, therefore, professional development is required for successful implementation. Troia et al. (2011) described the importance of teachers' understanding of writing instruction as those teachers who lack knowledge of writing instructional strategies limit student writing development and are less willing to utilize new strategies as opposed to teachers who possess strong writing confidence and understanding. Zimmerman, Morgan, and Kidder-Brown (2014) characterized this connection between teacher efficacy and professional development; for students to learn writing, they must receive effective writing instruction. However, many teachers not only do not perceive themselves as writers but also feel ill-prepared to teach writing. This lack of self-efficacy requires professional development in order to provide effective writing instruction and student learning. Prior research of teacher efficacy in writing showed a direct relationship with classroom writing instruction and teacher efficacy and displayed the importance of professional development (Bifuh-Ambe, 2013; Curtis, 2017; Gillespie et al., 2013; Lewis & Sanchez, 2017; Troia et al., 2011).

For effective content area writing instruction, professional development is required to improve teachers' writing efficacy, perceptions of writing, and use of writing instructional strategies (Gillespie et al., 2013). Atwell (1984) characterized the importance of professional development through experience and noted "up until three years ago, nobody wrote much of anything at my school. Nobody wrote because nobody

taught writing. Nobody taught writing because nobody was trained to teach writing" (p. 240). In order to teach writing, a teacher must have confidence in his or her writing ability and willingness to utilize writing strategies during instruction. Professional development is critical in developing teacher ability and confidence in writing. In a year-long study of six elementary school teachers who received professional development in writing instruction, Troia et al. (2011) found that "teachers who possessed a relatively strong sense of general teaching efficacy tended to use more instructional adaptions for struggling writers" and, therefore, reinforced the importance of teacher writing efficacy to improve writing instruction and student writing ability (p. 177). Troia et al. drew the connection between the need for professional development in order to improve teachers' efficacy in writing and, in turn, improve writing instruction. Likewise, Curtis (2017) described the importance of professional development through modeling in improving writing instruction through improvement of teacher self-efficacy. In a study of two kindergarten teachers, Curtis researched the effect of professional development through the use of a literacy coach modeling writing instructional strategies on perceptions, knowledge, and efficacy of teacher writing ability and instruction. Through survey data, Curtis noted that "modeling specific writing strategies over a period of time did have a positive impact on teachers and their ability to teach writing" (p. 24). Similarly, through analysis of survey data, Gillespie et al. (2013) found that the use of writing strategies to support student learning was directly related to teachers' preparation through professional development. In a study of 800 teachers of ninth to 12thgraders teachers, Gillespie et al. found that teachers utilized an average of 24 different writing strategies during the school year. However, teachers reported little professional development to support effective

implementation. Gillespie et al. further described the utilized writing strategies involved writing that did not include actual composition. Teachers noted the use of short answers, notetaking, worksheets, and summarizing but did not include writing that was creative or analytical (Gillespie et al., 2013). The results of this study showed a need for professional development to instruct teachers on the implementation of writing strategies and writing instruction techniques (Gillespie et al., 2013). Without professional development, lack of teacher self-efficacy as writers leads to a lack of buy-in in implementing writing instruction in the content areas.

Theoretical Framework

The theoretical basis of this study embraced the teacher-as-writer. Based on the perceived writing deficiency, which lingered into the 21st century, and the importance of writing in the academic classroom and the business world, teachers should have confidence as writing instructors in order to help students improve writing ability through effective implementation of writing instructional strategies in content areas. Atwell (1984), Calkins (1993), Graves (1990), and Susi (1984) characterized the importance of teacher confidence as avid readers and writers in order to be effective teachers of reading and writing through modeling self-efficacy and professional development. In accordance with these researchers, Romano (2007) further developed and reinforced the use of the idea of the teacher-as-writer through the benefits and necessities of a teacher's comfort as a writer. Applegate and Applegate (2004) described the importance of teachers' self-efficacy as a model during instruction. Similarly, Frager (1994) conducted a study that reinforced the views of Atwell (1984), Calkins (1993), Graves (1990), and Susi (1984) through categorizing teachers into four writing groups. However, Brooks (2007)

conducted a study that utilized the works of Atwell (1984), Calkins (1993), and Graves 1984 as a framework and found that the writing experience played little role in effective writing instruction. Despite the findings of Brooks (2007), the characterization of Calkins (1993), Graves (1990), Atwell (1984), and Susi (1984) of the importance of teachers' confidence as writers remained a critical component of effective implementation of content area writing instruction.

Ideological Background

The teacher-as-writer framework reflected the importance of teacher self-efficacy as writers, and teacher perceptions of willingness to buy-in to the implementation of writing instructional strategies in content area classrooms. The teacher-as-writer framework was based on the understanding of the importance of teachers being confident in their own writing ability to implement writing instruction and model writing in order to create enthusiasm within the student and an environment that will foster student writing. Romano (2007) described the teacher-as-writer as crucial in that one who taught the craft should practice the craft as well. This practice allowed students to see the teacher-as-writer as an authority and provided credibility to the writing instruction. Romano further described the benefits of the teacher-as-writer as one who modeled writing instruction and went beyond simply telling students how to write. Romano (1987) described that an important aspect of the teacher-as-writer model was to help students develop the feeling that writing was not only a critical aspect of their lives but to develop a joy for writing that was evident in the teacher. Atwell (1984) characterized this framework as what she called "getting inside writing" (p. 241). In order for teachers to not only teach writing effectively but also develop a passion and enjoyment of writing within students, teachers

should first become active participants within the writing process. Teachers become "insiders" willing to embrace writing in the classroom and develop an environment that fosters a love for writing in the teacher and the student. Through becoming a writing insider, teachers could understand the process and challenge students during composition, and they could better encourage and aid students while they write. Students should see the teacher as more than simply someone who conveys information but as active participants in the writing process that models and encourages the act of composition. Susi (1984) described the importance of teachers modeling the act of composition in order to "share the visible part of that process" (p. 713). When teachers have the confidence in their own writing ability to write with students, teachers have the unique opportunity to demonstrate how they maneuver through all aspects of the writing process.

Similarly, in a study of preservice teachers, Applegate and Applegate (2004) described the importance of teacher self-efficacy and the teacher-as-writer as a model during reading instruction that motivated and encouraged students to read and encapsulated this idea as the Peter Effect. Applegate and Applegate alluded to the Biblical story of Peter and the beggar. In Acts 3:5, Peter was approached by a crippled beggar, and, when asked for money, Peter simply replied that he could not give what he did not have (Applegate & Applegate, 2004). Applegate and Applegate (2004) used this allusion to demonstrate the importance of teacher confidence as an avid reader. If a teacher was not an avid and confident reader who enjoyed reading, then that feeling could not be encouraged in their students. Applegate and Applegate's study focused on a teacher's role in fostering a love for reading by being an avid reader. Despite the focus on reading, the allusion provided a similar analogy to Atwell's (1984) description of the

importance of teachers' self-efficacy in writing. Confidence in writing ability was required for a teacher to get inside writing to encourage passion within students, and, therefore, the teacher cannot give what the teacher does not have. By "getting inside writing", teachers-as-writers showed the visible aspects of the writing process and created a positive environment for writing. The teacher-as-writer framework used for this study was based on the research of Frager (1994).

Frager and Teacher Self-Efficacy

Frager (1994) reinforced the framework of the teacher-as-writer through a three-day workshop with 32 participants ranging from primary to high school English teachers. The focus of this workshop was to study and develop teachers' understanding of themselves as writers. Teachers who participated in the workshop wrote about their perceptions as writers and discussed their writing samples in small groups. Based on data and writing samples gained from the workshop, Frager determined four writing groups that described the teacher-as-writer: (a) reluctant writers, (b) practical writers, (c) integral writers, (d) perspectives as writers. The five reluctant writers disliked writing and did not see themselves as effective writers. Practical writers consisted of six teachers who only wrote out of necessity or as a means of organization. The integral writers consisted of six teachers who described writing as an important aspect of their lives and an activity they constantly used in every aspect of their lives. The final group consisted of nine teachers who gave different accounts of the what it meant to be a writer. Frager concluded that "teachers who feel writing is an integral part of their lives can help some students feel the same way" (p. 277). Teacher self-efficacy and ability to write could have an effect on student achievement and perspective of writing (Atwell, 1984). Frager (1994) further

described the two important influences that were evident in the teacher-as-writer model: (a) learning is through modeling and (b) shared feelings. Students learn about the act of composition through observing how the teacher maneuver through the writing process. This idea of the importance of modeling is reflected through Atwell's "getting inside writing" as a means of showing the visible aspects of the writing process (Atwell, 1984). Frager (1994) also described the importance of feelings and perspectives for the teacher-as-writer, in that "teaching involves sharing feelings about the writing process as much as demonstrating techniques for good writing" (p. 277). The ways that teachers perceive their own self-efficacy as writers and their own views on the importance of writing could influence students' feelings concerning writing. Frager noted that "there is reason to believe that teachers who are themselves fearful and reluctant writers influence some students to share that apprehension" (p. 277). This transference of feelings toward writing from the teacher to the student illustrated the importance of the allusion to the Peter Effect and the positive perceptions teacher should possess as the teacher-as-writer. A teacher who lacks confidence or a positive view of the act of composition cannot give the students confidence or a positive view of writing. They cannot give students what they do not have (Applegate & Applegate, 2004). Frager's (1994) research provided reason to embrace the importance of the teacher-as-writer in implementing content area writing instruction and curriculum policies. However, Brooks (2007) presented a counter argument, which suggested teacher self-efficacy was less important.

Brooks's Counter Argument

Where Frager and other researchers found the teacher-as-writer to be a critical component to writing instruction, Brooks (2007), in a case study of fourth-grade teachers,

concluded that writing efficacy played little role in instruction. The theoretical basis of Brook's study was the theories set forth by the research of Atwell (1984), Calkins (1993), and Graves (1990), which related to the importance of teachers' writing ability in teacher efficacy as writing instructors. The participants of the study consisted of four teachers who were recommended by an administrator as excellent teachers of reading and writing. These teachers were chosen from a greater sample of 21 teachers with varying degrees of self-efficacy as writers; however, the four chosen participants were avid readers and writers with a positive perception of writing. Brooks (2007) primarily collected interview data but also utilized field notes, which related to how the teachers reading and writing influenced their ability to implement writing instruction effectively. The purpose of Brooks' study was to examine the idea that teachers must be confident, avid readers and writers, as described by Atwell (1984), Calkins (1993), Graves (1990), Romano (2007) and Susi (1984), in order to implement effective writing and reading instruction. Brooks (2007) found that, despite each of the four teachers in the participating study considering themselves to be avid readers and writers, personal reading and writing experiences did not play a significant role in the teachers' ability to provide effective reading and writing instruction. Brooks's findings directly opposed the theoretical works of Atwell (1984), Calkins (1993), and Graves (1990) and suggested that the teachers-as-writer framework argued by Romano (2007) and Frager (1994) was not critical in teacher ability to implement writing instruction effectively.

Despite the findings of Brooks (2007), the characterization of Calkins (1993), Graves (1990), Atwell (1984), Romano (2007), and Susi (1984) of the importance of teachers' confidence as writers remained a critical component of effective

implementation of content area writing instruction. Brooks (2007) focused on the writing experiences of four teachers who had a positive self-efficacy as writers and writing instructors and did not consider teachers who had a negative perception of writing, or what Frager (1994) called reluctant writers. Brooks's (2007) conclusions were based on those teachers who exemplified the teacher-as-writer and overlooked reluctant writers in order to examine the importance of the teacher-as-writer during writing instruction. Brooks's conclusion that teacher efficacy in writing was not critical for effective writing instruction was based on the one-sided analysis of the cases of four teachers who perceived themselves as teachers-as-writers. With Brooks's conclusion that self-efficacy in writing was not important, Frager (1994) suggested the opposite and cited Gillespie (1987) who used an analogy of skiing to describe the importance of a writing instructor practicing the craft that he taught. Gillespie described "I can know the vocabulary, describe the techniques and equipment, label and name the parts […] but I still don't know how to ski until I practice on the snow time and time again, and sometimes fall" (p. 741). Gillespie argued that one can know everything about a skill, but without practice, experience, and self-efficacy, one cannot master and teach the skill. Gillespie drew the comparison of skiing to writing and the act of composition. A teacher can describe the act of composition, techniques, vocabulary, and processes of writing, but one must practice the act of composition to project the authority and confidence to teach the craft. Frager (1994) related the Gillespie (1987) skiing analogy to the teacher-as-writer and the importance of teacher's writing efficacy by asking two questions: (a) "who would take skiing lessons from an instructor who painfully struggles to make it to the bottom of the slope? (b) who would learn writing from a teacher who painfully struggles to express

thoughts and ideas on a page?" (p. 274). These questions contradicted the findings of Brooks (2007) and emphasized the importance of the teachers' self-efficacy as a writing instructors. The teacher-as-writer framework was based on the understanding of the importance of teachers being confident in their own writing ability to implement writing instruction and model writing in order to create enthusiasm within the student and an environment that will foster student writing.

Striving Readers Comprehensive Literacy Program

In order to curtail student deficiencies in writing, support and professional development are required to improve teacher confidence and efficacy in writing for successful instruction implementation, with one such form found in the development of literacy programs at the state level through the use of a federal grant (U.S. Department of Education, 2010). The SRCL was a federal grant that allowed the state of Georgia to establish a state literacy team, GLTF, to create a state literacy plan with goals and guidelines to aid districts in development and improvement of literacy instruction (U.S. Department of Education, 2010). The SRCL was an initiative by the federal government in order to encourage the development of literacy programs at the state level (U.S. Department of Education, 2010). The program was authorized as part of the Consolidated Appropriations Act (2010) under the Title I section of the Elementary and Secondary Education Act (U.S. Department of Education, 2010). This program distributed funds in the form of discretionary grants to states in order to create literacy programs to advance literacy skills ranging from pre-reading skills and writing for students birth through Grade 12 (U.S. Department of Education, 2010). Funds were awarded to states in order to develop a literacy team who would formulate a state literacy

plan in order to advance the development of reading and writing skills across all ages (U.S. Department of Education, 2010).

Goals

As a result of these funds from the U.S. Department of Education, the GaDOE created the GLTF, which began development of a state literacy plan to serve as a framework in order to cultivate and improve reading literacy in districts around the state (GaDOE, 2014). The GLTF defined literacy as "the ability to speak, listen, read, and write" in order to create the Georgia literacy plan, which served as a model for district literacy plans (Fernandez & O'Conner, 2016, p. 1). The GLTF further described the importance of developing students' ability to convey thoughts and communicate with others effectively, think and respond critically, and utilize knowledge in all content areas (GaDOE, 2010**).** In accordance with this definition, Georgia's SRCL program and the GLTF identified six goals in order to ensure a focused and well developed literacy plan: (a) increase high school graduation rate and postsecondary enrollment, (b) improve teacher quality and retention, (c) improve workforce readiness, (d) improve educational leadership, (e) improve achievement scores, and (f) make policies that ensure academic and financial accountability (Fernandez & O'Conner, 2016). In order to aid students in obtaining these elements of literacy and goals, the GLTF described the importance of creating authentic literacy opportunities through cross-curricular texts and more writing instruction in the content areas (Fernandez & O'Conner, 2016). The GLTF further described the importance of writing instruction across the curriculum in order to develop students' ability to convey their thoughts and communicate with others effectively, which

became an important element in the state literacy plan and an important tool in the development of literacy (Fernandez & O'Conner, 2016; GaDOE, 2010).

Grant Application Process

The GaDOE, since receiving the SRCL grant in 2011, developed a process to determine which local education agency would receive funds as a sub-grantee. This method began with assessment of eligibility of the local educational agency applicant. To qualify for the grant, the applying district was required to have at least 35% of the student population qualify for free or reduced lunch, agree to implement data-driven literacy instruction, and implement between two and four hours of content area reading instruction (Fernandez & O'Conner, 2016). With the support of program management, the applying district formed school and district level literacy teams, which would be responsible for collecting data and the actual writing of the grant. The literacy team at each applicant school formed a school literacy plan based on the needs of that school. The focus of this literacy plan was to demonstrate strong literacy instruction across the curriculum and exhibited how the school would use grant funding to implement effective literacy instruction, leadership, professional development, and intervention to encourage student growth in literacy (Fernandez & O'Conner, 2016). Each school in the applying district, over a three- to four-month time period, then completed an application that contained a school literacy plan, needs assessment analysis, school narrative, student and teacher data, goals and objectives, materials, professional development plan, detailed budget, and sustainability plan in order to qualify for the annual SRCL sub-grant competition (Fernandez & O'Conner, 2016). Each application was reviewed by an expert panel who scored the application with a 100-point rubric. District scores were calculated

based on the combined scores of the district schools; the highest score in each subgroup (i.e., large systems, mid-sized systems, and small systems) received the grant (Fernandez & O'Conner, 2016). Once funds, which were based on student population size, were released to the winning sub-grantees, the GaDOE monitored the implementation of grant funds through surveys and school observations (Fernandez & O'Conner, 2016). As an added requirement to receive funds, districts were required to purchase and administer, three times per year, two universal screeners, the Dynamic Indicators of Basic Early Literacy Skills (DIBELS) and the Scholastic Reading Inventory (SRI), as a means to quantify student growths in literacy development (Fernandez & O'Conner, 2016). The grant application process encouraged applying districts to analyze data related to building literacy and identified targeted areas of need in which funds could be utilized to improve literacy instruction. The SRCL grant program allowed grantee districts the opportunity to use funds for the development and improvement of literacy programs throughout each school level (GaDOE, 2014).

Statewide Implementation Data

Statewide implementation data related to the SRCL grant consisted of three annual reports and a statewide case study (Fernandez & O'Conner, 2016; Pasquarella, 2013, 2014, 2015). The three annual reports were conducted by Pasquarella (2013, 2014, 2015) of the University of Delaware. Each of these reports consisted of data analysis at the district level and at the school level collected from DIBELS at the elementary level and SRI at the middle and high school levels. Through analysis of district data, Pasquarella (2013) drew statewide comparisons and additionally focused a comparison of the schools within each district. Each of these reports described the empirical influence

of the SRCL grant on literacy in the state of Georgia (Pasquarella, 2013). The initial report presented by Pasquarella (2013) described how all districts made significant growth and progress in foundational skills and reading comprehension over the course of the academic year, despite the fact that half of the students enrolled were characterized as economically disadvantaged. The study consisted of 15 school districts with 118 schools that received SRCL grant funds and utilized repeated measures analysis of variance (ANOVAs) in order to draw comparisons across districts based on performance and growth (Pasquarella, 2013). Based on the analysis of data, Pasquarella (2013) found evidence of student growth as a result of "professional development initiatives that [were] directed towards learning how to incorporate evidence-based strategies and curriculum maps into instructional plans may be associated with growth in comprehension" (p. 221). Effective implementation of instructional practices was an important aspect that led to growth in student achievement.

Pasquarella (2014) further described the positive growth of schools that received the SRCL grant. Eighteen school districts submitted data for analysis in the 2014-2015 academic school year. The 2014 report consisted of data analysis at the district level and then disaggregated by grade level. Pasquarella (2014) found continued growth from participating school based on SRI data analysis, "on average, students gained 9.63 points from fall to spring […] in the previous year, average student growth was 7.5 points" (p. 8). Schools that received the SRCL grant maintained high performance and growth in reading comprehension and foundational skills. Based on surveys submitted by teachers in participating districts, Pasquarella (2014) noted that a wide range of teachers emphasized the importance of increased use of literacy strategies across the curriculum

and emphasized the importance of professional development. Furthermore, for high school growth, "use of evidence based strategies and teacher use of web materials and writing curriculum appear to be integrated into the curriculum almost daily" (p. 118). Pasquarella noted a theme in the responses of teachers within SRCL schools, in that most reported an importance in the use of writing and literacy strategies across the curriculum.

The 2015-2016 district level annual report for the SRCL plan was once again compiled through the work of Pasquarella (2015). Pasquarella used the same structure to present data from the SRI and DIBELS and utilized ANOVAs to analyze district level and grade level comparisons of student achievement. Pasquarella noted that "on average, students gained 7.73 points from fall to spring […] in the previous years, average student growth was 7.5 and 9.3 points indicating consistency with previous years" (p. 8). The number of SRCL school districts increased to 24, with each district representing positive gains overall at the elementary level. SRI data showed positive gains for both middle and high school students. However, not all districts submitted SRI data related to the middle and high schools.

The case study of Fernandez and O'Conner (2016) based on all participating SRCL schools in the state of Georgia during the 2014-2015 academic year provided a macro analysis of performance across all four cohorts of the SRCL grant based on assessment data. The case study consisted of 36 SRCL school districts with 80% of students defined as economically disadvantaged. The SRCL grant, as Fernandez and O'Conner noted, encouraged the use of research-based literacy and writing instruction across the content areas through sustainable professional development. The case study was not as detailed as the annual reports conducted by Pasquarella (2013, 2014, 2015) but

came to different conclusions. Whereas Pasquarella utilized a statistical analysis of data, Fernandez and O'Conner (2016) provided a more descriptive analysis of the grant process, program goals, and state literacy plan, with overall analysis related to the Georgia Milestones. Pasquarella (2013, 2014, 2015) reported SRCL schools as having mostly positive results, while the Fernandez and O'Conner (2016) case study showed that SRCL schools were below state levels in reading and writing. Fernandez and O'Conner accounted lower test scores to the state of Georgia's transition to the Georgia Milestones, a more difficult and rigorous standardized assessment and did not take into account SRI and DIBELS data. Despite the increased rigor of the test, Fernandez and O'Conner noted that "the percentage of SRCL participating students who met or exceeded proficiency on the state language arts assessment was 29% in fifth grade, 32% in eighth grade, and 27% in high school" (p. 2). Each of these percentages were 10 percentage points less than the state average. Fernandez and O'Conner's analysis showed that only a small percentage of SRCL students met or exceeded proficiency in reading and writing, based on data from the Georgia Milestones. Both Pasquarella (2013, 2014, 2015) and Fernandez and O'Conner (2016) provided an understanding of the performance of students in SRCL schools. Pasquarella (2013, 2014, 2015) provided an in-depth analysis of DIBELS and SRI data at the district and grade levels through the use of statistical analysis (i.e., repeated measures ANOVAs) to draw comparisons across grade levels and districts. The understanding gleaned from Pasquarella showed an overly positive growth in reading and literacy performance. Research studies related to Georgia's SRCL grant program were limited to three empirical studies and one case study to provide a macro understanding of the performance of SRCL schools.

Needs Assessment Survey Analysis

The current study focused on a specific school's need to improve reading and writing proficiencies as per guidelines set forth in the SRCL grant. However, it is important to understand teachers' perceptions as writing instructors and their understanding of implementation of writing strategies. Through the study, the researcher desired to understand teachers' perceptions as teachers of writing and use of writing instruction in classrooms across the content areas in response to the data used to create the participating high school's literacy plan in cooperation with guidelines from the GaDOE. In order to understand current teachers' perceptions of writing as compared to teachers' perceptions at the time of SRCL grant application, analysis of the background information of the grant and needs assessment data was required to complete the grant application process.

In order to develop the school literacy plan, the participating high school literacy team (HSLT) first administered the "Survey of Literacy Instruction for Middle and High School Staff" to all certified and classified staff (n = 85). In addition to this survey, the HSLT also administered the Georgia Literacy Plan Needs Assessment for Literacy Survey to all certified staff (n = 71) in order to collect additional data to determine and prioritize critical areas of concerns. The Georgia Literacy Plan Needs Assessment Survey was based on six building blocks of effective literacy instruction: (a) engaged leadership, (b) continuity of care and instruction, (c) ongoing formative and summative assessments, (d) best practices in literacy instruction, (e) systems of tiered intervention, and (f) professional learning and resources; all of which stood as key components to the creation of the school literacy plan (GaDOE, 2014). Survey items were scored based on

a four-level scale: (a) *fully operational*, (b) *operational*, (c) *emergent*, (d) *not addressed*. The data analyzed from the participating high school's needs assessment survey revealed teachers' perceptions of writing at the time of grant application and provided the researcher with a basis to compare teachers' perceptions at the end of the five-year grant implementation.

After data analysis, the HSLT members concluded that the "data highlighted a lack of professional learning directed toward literacy instruction across the curriculum [… and] a lack of understanding of the role literacy plays in all content areas and a perception that literacy is confined to the ELA classroom" (GaDOE, 2014, p. 3). Based on the data, there was a need for professional development in regards to how to teach writing and information concerning available strategies to teach writing across the curriculum. The researcher also noted that the perceptions of the teachers' role in literacy provided the understanding of the school's perceived deficiencies as related to the use of writing strategies across the curriculum to improve literacy. Data from four items reflected this idea of teachers' perceptions and usage of writing across the curriculum that directly related to the statement of the problem for the study. The four items discussed in the next section reinforced the need to understand teachers' perceptions of writing instruction across the curriculum in order to improve literacy.

The HSLT noted multiple areas of concern revealed by the participating school's needs assessment survey that directly related to the purpose of the study. The first item, Block One, Part D, a school culture exists in which teachers across the content areas accept responsibility for literacy instruction, revealed that 39% of teachers perceived a lack of understanding of content area teachers' role in literacy instruction (GaDOE, 2014,

Literacy Plan, p. 5). Furthermore, nine percent of that 39% described this item as *not addressed*, showing concerns of how teachers perceived writing instruction. The second item, Block One, Part E, literacy instruction is optimized in all content areas, further demonstrated the lack of use of writing instruction across the curriculum (GaDOE, 2014, Literacy Plan, p. 7). Fifty-one percent of teachers described a lack of literacy instruction across the curriculum, and 10% noted this item was *not addressed* (GaDOE, 2014 Literacy Plan, p. 7). This item showed a lack of use of narrative, informational, and argumentative writing strategies in content area classrooms (GaDOE, 2014**,** Literacy, Plan, p. 7). The third item, Block Two, Part B, teachers provide literacy instruction across the curriculum, further described the perceptions of teachers and reinforced the idea of literacy as the domain of the ELA department. Forty-eight percent of teachers felt that writing literacy only occurred in ELA classrooms, with nine percent noting that instruction was not guided by a comprehensive language arts program and implemented across the curriculum (GaDOE, 2014**,** Literacy Plan, p. 10**)**. The final item that demonstrated a lack of teacher understanding of writing literacy across the curriculum and further highlighted teacher perceptions of writing instruction was Block Four, Part B, all students receive effective writing instruction across the curriculum (GaDOE, 2014**,** Literacy Plan, p. 17). Forty-seven percent of teachers described this item as "emergent," and, of that percentage, 7% described the item as *not addressed* (GaDOE, 2014**,** Literacy Plan, p. 18). Teachers noted that they were beginning to develop a plan for writing instruction across the curriculum but reinforced that the perception of writing was only taught by ELA teachers (GaDOE, 2014**,** Literacy Plan, p. 18). These items demonstrated teachers' perceptions of writing at the time of SRCL grant application. Accordingly,

each of these items illustrated a need for better understanding of literacy instructional strategies and content area teachers' role in writing instruction. The needs assessment survey also demonstrated a gap in the knowledge base of the faculty of the participating school and provided a need to understand current perceptions.

Implementation of Grant

In order to understand how teachers perceived and utilized writing instruction as a result of implementation of resources from the SRCL grant, use of strategies that the participating high school planned to employ required consideration as a response to improve areas of need. As a part of the school literacy plan, HSLT described different strategies that would be implemented as a response to teachers' perception of writing instruction across the curriculum and the ability to implement writing strategies in the classroom. A key aspect of planned intervention was the focus on importance of writing and writing instruction across the curriculum (GaDOE, 2014**,** Literacy Plan, p. 6). During the first year of implementation, faculty at the participating school participated in a two-day summer professional development, which focused on research-based literacy and writing instructional strategies that could be used across the curriculum. The literacy plan called for additional professional learning centered around writing instructional strategies, implementation of consistent daily literacy activities across the curriculum including journal writing, research papers, and document-based questions in order to improve literacy (GaDOE, 2014**,** Literacy Plan, p. 6). Furthermore, the HSLT planned to increase the amount of time students were exposed to literacy activities during the day and described a focus on reading and writing as an "integral part of learning in every class every day" (GaDOE, 2014, Literacy Plan, p. 7). The HSLT at

the participating school included different strategies and professional development in the high school literacy plan in order to achieve the goals of the SRCL grant and state literacy plan. However, teacher confidence and buy-in were required to implement literacy and writing instructional strategies across the curriculum effectively.

Summary

Writing is a critical skill for students to possess in both the academic and business worlds. Writing can be an effective tool to develop content understanding and a major factor in hiring and promoting based on the ability to communicate effectively. Writing is a critical ability and potentially greatly influences learning. Despite the importance of writing in relation to learning and the academic and business worlds, many educators and business leaders discerned a deficit of K-12 and college level students' writing ability. The national writing assessment, NAEP, reinforced this perception and revealed that only 24% of students in Grade 12 were proficient writers and ready for the writing rigors of college and the business world. At the state level, Georgia Milestones data further reinforced the perception of student writing deficits as a vast majority of students scored in the lower two levels and required increased academic support. As a result of the importance of writing and the perceived lack of student writing proficiencies, writing instruction is a critical component in classrooms. However, teachers' self-perceptions of their role and confidence as writers directly influences willingness and ability to teach writing in content area classrooms. Teachers across content areas share the responsibility for addressing the deficit in student writing ability. Based on prior research of teachers' perceptions, the common belief of ELA ownership, or writing instruction as solely the responsibility of English teachers, not the role of the content teacher, was a predominant

belief among secondary and post-secondary teachers. Many teachers do not view the teaching of writing as part of their jobs and, therefore, lack buy-in or willingness to implement strategies. One factor that contributed to content teachers' lack of buy-in is their self-efficacy, or confidence, as writers. Professional development could have a positive effect on teacher confidence through providing teachers writing instructional strategies for content area classrooms. The purpose of the study was to investigate teachers' perceptions, confidence, and use of writing instructional strategies in content area classrooms at the end of implementation of the five-year SRCL grant.

CHAPTER III

METHODOLOGY

Introduction

With the dawn of the 21st century, writing remains a critical component of the business world and K-12 through postsecondary classrooms (NCW, 2004**).** Business leaders and educators each stressed the importance of the ability to clearly communicate ideas through written words. Despite the importance of writing, students' writing performance has been a longstanding concern; therefore, the need for improved writing instruction has remained a desire throughout the history of education in the United States (McLeod, 2001; Russell, 1994). However, teacher buy-in and willingness to implement writing tasks and strategies are required for improved writing instruction (Atwell, 1998; Calkins, 1993; Graves, 1990; Romano, 2007; Susi, 1984). Teacher buy-in and understanding of literacy instruction at the participating high school presented a problem based on analysis of the needs assessment survey, which was completed at the time of SRCL grant application in 2014. The HSLT described a "lack of understanding of the role literacy plays in all content areas and a perception that literacy is confined to the ELA classroom" (GaDOE, 2014, p. 3). This issue of a lack of understanding of content area teachers' role in literacy instruction was prevalent at the time of grant application and could potentially influence student writing development beyond the life of the grant.

The purpose of this study was to investigate teachers' perceptions, confidence, and use of writing instructional strategies in content area classrooms at the end of

implementation of the five-year SRCL grant. The researcher chose an explanatory sequential mixed method as the research design in order to explore this problem. This design allowed for quantitative data to be collected and utilized to inform the qualitative instrument and implementation. The population for the study consisted of 57 certified faculty members. This study took place at a rural Georgia high school at the end of the five-year SRCL grant. The student body enrollment was over 800. The data instrument utilized for Phase 1, the quantitative phase, comprised of a survey that reflected key aspects of the original needs assessment survey conducted by the HSLT of the participating school at the time of SRCL grant application. Permission was obtained from the GaDOE to utilize items from the needs assessment survey. The Phase 1 survey was administered to the entire faculty of the participating high school. Quantitative analysis of the data consisted of the use of Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) version 25 through a descriptive statistics approach, which allowed for the discovery of trends in the data. Descriptive statistics allowed for comparison and correlation of data results to survey data collected from initial needs assessment survey conducted during SRCL grant application. Phase 2 of the study consisted of semi-structured interview and participant lesson plan document protocols. These protocol instruments were used to delve deeper into trends revealed through analysis of survey data. Qualitative data were analyzed through a phenomenological lens in order to focus on the trends that emerged during Phase 1.

Research Questions

The overarching research focus for this study centered on content area teachers' perceptions as instructors of writing and their perceptions of writing instruction strategies used in their classrooms. The specific questions for this research study were

1. How do content area teachers perceive their role as instructors of writing?
2. How do teachers perceive their confidence and knowledge of writing instruction?
3. How are content area teachers implementing writing instruction strategies?

Research Design

For the study, an explanatory sequential mixed methods design was the chosen research design as the best means to utilize and integrate both quantitative and qualitative data sources, which, when analyzed together, provided a more detailed understanding of teachers' perceptions of writing and writing instruction implementation (Creswell, 2012). In this design, the researcher "first collects and analyzes quantitative data, then the findings inform qualitative data collection and analysis" (Fetters et al., 2013, p. 2136). Figure 3 illustrated the relationship between the quantitative phase of data collection and analysis and the qualitative phase of data collection and analysis. The qualitative phase followed the quantitative phase in order to inform and elaborate on results from the quantitative phase (Creswell, 2012). Data interpretation occurred after quantitative data analysis and after qualitative data analysis. The final aspect of this design was the integration of results, in which both the quantitative and qualitative data were integrated and analyzed (Creswell, 2012; Fetters & Freshwater, 2015). Integration of the data occurred through a narrative approach at the reporting level once all data were analyzed. Creswell noted the importance of how the researcher "explicitly combines or

mixes the two data sets" as a key characteristic of mixed methods research (Creswell, 2012, p. 557). Therefore, the design allowed for quantitative findings to be presented first, followed by the qualitative findings, and finally, the findings were integrated (Fetters & Freshwater, 2015). This design allowed the researcher to utilize survey participants as possible interview participants during the qualitative phase of the study. Also, this design allowed the researcher to use qualitative interviews to elaborate and reinforce the quantitative survey findings (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2007). Through the use of both quantitative and qualitative data, the researcher gained a more detailed understanding of the phenomenon of teachers' perceptions than through the use of only one method (Creswell, 2012).

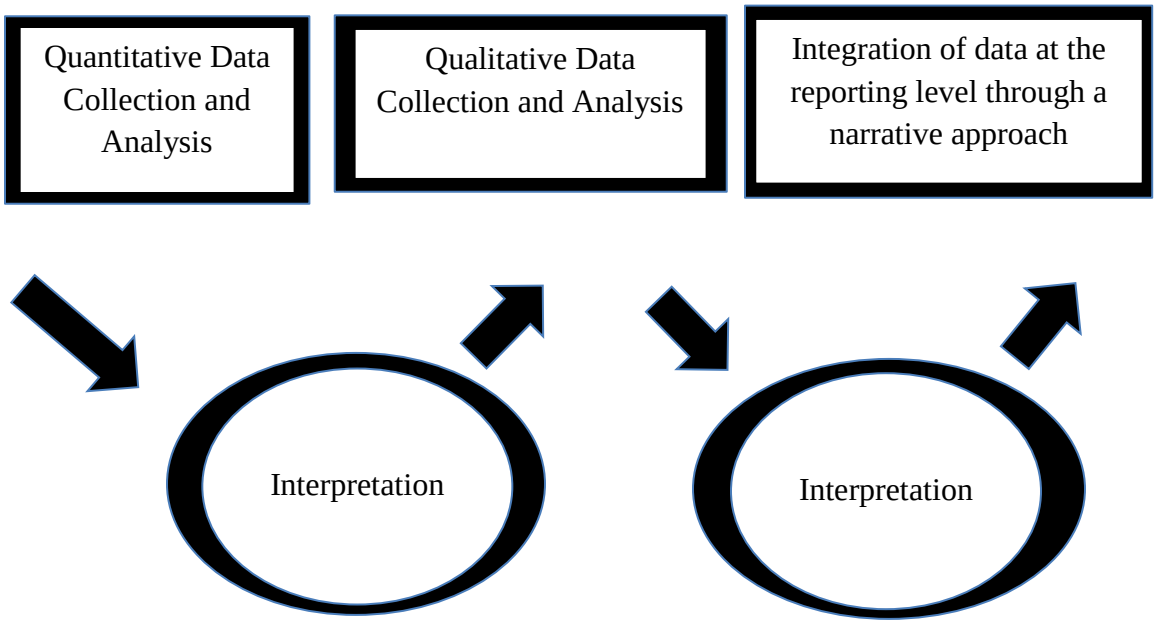

Figure 3. Visual representation of the study. The study design of the relationship between quantitative and qualitative data collection and analysis and mixed methods integration (Creswell, 2012).

Population

The setting of the study took place at a rural Georgia high school with a student enrollment of over 800 students. The target population was all certified faculty members of the participating high school during the 2018-19 school year. Therefore, the accessible population, the population to which the researcher had access, was all certified staff at the participating high school, from which 57 certified teachers participated. Administrators, non-certified staff, and district personnel were omitted from the population as the purpose of the study was to understand content area classroom teachers' perceptions and use of writing in content area classroom instruction.

Summary of Method Procedures

The methodological approach of the explanatory sequential design allowed for a clear and defined organization through separation and identification of the quantitative and qualitative aspects of the study (Creswell, 2012). The purpose of the study was to understand teachers' perceptions of writing and use of writing instruction in the classroom, and the study was divided into two phases: (a) quantitative data collection and analysis and (b) qualitative data collection and analysis. During Phase 1, the researcher administered a survey through Google Forms with the accessible population, the certified faculty of the participating high school. The survey was distributed by an email that described the purpose and information concerning the survey through faculty email. The survey consisted of four parts: (a) teacher demographics, (b) SRCL abbreviated needs assessment survey, (c) teachers' perceptions, and (d) teachers' use of writing instruction. Informed consent was required for the participant to complete the survey. The purpose of the survey was to gain an understanding of overall teacher perceptions of writing and

how writing instruction was implemented across the curriculum. Once the survey data were collected, the data were analyzed through a descriptive statistics approach with SPSS version 25. The survey consisted of 15 items from the Georgia SRCL needs assessment survey, and an analysis was conducted using a line-item percentage comparison. In addition, survey data analysis also consisted of a cross-tabulation using demographic variables. Experience, grade level, gender, subjects currently taught, and the highest degree earned were analyzed in order to determine frequency counts for participant responses by these variables. Trends in the survey data were noted in order to be compared to the qualitative data and informed the interview protocol of Phase 2 through the development of follow-up questions. Furthermore, Phase 2 consisted of interviews of eight participants who were selected through a stratified sampling of survey participants and interview participant submitted lesson plan documents. This sampling technique allowed the researcher to ensure that each of the content sub areas, (a) ELA, (b) math, (c) science, and (d) social studies, were equally represented. In order to invite participants to the interview, an email invitation was sent to the selected participants. This email contained information that described the interview process and requirements. Furthermore, the email contained attachments of the informed consent form and interview protocol for the interview participants to review prior to the session. The purpose of the interview process was to gain an understanding of personal experiences and perceptions of writing and writing instruction in content area classroom. The interviews were conducted personally by the researcher at a time and place convenient for the interview participant. The interviews were transcribed by the principal researcher. The transcription process consisted of two phases: initial transcription and review.

Following initial transcription, the principal researcher reviewed the transcript for typos and ensured the transcript matched the audio recording. As a final aspect of review, the interview participant reviewed the transcript to ensure accuracy. The researcher conducted the qualitative data analysis through a phenomenology lens, which allowed for analysis of the data thematically. Emergent themes were noted through analysis of the textual data of the interview transcripts and lesson plan documents, which were coded through two waves. The first wave of data analysis consisted of the researcher reviewing each transcript and creating initial codes that related to the teachers' perceptions of writing, as a writer, and the use of writing during instruction. The researcher created a codebook to organize and note the meaning of reoccurring ideas and concepts. The second wave of analysis included combining codes into themes. The personal experiences and themes from Phase 2 were integrated into the survey data collected in Phase 1, and both data sources were mixed and interpreted based on overall common themes and trends, using a narrative approach. The findings of the study were presented based on themes that integrated both quantitative and qualitative data analysis. The themes and personal experiences collected during Phase 2 provided details and a more thorough understanding of the trends identified through analysis of survey data.

Phase 1: Quantitative

Participants

Because the entire population of the participating school were potential participants, there was no sampling method required. The researcher created the quantitative survey instrument available in an online format through Google Forms and was made accessible to the population through a website link, which was delivered

through district email. The email invitation (see Appendix B) to complete the survey consisted of the purpose of the survey and a description of the survey. Members of the population had the opportunity to participate voluntarily and complete the survey. Furthermore, a description was included at the beginning of the quantitative instrument that outlined the goal, purpose, and significance of the study in order to obtain informed consent from the participants who completed the survey. Participants were required to acknowledge informed consent (see Appendix A) before beginning the survey by selecting "accept" or "decline." Those participants who accepted were allowed to continue to the survey, and those participants who declined were given the option to submit and end the survey. The recipients received a week to complete the 34-question survey. The desired response rate, as noted by Gay, Mills, and Airasian (2012), was 50%, with any percentage above adding to confidence of the findings. In order to achieve this percentage, a plan for follow-up surveys consisted of program created invitations sent to those individuals who did not complete the survey within one week. Quantitative data analysis began once the 50% response rate threshold was reached.

Instrument

The survey was divided into four parts: (a) teacher demographics, (b) SRCL abbreviated needs assessment survey, (c) teachers' perceptions, and (d) teachers' use of writing instruction. Before the participants could access the survey, the first screen displayed the informed consent with two options: "accept" and "decline." Those participants who accepted were allowed to continue to the survey, and those participants who declined were given the option to submit and end the survey. Part 1 of the survey instrument consisted of demographic information, which included number of years of

experience, grade level, gender, subjects currently taught, and the highest degree earned. Part 2 of the quantitative instrument was characterized as a trend survey in order to "examine changes over time in a particular population defined by some particular trait" (Gay et al., 2012, p. 185). Part 2 consisted of 15 questions derived from the GaDOE needs assessment survey. The GaDOE created the needs assessment survey as a component of SRCL grant qualification, and the responses included a Likert scale consisting of (a) *fully operational*, (b) *operational*, (c) *emergent*, and (d) *not addressed*. *Fully operational* signified that the item was completely implemented in the operation of the school. *Operational* described that the item was in the beginning stages of implementation. *Emergent* signifies that the item was in the preliminary or planning stages before implementation. *Not addressed* signified that the item was not currently implemented in the operation of the school. The purpose of Part 2 was to gain data concerning teachers' perceptions, which was compared to the previous administration of the needs assessment survey in 2014. As demonstrated in Table 2, the research questions of the study were used to identify and select items from the needs assessment survey that aligned to the research study purpose; therefore, the entirety of the survey was not used. The original needs assessment survey was divided into six sections, or blocks, and the numbering of the items in Part 2 of the survey remained consistent with the original needs assessment survey.

Table 2

Item Analysis of Part 2 of the Quantitative Survey

Item	Literature	Research Question
1.a. Administrator demonstrates commitment to learn about and support evidence-based literacy instruction in his/her school.	Gillespie, Graham, Kiuhara, & Hebert, 2014	3
1.b. A school literacy leadership team organized by the administrator is active.	GaDOE, 2010	3
1.C. The effective use of time and personnel is leveraged through scheduling and collaborative planning (6-12).	GaDOE, 2010	3
1.D. A school culture exists in which teachers across the content areas accept responsibility for literacy instruction as articulated in the Common Core Georgia Performance Standards (CCGPS).	Gillespie, Graham, Kiuhara, & Hebert, 2014	1, 3
1.E. Literacy instruction is optimized in all content areas.	Gillespie, Graham, Kiuhara, & Hebert, 2014	1, 3
2.A. Active collaborative school teams ensure a consistent literacy focus across the curriculum.	Gillespie, Graham, Kiuhara, & Hebert, 2014	3
2.B. Teachers provide literacy instruction across the curriculum.	Gillespie, Graham, Kiuhara, & Hebert, 2014	1, 3
3.a. An infrastructure for ongoing formative and summative assessments is in place to determine the need for and the intensity of interventions and to evaluate the effectiveness of instruction.	Gillespie, Graham, Kiuhara, & Hebert, 2014	3
3. D. Summative data is used to make programming decisions as well as to monitor individual student progress.	Gillespie, Graham, Kiuhara, & Hebert, 2014	3

Table 2 (*continued*)

Item	Literature	Research Question
3.E. A clearly articulated strategy for using data to improve teaching and learning is followed.	Gillespie, Graham, Kiuhara, & Hebert, 2014	3
4.a.2. All students receive direct, explicit instruction in reading and writing.	Gillespie, Graham, Kiuhara, & Hebert, 2014	3
4.A.5. Extended time is provided for literacy instruction.	Gillespie, Graham, Kiuhara, & Hebert, 2014; Troia et al., 2011	3
4. B.1. All students receive effective writing instruction across the curriculum.	Gillespie, Graham, Kiuhara, & Hebert, 2014	1, 3
4.C. Teachers are intentional in efforts to develop and maintain interest and engagement as students' progress through school.	GaDOE, 2010	1, 3
6.B. In-service personnel participate in ongoing professional learning in all aspects of literacy instruction including disciplinary literacy in the content areas.	Bifuh-Ambe, 2013	2

Part 3 of the survey consisted of 19 questions that related to teachers' perceptions of writing in content area classrooms. Survey questions were developed by the researcher based on the following five topics: (a) teacher writing instruction practices, (b) teachers' personal writing practices, (c) teacher confidence in writing, (d) teacher beliefs, and (e) experience with professional development in writing. As demonstrated in Table 3, each topic reflected an aspect of the research questions that guided the study. Timeliness was also considered in the development of the number of items for Part 3. The briefness of questions during Part 3 was a method to improve response rate, as teachers would have end of school year responsibilities and would be less likely to participate in a long, time consuming survey. A Likert scale, consisting of (a) *Strongly Agree*, (b) *Agree*, (c) Disagree, and (d) *Strongly Disagree*, was used to score survey

items. Information gained from Part 3 of the survey concerning teachers' perceptions was used to create follow up questions for the Phase 2 interview protocol.

Table 3

Item Analysis of Part 3 of Quantitative Survey

Item	Literature	Research Question
1. I enjoy teaching writing.	Lewis & Sanchez, 2014; Bifuh-Ambe, 2013	2
2. I take time to instruct students on how to specifically write in my content area.	Bifuh-Ambe, 2013	2
3. A teacher has to be a good writer to teach writing.	Curtis, 2017	2
4. Essay writing is difficult to implement and not important in my class.	Lewis & Sanchez, 2014	1, 2
5. Writing should be incorporated in all classes.	Hanstedt, 2012; Mcleod, 2001; NCTE, 2011; Russell, 1990	1
6. Teachers in my content area do not have to be good writers.	Hanstedt, 2012	1
7. Content area classes should focus on content and not writing.	Hanstedt, 2012; Mcleod, 2001; NCTE, 2011; Russell, 1990	1
8. Writing instruction should occur mainly in ELA classrooms.	NCTE, 2011; Russell, 1990	1
9. There is not enough time to teach writing and content material.	Hanstedt, 2012;	1
10. I feel confident enough in my writing ability to critique another person's writing.	Lewis & Sanchez, 2014	2
11. I feel confident in my ability to clearly express my ideas in writing.	Bifuh-Ambe, 2013	2
12. I don't think I am as good of a writer as others.	Lewis & Sanchez, 2014	2
13. I have difficulty organizing my thoughts and ideas when I write.	Lewis & Sanchez, 2014	1, 2
14. I think journal writing is a great way to keep up with thoughts.	Curtis, 2017	2

Table 3 (*continued*)

Item	Literature	Research Question
15. I avoid writing at all costs.	Lewis & Sanchez, 2014	2
16. I enjoy writing in my spare time.	Lewis & Sanchez, 2014; Bifuh-Ambe, 2013	2
17. Expressing my ideas through writing seems to be a waste of time.	Curtis, 2017	2
18. There are professional development opportunities available for content area writing instruction.	Bifuh-Ambe, 2013	2
19. I do not need instruction in writing.	Bifuh-Ambe, 2013	2

Part 4 of the survey consisted of one item, which related to teachers' use of writing instruction and writing tasks in content area classrooms. The survey item was developed by the researcher based on common writing instruction strategies and tasks (Atwell, 1994; Gillespie et al., 2014; Troia et al., 2011). As demonstrated in Table 4, the item reflected an aspect of the research questions that guided the study. The item consisted of a list of writing strategies and tasks for the participants to denote their current writing instruction practices. The purpose of Part 4 was to determine which tasks and strategies were used during content area instruction, and these findings informed interview follow-up questions.

Table 4

Item Analysis of Part 4 of Quantitative Survey

Item	Literature	Research Question
Please mark the following strategies you use during instruction:	Gillespie, Graham, Kiuhara, & Hebert, 2014; Troia et al., 2011	3

Data collection consisted of implementation of the quantitative survey instrument through the use of an online format, Google Forms, which allowed the respondents to complete and submit the survey at their convenience. Google Forms was chosen because of researcher familiarity with the platform and settings that allowed the researcher to control the setup of the survey. The settings also allowed for the initial screen to display the informed consent. The platform also gave options to direct where the form sent the participant based on the answer. Those participants who chose “accept” were taken to Part 1 of the survey. Those participants who chose “decline” were given the option to submit and end participation. Potential respondents of the population of the participating school received an email with the Google Forms website link through the district email service and had one week to respond. The email, which contained a description of the purpose of the study and information concerning the survey, was sent to the entire faculty of the participating high school. The researcher collected the responses, which were compiled into a spreadsheet through an aspect of Google Forms platform. The spreadsheet compiling component of Google Forms provided another benefit that led to the utilization of the platform over other options. The spreadsheet showed line item responses to each survey question in a format that could be uploaded into SPSS. Anonymity of the respondents was ensured as respondent email addresses were not collected as means of identification.

Pilot Study

A pilot study was conducted in order to ascertain the content validity of the survey instrument. The pilot study was conducted prior to the implementation of the study and consisted of four participants. Participants of the pilot study consisted of two

administrators and two guidance counselors and were selected through selective sampling based on their expertise in the educational field, prior content area classroom teaching experience, and classroom observation experience. Participation in the pilot study was voluntary, and the participants were not members of the target population. Participant recruitment consisted of in-person requests by the principal researcher in order to discuss the reasons for the pilot study, time commitment, and goals. During implementation of the pilot study, participants were gathered in a conference room and received a packet that consisted of a recruitment email, informed consent form for the pilot study, and a hard copy of the survey instrument. First, the participants were required to read and acknowledge the informed consent form in order to continue with their participation in the pilot study. Next, the participants read the email invitation and provided feedback concerning understandability and grammar. Finally, the participants read and answered each of the survey questions on the hard copy survey. They were encouraged to make comments in the margins and provide feedback concerning understandability, directions, and overall effectiveness of the instrument. Once participants completed the survey and provided feedback, their role in the study concluded.

Despite the pilot participants not being current classroom teachers, the pilot study sample provided effective and detailed feedback on the recruitment email, informed consent form, and survey instrument. The participants provided written and verbal feedback concerning all aspects of the study. Minor changes were made to the recruitment email in order to clarify phrasing and grammar. Upon verbal conversations with the participants, the informed consent form was described as effective in informing the participants of their role and rights in the study. Based on each participant's survey

submission, minor changes were made to the survey instrument in order ensure clarity of the survey items. Feedback also ensured data collected through the survey instrument could answer the intended research questions and purpose of the study.

Data Analysis

Survey data were analyzed through a descriptive statistics approach using SPSS, which was produced and distributed by IBM. The approach consisted of analysis of basic information about the participants and a statistical analysis of responses based on numeric values (Gay et al., 2012). The researcher also compiled categorical data concerning years of experience, content and grade level taught, gender, and educational experience.

First, the data results were compared with the initial administration of the needs assessment survey that the participating school conducted in 2014 during the application process. The analysis was made using on a line-item percentage to compare with the results from the 2014 needs assessment survey results. Only the 15 items of the needs assessment survey that related to the purpose of the study were compared. Through this analysis of specific items, changes in the percentages were noted in relation to the changes of teachers' perceptions of writing. Second, survey data analysis consisted of a cross-tabulation analysis using the demographic variables, which included experience, grade level, gender, subjects currently taught, and the highest degree earned. Trends related to teachers' perceptions and use of writing were noted by the researcher through the use of note cards. Statistical data results were recorded on note cards and then divided based on research questions. Trends were then formulated based on analysis of data corresponding to each research question. The understandings and trends regarding

teachers' perceptions gained from the needs assessment correlation analysis and cross-tabulation of demographics were further utilized to guide Phase 2 of the study.

Phase 2: Qualitative

Participants

Participants for Phase 2, the qualitative phase, were selected from the participants of Phase 1. The desired sample size for Phase 2 was eight participants who were selected through a stratified sampling process drawing from the respondents of the Phase 1 survey. The stratified sampling technique was non-proportional in that each of the four subgroups were given equal representation instead of a population percentage of the subgroups (Gay et al., 2012). This sampling was desired as a means to prevent one content area from dominating the data. The researcher desired eight participants across the following four academic content areas: (a) ELA, (b) math, (c) science, and (d) social studies, and two participants were selected from each subgroup. The stratified sampling technique allowed for a balanced and equal sample based on four content areas. Other sampling techniques, like random sampling, would not guarantee an equal sampling representation among the different content areas. Stratified sampling, therefore, prevented over representation with one subgroup dominating the qualitative data. This sampling technique also ensured that each subject area had equal opportunity to provide perspectives specific to that content area, and thus created a varied and rich description of teacher perceptions of writing. In order to form the sample, the researcher first identified the sample size (n = 8) and subgroups, (a) ELA, (b) math, (c) science, and (d) social studies. Members of each subgroup were classified based on the content area taught and randomly selected to participate in individual, semi-structured interviews. The purpose

of randomly selected participants in Phase 2 was to eliminate researcher bias, and taking this approach prevented the researcher from choosing participants who shared a certain point of view, which would have skewed data results. Randomization ensured and provided an unbiased representation of teacher perceptions. Participants of Phase 2 were chosen through a randomized drawing of names, which was available only to the researcher. The names of each participant who completed the survey from Phase 1 were written on a notecard and placed into a container separated by content area taught. Two names were blindly drawn from each container in order to ensure randomization. Names of the randomly chosen interviewees were changed through the use of pseudonyms in order to ensure anonymity of the participants. The interviews were voluntary, and, if an individual chose not to participate in the interview aspect of the study, another name was drawn. Those participants who were selected for Phase 2 were informed through an email letter (see Appendix B), which described the interview process and requirements. Furthermore, the email contained the informed consent (see Appendix A) and interview protocol (see Appendix F) for the interview participants' review prior to the session. Also contained in the email was a request to bring four to five lesson plans for the document analysis portion of the study.

Instruments

In order to improve trustworthiness of the data, two qualitative instruments were utilized: (a) interview protocol and (b) lesson plan document analysis protocol. The purpose of the qualitative instruments was to collect data that explained and elaborated on the understandings gained from Phase 1 by providing individual and personalized experiences (Creswell, 2012). The first instrument utilized was individual, semi-

structured interviews that consisted of 14 questions, in addition to probing questions that allowed flexibility for more in-depth exploration of topics that became apparent during the interview (Hayes & Singh, 2012). With the interview as semi-structured, the researcher developed an interview protocol to ensure consistency, but the researcher had the freedom to control the pace, sequence, and content of the interview through the use of additional interview questions that better allowed the interviewee the opportunity to provide a detailed account and description of the experience (Hayes & Singh, 2012). This interview protocol provided a format and structure to the interview and ensured continuity between interviews. The second instrument utilized was interview participant lesson plan documents, which detailed strategies and activities used during instruction. A document analysis protocol was created in order to provide for continuity during document analysis. The document analysis protocol ensured that the same information and topics were analyzed among all documents. The analysis of lesson plans could collaborate the data gained from the survey and interview of writing strategies used in the classroom. In order to ensure the most accurate and useful lesson plan data were collected, interview participants were asked to bring four to five lesson plans of their choice that reflected their use of writing instruction to the interview session. The lesson plans collected were from the 2018-2019 school year, in order to demonstrate a current use of writing instructional strategies.

This interview approach was chosen over a focus group approach as teachers in a group would be more likely to agree with other as a result of “group conformity” (Hayes & Singh, 2012, p. 254). Also, teachers would be less likely to be candid with their thoughts concerning writing and writing instructional practices when in a focus group

setting with co-workers. Individualized interviews allowed for an environment conducive to eliciting genuine responses through established interview rapport (Hayes & Singh, 2012).

As described in Table 5, the interview protocol was created by the researcher through two phases. An initial protocol was developed that consisted of 14 questions with additional probing questions. Interview questions consisted of background questions to provide a demographic understanding of the participant. Further questions consisted of opinion and feeling questions in order to gain an understanding of participants' perceptions of writing (Hayes & Singh, 2012). Knowledge questions were asked to gain an understanding of the participants' writing instructional practices and examples of writing strategies implemented during classroom instruction (Hayes & Singh, 2012). Probing questions further allowed the researcher to gain greater detail in understanding teachers' writing instruction practices. The questions were based on the four parts of the quantitative instrument: (a) teacher demographics, (b) SRCL abbreviated needs assessment survey, (c) teachers' perceptions, and (d) teachers' use of writing instruction. These parts allowed for continuity during data collection and analysis and ensured that qualitative data would reinforce and elaborate on the quantitative data through personal explanations and experiences.

Table 5

Item Analysis of Qualitative Instrument

Item	Literature	Interview Question	Research Question
Amount of time writing	Gillespie, Graham, Kiuhara, & Hebert, 2014	1	2
A good writer	Curtis, 2017; Troia et al., 2011	2,3	2

Use of writing instruction	Curtis, 2017	4	3
How often writing instruction	Gillespie, Graham, Kiuhara, & Hebert, 2014	5	2, 3
Writing effectiveness	Curtis, 2017; Troia et al., 2011	6	2
Teacher writing confidence	Curtis, 2017	7	2
Writing strategies	Gillespie, Graham, Kiuhara, & Hebert, 2014	8	3
Teacher confidence and teaching writing	Curtis, 2017; Mcleod, 2001; NCTE, 2011; Russell, 1990	9	1, 2
Content area Teacher role in teaching writing	Mcleod, 2001; NCTE, 2011; Russell, 1990	10	1
Professional development	Bifuh-Ambe, 2013	11	3
Writing in content areas	Mcleod, 2001; NCTE, 2011; Russell, 1990	12	1
Improvement of writing	Gillespie, Graham, Kiuhara, & Hebert, 2014	13	2, 3
Professional development benefit	Bifuh-Ambe, 2013	14	3

The second phase of the interview protocol development utilized the findings of the Phase 1 quantitative data analysis. The trends that emerged from the data helped to inform the final version of the qualitative interview protocol. Through the understandings gained with analysis of the quantitative data collected from the survey instrument, the interview protocol questions better elaborated on the trends of the quantitative data. More specific focus and probing questions were added to the protocol in order to increase validity of the instrument. The final version of the interview protocol consisted of questions to gain a complete understanding of teachers' perceptions or the role of writing in content areas and specific writing strategies used during instruction.

The development of an interview protocol was then created using the qualitative interview instrument in order to systematically guide the collection of data. The protocol consisted of a step-by-step format of the practice of conducting individual interviews.

The interview protocol described the consent process, pre-interview elements, during interview routine and questions, probes for discussion, and materials and supplies. The use of this protocol ensured continuity among interviews and the collection of accurate and appropriate data. The interview protocol also included a field notes form to accompany the interview transcript. This form was utilized by the researcher to reflect on the interview immediately at the conclusion of the session. The field notes form consisted of (a) impression of interviewee, (b) general reflections of the interview, (c) special requests that require follow up, and (d) summary of interview. The first section of the field notes, impression of interviewee, allowed the interviewer to make note of gestures, body language, and mannerisms of the interviewee that would not be noted by the interview transcript. The second section of the field notes required the interviewer to make general reflections about the interview. This section would allow the researcher to make note of important information and overall connections and understandings of the interview at the end of the session. The third section allowed for noted requests of transcripts and other information to ensure fidelity of requests. The final section, summary of interview, allowed the interview to create a brief abstract of the interview to aid in recollection during data analysis and integration. This form was meant to accompany the interview transcript and provide the researcher with personal notes to provide additional information during data analysis.

The second qualitative instrument consisted of examining lesson plans as records of the interview participants' instructional strategies. When an interview date and time were agreed upon, the interview participant was asked to bring four or five lesson plans that showed examples of how the teacher used writing instruction in their classrooms.

The participants were asked that these lesson plans come from the fall and spring semesters of the 2018-2019 school year. This timeframe ensure that the lesson plans were current and would give teachers an ample time period to select the lessons. Four to five lesson plans would ensure an appropriate sample size that could display how the participating teachers utilized writing in their content area classrooms. By allowing the participants to choose which lesson plans to submit, they had the ability to produce plans that showed what they thought content area writing looked like. The purpose of this study was to determine how content area writers perceived writing instruction in content areas. The purpose of collecting the lesson plan documents at the time of interview was to gain an understanding of writing instructional strategies in use during content area instruction. However, limitations did exist with the use of this instrument. First, the lesson plans may not have reflected what was actually implemented in the classroom. Lesson plans may not have been updated to reflect changes in instruction. Also, lesson plans may lack detailed descriptions of how writing instructional strategies were implemented. Through allowing the participants to select the lesson plans, the impact of these limitations would be minimized and applicable data would more likely be submitted. Despite these limitations, this instrument was used to reinforce data accuracy through triangulation and indicate the number of uses of strategies discussed during the interview. This instrument added another layer of detail to the qualitative understanding of the quantitative data. The lesson plans corroborated the descriptions of the writing strategies during the interview session, what content area teachers view as writing instruction, and noted the occurrences of writing strategies used during instruction. Although the lesson plans could potentially lack detail, a detailed understanding was

gained through the interview process; therefore, this instrument was an effective compliment to the first qualitative instrument. Through analysis of the lesson plan documents, a better understanding of the use of writing instructional strategies in content area classrooms was ascertained.

Data Collection

Data collection consisted of eight 30-minute to one-hour interviews in which the researcher and participant discussed the topics being researched. Data saturation, or "the point in which the data collection process no longer produces any new or relevant data," was used to determine the number of interview participants (Dworkin, 2012, p. 1319). Participants were met individually and at a time and place of their choosing to ensure their comfort during the interview process. At the beginning of each interview session, the participants were briefed on the purpose, significance of the study, major topics, and interviewee rights. The participants acknowledged their understanding with a signature on the informed consent form in order for the interview process to proceed. The participants were also informed that a digital recorder would be used in order to provide an accurate transcription of the interview. The digital recorder was a small, handheld device with abundant internal storage to ensure the entirety of the interview would be captured. Each participant was made verbally aware when the recorder was recording and was allowed the opportunity to pause recording if needed. The interviewer utilized the interview protocol as a means to stay consistent between interviews and ensured the interviewee was judiciously informed of the interview process. Upon completion of the interview, the recorded aspect of the session was transferred to computer as a digital file in order to be transcribed. The transcription process was conducted by the principal

researcher and consisted of two phases: initial transcription and review. Following initial transcription, the principal researcher reviewed the transcript for typos and ensured the transcript matched the audio recording. As a final aspect of review, the interview participant reviewed the transcript to ensure accuracy. Once an interview was transcribed, analysis of the data was conducted before the next scheduled interview. Lesson plans were also acquired at the time of interview and were analyzed at the same time as the corresponding interview. This procedure ensured that pertinent information from the lesson plans that elaborated or confirmed themes from the interview were not overlooked or forgotten. The lesson plans also reflected current instructional practices and coincided with the timeframe that was discussed during the interview.

In order to ensure effective data collection and analysis in systematic and consistent means, a document analysis protocol was created. This form consisted of the following sections (a) type of document, (b) dates, and (c) document information. The first two sections of the document analysis consisted of identification of the lesson plan document. The final section regarding document information consisted of five questions, which would be analyzed and answered based on the lesson plan document. The five questions were (a) What student writing tasks or activities were described in the lesson plan; (b) How were the writing tasks described; (c) Was the writing task for assessment or instruction; (d) Did the writing task require cognitive processes of writing or simple recall; and (e) Evidence or important quotes. These questions provided a framework for analysis of all lesson plan documents and ensured collection of relevant data pertaining to the research questions.

Trustworthiness

Trustworthiness was addressed through four constructs as described by Guba (1981) and emphasized by Gay et al. (2012) and Shenton (2004): credibility, transferability, dependability, and confirmability. Credibility, as noted by Shenton (2004), is related to internal validity in that the "study measures or tests what is actually intended" (p. 64). Credibility was established in four ways: (a) familiarity, (b) triangulation, (c) honesty of participants, and (d) member checks. Credibility of the study was reinforced through the familiarity experienced with the participating high school faculty, which allowed for a deeper understanding of the environment and an increased amount of trust between the researcher and participants (Shenton, 2004). Triangulation of data, through the utilization of three different data collection instruments, ensured that conclusions drawn from data analysis are supported in multiple ways. The inclusion of participant lesson plans provided an opportunity to cross-check information provided during the interview process. Further credibility was ensured through the use of member checks. Member checks related to the accuracy of data were conducted by the interview participants of the research study. Interview participants were given the opportunity to review transcripts and analysis of the data for accuracy and ensured their personal experiences were portrayed correctly.

Transferability, as noted by Shenton (2004), was related to external validity in that the "extent to which the findings of one study can be applied to other situations" (p. 69). The context of the study was a rural Georgia high school with a small population consisting of only certified teachers, and generalizability was not the expressed goal of the study. However, descriptions of the participating high school, background of the

SRCL grant, and other information had been offered in order for the reader to determine the possibility of transferability (Shenton, 2004). Despite the difficulty of transferability of the specific context related to the school and teacher backgrounds, other recipients of the SRCL grant could reproduce the study to provide a wider range understanding of teachers' perceptions. Shenton (2004) was quick to note that differences in results would not be a sign of untrustworthiness due to the difference in contexts and participants.

Dependability related to the idea of reliability, or the understanding that "if a work were repeated, in the same context, with the same methods, and with the same participants, similar results would be obtained" (Shenton, 2004, p. 71). In order to account for dependability in the study, a detailed and systematic description of the contexts and procedures was included in order to allow for reproduction of the study. Furthermore, the quantitative and qualitative protocols were described in detail and provided in Appendix E and Appendix F.

The final aspect of trustworthiness was confirmability, or "the qualitative investigator's comparable concern for objectivity" (Shenton, 2004, p. 72). Confirmability related to the researcher's ability to describe the experiences of the participants without allowing personal bias and opinions to influence results of data analysis. Confirmability was established through two means: the use of triangulation of data and clear acknowledgements of the researcher's biases and predispositions (Shenton, 2004). Through the use of multiple data points, conclusions drawn from the analysis of data were informed through a quantitative survey instrument and qualitative instruments including interview protocol and lesson plan analysis. Each of these three data points

were considered in presenting data results in order to avoid reliance on preconceived researcher bias.

An important aspect to establish and ensure confirmability is the direct acknowledgement of researcher bias. As a result of the researcher being a faculty member of the participating high school and a member of the target population, steps were taken in order to prevent established researcher bias to influence the data analysis results. The researcher has taught English composition at the participating high school for 7 years and held the belief that writing was an important aspect of the learning process. The researcher further held that writing should be implemented throughout all content areas as a means to reinforce content understanding. Despite these biases, steps were taken to prevent undesired influence during data analysis. These steps consisted of (a) member checking, (b) journaling, and (c) triangulation of data. Interview participants were given the opportunity to review transcripts and analysis of data for accuracy. The use of member checking allowed participants to ensure their perceptions and personal experiences were portrayed with fidelity. Researcher bias was minimized as participants had the opportunity to view data analysis and conclusion. Journaling, or "reflective commentary", provided documentation of researcher observations related to the research process (Shenton, 2004, p. 68). The researcher used the reflective journal as a means to make note of impressions and thoughts during data collection and analysis. A notebook was obtained to record the researcher's thoughts to ensure acknowledged biases did not interfere with the data analysis process. During data analysis, the notebook was used to record feelings, thoughts, experiences, and other insights to ensure transparency. This process allowed for perceived bias to be explained during data analysis and create a trail

that showed the reflective thoughts that led to the researcher's conclusions (Ortlipp, 2008). Finally, triangulation of the data provided for improved confirmability through the use of multiple data sources. Conclusions drawn from multiple data sources reduced the presence of researcher bias in interpretation of the data.

Data Analysis

The qualitative data analysis process was viewed through a phenomenological lens, which allowed for analysis of the "data thematically to extract essences and essentials of participant meanings" (Miles, Huberman, & Saldaña, 2014, p. 8). Hayes and Singh (2012) described this approach as a means to "discover and describe the meaning or essence of participants' lived experiences, or knowledge" (p. 50). As a result of a phenomenological approach, the researcher desired to understand the phenomenon of teachers' perceptions through participants' lived experiences. Therefore, a more emergent data analysis method allowed the researcher to analyze the data and identify themes as they became evident (Miles et al., 2014). Emergent themes were identified by reoccurring codes during the data analysis process.

The qualitative data analysis consisted of two waves of coding and development of emergent themes. The interview protocol document was utilized in data collection to ensure the uniformity of each interview and also ensured that relevant information was gained. The researcher began by personally reading each interview transcript immediately after the session and made reflective notes that noted emergent themes. After the initial reading of the transcript, codes were created and assigned based on meaningful topics and ideas within the data. A codebook was created, which listed code labels from the first wave. The codebook provided readers with an understanding of the

labels and definitions. The codebook was structured based on the description provided by DeCuir-Gunby, Marshall, and McCulloch (2011): (a) code name/label, (b) full definition, and (c) example. The codebook allowed the researcher to analyze the raw data of the transcripts through established codes with a detailed definition that described criteria for the inclusion of an idea or concept labeled by the code. A second wave of coding was conducted to make specific note of common themes throughout each of the transcribed interview texts. During the second wave of analysis, repetition of the codes were noted through the interviews, and similar codes were combined to form themes. The researcher then drew comparisons between each of the interviews and noted examples and descriptions in perceptions and attitudes towards writing. Once themes were identified, the researcher utilized note cards in order to record and organize critical quotes and phrases to present the views of the participants faithfully.

Common writing instruction strategies implemented in the classrooms as described by the participants were analyzed based on lesson plan documents. The lesson plan documents were collected from interview participants at the time of their interview sessions and reflected the fall and spring semesters of the 2018-2019 academic year. The lesson plans were coded along with the respective interview transcripts in order to maintain continuity in analysis. During the first wave of analysis, codes were established that related to writing strategies used during classroom instruction. During the second wave of analysis, occurrence rates of the codes and descriptions of the writing strategies were recorded. The recursive codes were combined into themes that added to the understanding of writing use described by the participants during the interview session. The lesson plan analysis added detail and understanding to the descriptions gained

through the interview process and further confirmed teachers' use of writing strategies in content area classrooms.

Mixed Methods Integration

Integration of both quantitative and qualitative measures was conducted at multiple levels of the study. Fetters et al. (2013) emphasized the importance of integration of both quantitative and qualitative data at three levels: (a) study design level, (b) methods level, and (c) integration and reporting level. At the design level, the researcher utilized the explanatory sequential design that required the researcher to collect and analyze the quantitative data first. Based on the survey responses and initial understanding of teacher perceptions of writing, the researcher then created an interview protocol that elaborated on the understandings generated through previous analysis. The intent was for the qualitative aspect of the study to elaborate and explain the quantitative aspect (Fetters et al., 2013). This framework allowed for rich details that made the quantitative data more valuable through a more detailed understanding of personal experiences. Also, based on the research design framework, the survey responses of the population allowed for the influence of the study through the development of the interview protocol.

Fetters et al. (2013) described the use of four approaches to integrate data at the methods level: (a) connecting, (b) building, (c) merging, and (d) embedding. For the purpose of this study, the connecting and building approaches were utilized. At the methods level, the researcher utilized the idea that data builds upon previous data as presented by Fetters et al. in order to integrate the quantitative and qualitative data. The connecting approach of integration was embraced through the selection of the interview

participants from the survey respondents. Therefore, the participants of Phase 1 influenced the selection of participants for Phase 2, in that the randomly selected eight interview participants were chosen from the Phase 1 participant pool. The building approach of integration allowed results from one data source (the quantitative) to inform the data collection of the other source (the qualitative). An important aspect of this approach was that the qualitative data set reinforced and elaborated on the quantitative data set (Fetters et al. 2013). In addition, by using a method that allowed for data to build upon each phase, the understandings and findings of Phase 1 were elaborated and explained through the qualitative data of Phase 2.

Integration of the quantitative and qualitative data at the interpretation and reporting level consisted of integration through narrative integration. Fetters et al. (2013) described this type of integration as one where the quantitative and qualitative findings are reported together. Fetters et al. further described the weaving approach to narrative integration. This approach weaved both the quantitative and the qualitative data together based on a theme by theme basis (Fetters et al., 2013). Through this approach, the descriptive qualitative themes were presented together with the quantitative statistical analyses to bring about a better understanding of teachers' perceptions of writing and use of writing strategies during classroom instruction. The findings of the study were presented based on themes that integrated both quantitative and qualitative data analysis.

Ethical Considerations

Ethical considerations were taken into account in order to ensure fair treatment of the participants of the study and trustworthiness of the reported conclusions. The following considerations were used (a) institutional review board (IRB), (b) informed

consent, and (c) permission requests. The first ethical consideration consisted of IRB approval. In order to obtain this approval, the researcher completed an online ethics course, Research Involving Human Subjects. The course covered concepts that included reproducibility of research results, authorship, conflicts of interest, data management, peer review, research misconduct, and plagiarism. In addition to completion of this course, the researcher was required to submit all documentation, which included instruments and methodology to ensure correct ethical treatment. The second ethical consideration, informed consent, ensured interview participants were informed about the study. Each participant received an informed consent form that described the goals of the study, the methodology, and rights of the participant. The form also described participants' right to refuse participation in the study and further elaborated on their ability to withdraw from the interview process at any time. Participants who withdrew their participation were ensured their data up to the point of withdrawal would be deleted and not used in the study. Additionally, names of the randomly chosen interviewees were changed through the use of pseudonyms in order to ensure anonymity of the participants. The final aspect of ethical consideration related to permission (see Appendix D). The researcher obtained permission from the GADOE in order to use aspects of the SRCL Needs Assessment survey. The survey was developed by the GaDOE and was a requirement for the SRCL grant application process.

Limitations and Delimitations

The study was limited due to the possible effect of the target population on participation and generalizability. With 61 certified teachers at the participating high school, a small population size could negatively affect the study due to lack of

participation. With a smaller population, the difficulty of obtaining a high survey return percentage was a concern. The small population size further created a limitation with the non-proportional stratified sampling technique used to select potential interview participants. The size of each content area department provided for fewer possible participants for the qualitative phase. Furthermore, the small population size created an inability to generalize study results to a greater population. Study results were limited in that an understanding gained of teachers' perceptions as writing instructors at the participating high school will not translate to an understanding of teachers' perceptions at other SRCL high schools in the state of Georgia.

The delimitation of the study consisted of the use of the target population. Despite the limitations a small population size could potentially create, the accessibility and make-up of the population allowed for great value to the researcher. The entire desired target population was accessible due to researcher employment with the participant high school. With the desire to understand teachers' perceptions of writing at the participant high school, the researcher communicated and interacted with the population with ease. Furthermore, the researcher maintained professional connections and was well known to the population. This professional relationship potentially increased the population's willingness to participate in the quantitative and qualitative aspect of the study.

Summary

The purpose of the study was to investigate teachers' perceptions, confidence, and use of writing instructional strategies in content area classrooms at the end of implementation of the five-year SRCL grant. To answer the research questions, an

explanatory sequential research design was chosen to gather both quantitative and qualitative data. For Phase 1, quantitative data were collected from the population who consisted of certified faculty members of the participating high school. A survey consisting of structured items was created through Google Forms and made available to the target population in an online format through faculty email. Data analysis consisted of descriptive statistics to gain a statistical understanding of responses and compared to the findings of the initial needs assessment survey conducted at the time of SRCL grant application and a cross-tabulation of responses based on demographic variables. For Phase 2, qualitative data were collected from respondents from the Phase 1 survey. The qualitative sample size of eight participants was selected through a non-proportional stratified sampling process with each of the four academic content areas, ELA, math, science, and social studies, represented. This sampling ensured equal representation and prevented one subgroup from dominating the qualitative data and ensured that each subject area had equal opportunity to provide perspectives specific to that content area. Furthermore, the participants of Phase 2 were chosen through a randomized drawing of names, available only to the researcher. The instruments utilized were individual, semi-structured interview protocol that consisted of 14 questions in addition to probing questions and a document analysis protocol of the interviewees' lesson plan data. The qualitative data analysis consisted of emergent themes and was guided by a phenomenology approach in order to understand the phenomenon of teachers' perceptions of writing through their lived experiences. The final aspect of the explanatory research design was the integration of the quantitative and qualitative data. This aspect was accomplished through a narrative weaving approach in which both the

quantitative and qualitative findings were combined and discussed together based on themes.

CHAPTER IV

RESULTS

Introduction

Writing is an important skill for students to possess in order to be competitive in a global job market, and writing instruction is required in order to curtail a perceived student writing deficit (McLeod, 2001; Russell, 1994). However, teacher buy-in and confidence are critical for effective writing instruction to take place (Atwell, 1998; Calkins, 1993; Graves, 1990; Romano, 2007; Susi, 1984). Teacher buy-in and understanding of literacy instruction at the participating high school were presented as a problem based on the HSLT analysis of the needs assessment survey, which was completed at the time of SRCL grant application in 2014. Based on analysis of the needs assessment survey, the HSLT described a "lack of understanding of the role literacy plays in all content areas and a perception that literacy is confined to the English language arts (ELA) classroom" (GaDOE, 2014, p. 3).

Therefore, the purpose of the study was to investigate teachers' perceptions, confidence, and use of writing instructional strategies throughout content areas at the conclusion of implementation of the five-year SRCL grant. An explanatory sequential mixed methods research design was chosen to explore this purpose. The research design consisted of two phases. Phase 1, the quantitative phase, consisted of administering a survey to all certified faculty members of the participating high school. Participants had a one-week window to respond. Quantitative data were analyzed through the use of

SPSS and consisted of descriptive statistical analysis and cross-tabulations based on demographics. The raw survey data were tallied and analyzed in order to inform Phase 2 of the study. Phase 2, the qualitative phase, consisted of interviews and a lesson plan document analysis. The interview transcription process consisted of two phases: initial transcription and review. Following initial transcription, the principal researcher reviewed the transcript for errors and ensured the transcript matched the audio recording. As a final aspect of review, the interview participant reviewed the transcript to ensure accuracy. Qualitative data analysis consisted of two waves of coding and development of emergent themes that related to the research questions. A codebook was created to provide readers with an understanding of the labels and definitions. The codebook also provided the principal researcher an organized structure to analyze the raw textual data of the transcripts. Document analysis of lesson plans was based on a protocol that ensured all documents were consistently analyzed. A pilot study was conducted prior to implementation of the study in order to receive feedback concerning the survey instrument and ensure content validity.

The findings were presented through a mixed methods weaving approach where both quantitative and qualitative data were reported together in a narrative integration (Fetters et al., 2013). Further organization of presentation of the findings was based on emergent themes related to each of the research questions. First, the result of the pilot study was reported in order to discuss minor changes made to the survey instrument. Next, the raw data of needs assessment survey items were reported and compared to the findings of the initial needs assessment survey conducted in 2014. The discussion of the needs assessment survey through the use of both qualitative and quantitative means

followed. Next, three themes were described in regards to RQ1: (a) minimal role in teaching writing, (b) ELA ownership, and (c) requirement of teacher buy-in. Two themes were evident in regards to RQ2: (a) knowledge of content area writing and (b) teacher self-efficacy as writers. Two themes were evident for RQ3: (a) writing implementation and (b) writing as summative assessment. Understanding of the themes provided an overall understanding regarding teachers' perceptions, confidence, and use of writing instructional strategies throughout content areas at the conclusion of implementation of the five-year SRCL grant.

Research Questions

The overarching research focus for this study centered on content area teachers' perceptions as instructors of writing and their perceptions of writing instruction strategies used in their classrooms. The specific questions for this research study were:

RQ1. How do content area teachers perceive their role as instructors of writing?

RQ2. How do teachers perceive their confidence and knowledge of writing instruction?

RQ3. How are content area teachers implementing writing instruction strategies?

Participants

The study took place at a small, rural high school in the State of Georgia with a student enrollment of over 800 students. The school is currently a Title 1 school and services a low-income population of students. According to NCES, the free and reduced lunch population of the participating high school for the 2017-2018 school year consisted of 851 students out of the reported 919, or 92% of the student population (NCES, 2019). According to 2018 U.S. Census data, the county that the participating high school serves

had a total population of 20,299 with 21.6% in poverty and a median household income of 40, 269 (U.S. Census Bureau, 2018).

During Phase 1 of the study, a quantitative instrument in the form of a survey was administered to 57 certified faculty members. Of the total population surveyed, 31 teachers submitted responses to the interview for a response rate of 54%. The desired response rate was 50%. Demographic information was collected at the beginning of the survey, presented in Table 6, in order to conduct cross-tabulations of survey items and demographic variables. A majority of respondents were female, which represented 64.5% of respondents and closely resembled 60% of female teachers who comprised the total population.

Table 6

Frequency Data Regarding Gender of Respondents

Gender	Population	*n*	%
Male	40%	11	35.5
Female	60%	20	64.5

Respondents were further broken down by content area, teaching experience, and grade level taught. Data collected and presented in Table 7 represented all departments, except physical education, with multiple teachers from each content area responding. However, 15 respondents came from ELA and Career, Technical, Agricultural Education (CTAE), which accounted for half of the sample.

Table 7

Frequency Data Regarding Content Area

Content area	*N*	%	Total number of faculty members in the content area
Math	5	16.1	8
Science	6	19.4	8
Social studies	5	16.1	8
English language arts	7	22.6	10
CTAE	8	25.8	18
P.E.	0	0	5

In regards to teaching experience, as presented in Table 8, a majority of respondents, 38.7%, characterized their teaching experience as 0 to 5 years. Furthermore, a large part of the respondents, 35.5%, characterized their teaching experience as more than 20 years. Through analysis, these percentages suggested that teachers at the beginning and ending of their careers were more apt to complete the survey.

Table 8

Frequency Data Regarding Years of Experience

Years of experience	*n*	%
0-5 years	12	38.7
6-10 years	4	12.9
11-15 years	2	6.5
16-20 years	2	6.5
21-25 years	4	12.9
26-30 years	5	16.1
31+ years	2	6.5

Respondents were further broken down by grade level taught, as presented in Table 9. Multiple grade levels could be selected on the survey to consider teachers who taught multiple grades. Based on demographic information, teachers of freshman, sophomores, and juniors were equally represented by the respondents. However, only 32.3% of respondents were characterized as teachers of seniors. The sample of survey

respondents provided an accurate representation of the population of certified teachers of the participating high school.

Table 9

Frequency Data Regarding Grade Level Taught

Demographic Information	*n*	%
Teachers of freshman	19	61.3
Teachers of Sophomores	19	61.3
Teachers of Juniors	21	67.7
Teachers of Seniors	10	32.3

The interview participants consisted of eight randomly selected respondents of the Phase 1 survey. The sample consisted of two certified teachers from each of the following four academic content areas: (a) ELA, (b) math, (c) science, and (d) social studies. Participants ranged in experience from 3 years to 25 years and had teaching experience and certification in their content area.

Pilot Study Findings

Prior to implementation of the Phase 1 survey instrument, a pilot study was conducted to ensure the content validity of the instrument. Participants of the pilot study consisted of two administrators and two guidance counselors and were selected through selective sampling based on their expertise in the educational field, prior content area classroom teaching experience, and classroom observation experience. Based on their provided feedback, minor changes were made to the instrument. These changes were presented in Table 10. The phrase “separate from the school leadership team” was added to Item 1B to clearly differentiate a school literacy team and the school leadership team. The term “cross-curricular” was added to Item 2A to clarify the type of collaboration the

participants would describe. Finally, the term “schoolwide” as added to Item 3E in order to clarify what type of strategy was in place. The pilot participants also discovered two minor errors in the formatting of the survey. The demographic item of “grades currently taught” provided a blank fifth option that should not have been a choice. The fifth option was deleted before the survey was administered to the population. Also, with the same item, a question was raised about teachers who taught multiple grades. Initially, respondents would only be allowed to choose one grade level. However, the item was amended to allow respondents to choose multiple grade levels to correctly identify grade levels taught. Based on the feedback provided, the pilot study participants provided insights that helped to verify content validity and ensured the quantitative instrument gathered data useful to the purpose of the study.

Table 10

Changes to Survey Based on Pilot Study Results

Survey Item	Pre-pilot survey item	Post-pilot survey item
1B	A school literacy leadership team organized by the administrator is active.	A school literacy leadership team, separate from the school leadership team, is organized and active.
2A	Active collaborative school teams ensure consistent literacy focus across the curriculum	Active cross-curricular collaborative school teams ensure a consistent literacy focus across the curriculum
3E	A clearly articulated strategy for using data to improve teaching and learning is followed	A clearly articulated, school wide strategy for using data to improve teaching and learning is followed.
Grades currently taught	Grades currently taught (mark only one oval) ◯ 9th ◯ 10th ◯ 11th ◯ 12th ◯ Option 5	Grades currently taught (mark any that apply) ◯ 9th ◯ 10th ◯ 11th ◯ 12th

2019 Needs Assessment Survey Findings

Part 2 of the quantitative survey consisted of 15 questions derived from the GaDOE needs assessment survey and was scored with a Likert scale consisting of (a) *fully operational*, (b) *operational*, (c) *emergent*, and (d) *not addressed*. *Fully operational* signified that the item was completely implemented in the operation of the school. *Operational* described that the item was in the beginning stages of implementation. *Emergent* signified that the item was in the preliminary or planning stages before implementation. *Not addressed* signified that the item was not currently implemented in the operation of the school.

As presented in Table 11, the raw data findings of Part 2 of the quantitative survey instrument are compared to the findings of the initial needs assessment survey conducted by the participating high school at the time of SRCL grant application in 2014. Initial observation of the raw data showed a similarity in percentages among multiple items between the 2014 and 2019 data sets. Despite a change in faculty over the time period of the SRCL grant and a smaller sample size of participation, percentages of responses among multiple items remained relatively consistent. Item 1A demonstrated this idea and despite a change in leadership, 22.6% of faculty in 2019 in relation to 27% of faculty in 2014 felt administrator commitment to learn and support literacy instruction was *fully operational*. For the same item, relatively similar percentages represent those teachers who felt leadership commitment to literacy instruction was *not addressed*, with 1% in 2014 and 3.2% in 2019. Likewise, 79% of respondents in 2014 and 74.1% of respondents in 2019 felt Item 1C2, effective use of collaborative planning, was at least *operational*.

Table 11

Frequency Data Comparison of 2014 and 2019 Needs Assessment Survey Data

Needs Assessment Year	Not Addressed	Emergent	Operational	Fully Operational
1.A: Administrator demonstrates commitment to learn about and support evidence based literacy instruction				
2014	1%	17%	54%	27%
2019	3.2 %	16.1 %	58.1 %	22.6%
1.B: School literacy team is organized and active				
2014	14%	23%	37%	26%
2019	41.9%	32.3%	22.6%	3.2%
1.C.2: Effective use of time through collaborative planning				
2014	7%	14%	50%	29%
2019	3.2 %	22.6 %	51.5 %	22.6%
1.D: Create a school culture in which teachers across the curriculum are responsible for literacy instruction				
2014	9%	30%	41%	20%
2019	9.7 %	32.3 %	45.2 %	12.9%
1.E: Literacy instruction is optimized in all content areas				
2014	10%	41%	33%	16%
2019	12.9 %	38.7 %	38.7 %	6.5%
2.A: Active cross-curricular collaborative school teams ensure consistent literary focus				
2014	14%	41%	33%	11%
2019	29.0 %	51.6 %	12.9 %	6.5%
2.B: Teachers provide literary instruction across the curriculum				
2014	9%	39%	41%	11%
2019	12.9 %	41.9 %	38.7 %	6.5%
3.A: An infrastructure for ongoing formative and summative assessment is in place				
2014	6%	34%	43%	17%
2019	9.7 %	12.9 %	58.1 %	16.1%
3.D: Summative data is used to make programming decisions				
2014	10%	27%	49%	14%
2019	12.9%	12.9 %	58.1 %	16.1%
3.E: A clearly articulated, schoolwide strategy for using data to improve teaching and learning is followed				
2014	9%	27%	44%	20%
2019	3.2%	45.2 %	48.4 %	3.2%
4.A.2: All students receive direct, explicit reading instruction				
2014	9%	37%	40%	14%
2019	16.1%	22.5%	41.9 %	19.4%

Table 11 (*continued*)

Needs Assessment Year	Not Addressed	Emergent	Operational	Fully Operational
4.A.5: Extended time is provided for literacy instruction				
2014	9%	37%	40%	14%
2019	12.9%	29.0%	29.0 %	29.0%
4.B: All students receive effective writing instruction across the curriculum				
2014	7%	40%	41%	11%
2019	12.9%	45.2%	32.3 %	9.7%
4.C: Teachers are intentional in efforts to develop and maintain interest and engagement as students' progress through school				
2014	1%	23%	57%	19%
2019	6.5%	12.9%	64.5 %	16.1%
6.B: In-service personnel participate in ongoing professional learning in all aspects of literary instruction including disciplinary literacy in content areas				
2014	20%	29%	39%	13%
2019	25.8%	29%	35.5 %	9.7%

2019 Needs Assessment Survey Discussion

The purpose of the study was to investigate teachers' perceptions, confidence, and use of writing instructional strategies throughout content areas at the conclusion of implementation of the five-year SRCL grant. Moreover, the purpose of Part 2 of the quantitative instrument was to gain data concerning teachers' perceptions that would be compared to the previous administration of the needs assessment survey in 2014. Several items of interest were noted during data analysis that demonstrated a discrepancy between school culture of shared literacy responsibility and literacy implementation in content area classrooms.

In 2014, 61% of the faculty believed that Item 1D, a school culture in which teachers across the curriculum are responsible for literacy and writing instruction, was at least *operational* or in practice. That number declined slightly to 58.1% in 2019. On one hand, the interview participants reinforced this belief when each of the eight participants noted that content area instruction should include writing and suggested a shared writing

responsibility within their school culture. Participant 2 reflected his/her belief in this culture through a comment that "the practice of writing and writing in assessment should be integrated into every content area." On the other hand, despite a majority perception of a school culture that embraced all teachers' responsibility to teach literacy and writing, a majority (n = 6) of the interview participants described having no role in writing or literacy instruction in their content classroom. In addition, for Item 1E, 51% in 2014 and 51.6% in 2019 felt that optimized literacy instruction in all content areas was below *operational*. Also, 54.8% of respondents in 2019, up from 48% in 2014, described Item 2B, teachers provide literacy instruction across the curriculum, as below *operational*. Furthermore, a majority of respondents, 58.1% in 2019, which increased from 47% in 2014, felt that the idea that all students received effective writing instruction across the curriculum was below *operational*. Despite a perception of a culture of shared responsibility of literacy instruction, over half of the faculty, at the end of grant implementation, felt that writing instruction across the curriculum was in the beginning stage of implementation, or below *operational*.

In response to Item 1B, 25.8% of respondents felt a school literacy team was organized and active, a decline from 63% in 2014. A school literacy team was active at the beginning of grant implementation and less active at the end. In the early stages of the grant, the literacy team provided insight and leadership. Without an active literacy team to monitor and guide literacy instructional practices, teachers lacked a resource who encouraged a shared responsibility of literacy instruction throughout the content areas. Therefore, without a school literacy team, inconsistencies between a perception of a school culture of shared writing instruction responsibility and practice became possible.

Item 2A further provided a possible understanding to the discrepancy in that only 19.4% of respondents, down from 44% in 2014, described active cross-curricular collaborative school teams ensured consistent literacy focus. A vast majority of respondents, 80.6%, felt that cross-curricular collaboration was below *operational* and, therefore, potentially limited implementation of a schoolwide culture of shared responsibility in writing and literacy instruction. Interview participants further noted the lack of cross-curricular collaboration as a means of limitation between implementation and a shared responsibility culture. Multiple participants noted limited collaboration or discussion among different content area departments. Participant 1 commented that "we need to have more conversations […] teachers are really bad about putting themselves in their classrooms and only needing themselves or only meeting with those in their content area" and "are very departmentalized." Participant 1 described a lack of interdisciplinary collaboration among all content areas. Participant 6, when asked about cross-curricular collaboration further elaborated that "I typically don't see that." There was little formal encouragement of cross-curricular collaboration, as Participant 6 further described a lack of buy-in from the faculty. "People have to be committed and invested …I just don't think that people are invested here for lots of reasons due to trust, stress, [and] all the other things that keep it from being [implemented]" (Participant 4). With the lack of a school literacy team and dedicated cross-curricular collaboration, discrepancies formed between teachers' perception of a schoolwide culture that viewed writing instruction as a shared responsibility among content area teachers and actual implementation of writing instruction.

Another possible understanding for this discrepancy regarding teachers' perceptions of shared writing instruction responsibility and content area teachers' role in such instruction may be found in responses to Item 6B, in-service personal participate in ongoing professional learning in all aspects of literacy instruction including disciplinary literacy in content areas. Over half of respondents, 54.8% of teachers in 2019, down from 49% in 2014, felt ongoing professional development in content area literacy instruction was below *operational*, or lacking. Participants of the study reported the importance of teachers' capability to teach writing; however, many teachers noted a lack of professional development in content area writing instruction. A majority of respondents described a lack of professional development, which potentially limited the implementation of a shared responsibility of writing culture into practice. For Item 3.19, 74.2% of respondents felt they needed instruction in content area writing. Interview participants reinforced this belief when asked about the occurrence of professional development in content area writing and literacy instruction. Seven of the eight participants noted that they had not received professional development in the past year in regards to content area writing and literacy instruction. One participant, an ELA teacher, went to one writing instruction workshop in the past year. Participant 1 reflected the need for professional development and commented "math teachers don't realize there is a lot of literacy in math […] and [professional development] would help math teachers understand more the importance of the [literacy instruction]." Each of these items, as described in Table 12, potentially provided insight into the inconsistencies related to a perception of a shared writing instruction culture and the practice of content area writing instruction.

Table 12

Frequency Data Regarding the Discrepancy between a Perceived School Culture of a Shared Responsibility of Literacy Instruction and Teachers' Perceptions

Needs Assessment Year	Not Addressed	Emergent	Operational	Fully Operational
1.B: School literacy team is organized and active				
2014	14%	23%	37%	26%
2019	41.9%	32.3%	22.6%	3.2%
1.D: Create a school culture in which teachers across the curriculum are responsible for literacy instruction				
2014	9%	30%	41%	20%
2019	9.7 %	32.3 %	45.2 %	12.9%
1.E: Literacy instruction is optimized in all content areas				
2014	10%	41%	33%	16%
2019	12.9 %	38.7 %	38.7 %	6.5%
2.A: Active cross-curricular collaborative school teams ensure consistent literary focus				
2014	14%	41%	33%	11%
2019	29.0 %	51.6 %	12.9 %	6.5%
2.B: Teachers provide literary instruction across the curriculum				
2014	9%	39%	41%	11%
2019	12.9 %	41.9 %	38.7 %	6.5%
4.B: All students receive effective writing instruction across the curriculum				
2014	7%	40%	41%	11%
2019	12.9%	45.2%	32.3 %	9.7%
6.B: In-service personnel participate in ongoing professional learning in all aspects of literary instruction including disciplinary literacy in content areas				
2014	20%	29%	39%	13%
2019	25.8%	29%	35.5 %	9.7%
3.19: I do not need instruction in content area writing				
Strongly Agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree	
6.5%	19.4%	67.7%	6.5%	

SRCL Impact and Role on Content Area Writing Instruction

Furthermore, each interview participant noted there was no visible schoolwide improvement of writing instruction or writing implementation in content area instruction. Participant 5 commented that "I have not seen or heard of any significant writing improvement or seen any professional development geared towards writing or discussion across content areas about writing." Likewise, Participant 1 commented that "I don't

really feel like we saw an effective change from year to year." These two teachers described a perception that the SRCL grant funds did not create an apparent change in implementation of writing instruction or literacy instruction in the participating high school. Participants 2 and 6, both employed at the participating high school for three years, each described little change or discussion concerning the grant. Participant 2 noted that "I have not personally been aware of any changes." Participant 6 suggested that no changes resulted from the grant but also noted that "I haven't heard one word about the SRCL grant…there has not been any professional development or follow-up." Participant 4 summarized the impact of the SRCL grant as "nothing has affected me personally, if anything, [student] writing is getting worse." Being a teacher of freshman students each year, the teacher believed students writing abilities declined from year to year, despite the SRCL grant implementation being district wide.

In relation to SRCL grant implementation, Participant 3 described a short anecdote concerning notebooks purchased using grant funds. When Participant 3 first arrived at the participating high school three years ago, the teacher found a large box of composition notebooks in a bookroom that was going to go to waste. The notebooks were "supposed to go toward writing in math and it was supposed to be for warm-ups the year before I got here […] they planned on throwing them away. I would say it has definitely digressed." Participant 3 described an initial initiative to use grant funds to increase the use of research-based vocabulary and writing strategies in literacy instruction across the curriculum. The teacher's anecdote described an attempt to use the SRCL grant to make positive changes. However, strategy implementation did not continue. Participant 8 also felt that there was no visible change in writing and literacy instruction

in content area classrooms and described that vocabulary improvement strategies were based on content vocabulary. Despite the use of vocabulary improvement strategies, Participant 8 discerned that "there was absolutely no uniformity" and no opportunity to cross-collaborate. Participants 3 and 8 described an attempt in using the SRCL grant to improve literacy instruction throughout content area classrooms but emphasized the lack of uniformity and consistency that prevented the success of implementation.

Participant 7 made similar comments concerning the lack of success of implementation of the SRCL grant; however, the participant noted contributing factors that could possibly have affected implementation. The teacher mentioned that "whoever the powers to be when the grant was written are no longer here […] you're saying 2014, that's two principals back, so it has never been stressed to me" (Participant 7). Participant 8 also further suggested that although the strategies were research-based, academic indifference of the students played a role in preventing the strategies from becoming effective. Participant 8 noted that "the problem that we had with [vocabulary intervention] was that there was absolutely no grade attached to it, so academic indifference kicks in for the students." Not only did a change in leadership prevent consistent implementation of the grant, but also a lack of student buy-in prevented implemented strategies from taking hold.

Survey respondents noted that a culture of shared responsibility of writing and literacy instruction existed; however, interview participants contradicted this characterization. Multiple factors might have contributed to this discrepancy. The lack of an active literacy team limited monitoring and support for content area writing instruction. Furthermore, a lack of cross-curricular collaboration potentially fueled this

discrepancy through limited discussion of writing implementation among content areas. Also, a lack of professional development geared toward content area writing instruction limited teachers' understanding of content area writing. In addition, a perception that there was no visible schoolwide improvement of writing instruction in content area classrooms as a result of implementation of the SRCL grant due to change in leadership further added to the discrepancy between perceived culture of shared responsibility of writing instruction and actual implementation.

Research Question 1

The purpose of Research Question 1 was to examine how content area teachers perceived their roles as instructors of writing. During data analysis, three themes became evident in regards to how content area teachers perceived their role as writing instructors: (a) minimal role in teaching writing, (b) ELA ownership, and (c) requirement of teacher buy-in. Content area teachers perceived a minimal role in writing instruction despite a view of the importance of writing in content area instruction. Furthermore, participants described a perception of ELA ownership based on ELA teachers' expertise in writing and the time required to implement effective writing instruction. In addition, content area teachers described teacher buy-in as an important aspect of successful writing instruction in content area classrooms and perception of role as writing instructors. Each of these themes demonstrated how content area teachers at the end of SRCL grant implementation perceived their role as writing instructors and mirrored teachers' perceptions as indicated in the survey results from 2014.

Theme 1: Minimal Role in Teaching Writing

Content area teachers viewed writing as an aspect of content area instruction that could have a positive effect on student learning, although content area teachers embraced a minimal role as instructors of writing. Based on Item 1D, 48.1% of respondents perceived a school culture in which teachers across the curriculum were responsible for literacy instruction. Almost half of the survey respondents felt that content area teachers were responsible for literacy instruction in content areas. For Item 3.5, 87% of teachers felt that writing should be implemented into all classes. Most content area teachers believed that writing should be taught across all content areas and writing was effective in helping students learn. When participants reported on their own teaching practices and experiences, all non-ELA content teachers did not take on the role of writing instructor. Interview participants described content area teachers as having a minimal role in teaching writing in the content area classroom. Each of the eight interview participants reinforced this understanding and believed that content area instruction should include writing. Furthermore, each interview participant believed that writing was effective in helping the student learn. Despite this belief, the role of content area teachers in writing instruction was described as minimal. Of the eight participants, all six non-ELA content area teachers described that they had little or no role in writing instruction. Participant 1 noted that "I don't think I really have much of a role. I think most of that happens in the ELA classroom." Participant 7 reinforced this idea that the content area teachers' role was "basically to stay out of the ELA teachers' way." Participant 6 reflected this sentiment in that "I would end up doing more damage than helping." Participant 4 described the content area teachers' role as "while I think everybody has some

responsibility in [writing instruction], I think it should be handled elsewhere." Participant 6 viewed content area teachers' role as "not so much writing […but] getting them to read things outside of their norm."

Both ELA teachers viewed their role as a writing instructor and teacher of writing in order to "help students become more comfortable writing," which further added to a perceived ELA responsibility of writing instruction (Participant 5). These perceptions of the content area teachers' role in writing instruction put Items 1E and 2B in perspective, as Table 13 presented. For Item 1E, 51.6% of respondents noted that optimized literacy instruction in all content areas was below *operational*. For Item 2B, 54.8% of respondents noted teachers providing literary instruction across the curriculum was *not addressed* or was *emergent*. Despite the view of the importance of inclusion of writing in content area instruction, a majority of respondents described content area writing instruction as below *operational*, reflecting a perception of a minimal role and responsibility for teaching writing in content area instruction.

Table 13

Frequency Data Related to a Perceived Minimal Role of Content Area Teachers in Writing Instruction

Needs Assessment Year	Not Addressed	Emergent	Operational	Fully Operational
1.D: Create a school culture in which teachers across the curriculum are responsible for literacy instruction				
2019	9.7 %	32.3 %	45.2 %	12.9%
1.E: Literacy instruction is optimized in all content areas				
2019	12.9 %	38.7 %	38.7 %	6.5%
2.B: Teachers provide literary instruction across the curriculum				
2019	12.9 %	41.9 %	38.7 %	6.5%
3.5: Writing should be implemented into all classes				
2019	41.9%	45.2%	12.9%	3.2%

Theme 2: Perception of ELA Ownership

ELA ownership of writing instruction, or the idea that writing should mainly occur in ELA content instruction instead of content area instruction, was evident based on analysis of survey respondent data and interview participant's responses. The responses to Item 3.8, which stated that writing instruction should occur mainly in ELA classrooms, described that 71% of respondents agreed, and of that group, 22.6% *strongly agreed* with this statement. Not only did a vast majority agree that writing instruction should mainly be in the domain of ELA classrooms, but nearly one-fourth felt that they *strongly agreed* with that sentiment. Participant 1 reflected this thought and noted that "I think most of that [teaching writing] happens in the ELA classrooms." Participant 5 further noted that "I haven't seen [writing instruction] enough in practice. I haven't really seen it outside of an ELA classroom." Each of the two ELA teachers, Participants 2 and 5, were asked if they used writing instruction during content instruction and both replied with laughter "well…being an ELA teacher…" (Participant 5). This sentiment suggested the importance of writing to the ELA content and also the assumption that writing instruction was not only the ELA teacher's role, but their responsibility. Participant 2 noted that "primarily I do think that it's the ELA teacher's job to teach writing." ELA teachers seemed to assume writing ownership in ELA classrooms, while other content area teachers see ELA ownership in writing instruction because they feel writing opportunities are limited in content classrooms.

A common sentiment that became evident during analysis of interview data was that content area teachers felt that ELA teachers possessed an expertise in writing instruction and writing evaluation. Therefore, writing instruction should take place in the

ELA classroom. Participant 3 had some comfort in helping students with punctuation, but he/she felt that ELA teachers possessed more writing expertise because "we don't go into as much detail quite like literature class would." Participant 3 was comfortable with basic writing structure but lacked the writing expertise that ELA teachers possessed to go into more depth with writing. Participant 3's comments reflected what Participant 1 noted as "some people are so ELA-minded and not math-minded that we almost put up a brick wall between us." Participant 1 suggested that being "ELA-minded", ELA teachers were more adept as writing instructors, as opposed to being "math-minded" with an expertise in mathematical computations. Participant 6 further reinforced this idea in that "I am not an English teacher, and I have a feeling I would end up doing more damage than helping." These non-ELA teachers described common sentiments that ELA teachers had the skills and expertise to teach writing effectively, while other content area teachers lack comfort and understanding to teach writing effectively. Participant 5 further described the idea of expertise as related to writing and content area instruction: "As an English teacher, I am more equipped at doing vocabulary and looking at root words and context clues […] I wouldn't expect a math teacher to have those same kind of strategies in their tool kit." Participant 5 described the importance of ELA teachers having a wide understanding and expertise of the writing process and strategies in order to help students with their writing and improve student writing ability. Participant 2 further noted that "[one] must have, especially as an English teacher, [one] has to be fluent with all those things." Participant 2 further described the perception of English teachers' expertise in writing instruction in that ELA teachers have access to more tools and strategies to teach

writing. Content area teachers viewed ELA classrooms as a natural home for writing instruction based on ELA teachers' knowledge and expertise in teaching writing.

Time further played into the perception that writing instruction should mainly take place in the ELA classroom. According to responses for Item 3.9, there was not enough time to teach writing and content material; 64.5%, including all social studies teachers, agreed with this statement. Participant 5, an ELA teacher who implemented writing instruction on a daily basis, described that "my content area more than any other provides specific opportunities for writing." Participant 5 acknowledged that there was time and opportunity to implement writing instruction in the ELA classroom as opposed to other content areas. Participant 2, another ELA teacher who also implemented writing instruction daily, noted that it was a large part of ELA state standards and described that "I understand time wise they feel like they probably don't have time to teach writing because they have their content standards [to cover]." For non-ELA content area teachers, time was a barrier to increased implementation of writing. Participant 6 reflected this view in that "there are other classes better suited for [students] to write." Participant 1 described utilizing writing instruction only once a month due to "math in itself has so many standards that we have to meet that we struggle just to cover all the content without adding what I would call extra." Participant 4 further noted that Participant 4's class was an End of Course Test (EOC) that required the participant to get through the curriculum map in order to ensure students were prepared for the high-stakes test, which left little time to implement writing instruction. Not only do content area teachers feel a time crunch to cover content material, they also feel that writing instruction took too much time to implement. Participant 5 acknowledged that

"everybody feels constraints of writing because writing takes a lot longer than other tasks you could have students do." Upon reflection of a writing strategy, Participant 3 felt that "it took up too much time." Participant 4 came to a similar conclusion while discussing a cell campaign project. The project "was about two weeks' worth of in-class time and we were not able to go over the information in class" (Participant 4). As a result of obligation to cover EOC-related content material and writing instruction being time intensive, content area teachers held a perceived view of ELA ownership of writing instruction.

Theme 3: Requirement of Teacher Buy-in

Content area teachers' buy-in was related to how they perceived their role as instructors of writing. Content area teachers described teacher buy-in as an important aspect of increased writing instruction in content area classroom instruction. Participant 6 noted that "people have to be committed and invested" in order to be willing to add writing instruction to content area classrooms. Teachers' buy-in to a shared responsibility of writing instruction across the curriculum did not happen with ultimatums or directives. Participant 5 noted that teacher buy-in came from helping teachers to understand how to write within a content area that was directly tied to standards-based instruction. Furthermore, Participant 5 described the current environment as "we just get these overarching ultimatums like 'you need to do this in your room' but then we are never told how that connects to what we are doing or how that looks so we just push it off." Teacher buy-in was an important aspect in understanding teachers' perceptions of role in writing instruction. Participant 2 further elaborated in that "teachers have to be willing to try [writing instruction] and then you

also have to have a leadership team or administrator or academic coach that is going to follow up and provide help." Without buy-in to instructional practices and support, teachers' perception of their role in content area writing instruction was potentially negatively affected.

Research Question 2

The purpose of Research Question 2 was to examine teachers' perceptions of their confidence and knowledge of writing instruction. During data analysis, two themes became evident in regards to how content area teachers perceived their confidence and knowledge of writing: (a) knowledge of content area writing and (b) teacher self-efficacy as writers. Teacher knowledge and self-efficacy as writers were important factors that led to content area teachers' use of writing strategies and tasks during content area instruction. However, participants displayed a lack of understanding of content area writing as characterized by formal writing, as opposed to writing to learn, and expressed a lack of self-efficacy in writing ability, which led to negative perceptions of writing usage during content area instruction.

Theme 1: Knowledge of Content Area Writing

Graham and Perin (2007) showed that writing not only had a positive influence on learning, but the act of writing could be an effective tool in content area classroom instruction in order to encourage development of student content knowledge. Writing, therefore, is an instructional tool that allows students to reinforce and understand content knowledge (Arnold et al., 2017). To this end, writing-to-learn activities were strategies that used writing as a tool of learning content that allowed the content area teacher to encourage students to delve deeper into the content through writing in order to develop

deeper content understanding. Writing is more than assessment of learning (Russell, 1994). However, many teachers not only described writing as a summative practice, but few noted writing as an instructional tool to be used to help students develop deeper understandings of content material.

Teacher participants displayed a limited understanding of what content area writing entailed and what writing to learn strategies looked like when implemented. Each teacher agreed that writing effectively helped students learn the content However, further analysis of survey responses and interview participant descriptions suggested a misunderstanding of what constituted content area writing. As noted in Table 14, this limited understanding or confusion concerning what constitutes writing instruction was evident in that 77.4% of respondents for Item 3.2, I take time to instruct students on how to specifically write in my content area, stated they agreed with the statement. A vast majority of teachers felt they used specific writing instruction during content instruction. However, other items showed a lack of perceived implementation in content area classrooms as noted by Item 1E where 51.6% described the idea that literacy instruction was optimized in all content areas as only *emergent*. Just under half the respondents, 48.4%, did not believe that literacy instruction was optimized in content area classrooms. This belief contradicts the majority of teachers' perceptions of instructing students to specifically write in their content. Furthermore, 58.1% of respondents noted that Item 4B, all students receive effective writing instruction across the curriculum, was only an *emergent* idea at best. Despite a majority of teachers having described use of writing instruction, one-third of the respondents did not believe writing instruction was taking place across the curriculum. These discrepancies demonstrated a possible perceived

misunderstanding of knowledge in what constituted writing instruction during content instruction.

Table 14

Frequency Data Related to Content Area Teachers' Knowledge of Content Area Writing

Strongly Agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
3.2: I take time to instruct students on how to specifically write in my content area			
25.8%	51.6%	19.4%	3.2%

A limited understanding became evident in analysis of interview participants' thoughts concerning content area writing instruction. Most content area teachers immediately associated writing essays and formal structured writing as a requirement for content area writing instruction. Participant 1 described that "we just don't write paragraphs [in math] to explain things, we just write short sentences and so when I think of writing, I think of essays and researching different things." Participant 3 further equated content area writing through the use of essay type open response questions on end of unit assessments. When asked what types of writing tasks are used, Participant 4 described limiting essay writing in the science classroom due to the difficulties of grading research papers and essays and noted that "this was one of the struggles in learning how to implement writing in the classroom." Participant 4 perceived writing essays as a necessary part of content area writing instruction. Participant 7 responded similarly as "we don't write essays or papers [in social studies], but we have a lot of open-ended questions;" thus, the researcher identified a perceived understanding of content area writing instruction required formal essay writing. Participant 6 also reflected this idea and noted "I look at the definition of writing, I immediately think of essays, short stories,

reports, and stuff like that." Participant 6 described a perception that ELA style writing, like essays and creative writing, was a required characteristic of content area writing instruction. As an example of content area writing instruction, Participant 8 described that once during the fall semester, students wrote an essay related to "current affairs information, otherwise a lot of what we do in economics is not something that would necessary lend itself to writing." Participant 8 saw essay writing as an example of writing instruction and, therefore, was limited to when the teacher could align the content with the opportunity to write a formal essay. A majority of the interview participants shared this perception and saw content area writing as implementation of formal, structured essays and open response questions.

A majority of interview participants displayed a limited understanding of content area writing instruction that went beyond the use of essay writing. Interview participants viewed content area writing instruction as structured and formal essays and did not seem to recognize that informal writing constituted content area writing instruction. Interview participants provided examples of informal writing strategies or writing to learn strategies However, they did not seem to recognize that these types of writing strategies reflected content area writing instruction. Despite equating essay and structured writing as an important characteristic of content area writing, Participant 4 also noted the importance of providing instruction concerning science content specific writing. Participant 4 provided direct content area writing instruction in order to teach students how to write lab reports. This teacher provided specific examples and feedback related to writing the abstract, procedures, and results of a lab report. Participant 5 reinforced this idea that content area teachers should use writing during instruction because "writing varies so

much depending on content." The teacher further described that content area writing "should be in terms of whatever the content area requires. I don't think that a science teacher should be making students write a five-paragraph essay if that is not within the boundaries of their content." To reinforce this idea, the teacher further summarized content area writing in that "I think that writing needs to be used in whatever way fits into the standards." Whereas many teachers assumed content area writing required formal essays, Participant 5 noted that content area writing should look like the content and recommended not attempting to implement ELA style writing into other content classrooms. Participant 2 described this definition of content area writing in providing potential strategies in that students "can write about how they came to the answer of an equation, or they can respond to an event they learned in social studies." This teacher described that content area writing should expose students to different types of writing in different contexts to help students engage with and better understand the content material. Participant 2 further described that content area writing helps students to "process new information and forces them to organize content material in a logical way." Despite these participants' understanding and knowledge of content area writing, there was an overall confusion on what "content area writing" was and looked like.

Theme 2: Teacher Self-efficacy as Writers

Participants of the study reported that the importance of teachers' capability to teach writing. However, many teachers acknowledged they lacked confidence and self-efficacy to implement content area writing instruction. Participants described the importance of teachers' perceptions of writing ability and self-efficacy. As noted by Table 15, 74.2% of respondents agreed that a teacher had to be a good writer to teach

writing. Interview participants reinforced this understanding and provided insight into why perceptions of writing ability and confidence were important. Seven of the eight interview participants answered "yes" when asked if a teacher had to be a good writer in order to teach writing. Multiple participants noted that you cannot teach what you do not know in regards to teachers' self-efficacy and writing ability. Participant 2 suggested "not that [a teacher has] to be an expert, but you have to have some personal experience with what you are asking them to do." Participant 4 reiterated this understanding, "I think you need at least a good basic understanding; you don't have to be J.K. [Rowling] but you do need a basic understanding." Participant 5 noted that "you have to be comfortable within whatever that type of writing is […] I don't think a biology teacher needs to be good at writing a literary analysis in order to teach how to write a lab report." Participant 7 added "mainly because if you don't understand how something goes, it makes it hard to teach it. Participant 3 provided an alternate explanation, "I guess you have to comfortable but at the same time, you and your students can learn together." Each participant described the importance of writing ability in teaching writing.

Study participants also acknowledged that personal writing ability influenced writing instruction. Six of the eight interview participants answered in the affirmative when asked if personal writing ability influenced writing instruction. Participant 6 described how a teacher's strength in an aspect of writing could have a positive influence on the teacher's implementation of writing instruction. The teacher described editing and revising as a strength and could instruct students in that aspect. Participant 5 felt that planning, organizing, and brainstorming were a strength and reinforced how personal writing ability influenced writing instruction. The teacher commented that "I think

because of that and that is how my brain works as a writer, I really emphasize that in my teaching." Participant 2 recognized that a teacher must have experience and understanding with writing in order to guide, model, and help students in their writing. The teacher commented that with knowledge and writing ability "you can model [writing] and you can provide a think aloud for them. You can't just expect them to write it and then grade it arbitrarily." Each of these participants described that a teacher's self-efficacy as a writer played a role in the implementation and use of writing instruction; however, the two teachers felt writing ability had little effect on writing instruction.

Participant 8 described writing ability as a barrier to instruction. Participant 8 was a confident writer that practices academic writing and discourse in which a topic was researched, analyzed, and discussed "using very high ended academic language." Participant 8 commented that "I cannot even approach getting the students to that point." Because of Participant 8's strong and academically sophisticated writing background, the participant perceived a barrier to implementing writing instruction. Participant 8 knew what good and effective academic writing looked like through experience; however, the participant felt that background did not help his students reach a higher level of academic writing ability. Participant 1, a math teacher, also felt that writing ability had little effect on teaching writing in math because "it's not more of the essay kind of writing. It is more of short sentences that explains things." Participant 1 felt that math content writing consisted of short writing of mathematical processes instead of longer academic essays and noted that teacher writing ability had little influence on writing instruction.

Despite the importance of teachers' self-efficacy on writing instruction, many teachers described a confidence in different areas of the writing process. Survey

respondents described overall positive views in regards to self-efficacy as writers. For Item 3.10, 93.6% of the respondents felt confident enough in their own writing ability to critique another person's work. Likewise, for Item 3.11, 90.3% of respondents felt confident in their ability to clearly express ideas in writing. Furthermore, for Item 13, 90.3% disagreed with the statement, "I have difficulty organizing my thoughts and ideas." However, the confidence that was described in these survey items declined when respondents compared their writing ability to others. For Item 3.12, 58% of respondents felt that they were not as good of a writer as others. Despite the confidence in writing ability teachers described on the survey, the interview participants reported a low perception of writing ability and comfort level in teaching writing. Each teacher agreed that writing was an effective means to help students learn content material; however, each of the eight interview participants admitted a low comfort level in teaching different aspects of writing.

Table 15

Frequency Data Related to Content Area Teachers' Self-efficacy as Writing Instructors

Strongly Agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
3.3: A teacher has to be a good writer to teach writing			
12.9%	61.3%	25.8%	0%
3.10: I feel confident enough in my writing ability to critique another person's writing.			
32.3%	61.3%	6.5%	0%
3.11: I feel confident in my ability to clearly express my ideas in writing.			
48.4%	41.9%	9.7%	0%
3.12: I don't think I am as good of a writer as others			
3.2%	54.8%	32.3%	9.7%
3.13: I have difficulty organizing my thoughts and ideas as I work			
0%	9.7%	74.2%	16.1%

Research Question 3

The purpose of Research Question 3 was to examine how content area teachers implement writing instruction at the participating high school. During data analysis, two themes became evident in regards to content area teachers' implementation of writing instruction: (a) writing implementation and (b) writing as summative assessment. Content area teachers reported that the use of a variety of writing strategies and tasks; however, most of the tasks did not require a high degree of cognitive processing. Teachers used writing strategies for a limited purpose. Despite a common perception among participants that characterized content area writing as very structured and formal, each of the interview participants described effective use of writing instruction to engage their students in content material learning through writing.

Theme 1: Writing Implementation

Interview respondents reported the use of numerous writing strategies and tasks in content area instruction. Table 16 presented the findings of Part 4 of the survey instrument, in which survey respondents were asked to note any writing strategy or task they implemented during classroom instruction. Mostly, teachers chose from the predetermined list of writing strategies and tasks; however, three additional strategies were entered in by participants. Based on cross tabulation of survey responses from Part 4, ELA respondents reported the use of 11 of the 12 listed strategies and tasks. Furthermore, ELA respondents noted the use of responsive writing and creative writing during instruction. Math respondents noted the use of six different strategies and represented the fewest use of writing strategies during instruction. Overall, math respondents primarily reported the use of worksheets and notes, while one respondent

noted the use of Role, Audience, Format, and Topic (RAFT) and quick writes. Writing tasks teachers perceived as summative, research papers and essay tests, showed to be utilized by half of the respondents.

Tasks that required little cognitive processing, like notetaking, worksheets, fill-in-the-blank notes, and summarization, showed high response rates among respondents. Of the 31 respondents, 26 noted the use of worksheets, and 27 utilized notes as forms of writing instruction. Respondents showed a lower response rate for creative tasks, such as free-verse poetry, quick writes, and creative writing. Journaling was the most widely used creative task with 17 respondents citing use. Other writing strategies and tasks, like conferencing, micro-themes, and document-based questions showed a low response rate of fewer than five respondents. Based on the analysis of Part 4, teachers viewed writing as more summative or useful in simple writing exercises and not widely used for creative means. The raw data from Part 4 was further described and elaborated through discussion with interview participants that described different unique means of implementing writing instruction and use of writing as a summative assessment strategy. Each interview participant described and documented, through lesson plans, examples of how they used writing instruction in order to help their students effectively learn the content material.

Table 16

Frequency Data Related to Writing Strategies and Tasks Implemented in Content Area Classrooms

Writing task/strategy	Number of teacher responses	Percentage of responses
Journals	17	11%
Essay test	14	10%
Research paper	13	9%

Table 16 (*continued*)

Writing task/strategy	Number of teacher responses	Percentage of responses
Worksheets	26	17%
Notes	27	17%
Free-verse poetry	2	1%
Summarization	18	11%
RAFT	6	3%
Quick writes	9	6%
Micro themes	0	0
Conferencing	4	3%
Fill in the Blank notes	20	12%
Creative writing	1	1%
Responsive writing	1	1%
Document-based question (DBQ)	1	1%

Science implementation of content area writing instruction. The two science teacher interview participants provided insight on writing instructional strategies they implemented during classroom instruction. These two participants varied in occurrences of implementation of writing instruction, with one describing weekly use and the other monthly. Participant 4 described an elaborate, authentic project that implemented numerous types of literacy and content area writing opportunities. Participant 4 implemented a cell project that required students to work in groups to create a presidential campaign for their assigned organelle. Students were required to research their organelle, create a campaign poster with an original slogan, a pamphlet, a video ad, a mascot, and give a final speech. The project ended with the class voting for the cell organelle president. This elaborate project created an authentic means for the students to gain content understanding of content material through a multimodal literacy and writing assignment. Both participants described the occasional use of the RAFT strategy, which six survey respondents utilized to help students connect and understand content material. Despite the content of the science class being more mathematical, Participant 6 utilized

the RAFT strategy in order for students to understand abstract concepts like atom movement or the carbon cycle. Participant 4 also noted using of the RAFT strategy in order to understand the movement and organization of molecules through what the teacher called the molecule game. The students rolled dice and then correlated the number they rolled with a specific role, audience, format, and topic. The students then wrote a creative story based on their dice roll and understanding of the content.

According to survey data, 27 respondents, almost all survey participants, described the notetaking task as a means of implemented content area writing. Participant 6 further noted the use of writing in taking notes and created what the participant called "muscle memory". Participant 6 perceived the value of writing as a means of simply writing and rewriting content material notes in order to gain memorization. Participant 4 further noted the use of the note-taking and worksheets as examples of content area writing, and described that the goal of these strategies were perceived as "if you write it, you are more likely to remember it," similar to Participant 6's view of muscle memory. However, Participant 4 also described notetaking as requiring "not a whole lot of brain activity," which signified that note taking was a simple process and not reflective of the cognitive processes utilized in writing.

In addition to these creative uses of content area writing, Participant 4 also described the importance of teaching students how to write lab reports. Through modeling, Participant 4 taught students how to write specific aspects and sections of a lab report in order to display insights and information from scientific lab experiments. For lab reports, students were required to have an abstract, an introduction, detailed procedures, materials, and a conclusion based on the collected data. Participant 4

described the importance of a science teacher teaching science content area writing in order to help students to think and write like a scientist. Participant 4 also noted the importance that helping students to not only describe their conclusions based on data but also gave an explanation as to the "why and how" of the data. The teacher would model how to write different sections and provide examples that showed "what a good one looks like."

Math implementation of content area writing instruction. The two math teacher interview participants further provided insight on writing instructional strategies implemented during math content instruction. Each of the teachers described a monthly occurrence of writing instruction, which simply occurred on the unit test as a form of assessment in order to prepare for the EOC; however, both participants discussed instructional writing tasks and strategies that helped students comprehend mathematical content through writing instruction. The math teachers perceived math content writing as related to students' ability to describe their thought process while solving problems. Participant 1 described math as very numerical and, therefore, did not write paragraphs; however, the participant noted that "whatever goes through [the student's] head needs to come put on paper." In order to encourage student development and expression of the thought process required to solve a mathematical equation, Participant 1 routinely encouraged students to write their thoughts on their desks with dry erase markers. The desks were coated in a material that allowed dry erase markers to be wiped off. This strategy gave the students the opportunity to write larger and display their thought process while erasing and working through their errors. Participant 3 described the use of worksheets and fill-in-the-blank notes in order to provide writing instruction. Based on

survey data, 20 respondents reported using fill-in-the-blank notes, and 26 reported using worksheets during instruction. Participant 3 described how these tasks encouraged the students to write. One worksheet required students to write their own detailed word problem "so [the students] have to come up with names and numbers and a whole background for the problem" (Participant 3). Participant 3 further described the use of writing in pairs, which allowed for collaboration and discussion among the students. The students also conducted brief quick writes or solved equations and discuss their thought processes with each other.

Social studies implementation of content area writing instruction. Both social studies teachers described writing as a critical component of learning; however, the teachers described monthly use of content area writing instruction. Participant 7 described an effective strategy to help students understand the nuances of the Declaration of Independence through the use of a RAFT assignment. Instead of students simply summarizing the document, they were tasked with rewriting the document so that a younger audience could understand the content. This task forced students to analyze and synthesize information into a different format. The teacher described the reasoning and benefit of the strategy as "if [the student] can process this and put it into a simpler form so [a different audience] can understand, maybe [the students] understand the content better" (Participant 7).

Participant 8 described two examples of personal implementation of writing tasks and instruction in an economics class. The teacher utilized a jigsaw strategy in which students were divided into groups where each group received a different article. The groups had a certain amount of time to read and discuss their article before they switched

groups. In the new groups, each group member shared their understanding of the article and made note of a group consensus concerning different aspects of what they read on a graphic organizer. Afterwards, the teacher wrote the following prompt on the board: "should the United States pay off its national debt or not?" (Participant 8). The students wrote a constructed response based on the information they read and were given from the other groups. This strategy allowed the students to critically think like economists concerning the content material through authentic means. The teacher further described the use of podcasts regarding the marketplace morning report in order to experience the content through authentic means. The students summarized the podcast and described how the podcast related to the content being studied. The goal of the strategy was to help the students "to become analytical and use critical thinking skills." Despite the expressed lack of occurrence of writing instruction, these teachers described how content area writing instruction was implemented in the social studies classroom.

ELA implementation of content area writing instruction. The two ELA teachers embraced writing instruction in their classroom as a daily occurrence and further elaborated on different strategies used in order to help students gain content understanding. Both teachers described use of the RAFT model and quick-writes in order to engage students in the content. Nine teachers noted use of the quick write strategy during classroom instruction. In addition, both teachers noted use of a strategy they referred to as timed writing. Participant 5 discussed the use of the time writing strategy as a means to create a composition in a limited amount of time order to provide instruction in the writing process and editing of drafts. The strategy allowed the teacher to provide dedicated writing instruction in order to teach structure and review techniques.

Participant 2 also described the successful use of timed writing where multiple revision stations were set up and allowed students to revise their drafts based on the station topic. Participant 2 further noted that one station related to sensory details. The students read through their drafts and highlighted all sensory details and then used material at the station in order to incorporate the idea into their compositions. The students then moved to the next station at their own pace and incorporated different strategies and techniques into their composition.

Both participants described dedicated use of writing instruction; however, both teachers felt the constraints of preparation for EOC testing. Participant 5 noted being "confined by state standards and state testing […] it feels like a sacrifice to do creative writing, free writing, that kind of thing." Therefore, both teachers felt a need to focus on structured and formal writing. Participants 2 and 5 utilized graphic organizers that focused on brainstorming and prewrite exercises that emphasized the usefulness of organizing thoughts before writing. Participant 2 also focused on the use of outlining and content webs to help students visualize how their formal writing should be structured. Furthermore, both teachers utilized sentence starters and sentence stems, which provided differentiated instruction to students who struggled with formal essay writing.

Theme 2: Writing as Summative Assessment

Participants of the study viewed the use of writing during content area instruction as a means of summative assessment in order to show what students learned. For Item 3A, an infrastructure for ongoing formative and summative assessment is in place, 74.2% of respondents noted this item to be at least *operational*. Similarly, for Item 3D, summative data is used to make programming decisions, 74.2% of respondents perceived

this item as being at least *operational* across the school. Survey respondents perceived the importance of summative assessment in making instructional decisions.

Participant 2 reflected this belief in that "I feel that it is probably used more for assessing in other content areas [because writing] is really the measure if you mastered the content, is if you can explain it in your own words." Furthermore, respondents noted in Part 4 of the survey that tasks related to summative assessment, research paper and essay test, were frequently noted as being used during content area instruction. Fifteen respondents noted the use of essay tests, and 13 noted the use of research papers during instruction. Participant 3 described the use of open response and essay questions on unit assessments in order to use writing to assess learning and commented that "if they can write about it and tell you what they are doing then we know that they know what they are doing." Participant 5 mirrored this explanation and remarked "if you can effectively write about a topic or concept…then that means you actually understand what the concept is." Furthermore, Participant 5 mentioned that if you can write about a topic, "it shows that you really understand more so than if you answered some multiple-choice questions."

Participant 7 further elaborated on the use of open response and essay questions on unit assessments as a means to determine student learning and declared that writing "works better as summative." Participant 8 also described the importance of summative writing in that "I tag a short writing assignment to [a test and] I think that if you are having the students write down their thoughts, they are not guessing." Each of these participants described a perception of use of writing to show what a student learned about the content material. Participant 4 further added to the perception of writing as a means

to assess learning in that "you have to have the steps to lead up to it." Participant 4 felt that summative writing should take into account what the teacher desired to assess and how the students were prepared for the assessment. Most of the interview participants described the perception of the use of writing as a means to assess summative learning.

Summary

The purpose of the study was to investigate teachers' perceptions, confidence, and use of writing instructional strategies throughout content areas at the conclusion of implementation of the five-year SRCL grant. The overarching research question that guided the study was, what are content area teachers' perceptions as instructors of writing and their perceptions of writing instruction strategies used in their classrooms? In order to answer this question, three sub-questions were developed: (a) How do content area teachers perceive their role as instructors of writing, (b) How do teachers perceive their confidence and knowledge of writing instruction, and (c) How are content area teachers implementing writing instruction strategies. To answer these questions, an explanatory sequential research design was chosen to gather both quantitative and qualitative data. Comparison of the needs assessment survey data demonstrated a discrepancy between a perceived school culture of shared responsibility of literacy instruction and teachers' perceptions of writing instruction implementation in content area classrooms. Teachers reported the importance of content area writing; however, teachers did not perceive wide use of writing instructional strategies across the curriculum. Teachers further demonstrated a limited understanding concerning content area teachers' role in content area writing instruction. This knowledge was reinforced by a perceived ELA ownership of writing in that instructors of writing should be good writers as writing ability impacted

writing instruction. In this regard, many teachers reported a lack of confidence and self-efficacy in personal writing ability. This limited knowledge of what constituted content area writing instruction was emphasized through each interview participant. Interview participants cited examples of informal writing strategies and tasks geared toward helping students better understand content area material; however, teachers did not seem to recognize the examples as content area writing instruction. As a possible result of limited knowledge and professional development, as noted by each interview participant, there was no visible schoolwide improvement of writing instruction or writing implementation in content area instruction based on implementation of the SRCL grant.

CHAPTER V

DISCUSSION

Summary of the Study

Writing is a critical skill for students to possess in order to be successful in the global job market and higher education classroom (Arnold et al., 2017; Balgopal & Wallace, 2013; Dede, 2009; Fry & Villagomez, 2012; Hill, 1994; Russell, 2013). Despite the importance of writing to student success, results of the participating high school's needs assessment survey, conducted as part of the SRCL grant application process in 2014, revealed a lack of teacher understanding regarding the role of content area teachers in writing instruction (GaDOE, 2014). Furthermore, student writing deficiencies are evident in national, state, and local standardized assessments and Georgia Milestones data.

In order for teachers to utilize writing as a tool that allows students the opportunity to explore content knowledge and understanding, teachers should possess confidence and willingness to embrace writing instructional strategies (Russell, 1994). Teachers' self-perceptions and confidence as instructors of writing directly influenced the efficacy and willingness to implement writing instruction (Bifuh-Ambe, 2013; Troia et al., 2011). Teachers' views and beliefs influence instructional choices and implementation of writing strategies. If teachers lack knowledge of such instructional strategies and the confidence to implement them, teachers may require professional development and learning in order to build confidence in writing implementation.

Furthermore, the current body of Georgia SRCL grant program literature lacked empirical studies that detailed the perceptions of teachers from a specific SRCL school as teacher dedication and buy-in of writing and literacy instruction across the curriculum are crucial in the implementation of the SRCL grant.

The purpose of this study was to investigate teachers' perceptions, confidence, and use of writing instructional strategies throughout content areas at the conclusion of implementation of the five-year SRCL grant. The overarching research question that guided the study was, What are content area teachers' perceptions as instructors of writing and their perceptions of writing instruction strategies used in their classrooms? In order to answer this question, three sub-questions were developed: (a) How do content area teachers perceive their role as instructors of writing, (b) How do teachers perceive their confidence and knowledge of writing instruction, and (c) How are content area teachers implementing writing instruction strategies.

To answer the research questions, the methodology of the study consisted of an explanatory sequential research design in order to gather both quantitative and qualitative data. For Phase 1, quantitative data were collected from 31 respondents of the population that consisted of 57 certified faculty members of the participating high school. A survey consisting of structured items was created through Google Forms and made available to the target population in an online format through district email. Data analysis consisted of descriptive statistics to gain a statistical understanding of responses, comparison of the results to the findings of the initial needs assessment survey conducted at the time of SRCL grant application, and a cross-tabulation of responses based on demographics.

For Phase 2, qualitative data were collected from respondents of the Phase 1 survey. The qualitative sample size of eight participants was selected through a non-proportional stratified sampling process with each of the four academic content areas, ELA, math, science, and social studies, represented. The qualitative instruments utilized were an individual, semi-structured interview protocol that consisted of 14 questions in addition to probing questions and a document analysis protocol of interviewee lesson plan data. The qualitative data analysis consisted of identification of emergent themes and was guided by a phenomenological approach in order to understand the phenomenon of teachers' perceptions of writing through their lived experiences and understanding. The final aspect of the explanatory research design was the integration of the quantitative and qualitative data through a narrative weaving approach in which both the quantitative and qualitative findings were combined and discussed together based on emergent themes.

Based on the findings of the data analysis and comparison of the needs assessment survey data, a discrepancy between a perceived school culture of shared responsibility of literacy instruction and teachers' perceptions of writing instruction implementation in content area classrooms became evident. Furthermore, study participants emphasized a perceived ELA ownership of writing in that writing instruction primarily occurred in ELA classrooms. Study participants also reported the importance of content area writing; however, participants described a perceived lack of wide use of writing instructional strategies across the curriculum. In addition, study participants demonstrated a lack of understanding concerning content area teachers' roles in content area writing instruction. Participants described a limited understanding of content writing

in that content area writing was primarily constituted of formal essays and as a means of summative assessment. Despite this lack of understanding concerning writing instruction, each interview participant unintentionally cited examples of content area writing strategies and tasks geared toward helping students better understand content area material through compositional writing. Furthermore, survey respondents reported use of a variety of writing instructional strategies and tasks; however, these tasks did not require a high amount of cognitive processes. As a possible result of lack of understanding and professional development, as noted by each interview participant, there was no visible schoolwide improvement of writing instruction or writing implementation in content area instruction based on implementation of the SRCL grant.

Analysis of the Findings

Whose Role it is to Teach Writing

ELA ownership. The findings of the current study affirmed the conclusions of other researchers in regards to whose role it is to teach writing. Multiple researchers (Hanstedt, 2012; McLeod, 2001; NCTE, 2011; Russell, 1990, 1994) suggested teachers' understandings of their roles as instructors of writing were driven by a perception of ELA ownership of writing, which further led to a belief of a lack of responsibility towards content area writing instruction. The empirical evidence of the findings reinforced previous scholarship and suggested that a perception of ELA ownership of writing was a common sentiment. Russell (1990, 1994) suggested that departmentalization at the secondary and post-secondary levels led to content areas teachers' willingness to accept ELA ownership and responsibility for writing instruction. Departmentalization at the secondary and post-secondary level meant that teachers became specialized in specific

content areas, which were divided into content departments. Participant 1 reinforced the idea of departmentalization at the high school level and noted that "we are very departmental and not encouraged [to collaborate with other departments] as much as we should be […] we need to have more conversations." Participant 1 described the idea of departmentalization in that content area teachers planned and collaborated with teachers with their content department more so than teachers of other departments. The schedule of the high school featured in this study provided content area teachers with common planning periods with other teachers in their respective content to encourage interdepartmental collaboration. Teachers have the opportunity to meet with their department during their planning period, but, due to the structure of the planning schedule, teachers had little ability to meet with others outside their content area to share and learn about content area writing instruction. Departmentalization, therefore, limited teachers' access to discuss writing instruction and potentially reinforced the idea of ELA ownership of writing instruction.

McLeod (2001) further described examples and reasoning of ELA ownership of writing instruction. McLeod (2001) acknowledged the existence of this perception through an anecdote concerning a colleague from the history department. In complaining about college students' writing ability, the professor described a perception of ELA ownership in that the lack of writing ability was a result of English teachers not doing their job. Participant 4 mirrored this anecdote through a belief that specific writing instruction should have occurred before the students reached high school, and ELA teachers in the middle grades should have focused more on writing practices. Participant 7 described teachers as "sort of territorial" when test scores are involved and further

noted that the teacher basically "stayed out of the ELA teacher's way" in regards to writing instruction. Teachers in the current study perceived that writing instruction should occur in ELA classrooms and was the responsibility of ELA teachers.

Content area teachers' roles in writing. Hanstedt (2012) described the complexity of content area writing and writing instruction. Good writing was defined differently in each content area and was difficult for content area teachers to teach. Similarly, interview participants described struggling with how to connect writing to their content. In fact, findings of the current study contradicted prior literature in that participants perceived little to no active role in writing instruction. The six non-ELA teachers each reported that they had no role in writing instruction; however, the two ELA teachers described their role as one of importance. Participant 1, a math teacher, described that, because the math content was numerical, the teacher did not have a role in writing instruction. This teacher noted that "math is very numerical and so we just don't write paragraphs to explain things." Participant 3, a math teacher, struggled with capitalization and punctuation when constructed responses were utilized in math content instruction. The teacher did not believe that kind of writing instruction should be in a math classroom; however, the teacher determined grammar convention training was a need for the students.

Participant 7, a social studies teacher, described a "hands off" role in writing instruction by simply "staying out of the ELA teacher's way." Participant 4, a science teacher, described the use of formal research papers during content instruction but reported a lack of role in teaching writing when in the form of grammar and sentence structure. Participant 6 described the difficulty in implementing writing into a science

classroom "when I am thinking about writing, for my students […] I am trying to get them to focus on the importance of an individual word, phrase, or symbol." The teacher had difficulty in aligning writing into the context of science content for a specific purpose. Other teachers found it difficult to take time to teach students grammar and writing instead of content material. Content area teachers experienced confusion as to how writing might be integrated into their content curriculum. Without understanding how or why to teach writing, these teachers seemed not to perceive a need to take on this instructional role. Instead, teachers took on the traditional view of teaching writing as the ELA teacher's role and responsibility.

. The Common Core State Standards (2010) suggested that content area teachers shared a responsibility in writing instruction. Furthermore, the NCTE (2011) emphasized the importance of content area teachers implementing writing instruction as a means to improve content understanding and embraced the idea of shared responsibility in writing instruction. Russell (1994) and McLeod (2001) noted the importance of content area teachers embracing a role in content area instruction. Russell (1994) further argued that content area teachers had a responsibility to teach students how to write in their specific content areas and model how scientists, mathematicians, and historians utilized writing. Study findings contradicted the arguments made by Russell (1994) and McLeod (2001) in that most of the study participants did not see their role as teaching students to write in specific content areas.

How to Teach Writing

Writing perceived as summative. A further finding of the current study was a prevalent perception among content area teachers that writing was a summative activity;

a strategy that should be used to assess student learning as opposed to helping students learn the content material. Russell (1994) argued that writing was more than just assessment of learning: it could be a tool for the actual learning of content material. Tasks like RAFT writing assignments created an opportunity for students to explore and reinforce their understanding of the content. Through this RAFT task, students were required to consider the role, audience, format, and topic in a compositional writing. Teachers created the opportunity for students to delve deeper into the content and strengthen their content knowledge. This task differed from utilizing a constructed response or essay question to assess whether the student gained mastery of the content. Through analysis of the findings, teacher perceptions at the participating school were inconsistent with Russell's argument in that participants primarily perceived and utilized writing as a means to assess learning and not as a tool for learning. Interview Participant 7, a social studies teacher, described that writing worked best as a means to assess student learning. Furthermore, Participant 2, a math teacher, used writing to assess how students critically think through a problem. Respondents for Part 4 of the quantitative survey noted the use of summative type tasks, like essay tests and formal essays, more frequently than other creative tasks that require cognitive processing to create a composition. Teacher understanding, implementation, and knowledge of writing-to-learn tasks, as described by Russell, were lacking.

Writing tasks lacked cognitive processing. Respondents and interview participants of the current study described types of writing tasks and instruction that did not require students to utilize cognitive processing or analysis in order to create compositions. These types of writing tasks related to notes, worksheets, fill-in-the-blank

notes, and summarization. These writing tasks also accounted for a vast majority of respondent answers to Part 4 of the survey, with notes and worksheets most frequently cited. Tasks that required a student to create a composition through cognitive processing, like quick writes, RAFT tasks, creative and responsive writing, were among the least frequently used. These findings reinforced the conclusions of Gillespie et al. (2013) in that many of the writing strategies and tasks used during high school writing instruction involved little composition. Furthermore, multiple interview participants noted the use of notes and summarization as means of providing writing instruction. Interview participants described writing instruction as simply having students write, or putting pencil to paper. A majority of the interview participants described examples of writing instruction in which students were passive recipients of information and not engaged in tasks that required critical thinking in order to form coherent compositions.

How to Become a Writing Teacher

The teacher as writer model guided the research study in that content area teachers shared a responsibility in writing instruction (CCSS, 2010). The theoretical framework was based on the understandings developed by Frager (1994), Sushi (1984), and Romano (2007) where each described teachers as writing models. Frager (1994) described the importance of teachers' perceptions of writing on the influence of writing instruction in that perceptions could be passed to students. A majority of respondents from the current study, 68.1%, noted that they did not enjoy writing in their spare time. Furthermore, a majority of interview participants described having little role as content area teachers in writing instruction. In addition, a majority of teachers perceived little enjoyment in personal writing; therefore, these negative perceptions potentially prevented

the implementation of writing instruction into content area teachers' classroom instruction due to the conclusions described by Frager where teachers' perceptions influence writing instruction. Teachers had a negative view of writing, and, therefore, there was a negative influence on their writing instruction implementation.

Many teachers reported a lack of confidence and self-efficacy in teaching writing. Bifuh-Ambe (2012) noted that teachers' confidence and proficiency in writing ability impacted writing instruction. Study findings affirmed the conclusion of Bifuh-Ambe in that many of the interview participants (n = 6) noted that their confidence levels in writing were low, which reflected the infrequency of use of writing instruction in their content instruction. Half of the interview participants (n = 4) noted that they used writing instruction at least once a month, while two noted weekly use. The two ELA teachers reported writing instruction use on a daily basis and a higher level of confidence than other content area teachers. As a result of a lack of confidence and proficiency in writing, teachers were less willing to implement writing instruction. In regards to the significance of confidence in writing ability, Curtis (2017) found the importance of modeling writing instruction in improving the confidence and writing ability of teachers. In addition, Curtis further found that teachers' attitudes towards writing improved. These conclusions were affirmed by the findings in that the two ELA teachers described their use of modeling during writing instruction, which potentially could have influenced their positive attitudes towards writing. Curtis further highlighted a need to embrace a more positive culture of writing through encouragement of development of confidence and teacher self-efficacy.

Romano (2007) described the teacher as writer model and self-efficacy as "teachers who write demonstrate to students someone who loves to think, explore, and communicate through writing" (p. 171). Sushi (1984) also contended that teachers were to actively model the writing process during writing instruction. Participants of this study, however, felt limited by their confidence in writing to provide effective modelling of writing instruction. A majority of interview participants viewed themselves as good writers, while each described a lack of comfort in teaching writing. Based on the understandings provided by Romano (2007) and Sushi (1984), lack of confidence and self-efficacy as experienced by the study participants potentially prevented teachers from acting as writing models in their classrooms.

Limitations of the Study

The study was limited in the following ways: (a) population size, (b) instrumentation, and (c) time period. The population size proved to be a limitation. Despite a 54% obtained response rate, above the 50% desired response rate, the resulting sampling size was small. Each of the 57 certified faculty members of the participating high school who comprised the population had the opportunity to complete the survey. Only 31 respondents completed and submitted the survey to participate in the study. This sample was smaller compared to the 71 respondents of the initial needs assessment survey conducted at the time of grant application in 2014. A larger sample from a larger population would have provided more data, adding to the validity of the survey data and conclusions. Furthermore, during the grant implementation years of 2014-2019, there was a considerably high turnover rate for not just leadership but also teachers at the participating high school. Many teachers and administrators who were present at the

outset of the grant and participated in the initial needs assessment survey had departed the school by the conclusion of the grant. There is little opportunity to correlate survey results from the initial grant application and the current study because the needs assessment survey conducted in 2014 was anonymous and did not record participant identification.

Instrumentation also proved to be a limitation of the study. The instruments and protocols developed for the study were meant to gather relevant data concerning teachers' perceptions of writing, their role as writing instructors, and writing instruction use in content area classrooms. However, more specific questions concerning perceptions of ELA ownership would have been beneficial. Interview data provided information concerning ELA ownership, but the survey instrument lacked items that addressed the issue. Furthermore, survey items and interview questions concerning teachers' personal writing practices, i.e. occurrence of personal writing and types of personal writing, provided interesting data but, upon analysis, did not aid in answering the research questions that guided the study. Initially, items related to the aspect of teachers' personal writing practices were meant to gain an insight to another facet of teacher confidence and knowledge of writing. However, analysis of the items related to teachers' personal writing practices did not provide additional information to answer Research Question 2.

In addition, the time period in which the study was conducted presented a challenge. Data collection and analysis began in the middle of May with teachers trying to close out the school year. The study was conducted after the administration of the Georgia Milestones, but data collection still took place during a busy time for teachers. This time period potentially created difficulties for members of the population to respond

to the survey. With teachers focusing on closing out a school year and end of school year duties ranging from finalizing grades, lesson plans, and paperwork responsibilities, teachers potentially were less willing to complete another survey. Despite the amount of usable data and the understandings gained through data analysis, the population, instruments, and time period became limitations of the study.

Recommendations for Future Research

The overall findings of the study suggested a number of possibilities for future research endeavors. These topics include (a) teacher preparation, (b) content area teachers' understanding of writing, (c) literacy leadership, and (d) cross-departmental collaboration.

Based on teacher demographics of the survey instrument for the current study, teachers with 0 to 5 years of experience constituted a large percentage of respondents. Of the 31 respondents, 12 (38.7%) belonged to the 0 to 5 years of experience group. These teachers were relatively new to the field of education and joined the participating high school after the initial implementation and grant application in 2014. Furthermore, based on perceived lack of content area teachers' role in content area instruction, the findings could potentially provide opportunity for future research endeavors. With a majority of teachers who were new to the profession, how are preparation programs preparing future teachers for content area writing? Further cross-tabulation will provide information as to the novice teachers' perceptions and practices as content area writing teachers. Further cross-tabulation of collected survey data from the current study could be the basis of future study into preservice teachers' perceptions of their role in content area writing

instruction. Current data, however, will not provide any insights into preservice teachers' perceptions.

The findings of the current study showed that content area teachers did not possess common understandings of content area writing. This finding was evident in that numerous interview participants described writing as effective only as summative assessment. Interview participants further described writing as tasks related to formal writing. Future research could be conducted into how each content area understood and defined writing in content area instruction. Furthermore, the qualitative data of the current survey provided a better understanding of the quantitative survey; however, the qualitative data also revealed contradiction between survey respondents and interview participants. A majority of survey respondents, 61%, described that a school culture in which teachers across the curriculum were responsible for literacy instruction was at least *operational*. The majority of interview participants described that content area teachers did not have a role in writing instruction. Further research could be conducted into the reasons for the contradictory findings of the quantitative and qualitative instruments.

The lack of professional development targeted towards literacy and writing instruction in order to obtain the goals of the SRCL grant persisted due to the lack of a formal literacy leadership team that would have potentially provided support and ensured implementation of content area writing strategies. Based on Item 1b, 41.9% of survey respondents noted a literacy leadership team that was organized and active was *not addressed* at the participant school. Further research would be beneficial to understand the role of a literacy leadership team and how that leadership team could potentially create a culture of shared responsibility of writing instruction by all teachers. In order to

address teachers' perceptions of their role as instructors of writing and ELA ownership of writing, a literacy leadership team could be created and mandated with organizing beneficial, in-house and expert led professional develop in relation to content area instruction. The literacy leadership team could also monitor and support implementation of learned strategies through observations and modeling writing instruction.

Findings of the current study revealed a lack of time for cross-departmental collaboration across different content areas. Participant 1 described how the schedule allowed for common planning among departments but did not allow for time to collaborate among other content areas. Other interview participants further described a lack of time to meet with other content area teachers to discuss and collaborate on effective writing strategies. Considerations for further study into interdepartmental collaboration and school scheduling would help to better understand how teachers could effectively collaborate.

Implications of the Study

The stated problem of the study referred to a lack of teacher understanding regarding the role of content area teachers in writing instruction based on analysis of the 2014 needs assessment survey conducted during SRCL grant application. The current study findings reflected a similar lack of teacher understanding regarding content area writing instruction. Therefore, the findings of this study pertained to each of the different stakeholders in the participating high school's district. The district leadership can better utilize funds for specific professional development geared toward content area writing based on the understood perceptions of the high school teachers. This dedicated professional development could potentially increase the amount of content area writing

instruction implemented in the participating high school. Professional development concentrated toward writing instructional strategies and content area teachers' role in writing instruction could improve learning and writing ability and would reinforce a sense of shared responsibility of writing instruction among all content areas. Professional development could help teachers understand that content area writing is more than essay writing and summative assessment; writing can be a tool to help students learn content material. In addition, understanding of the study findings could give district leadership the tools to provide additional support for teachers' classroom instruction. Further research could be conducted as to why the participating faculty felt that the SRCL grant was ineffective and provided no improvement and implement changes to improve content area writing instruction.

Teachers could benefit from the study through the implementation of professional learning communities (PLCs) that allow for teachers of all content areas to share writing instructional strategies and discuss implementation of writing instruction in content area classrooms. PLCs are organized meetings of teachers in order to discuss instructional strategies and data. Furthermore, content area departments could create PLCs that focus on how to implement writing instruction and writing tasks into specific content area classrooms. This shared collaboration and discussion among teachers of different departments would help to develop and support a culture of shared responsibility of writing instruction. Students would benefit from the increased teacher knowledge and understanding of a shared responsibility of writing instruction.

Both students and the community will benefit from the increased writing instruction throughout each content area. The students would further learn how writing

can have different meanings and expectations based on the content area. Students would be exposed to the different facets of writing and will increase practice and understanding of the writing process in different contexts; and thereby possibly increasing student writing ability. The community business leaders would benefit as students graduate with the writing ability and skills to be competitive in the current job market. Business leaders could recruit and retain local students and have less need to train students to complete necessary writing tasks.

Dissemination of the Findings

Findings of the current study were disseminated to the faculty and leadership of the participating high school and district leadership. The principal researcher met with the participating high school's leadership and discussed the findings of the study. A discussion of means to address writing instruction further ensued. Furthermore, dissemination of the results to the faculty of the participating high school was conducted through the use of principal researcher led PLCs. The purpose of these PLCs was to have different teachers from different content area departments to meet and discuss strategies related to content area writing instruction. In this environment, teachers could gain instructional strategies concerning writing instruction and reinforce the idea that writing instruction is a shared responsibility among all content area teachers. The principal researcher also met with district leadership in order to discuss the findings of the current study. Targeted professional development and the development of a literacy leadership team were discussed.

Conclusion

In a fast-paced world and competitive job market, student writing ability is an important skill to possess in order to be successful. Teachers must reinforce their implementation of content area writing instruction in order to better prepare students for the rigors and responsibilities of college and life. However, findings of the current study revealed that teachers at the participating high school embraced a minimal role of writing instruction during content area instruction. Furthermore, content area teachers perceived writing instruction as the responsibility of ELA teachers and that it should primarily take place during ELA content instruction. These findings reinforced the findings of prior research in that teachers' understandings of their role as instructors of writing were driven by perceptions of ELA ownership of writing, which led to a belief of a lack of responsibility towards content area writing instruction (Hanstedt, 2012; McLeod, 2001; NCTE, 2011; Russell, 1990, 1994). Further findings reflected that content area teachers lacked understanding and self-efficacy regarding content area writing instruction. These findings affirmed prior research in that many interview participants noted low self-efficacy in writing ability, which reflected the infrequency of use of writing instruction in content area classrooms (Bifuh-Ambe, 2013; Curtis, 2017; Lewis & Sanchez, 2017; Troia et al., 2011). Findings also revealed that content area teachers implemented writing tasks that required little cognitive processing. Tasks like note-taking, worksheets, fill-in-the-blank notes, and summarization showed high response rates among survey respondents. These findings reinforced the findings of Gillespie et al. (2014) in that many of the writing strategies and tasks used during high school writing instruction involved little composition. Further findings of the study revealed that teachers viewed the use of

writing during content area instruction as a means of summative assessment in order to show what students have learned. Russell (1994) argued that writing was more than just assessment of learning; it could be a tool of for actual learning of content material. Findings of the study showed that teacher perceptions at the participating school were inconsistent with Russell's argument. Teachers must be comfortable with writing in order to implement instruction that gives students the opportunity to improve compositional skills while gaining content understanding by delving deeper into the content material. When writing is not confined only to ELA classrooms, students can explore other facets and purposes of writing, which improves writing ability and makes them more prepared for the future.

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APPENDICES

Appendix A

Informed Consent Forms

You are being asked to participate in a research project conducted by Matthew Shemwell, a Student in the College of Education and Health Professionals at Columbus State University. Dr. Erinn Bentley is the faculty member serving as dissertation chair and will be supervising the study.

I. Purpose:
The purpose of this project is to investigate teachers' perceptions, confidence, and use of writing instructional strategies in content area classrooms at the end of implementation of the five-year Striving Readers Comprehensive Literacy (SRCL) grant.

II. Procedures:
By participating in this study, you will complete an online survey with questions related to teaching experiences, perceptions, and practices. This survey will be sent to your school email address and will be completed via Google Forms. It should take 10-15 minutes to complete the survey. Upon receiving the email request, you will have 7 days to complete the survey. Participation in Phase 1 of the study will be completely voluntary.

Phase 2 of the study will consist of an interview. Interview participants will be randomly selected and notified through email. Participants that are selected will receive an email request to schedule 1 follow-up interview. The interviews will be 30 minutes to 1 hour in duration. Furthermore, the interviews will be recorded for transcription purposes. Participation in Phase 2 of the study will be completely voluntary.

The interview participants will also be required to bring to the interview session 4-5 lesson plans of their choosing that demonstrate writing strategies and instruction in the content area classroom. To participate in Phase 2, the participants will be required to submit lesson plans. Any data collected will not be utilized for any future projects. Data collected will only be used for the current research study.

III. Possible Risks or Discomforts:
There are minimal risks associated with this study. Interview planning will minimize participant discomforts and inconvenience in that time and location will be at the discretion of the interview participant.

IV. Potential Benefits:
The potential benefits to the participant will be the opportunity to discuss writing instructional strategies that will provide insight to literacy instruction at the participating school. Furthermore, the participating school will be able to better improve writing and literacy instruction and direct professional development in ways that will benefit all teachers.

V. Costs and Compensation:
There is no cost associated with the study. Also, there is no compensation for study participants.

VI. Confidentiality:
Confidentiality of the participating school and of the survey and interview participants will be ensured through the use of pseudonyms. The names of survey participants will be viewable only to the researcher and used as means of performing follow up with individuals that have not completed the survey in order to reach the desired response rate of 50 percent. Furthermore, data will be stored in password protected Google Drive account and only accessible by the researcher in order to prevent unauthorized access. All survey submissions and data will be stored throughout the duration of the study and will be permanently deleted at the conclusion of the study.

Interview participants will be assigned a participant number and the researcher will alone have access to the corresponding names of the participant numbers. Upon completion of the study, the list of name associations with participant numbers will be destroyed. Furthermore, transcript and audio recording will only be identifiable through a participant number. A third party transcription service will temporarily have access to the audio recording in order to transcribe the interview. The digital file of the interview audio will be stored on the researcher's personal hard drive and password protected during the duration of the study. All digital files associated with the interview will be permanently deleted at the conclusion of the study.

The lesson plan documents that are submitted will be designated only with the interview participant's number. Furthermore, hard copies of the lesson plan documents will be stored in a locked filing cabinet, throughout the duration of the study and will be accessible only to the researcher. The lesson plan documents will be confidentially shredded at the conclusion of the study.

VII. Withdrawal:
Your participation in this research study is voluntary. You may withdraw from the study at any time, and your withdrawal will not involve penalty or loss of benefits.

For additional information about this research project, you may contact the Principal Investigator, Matthew Shemwell at [redacted] or shemwell_matthew@columbusstate.edu. If you have questions about your rights as a research participant, you may contact Columbus State University Institutional Review Board at irb@columbusstate.edu.

I have read this informed consent form. If I had any questions, they have been answered. By signing this form, I agree to participate in this research project.

_____ _____

Signature of Participant Date

Informed Consent Form

You are being asked to participate in a research project conducted by Matthew Shemwell, a Student in the College of Education and Health Professionals at Columbus State University. Dr. Erinn Bentley is the faculty member serving as dissertation chair and will be supervising the study. You are being invited to take part in a **pilot study** to validate and provide feedback on surveys designed to use for the current study.

I. Purpose:
The purpose of this project is to investigate teachers' perceptions, confidence, and use of writing instructional strategies in content area classrooms at the end of implementation of the five-year Striving Readers Comprehensive Literacy (SRCL) grant.

II. Procedures:
By participating in this study, you will complete an online survey with questions related to teaching experiences, perceptions, and practices. This survey will be sent to your school email address and will be completed via Google Forms. It should take 10-15 minutes to complete the survey. Upon receiving the email request, you will have 7 days to complete the survey. Participation in Phase 1 of the study will be completely voluntary.

Phase 2 of the study will consist of an interview. Interview participants will be randomly selected and notified through email. Participants that are selected will receive an email request to schedule 1 follow-up interview. The interviews will be 30 minutes to 1 hour in duration. Furthermore, the interviews will be recorded for transcription purposes. Participation in Phase 2 of the study will be completely voluntary.

The interview participants will also be required to bring to the interview session 4-5 lesson plans of their choosing that demonstrate writing strategies and instruction in the content area classroom. To participate in Phase 2, the participants will be required to submit lesson plans. Any data collected will not be utilized for any future projects. Data collected will only be used for the current research study.

III. Possible Risks or Discomforts:
There are minimal risks associated with this study. Interview planning will minimize participant discomforts and inconvenience in that time and location will be at the discretion of the interview participant.

IV. Potential Benefits:
The potential benefits to the participant will be the opportunity to discuss writing instructional strategies that will provide insight to literacy instruction at the participating school. Furthermore, the participating school will be able to better improve writing and literacy instruction and direct professional development in ways that will benefit all teachers.

V. Costs and Compensation:
There is no cost associated with the study. Also, there is no compensation for study participants.

VI. Confidentiality:
Confidentiality of the participating school and of the survey and interview participants will be ensured through the use of pseudonyms. The names of survey participants will be viewable only to the researcher and used as means of performing follow up with individuals that have not completed the survey in order to reach the desired response rate of 50 percent. Furthermore, data will be stored in password protected Google Drive account and only accessible by the researcher in order to prevent unauthorized access. All survey submissions and data will be stored throughout the duration of the study and will be permanently deleted at the conclusion of the study.

Interview participants will be assigned a participant number and the researcher will alone have access to the corresponding names of the participant numbers. Upon completion of the study, the list of name associations with participant numbers will be destroyed. Furthermore, transcript and audio recording will only be identifiable through a participant number. A third party transcription service will temporarily have access to the audio recording in order to transcribe the interview. The digital file of the interview audio will be stored on the researcher's personal hard drive and password protected during the duration of the study. All digital files associated with the interview will be permanently deleted at the conclusion of the study.

The lesson plan documents that are submitted will be designated only with the interview participant's number. Furthermore, hard copies of the lesson plan documents will be stored in a locked filing cabinet, throughout the duration of the study and will be accessible only to the researcher. The lesson plan documents will be confidentially shredded at the conclusion of the study.

VII. Withdrawal:
Your participation in this research study is voluntary. You may withdraw from the study at any time, and your withdrawal will not involve penalty or loss of benefits.

For additional information about this research project, you may contact the Principal Investigator, Matthew Shemwell at [redacted] or shemwell_matthew@columbusstate.edu. If you have questions about your rights as a research participant, you may contact Columbus State University Institutional Review Board at irb@columbusstate.edu.

I have read this informed consent form. If I had any questions, they have been answered. By signing this form, I agree to participate in this research project.

_____ _____

Signature of Participant Date

Appendix B

Recruitment Letters

Good afternoon,

I am a doctoral student at Columbus State University and am conducting a study entitled "Implementing Writing in Content Areas: Teachers' Perceptions as Writing. The purpose of the study is to investigate teachers' perceptions, confidence, and use of writing instructional strategies throughout content areas at the conclusion of implementation of the five-year Striving Readers Comprehensive Literacy Program (SRCL) grant. Through the study, I want to understand the current perceptions of teachers as writing instructors and use of writing instructional strategies currently utilized in content area classrooms compared to initial data collected during the 2014 application process.

I request your participation in a pilot study that consists of a brief survey that should only take 10-15 minutes of your time. I want to ensure that the survey is effectively worded and organized in order to gather pertinent data concerning teachers' perceptions of writing. For the pilot study, you will receive a hard copy of the informed consent form and survey and be asked to review and provide feedback. Please review the survey for clarity, wording, and organization.

Your participation is completely voluntary and your responses will be completely confidential and only used for the purposes of preparing for the implementation of the current study.

I would like to thank Mr. Calhoun for his cooperation and permission to conduct not only this pilot study but also my research study. In addition, I would like to thank you for your time and participation. If you have questions, suggestions, or concerns about the study, please don't hesitate to contact me.

Best regards,
M. Shemwell

Teachers,

Good afternoon,

I am a doctoral student at Columbus State University and am conducting a study entitled "Implementing Writing in Content Areas: Teachers' Perceptions as Writing Instructors. The purpose of the study is to investigate teachers' perceptions, confidence, and use of writing instructional strategies throughout content areas at the conclusion of implementation of the five-year Striving Readers Comprehensive Literacy Program (SRCL) grant. Through the study, I want to understand the current perceptions of teachers as writing instructors and use of writing instructional strategies currently utilized in content area classrooms compared to initial data collected during the 2014 application process. I request your participation in a brief survey to be conducted through Google Forms. The survey should only take 10-15 minutes of your time. Your participation is completely voluntary and your responses will be completely confidential and only used for the purposes of the current study. The survey will only be available for one week (**Date**).

Google Forms link

I would like to thank Mr. Calhoun for his cooperation and permission to conduct this research study. In addition, I would like to thank you for your time and participation. If you have questions, suggestions, or concerns about the study, please don't hesitate to contact me.

Best regards,
M. Shemwell

Dear survey respondent,

Good afternoon,

You have been randomly selected to participate in Phase Two of the study. I request your participation in a brief follow up interview that will be conducted at a time and place of your convenience. The interview should take 30 minutes to 1 hour of your time. Your participation is completely voluntary and your responses will be completely confidential and only used for the purposes of the current study. The interviews will be recorded with the use of a digital recorder in order to create a transcript.

The purpose of the study is to investigate teachers' perceptions, confidence, and use of writing instructional strategies throughout content areas at the conclusion of implementation of the five-year Striving Readers Comprehensive Literacy Program (SRCL) grant. Through the use of interviews, I am seeking to gain an understanding of personal experiences in teaching writing in each content area.

In addition, I request that you bring four or five lesson plans from the fall and spring semester of the 2018-19 school year that you feel demonstrate writing in your content area. The purpose of collecting the lesson plan documents at the time of interview was to gain an understanding of writing instructional strategies in use during content area instruction.

To participate in Phase Two, you will be required to submit copies of lesson plans.

All audio files, transcripts, and lesson plans will be destroyed upon completion of the study.

Please respond at your earliest convenience with a date, time, and location to schedule your interview session.

Best regards,

M. Shemwell

Appendix C

IRB Approval Letter

COLUMBUS STATE UNIVERSITY

Matthew Shemwell [Student] <shemwell_matthew@columbusstate.edu>

Exempt Approval Protocol 19-073

CSU IRB <irb@columbusstate.edu> Fri, May 10, 2019 at 5:04 PM
To: "Matthew Shemwell [Student]" <shemwell_matthew@columbusstate.edu>, Erinn Bentley <bentley_erinn@columbusstate.edu>
Cc: CSU IRB <irb@columbusstate.edu>, Institutional Review Board <instituionai_review@columbusstate.edu>

Date: 5/10/19
Protocol Number: 19-073
Protocol Title: Implementing Writing in Content Areas: Teachers' Perceptions as Writing Instructors
Principal Investigator:
Matthew Shemwell
Co-Principal
Investigator: Erinn
Bentley

Dear Matthew Shemwell:

The Columbus State University Institutional Review Board or representative(s) has reviewed your research proposal identified above. It has been determined that the project is classified as exempt under 45 CFR 46.101(b) of the federal regulations and has been approved. You may begin your research project immediately.

Please note any changes to the protocol must be submitted in writing to the IRB before implementing the change(s). Any adverse events, unexpected problems, and/or incidents that involve risks to participants and/or others must be reported to the Institutional Review Board at irb@columbusstate.edu or (706) 507-8634.

If you have further questions, please feel free to contact the IRB.

Sincerely,

Amber Dees, IRB Coordinator

Institutional Review Board

Appendix D

Obtained Permissions

Striving Readers Needs Assessment Survey

Matthew Shemwell [Student] <shemwell_matthew@columbusstate.edu> Wed, Oct 31, 2018 at 9:49 AM
To: jmorrill@doe.kl 2.ga.us

Ms. Morrill,

My name is Matthew Shemwell and I am a doctoral student at Columbus State University working on my Ed.D. in Curriculum and Instruction. Through my study, I look to understand how teachers perceive their role as instructors of writing and how they use writing instruction across the curriculum. I am currently employed as a teacher at a school system that received the SRCL grant in 2014. I was a member of the high school literacy team that completed the grant application.

I am seeking permission to use the Striving Readers Needs Assessment Survey as an instrument to collect data and correlate my findings with the data collected during the 2014 grant application process. Who would I need to talk to get approval to use the instrument? If you have further questions, please contact me at 229-869-2812. I appreciate your time and guidance.

Thanks,
Matthew Shemwell

Julie Morrill <JMorrill@doe.k12.ga.us> wed, Oct 31, 2018 at 9:53 AM
To: "Matthew Shemwell [Student]" <shemwell matthew@columbusstate.edu>

Hi Matthew,

The needs assessment is a public document and was created internally here. I would keep the footer on it but you are welcome to use it.

Let me know if you need any additional information.

Julie

Appendix E

Quantitative Instrument

IMPLEMENTING WRITING IN CONTENT AREAS: TEACHERS' PERCEPTIONS AS WRITING INSTRUCTORS

Part 1:
Please choose the answer that best represents you.

1. Teaching experience *

0-5 years
6-10 years
11-15 years
16-20 years
21-25 years
26-30 years
31+ years

2. Content area: *

Science
Math
Social studies
English language arts
CTAE
PE

3. Grade levels currently taught: *

9th
10th
11th
12th

4. Gender *

Female
Male
Prefer not to say

Part 2: Abridged Striving Readers Comprehensive Literacy Needs Assessment Survey

For the following 15 items, please indicate to the degree each statement applies to the school by choosing (1.) fully operational, (2.) operational, (3.) emergent, and (4.) not addressed

"Fully operational": The item was completely implemented in the operation of the school.
"Operational": The item as in the beginning stages of implementation.

"Emergent": That the item is in the preliminary or planning stages before implementation.
"Not addressed": The item was not currently implemented in the operation of the school.

1A. Administrator demonstrates commitment to learn about and support evidence-based literacy instruction in his/her school.
Fully Operational
Operational
Emergent
Not addressed

1B. A school literacy leadership team, separate from the school leadership team, is organized and active.
Fully Operational
Operational
Emergent
Not addressed

1C.2 The effective use of time and personnel is leveraged through scheduling and collaborative planning (6-12).
Fully Operational
Operational
Emergent
Not addressed

1D. A school culture exists in which teachers across the content areas accept responsibility for literacy instruction as articulated in the Common Core Georgia Performance Standards(CCGPS).
Fully Operational
Operational
Emergent
Not addressed

1E. Literacy instruction is optimized in all content areas.
Fully Operational
Operational
Emergent
Not addressed

2A. Active cross-curricular collaborative school teams ensure a consistent literacy focus across the curriculum
Fully Operational
Operational
Emergent
Not addressed

2B. Teachers provide literacy instruction across the curriculum
Fully Operational
Operational
Emergent
Not addressed
3A. An infrastructure for ongoing formative and summative assessments is in place to determine the need for and the intensity of interventions and to evaluate the effectiveness of instruction.
Fully Operational
Operational
Emergent
Not addressed

3D. Summative data is used to make programming decisions as well as to monitor individual student progress
Fully Operational
Operational
Emergent
Not addressed

3E. A clearly articulated, school wide strategy for using data to improve teaching and learning is followed.
Fully Operational
Operational
Emergent
Not addressed

4A.2. All students receive direct, explicit instruction in reading.
Fully Operational
Operational
Emergent
Not addressed

4A.5. Extended time is provided for literacy instruction
Fully Operational
Operational
Emergent
Not addressed

4B. All students receive effective writing instruction across the curriculum
Fully Operational
Operational
Emergent
Not addressed

4C. Teachers are intentional in efforts to develop and maintain interest and engagement as students' progress through school.
Fully Operational
Operational
Emergent
Not addressed
6B. In-service personnel participate in ongoing professional learning in all aspects of literacy instruction including disciplinary literacy in the content areas.
Fully Operational
Operational
Emergent
Not addressed

Part 3: Teachers' Perceptions

For each of the 19 items, please indicate to the degree each statement applies to you by choosing (1) strongly agree, (2) agree, (3) disagree, or (4) Strongly disagree

I enjoy teaching writing. *
Strongly agree
Agree
Disagree
Strongly disagree

I take time to instruct students on how to specifically write in my content area. *
Strongly agree
Agree
Disagree
Strongly disagree

A teacher has to be a good writer to teach writing. *
Strongly agree
Agree
Disagree
Strongly disagree

Essay writing is difficult to implement and not important in my class. *
Strongly agree
Agree
Disagree
Strongly disagree

Writing should be incorporated in all classes. *
Strongly agree
Agree
Disagree

Strongly disagree

Teachers in my content area do not have to be good writers. *
Strongly agree
Agree
Disagree
Strongly disagree

Content area classes should focus on content and not writing. *
Strongly agree
Agree
Disagree
Strongly disagree

Writing instruction should occur mainly in ELA classrooms. *
Strongly agree
Agree
Disagree
Strongly disagree

There is not enough time to teach writing and content material. *
Strongly agree
Agree
Disagree
Strongly disagree

I feel confident enough in my writing ability to critique another person's writing. *
Strongly agree
Agree
Disagree
Strongly disagree

I feel confident in my ability to clearly express my ideas in writing. *
Strongly agree
Agree
Disagree
Strongly disagree

I don't think I am as good of a writer as others. *
Strongly agree
Agree
Disagree
Strongly disagree

I have difficulty organizing my thoughts and ideas when I write. *
Strongly agree

Agree
Disagree
Strongly disagree

I think journal writing is a great way to keep up with my thoughts. *
Strongly agree
Agree
Disagree
Strongly disagree

I avoid writing at all costs. *
Strongly agree
Agree
Disagree
Strongly disagree

I enjoy writing in my spare time. *
Strongly agree
Agree
Disagree
Strongly disagree

Expressing my ideas through writing seems to be a waste of time. *
Strongly agree
Agree
Disagree
Strongly disagree

There are professional development opportunities available for content area writing instruction. *
Strongly agree
Agree
Disagree
Strongly disagree

I do not need instruction in content area writing. *
Strongly agree
Agree
Disagree
Strongly disagree

Part 4: Teachers' Use of Writing

For the following item, please mark all the following writing tasks and strategies you often use during instruction. Please mark all the following writing tasks and strategies you often use during instruction. *

Journals
Essay test
Research paper
Worksheets
Notes
Free verse poetry
Summarization
RAFT
Quick writes
Micro themes
Conferencing
Fill in the blank notes
Other:

Appendix F

Qualitative Instruments

Interview Protocol

Interview Guide

Interview Participant Name:	**Date of Interview:**
Start Time:	**Location of Interview:**
End Time:	

Consent Process

In order to participate in the study, the interview participant was required to complete the Phase One survey. Participants were randomly drawn and consented to participate in the interview and lesson plan aspects of the study.

- The purpose of the study was to investigate teachers' perceptions, confidence, and use of writing instructional strategies in content area classrooms at the end of implementation of the five-year Striving Readers Comprehensive Literacy (SRCL) grant.
- The researcher and interview participant will review and discuss the interview informed consent form. The participant will then sign the form in order to in order to participate in Phase Two of the study. Once the form is signed, the interview process will continue.
- The information collected during the interview process will be completely confidential.
- The interviews will take place during April 2019 and will take only 30-45 minutes of the participant's time.
- Participants will have the opportunity to review transcripts and data analysis as a means of member checking to ensure the interview was accurately represented. Transcripts of the interview will be available upon request.

Pre-Interview Elements

1. Thank you provided
2. Review:
    a. Purpose of the study
    b. What will be done with the information provided to the researcher
    c. Importance of the study and interviews
3. Explain the process
4. Logistics
    a. Interview length
    b. Arrange seating to encourage conversational mood.
    c. Place recorder at the center of the table
5. Digital recorder explanation:

    a. Participant will always know when recorder is recoding and when it is off.
    b. The file the recorder produces will be secured and protected with confidentiality ensured.
6. Ask the interviewee if there is any questions before we begin.
7. **Turn on the digital recorder** and begin the interview.

Interview
Continuity-all interviews should be in the same format. Throughout the discussion process, be sure to allow ample time for the interviewee to think and answer the question. Long pauses are ok. Do not rush the interviewee and always remain appreciative and respectful of the interviewee. Probing questions will be utilized in order to guide the interview and ensure accurate information is collected.

1. Once the recorder is recording, the researcher will record the following information:

    Introduction-
    1. Interviewer introduction
        a. Announce interviewer name
    2. Narrator/interviewee introduction
        a. Announce interviewee name as "Participant #"
        b. Names will not be recorded in order to maintain anonymity. The researcher will maintain a confidential list of participants
    3. Location
        a. Where the actual interview is taking place
            i. General location—no specific address
    4. Date
        a. The month, date, and year the interview takes place
    5. Topic
        a. Restate purpose of the study: The purpose of the study was to investigate teachers' perceptions, confidence, and use of writing instructional strategies in content area classrooms at the end of implementation of the five-year Striving Readers Comprehensive Literacy (SRCL) grant.
    6. Reason for the interview:
        i. The reason for the interview is to:
            1. Discuss perceptions of writing in content areas
            2. Teacher's personal beliefs about writing
            3. Teacher's confidence in teaching and implementing writing
            4. Discuss writing strategies used in personal instruction

Interview Questions:

1. How often do you personally write? What kind of writing do you do?
2. Do you enjoy writing personally? Why or why not?
3. Do you see yourself as a good writer? Why or why not?
4. Do you use writing during instruction? Why or why not?
5. How often do you use writing in your instruction? How so?

6. Do you think writing is effective in helping students understand the content? Why or why not?
7. What is your comfort level teaching writing? What makes you comfortable or uncomfortable with writing?
8. What writing strategies do you use during instruction?
9. Do you feel your personal writing ability has any effect on your ability to teach writing to your students? If so, how?
10. Do you think it is your role to teach writing? Why or why not?
11. How much professional development have you recently received in regards to teaching writing?
12. Should content area instruction include writing instruction? Why or why not?
13. Do you think writing instruction across the school in general has improved since receiving the SRCL grant?
14. Do you feel professional development in content area writing instruction would be beneficial? Why or why not?

Probes for Discussion:

- Descriptions of writing strategies used in classroom.
- Descriptions of personal writing experiences and practices.
- Discussion of memorable lessons that utilized writing instruction.
- Professional development in content area writing instruction

This concludes our interview session. Thank you so much for your opinions, information, and insights you provided today. Turn the digital recorder off and immediately inform the interviewee.

The interview participant were required to bring four-five lesson plans that they felt demonstrated their use of writing in content area classrooms in order to participate in the qualitative phase of the study. These lesson plans should be from the current academic year of 2018-19. The participant's number will be written on the document and then placed into an envelope. At the top of the envelope, the participant's number will also be noted.

Materials and Supplies

- Interview Guide:
- Informed Consent
- Interview Structure
- Interview Questions
- Digital recorder
- Extra Batteries
- 3-ring binder for Field Notes Form
- Envelopes for lesson plans

Field Notes Form

This form will be completed by the interviewer directly after the interview session.

Interviewee:_____
Interviewer:_____
Interview Date:_____

Your Impressions of the Interviewee: (Gestures, mannerisms, etc.)	
General Reflections of the Interview:	
Special Requests that Require Follow up	
Summary of Interview:	

Participant #_____
Interview Date:_____
Document Received: _____

Document Analysis Protocol
This document will be completed for each lesson plan document during the coding process.

1.	**Type of Document:** **Content area:**
2.	**Date(s) of Document:**
3.	**Document Information:** **1. What student writing tasks or activities were described in the lesson plan?** **2. How were the writing tasks described?** **3. Was the writing task for assessment or instruction?** **4. Did the writing task require cognitive processes of writing or simple recall?** **5. Evidence or important quotes:**

Appendix G

Content Analysis Chart 1

Study	Purpose	Participants	Design	Outcomes
Hanstedt (2012)	To argue for the inclusion of writing across the curriculum in discussion of education reform		Review article	Three reasons: (1.) writing is a complex skill, (2.) Different fields define "good writing" differently (3.) writing is critical thinking
McLeod (2001)	To provide a background to writing across the curriculum, approaches, and implementation		Review article	The WAC movement was born out of cross-disciplinary difference regarding the use and instruction of writing. The author described an embedded content area teacher perception of ELA ownership of writing
NCTE (2011)	A policy brief to argue the use of writing across the curriculum in order to implement new Common Core State Standards		Review article	Teachers outside of ELA struggle to see how writing and reading fit inside the content curriculum
Russell (1990)	To explore the history of the writing across the curriculum movement in relation to the development of the university as a discourse community		Review article	Described the development of the perception or idea that writing instruction should occur in ELA classrooms and not in other content areas. Russell also noted the difficulty of teaching writing

Study	Purpose	Participants	Design	Outcomes
				in content areas and the importance as disciplinary teachers must teach students to think and write in a specific discipline.
Russell (1994)	To describe the history and development of the writing across the curriculum movement		Review article	Described the lack of interest in content area teachers' willingness to incorporate writing into their instruction. As a result of departmentalization early on in education, writing became the perceived responsibility of the ELA department.

Note: Content Analysis Chart Regarding Teachers' Perception of ELA Ownership and Responsibility of Writing Instruction. Reflected in Research Question 1: How do content area teachers perceive their role as instructors of writing?

Appendix H

Content Analysis Chart 2

Study	Purpose	Participants	Design	Outcomes
Bifuh-Ambe (2013)	To examine teachers attitudes towards writing instruction and confidence as writers and effect of professional development on teachers' attitudes toward writing	28 teachers from four different elementary schools	Mixed methods: Exploratory Sequential design—researcher created a 10 week workshop and used pre/post surveys with open response questions and classroom observations to gather data	Teachers began workshop with positive attitude of writing, which improved by the end of the workshops. Teachers reported a slight negative attitude towards revision and feedback. Teachers' confidence and proficiency as writers affects instructional choices. Professional development is important in encouraging teacher confidence in writing.
Curtis (2017)	To investigate how modeling of effective writing strategies impacted kindergarten teachers' knowledge, beliefs, and attitudes toward the teaching of writing	Two kindergarten teachers that served 14 students each Study was conducted at a public school located in a small, urban community in south Mississippi	Mixed methods: A seven-week plan was established specifically for the teachers. Three weeks prior to implementation, literacy coach discussed writing instruction and participants were given a pre-survey. Lessons were modeled by	The modeling of specific writing strategies does impact teachers' ability as writing instructors After the intervention, teachers' attitudes towards writing and writing instruction improved.

Study	Purpose	Participants	Design	Outcomes
			the literacy coach. After three weeks, a post survey was conducted. Teacher reflections during the intervention were also collected.	
Gillespie, Graham, Kiuhara, & Hebert (2014)	To address the need to better understand how high school teachers are using writing to support learning and to identify types of strategies used and frequency of use	A random sampling of 800 ninth-twelfth grade teachers in the United States. Stratified sampling was used by subject area with 200 teachers selected from each of the four content areas: math, science, ELA, and social studies. 211 teachers completed the survey	Quantitative: Survey was used and required a second mailing to obtain a usable sample. Data was entered in SPSS	Many of the most common writing strategies used by high school teachers involved writing without composition Noted infrequent use of technology to support writing instruction
Lewis & Sanchez (2017)	To determine the impact of levels of proficiency in revising and editing process has on writing instruction	Junior and senior undergraduate preservice teachers enrolled in Writing Intensive courses at a four-year university. Year 1	Longitudinal study over the academic years of 2012-2014 Participants completed a writing self-assessment survey. Surveys were administered in pre/post format	The preservice teachers reported high levels of proficiency in writing but identified certain areas of the writing process as weak. The teachers were not

Study	Purpose	Participants	Design	Outcomes
		consisted of 91 participants, 82 for Year 2, and 70 for Year 3.		confident with revision or editing processes
Troia, Lin, Cohen, & Monroe (2011)	To determine effect writing workshop has on student writing ability and teacher efficacy	A year-long study of 6 writing teachers in an urban elementary school	Participated in professional development that taught the elements of the writing workshop Quantitative: rating scales of teachers observed writing instruction practices Qualitative: interviews and classroom observations	Results were categorized by case studies of the individual participants. Teachers adhered to the writing workshop model but differed on specific management procedures, engagement tactics, and supports. Teachers' beliefs about writing instruction influenced writing workshop instructional strategies

Note: Content Analysis Chart Regarding Teachers' Efficacy. Reflected by Research Question 2: How do teachers perceive their confidence and knowledge of writing instruction?, and Research Question 3: How are content area teachers implementing writing instruction strategies?

Appendix I

Content Analysis Chart 3

Study	Purpose	Participants	Design	Outcomes
Brooks (2007)	To explore the validity of the hypothesis produced by Calkins, Graves, and Routman that teachers must be avid and confident readers and writers in order to effectively teach reading and writing	4 individual fourth grade teachers	Case study: interviews and field notes	Although the teachers considered themselves competent readers and writers, this played little or no role in the effectiveness of writing instruction
Frager (1994)	To explore how a teachers opinion of himself or herself as a writer relate to teaching writing	32 teachers participated in a workshop	Participants had to write a "myself as writer" essay	3 indicators: reluctant writers, practical writers, and integral writers. The researcher then described teachers as models and noted that teachers' perceptions of writing could be passed to students, and, therefore, influence writing instruction. Teachers that feel writing as an integral part of their lives can help students feel the same way. Conversely, teachers that are fearful or reluctant of writing

Study	Purpose	Participants	Design	Outcomes
				influence students in the same way.
Susi (1984)	To explore what happens when teachers write and share with students	42 fifth and sixth graders, 4 teachers	Case study: observational data Researcher observed the teachers take dedicated time to write while students wrote. Once dedicated writing time ended, students divided into small groups of 10 students and one teacher. Each student and teacher then shared their writing with the group	The teacher/writer as a model: teachers actively model the writing process. The teacher/writer as a learner: teachers are constantly learning with the students and building confidence in writing. The teacher/writer as a human being: teacher writing and sharing created shared experiences with students The teacher/writer experienced positive feelings and positive student feedback

Note: Content Analysis Chart regarding Teacher as Writer Theoretical Framework.