The University of Maine
DigitalCommons@UMaine

Electronic Theses and Dissertations

Fogler Library

5-2003

Lessons from Ellen: A Case Study Investigation of Comprehension Strategy Instruction in Action

Suzanne Kaback

Follow this and additional works at: http://digitalcommons.library.umaine.edu/etd

Part of the School Psychology Commons, and the Teacher Education and Professional Development Commons

Recommended Citation

Kaback, Suzanne, "Lessons from Ellen: A Case Study Investigation of Comprehension Strategy Instruction in Action" (2003). *Electronic Theses and Dissertations*. 491.
http://digitalcommons.library.umaine.edu/etd/491

This Open-Access Dissertation is brought to you for free and open access by DigitalCommons@UMaine. It has been accepted for inclusion in Electronic Theses and Dissertations by an authorized administrator of DigitalCommons@UMaine.

LESSONS FROM ELLEN: A CASE STUDY INVESTIGATION OF COMPREHENSION STRATEGY INSTRUCTION IN ACTION

By

Suzanne Kaback

B.A. Hobart and William Smith Colleges, 1989

Ed. M. Boston University, 1994

A THESIS

Submitted in Partial Fulfillment of the

Requirements for the Degree of

Doctor of Education

(in Literacy Education)

The Graduate School

The University of Maine

May, 2003

Advisory Committee:

Jeffrey Wilhelm, Assistant Professor of Literacy Education, Advisor

Brenda Power, Professor of Literacy Education

Janice Kristo, Professor of Literacy Education

Constance Perry, Professor of Education

Edward Brazee, Professor of Education

LIBRARY RIGHTS STATEMENT

In presenting this thesis in partial fulfillment of the requirements for an advanced degree at The University of Maine, I agree that the Library shall make it freely available for inspection. I further agree that permission for "fair use" copying of this thesis for scholarly purposes may be granted by the Librarian. It is understood that any copying or publication of this thesis for financial gain shall not be allowed without my written permission.

Signature: Suzanne S Kalan

Date: April 14, 2003

LESSONS FROM ELLEN: A CASE STUDY INVESTIGATION OF COMPREHENSION STRATEGY INSTRUCTION IN ACTION

By Suzanne Kaback

Thesis Advisor: Dr. Jeffrey Wilhelm

An Abstract of the Thesis Presented
in Partial Fulfillment of the Requirements for the
Degree of Doctor of Education
(in Literacy Education)
May, 2003

In the past ten years, reading comprehension instruction has received significant attention from educational researchers. Drawing on studies from cognitive psychology, reader response theory, and language arts research, current best practice in reading comprehension instruction is characterized by a strategies approach in which students are taught to think like proficient readers who visualize, infer, activate schema, question, and summarize as they read. Studies investigating the impact of comprehension strategy instruction on student achievement in reading suggest that when implemented consistently the intervention has a positive effect on achievement. Research also shows, however, that few teachers embrace this approach to reading instruction despite its effectiveness, even when the conditions for substantive professional development (i.e. prolonged engagement, support, resources, time) are present.

The interpretive case study reported in this dissertation examined the year-long experience of one fourth grade teacher, Ellen, as she learned about comprehension strategy instruction and attempted to integrate the approach in her reading program. The goal of the study was to extend current understanding of the factors that support or inhibit an individual teacher's instructional decision making. The research explored how Ellen's academic preparation, beliefs about reading comprehension instruction, and attitudes toward teacher-student interaction influenced her efforts to employ comprehension strategy instruction.

Qualitative methods were the basis of this study's research design. The primary methods for collecting data included pre- and post-interviews, field notes from classroom observations and staff development sessions, informal interviews, e-mail correspondence, and artifacts such as reading assignments, professional writing, school newsletters, and photographs of the classroom. Transcripts from interviews, as well as field notes, e-mail, and artifacts, were analyzed according to grounded theory's constant-comparative method.

The results of the study suggest that three factors were pivotal in Ellen's successful implementation of reading strategy instruction: Pedagogical beliefs, classroom relationships, and professional community. Research on instructional change generally focuses on issues of time, resources, feedback, and follow-through. The research reported here recognizes the importance of these components, but expands contemporary thinking by showing how, in Ellen's case, a teacher's existing theories, her relationship with her students, and her professional interaction with peers impact instructional decisions.

DEDICATION

To Steve, my husband, my friend.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

During my five year residency in the doctoral program at the University of Maine, many people contributed to my experience. I remember when I left the public school classroom to begin graduate work, I worried that I was leaving behind a community of colleagues which could not be duplicated. Happily, I was wrong. The people named below took an interest in me and my ideas from the beginning, an interest that translated into on-going support and mentorship for the duration of my program.

Jeff Wilhelm, advisor and patron, was instrumental in my decision to pursue doctoral work. While his professional guidance, and the opportunities he provided for growth in the field of literacy, prepared me well for academic life, his lasting legacy for me will be the ways he helped me become a better teacher. His efforts to induct me into academe, ironically, made me wistful for public school teaching where I wanted a second chance to do it all better. This effect of his guidance is a testament to the fact that at the heart of Jeff's work is an interest in students and their learning. I thank Jeff for showing me that the best professors put their teaching first and make all their reading and writing in service of student learning.

Before I met Brenda Power, I liked to describe myself as "a force stronger than nature". Now that I know Brenda, I understand what that phrase really means and I don't even come close. Brenda is a remarkable woman, teacher, and scholar. I feel grateful to her for including me in her circle of learning. My coursework with Brenda helped me to become a sharper writer, a more critical reader, and a careful observer of the educational landscape. Our professional collaborations were a constant lesson in how to make my work substantive, efficient, and interesting. Her suggestions for revising my dissertation are a fine example of her talents. It was Brenda who read chapter one and said, “You need to re-write this and tell me what your study was *about*.” The subsequent revisions brought all of my research into focus, helped define the other chapters, and shaped the way I defended my work in job interviews. I know that my “lessons from Brenda” will be a constant presence throughout my academic career.

During my first semester in the doctoral program, I took a course with Connie Perry. Her keen interest in her students was evident from the first day and has established a model for what it means to teach with an ethic of care. Since then, I have been fortunate to work with Connie on a number of projects, and her influence has deepened my understanding of what it means to be a balanced professional. I think it is appropriate to describe Connie as the yin to a lot of yangs at the University. For her wise and compassionate guidance, I will always be grateful.

I was also lucky to encounter Jan Kristo during my first semester at the University of Maine. In Jan, I found the kind of professor I aspire to be. She sets high standards for her students, but provides the kind of knowledge and support to reach these goals. Jan’s uncommon commitment to the quality of her teaching is rivaled only by her remarkable dedication to her doctoral students. Whether it was tea and cookies at her house, or a pizza dinner during times of crisis, Jan has an acute sense for just what students need. Of course, this radar is most notable in the way she mentors students professionally. With Jan I learned how to prepare for presenting at national conferences, how to write for publication, and how to facilitate a classroom of students so that everyone felt challenged, but valued. I am happy to have such a fine model of teaching to guide my own career.

Ed Brazee is another mentor, like Connie and Jan, who taught me that teaching at the college level did not mean giving up meaningful relationships with students. Everyone who works with Ed is struck by the way he *understands* teachers and lets their professional concerns guide the substance and direction of their learning. My enduring memory of Ed will be his gracious acknowledgment of my research during the final minutes of my dissertation defense. He is a gentleman-scholar.

Kelly Chandler deserves special recognition for her extraordinary mentorship. Kelly did more than "believe in me"; she took me seriously from the first time we met. This attitude buoyed my confidence and sense of efficacy, and for that approach, I thank her.

My fellow doctoral students, Tanya Baker and Jill Ostrow, have been precious sources of support during my program. Tanya, from the beginning, has challenged me to think in new ways, always astonishing me with her insight, and impressing me with the impact she has on student learning and development. She is a rising star.

Jill came onto the scene at an auspicious time and I believe it was not a coincidence. What I admire most about Jill is her fierce allegiance to the highest principles of education. She keeps me honest in the way I research, write, and think. She is also a loyal friend who listened all summer to my cries of dissertation distress, and acted as a surrogate mother to my children when they were missing their biological one.

I want to thank my parents for their support over the past five years to help make this degree happen. Not only did they cheerlead for me and offer significant professional advice, they freed up huge amounts of time to help me accomplish my writing. For this, I am grateful.

Of course, I want to thank my husband, Steve, for his spiritual and practical support of my work for the last five years. Completing the doctoral program has demanded the kind of time a third child would require, and I consider Steve's role in the process as significant as his contribution to the livelihood of our other two kids. And speaking of children, Will and Lindsay deserve acknowledgment, too, for the time they spent playing among books and journals and pages of my writing. I won't forget the morning Will answered the phone and announced to one of my friends, "Mom just finished chapter four!" I thank my children for (usually) being patient and kind about my work with their third "sibling".

And last, I need to thank "Ellen", my favorite indiscriminate discloser. Without her generosity of spirit and practice this research would not have been as interesting or as pleasurable as it was. Ellen's participation went beyond the limits I set in my consent form. No one wanted this study to be a success more than Ellen, and that's not because she was concerned about the way her experience would be reflected in my writing (although I know secretly she's hoping to get on Oprah for her performance!). Instead, Ellen is the kind of teacher who will commit her professional energies to advancing instructional knowledge in her own classroom and for a wider audience. If her participation in my study would contribute to this goal, she was willing to meet any challenge, answer sticky questions, welcome me into her classroom and her head "just one more time" to assist my work. For her enthusiasm and professional spirit, I am truly grateful.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

DEDICATION....ii

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS.... iii

LIST OF TABLES....xi

LIST OF FIGURES xii

Chapter

1. TURNING UP THE HEAT....1

    Background....3

    Conclusion....8

2. MAKING THE STRANGE FAMILIAR: A REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE...10

    Introduction....10

    The Origins of Reading Strategy Instruction....12

        Cognitive Psychology....13

        Developmental Psychology....14

        The Educational Apprenticeship....15

        Motivation....17

        The Continuing Impulse to Learn....21

        The Direct Explanation Teaching Model....23

        Reader Response Theory....25

    Crafting Comprehension....27

        Type 1 Lessons....28

        Type 2 Lessons....29

        Type 3 Lessons....31

    Theory to Practice: Is Strategy Instruction For Me?....35

Professional Development in Literacy Instruction...42

The History of Staff Development in Education..44

Defining Terms... 45

Change Strategies..47

Focus of Staff Development Efforts..49

Models of Staff Development...51

Individually Guided Staff Development..52

The Observation-Assessment Design...55

The Development-Improvement Process...57

Training..59

The Inquiry Model..62

Summarizing Thoughts...64

Literacy Staff Development in Practice..65

Reading Recovery...65

The Kamehameha Early Education Program...68

The Reading Instruction Study (RIS)..73

Implications..78

Sustainability..78

Epistemology...80

Conclusion..85

3. LOCAL DETAIL: A METHODOLOGY FOR CASE STUDY RESEARCH IN COMPREHENSION STRATEGIES INSTRUCTION...86

Introduction..86

In the Beginning..87

Finding a Site and Gaining Access....88

Description of the Site....89

Recruiting Participants....94

Research Questions....99

Theoretical Grounding: Case Study Methodology....101

Data Collection Methods....107

Trustworthiness....112

Methods of Analysis....115

4. TURNING UP THE HEAT: AN ANALYSIS....124

Ellen's Story....128

On Teaching....129

The Classroom....137

The Class....139

On Teaching Reading: The Evolution....147

The Inquiry Course....151

Inside the Classroom....158

Contradictions....165

Marquee Moments....172

The Teacher as Reader....183

On Community....189

The Teaching-Learning-Teaching Community....190

The Peer Community....195

The Invisible Community....197

The Artist Community....198

Conclusion....203

5. LESSONS FROM ELLEN: CONCLUSIONS AND IMPLICATIONS FOR FUTURE RESEARCH....205

Limitations....206

Conclusion....209

Three Learnings....211

Lesson 1: Beliefs Matter....213

Conclusion....216

Lesson 2: Relationships Matter....219

Conclusion....230

Lesson 3: Professional Communities Matter....233

Conclusion....241

Directions for Future Research....245

Final Thoughts....249

REFERENCES....252

APPENDICES....269

Appendix A. Adapted Conceptual Framework of Reading....270

Appendix B. Example of Axial Coding Graphic....274

Appendix C. Characteristics of Ellen's Strategy Teaching....275

BIOGRAPHY OF THE AUTHOR....277

LIST OF TABLES

TABLE C1: Characteristics of Ellen's Strategy Teaching..275

LIST OF FIGURES

Figure 1. Viewing Staff Development Through the Lens of Scientific Method......84

Figure 2. Revised List of Codes 120

Figure 3. Reading Response Journal Prompts 176

Figure B1: Example of Axial Coding Graphic...274

CHAPTER 1: TURNING UP THE HEAT

It's the middle of January and the students in Ellen Irwin's fourth grade class are in for a surprise. The morning starts out predictably. Their teacher has just led them through a comprehension strategy lesson on visualization. It's the fourth reading strategy they've been introduced to so far during the school year and they're becoming proficient at talking about their reading habits. When Ellen asks, "How many of you have read books that bring a vivid image to mind?", her students start naming books that prompt this kind of visualization.

"Sing Down the Moon!"

"A Wrinkle in Time!"

"The Midwife's Apprentice!"

"The Bad Beginning!"

Then the students begin talking about their experience reading books they love. A girl tells the class, "When I really like a book, I feel like I'm part of the story." Another boy confesses, "When I'm reading, if a character takes a deep breath, I take one too." Ellen explains that some books are so descriptive that she actually smells what's being described. She asks, "Have you ever read about frying bacon? Oh, I can smell it and get hungry!" The kids seem to understand and they murmur appreciatively at the thought.

After fifteen minutes of talking about the joys of reading a good book, Ellen leads her class through an anchor lesson on visualization designed to help them recognize the comprehension value of having a "movie in the mind" as they read. First, she asks her students to put their heads on their desks, close their eyes, and just listen. Then she turns down the lights, plays some Sounds of Nature music on the cassette player, and begins reading aloud from Charlotte Zolotow's The Seashore Book. When she's finished reading, she asks the students to lift their heads and tell her what they saw, smelled, heard, felt and tasted as they listened. She re-reads the book to them, this time asking them to draw pictures of what they were visualizing as they listened.

When the lesson is over, the kids are expecting to finish the reading period in the usual way with independent reading, and then writing in their dreaded reading response journals. Instead, Ellen takes a deep breath and says, "I'm going to do something today that I've been too chicken to do in the past. You know I like to have control, but that's not always a good thing. I'd like you all to take out your orange papers with the reading response journal prompts on them."

The class is riveted by this change in the routine. They all quickly rummage through their desks and find the appropriate handout in record time. Without the intrigue of Mrs. Irwin's impending surrender of control, the directive to find a single sheet of paper inside a desk could take 10 minutes, at least.

"Now," Ellen says, "I want you all to stand up."

The collective scraping of chair legs on the tile floor is incredibly synchronized, as though some invisible hand below the floor has turned a crank and moved all the chairs at once. The motion is that coordinated. Ellen looks around the room, then orders, "O.K. Rip them up!" With hardly a pause, the kids tear the papers to shreds tossing them in the air like mortar boards at commencement exercises. They're free!

One student asks, "Why did we do that?"

Another answers, "Because we hate them!"

Ellen weighs in. "I want you guys to decide how you're going to respond in your journals. You can respond in a way that makes sense to you. You might write about connections, visualization, predictions--any way that seems appropriate. How are you thinking and feeling about how you read?" (January 22, 2002)

Background

Ellen Irwin is a fourth grade teacher. She really likes her students and talks with them a lot. She has a great sense of humor. She arranges her classroom in an inviting way. She's organized. She is committed to home-school communication to support her students' learning. She is a reader and a writer. She integrates her curriculum. She is creative, yet practical. She is a lifelong learner. She is a valued colleague in her school. Using the criteria established by Allington, Johnston and Day (2002) in their study of fourth grade teachers, Ellen would be considered exemplary.

The research reported in this dissertation is the story of Ellen during a school year in which she was in the grip of a significant change process. Ellen's story is important because although she is only one teacher exploring reading in a unique setting during a single school year, her experience speaks to a perennial question in education: What makes a teacher change her practice? Several areas of published research, including literacy reform efforts, professional development, and the beliefs systems of teachers, helped to lay a foundation for studying the issue of instructional change.[1] My year-long residence in Ellen's classroom extended the understandings I drew from the literature and contributed to a broader understanding of the factors that influenced her thinking and instructional decision-making.

Reflecting on Ellen's experience with reading instruction suggests that teacher change is at once more simple and more complex than might be expected. Practical ways of supporting change such as offering choice in professional development activities, giving funds for classroom resources, and providing financial incentives for studying curricular change, are important foundations. What Ellen's story reveals, though, is that these conditions are not sufficient to maintain the full weight of substantive instructional change. For Ellen, in the case of reading instruction, the personal knowledge she brought to her teaching, the kind of relationships she developed with her students, and the professional climate of the faculty at her school, were powerful forces in the way she explored instructional changes.

---

[1] In this paper, the terms teacher change and instructional change will be used synonymously.

The organization of this dissertation traces the development of the study, and reports the findings of my research with Ellen. The following synopsis offers a roadmap for understanding its organization.

Chapter one offers an overview of the whole project including a brief history of the genesis of my research question and how I initially connected with Ellen.

Chapter two presents two literature reviews; one on research in reading comprehension strategy instruction[2] and one about the history of professional development programs. In the first section, my review of strategy instruction revealed two interesting patterns. First, studies documented the benefits to student achievement with the use of strategy instruction in comprehension (Brown, 1992; El-Dinary & Schuder, 1993; Hansen, 1981; Palinscar & Brown, 1984; Pearson & Dole, 1987; Pressley & Wharton, 1998). Second, research showed that few teachers adopted the approach (Collins, Brown & Newman, 1989; El-Dinary & Schuder, 1993; Pressley, Schuder,

---

[2] Throughout this report, strategy instruction in reading comprehension will be defined as an approach based on research in proficient reader behavior. Students are taught to think like expert readers by learning to use strategies such as visualization, inference, schema-activation, questioning, and summarization as they read.

Bergman & El-Dinary, 1992; Pressley & Wharton, 1998). What interested me was that the research base did not satisfactorily explain this failure to successfully connect recommended reading instruction with practitioners. Why were teachers resistant to a "proven" instructional intervention?

This question led me to think about teachers' professional development. I wondered if the way teachers were introduced to new pedagogy affected their attitude toward change. Guided by an important study by Richardson, Anders, Tidwell and Lloyd (1991) in which the authors suggested that professional development in literacy was failing teachers by not providing theoretical understanding of an instructional idea along with practical knowledge, I began my review of research. I found that while many approaches to professional development proved successful when followed "as recommended", most programs fell victim to time, resource, money, and personnel constraints. Those programs with the greatest rates of success were well-funded and highly structured with numerous gatekeeping measures employed to guarantee consistency of program implementation. Yet even in these programs where teachers were shown to follow an intervention's guidelines closely for sustained periods of time, there was little evidence that the theory behind a practice was included in the plan. If this was true of well-developed programs with high credibility, then there was a small likelihood that typical professional development opportunities planned for discussions of theory along with practice.

I discovered only one design in the numerous studies I read that included theoretical discussions in its approach. Termed a constructivist model of literacy staff development, this project was organized by Richardson et al. in an attempt to explore the effects of a study of theory on teachers' ability to implement reading instruction according to best practice standards. The study showed that teachers were at first resistant to theoretical discussions, but as the project continued, participants came to value the opportunity to explore their own beliefs about reading instruction and to use this knowledge to guide their instructional planning.

From my review of the history of literacy staff development I concluded that most traditional methods of in-service teacher learning were deficient. Intrigued by the promise of a constructivist professional development design, I began to realize that supporting teacher change was more complex than providing a motivational speaker, plenty of resources, and administrative support. Questions about epistemology, how teachers *know,* became important in my study. The chance to do my research in the context of a Professional Development School (PDS) project was a fortunate opportunity. My study really began two years before I met Ellen when I was a co-researcher in a PDS pilot project at the Sullivan Middle School. During this project I learned from the participating teachers that reading strategy instruction was a valued approach to teaching comprehension. Although the pilot project did not extend long enough to study the full impact of teachers' study of strategy instruction on their classroom practice, the early indications, from teacher self-report and limited field observations, suggested that strategy instruction was changing the way teachers thought about teaching reading.

Compelled by these early findings, I wanted to design a research study that explored more completely the process of learning about strategy instruction and implementing it in a reading program. The coincidence of my research interests with the beginning of another PDS reading project in the Sullivan School district was a promising place to start my study. Designed as an inquiry course around reading comprehension instruction, the project welcomed teachers in grades K-12 from around the district. I identified Ellen as a promising participant in my study when she signed up for the course. I anticipated that the constructivist design of the project, which encouraged teachers to choose an area of interest around reading instruction and to provide resources for this exploration, would offer an opportunity to investigate Ellen's existing beliefs about reading instruction and to observe how her new learning was impacted by these held theories. Further, I hoped to document how Ellen's study of comprehension strategy instruction, her chosen area of interest, affected her reading program.

In chapter three, I describe the qualitative methods I used to conduct this interpretive case study investigation. Interviews, classroom observations, informal conversations, e-mail correspondence and classroom artifacts were the primary sources of data. Transcripts of interviews, as well as field notes and artifacts, were analyzed according to grounded theory's constant-comparative methods (Strauss & Corbin, 1998).

Influenced by Noddings' (1986) notion of an "ethic of care" in educational research, I designed my study to be of equal value to Ellen and to me. As part of the consent to participate, I explained that my role in the study would be one of participant observer. I offered to teach, coach and provide feedback in exchange for an open door to Ellen's classroom. While she did not take advantage of my offer to teach, I did provide coaching and feedback after observed teaching sessions; in addition, Ellen and I exchanged many e-mail messages discussing the content of inquiry course sessions and the shifting landscape of her pedagogical thinking.

Chapter four is a detailing of my data analysis. Through the process of grounded theory's constant-comparative analysis (Strauss & Corbin, 1998), I identified numerous codes to describe Janet's instructional attitudes, motivations and behaviors. Eventually this long list of codes was winnowed down to fourteen categories which I report on extensively in the chapter.

After reviewing the codes in chapter four and thinking about their larger implications I developed three “Lessons from Ellen” which are discussed in chapter five. These learnings show that in Ellen’s case, beliefs matter, relationships matter, and professional communities matter. For me, these conclusions caused me to think very differently about instructional change than I had before I started the study. I became less concerned with what Hoffman calls “fidelity of adoption”, that is, how closely teachers’ use of an instructional intervention matches its original design. The research on reading strategy instruction that suggested teachers rarely embraced the approach raised new questions for me. First, I wondered if these studies only measured fidelity, in which case researchers would be overlooking a host of possible reinventions of the approach that might be equally valuable. But more important than methodological concerns, I had new insights into the conditions that need to be present in order for any new pedagogy to be considered. Time, support, feedback, and financial resources were critical, but significant, sustained change, as evidenced in Ellen’s story, demanded more profound individual and systemic considerations than earlier studies acknowledged.

Conclusion

In the spring of 2002, Ellen was chosen as a fellow in the Maine Writing Project. During our exit interview, Ellen talked about some of the ideas she had for the writing she would do in the Project. She wanted to find a way to bring her work as a glass artist together with her work as a teacher.

> I’m going to use my beadmaking as a metaphor when I write my learning autobiography. I think working with glass is like changing as a teacher. You have

> these hard, inflexible glass rods, you add some heat, and you can change the shape of the glass to become something brand new. What I did this year with my reading program was like adding heat to my rigid ideas of what instruction should look like. Here we are in June and my reading class looks like a whole new creation (May 21, 2002).

Ellen's ability to be metacognitive about her experience suggests reflective thought about her progress and how she might describe it to others. What is not evident in the quote, but is a significant part of Ellen's ability to make the analogy, are the layers of context that supported Ellen's growth as a teacher during the year I spent as a researcher in her classroom. The "heat" she refers to came from many sources; her inner drive to explore an area of her curriculum that was unsatisfying, an on-site inquiry course about reading comprehension offered by the local university through the professional development network, the school community in which Ellen taught, and opportunities to reflect on her practice provided by the relationship that developed between Ellen and myself during our research partnership. Ellen's intrinsic motivation to explore her reading comprehension instruction, coupled with an external context that encouraged her inquiry, allowed her to make significant changes in the way she thought about reading comprehension and in the way she designed her reading program. The story of her progress, and the factors that influenced it, is reported in this study.

CHAPTER 2: MAKING THE STRANGE FAMILIAR

A Review of the Literature

> You are killing the monarchy, you know, with this film you're making. The whole institution depends on mystique and the tribal chief in his hut. If any member of the tribe ever sees inside the hut then the whole system of tribal chiefdom is damaged and the tribe eventually disintegrates. (Richard Attenborough, anthropologist, on whether he thinks filming a day in the life of the British royal family is a good idea.)

Introduction

A classic piece of advice to qualitative researchers, first offered by Erikson (1986) and repeated frequently since, is "to make the familiar strange and interesting again" (p. 121). That is, to describe a research setting with an objectivity that makes what is most ordinary seem exotic. Making the familiar strange problematizes what is most comfortable, and by upending the status quo, readers are asked to question the traditions and values that define them. Educational research is replete with studies that reveal the machinery, sometimes theoretical, sometimes practical, often discomfiting, that makes a situation tick (c.f. Bond & Dykstra, 1997; Durkin, 1979-80; Goodlad, 1984; Heath, 1983; Sizer, 1984; Taylor & Dorsey-Gaines, 1988). It is accepted wisdom, however, that understanding the foundations of a people, place or experience is worthwhile. If the unexamined life is not worth living, then qualitative researchers have reason to rejoice. Their mission to examine the details of life promises a valuable existence indeed.

It is interesting to consider Attenborough's quote, which introduces this chapter, as a twist on Erikson's phrase. His reaction to the possibility of taking people inside the private world of the royal family is a reminder of the consequences inherent in *making the strange familiar*. T.S. Eliot, who believed that all good poetry should make the strange familiar and the familiar strange, considered these two ways of thinking in literary terms. The connection to scholarly research is equally illuminating. Literature reviews, by definition, are responsible for providing an interior look at what, to the untrained eye, appears remote. In fact, it is this "Ivory Tower" effect that carries the presumed power of people who conduct the research, but who rarely watch its translation to the field. Research is revered. Time and again scholars rely on the phrase, "The research tells us . . . " to add import to their writing or speeches. To turn the research inside out is the responsibility of a well-developed literature review, and it is this action that threatens the tribe. What will be be revealed when we look inside the hut and expose the "mystique" on which so many recommendations rely?

Of course, academics welcome this kind of exposure. Unlike the royal family, their work is enhanced, rather than threatened, by close examination. The great conversations that occur in the scholarly arena can happen only when someone peeks under a rock or asks a sticky question. And yet, confronting the inconsistencies, taking the arcane vocabulary and translating it to considerate language, uncovering gaps in what is reported, all of these responses to research are fraught with contention. It's what makes the field exciting.

Exploring the role of teachers' beliefs in reading instruction provided just this kind of academic enjoyment. The task of finding "what the literature tells us" took me to a variety of research fields: Milestone studies that described the roots of reading strategy instruction, theoretical writings about teachers' beliefs, and research about staff development in literacy initiatives. Reading in these three areas allowed me to understand the landscape of reading instruction and teacher learning, and to identify places in that landscape that were ill-defined. It is these blurry areas that helped shape the research questions I pursued in the study. The results of the literature review are reported in the following sections.

The Origins of Reading Strategy Instruction

Literacy is a "social accomplishment"

(Oldfather and Dahl, 1994, p. 139).

The evolutionary roots of current reading comprehension instruction are wide-ranging. At the beginning of the twenty-first century, best practice in teaching reading comprehension is characterized by a strategies approach, an instructional plan that draws from cognitive and developmental psychology, literary theory, social-constructivism and research in motivation. It is useful to trace these ancestors in order to understand how each contributed to the foundations of modern comprehension instruction.

The history of reading comprehension instruction is brief. Although J. Russell Webb first used the word *comprehension* in his 1856 series *Normal Readers* (Smith, 1965), it took more than one hundred years for research in reading comprehension instruction to achieve prominent status. A 1978-1979 study by Dolores Durkin was the catalyst that moved research in reading instruction forward. In the seminal article describing her research, *What classroom observations reveal about reading comprehension instruction* (1978-79), Durkin asked a simple question: Do reading and social studies classrooms provide comprehension instruction? Her findings were sobering. Rather than providing comprehension instruction, that is, doing or saying something to assist students in understanding the meaning of what they read, Durkin found that teachers usually engaged in what she called "mentioning" (briefly noting the skill students were supposed to apply), "practicing" (using the workbook), and "assessing" (evaluating answers for correctness). (p. 523) Less than five percent of teachers' instructional time was spent in teaching students *how* to understand the meaning of print.

Cognitive Psychology

Pearson and Dole (1984) note that it is unclear whether Durkin's 1979-1980 study was the cause of the resurgence in reading comprehension research that followed its publication. Concurrent with her work was an active period of proficient reader research which contributed to interest in investigating reading comprehension processes more closely. Much of what is considered good practice in current reading comprehension instruction owes a debt to research in the 1970's and 1980's in the field of cognitive psychology. During this time, a body of researchers, collectively named representational theorists, became interested in strategies for enhancing mental representations of text. How meaning is represented in the mind and how these constructs assist in the comprehension of complex ideas was a logical place to begin studying the layers of thought that support reading comprehension. The strategies identified by representationalists included summarizing, constructing mental images, understanding story grammars and activating schema.

Other cognitive psychologists were interested in how readers attend to their thinking as they read. Being metacognitive, the term used to describe how people think about their thinking, requires two behaviors. First, readers must monitor how well they are understanding a text *a*s they read. Second, they must have strategies to repair comprehension breakdown when it occurs. Cognitive psychologists recognized that people who could simultaneously read, assess their understanding, diagnose confusion, and operate on the problem using an appropriate reading strategy (e.g. visualization), were more successful readers.

Developmental Psychology

Developmentalists, working with theories proposed by Piaget and Vygotsky, added another important dimension to reading comprehension research by studying the influence of social interaction on reading ability. Piaget, who studied young children's cognitive development, was interested in how learners acquired knowledge. One of his conclusions was that "knowledge does not result from a mere recording of observations without a structuring activity on the part of the subject" (cited in Phillips, 1995, p. 6). Piaget used the term constructivism to explain how children used their experiences to build mental structures that assisted learning.

Piaget's work was concerned with a child's independent construction of knowledge. Other researchers, notably Vygotsky, drawing on the premises of constructivism, were interested in how group processes influenced learning. Now known as social-constructivism, Vygotsky's underlying theory is framed by two assumptions: "(a) higher mental functions have their origins in social interaction, and (b) language mediates experience" (Mariage, 1995, p. 216). Vygotsky (1978) contributed an important term to the educational lexicon when he introduced *the zone of proximal development* which he defined as "the distance between the actual developmental level as determined by independent problem solving and the level of potential development as determined through problem solving under adult guidance or in collaboration with more capable peers" (p. 86). Vygotsky believed that "interactions between adults and children that are critical to cognitive development occur with tasks that are within the child's *zone of proximal development*, tasks which the child can do only with assistance" (p. 90).

According to Vygotsky's theory, if students apprentice themselves to an adult or more capable peer in performing a new task, eventually s/he will borrow and internalize the more expert person's process allowing independent execution of the task through self-speech.

The advent of social-constructivist theories shifted the focus of cognitive development from "the solitary child, learning general skills and strategies spontaneously" (Rogoff, 1990, p. 6), to a widespread recognition of the primacy of social context and interaction in children's learning. Social-constructivism is the theoretical bedrock of current approaches to teaching comprehension that advocate strategy learning. Later sections of the review will examine why a teacher's acceptance of social-constructivist principles is vital to the effective use of a reading comprehension strategies program.

The Educational Apprenticeship

An exemplar of Vygotsky's social constructivist theory is represented by an apprenticeship model of instruction. Rogoff (1992) proposed that

> children's cognitive development is an apprenticeship--it occurs through guided participation in social activity with companions who support and stretch children's understanding of and skill in using the tools of culture . . . The particular skills and orientation that children develop are rooted in the specific historical and cultural activities of the community in which children and their companions interact (Rogoff, p. vii).

The term apprenticeship was borrowed from the world of labor and scholars argue that a modified definition is warranted for its application to educational settings. Brandt (1989) is adamant that an educational model of apprenticeship must move away from the lock-step approach of labor-learning, such as blacksmithing, in which "the steps for producing a product are ordinal and follow a set sequence. First you do this, then this . . . and so on" (Collins, Brown and Neuman, 1989, p.7). She contends that in complex cognitive tasks learning is recursive, not linear. In building a theory of apprenticeship, Brandt explored mother-child interactions in an authentic context. She noted that mothers have a skill for placing "themselves and their children in real activities that have significance and meaning for both of them." (Brandt, p. 6). The by-product of this natural engagement is learning, according to Brandt.

After establishing a useful model based on mother-child interactions, Brandt looked for a theory to guide the development of an educational apprenticeship. Believing that a traditional transmission approach to instruction has failed most learners, Brandt turned to theories of socially-constructed learning and found, of course, Vygotsky. In a cognitive apprenticeship, she writes, "the expert cannot simply give cognition away. The transfer must be interactive, social, and jointly created" (p. 10). An apprenticeship in learning accommodates Vygotsky's two key principles: First, that all origins of higher cognitive processes are social, and second, that when learners work within the zone of proximal development with more capable others, maximum learning occurs. Brandt extends Vygotsky's work by looking more carefully at the demands on the more expert other, in this case, the "master" in the apprenticeship, the individual who is more skilled at a cognitive task. The key to successful expert behavior, according to Brandt, is the ability to become self-conscious and to take one's "internalized cognitive history . . . and make it public" (p. 11). In addition, Brandt emphasizes that an expert must be able to entice the novice to become mentally engaged in a task by constructing a social context that is meaningful. Reiterating the difference between the labor model apprenticeship and the contextualized apprenticeship she envisions, Brandt stresses the importance of a focus on "how the expert establishes and orchestrates a social context which fosters successful transfer, and to treat such orchestration as complex" (p. 14).

Although Brandt does not directly describe how a cognitive apprenticeship applies to reading comprehension instruction, the link is strong. Making one's thinking visible is a critical component of strategy instruction in reading comprehension. In ideal comprehension instruction classrooms, teachers have studied their own processes of reading and are able to "make it public" for their students. Through think-aloud protocols, teachers have whole class and individual conversations with students about how they make meaning as they read. Eventually, the goal is to have students apprentice themselves to each other recognizing that an expert in one task may be a novice in another.

In a classroom described in subsequent sections, different kinds of comprehension lessons are designed to foster student-to-student, master/novice relationships in an environment that encourages the recursive nature of learning. This idea of the master craftsman and the interested apprentice sets strategy teaching apart from traditional methods of teaching. Again, I will argue that adopting this stance is necessary for the successful implementation of reading strategy instruction.

Motivation

It would be difficult to find a teacher who did not name "motivating students to learn" as a teaching goal. One of the desirable benefits of a social-constructivist classroom is the nature of motivation it encourages. Although most research in motivation has not focused specifically on social-constructivist theory or reading comprehension instruction, several scholars have studied these two areas and the implications are important. The limited amount of research available that studied classrooms built around social-constructivist principles, combined with motivation studies in general educational contexts, suggests that this epistemological orientation has positive consequences for motivating student engagement and learning.

From the general educational literature on motivation, Ames and Ames (1984) and Hedegaard (1995) offer useful information about the relationship between motivation and learning. Ames and Ames named three systems of student motivation that arise from particular classroom value orientations: Ability-evaluative, task mastery, and moral responsibility. Typically motivation is understood to be the drive to achieve a goal through the use of cultural tools. Ames and Ames argue, however, that motivation has qualitative variables as well that "represent different value or goal orientations, different ways of processing or attending to information, and different cognitions about one's performance" (p. 535). The three systems of motivation cited by Ames and Ames carry different goal or reward structures. An ability-evaluative system of motivation results in a competitive goal orientation. Students in these classrooms work against each other and the success of one student is dependent on the failure (or diminished success) of another (p. 536). A task-mastery system of motivation encourages an individualistic goal orientation which "specifies that there is an independence of goals, that is, whether a goal (or reward) is attained by one student is not dependent on another student's achieving the goal" (p. 538). Finally, the moral-responsibility or cooperative motivational system demands that a goal be shared by a set of individuals (p. 539). There is a dependence of each student's rewards on the success of the group in this system and this dependence, according to Ames and Ames, elicits helping behaviors among peers in the learning group.

The third system of motivation, moral-responsibility, with its shared goal structure is implicit in current practice in reading strategy instruction. The link is clear.

Social constructivist theory is grounded in cooperative behavior among experts and novices within the ZPD. As has been discussed previously, cutting-edge strategy instruction in reading comprehension finds its roots in social-constructivism. Therefore, it follows that in a strategies classroom motivation is tied to shared goal construction. Social interaction around reading strategies motivates students to acquire the requisite skills and make their knowledge available to those who need assistance.

The rewards of a cooperative classroom are well-documented in the literature (Gambrell, 1996; Slavin,1983; 1997). Most important is the finding that "students' helping one another is a motivational component of cooperative learning" (Slavin, 1983). The positive social interdependence that is cultivated by cooperative goal structures is characteristic of moral situations, according to Ames and Ames (p. 540). If teachers are concerned with stimulating their students to learn, certainly the motivational benefits of a social-constructivist approach to teaching reading are enticing.

Hedegaard (1995) also wrote about how classroom practice can influence student motivation. In her chapter titled *The qualitative analysis of the development of a child's theoretical knowledge and thinking* she acknowledges that,

> The importance of working with the pupils' motivation has become central to educational psychology (Pintrich, 1991), but the transcendence between cultural or social goals and the personal goals in instruction are not generally problematized. How the society, the community, the school, and the teacher's goals for learning become reflected in pupils' goals and how they influence the students' understanding and formation of their own goals for the activities in the classroom has only been researched on the formal level (p. 297).

Hedegaard's research showed that high-quality instruction attains the integration of cultural and social goals with students' individual goals by blending the basic concepts of a subject area with children's interests (p. 316). By coordinating academic goals with "the motivation children bring into the teaching situation in the form of interests, experience, and previously acquired knowledge" (p. 302), Hedegaard found that optimal learning conditions were created.

The results of Hedegaard's case study of a fourth grade student named Cecilie revealed that the child's motivation grew as her content knowledge expanded. The higher-order thinking tasks demanded by the curriculum were initially supported through cooperative learning exercises. Eventually, in true Vygotskian form, Cecilie internalized the knowledge and skills she had gained through peer interaction and completed the project independently. Her motivation increased as her engagement with the learning task became stronger; so much so, in fact, that the support of her peers became unnecessary to her finishing the assigned work.

Hedegaard studied history teaching, not literacy, but the principles of her motivation theory can readily be applied to the reading classroom. Most salient to the goals of this chapter is Hedegaard's conclusion about "the importance of taking teaching practice into account for understanding differences in the types of knowledge, skill, and motivation that children acquire" (p. 316). Recalling Ames and Ames' research, and adding to it Hedegaard's study findings, creates a synthesis that suggests the epistemological orientation of a classroom has an impact on children's motivation to learn. Since teachers are the theoretical architects in a classroom, their role in learning cannot be overlooked. A study by Oldfather and Dahl (1992) investigating social-constructivism, motivation and literacy acquisition will highlight the significance of the classroom context for supporting learning.

The Continuing Impulse to Learn

"We assert that intrinsic motivation for literacy learning is defined by and originates in the sociocognitive and affective processes that learners experience as they engage in the social construction of meaning" (p. 139). With this proposition, Oldfather and Dahl introduce their compelling article on reconceptualizing a theory of motivation that focuses on the learner as a catalyst in the social construction of meaning. The basis of their argument in built on rejecting accepted definitions of motivation. They write, "We believe that educators' dominant focus on students' motivation for competence and achievement has ironically been at the expense of students' intrinsic interest in literacy learning" (p. 140). Oldfather and Dahl argue that the goals of literacy should not be instrumental; that is, learning to read and write will help you score well on a test or move on to fifth grade. Instead, literacy goals should encourage students to develop into lifelong learners. This view does not ignore the importance of achievement, but it shifts the teaching focus from product to process.

In the introduction of this chapter, Oldfather and Dahl were cited as believing that literacy is a social accomplishment; this assertion becomes more clear when they explain that literacy happens when students construct understandings about what it means to be literate, about expectations for participation in literate activities, and about what is valuable in literate activity. Behavior, a typical indicator of motivation, is not an accurate measure of intrinsic motivation, according to Oldfather and Dahl. Students' on-task behavior may be related to their desire to please the teacher, avoid punishment, or score well on a test, rather than signaling a genuine engagement with a task.

Like Brandt (1989) and Hedegaard (1995), Oldfather and Dahl support the primacy of making education personally and socially relevant in order to foster an intrinsic desire to learn. They believe that intrinsic motivation is better conceived of as "the *continuing impulse to learn (CIL)"* (p. 141; italics in the original), which they define as "an on-going engagement in learning that is propelled and focused by thought and feeling emerging from the learners' processes of *constructing meaning*" (p. 142).

Classrooms designed to support a continuing impulse to learn are social-constructivist in nature and are realized through the integration of three domains: Classroom culture, interpersonal interactions and intrapersonal understandings (p. 144). A classroom culture that negotiates the meaning of learning and the roles of teachers and students within this context supports the CIL. The interpersonal domain addresses the "relationships among learners as they engage in literacy learning together" (p. 147). Collaboration is a central feature of the interpersonal domain, an idea that recalls the moral-responsibility system of motivation described by Ames and Ames (1984). Finally, the intrapersonal domain "represents the dynamic and ever-evolving processes that take place within the mind of an individual learner" (p. 150). As students interact they come to understandings about themselves as learners that help them place themselves as literate people within the classroom culture--What do I know? How do I know? And what can I do? are realizations that occur within the intrapersonal domain.

All three of the domains described by Oldfather and Dahl are necessary and active in social-constructivist classrooms, yet designing the context and procedures required in this kind of learning is not trouble-free. One potential consequence is that when student/student and teacher/student interaction patterns change, significant tremors in a teacher's previous level of comfort are effected (Hao, 1988, p. 103). Not only are students led to epistemological questions of "How do I know?", but teachers are obligated to examine their beliefs about how students are inspired to learn and what structures encourage academic exploration. Oldfather and Dahl claim that the interaction of the three domains fosters the continuing impulse to learn which facilitates the most valuable kind of learning.

The reconceptualization of intrinsic motivation proposed by Oldfather and Dahl is a useful synthesis of social-constructivist theory and motivation research. Understanding the practical application of the principles of the CIL is evident in a subsequent section describing classroom models of reading comprehension instruction. The following discussion, though, will focus on a pedagogical feature of strategies instruction called direct explanation. It is useful to explore this instructional approach because talk, a central feature of social-constructivist theory, is the mainstay of the direct explanation model.

The Direct Explanation Teaching Model

One of the most noticeable characteristics of cognitive strategies instruction is teachers' use of direct explanation, which Duffy and Roehler (1984) define as "making explicit the implicit principles and algorithms which govern successful comprehension, rather than merely providing practice opportunities and corrective feedback to errors" (p. 265). Several studies have documented the benefits of teaching strategies explicitly (Duffy and Roehler, 1986; Palinscar and Brown, 1984).

Duffy and Roehler (1986) were the first to look at whether low-ability students could not only learn a strategy (declarative knowledge) and use it appropriately (procedural and conditional knowledge), but whether they could tell *why* a particular strategy was useful to learn. The results of their study showed that when teachers were trained to use direct explanation techniques, teachers in the treatment group were rated higher than their control group counterparts in the explicitness of their explanations.

Further, student awareness about the usefulness of a taught strategy was found to be higher among experimental group students than in the control groups. Duffy and Roehler concluded that the results supported "explicit explanation as a viable means for helping low-group students become aware of lesson content" (p. 247).

In 1984, Palinscar and Brown conducted an important study using methods from the explicit teaching model. The researchers were interested in whether a particular intervention called reciprocal teaching was an effective reading comprehension approach. Teachers in an experimental group were taught the steps of reciprocal teaching which include summarizing (self-review), questioning (making up a question about a passage's main idea), clarifying (checking for understanding); and predicting. After this introduction to the basic principles of reciprocal teaching, students in the experimental group and their teacher worked with a portion of a text. The teacher and the students read the assigned segment silently, then either the teacher or the student (depending on the level of independence students had achieved) asked a question "that a teacher or a test might ask on the segment, summarized the content, discussed and clarified any difficulties, and finally made a prediction about future content" (p. 124).

The results of Palinscar and Brown's study were promising. In comparing the control and experimental groups, students who received training in reciprocal teaching showed greater gains in their ability to talk about reading, their standardized test scores in reading comprehension improved, students maintained their level of performance for eight weeks after the treatment, and reciprocal teaching seemed to hold the greatest benefits for the weakest readers.

Palinscar and Brown noted that adding to the quantitative credibility of the approach was the enthusiastic response of teachers to the reciprocal teaching method.

When used in optimal circumstances, the following outcomes of reciprocal teaching, according to Pressley (1998), represent the best of cognitive views of learning and development. First, teachers model strategies with the expectation that students will quickly assume responsibility. Second, students meet regularly to discuss the process and content of their reading, an occasion that supports making elaborations and drawing inferences. Finally, successful discussions allow different view points to be offered with the understanding that students justify their claims from evidence in the text.

Some critics have faulted the rigid protocol required in reciprocal teaching lessons, while others have charged that the model represents an interaction pattern more typical of job-type apprenticeships in which the novice is expected to produce results that look exactly like the master's (Brandt, 1986; Carver, 1987). Despite these criticisms, however, the landmark study by Palinscar and Brown, combined with research by Roehler and Duffy, show that an explicit approach to strategies instruction was effective. Before turning to classroom examples of cognitive strategy instruction, the final section of this discussion will examine the impact of literary criticism on reading comprehension instruction.

Reader Response Theory

Reader response theory contributed a literary perspective to reading instruction by recommending that the best reading happens when readers are encouraged to converse with a text through a transaction. This approach, while promoted by language arts theorists, extended developmental assumptions by suggesting the content of social interaction. One important thinker in the field of reader response is Louise Rosenblatt. In 1938, Rosenblatt published *Literature as experience* in which she proposed the revolutionary idea that different readers may develop multiple, valid interpretations to the reading of a text. In *The Reader, the Text, the Poem* (1978), Rosenblatt refined her transactional theory and established herself as a leading thinker in reading theory and instruction. Her approach centered around a triangular pattern of interaction, what she termed a *transaction*, between the reader and a text which produced a poem. According to Rosenblatt, there is no POEM without the reader. The text and the reader act on each other to produce a unique experience called a poem. Interpretation as a variable act, rather than a reader's search for the author's one "correct" meaning, would become important to contemporary theorists working to craft new approaches to reading comprehension instruction.

Reader response theory built a bridge between language arts theorists and cognitive psychologists by providing descriptions of how readers create personal responses to texts that included cognitive habits of reading. The combination of thinking from language arts researchers, reader response theorists, and cognitive psychologists strengthened the research in reading comprehension instruction and forged a revolution in the field.

The work of representationalists and developmentalists, and theories of social-constructivism, motivation, and literary criticism combine to form the basis of current instruction in reading comprehension. From this mix, researchers and practitioners have translated the research into a classroom approach termed strategy instruction. Teaching students the steps of summarization is an example of strategy instruction. Helping readers monitor their thinking through verbal protocols is another. Utilizing literature focus groups where students meet to discuss their reading is also an example of strategy teaching.

Keeping pace with research in the field of reading comprehension instruction is almost as difficult as tracking the progress of computer technology. Since Durkin's milestone study less than twenty-five years ago, the evolution of comprehension instruction has been meteoric. In the following section, classroom examples of strategy teaching in action will offer more explicit illustrations of teaching methods and socially-constructed learning. Throughout the description of lessons, I will connect specific practices with the theory and research outlined above to demonstrate the solid epistemological framework upon which current reading comprehension instruction is built.

Crafting Comprehension

An example of current practice in reading comprehension instruction is well-represented in a chapter by Cathy Collins Block (1999) titled *Comprehension: Crafting Understanding.* When studying the classroom approaches described by Block, it is evident how closely the strategies used by some reading teachers match the research findings about effective comprehension instruction described above. Block presents comprehension as a crafting process, "one in which understanding is constructed by students, authors, and teachers working artistically together to create knowledge" (p. 99). The chapter records her observations in classrooms that use three kinds of recursive lessons to support the crafting of reading comprehension. An explanation of each type is useful for comparing the instruction to research findings in motivation, cognition, and pedagogy. It is important to note here that from a theoretical point of view, Block's vision of crafting comprehension is clearly social-constructivist, although Block does not cite Vygotsky in her chapter. In addition, each kind of lesson she presents shows different iterations of an apprenticeship model at work. Evidence of these connections will be apparent in the examples below.

Type 1 Lessons

Type 1 lessons are called Sustaining Eustress. [3] During this phase of instruction, students are encouraged to interact with books in a personal way. Time is set aside for extended periods of silent, free-choice reading, after which students are asked to write about their reactions in journals. Block writes, "Type one lessons teach transformational thinking. Students are guided to create personal meanings deduced from texts" (p. 101). Vygotsky's work examined general learning principles, but occasionally he ventured into specific content areas to explore the implications of his theory. In one instance he argues that "writing should be meaningful for children, that an intrinsic need should be aroused in them, and that writing should be incorporated into a task that is necessary and relevant for life. Only then can we be certain that it will develop not as a matter of hand and finger habits but as a really new and complex form of speech" (Vygotsky, 1978, p. 118). The word ***reading*** could easily be substituted in the preceding quote and make equal sense. In Block's Type 1 lessons, the importance of helping students make reading relevant is evident in the amount of time allocated for this phase of "instruction". By encouraging students to transact with their reading (also a Rosenblatt recommendation), teachers support an authentic engagement with the task. The result is students' understanding that reading is not a matter of simply decoding and pronunciation, but a complex form of meaning-making.

---

[3] Finding a definition of the word eustress was time-consuming. After consulting several reference sources, a health education textbook revealed the meaning. Eustress is positive stress, the kind that is not accompanied by adverse psychological and physiological symptoms.

Block explains that Type 1 lessons are designed to encourage creativity, personal reflection, and self-esteem. Through the self-selection of reading material along with choices in how to respond to their reading, these lessons ask students to build bridges between the known and the new. Hedegaard (1995) would support the goals of Type 1 lessons from a motivational perspective. She writes that "the motive for learning develops from the child's participation in teaching activity, and that the interest the children bring to this teaching has to be a starting point for this development of motivation" (p. 298).

In Type 1 lessons, teachers also read aloud to students then offer time for dialogue about the story. Teacher talk is kept to a minimum, although a teacher may intervene to encourage students to explain how they are making the author's story their own, or to answer questions that will help students make meaning when they are confused. Discussions about the read alouds are "student-initiated conversations that focus upon how this oral reading enriched students' knowledge or life and/or how students are making the author's story their own." (p. 104) Reader response theory is an influence in this phase of instruction. Rosenblatt's notion of the transaction between a reader and a text, which creates a unique interpretive product for each reader, is one objective of Type 1 lessons.

Type 2 Lessons

The purpose of Type 2 lessons is to teach students how to use strategies to understand their reading. If Type 1 lessons are solitaire, then Type 2 lessons are Bridge. The former is an individual endeavor while the latter depends on others for its success. The apprenticeship model is most evident in Type 2 lessons as teachers tell stories about their own reading processes. "They demonstrate how they craft by sharing expanded explanations, preparing examples in advance, and teaching in the cognitively and affectively rich context of quality literacy so that students want to read" (p. 105). The strategies teachers use in their Type 2 lessons include activating schema (Anderson and Pearson, 1984), being metacognitive (Markman, 1977; Flavell, 1979), drawing inferences (Hansen, 1981), making connections between the new and the known (Keene and Zimmerman, 1997), decoding unfamiliar vocabulary words, connecting ideas across texts (Pressley, 1998), and "tilling a text" (Block, p. 105). Tilling the text involves mental preparation on the part of readers before they pick up a book. Just as farmers till the soil before planting, students learn to comb through standard features of a book looking for information about the author, discovering how the book is organized, attending to their background knowledge as it connects with the book's content or theme, and addressing initial vocabulary that will make reading easier. All of these pre-reading behaviors match the research by representationalists on proficient reader strategies (Pressley and Afflerbach, 1995).

Teachers design Type 2 lessons through careful observation during Type 1 and Type 3 lessons (described below). Again, an important principle of Block's teaching approach is that all three kinds of lessons are not presented in lock-step fashion: Type 1 lesson on Monday, Type 2 lesson on Tuesday, and so forth. Instead, the lessons are woven together and presented at a time of need. By assessing student progress in small and large group interactions, teachers can choose strategies to match areas of comprehension weakness. As a new strategy is introduced, a teacher thinks aloud as she reads to her students, explaining how she might apply a strategy to, for instance, make an inference. Brandt's (1989) recommendation that teachers "go public" with their self-conscious understandings of cognitive meaning-making is evident here.

In the process of introducing the new technique, the teacher models "how to integrate the strategy with those previously taught to craft greater understanding and to uncover more inferential meaning" (p. 110). The important idea to understand about Type 2 lessons is that teachers don't let students "struggle alone without a master craftsman to guide them, nor do they go to the opposite extreme and teach skills only after reading has stumped and frustrated their students" (p. 111). Here, Block's use of words like master craftsman and mentor (p. 113) indicate her implied use of the apprenticeship metaphor to explain her image of effective reading instruction.

Type 3 Lessons

Type 3 lessons exemplify a social-constructivist approach and are based on the belief that "often the best teaching occurs through active listening. To change control in the classroom, teachers must permit students to have choice over what they want to learn about themselves as readers" (Block, p. 115). Type 1 lessons encourage introspection about reading; type 2 lessons introduce ways of thinking that support readers' understanding of their texts. Type 3 lessons bring its predecessors together. The purpose of Type 3 lessons is to make class time for students to discuss their use of strategies and the effect these tools have on their understanding. "Type 3 lessons enable pupils to become their own guides as master craftsman" (p. 112) Vygotsky's (1978) theory of internalization is evident here. In Mind in Society he writes,

> . . . Learning awakens a variety of internal developmental processes that are able to operate only when the child is interacting with people in his environment and in cooperation with peers. Once these processes are internalized, they become part of the child's independent developmental achievement (p. 90).

Type 3 lessons are designed to encourage metacognition, to allow children time to reflect on the strategic choices they make and to analyze the effectiveness of their choices. This metacognitive behavior, Block argues, reinforces intrinsic motivation; "As new insights about the reading process are discovered, students improve their reading skills because they want to employ these new insights to meet more difficult comprehension challenges" (p. 112).

Type 3 lessons happen on a one-to-one level and in small group discussions. In the former context, called discovery discussions, students meet with teachers to share stories about themselves as readers, about their progressing abilities and about their literacy goals. Teachers use these discussions to plan instruction that moves each student forward in his/her comprehension development. The purpose of discovery discussions and the definition offered by Oldfather and Dahl for the continuing impulse to learn are well-matched. CIL "is characterized by intense involvement, curiosity, and a search for understanding as learners experience learning as a deeply personal and continuing agenda" (p. 142). When teachers offer opportunities for students to reveal their personal understanding and struggles, they are supporting the reconceptualized view of intrinsic motivation proposed by Oldfather and Dahl.

Students also meet in "student-initiated literacy process learning groups" (p. 113) as part of Type 3 lessons. Groups are formed around the question, "What strategy do you need to read better?" (p.113) with students selecting the group that best meets their needs. In one classroom, process groups included "Meaning Makers,"; "Transformer Titans"; "Breadth Builders"; "Word Wanters"; and "Memory Menders" (p. 114). An obvious connection between Type 3 lessons and Rogoff's theory of apprenticeship is evident here. According to Rogoff, children are "apprentices in thinking, active in efforts to learn from observing and participating with peers and more skilled members of society, developing skills to handle culturally defined problems with available tools, and building from these givens to construct new solutions within the context of sociocultural activity" (p. 7). Each of these features of apprenticeship learning is present in Type 3 lessons.

During the meetings, students discuss, in-depth, a particular strategy, explaining successes and difficulties, and offering tips to classmates about using the strategy most effectively. Oldfather and Dahl would call these conversations "honored voice" through which "the community of learners invites, listens to, responds to, and acts upon students' thoughts, feelings, interests, and needs" (p. 143). Teachers circulate along the periphery of the groups offering commentary only when necessary. The student-initiated groups always end with the same question: "What is your plan when this obstacle arises today and in the future when you read?" (p. 115). This predictable closing allows students to plan new literacy goals and assures them an audience for discussing their progress at future meetings. The connection between intention and motivation has been documented by Ames and Ames (1984). The authors define intention as "a responsibility to direct one's effort to the goal" (p. 540). They note that in cooperative group situations, such as those exemplified in Type 3 lessons, a valuing of effort and planning is common. According to one study (Ames, 1984b), the demonstration of group commitment to an individual's intentions assists the achievement of that student. Students involved in Type 3 lessons know that they will meet weekly to discuss their progress toward the previous week's goals and, if appropriate, establish new ones. Being able to count on the interest and support of peers, according to Ames and Ames, would promote growth and achievement.

The Type 1, Type 2 and Type 3 lessons proposed by Block are a unique application of current research in reading comprehension instruction. Other well-developed reading strategy programs are successfully practiced in the United States, including Pressley's Transactional Strategies Instruction, the SAIL program (Pressley, Shuder, and Bergman, 1992), Informed Learning Strategies (Paris, 1985), and POSSE (Mariage, 1995). Several of these initiatives are described below, but I chose to highlight Block's program because it incorporates most completely the research in cognitive strategy use, social constructivist theory, the apprenticeship model, motivation and principles of reader response. What is most distinctive about Block's program, and the other approaches to be discussed, is their grounding in the social-constructivist tradition of learning. The proposition that social interaction is the basis of learning separates these strategy approaches from prior comprehension programs such as basal texts and workbooks and ability-grouped reading instruction led by teacher- (or manual-) derived questions.

Recognizing social constructivism in the strategies approach, it is surprising to find that research studying the implementation of this kind of instruction does not discuss the relationship between theory and practice. Richardson et al. (1992) acknowledge this gap in discussing the findings of their research on the link between teacher beliefs and instructional theories:

> Considerable effort recently has gone into disseminating research related to the learning and instruction of reading comprehension that suggests a more interactive approach to learning . . . However, a majority of teachers [in their study] neither held theories of reading that would accommodate these new ways of thinking nor practiced them in their classrooms (p. 578-79).

The remainder of this literature review will consider reading comprehension program research--when does strategy instruction work successfully and when does it languish? Through a summary of these findings, it will become apparent that most studies fail to recognize the implications of a mismatch between the way teachers believe students learn and the social constructivist demands of current comprehension instruction.

Theory to Practice: Is Strategy Instruction For Me?

The many fields of thought that contribute to strategy instruction in reading comprehension attest to how knowledgeable a teacher needs to be in order to enact the approach successfully. Several studies have investigated the implementation of cognitive strategy programs in reading and the results further substantiate that many obstacles stand in the way of its effective use.

Pressley (1989, 1992, 1997, 1998) is one of the most prolific researchers in reading strategy instruction; a result of his work was the development of a program called Transactional Strategies Instruction (TSI) which has been used in several U.S. schools. According to Pressley (1998), "Transactional strategies instruction involves direct explanations and teacher modeling of comprehension strategies, followed by guided practice of strategies" (p. 93). The use of the word transaction was chosen, in part, to reflect Rosenblatt's work in reader response theories. The TSI approach is guided by the assumption that meaning does not reside in a text or in a reader's mind, but instead "is constructed by readers as they consider text content in light of their previous knowledge and experiences" (Pressley, 1998, p. 209). TSI brings together important elements of the research on reading comprehension, including active teaching, time for students to practice strategy use in authentic reading contexts, and opportunities for readers to reflect on the behaviors that allow them to comprehend successfully.

Obviously, Block's notion of crafting comprehension was influenced by TSI theory. Another site where TSI has been extensively field tested is in Montgomery County, Maryland, where the SAIL (Students Achieving Independent Learning) program illustrates the application of TSI principles to reading instruction.

In one study of the SAIL program, Pressley, Schuder, Bergman and El-Dinary (1992) interviewed teachers to determine teachers' perceptions of program effects. The teachers in the study, who collaborated in designing the interview questions, cited many benefits and drawbacks of the SAIL program. Among the positive perceptions were the accelerated achievement of students participating in the program, teacher satisfaction with their introduction to the instructional technique, and the applicability of the SAIL program to reading instruction in grades one through eight.

Teachers in the study also identified several problems with the SAIL program. These included the lack of decoding emphasis which was seen as detrimental to younger and struggling readers. Teachers also had difficulty identifying material that worked well with SAIL instruction and were equally troubled when they attempted to adapt existing material to fit the model. The SAIL approach was occasionally used across content areas, but not as often as teachers would have preferred. Finally, many teachers found assessment with the SAIL program more difficult than with their traditional methods of teaching.

In the introduction of their article, Pressley et al. emphasized the difficulty of becoming a SAIL teacher. No participants in the study had worked fewer than two years with the program and all had received extensive training and in-class support from researchers in using the approach. Citing a study by El-Dinary et al. (1992), Pressley et al. note that teachers' beliefs may influence their experience with the SAIL program. They wrote, "SAIL teaching may depend on teacher beliefs about the appropriateness and efficacy of the model" (p. 212). Yet, having recognized this possibility, there is no suggestion that the researchers investigated the match between teachers' belief systems and the theoretical foundation of SAIL as part of their interview protocol.

The conclusion of the article returns to the issue of variability in teachers' evaluation of SAIL. Again, Pressley et al. suggest that the inconsistency is due to variation in teachers' general teaching skills. After offering this vague explanation, they go on to write, "Coming to understand the causes of such teacher variability . . . could do much to increase understanding of how to structure cognitive strategy instruction to make it maximally effective in promoting teacher and student participation in strategy-oriented reading groups" (p. 244). I contend that Pressley et al. were close to understanding one reason for variability when they briefly addressed the belief-practice connection, but that line of inquiry was not pursued.

In another study by Pressley et al. (1989), the researchers included an exploration of the obstacles to instruction in good strategy use in several schools using the TSI approach. In their summary of potential problems they include the following: The recognition that teachers have not been well educated about information processing; that there is a great responsibility on teachers to teach strategies well because in this approach "student failures to use strategies are often instructional failures" (p. 310); that strategy instruction requires demanding methods of teaching; that there are a large number of strategies to teach and often limited instructional time; that the maintenance and transfer of strategy use does not follow from strategy instruction and therefore teachers often find the amount of time required for teaching strategies disproportional to the outcomes; that teachers experience difficulty evaluating student progress using strategy teaching; and finally, that "a lack of evaluation data makes it difficult for educators to select effective strategy-instructional materials" (p. 319). It is important to note that in this extensive list of obstacles, not one point mentions teachers' systems of beliefs as important to the use of innovative instructional techniques.

In a third article, Pressley, El-Dinary, Gaskins, Schuder, Bergman, Almasi, and Brown (1992) reported on the cumulative findings of their seven years of researching TSI. The focus of their report was to outline five challenges identified through their research for implementing strategy instruction in the reading classroom. These five challenges include 1) teachers need to have strategy instruction fit with other active programs in their curriculum, including decoding and other skills-based approaches; 2) teachers' concerns about the potential for strategies instruction to be used across the curriculum which was an expectation of researchers and administrators in the schools Pressley and El-Dinary studied; 3) the personnel demands required for sustaining a strategies approach--teachers acknowledged needing long-term, consistent feedback about their implementation of strategy instruction; 4) the traditional requirement by teachers that an instructional program improve student achievement when compared with previously used methods; and 5) the necessity that many teachers "let go" of old patterns of instruction when using a strategies approach, most significantly the requirement that they give up some of their control in order to support the growth of self-regulated, autonomous readers.

Pressley, et al. (1997) conclude by recognizing that "comprehension strategies instruction is an intervention that appeals to, and is possible for, only *some* teachers" (p. 547). They refer to one year-long study in which seven teachers originally participated in a comprehension strategies program. At the end of the year, however, only two teachers "owned" the approach. Pressley et al. believe that the lack of subscription to a strategies program is most related to the system of support teachers receive as they attempt to implement the program. Aside from the oblique reference to a teacher's need to "let go" of old teaching habits if they are to use strategy instruction well, the researchers do not mention the possibility that a fit between teachers' beliefs about learning and the social-constructivist foundation of comprehension strategies instruction is critical to genuine adoption of the approach.

Although the formidable research in comprehension strategies instruction that Pressley and his collaborators have conducted has not given significant attention to the issue of matching teacher beliefs with the theoretical orientation of an instructional program, other researchers have considered this link. Richardson, Anders, Tidwell, and Lloyd (1991), for example, were specifically interested in determining the relationship between teachers' beliefs about the teaching of reading comprehension and their classroom practices. This study did not focus on teachers who used a comprehension strategies program, but instead investigated the connection between teachers' beliefs and practices in their use of basal readers, their requirement that students read orally or silently, their patterns of interruption when students made pronunciation errors, activation of students' prior knowledge before reading, and whether vocabulary was taught in or out of context.

Using a beliefs interview technique borrowed from anthropology, the researchers studied thirty-nine teachers in grades four, five and six. After administering the interview instrument, the researchers made predictions about the teachers' instructional practices, then conducted classroom observations to confirm or refute the predictions. Results of the study showed that in thirty-eight out of thirty-nine cases, the beliefs of the teachers related to their practices in teaching reading comprehension. In the case of the outlier, the researchers theorized that the lack of relationship between the teacher's beliefs as indicated in the beliefs interview and her classroom practice may indicate that the teacher was going through a change process (p. 579). The researchers also concluded that for this teacher, "it appeared that changes in beliefs were preceding changes in practices-a finding that is contrary to a popular model of staff development that is based on the notion that changes in teacher beliefs follow changes in behavior" (p. 579).

The Richardson et al. study makes an important contribution to the argument of this paper. If teachers' beliefs *do* impact instructional actions, then it is even more important that efforts to bring reading comprehension programs to schools include discussions of the theory behind the method.

A different study by Mariage (1995) explored the results of a comprehension strategies program called POSSE (Predict and Organize, Search and Summarize, and Evaluate).

> Developed to guide teachers and students in structuring a comprehension dialogue, POSSE combines a strategic approach to reading informed by the social constructivist perspective that privileges the role of more knowledgeable others in modeling, scaffolding, and making visible their thinking and language in the context of reading (p. 228).

The article is an important addition to this review because it is the only research thus far to introduce the social-constructivist paradigm into a discussion of a strategies-instruction approach. A description of the study is warranted here, and will be followed by Mariage's conclusions.

The study focused on pre-service elementary teachers who were grouped into two categories labeled low-gaining and high-gaining. The teachers were rank-ordered based upon the average net gain of their students' free written recalls from pretest to posttest conditions. Teachers whose students showed the greatest increase in total ideas recalled from pre-to post-test was given the rank of 1, and so on.

The purpose of the study was to examine the varying uses of talk by low- and high-gaining teachers during reading comprehension instruction. Results showed that although POSSE was designed to use reciprocal teaching guidelines between teacher and students, low-gaining teachers maintained more control of conversation than high-gaining teachers did. Further, patterns of response were markedly different between the two groups. High-gaining teachers were more likely to provide scaffolded comments, to model reading strategies, to encourage risk-taking, and to give control of the reading process to students, than were low-gaining teachers.

The difference in talk between high- and low-gaining teachers caused Mariage to recommend that "as a kind of window into the teacher's underlying epistemological belief about learning and knowing, studying teachers' statements is a first step in understanding the types of social contexts that support ownership of cognitive strategies" (p. 228). He found that high-gaining teachers understood their role as a more knowledgeable other whose role was to make their thinking visible to support children's reading comprehension effort. Clearly, this self-perception is aligned with social-constructivist views of teaching and learning. Like the Richardson et al. study, Mariage's research lends support to the contention that teachers' beliefs must be considered during the explanation of programs with explicit theoretical foundations, such as comprehension-strategies instruction. Presenting practice devoid of its research base handicaps teachers' ability to make informed evaluations of the program and threatens their potential to use it effectively in the classroom.

After reviewing studies of five reading comprehension programs, the significance of including theoretical discussions of methodology is apparent. Richardson et al. (1991) synopsize the importance when they write, "The provision of practices without theory may lead to misimplementation or no implementation at all, unless teachers' beliefs are congruent with the theoretical assumptions of the practice" (p. 579). In the following sections of this chapter, the literature review will turn its attention toward teacher learning; specifically, the role professional development initiatives play in supporting teachers' growth.

Professional Development in Literacy Instruction

When learning the details of an educational innovation, the theory behind the practice is important to understand. Of course, it is possible to implement instruction without understanding the theoretical orientation it represents, but is this the kind of teaching students (and teachers) deserve? A surgeon cannot perform a heart by-pass without understanding what, how, when and why; so why do we often present teachers, those who operate on the cognitions of students, with only the declarative, conditional and procedural knowledge of practice, leaving out the all-important *why*, the theoretical understanding?

There are several answers to this question and they all have consequences for contexts in which teacher learning is expected to happen. One answer, "Teachers don't want theory, or wouldn't understand it even if it were offered," is insulting to teachers' intelligence. Another answer offers the time issue: "Introducing theory would take time away from presenting teaching skills, which is what teachers really need to teach well.

Anyway, if we start talking about the theory behind an intervention, aren't we opening the door for teachers to explore their own beliefs about instruction? How long would *that* take? Do teachers even *know* what they think about how students learn?" A third, more insidious answer is that people charged with bringing an educational innovation to teachers do not know the underlying theory behind the practice themselves.

Whether intelligence, interest, time, ignorance or some other obstacle prevents the inclusion of theory in talking about practice, this review of the research and literature about strategy use in reading comprehension instruction highlights the fact that theoretical discussions are not happening. Beliefs do impact practice. This connection has been well-documented (Bruinsma, 1985; Duffy & Metheny, 1978; Gove, 1983; Richardson, et al., 1991), yet research reveals that teachers often plan instruction without ever having articulated their beliefs (Broaddus & Bloodgood, 1999; Harste & Burke, 1977). In a study that examined the relationship between beliefs and learning to teach, Russell (1988) concluded that "the image one holds of the relationship between theory and practice can significantly influence understanding of the personal learning process at every stage in one's development of the professional knowledge of teaching" (p. 15). Recognizing the connection between theory and practice demands new approaches to teacher education.

Richardson et al. (1991) have proposed a way of thinking about professional development that might guide a new approach. They suggest that substantive staff development programs should "weave three forms of knowledge together: Teachers' background theories, beliefs and understandings of the teaching and reading process; theoretical frameworks and empirical premises as derived from current research; and alternative practices that instantiate both teachers' beliefs and research knowledge" (p.

579). Are teachers being offered this approach to learning about reading instruction? A review of the research on professional development suggests otherwise.

The History of Staff Development in Education

The literature in staff development begs for a sentence that considers the voluminous research around the topic and boils the findings into an essential understanding. Winn and Mitchell (1994) provide one version of an organizing statement when they write, “There is no single recipe for successful staff development” (p. 83). The relevance of this declaration will become clear in the second half of this chapter which discusses the areas that have contributed most significantly to the literature about staff development in reading. The first section will examine generic change strategies which developed outside the field of education but which are appropriately used to describe orienting perspectives in staff development efforts. Next, research that articulates two stances toward change, mutual adaptation and directed development, will be described. In the third section, the focus of staff development will be considered. Change efforts in education fall into two distinct categories; targeting the teacher or targeting the curriculum. The intended focus affects both the strategy used to introduce change and the stance adopted by those involved.

Reviewing the broad foundations of staff development invites consideration of specific examples of staff development efforts in reading. The fourth section of this paper will describe three well-known professional development initiatives in literacy: Reading Recovery, the Kamehameha Early Education Program (KEEP), and the Reading Instruction Study (RIS). These examples will be used to explore how general principles of staff development have been applied in the field and to identify outcomes that result from each of the efforts cited.

If the purposes of this chapter are realized, then Winn and Mitchell's declaration, "There is no single recipe for successful staff development," will emphasize the "uncertain consensus" readers must accept when they consider current staff development efforts in literacy.

Defining Terms

Staff development is a relatively young enterprise in education. Sparks and Loucks-Horsley (1990) date the beginning of organized staff development to the early 1970's when "growing concern about the effectiveness of inservice education resulted in a spate of studies to determine the attitudes of educators about their inservice programs" (p. 234). In 1987, Showers, Joyce and Bennett wrote that "nearly all the research relevant to staff development has been conducted during the last 20 years" (p. 78). Despite its relative youth, however, staff development is a phenomenon that has been well-investigated. In the past thirty years, so much research about staff development in all areas of schooling has been conducted that a cursory search in educational databases quickly reveals numerous meta-analyses and syntheses of research on professional development programs. The practical findings of these summary documents is interesting, and will be considered later, but what is more compelling, and less well-documented, is the theoretical foundations of staff development. Before examining these principles, though, it is important to establish a common terminology that will be used throughout this review.

Staff development has been broadly defined as "those processes that improve the job-related knowledge, skills, or attitudes of school employees" (Sparks & Loucks-Horsley, 1990, p. 235). Winn and Mitchell's (1991) definition is less inclusive of all school personnel: "Staff development includes all things done in an effort to help the teaching staff improve teaching" (p. 82). While the context in which staff development takes place is included in descriptions of different programs, the scope of this review will match Winn and Mitchell's definition and will be pointed at teachers' growth exclusively.

Finally, it is worth noting that while the term *in-service* sometimes refers specifically to skill-teaching sessions (Winn &Mitchell, 1991), usually in-service, and the term professional development are considered synonymous with the term staff development. This paper will also use the three terms interchangeably.

A more complex distinction is found in the use of the word *model.* Ingvarson (cited in Sparks & Loucks-Horsley, 1990) defines a model as "a design for learning that embodies a set of assumptions about first, where knowledge about teaching practice comes from, and second, how teachers acquire or extend their knowledge" (p. 235). The models discussed in this review represent different assumptions about where knowledge about teaching should derive, as well as the best ways for teachers to find and utilize their learning.

Another more common use of the term model is explained by Joyce and Weil (1972) to be "a pattern or plan that can be used to guide the design of a staff-development program" (p. 14). Most of the models in this paper have an individual teacher orientation each describing ways teachers can participate in their own growth and development. Throughout this review, Ingvarson's and Joyce and Weil's uses of the word model will be combined so that the theory behind each staff development model is explained, and the way teachers might actualize their learning is included. The words *approach, design* and *program* will also be substituted for model and will have the same meaning defined above.

Change Strategies

In comprehensive staff development models, a description of the theory behind an intervention is considered important for teachers to understand. As Richardson et al. (1991) have pointed out, "The provision of practices without theory may lead to misimplementation or no implementation at all" (p. 579). It is easy to make an argument for the inclusion of theory in studying the different approaches to staff development initiatives as well. Gallagher, Goudvis and Pearson (1988) offer an excellent chapter describing the general antecedents to modern staff development models. Plenty of articles and chapters describe the contextual and attitudinal assumptions inherent in an approach, but Gallagher et al.'s chapter was the only piece of literature found that attempted to tease apart the theoretical underpinnings of professional development efforts. In their mission to look at the foundations of professional development, the authors explored the change literature in fields outside of education.

Gallagher et al. divided strategies for change into four categories drawing from the work of Chin and Benne (1969). They are empirical rational, normative reeducative, power coercive, and persuasion. (The terminology is cumbersome, which may explain why it hasn't entered the common lexicon of staff development literature!) Empirical rational strategies find their roots in the sciences and can be traced to the period of Enlightenment when scientific investigation replaced faith in answering life's questions (Gallagher et al., p. 12). Assuming that people are rational beings and that rational self-interest will motivate people to change, this approach translates to a training model of staff development, a model discussed in the following section.

Normative reeducative strategies encourage problem solving and differ fundamentally from empirical rational approaches. An orientation toward the normative reeducative stance in education, according to Gallagher et al., can be traced to Dewey. His influence is most directly felt in his "belief in the transactional nature of the relationship between people and the environment . . . and (his) concept of social intelligence" that worked to personalize the scientific method (p. 13). Normative reeducative strategies highlight collaborative efforts to identify problems, organize plans for solving them, and design evaluations for the solutions. In the staff development literature, the normative reeducative position is most apparent in the inquiry model which requires teachers to "identify an area of instructional interest, collect data, and make changes in their instruction based on an interpretation of those data" (Sparks & Loucks-Horsley, 1990, p. 235). Again, this model is more thoroughly described in subsequent sections.

Gallagher et al. define power coercive strategies as those "that emphasize the use of economic, political, or moral sanctions in the exercise of power" (p. 13). Within this approach, one might see the following strategies: Nonviolent techniques such as sit-ins, boycotts or demonstrations; political pressure in the form of lobbying; or attempts to correct power imbalances by, for instance, including disadvantaged populations in the planning of programs to improve their social circumstances. Power coercive strategies are less-easily applied to staff development models. Instead, one might see teacher strikes or legislative mandates in response to an undesirable school practice, which could include a staff development model that is unacceptable to teacher groups.

Finally, Gallagher et al. describe the persuasion strategy, a category not addressed by Chin and Benne (1969), but one the authors feel to be a frequent approach used in education. A persuasion strategy is "characterized by the use of charismatic and other personal factors to convince individuals and organizations to change" (p. 14). Persuasion is rarely seen as a solo approach; there is no staff development model that names persuasion as its primary means of implementing change. Instead, it is used in conjunction with other strategies, a subtle ingredient that might be initiated by any involved members. In fact, it is important to note that the four categories described by Gallagher et al. rarely operate in isolation of one another. Most change efforts use combinations of all of the strategies, although even the most diverse are grounded in one of the strategies.

The generic change strategies described above offer a suitable beginning for looking more closely at staff development models in education. Just as teachers should demand, or seek out, the theoretical foundations of a new curricular idea or skill, so too should people studying staff development models understand the different traditions that underlie the various programs in use.

Focus of Staff Development Efforts

Perhaps because staff development is a popular area of study, researchers feel compelled to assert themselves through semantic means to get their work noticed. It is easy to make this claim when one takes inventory of the different terms used to describe similar staff development approaches. Before looking at the models and the vocabulary that describes them, however, a couple of important ideas need to be introduced.

As noted, descriptions of staff development models abound, so it is helpful to have a way of sorting the information into general ways of thinking about the processes. One useful heuristic is to categorize in-service efforts into those with a teacher-centered or curriculum centered focus. Using these two distinctions makes it easier to evaluate the goals of a model regardless of the terminology used to describe it.

In addition to recognizing the general goals of a staff development program, it is important to identify the means of bringing about change. The four strategies described by Gallagher et al.(above) can be collapsed into two themes: directed development and mutual adaptation (Meyer,1988, p. 42-43). The way change is introduced signals the goal of the initiative. According to Gallagher, et al.(1988), if the objective of educational change is to be able to adopt a prepared program and implement it effectively, "an atmosphere that promotes open discussion and cooperation appears essential" (p. 26). Mutual adaptation is the approach a staff developer would use to achieve this goal. Conversely, if the objective is to change the expectations and behaviors of school personnel, "strong, directive leadership is essential" (p. 28). In general, a directed development approach tends to be associated with a curriculum focus, while a mutual adaptation approach is usually seen with a teacher focus (Gallagher et al., p. 34). An example of the former is a school working on aligning its content area teaching with state or nationally- mandated standards of learning. The focus is clearly on the curriculum. Because the initiative is non-negotiable, there is little room for teacher in-put and bringing an entire staff on board would require firm, informed leadership. A different example is a staff who has decided to introduce trade books into their reading classes. By focusing on the way teachers think about reading instruction and using these orientations as the starting point for conversations and ideas for implementation, a teacher-centered, mutual adaptation approach is emphasized.

Gallagher, et al. suggest that mutual adaptation and directed development may be used together, but at different stages of a staff development program. The same might be true for the distinction between teacher-centered and curriculum centered models. For scholarly purposes, it is practical to categorize professional development efforts, but in reality, it is hard to tease apart the two foci. In situations where teachers' professional growth is the main goal of a program, more often than not the impetus for change is brought on by a larger curricular concern. In the same way, it is rare for a large-scale curriculum change to be introduced without consideration of how the teaching staff will respond and adapt to the process. A study of different models of staff development demonstrates both the need for general labeling, as well as the predictable murkiness involved whenever rigid categories are formed.

Models of Staff Development

Showers and Joyce (1987), and Sparks & Loucks-Horsley (1990) have written two of the most cited reviews of staff development and the terms they use to describe each model are the standard-bearers in the field. This section will synthesize their work and each model will be viewed through the two foci and goal structures discussed above.

There are actually two domains to consider when studying staff development. The first, of course, is the design of the program. Sparks and Loucks-Horsley name five: Individually guided staff development; the observation/assessment model; a development/improvement program; the training model; and the inquiry model (Sparks and Loucks-Horsley, p. 235). One proposition in this review is that while each model has strengths in meeting particular needs, none is sufficient independently to effect significant, sustainable change.

Inherent in any program design are contextual features that might be called affective components--those realities that can't be ignored when working with human beings, as opposed to residing in the controllable world of research and theory. Showers and Joyce (1988) include participatory governance and social context, site of training, when training is held, the role assignment of trainers, voluntariness and buy-in, and personal characteristics in their list of "field-defined issues" (p. 80-84). Abdal-Haqq (1996) would add time constraints to this list noting that "school schedules do not normally incorporate time to . . . engage in professional activities such as research, learning and practicing new skills, curriculum development, or professional reading" (p. 3). Any thorough description of a staff development model includes the affective and the academic, that is details of the human factor as well as the theoretical assumptions upon which each design is based.

Individually Guided Staff Development

For many teachers, a "closed door" policy describes the way schools function. Sideris and Skau (1994) define this kind of school culture as that of "teacher isolation as teachers continue to work alone because of the physical structure of many schools and of time constraints" (p. 44). The removed teacher scenario might also be a function of a different form of school culture that Sideris and Skau call reciprocity. In this context, an unspoken agreement between principals and teachers exists "ensuring the teachers' autonomy in the classrooms in exchange for compliance to the principal's directives concerning school matters" (p. 44).

One consequence of teachers working independently of their colleagues is a form of professional development called individually guided staff development. Although the preceding paragraph suggests that only lonely teachers would embark on this kind of learning journey, the truth is, good staff development programs usually promote individually guided activities. In its pure form, the activities encompassed by the individual model vary widely. "The teacher determines her or his own goals and selects the activities that will result in the achievement of those goals" (Sparks and Loucks-Horsley, 1990, p. 235). These actions might include joining a professional organization, attending a conference, or studying books and journal articles to find information about an area of curricular concern.

There are also more complex endeavors included in the individually guided staff development model, which may be called more appropriately *professional* development as teachers' work is primarily independent of others. Sparks and Loucks-Horsley describe teachers who design and carry out grant-funded projects, or groups of educators who form teacher centers whose most important contribution is "their emphasis on working with individual teachers over time (p. 237). The focus on the teacher as an individual is appealing to many teachers, according to Hering and Howey (cited in Sparks & Loucks-Horsley, p. 237), since this attention is often missing from other staff development programs.

Hoffman and Pearson (2000) argue that reading teacher education can be approached in two ways: Training teachers of reading or teaching teachers of reading. In their theoretical article, the authors distinguish between teachers who train and teachers who teach. They use the word training "to refer to those direct actions of a teacher that are designed to enhance a learner's ability to do something fluently and efficiently" (p. 32). Teaching, they write, is "the intentional actions of a teacher to promote personal control over and responsibility for learning within those who are taught" (p. 32). The same distinctions between training and teaching, they suggest, can be used to describe the way pre- or in-service teacher education is designed. Using the training-teaching continuum is a handy lens for viewing the five models of staff development outlined by Sparks and Loucks-Horsley. The individually guided program most closely matches the description of a teaching approach with its emphasis on personal goal setting and life long learning. The remaining sections describing Sparks and Loucks-Horsley's five models of staff development will use Hoffman and Pearson's terms to evaluate the scope of a design.

While individually guided staff development is prevalent in many schools, and holds promise for promoting professional growth, the research supporting its effectiveness is meager. Sparks and Loucks-Horsley note that "research on its impact on teaching is largely perceptual and self-report" (p. 237). The lack of data reporting on outcomes makes sense, though. Teachers who engage in individualized professional growth lie far below the radar of professional researchers. Also, working in isolation, or without adequate financial support, most teachers would find it difficult to make program evaluation a priority in their plan for self-study.

The individually guided model is most effective when teachers have the motivation and resources to pursue a project of independent interest. Based on the assumption that individuals are capable of "self-direction and self-initiated learning and that (teachers) can best judge their own learning needs" (Sparks and Loucks-Horsley, p. 235), this description supports the normative educative foundation of learning described by Gallagher et al.(1988). The focus of this approach is teacher centered; the impetus is more mutually adaptive than directive since teachers who are self-motivated to, for instance, write grants or start a teachers collective are probably inspired by personal teaching concerns. Again, while a comprehensive staff development project would encourage independent study within the context of a school-wide initiative, practical wisdom suggests that the individually guided model exists as THE professional development option for many teachers. The next model described by Sparks and Loucks-Horsley is a more collaborative approach to staff development.

The Observation/Assessment Design

A collaborative school culture is one in which teachers involve students more actively in learning, and, in turn, participate in more professional interaction with colleagues in the school. Barth (1990) draws a vivid picture of the collaborative culture using four behaviors that must co-exist:

> Adults in school talk about practice . . . Adults in schools observe each other engaged in the practice of teaching and administration . . . Adults engage together in work on curriculum by planning, designing, researching and evaluating curriculum. Finally, adults in schools teach each other what they know about teaching, learning and leading. (p. 31)

As will become evident, Barth's qualifications more aptly describe a composite model of staff development, but his requirements set a particularly fitting context for looking at what Sparks and Loucks-Horsley call the observation/assessment design of staff development.

The words observation and assessment provide a straightforward description of this model which is based on the assumption that "reflection and analysis are central means of professional growth" (Loucks-Horsley, et al., 1987, p. 61). While many teachers eschew this approach because it is easily equated with evaluation, it can be a powerful form of staff development when used according to its defining principles. The observation/assessment model assumes that a) reflection by a teacher about his or her practice can be strengthened by another's observation; b) observation and assessment can benefit both involved parties; and c) when teachers see results from their efforts to change, they are more likely to stay engaged with a professional development effort (Sparks and Loucks-Horsley, 1990, p. 237).

One of the most misunderstood features of the observation/assessment model is who does the observing and assessing. Because the design is usually used by principals to evaluate teacher performance, educators assume administrators are the only qualified people to conduct the observations and make the assessments. In fact, the most effective use of an observation/assessment model happens when colleagues work together, a strategy often referred to as peer coaching. Showers and Joyce (1988), who treat the observation/assessment design as a stage in the training model, found that as teachers strive to take learning from workshop situations to their classrooms, almost all require social support to make the transfer happen. In fact, in their research they found large effect sizes in those studies that included some form of expert or peer coaching (p. 86). In an earlier study, Joyce and Showers (1983) concluded that "continuous practice, feedback, and the companionship of coaches is essential to enable even highly motivated persons to bring additions to their repertoire under effective control" (p. 4).

The observation/assessment model, while often seen as an administrator's primary tool for teacher evaluation, is studied more often as a component of larger staff development programs, particularly the training model which will be discussed subsequently. When used as a means of promoting reflection, the approach is neatly defined by a teacher-centered focus, using a normative-reeducative strategy, with mutual adaptation as its goal. From the perspective of Hoffman and Pearson (2000), if the observation/assessment model is designed to engage teachers "in educative practice and inquiry rather than (providing) them with a set of bureaucratically endorsed recipes" (p. 40), then the program is aligned with a teaching teachers perspective.

In its idealized form, which is the one presented here free from the constraints and adaptations of "real" school life, the observation/assessment model holds promise according to narrative and data-based reporting sources. As a *primary* method of staff development, the model is best-suited for encouraging reflective behavior, inspiring collegial communication, and providing professional support for the implementation of specific instructional practices. These same strengths are apparent in the observation/assessment design when it is used as a *feature* of staff development programs, as is evident in all the models presented in this section. The next design is also difficult to separate from larger professional development initiatives because its goals are so often presumed in other models.

The Development/Improvement Process

When teachers are asked to develop or revise curriculum, structure new programs, or participate in organized school-improvement plans, the main goal of the project is to solve a problem. Successfully solving the problem might require that teachers acquire special skills or knowledge by reading, discussing, observing, or being trained in the targeted area. To achieve these goals, a fitting staff development model is the development/improvement process which "focuses on the combination of learnings that result from the involvement of teachers in such processes" (Sparks and Loucks-Horsley, p. 239).

Organized around the assumptions that adults learn most effectively when they are motivated by a need to know, that people working "in the trenches" best understand what is needed to improve performance, and that teachers gain critical knowledge and/or skills by being involved in a school-improvement or curriculum-development process, this staff development design is the most systematic of the models described so far.

The development/improvement model happens in three phases. First, a problem is identified, an action plan is developed, usually through careful study of research literature and existing resources, and finally a plan for assessing the success of the plan is enacted. This design might be used to solve a problem as pedestrian as the need for new lunchroom rules, or to tackle the revising of a K-8 math curriculum. The ultimate success of the model, regardless of the scope of its intentions, is dependent on a commitment to the process by the school. This commitment includes giving authority to the team working on the plan, providing adequate quality time to meet, talk and develop, offering funding to purchase needed resources and materials, and "leadership that provides a vision, direction, and guidance but allows significant decision making on the part of teacher participants" (Sparks and Loucks-Horsley, p. 241).

In order to situate the development/improvement process within the different traditions discussed above, the nature of the problem to be solved would have to be known. If a group of teachers decided to explore literature circles to encourage more dialogue in reading classes, then the effort would be teacher-centered with the goal of mutual adaptation. With teachers directing their own learning, with or without outside assistance, a teaching stance as defined by Hoffman and Pearson would be in place.

Conversely, if a school was working on implementing state-initiated reforms in reading, the focus and goals would be very different. In this case, the curriculum would be center stage and empirical-rational strategies would best achieve the goal of educating teachers and keeping track of their progress in implementing the changes. Where the initiative would fall on the Hoffman-Pearson scale of training and teaching would balance on how much autonomy teachers had in finding ways to meet the state-mandated requirements,

The development/improvement model is an interesting design because depending on the instigation of the problem and the means for solving it, the climate of change can vary dramatically. The training model, described next, has a reputation for being prescriptive and predictable, but careful scrutiny reveals that it, too, can support different levels of teacher participation.

Training

The training model of staff development, the most common form of in-service delivery, has a bad reputation. The word *training*, perhaps, is an unfortunate moniker for a design that holds promise when used wisely. The problem is, a training model is not usually used wisely. Instead, because its basic principles can be manipulated in ways that make staff development an assembly line of information dissemination, teachers learn to grin and bear training sessions, after which they return to their teaching unmoved.

The key to understanding the potential of a training model, then, is to study it in its intended form. Showers, Joyce and Bennett (1987) have defined the training model in a way that offers optimism to skeptical educators.

> The purpose of providing training in any practice is not simply to generate the external visible teaching "moves" that bring that practice to bear in the instructional setting but to generate the conditions that enable the practice to be selected and used appropriately and integratively . . . a major, perhaps the major, dimension of teaching skill is cognitive in nature." (p. 85-86)

Sparks and Loucks-Horsley (1990) use this definition as the starting point of their discussion of the training model. The design assumes that there are ways of thinking and teaching practices that are worthy of copying. It also assumes that these ideas and behaviors, which did not exist before, can be learned and added to a teacher's repertoire of skills. Using the definition by Showers et al., and understanding the two assumptions on which the training model is based, it is obvious that not every goal of a staff development effort is well-served by this design. Hoffman and Pearson discuss the role a training of teachers model can play when they point to the importance of training for some aspects of reading teacher education, “especially those aspects of teaching that are more skill-like in their conception” (p. 40). They define skills as “behavioral routines that operate, when internalized, with automaticity and a minimum amount of cognitive attention or inspection” (p. 32). How are these skills acquired? Researchers have presented several phases of activity necessary to carrying out a training design (Sparks and Loucks-Horsley, 1990; Showers, Joyce and Bennett,1988; Winn and Mitchell,1991).

The first task is taking care of details. What will be the content of the training, who will provide it, when and where will it happen, and how long will the program last? When these issues have been decided, Showers et al. (1988) have found that almost all teachers can take useful information back to their classrooms when training includes these steps: (1) presentation of theory; (2) demonstration of a new strategy; (3) initial practice in the workshop; and (4) prompt feedback about their efforts (p. 79). Winn and Mitchell’s (1991) steps look quite similar, with the addition of two important considerations (p. 84). The first is classroom practice for teachers which should happen after the guided practice in a workshop setting. The second is coaching, a method discussed in more detail in an earlier section on the observation/assessment model.

Sparks and Loucks-Horsley note that “there is a much more substantial research literature on this model” than on any of the other three models described above. The fact that the training model almost always begins from an empirical-rational stance, a perspective that promotes measurable cause-and-effect outcomes, makes the design easily researchable. Also, the prevalence of the model in most schools increases its chances of being studied by people interested in staff development; even if researchers were interested in other models, the dominance of the training model may preclude thorough study of different options.

Quantitative research findings show that a training model impacts teacher analysis, classroom practice and student achievement at significant levels (Joyce and Showers, 1988; Wade, 1985; Gage, 1984; Good and Grouws, 1987; Winn and Mitchell, 1991). The crucial qualification, however, is that all the training components (theory, demonstration, practice, feedback, and coaching) must be present for effect sizes to show improvement. Here is where the training model often falls short of expectations. In order for all the steps of the training process to be enacted, an enormous supply of expertise, time, interest, funding, personnel and commitment must be in place. Many schools choose variety over quality and offer scattershot workshops to teachers throughout the school year. *More is more* is an attitude that prevails in these situations and the research simply does not support this swoop-in-swoop-out, no follow-through approach. Schools are best advised to remember Showers and Joyce's (1988) estimate that for a complex model of teaching, "about twenty-five teaching episodes during which the new strategy is used are necessary before all the conditions of transfer are achieved" (p. 86).

If the probability that a training model will short change teachers is high, then Hoffman and Pearson's (2000) advice seems appropriate to heed. While strongly supporting a teaching teachers model, they nevertheless advocate a "nesting of training within a broader construct of teaching" (p. 40) for certain development initiatives and at certain points in the in-service process. Their layered approach supports the conclusions of Gallagher et al. (1988) who believe that a combination of directed development (which a training model represents) and mutual adaptation (which a teaching model represents) will provide the most substantive, long-lasting changes in thinking and practice.

The final model presented in this section will illustrate a classic teacher-centered approach to staff development. As the final installment of this five model review, the inquiry design, could readily be placed among the other four models as a commonsense feature of any initiative.

The Inquiry Model

Cambone (1995) argues that "teachers, as adult learners, need both set-aside time for learning . . . and time to experience and digest new ideas and ways of working." The inquiry model of professional development honors both of these requirements. Time, staff development's most precious commodity, is the fulcrum on which inquiry balances.

One of the best explanations of the inquiry model is offered by Ingvarson (quoted in Sparks and Loucks-Horsley, 1990) when he writes,

> the most effective avenue for professional development is cooperative study by teachers themselves into problems and issues arising from their attempts to make their practice consistent with their educational values . . . [Inquiry] aims to give greater control over what is to count as valid educational knowledge to teachers (p. 243).

After reading this description, differentiating between the individually-guided staff development model and the inquiry design may be difficult. Making the distinction even more ambiguous is Sparks and Loucks-Horsley's explanation that teacher inquiry can take many forms. "It can be a solitary activity, be done in small groups, or be conducted by a school faculty" (p. 242). The assumptions underlying the inquiry model also mirror those of the individually-guided approach. When staff development takes the form of inquiry, it is accepted that teachers are smart, questioning individuals, that they are prone to searching for answers to their questions, and that teachers develop new understandings as they formulate questions and collect data. Given the similarities between the first and final models of staff development, one might wonder why a single category would not have sufficed. Two further additions to the description offered by Ingvarson (above) may make the difference clearer.

First, the role of reflection in the inquiry model cannot be overstated. While the intended outcome of individually-guided development efforts is generally a tangible change in practice, the result of an inquiry process may be more subtle. In many cases, teachers engage in inquiry to exercise their minds, to engage in lively professional dialogues, or to discover the theories behind practices they already endorse. Gallagher et al. (1988) explain that in the constantly changing climate of classroom life, teachers must develop skills that allow them to act flexibly. "They do not need a new prepackaged curriculum; they need a general problem solving orientation to direct their decision making" (p. 28). Teaching teachers how to formalize their pedagogical questions by conducting classroom-based research is the goal of an inquiry model.

On the other hand, some teachers use an inquiry model specifically to bring about a classroom or school change. The way in which these goals depart from an individually-guided model is the collaborative nature of the effort. The most researched form of an inquiry design is that of teacher collaboratives, or teacher research groups. In this arrangement, a group of teachers identifies a problem, explores ways to collect data, supports its members through dialogue and observation, and designs strategies for collecting and reporting data on outcomes (Sparks and Loucks-Horsley, p. 244). Most teachers who find themselves in such an intellectually supportive climate would choose the company of colleagues over an individualized program of reflection and change.

In the end, drawing a distinction between individually-guided staff development and the inquiry model is really just an academic exercise. The two models are close in their foci (teacher-centered), in their underlying assumptions (normative-reeducative) and in their goals (mutual adaptation). The elements of reflection and collaboration are not insignificant, but one imagines that in practice, teachers probably take equal measures of both of these resources to accomplish their goals regardless of the model they are following.

Summarizing Thoughts

After looking at the preceding staff development models, it is wise to notice the danger in becoming too categorical in describing in-service programs. Just as a veteran teacher knows that no one behavior management program satisfactorily meets the needs of all her students, so too should educated staff developers, and school personnel, understand that the climate and needs of a school will dictate how to choose the most appropriate elements from the many staff development models. Each approach has benefits and drawbacks and only by being aware of all the possible practices, the goals and focus of each model, and the requirements of individual schools or faculties can a professional development effort be well-implemented.

An organizing focus of this paper is the question of how the general research in staff development informs professional development programs in reading. In the next section, three prominent studies in literacy are described. When the Reading Instruction Study (RIS), the Kamehameha Early Education Program (KEEP), and Reading Recovery were introduced, staff development was crucial to the implementation and sustainability of each project. Looking at the way each program infused itself in participating schools will illuminate the fact that while it is important to have a structured design for staff development, these plans are often a mingling of characteristics from various professional development models.

Literacy Staff Development in Practice

Reading Recovery

The Reading Recovery program is one of the most widespread and successful reading improvement initiatives in the United States (Gaffney & Anderson,1991). Developed in New Zealand by Marie Clay, and later introduced in the United States, the goals of Reading Recovery are to help children read at levels equal to their average peers, to do so in the shortest amount of time possible, and to enable children to continue to improve reading performance after being discontinued from the program (Clay, 1985). The instructional format is designed to be straightforward and efficient, reducing the amount of time Reading Recovery students are absent from their regular classrooms. Students enrolled in the program, through teacher recommendation and testing results, are intensively tutored, daily, in a one-on-one situation. Ideally, according to Clay's theories, students being tutored are reading well enough at the end of twelve to fourteen weeks to be released from the program.

Becoming a Reading Recovery teacher demands a major commitment of time and energy. The training is intensive and long term; aspiring Reading Recovery teachers, usually in-service primary grade teachers, are enrolled in over a year of concentrated training in the strategies and routines to be followed in the tutorial. Clay explains that "while training is delivered during two weekly intervals over a period of a year, teachers are working with children and carrying out other teaching duties throughout the period they are in training" (Clay, 1987, p. 45).

Implicit in the Reading Recovery training design is the need for teachers to be reflective about their teaching behaviors. To facilitate this way of thinking, teachers go "behind-the-glass" conducting a live lesson with an individual child while the rest of the teachers in training observe. During the lesson, the trainer prompts and probes the observers, conducting "an on-line critique of the lesson, trying to ferret out the bases of the trainee's decisions and alternative practices he or she might have tried at key points" (Clay, 1987, p. 47). When the behind-the-glass trainee finishes the lesson, she joins the rest of the class for a group debriefing session. By including reflective but focused critiques of practice, the training model attempts to build strong allegiances to the principles of Reading Recovery in a format that is systematized and consistent at every training site.

The words used to describe the Reading Recovery teacher training model should leave nothing to the imagination when trying to situate the design among Sparks and Loucks-Horsley's five models of staff development. *Strategies, routines, delivery, training, trainer, trainee, systematic*--all of these terms signal a classic training model of professional development. To offer further proof that training is an appropriate label, it is useful to recall Hoffman and Pearson's (2000) definition of training when thinking about the role of the Reading Recovery trainer: Training refers "to those direct actions of a teacher that are designed to enhance a learner's ability to do something fluently and efficiently" (p. 32).

And, lest there be any lingering doubt about the chain of command in the Reading Recovery training program, consider this dramatic revelation offered by Stephens et al. (2000) straight from the horse's mouth, so to speak. In a conversation with Marie Clay about the introduction of theory into the Reading Recovery training process, Clay revealed that “the elementary school teachers . . . were not given access to the theory, but only to the procedures” (p. 536). Clay went on to “emphatically” insist that theory “was out of reach for the teacher. . . . Teachers could not handle theory. Teachers who were participating in Reading Recovery were *not* taught theory and were not given access to theory; they were taught procedures” (p. 536).

The preceding opinions from the founder of Reading Recovery lend strong endorsement to the program’s residence in a training model. But if the review of staff development models earlier in this paper revealed anything, it was that no program falls neatly into a single model. Consider the presence of reflective coaching, the fact that teacher trainees choose to enroll in the training course, the extensive practice, feedback, and support offered by the trainer--each of these features suggests elements of individually-guided staff development, an inquiry approach, the development/improvement design, and the observation/assessment model.

The one defining quality of the Reading Recovery model, however, that places it most squarely within the boundaries of a training design is its lack of teacher input in the process or content of the program. Gallagher et al. (1988) predicted that a directed development and mutual adaptation approach could be used interchangeably at different stages of a professional development project. This collaboration is not evident in the Reading Recovery model. Schools which choose to accept Reading Recovery training support a directed development process exclusively. Many researchers support this top-down approach. In a statement that some would consider controversial, Meyer (1988) defends the power of administrators to know which programs are best and how they are best infused in a school. "Contrary to popular practice, research suggests that superintendents should decide what they want changed and how they want to make the changes. They need to recognize that regardless of the opinions and ideas people have, their chances of bringing about change probably hinge on whether there is some directed development" (p. 56). According to Meyer, superintendents need to choose experts to work with the teaching staff in groups chosen by the superintendent. "These experts need to be proficient enough to model for teachers and to observe carefully, because it is a blend of demonstrations, observations, and guided practice that is most likely to bring about changes for teaching" (p. 56-57).

It is easy to criticize the training model and its simplistic process-product approach as patronizing and disrespectful of teachers' intelligence and experience. The fact is, though, the training design is a perfect match for those initiatives that hope to infuse large-scale change in a systematic, consistent way, The success of Reading Recovery in accelerating young readers' abilities in a short period of time offers plenty of support for the use of a training process when specific products are desired.

The Kamehameha Early Education Program

The number of pages published about the Kamehameha Early Education Program (KEEP) fills books and journals. From its philosophical beginnings, to how KEEP was funded, to the program's impact on students' literacy achievement, the effects of this long-standing literacy initiative have been thoroughly documented. It is outside the purposes of this review to detail all dimensions of KEEP; most salient to the ideas here is how researchers and consultants introduced KEEP to schools in Hawaii, its birthplace and continued home. Hao (1988) offers an illuminating description of the staff development process used to bring this program to teachers.

KEEP began as an attempt to find out why five- to eleven-year-old Hawaiian children were falling behind in their literacy acquisition. After six years, research and development efforts by teachers, anthropologists, psychologists, linguists and curriculum specialists resulted in "a reading and language arts curriculum, a group of teaching strategies, and a culturally compatible set of techniques for interacting with students: that is, techniques that capitalized on (rather than conflicted with) the natural learning and interaction styles of Hawaiian children" (Hao, 1988, p. 96).

Launching KEEP in interested schools was not the smooth process researchers expected. "Bringing about change in one classroom or even in one person is seldom easy; bringing it about in large numbers of teachers and even larger numbers of students has taken as much research, time and effort as was needed for the development of the original program" (p. 95). One of the notable features of KEEP's staff development program is its comprehensive staffing hierarchy. Three key personnel are assigned to each participating school. The first is a site manager who is responsible for the general progress of KEEP implementation in schools.

At the classroom level there are two KEEP staff people, a consultant and a trainer assistant. Hao explains that there is "roughly one consultant and one trainer assistant (serving) each five teachers who use the program" (p. 98). The consultant's duties include running workshops, observing teachers for at least an hour a week, giving feedback about observations, and meeting with each teacher for at least one half hour weekly.

The trainer assistant (TA) supports the efforts of the consultant and the classroom teacher. The most important job of the TA is administering the criterion referenced testing program to measure student progress. The TA is also available to teachers as an observer, a typist, a photocopier and a preparer of workshop materials (p. 98).

With the staffing system in place, KEEP is introduced to teachers with an emphasis on change. Teachers are told that adoption of the program will require a change in “philosophy, curriculum, instructional materials, and classroom management and organization systems” (p. 100). To substantiate the positive effects of KEEP, teachers are shown data such as test scores, and videotapes of KEEP classrooms in action. From an individual perspective, every KEEP teacher is expected to understand that instruction for students is based on the principle that “Comprehension is building bridges between the new and the known” (cited from Pearson and Johnson, 1978, p. 24). Accepting this philosophy is a required step; those who find the theory and practices at odds with their own belief system may drop out of the program at any time.

After the initial meetings and explanation of program demands, the managers, consultants and teacher assistants begin the work of program implementation. Through workshops, regular classroom visitations, and weekly debrief sessions, teachers are inducted into the world of KEEP teaching. One characteristic of KEEP, as well as the other two literacy initiatives described in this review, is the length of time devoted to the staff development process. The sustained commitment of consultants and teachers to the principles and practices of KEEP help to ensure its success. “It is not a program that can be learned by attending several workshops. Because much of the program involves learning how to be a thoughtful, flexible, problem solving teacher, it requires a great deal of practice, questioning, learning and redirection toward a new set of interaction styles in order to master the program” (p. 99).

At first glance, trying to find a home for KEEP among Sparks and Loucks-Horsley’s five models of staff development might prompt a quick training label. Different statements by Hao, however, offer evidence that this straightforward assignation fails to recognize the many-layered approach KEEP takes. First, elements of both directed development and mutual adaptation exist in the KEEP model. "When a definite program is being installed (as with KEEP)," Hao recommends, "it works well to begin with a consultant-dominated relationship. However, once the program is installed, the relationship must change to that of a collegial partnership" (p. 115). This coordination of a top-down start followed by an arrival at a middle ground maximizes the potential of a training model to include teachers in the development process.

Second, the development/improvement model is evident in Hao's explanation that "going through the steps of problem identification, problem analysis, generation of alternative solutions, and deciding on a plan of action helps all the teachers practice using a problem solving model they can use to solve other problems in their own classrooms" (p. 110). Yet one must question the nature of the problem-solving when Hao clarifies that the kind of expertise invited from teachers includes "knowledge of school objectives, time constraints and students" (p. 112). Soliciting information on housekeeping issues and the affective climate of a classroom does not favor the intellectual potential of teachers' contributions to the staff development process.

The observation/assessment model is also a key component of KEEP's staff development process. As explained earlier, each classroom teacher is assigned a KEEP consultant who observes weekly and gives feedback about the teacher's performance. Hao notes that when consultants begin work with teachers, "there's a kind of culture shock produced as the basic interaction patterns change. The relationship between the teacher and the consultant is new; the teacher has had no access to this kind of help before" (p. 102). The degree of collegiality fostered between the consultant and the teacher is limited, though, by the fact that KEEP's theories and practices are predetermined. Teachers may describe difficulties in implementation, but the resolution of the problem will derive from a better understanding of and adherence to KEEP's recommendations, not from a teacher's original suggestion for improvement.

There are also several principles of the KEEP staff development design that favor an inquiry approach. Teachers are encouraged through reflection to define problems, use observations from their classrooms to support that a problem exists, question procedures, and join colleagues in discussions about how to make changes. Yet Hao explains that "although the training should be interactive with the teacher an active participant, the consultant is imparting knowledge and skills to the teacher" (p. 113). This orientation speaks more to a training model than any of the other four designs described by Sparks and Loucks-Horsley.

In the final analysis, two qualities of KEEP's staff development model prevent it from straying too far from a training designation despite the many features that come from other designs. The first is KEEP's obvious grounding in the empirical-rational tradition. These roots are evident in the testing program --"an essential and time consuming part of the KEEP program" (p. 98)--used to measure student outcomes based on teacher performance in the classroom. A process-product paradigm is perfectly reflected in this practice.

The second quality of KEEP that situates it in the training model of staff development is its packaged approach. Highlighting the success KEEP has had in bringing Hawaiian children to higher levels of literacy, Hao cites the fact that "the results (of KEEP's success) were so stable that we could virtually guarantee them if a teacher implemented the program as it was designed" (p. 117). This comment implies that teachers who did not follow the recommended implementation plan were less likely to achieve the kind of results possible than teachers who were faithful to the guidelines of the program. When the opportunity for teachers' experience and ideas to inform changes in practice is restricted by defined programmatic methods, the staff development design has as its goal a "watch and do" philosophy, one that is embraced by the training model.

On the training-teaching continuum, Reading Recovery falls the farthest to the left while KEEP occupies territory closer to the middle. The final literacy initiative described in this section moves much closer to the teaching end of the scale. A look at the Reading Instruction Study shows the potential for a staff development program to weave the best features of different models into a new design for professional growth, one that stays true to honoring teacher voices while infusing current theory and practice.

The Reading Instruction Study (RIS)

Of the three literacy interventions presented in this section, the Reading Instruction Study is the only one not currently in operation. Nevertheless, the initiative will be given the lion's share of space in description because the study sets the foundation for many ideas included in the methodological section following this literature review.

Begun in 1986 at the University of Arizona under the direction of Virginia Richardson and Patricia Anders, RIS was developed in response to an Office of Educational Research and Improvement (OERI) request for proposals (Anders and Richardson, 1994). RIS addressed five questions:

1. What are research-based reading comprehension practices?
2. To what degree are teachers using these practice?
3. What are the barriers to the use of research-based practices?
4. Does a school-based staff development program affect teachers' practices?

5. Does a teacher's participation in the staff-development program affect student reading performance? (Richardson and Anders, 1994, p. 9)

Drawing on the instructional reading research and research in teacher education, the primary investigators, along with a cadre of other researchers and consultants, decided to begin their study by developing an innovative approach to staff development, one that reconsidered the content and the ownership of traditional designs. Their goal was to "create a process that was neither top-down nor bottom-up, but allowed for the introduction of specific knowledge and ways of thinking that were "new" to at least some of the participants" (Richardson and Hamilton, p. 111). One of the unique features of their plan was attention to the link between teachers' beliefs and practices included in the content of their staff development approach.

The theoretical basis of the professional development model used in RIS drew on the concept of practical argument, a construct developed by Fenstermacher (1994). Briefly stated, "a practical argument is a device used to assist teachers in examining their beliefs and possibly reconstructing them" (Richardson and Hamilton, 1994, p. 117). Practical argument is a more formalized version of practical reasoning, or "the thinking we do about our actions" (Fenstermacher,1994, p. 24). In practice, the practical argument approach follows these steps: First, a teacher makes a statement of goal(s). Next s/he provides a rationale for the methods chosen to attain the goal(s). Finally, the teacher explains the context or situation that led to the choice of action.

For example, a teacher discussing a vocabulary lesson within the practical argument model might begin by explaining that she always introduced students to the new words they would encounter in the day's reading selection. She would then explain that she was going to use a word list to present the new vocabulary believing that previewing the words in isolation would help students understand the words when they encountered them in context. Finally, she might reason that because her fourth grade students were just beginning the process of "reading to learn" her decontextualized instructional actions are justified.

The Practical Argument Staff Development (PASD) model attempted to meet the needs of individual teachers and groups of teachers in the five schools studied in RIS. Overall, thirty-nine grade four, five and six teachers participated in the study that took place over four years. The staff development process began with each teacher having a reading comprehension lesson videotaped. The tape was then used to elicit information from the teacher about what was happening during class time. A researcher's questions about the videotape adhered to the practical argument model by seeking to establish links between beliefs and practices. After this discussion, the process moved to "reconstruction in which the participants (both the teachers and staff developers) assessed the practical arguments, and introduced new premises and practices for consideration" (Richardson and Hamilton, p. 117).

The videotapes, with permission, were also used in whole group settings. After viewing a videotape, the teachers talked about the practices they saw and reflected as a group about the instruction. The staff developers acted as catalysts during the discussions and modeled reflective behavior.

After analyzing the individual and group sessions, the RIS researchers noted obvious patterns in the staff development process. First was the *introductory stage* when teachers became familiar with each other, the staff developers and the format for each session. A *breakthrough stage* followed the introductory phase and was marked by teachers moving through "one line of thinking or a way of doing things to a new way of thinking about a topic" (Richardson and Anders, 1990, p.9). In a third phase, termed *empowerment*, teachers signaled ownership of the staff development process by taking control of the conversations with little attention given to (or solicited from) the staff developers. This third phase was a significant leap from the first. Consider this exchange during a session labeled "phase one dialogue".

Teacher: Just tell us about a neat practice--something you think is a good idea.

Staff Developer: That's not the purpose of this staff development. The purpose is to focus on your problems, frustrations, and practices; or you may select, together, an area that you all are interested in learning more about, and we can talk about a variety of practices related to that area; then you may select one or two to pursue.

Teacher: Ya, but you know the neat and new ones; the ones you think we should be doing. (Richardson and Anders, 1990, p. 13)

Moving from phase one to phase three indicated a significant shift in the way teachers understood the content and ownership expectations of the PASD. Arriving at phase three was seen as one successful outcome of the staff development process and this progression allowed Richardson, et al. to label their design *constructivist*. Constructivism is another educational term fraught with complex meanings. Five years ago, Phillips (1995) wrote that "The educational literature on constructivism is enormous, and growing rapidly," (p. 5); in light of Phillips' pronouncement, it is outside the limits of this paper to attempt a thorough discussion of constructivism. A better tack is to offer three assumptions of a constructivist approach synthesized from staff development projects in reading, science and math (Arnold, 1995). A constructivist view assumes that:

- We can only know what we construct ourselves.

•We are certain we know something only if we can explain it to others.

•Learning takes place within a social context. (Arnold,1995, p. 34)

In the idea of constructivism, perhaps, is a way of combining the best features of Sparks and Loucks-Horsley's (1990) five models of staff development. It is doubtful that Richardson and her colleagues had copies of Sparks and Loucks-Horsley's review of staff development models on their desks as they planned, nevertheless, an analysis of RIS reveals that pieces of all five models were used in the implementation of staff development. Some examples include:

Observation/Analysis: Teachers worked with staff developers to deconstruct and analyze their practice based on videotapes of their teaching.

Development/Improvement: Teachers collaborated in workshops, using the videotapes of classroom practices, to question and refine their comprehension teaching.

Individually-Guided and Inquiry Models: Richardson et al. (1994) described many teachers who were motivated to attend and present at conferences, and write articles for local education newsletters, based on the learning they were doing about reading comprehension strategies.

Training: One of the categories of talk that emerged during RIS was called "Lecture 1" (Richardson and Anders,1990). In these situations, reflection and questioning from teachers in the workshop groups invited developers to offer "a prepared presentation about an activity extracted from the literature or from observation" (p. 8). Staff developers in RIS were not opposed to including some top-down teaching in their program. They resisted unsolicited lectures on comprehension issues, but were open to presenting theory or practice when requested after a substantive conversation about a topic (Anders and Richardson, 1991).

A major difference between the implementation of RIS and Reading Recovery or KEEP is RIS's lack of pre-packaged curriculum or instructional materials. Reading Recovery's running records and leveled book program, and KEEP's choice of literature and writing process recommendations offered teachers the product of someone else's interpretation of the program's theories. RIS, in constructivist fashion, began where teachers were and encouraged a think-reflect-act strategy of change. The introduction of comprehension strategies by consultants happened only after sustained discussion of current classroom practice. The way strategy teaching was executed in the classroom grew from further individual and group explorations, always with the support of staff developers when necessary.

Drawing parallels between Sparks and Loucks-Horsley's five models of staff development and characteristics of RIS shows that by borrowing the strongest features of different designs, a new paradigm evolved, one that capitalized on the strengths of each single model and allowed the principles of constructivism to guide the way teachers learned. More attention to a constructivist approach to staff development will be given in the subsequent methodological paper.

Implications

One requirement of a literature review is that it conclude with implications for theory and practice. These implications are suggested by not only what is written, but by what is missing in the research. After evaluating the literature in staff development, two notable implications emerge.

Sustainability

"Only a dozen or so studies have included transfer, or the incorporation of skills, strategies, and curriculum patterns into participants' active teaching repertoires"

(Showers and Joyce, 1988, p. 85). Since Showers and Joyce made this pronouncement, more studies have been conducted to study transfer and endurance of new ideas and approaches, including, obviously, Reading Recovery, KEEP and RIS. Smaller scale work, too, has been followed closely (c.f. Paris, 1985; Pressley, 1992).

Despite these efforts, however, sustainability continues to be a question in the field of staff development. "Even more elusive," Sideris and Skau (1994) write in their review of school change, "is evidence that restructuring and reform efforts have actually been successful and long-lasting" (p. 41). With well-funded, solidly staffed programs, it is *expected* that all aspects of the program will be studied. Grant agencies that support this kind of research demand plans for follow-through studies. In RIS, for example, the length of time designated for the investigation (i.e. four years) allowed researchers to continue adding questions to their list of what to investigate. As new issues emerged, Richardson, et al. had the funding and the time to pursue developing lines of inquiry. Unfortunately, the garden variety staff development initiatives that cycle through all schools every year do not usually have the advantage of money, staff or time to conduct follow-up studies of transfer and use. A sobering statistic is Showers and Joyce's (1988) estimate that for a complex model of teaching, "about twenty five teaching episodes during which the new strategy is used are necessary before all the conditions of transfer are achieved" (p. 86).

Clearly, the aphorism *Less is More* should guide the design of local staff development efforts. Regardless of the model chosen, initiatives with realizable goals should be attempted and should include systems to study and support the plan after its introduction.

Epistemology

An analysis of the information collected in this review of the literature makes apparent that the most important questions about staff development are left unasked. The questions are epistemological: How do teachers know? For practitioners, what counts as knowledge? How do teachers arrive at their system of beliefs? Fenstermacher (1994) reminds us that "whether our beliefs impede or enhance our advancement as teachers often depends on the relationship between what we believe and what it is proposed that we consider"(p. 37). He goes on to explain that if a teacher finds herself rejecting a new idea or practice, the rejection itself is not problematic; it becomes a problem, however, if the teacher is "unaware of (her) beliefs and how they are prompting (her) rejection" of the practice (p. 38). Fenstermacher writes from a philosophical tradition. On the research side, Showers, et al. (1987), in their meta-analysis of almost 200 staff development studies, found that "What a teacher *thinks* about teaching determines what the teacher *does* when teaching" (p. 79).

(A word about terminology is helpful in navigating this section on epistemology. While in some fields knowledge and belief are distinguished from each other based on where the truth originates--empirical evidence from outside a person is considered knowledge, psychological premises from within a person are known as beliefs--the distinction in education is usually not made.

For example, Alexander, Shallert and Hare (1991), after reviewing twenty-six terms that are used in the literature on literacy to denote different types of knowledge, conclude that it is appropriate to equate knowledge with belief when discussing learning: "*Knowledge* encompasses all that a person knows or believes to be true, whether or not it is verified as true in some sort of objective or external way" (p. 317). Throughout this review, and in the methodological chapter that follows, several terms will be used interchangeably with knowledge: Beliefs, perceptions, theories, and orientations.)

Determining the answer to the epistemological question, then, seems like the prerequisite when designing an appropriate staff development model. Figure out how teachers come to believe, and pick the model that best matches (or challenges, depending on the goal of the effort) this style. Like all solutions that seem to good to be true, though, arriving at the kind of consensus needed to name a general way of thinking or learning among teachers, even within the same school, is probably elusive. The way teachers understand the why and how of their pedagogical choices will be as varied as a bowl of assorted fruit. A teacher's educational background, the subject area s/he teaches, his/her experiences in school, and the mentors s/he has had will all influence the way they take in and process information. Consider this list of ways of fixating belief developed by Peirce, as cited in Stephens et al. (2000):

1. Believing what one wants to believe (tenacity).
2. Believing what someone else has said is true (authority).
3. Believing what one always has and which seems reasonable (a priori).
4. Believing what one has tested out through investigation (scientific method).

(Stephens, et al., 2000, p. 533)

According to Peirce, it is only through scientific method that any new understanding or knowledge can be constructed. The other three ways of fixating belief are not generative, that is, they do not create new cognition.

The scientific method of fixating belief smacks of an empirical-rational paradigm, but Peirce's definition of scientific method varies from the traditional meaning. Instead, the scientific method, according to Peirce's work, is "a reasoned exploration of an issue/concern" (Stephens, p. 534). The goal of the exploration is to build theory, not test it. Using this definition, the scientific method more closely mirrors an inquiry model of learning. Inquiry is a familiar word in education. One of its synonyms is constructivism, or, as discussed earlier, the personal building of understanding through reflection, hands-on experience and social interaction around a topic.

Cochran-Smith and Lytle (in press; cited in Hoffman and Pearson, 2000) offer a different way of thinking about how teachers learn. The three approaches they name are "knowledge-for-practice, knowledge-in-practice, and knowledge-of-practice" (Hoffman and Pearson, p. 37).

In the knowledge-for-practice approach to teacher learning, teachers are provided the knowledge they will need to be effective teachers by the expert other, often a university professor or staff development consultant. A knowledge-in-practice approach allows teachers to discover the knowledge they need in the field as they reflect on and assess their own practice, either individually or as a professional group. In the knowledge-of-practice tradition of teacher learning, teachers study in collaborative groups, constructing "their own knowledge of practice through deliberate inquiry, which may well involve ideas and experiences that emerge from their own practice as well as those codified as formal knowledge within the profession" (Hoffman and Pearson, p. 37).

Peirce's ways of fixating belief, and Cochran-Smith and Lytle's frameworks for understanding the way teachers learn offer important conceptual lenses for viewing the five models of staff development described in this review. Although, as Hoffman and Pearson have conceded, there are certain situations in which a top-down, or training approach is most appropriate, particularly in the teaching of discrete skills, it is fair to assume that most teachers would prefer a model of staff development that valued thinking over process. If this isn't true for teachers, if they would rather be told what to do and how to do it without considering why, then it's time that the intellectual culture of schools change. As Duffy (1991) has argued,

> We must make a fundamental shift from faith in simple answers, from trying to find simple solutions, simple procedures, simple packages of materials teachers can be directed to follow. Instead, we must take a more realistic view, one which Roehler (1990) calls "embracing the complexities" (p. 15).

No staff development model reviewed by Sparks and Loucks-Horsley embraces the complexities of teacher learning; perhaps in the process of categorization complexity is lost. Getting teachers involved, at least nominally, is not an issue in most schools. Staff development committees comprised of administrators and teachers are common organizations in many school districts. But what is the nature of teacher participation? The answer is complicated and deserves its own article. In the best situations, teachers choose the content of the staff development offering, but rarely the design for studying their interests. Even when exemplary models of in-service efforts are presented, "close examination of how, whether, and when one "knows" something" (Locke and Spirduso,1993, p. 108) is absent. It is these epistemological "complexities" that need to become a regular part of staff development programs. As Fenstermacher reminds us, the importance of teachers exploring the match between their beliefs and an espoused practice cannot be underestimated.

The findings of this literature review call for the creation of a professional development design that takes longer, is more theoretical, and has as its starting point an examination of teacher beliefs and ways of knowing. Figure 1 shows a flowchart that maps Peirce's scientific inquiry onto several of the heuristics presented in the second half

Figure 1: Viewing Staff Development Through the Lens of Scientific Method

Peirce (1877; cited in Stephens et al. , 2000)	Scientific Method
Cochran-Smith & Lytle (in press)	Knowledge-of-practice
Hoffman & Pearson (2000)	Teaching
Change Strategy (Gallagher, et al., 1988)	Normative-Reeducative
Sparks & Loucks-Horsley (1990)	Individually-Guided Professional Development The Inquiry Model
Examples of Published Research That Reflect a Scientific Method Stance	Atwell (1998); Chandler (1999);Ernst(1994); Gallas (1995); Graham, et. al (1999); Freedman, et. al (1999); Teacher Research Journal (v.'s 1993-1999); Wilhelm (1997)

of this chapter. Following the progression identifies the rationale, goals, content and processes required if Peirce's scientific method, that is, an inquiry perspective, were given first priority in planning programs.

Conclusion

Despite a variety of options to choose from in planning professional development initiatives, the final analysis is grim. "Traditional staff development models," writes Arnold (1995), "have not always been able to engage teachers in the type of learning that translates to classroom change" (p. 34). Carnine (1988) is more strident in his critique. "Conventional staff development and in-service training are viewed with contempt by both teachers and administrators . . . The expectations for inservice outcomes are low, with content marginally useful" (p. 83). Incompetent designs, ineffectual programs and minimal long-term change (Richardson and Hamilton,1994, p. 109) have all contributed to the inadequacies of staff development programs available to teachers. The disappointing tenure of these models have prompted some to blaze new trails (c.f. Richardson, et al.,1994; Arnold,1995; Tippins,1995; Mohr,1998). Like these researchers, I am interested in finding a better way to bring teachers, their thinking and their practices together to encourage more thoughtful forums for considering change.

The next chapter in this study documents my dissertation research investigating one teacher's experience in a new model of staff development. Drawing on the earlier work of Richardson and her colleagues, and informed by research on staff development in general, the chapter describes a qualitative approach to studying the impact of a constructivist staff development design in reading comprehension.

CHAPTER 3: “LOCAL DETAIL”

A METHODOLOGY FOR CASE STUDY RESEARCH IN COMPREHENSION STRATEGIES INSTRUCTION

> Who can say what teachers think they are up to, what they take to be the point of what they are doing, what it means for teachers to teach? Who indeed. To say that teachers are the ones who understand, know and can say seems so obvious that it is beneath reporting. But in the often off, sometimes upside-down world of social research, the obvious news must be reported and repeated: The secret of teaching is found in the local detail and the everyday life of teachers; teachers can be the richest and most useful source of knowledge about teaching; those who hope to understand teaching must turn at some point to the teachers themselves (Schubert & Ayers, 1992, p. v).

Introduction

Shubert and Ayers’ (1992) quote offers a strong defense for my dissertation’s observational case study approach (Bogdan and Biklen, 1992), in which I “turned to the teacher” as a primary source of data collection. In presenting the methodology used, and the subsequent processes of analysis and interpretation, I take Wolcott’s (19--) advice to, “Tell the story. Then tell how that happened to be the way you told it” (p. 16). The storyteller stance that Wolcott advocates for writing up qualitative research is particularly useful in describing a case study. This kind of research is inherently “storied”, demanding a depiction of characters, time, setting, problem, conflicts, and (at least tentative) resolutions that offer a clear picture of the context in which the study was conducted. Ellen’s story is reported below, but first, the story of the study’s evolution is described.

In the Beginning

I began developing the research questions that guided this study more than two years ago. After extensive reviews of the literature on reading comprehension instruction and staff development design, I believed I had discovered an area of inquiry that had not been addressed in previous research. In June, 2001, I presented a dissertation proposal to my committee in which I noted that, "A common understanding about qualitative research proposals is that 'details of research focus, method, and analysis often are not established in the proposal because they only can be fully determined once the investigation is in process' (Locke, et al., 1993, p. 213). I was compelled, however, to offer at least a tentative research plan based on the expectations of a proposal defense, and I identified the following question as my focus: "*This case study will examine five teachers' beliefs about reading comprehension instruction, and the genesis of these beliefs, as factors in the successful implementation of a strategies approach to reading comprehension instruction*" (Kaback, 2001, dissertation proposal. p. 9). Not long into data collection in the fall of 2001, I recognized the wisdom in leaving myself some "wiggle room" to adapt my anticipated study. In the proposal I had written,

> It is expected that during the process of data gathering, new or revised techniques will be necessary to satisfactorily explore the questions of interest. The questions, too, will undoubtedly undergo revisions and additions as the participation of teachers, further reading, and contextual events influence the direction of inquiry (Kaback, p. 9).

These expectations proved to be prescient. Over the course of the research, my questions, teacher participation, and the context of the study were transformed. The first major change to my study was in the selection of participants. This process is described below, but first I discuss finding and gaining access to a site.

Finding a Site and Gaining Access

In 1998, I became involved with the Professional Development Network (PDN), a partnership between the University of Maine and the Sullivan school district. Over the course of three years, I participated in activities related to the work of the partnership, including supervising MAT interns, assisting in site-based reading courses, developing a library of nonfiction books to support content-area inquiry, and attending research analysis retreats with university and public school faculty.

As I designed my dissertation study, choosing the Sullivan district as a research site was an obvious decision. My experience in the schools and familiarity with teachers made the traditionally awkward entry into a study site effortless. One other condition made the Sullivan Schools a particularly appropriate study site. In the spring of 2001, a University faculty member proposed an on-site inquiry course, open to all teachers in the Sullivan district grades K-12, which would focus on comprehension strategy instruction. The intersection of my research interests in teachers' use of strategy instruction and the field of potential participants presented in the course offering was fortuitous. I adapted an Human Subjects Review Board proposal, originally written to encompass the many research projects happening in the Sullivan school, to fit the specific needs of my proposed study, including letters from the district principals granting access to schools and teachers (with their consent). With the IRB's approval, I was ready to begin organizing my study.

Description of the site

The Sullivan school district is located in a city of approximately 10,000 citizens in the Eastern central region of a New England state. It is a rural school distrcit with a student body of 1,750 students in grades Kindergarten through twelfth grade. The district is comprised of six schools organized by grade level: The Pine Street School houses the kindergarten, the Spruce Street School holds grades one and two, the Elm Street School teaches grades three and four, Maple Street School is grade five, the Sullivan Middle School holds grades six through eight, and the high school has grades nine through twelve.

The Sullivan School District is only one member of the Professional Development Network established through the University of Maine. There are several other districts in the area that participate in the network, but Sullivan is the most active of the partnerships. The university and the Sullivan district, in their third year of partnership, met the criteria of a professional development school . Teitel and DelPrete (1995) define this alliance as

> a well-articulated, joint effort of a school, a college or university, and in some cases community agencies, focused on improving the teacher preparation and professional development of teachers, principals and other school/college personnel, and the education of all children (p. 2).

In particular, the university and the school district were active in "creating alternative models of teacher preparation and professional education which draw on the experience and expertise of both school and college/university based faculty" (p. 3). The changes in approach to teacher preparation are most evident in the design of the Master's in the Art of Teaching program in which interns learn and practice on-site in one of several Sullivan schools with a university and a school-based faculty person as facilitators.

The professional development work with in-service teachers in the Sullivan district is also a thriving project. Efforts to design meaningful staff development opportunities is guided by knowledge of the literature that reports dismal results from traditional staff development initiatives. Stallings and Krasavage (1986), in a follow-up study of a staff development project introducing Madeline Hunter teaching methods, found limited evidence that participating teachers were still using recommended practices three years into the project. They hypothesized that the model did not hold teachers' interests and drew the following conclusion:

> We believe that the innovative practices teachers learn will not be maintained unless teachers and students remain interested and excited about their own learning . . . A good staff development program will create an excitement about learning to learn. The question is how to keep the momentum, not merely maintain previously learned behaviors (p.137).

Teachers from the University and the Sullivan district were determined to develop professional development projects that rejected standard models of staff development and created "an excitement about learning to learn". The philosophy of Professional Development Schools supported their goals. True to the principles of a PDN, which specify that research agendas should grow out of school-based concerns about curriculum and student learning (Teitel & Del Prete, 1995), teachers chose the focus of their inquiry, the result being an on-site course devoted to using reading comprehension strategies across the curriculum to support students' learning. (It is also important to recognize that the principles of the staff development project closely match those of a constructivist plan. In this study, constructivist staff development design will generally be defined as an approach to teacher education that honors the principles of *inquiry* about teacher-identified issues, *collaboration* among research participants and researchers, and *reflection* about teachers' thinking and practices in an intellectually supportive environment (Lloyd & Anders, 1994). Not only do these terms define a constructivist model, they also characterize the approach to research in a Professional Development School (Book, 1996; Teitel & Del Prete, 1990)).

The plan for the course, which was open on a volunteer basis to all K-12 teachers in the district, and could earn teachers 3 graduate credits, was progressive in several ways. The most significant departures from typical professional development offerings were in the areas of time, support and funding. First, the sessions were scheduled throughout a school year during times that were most convenient for public school faculty, rather than being driven by the university calendar. Second, meetings were held during the school day. Grant money funded the cost of substitute teachers while participating faculty attended each session. This kind of scheduling allowed teachers to learn together during a productive part of the day, rather than extending the project into the post-school hours typically marked by fatigue and inattention.

One feature of professional development schools is the abundance of support staff available to assist teachers' classroom work. This was true in the Sullivan district for the twelve teachers who enrolled in the reading comprehension inquiry course during the 2001-2002 school year. Participating teachers were fortunate to have several University faculty, doctoral students and MAT interns regularly on-site and available to work in classrooms when invited. If a teacher in the comprehension project needed a person to work with small groups of students as she attempted a new approach, there were always qualified people available to assist.

Another way teachers' learning was supported happened through E-mail correspondence. Teachers asked questions, posed problems, and related experiences from their attempts to bring new reading instruction to their students and these communications were fielded by several of the University project directors.

Finally, as a way to provide support for the inquiry projects, a significant portion of each two-hour on-site session was devoted to processing teachers' learning. They met in small groups, with at least one university-based person, and shared their reflective writings about the new practices they tried in their classrooms.

This kind of sustained attention to the processes of teacher learning is rare in professional development projects, yet the literature on staff development shows that teachers *should* learn in environments that encourage them to develop reflective ways of thinking about their practices. The skills they develop to enact a specific technique are less important than how they learn to question ideas about learning in general. A professional development program that promotes the continuing impulse to learn, or "an on-going engagement in learning that is propelled and focused by thought and feeling emerging from the learners' processes of *constructing meaning*" (Oldfather & Dahl, 1994, p. 142), will ideally lead to a change in orientation that "compels teachers to reflect on their practices and continue to ask themselves why they are doing what they are doing, and if there are other practices that can be used to achieve their goals" (Richardson & Anders, 1994, p. 177). Analysis of Ellen's inquiry project, the focus of this study, and reported in chapter four, suggests that the opportunity to be reflective about her inquiry into reading comprehension instruction did support Ellen's "continuing impulse to learn".

Along with considerate scheduling and the availability of on-going support, teachers in the Sullivan district were fortunate to benefit from external funding that sustained their work. A large grant from the Spencer Foundation enhanced teachers' learning conditions significantly. On a small scale, each meeting began with refreshments. The provision of food is much more than a luxury (Harwayne, 1999); Jensen (1998) documents the value of "eating to learn" (p. 25), noting that healthful foods "can boost learning, memory and intelligence" (p. 26).

On a larger scale, the Spencer funding supported an overnight data analysis retreat at a coastal resort for all teachers participating in the inquiry class. Again, the grant paid for the costs of the retreat, while teachers spent a Friday and Saturday studying, talking, and writing about the work they were accomplishing in the comprehension course. Teachers' reactions to this opportunity to spend prolonged time considering their work suggested a new-found sense of professionalism growing from the projects they were undertaking. It is reasonable to assume that this was the first professional development experience they had had that placed such value on reflective practice. Plenty of staff developers talk about the power of reflection, few are willing or able to follow through.

The data analysis retreat was also a time for teachers to prepare a brief presentation of their work for public consideration. Each teacher in the inquiry class was required to share his or her progress with colleagues, administrators, university faculty, and other interested professionals in a round table dinner forum at the end of the school year. The expectation to prepare a summary of their work and an accompanying talk was an initial concern for some teachers; most, however, recognized the merit in this kind of exercise during the evening round table discussions. Again, most teachers were offered, for the first time, genuine professional interest in their classroom work through the small group discussions.

The unique environment of the Sullivan district's professional development project made it an excellent choice for studying teacher learning. Duffy (1991) points out that the primary weaknesses of traditional staff development models, sustainability and motivation, limit the opportunity to explore the complexities of teaching. The Sullivan project worked actively to resist the consequences of a top-down approach to teacher education as summarized by Morimoto, Gregory, and Butler (1973):

> When change is advocated or demanded by another person, we feel threatened, defensive, and perhaps rushed. We are then without the freedom and the time to understand and to affirm the new learning as something desirable, and as something of our own choosing. Pressure to change, without an opportunity for exploration and choice, seldom results in experiences of joy and excitement in learning (p. 255).

Joy and excitement are powerful motivators. By offering teachers choice in the content of their learning, the comprehension course eliminated the inherent insult to teachers' professional work when staff development dictates what is to be learned, when, and why. Having identified a desirable site for my proposed study, my next step was to recruit participants. This process is described in the next section.

Recruiting Participants

In my dissertation proposal, as noted earlier, I planned to include five teachers in my case study design, recruited from a pool of teachers who planned to take the comprehension course offered on site in Sullivan during the 2001-2002 school year. Ideally, I wanted my sample to include a variety of grade levels (K-8), years of teaching experience, and content area assignments. Most important, though, was a teacher's stated interest in exploring comprehension instruction in her classroom. The inquiry orientation of the reading course allowed teachers to explore a variety of topics under the comprehension umbrella. For example, when the course began one teacher planned to investigate guided reading strategies, while another was interested in looking at brain research that supported the teaching of phonics. I was interested in teachers who wanted to learn more about comprehension strategy instruction specifically.

The number five was rather arbitrary. Glesne and Peshkin (1992) point out that while dissertation committee members and funding agencies "often expect a research proposal to delineate clearly how many and which persons will be interviewed . . . the open nature of qualitative inquiry . . . precludes the ability to know either all of the important selection criteria" or number of participants necessary to carry out a study (p. 25). I did succumb to the expectation of offering a number of research subjects in my proposal, but as the study proceeded, the emergent design of naturalistic inquiry interrupted my stated plan, as will be seen.

In order to recruit participants, I attended a district staff meeting in June 2001 and announced my interest in working with teachers who planned to take the comprehension course being offered on-site the following school year. I distributed a letter describing my project and what I anticipated a teacher's role to be in the process I also attached a letter of consent and a self-addressed, stamped envelope for interested teachers to reply.

The initial response was lukewarm. Two first grade teachers agreed to participate, but I wanted a range of grade levels represented in my sample. After previewing a list of teachers enrolled in the fall course, I approached several teachers personally to ask if they would be interested in participating. Glesne and Peshkin (1991) call this a "'snowball' or 'network' technique [in which researchers] make one contact and use recommendations to work out from there" (p. 27). I depended on suggestions from district administrators as well as university faculty familiar with teachers in the Sullivan schools. Using this method, I found another three teachers willing to participate, including Ellen Irwin who eventually became my sole informant.

The narrowing of my pool of participants is justified by Robert Stake (1995), who wrote that the "first criteria for case study researchers in selecting cases is to maximize the "opportunity to learn" (p. 6). After initial interviews with all five teachers recruited for the study, I noted that Ellen's responses identified her as a teacher who matched my optimal criteria closely. She was a four-year veteran of the elementary school classroom having left a career in health education to earn teaching certification through a Master of Arts in Teaching program at the University five years earlier. Ellen had enrolled in the comprehension course because she was disappointed with the content of her reading program. When asked to describe a typical reading class, Ellen began to describe the independent reading her students do, the skills minilessons she offers, and the response journals students keep. Then she stopped and said:

> I don't think I'm doing a good job. (laughs) I really see that my reading program has a long way to go, but I'm constantly changing. I might have things today and realize I need to make a change. My plans are not--they're very loose. (laughs) They're fluid (September, 2001).

Ellen's concern about her reading program, and her interest in studying comprehension strategies as a potential intervention, positioned her as a good candidate for my study. Another factor in my decision to look exclusively at Ellen's learning throughout the school year were the results of the pre-observation interviews with the other four informants. Three of them taught in the early primary grades and one was a building principal at the K-3 school. While their responses were thoughtful and illuminating, I came to realize that through my own teaching experience and the focus of my literature reviews, I had developed an area of expertise that situated me to investigate upper elementary grade instruction most effectively. The early primary teachers' work with comprehension instruction included factors with which I did not have practical or academic experience. These included the necessity to provide phonics instruction in addition to comprehension strategies lessons, and the need to present comprehension lessons almost exclusively through read aloud techniques. The specific demands of reading instruction at the primary level raised compelling questions, but I realized that they were not the questions I intended to explore in my dissertation.

Ellen, therefore, by virtue of her grade level and her interest in strategy instruction, became the individual focus of my investigation. I hoped that by reducing the number of respondents, I would be able to provide the kind of "thick description" Geertz (19--) requires of qualitative researchers. Knowing that this concentrated attention on her work might be off-putting to Ellen, I wrote to her via e-mail to explain my interest in her as a sole respondent, explaining that the change would probably involve more classroom visits and informal interviews. E-mail correspondence proved to be an important source of data collection during our research partnership. The written exchange below documents Ellen's agreement to act as the single case in my research:

Friday, November 9

Fr: Suzy

To: Ellen

Please keep in mind, as you think about all this, that the consent you signed to be part of my study only requested that you participate in two interviews and have me visit your classroom a couple of time. I think you've already done your duty according to those stipulations! What's happened on my end is you've revealed yourself to be the perfect candidate for a single-case study dissertation based on the questions I'm pursuing. Pretty exciting, eh? At least for me!

I do not, and I'll repeat, do not want you to commit to anything that even approaches extra work for you. If you'd rather not become more involved, I will gladly (and empathetically) back off. My background as a fifth grade teacher makes me very sympathetic to the pressures and rigors of the job. Don't hesitate to say no. But if you'd like to tie your work in the comprehension class to the time you're offering me, I can promise to take as little of your time as possible, and to take just a tiny bit of space in your classroom every so often. Maybe I can be of help as a sounding board, too. Also, we can talk about setting some guidelines so you know you're not going to have to write to me eighty times in the next 3 months (maybe just 8 times or something:-)) Think about it over the next couple of weeks.

November 25, 2001

Fr: Ellen

To: Suzy

WOW--a single subject case-study. Are you sure you want to do that?

Honestly, I am getting a lot out of my work with you. Just the act of writing to you gives me the time and the opportunity to really reflect on what I am doing, and why I am doing it. . . . *As long as you are able to give me feedback and let me ask you as many questions as you ask me, I will be very happy to work with you.* (italics added)

Feeling comfortable with Ellen's willingness to be involved more intensely, I began a focused data collection, using her classroom and the inquiry course sessions as the territory of my research.

Research Questions

In my dissertation proposal, I named several questions I planned to pursue. I framed the main question, though, in the following way: *The purpose of this study is to describe teachers' articulated beliefs about reading comprehension instruction.* As noted earlier, I began my study knowing that the emergent nature of qualitative research might require a revision of my basic question. In fact, at my proposal hearing, committee members advised that I start the data collection process with a more generous perspective than my major question allowed. Preliminary data analysis confirmed the wisdom of this advice. I quickly understood that viewing the data through a beliefs-practice lens *only* might stunt my ability to recognize equally compelling ideas. Wollman-Bonilla (2001) argues that often "... Research isn't useful because its theoretical groundings and implications don't capture the dynamic multiplicities of personalities, sociocultural backgrounds, personal and curricular issues, events, expectations and external demands that are constantly at play in teachers' minds" (p. 313). She cautions researchers to, "Think about the implications: Teachers' theories of action may be richer, more complex, and more reflective of intellectual tension than those of researchers!" (p. 313).

Wollman-Bonilla's strong criticism of research practices that employ narrow questions in service of tradition offered me further support for taking a wider stance in my approach to studying teaching. By asking the question *What do I observe when a fourth grade teacher learns about reading strategy instruction in the context of a constructive staff development model?* I made myself open to possibilities presented in the data. Broadening my question did not require that I sacrifice my interest in the belief-practice connection; I analyzed data with an eye toward coding in this particular category. But looking at my findings with more tolerance for the possibilities allowed me to think about the following questions: How well do research theories about reading comprehension instruction match teachers' experiences when they try the approach? How completely do theories of comprehension instruction describe the demands of the approach? How well do teachers understand the theoretical basis of strategy instruction in reading comprehension? To what degree do teachers' beliefs match their instructional practices? Under what conditions are teachers most likely to reflect on their own beliefs, practice, and research theory, and consider new instructional approaches? Finally, can a school-based staff development model affect teachers' use of strategy teaching in reading comprehension?

These were a sampling of the new questions that emerged as I began to work with Ellen in her fourth grade classroom. Before describing the data collection tools I used to try to “capture the dynamics” of her learning and teaching, I will discuss my choice of methodology for investigating the research questions.

Theoretical Grounding: Case Study Methodology

Choosing to frame my research in the case study tradition allowed me to meet both scholarly and ethical goals. The case study design is appropriate for my study, in general, because the approach supports inductive investigations that attempt to “get as close to the subject of interest as they possibly can, partly by means of direct observation in natural settings, partly by their access to subjective factors (thoughts, feelings, and desires)” . . . (Bromley, 1986, p. 23). Bogdan and Biklen (1992) suggest that, “The basic design of a case study is best represented by a funnel. Good questions that organize qualitative studies are not too specific. The start of the study is the wide end . . .” (p. 62). My choice to ask the question, “*What do I observe when a fourth grade teacher learns about reading strategy instruction in the context of a constructive staff development model?*” fits the open-ended criteria of qualitative study design. The most effective way to gather data about Ellen’s experience, participant observation, is the primary collecting tool in case study research.

Within the case study design, Merriam (1988) distinguishes among three kinds of case studies: The descriptive, the interpretive and the evaluative. Using Merriam’s categories to frame my dissertation focus, an interpretive case study design was most suitable in guiding the collection, analysis and reporting of data. Merriam explains that interpretive case studies contain “rich, thick descriptions” which are used “to develop conceptual categories or to illustrate, support, or challenge theoretical assumptions held prior to the data gathering” (p. 27-28). The reams of data produced from this investigation warranted the significant coding and categorizing of information as described by Merriam.

A word of defense about the case study approach is necessary here. A goal of this study was to explore what happens when one teacher learns about reading strategy instruction in the context of a constructivist staff development design. While critics disparage the limited scope of case study research, citing its lack of application to a broader field, others see this research approach as most appropriate in educational studies. For example, Wollman-Bonilla (2002) describes an article by Cziko (1992) on evaluating bilingual education in which he argues that "research can never tell conclusively what will work in all situations for all students, but it can provide illustrative cases--examples of what works" (cited in Wollman-Bonilla, 2002, p.321). Wollman-Bonilla writes, "I think he is on to a powerful idea when he argues for a focus not on convincing readers of generalizability but rather on *possibilities* presented by successful cases. He suggests that we view research as a way to see what is possible and, ultimately, desirable." (italics added, p. 321-22) As I worked through the data collected around Ellen's work, I used Wollman-Bonilla's idea of seeing the possibilities to analyze the findings. Tisdale's claim that, "The strength of a qualitative case study is to provide in-depth understandings of a unique situation" (p. 58) also offered defense of my case study methodology. In adopting Tisdale' perspective, I did not work under any illusion that what was revealed from Ellen's teaching was suggestive of other teachers' experiences, but that her work might reveal possibilities.

In addition to choosing a methodology that fit the questions in my study, I had ethical concerns about research that I wanted my design to reflect. Several scholars were influential in bringing to my attention the ethics of classroom-based research, among these were Nell Noddings (1986), Thomas Newkirk (1992), Diane Stephens (2001), and Julie Wollman-Bonilla (2002). These writers helped me see that the way I designed my research revealed my own beliefs about the role of research in education. Noddings (1986) suggests that we ask ourselves, "Who will be affected by our research and how?, and further, will our research contribute to 'the development of good persons" (p. 499) and "maintain a caring community' (p. 506)?" Wollman-Bonilla (2002) understands that researchers may feel uncomfortable with such questions, but that all work in education "invariably reflects our values and our goals for society" (p. 320).

I wanted my work with Ellen to be reciprocal. I was less worried about contaminating my data pool than I was in taking advantage of Ellen. This quote by Wollman-Bonilla made sense to me:

> When research reveals (and respects) the theoretical within the practical and the practical within the theoretical, it may no longer seem irrelevant or disrespectful to practitioners . . . It will not *use* classrooms, teachers, children, and families as spaces to do research but, I believe, it will reflect researchers' caring for and openness to all connected to and impacted by their work" (p. 324).

I had included in the IRB proposal my intention to offer myself as an assistant in the classroom, a participant observer, upon Ellen's invitation. I was prepared to teach lessons, provide resource material, and respond to Ellen's work in progress if she indicated an interest in this kind of partnership. Earlier in this paper, I included an excerpt of a conversation from the RIS study that happened during an in-service workshop. In the dialogue exchange between the researchers and the participating teachers, it is evident that the researchers were determined *not* to provide any kind of feedback. They believed that, in true constructivist fashion, teachers needed to learn through their own experiences and conversations with colleagues. When teachers asked, in fact, nearly begged the researchers/staff developers to suggest research-based ideas for their teaching, the researchers balked.

Teacher: Just tell us about a neat practice--something you think is a good idea.

Staff Developer: That's not the purpose of this staff development. The purpose is to focus on your problems, frustrations, and practices; or you may select, together, an area that you all are interested in learning more about, and we can talk about a variety of practices related to that area; then you may select one or two to pursue.

Teacher: Ya, but you know the neat and new ones; the ones you think we should be doing. (Richardson and Anders, 1990, p. 13)

I rejected this approach. I was unconvinced that Ellen would find the collegial support required, and I was confident that my teaching experience and familiarity with the professional literature situated me as an important source of instructional support. Diane Stephens (2001) offered insights that more closely matched my instincts about what classroom-based research should be. In an acceptance speech after winning the Allan Purves Award, presented to the RTE article from the previous year's volume judged most likely to have an impact on the practice of others, she confesses to misgivings about the design of what she calls the Second Study reported in the award-winning article. Throughout the study of the eight teachers, participants asked for help in reading instruction. The researchers withheld this help. Stephens explains that,

> I will always remember the Second Study as a time when in my quest to do "good research," I let go of what matters most to me and what I think matters most to all of us--I let go of my responsibility to be helpful to the teachers with whom I work (p. 300).

I imagine that my background as an elementary school teacher for eight years was a significant influence in my determination to make my research project worthwhile for Ellen. I understood how promising the prospect of having another set of eyes in the classroom was for impacting practice, and I wanted to follow Noddings' (1986) lead by doing research "*for* teaching, not against teaching" (p.504). Offering to support Ellen's instruction through teaching demonstrations and coaching were two ways that I intended to work "for" her. Also, my intention to invite Ellen to be a partner in reviewing and discussing the data I collected was an effort to work with her teaching.

Newkirk (1992) has written convincingly about the damage researchers can do to their research subjects. In a review of two well-known and often-cited research reports, he points to the "seduction and betrayal" that resulted from researchers' attempts to get fresh material to report. In one instance, researchers observed in a classroom where a student's learning experience was seriously compromised, and her confidence crippled, due to the teacher's misunderstanding of the student's discourse style (p. 7). The researchers, recognizing the cultural disconnect that was affecting the student's experience, chose to withhold their insight from the instructor. The result, as Newkirk describes it, was "local harm" (p. 8). "As a simple rule of thumb, we might ask how we would feel if *we* were the subject of this study, if we were June [the instructor]. I suspect we would have wanted to know more about what judgments researchers were making" (p. 8).

In the second example in Newkirk's article, he describes an instructor's study that examined "a letter-writing project she conducted in a graduate class on the teaching of writing, what she calls a "pen-pal experience for adults" (Newkirk, p. 9). The instructor faulted her graduate students, who exchanged letters with a group of adult basic education students, for being “almost completely unable to engage the narratives of the ABE students” (p. 285). Newkirk explained that the content of the letters written by the ABE students often contained personal and even troubling information. The instructor’s graduate students, according to Newkirk, were given no direction in how to respond to this kind of intimate communication and he theorized that part of their failure to sustain substantive correspondence may be attributed to their discomfort. Newkirk criticized the instructor by suggesting that her students were set up for failure. The opportunity to present the research as an example of “professional class narcissism” (p. 11) caused the instructor to be blind to any explanation that did not match her theory of cultural bias.

What is often problematic for researchers, and which may explain why many are reluctant to “interfere” during data collection, is the “dilemma of bad news” (Newkirk, p. 12). The climate of current research in education warns against insulting research subjects while a study is in progress, but actually rewards writing that reveals uncomfortable circumstances by presenting the work in prestigious journals and on conference program schedules. What’s to become of those “edgy” studies if researchers invite their informants to co-interpret results? When teachers and researchers agree to work together to deal with problems they identify? Or when consent agreements include the provision that the researcher will bring up issues, problems or questions during the course of the study, and if this possibility of “bad news” is “disturbing or alarming to teachers, they should be encouraged *not* to participate” (Newkirk, p. 13)? Will professional journals flounder? Will conference attendance flag? That’s possible, but another possibility is that practitioners will become more active in these organizations because what is being reported is meaningful to them. Wollman-Bonilla (2002) writes,

> It is something of a commonplace that most teachers care little for research despite the fact that most educational researchers believe themselves to be doing work that will improve classroom practice . . . Teachers may see research as representing tidied-up experience, detached from the tangled realities of classroom life. . . . Maybe research becomes a vice in teachers' eyes because too often it serves to overregulate and even corrupt their work rather than helping them improve it (p. 312-314).

I see in a case study methodology the opportunity to honor a teacher's work and impact practice in positive ways by describing what the teacher does well, how she does it, and what the results are for her students. Like Wollman-Bonilla, I believe that, "when teachers are respected as equals throughout the inquiry process, research is not only more just and caring, it is also more likely to impact practice positively" (p. 320). With this perspective in mind, I was conscious of including Ellen in the many stages of data collection. Not only did this action lend to the reliability of the study by having her check for accuracy, the partnership invited Ellen into the conversation about her own practice. The description of data analysis techniques in the following section will illuminate the ways I built collaboration into the research process.

Data Collection Methods

The initial tool used for data gathering was what I termed the Adapted Conceptual Framework of Reading (ACFR) interview protocol. This instrument was a condensed and modified version of several beliefs interviews I reviewed in my survey of the literature in reading instruction (Appendix A). The interview was designed to elicit teachers' beliefs about reading comprehension instruction, particularly their own reading habits, their held theories about how comprehension instruction is defined, and their thinking about effective assessment of reading. I began with what Spradley (1973) calls "Grand Tour" questions which are useful in setting a conversational tone by asking comfortable questions, such as the informant's professional history and current professional position. I also used the opening sequence of questions to elicit participants' memories of reading methods courses in their teacher preparation programs. I anticipated this information would be relevant in trying to establish the roots of teachers' theories of reading instruction.

In the beginning of my study, I interviewed the five teachers who had consented to participate, including Ellen. As described earlier, after an initial analysis of their responses to the ACFR interview, I decided to change my original plan and focus on a single case for the remainder of the research. The ACFR became a touchstone to which I returned throughout my work with Ellen. I used her responses to confirm (or disconfirm) what I observed in her classroom, and to interpret our informal interviews after these sessions. In May, I conducted an exit interview using most of the same questions I used in September in our opening interview. I added several questions, however, that allowed Ellen to talk about some of the instructional changes she had made during the school year; events that I could not have anticipated in the first interview, but that deserved attention in our final meeting.

Another source of data collection was the monthly staff development sessions, known in-house as inquiry course meetings. Twelve teachers from the Sullivan district participated in the year-long project, including Ellen. The focus of the course was reading comprehension instruction across the curriculum; within this scope teachers were expected to develop a question of interest and pursue the inquiry with the support of colleagues and university facilitators. The sessions were organized in a workshop fashion. The course coordinator, or her assistant, would begin the class with a brief minilesson, perhaps an anchor lesson using a particular reading strategy, or an exercise in useful data collection techniques. Part of each meeting was devoted to silent reading when teachers were expected to read chapters from the course texts (which were provided as part of the Spencer grant), or from articles provided by the leaders. Participating teachers also would have time during each session to share their work in progress, discuss readings, and pose questions about the direction of their work.

In October, teachers were asked to brainstorm a list of their questions about comprehension. Ellen wrote three:

1. Are there developmental stages associated with comprehension?
2. How might I use comprehension strategies to increase understanding of math word problems?
3. Are any comprehensions strategies more important than others? Should they by taught in a particular order?

At the next session, Ellen brought a free write to class in which she was asked to consider "How and what can you do to get answers for your 'big question?'" Ellen's opening sentence is typical of her sense of humor. She wrote, "Well, knowing what my BIG QUESTION is would definitely help me with this free write. Okay, I am leaning towards looking at how comprehension instruction and the process of reading comprehension differs between fiction and non-fiction."

As part of the course teachers regularly wrote reflectively about their inquiry projects and I collected copies of everything Ellen wrote. I also took field notes during the sessions, focusing special attention on Ellen's contributions to the class. Both her written and verbal participation were excellent sources of data revealing how Ellen thought and behaved as a learner. The opportunity to observe her in this professional setting provided an interesting backdrop to the instruction she designed subsequently for her students.

Classroom observations, and the informal interviews that followed almost every session, were another staple in my data collection process. Over the course of the eight months I worked with Ellen, I observed in her room eleven times and nine times we followed up the observation period with a twenty minute conversation about the events of the class. One session was videotaped and another was audiotaped; both were transcribed. During the other observations I took fieldnotes on my computer. Because we prearranged my observations, Ellen's lessons often proceeded in a predictable fashion. In my notes I collected verbatim her opening lesson when she introduced a comprehension strategy. As students began to ask questions, to offer insights into their own processes, and to work in small groups to practice a new skill, I attempted to capture as much dialogue as possible. My notes also included details of the classroom environment on each of my visits--student attendance for the day, gender ratios, desk arrangements, changed bulletin boards, new book displays, showcases of student work, and writing from the wipe board at the front of the class.

I was fortunate that Ellen had a student intern working in her class who was able to manage the classroom while Ellen and I talked after an observation period. Being able to immediately debrief about the class I observed was invaluable. My questions were answered candidly because Ellen's reflections were fresh and uncensored.

A source of data that I did not anticipate in my dissertation proposal, but which evolved into a critical fund of information, were the nineteen e-mail exchanges between Ellen and me. The correspondence was initiated by me in October. I was careful to allow

Ellen an "out" if she did not wish to extend her participation in the study, but she consented to this additional collaboration (see e-mail excerpt above, November 25, 2001). The e-mail we swapped offered a benefit that the post-observation debriefs did not. Although the immediate responses during our informal interviews were valuable, equally compelling were Ellen's more considered reflections. I was able to read through field notes from a session, craft new questions, and pose them to her. Ellen's replies were always timely and substantive. On more than one occasion she closed her e-mail with the comment that answering my questions was helpful to her thinking about strategy instruction. Ellen was able to find extra benefit in writing to me because her reflections became part of her own data collection for the inquiry class. I was encouraged by this double advantage. To me, the fact that Ellen could simultaneously inform my work, while furthering exploration of her personal questions about teaching and learning, signaled that an ethic of care was infused in our work together.

Finally, I often solicited artifacts from Ellen's teaching to complement the other sources of data I was collecting. These included newsletters she sent to families of her students, reading assignment sheets, copies of readings she gave her students during strategy lessons, general school newsletters, and copies of work she completed for the inquiry course. I also followed advice by Glesne and Peshkin (1992) about the power of photographs (p. 52). I gave Ellen a camera with a roll of film and asked her to take pictures of things in her classroom and around the school about which she was proud. I predicted that her choice of subject would contribute another perspective from which to analyze other comments and actions I observed in her work and in her learning.

The ACFR interview, classroom observations, field notes during the inquiry course, informal interviews and classroom artifacts were data sources that allowed me to piece together a portrait of Ellen as a teacher and as a learner. These windows into her work were critical in answering the question *What happens when a fourth grade teacher learns about strategy instruction in the context of a constructivist staff development experience?* The final sections of this chapter explain how I established trustworthiness in the study, and how I approached analysis of my data base.

Trustworthiness

Establishing what Lincoln and Guba (1985) refer to as the "truth value" (p. 294) of a qualitative study is an important consideration in ensuring the trustworthiness of the findings. In this study, the truth value of the collected data was supported in several ways following the recommendations of Lincoln and Guba. These measures included prolonged engagement, persistent observation, triangulation of data, participant feedback, peer debriefing, negative case analysis, and defense against bias.

Meeting the criteria of prolonged engagement is consistent with both the constructivist staff development goal that "the staff development process is long term" and with the sustained commitment of universities and schools in the PDN partnership. Although my original research agenda included a data collection timeline of three months, I worked with Ellen for eight months. This extended term allowed me to visit her classroom twice a month, attend monthly staff development sessions, participate in the weekend data analysis retreat, and communicate regularly through e-mail, all contacts that qualify as persistent observation.

The technique of triangulation, or verification of data gathered through the comparison of multiple sources (Lincoln & Guba, p. 305), was accomplished by cross-checking data from the beliefs interviews, notes from one-on-one and group conversations, and the observation/videotaping of Ellen during reading comprehension instructional time. As I coded and categorized data I was able to use these multiple means of data gathering to check for consistency in what was said, done and interpreted.

Triangulation also assisted in negative case analysis which is "the process of revising hypotheses with hindsight" (Lincoln & Guba, p. 309). By comparing different data sources, a researcher can refine a hypothesis until it accounts for all known cases without exception. Stephens et al. (2000) used negative case analysis to study patterns in the way teachers in their research project described their beliefs and carried out reading instruction in the classroom. Having identified a pattern, Stephens et al. "re-read the data to see if [they] could find evidence that contrasted with the pattern" (p. 539). When inconsistencies, or negative cases, are found in this kind of analysis, new explanations are developed until all the cases in a study are explained. Again, the multiple sources of data being collected in this study supported the work of negative case analysis.

Further means for establishing trustworthiness were accomplished through the use of two forms of debriefing. The first kind of debriefing involved Ellen in reviewing preliminary write-ups of the data (see below). Reading through the narratives offered Ellen the opportunity to determine whether she agreed with patterns identified, and if she disagreed, with the occasion to provide clarifying remarks.

Peer debriefing was another means for receiving feedback about emerging patterns and understandings in the data. Lincoln and Guba describe this technique as "a process of exposing oneself to a disinterested peer in a manner paralleling an analytic session and for the purpose of exploring aspects of the inquiry that might otherwise remain only implicit within the inquirer's mind" (p. 308). Conducting this study as part of a series of investigations in the professional development network afforded many opportunities for recruiting colleagues to act as peer debriefers. More than a willingness to read through the initial narratives was required of a peer debriefer, however. S/he was expected to keep me "honest" by asking searching questions and playing the devil's advocate (Lincoln and Guba, p. 309). The debriefer had to be skilled at ferreting out questions of substantive, methodological, legal and ethical nature making sure to challenge my emerging hypotheses no matter how desperate I was for closure. One of the affective benefits of the peer debriefing process was the cathartic effect a good session could have for me. A successful debriefing allowed for "clearing the mind of emotions and feelings that may be clouding good judgment or preventing emergence of sensible next steps" (Lincoln & Guba, p. 308).

Finally, credibility of data collection methods and analysis was supported through an attention to bias potential. During the introduction of theory and practices in the use of reading comprehension strategies, the possibility that I might influence the way teachers think about the process was a concern. To guard against this prospect, I had to be aware of my own theories of teaching/learning to read and the purposes of reading. By having a colleague conduct the Adapted Conceptual Framework of Reading interview with me before it was used with research participants, I had personal data to evaluate. This assessment allowed me to identify the biases I have toward reading instruction, and with this information I was able to monitor my delivery of and responses to the content of staff development sessions.

The seven trustworthiness measures described above represent adequate attention to the establishment of truth value in my qualitative study. It is worth pointing out that the number of actions requiring collaboration with research participants or academic peers fits the constructivist approach to learning advocated in this project.

Having described the procedures for setting up this study and assuring its integrity, I will explain below how I analyzed the collected data.

Methods of Analysis

Choosing to situate my research in a case study methodology directed my choice of analysis procedures. Through my reading of qualitative methods and exemplars of published naturalistic inquiry, I decided that an appropriate analysis technique was grounded theory (Strauss & Corbin, 1998). Grounded theory, as defined by Strauss and Corbin (1998), is "theory . . .derived from data, systematically gathered and analyzed through the research process" (p. 12). Denzin (1997a) has called grounded theory, "the most influential paradigm for qualitative researchers in the social sciences today" (p. 18). Patterson (2002) notes that

> grounded theory has opened the door to qualitative inquiry in many traditional academic social science and education departments, especially as the basis for doctoral dissertations, in part . . . because of its overt emphasis on the importance of and specific procedures for generating theory (p. 488).

Strauss and Corbin distinguish grounded theory from other methods of analysis by explaining that the approach is designed to build rather than test theory. Bogdan and Biklen (1992) offer a useful metaphor for thinking about the approach. They explain that "you are not putting together a puzzle whose picture you already know. You are constructing a picture that takes shape as you collect and examine the parts" (p. 32). Using this analogy, the match between a case study methodology and grounded theory analysis techniques is a natural one. Ellen's experience was unique, and it was my job, using recommended analysis procedures, to identify and explain the distinctive features of her year's work. I did not have a template against which to compare Ellen, or a prototype to use to evaluate her progress. Instead, I was trying to construct a portrait of a teacher attempting a new instructional intervention. In order to develop some kind of theory about Ellen's experience, I had to consider the body of data I collected and *ground* the emerging theory in the data generated from observations, interviews, written products, and classroom artifacts.

Bogdan and Biklen (1992) note that "the qualitative researcher plans to use part of the study to learn what the important questions are" (p. 32). This feature of a grounded theory approach proved prophetic in my work. After my detailed observations of Ellen's classroom and her participation in the inquiry course activities, I came to recognize several "requirements" of a comprehension strategies approach that I had not considered in my research proposal. Grounded theory provided a framework that allowed for an interplay between discipline and creativity as I analyzed my data. Strauss and Corbin (1998) confirm this implicit relationship when they write that grounded theory is

> both science and art. It is science in the sense of maintaining a certain degree of rigor and by grounding analysis in data. Creativity manifests itself in the ability of researchers to aptly name categories, ask stimulating questions, make comparisons, and extract an innovative, integrated, realistic scheme from masses of unorganized raw data (p. 13).

It was grounded theory's meticulous approach to data analysis that made it an attractive choice for my work. I had read numerous papers touting the creative, almost existential process of qualitative data analysis, but these descriptions left me cold. As a novice researcher I craved order and grounded theory came to my rescue. This process of analysis "emphasizes systematic rigor and thoroughness from initial design, through data collection and analysis, culminating in theory generation" (Patton, p. 489). Learning about grounded theory was one of the most academically satisfying parts of my dissertation process. The method's generous view toward how social science research should be done, tempered by the methodical approach to data collection, coding, and theorizing, offered legitimacy to a way of doing research that often met with skepticism from critics outside the qualitative field. And quite honestly, Glaser's (2001) promise that grounded theory was "a package, a lock-step method that starts the researcher from a 'know nothing' to later become a theorist with a publication" (p.12) was comforting. At the beginning of the analysis phase I needed assurance that the work I attempted would result in a substantive product. Grounded theory as an analysis method provided the confidence I lacked.

As my data analysis progressed, grounded theory served me well. The following is a description of my analysis process from initial housekeeping tasks (Lofland and Lofland, 1995) to the generation of theory about Ellen's teaching and learning experience.

Lofland and Lofland identify housekeeping tasks as essential for getting a handle on the mundane aspects of analysis. These low-level parts include developing files of individuals in a study, sorting data by setting, maintaining a chronological record of data gathering, and outlining the history of the study's pertinent events. My housekeeping tasks were simple. First, I kept a chronological file of data as they were collected, numbering each set of notes, transcripts from interviews, e-mails received or sent, and collected artifacts. Second, I sorted a set of my data by category resulting in six classifications: interviews transcripts, classroom observation field notes, staff development observation field notes, e-mail exchanges, classroom artifacts, and non-e-mail written products from Ellen (predominantly work generated during the inquiry course sessions, but also including writing from her participation in the Maine Writing Project). After sorting by category I was able to quantify the information, noting the number of classroom visits I had made, counting the e-mail exchanges between Ellen and me, and recording inquiry class sessions. While these housekeeping tasks were not particularly generative, the process was valuable in helping me get a handle on the kinds of information I had to analyze. Also, the chronological and categorical sorting helped me trace the year-long story of Ellen's participation in my study.

The next step in my analysis using grounded theory procedures was microanalysis, "The detailed line-by-line analysis necessary at the beginning of a study to generate initial categories (with their properties and dimensions) and to suggest relationships among categories" (Strauss and Corbin, 1998, p. 57). To accomplish this, I printed my data with a wide right-hand margin where I kept running notes detailing questions, patterns, and tentative codes as they became apparent. To guide this initial coding, I limited myself in two ways. First, I began only by reading through the pre-and post-interview transcripts with Ellen. Focusing on these "bookends" of the data set provided benchmarks against which I read through the rest of the data. I then used the early codes I had developed as a way to make sense of the larger pile of data collected between September and June.

The second way in which I limited my beginning data analysis was by looking for statements of belief. Although I had revised my major research question from a focus on beliefs, to a broader view of what I learned about Ellen as teacher and a learner as she explored reading strategy instruction, I found it useful to think about beliefs in the early stages of interpretation. I was hesitant about framing the analysis so tightly, worried that my analysis might approach theory testing rather than theory generation. Chandler (1999), however, points out that "although grounded theory stresses the importance of building explanatory models directly from data, this process does not occur in a vacuum.

In fact, the development of 'theoretical sensitivity' from previous research and professional reading is presented as an essential attribute of the grounded-theory practitioner" (p. 13). Doing a first pass of the data with a belief's lens provided a starting place, and eventually resulted in a major conceptual category that I later used in axial coding, a procedure that is described in more detail below.

After the initial coding of my data set, during which I attempted to "generate as many separate codes (and files)" as I felt comfortable with (Lofland and Lofland, 1995, p. 190), I used the families of codes themselves as a primary source, sorting and deleting less productive codes, combining similar codes and expanding codes that needed further treatment. For example, at one point, toward the end of my analysis, I had more than 35 codes, an unmanageable number that needed refinement, or as Lofland and Lofland (1995) call the process, "focused coding" (p. 195). The result of these selected and elaborated codes was that some codes began "to assume the status of overarching ideas or propositions that [occupied] a prominent or central place" in my analysis (Lofland and Lofland, p. 193). The revised list of codes is listed in figure 2:

Figure 2: Revised List of Codes

1. On the class
2. On contradictions
3. On judging the success of a teaching episode
4. On comfort
5. On being a good girl
6. On the teacher as reader
7. On social-constructivist tendencies
8. On making thinking visible
9. On teaching reading
10. On teaching
11. On self
12. On an ethic of care
13. On the teacher-intern relationship
14. On staff development
15. On community

At this point, I was careful to remember Glaser's (discussed in Patton, 2002) concern that "the popularity of grounded theory has led to a preponderance of lower-level theorizing without completing the full job. Too many qualitative analysts, he warns, are satisfied to stop when they've merely generated 'theory bits'" (Patton, p. 491). Constant comparative analysis, "the comparing and contrasting of each topic and category to determine the distinctive characteristics of each" (Schumacher and McMillan, 1993, p. 487) is one standard strategy in a grounded theory approach that encourages continued analysis. Using constant-comparative analysis, eventually even the reduced codes listed above were edited, with some joining another category and some being eliminated all together.

Another technique I used to guard against becoming too satisfied with larger emerging categories was memoing, "the written-out counterparts or explanations of the coding categories" (Lofland & Lofland, p. 193). I used memoing during and after data collection. While I was in the field, I attempted to follow the advice of Miles and Huberman (1994) who suggest that researchers "always code the previous set of field notes before the next trip to the site. Always--no matter how good the excuses for not doing it" (p. 65). Although I was not *always* successful, I did develop loose categories every two weeks, then wrote one-page memos.

After data collection was complete and I had done some formal coding, my memos were more detailed, drawing from the "in the midst" memos, as well as the developed coding categories. This step was both satisfying and productive. In the swamp that is qualitative data analysis, being able to write out pages of memos felt like a concrete step toward something final. In fact, the memos I wrote to theorize about codes and their relationships to one another were translated easily to drafts of pages for the fourth chapter of the dissertation. Before becoming drafts of text, though, the memos I wrote became larger pieces of code as I sorted them more selectively with particular questions in mind. These questions included:

- What is this an example of?
- What question about my topic does this item suggest?
- Does this item suggest an answer to any of my research questions?

It was at this stage that I employed one of my trustworthiness measures: the negative case analysis. I looked specifically at how a code/event might contradict an earlier conclusion, and when this occurred, I revised my interpretation. Examples of the results of my negative case analysis are presented in chapter four.

The writing and sorting of memos gave me perspective on the meaning of previous codes bringing into relief categories that were especially relevant. The process brought me closer to generating substantive theory, rather than theory bits, and provided material for axial coding, another grounded theory strategy.

I used axial coding, or "the process of relating categories to their subcategories" (Patton, p. 490) as a graphic organizer. The word axial is appropriate because this step of coding happens around a categorical axis. For example, in my analysis, after coding for Ellen's beliefs' statements, I would put one idea in the center of a circle, then write ideas around it asking more generative questions and continuing to make constant and theoretical comparisons (Strauss & Corbin, 1998; see Appendix B for an example of axial coding). I discovered that several other emerging categories such as the role of community in learning and teaching, and the nature of teacher-student relationships as a factor in instructional design, were closely tied to the beliefs category. The connections allowed me to write relational statements or hypotheses which "link two or more concepts, explaining the what, why, where, and how of phenomena" (Strauss and Corbin, 1998, p. 135).

The process of axial coding, along with my formal memos, helped me to fold ideas into a final outline of theoretical ideas. This integrating of information was the most creative act of all my analyses. I knew I had reached what Strauss and Corbin (1998) call "theoretical saturation, the point in category development at which no new properties, dimensions, or relationships emerge during analysis" (p. 143). Like a piece of rock candy pulled by its string from a glass of sugared water, my data were clumped into crystals of understanding. It was at this stage that I felt the most ownership of my material. There were no experts to guide how I should interpret the findings; that was my responsibility. I found this task to be simultaneously overwhelming and liberating. I was a "real" researcher, but I'd better have something meaningful to relate from nine months of collected data.

The description of my analysis is reported in the following chapter. I begin by offering a profile of Ellen as a learner and a teacher. The second part of chapter four presents her classroom during the year I spent researching. Included in this discussion is a report of Ellen's beliefs about teaching reading, before and after her participation in the inquiry course, and examples of lessons that show her proficiency with the strategy teaching approach. Throughout these descriptions I provide my analysis of the significance of each section. In chapter five, I discuss implications for further research by presenting three "Lessons from Ellen", that is, major findings from my study that summarize the analysis and suggest future directions for inquiry.

CHAPTER 4: TURNING UP THE HEAT: AN ANALYSIS

> Glass is like life. It can be made and unmade. It can take one form and then another. Apply heat and it can become a thing of beauty, apply a little more and it can change yet again. Just when everything seems perfect, something unexpected happens and you lose a tiny shard of your life . . . With a little patience, and a little heat, your life can become something new and different, maybe even a little stronger. Glass, like teaching and learning, is my personal passion (Irwin, June 26, 2002, National Writing Project presentation).

After a day of workshops and data analysis sessions at the Samoset resort, I joined a group of teachers and made my way to Ellen's room at the hotel. This trip was not research-inspired, but retail driven. The week before, as we had planned the agenda for our data analysis retreat, several teachers had asked Ellen to bring along a selection of the glass beads she crafted in her home studio. She had promised to do so, and now people were swarming her room to look at the collection. Inside her room we found a side table and a desk covered with ornate glass beads each lying in a bed of white tissue paper. The beads were organized by shape and quality; one section revealed tiny multi-colored urns small enough to hang on thin chains and worn as necklaces. Some had handles, others had removable stoppers. All were infused with swirls of color inside the tiny vessel and dotted with squirts of hardened glass on their outer surfaces. Other beads were crafted in traditional barrel or circle shapes suitable for stringing together with other like-sized beads and made into necklaces or bracelets. Still another group of beads were shaped into flowers, hearts or tear drops which were intended to serve as "spotlight" pieces in the center of necklaces.

Sunshine Beadz, the name of Ellen's business, did a swift trade that evening. Teachers chose beads then talked with Ellen about how they might be fashioned into pieces of wearable jewelry. After seeing examples of the finished pieces Ellen had brought, most people commissioned her to assemble their necklaces or bracelets, at a nominal cost, and to deliver them when ready. One teacher said, "I love the way you put these necklaces together. They're unusual.. I'm not creative enough to make something so unique." Ellen replied, "Yeah, I guess I don't do symmetrical well." (personal communication, March 29, 2002).

This declaration sent me scurrying for a pen. Ellen's remark answered a question I had not thought to ask out loud. "What kind of a person are you?" I had spent months trying to develop a profile that might answer the unspoken question without simply presenting the idea to Ellen. When she volunteered this assessment of herself, I asked myself how often my observations revealed the validity in her statement. I realized that, contrary to her self-appraisal, I had come to understand Ellen as a person who was often *very* symmetrical in her approach to teaching; someone who toed the line in an effort to earn affirmation and praise from others; someone who was conscious of the way her colleagues and administrators thought, and who went out of her way not to offend anyone.

So, what did this mean, this belief Ellen held about her self that she "wasn't symmetrical"? Hearing Ellen describe herself as someone who "thinks outside the box" forced me to reconsider some conclusions I had made about her teaching and to ask some new questions. It's true, there were many occasions when I observed the way Ellen's creative side motivated the way she organized instruction in her classroom, but in what circumstances did her life as an artist influence her life as a teacher? Her comment also pointed me to questions about the role of professional communities in teachers' lives. In how many communities did Ellen count herself a member? In what ways did these communities sustain her? In what ways did they *restrain* her? When Ellen testified that she wasn't a symmetrical thinker, was she talking only about her artistic style, or did she also describe her approach to teaching in this way?

I found the sticky note I needed to record Ellen's "symmetrical" comment and I pasted it onto my field notes from the retreat. I knew instantly that this nugget of insight into her thinking would put into relief much of what I had observed in Ellen's classroom and recorded in our interview sessions. The remark was a watershed in my collection and preliminary analysis of data. From this point on, I reviewed my data with greater awareness, and my ability to accurately code and categorize improved.

Throughout our year together, other insights provided by Ellen, and gleaned from the process of data analysis, broadened my vision of what was happening in her classroom. The particular anecdote provided above, however, is an effective introduction to my research findings for two reasons: First, it is a fine example of the emergent nature of qualitative research. I found throughout my study that being open to possibilities was crucial. I might have missed the implications of Ellen's "symmetrical" comment if I had closed my mind to multiple interpretations. Although I began researching with a focus on the potential relationship between teachers' beliefs and their design of reading instruction, I was compelled by what I saw and heard to think about beliefs as a factor in teachers' actions rather than the determinant. I learned to listen carefully and to consider the practical and metaphorical implications of participants' conversations and actions.

The story of buying beads is also a fitting beginning to chapter four because it introduces a side of Ellen that is fundamental to understanding her as a teacher. Ellen's artistic life supplies creativity in her teaching while providing an escape from the often draining demands of the profession. Once I recognized the power of the reciprocal relationship between both parts of Ellen's life, I began to explore how communities shape teachers' beliefs and actions.

This chapter describes the results of my analysis of Ellen's year-long experiment with reading strategy teaching. It begins with a profile of Ellen's professional background and the beliefs that infuse her approach to teaching. Next is a sketch of her classroom and the children she worked with during the year of this study. A report of her initial beliefs about reading instruction, before she began participating in the inquiry course, will precede a description of the evolution of her teaching as she began exploring comprehension strategies instruction. Finally, the chapter will present several episodes of Ellen's comprehension strategy instruction that establish her proficiency with the method.

The organization of chapter four is designed to build a portrait of Ellen that begins with her early thoughts about reading and teaching in general, and that illustrates what I believe was a successful exploration of strategy instruction. Throughout the chapter I offer my analysis of each section; in the conclusion, I describe how the conditions of a community are important for supporting, and sometimes inhibiting, Ellen's instruction.

When I began my study in the fall of 2001, I expected to collect data for three or four months. My decision to conduct a single-subject case study, however, changed my plans. I wanted to get to know Ellen as well as possible, and so, with her blessing, I extended my project. I worked with Ellen through the whole school year, and eventually into the summer of 2002, when I followed her out of her classroom and into the University where she was participating as a fellow in the Maine Writing Project. In our exit interview in May, Ellen reflected on her role as a teacher, an artist, and a study participant. She told me,

> I think I am a totally different person with you than I am with my students, than I am with my co-workers, than I am with another group--my town, maybe. You know, who I am in public is very different from who I am here. But I think that's part of being comfortable. You allow yourself to show pieces of you depending on where you are.

What follows is my understanding of the "pieces" of Ellen she allowed me to see.

Ellen's Story

"Coming full circle" is a fitting description of Ellen's professional background. Her path to becoming a fourth grade teacher at the Elm Street School started and ended just steps from her home. Tracing her route is interesting. After spending her twenties raising two children at home, Ellen enrolled at the University of Maine, at the age of 31. She pursued a double major in merchandising and consumer resources, which, she explains, "is a fancy name for home economics education," (September 18, 2001) and health education. When she graduated, she was offered a public health education position at the AIDS network in Bangor. Her responsibilities included "large group speaking and presentations to all kinds of groups around prevention and wellness education for people with HIV". The job was emotionally demanding. After a nine month period in which she witnessed the deaths of numerous AIDS patients, coupled with illness in her own family, Ellen began to re-think her career options. She knew she had always wanted to teach children, so she began exploring the hiring climate in area schools.

"The MAT program (at the University of Maine) looked and sounded like the only way I was going to get a classroom because home economic positions all over the state were being cut and health positions were hard to come by."

Ellen was accepted into the first cohort of students completing the MAT program in elementary education. During the internship phase of the program Ellen chose three grade levels to explore, first grade, fourth grade, and sixth grade, all in the Sullivan school district. Ellen remembers each of the placements well and believes all were ideal experiences in preparing her for her future classroom. She was well-regarded by university faculty who worked with her, and she earned excellent evaluations from the classroom teachers with whom she worked. Her success in the program is evidenced by the fact that she was offered a teaching position soon after graduation. The district was a long commute from her home, though, and after a year as a combination fourth/fifth grade teacher, Ellen took at job in the Sullivan district.

"I came here in September as a late hire, out of the blue, and because I lived two blocks away, this was perfect."

Not only was the Elm Street School geographically convenient, it was personally familiar. Both of Ellen's children attended the school, and Ellen had been an elementary school student at Elm Street. She told me, with only a trace of irony, "My children went to school here, I went to school here, so might as well teach here!"

Armed with a Master's degree, a year of teaching under her belt, and a desirable school site, Ellen returned to the place where her formal education began almost thirty-five years earlier. This time, though, she was on the other side of the teacher's desk.

On Teaching

When I began working with Ellen, she was starting her fourth year in the elementary school classroom. In our interviews, both formal and informal, I was deliberate in prompting Ellen to describe herself as a teacher. This information, I predicted, would help me identify the strong beliefs that grounded her practice; beliefs that might suggest how well-matched Ellen and strategy instruction would be.

I quickly learned that Ellen is passionate about her profession. One marker of her dedication is the time she spends reading and studying about teaching. Although she holds a double undergraduate major, and an earned MAT degree, Ellen continues to take graduate level courses to push her thinking. She told me, "I think if this is your job [teaching], and you really love what you do, and you really want the best things for your kids, you stay abreast of what's new. Even if you don't agree with it, you should be familiar with it." It was this regard for flexibility, her willingness to consider new ideas "whether she agrees with them or not", that prompted Ellen's decision to enroll in the professional development inquiry course offered on site by the University. Dissatisfied with the integrity of her reading program, Ellen decided that spending a school year exploring new ways to teach reading, especially reading comprehension in the content areas, was a smart use of her professional time.

Resiliency, the ability to recover from, or adjust easily to change (Merriam-Webster, 1989), is another attribute of Ellen's that supports her personal challenge to avoid professional stagnation. Ellen is a glass artist, a medium that would seem to be as unforgiving as possible.

And yet, as Ellen clarified in her learning autobiography for the National Writing Project,

> Glass, even at room temperature, is not a solid. Glass is a super cooled liquid . . . Just the idea that, as I look at this piece of glass, this seemingly hard, unpliable, rigid substance, the tiniest of molecules are edging their way around each other

> ever so slowly, reluctantly heeding the laws of gravity (Irwin, 2002, unpublished paper).

Ellen uses her experiences working with glass as a metaphor when explaining many of her teaching philosophies, especially resiliency. In an interview during the spring, I asked Ellen if her worlds ever collide, if her art and her teaching ever intersect. She was enthusiastic about this question, as though she had been waiting a long time for someone to ask her about the connection. She explained that yes, making glass beads and teaching were mutually supportive endeavors. In particular, her struggles as an artist were useful in helping her think about what it meant to "keep on keeping on". For example, in one conversation she explained what happens when a bead she has constructed breaks:

> You take the broken bead and you set it over here and you let it inspire you. You take what you liked from it and try to replicate it. You take what you don't like and try to eliminate it. You know, work with what you have, make it better. Let go of the stuff that doesn't work for you. Just let it go . . . It's part of being resilient and I think resilience is something every child needs to have. Because think about the things that go on during classroom--during the course of the day when they can be hurt so badly by somebody's words. And without that resilience they can't get past it. So it's just learning to deal with what you're dealt.

Ellen explained that she uses this model of perseverance when she talks with her students about writing. Art and writing, she reasoned,

> work both ways. When you're looking at that draft that you think is terrible, take out what you don't like. Keep what you do like and build on it. I think the

> whole key to it is taking the time to evaluate. To look at what's happening or to allow yourself to open up and feel what's happening and see what you can do to change it--or if you want to change it.

Indications of Ellen's ability to be resilient show up often in her teaching, particularly in the way she relates to her students. As I analyzed my field notes and interview transcriptions I was compelled to add a category 'On Humor' as a place to collect examples of the way Ellen uses wit to bounce back or tolerate the unexpected. Her comic habits fall into many categories. Most obvious is the fact that Ellen simply has a good sense of humor. During one inquiry course meeting in March, the group was talking about the impending data-analysis retreat at a well-known coastal resort. As the agenda was outlined, Ellen asked, "If we laminate our data, can we take it in the hot tub?"

Ellen's wit has more specific identifiable patterns as well. Most often, Ellen laughs at herself. For example, she once told me that Fluffy, the three-headed dog from Harry Potter, whose stuffed counterpart is always on display in Ellen's classroom, is her alter ego. "According to the children, that's who I become when they don't bring in their homework," Ellen explained.

Another time, Ellen sent an e-mail assuring me that my constant requests for more reflections about her teaching were not unwelcome. She wrote, "You need to stop apologizing for your questions. I think it's pretty neat that I am your "subject". You could always do another thesis for a degree in abnormal psychology and use the same text!"

She also revealed her sense of humor to her students' parents in a letter home at the beginning of the school year. After explaining her requirement that students have their homework assignment sheets signed each night, she wrote, “We talked about asking at appropriate times, not when your hands are in dishwater, changing diapers, or when you are still sleeping.”

Another time, Ellen had a good laugh, literally at her own expense, when it came to her attention that a student had borrowed one of her books from the classroom library, then tried to sell it at his family’s yard sale. Another colleague, who stopped by the sale and saw Ellen’s name inside the front cover, reported the contraband sighting. Ellen told me this story during a post-observation interview. When I asked what she did, she said, “Well, on Monday, during homeroom, I asked the class ‘Who had a yard sale last weekend?’ And the student’s hand goes up and I said, ‘Uh-huh. O.K.’ I didn’t call him on it, but . . .” With this story I learned that Ellen may be able to laugh easily at herself, but she is too sensitive to take advantage of a comic moment at the expense of a student.

Ellen also often uses humor to belie modesty about an achievement. In our exit interview, I asked her to imagine that a Hollywood producer wanted to make a movie of her experience with strategy teaching. I wanted her to choose scenes from the year to serve as highlights for the film’s promotional trailers.

S: Which scenes would you choose?

E: Hmm . . . Every single one of them.

In the same interview, I asked Ellen to describe “critical incidents” in her year, those events that were memorable because they pushed her thinking or her instructional planning. I explained that by pointing out these key episodes she would be saving me time in my data analysis. Ellen replied, “Not a problem. When you publish, I’ll take my percent. I’m just glad you’re not asking me for titles!”

Ellen's use of humor is not indiscriminate. During my analysis, I realized that the more comfortable she is with a person, the more funny she is. With her students, this is apparent in the difference between her affect in the beginning of the school year, which is quite staid, and her gradual relaxing into a more casual mood, one that tolerates jokes about age at her own expense, or comparisons between her disciplinary style and a vicious three-headed canine.

In my relationship with Ellen, the same pattern held true. Her early conversations and e-mails were the model of propriety. She used plenty of research jargon, apologized for what she perceived as weakness in her teaching, and even confessed to having "read up on" guided reading techniques in anticipation of our first interview. By April, the mood had changed. The following e-mail received on April 3 is an example.

> Hey Suzy Q--Do you hate that? I have a cousin named Susan and when we were kids if I really wanted to tick her off I'd call her Suzy Q. Of course with you, I say it in a good way. I can't imagine you ticked at anyone . . . okay, maybe a diaper. hehe.

The fact that our relationship had evolved enough to allow Ellen's playful dialogue is significant not only of her humorous nature, but also of the role feeling comfortable plays in her teaching. I offered the preceding examples of Ellen's sense of humor as a way to reinforce her easy-going approach to teaching, but during my coding of the data, another category that emerged, with entries that often overlapped with humor, was 'On Comfort'. In our interviews, I regularly asked Ellen how she judged a teaching episode's success. Her answers consistently included recognition of the way the lesson felt to her "inside". Being comfortable is an important gauge for Ellen. To determine a lesson's success, she uses both the reactions of her students, as well as her instincts about what "feels right".

One of the more global examples of Ellen's quest to feel comfortable in order to support a successful teaching experience is her decision to accept a position at her neighborhood elementary school. "After teaching in Troy for a year," Ellen told me, "I came here [to the Sullivan district] the next year, in September, as a late hire, out of the blue, and because I lived two blocks away this was perfect." In addition to the convenience of eliminating a commute, Ellen was happy to return home because she feels invested in her community, and she believes her knowledge of the families in the district will help her serve their children better.

Ellen also uses the comfort meter to help her make educational decisions. In our first interview, I asked Ellen to describe her pre-service internship experience, specifically in regard to reading instruction. She explained that she had had three valuable placements with teachers who were very different in their approach to teaching reading. Ellen described the benefit of being introduced to different instructional styles:

> There's a certain comfort level being able to understand both sides of the story because you can discuss either side or somewhere in the middle with all of your colleagues. And being a new teacher, that made me feel more comfortable than to have to take sides, which I know sounds strange.

This explanation highlights two characteristics of Ellen's teaching. First, her belief that finding a pedagogical middle ground is a desirable place from which to teach; second, that Ellen avoids conflict. This second attribute is a category of its own, one I named 'On being a good girl', which I discuss in a subsequent section describing Ellen's beliefs about community. For now, suffice it to say, Ellen ensures a comfortable collegial environment by being sensitive to the attitudes and teaching styles of her professional peers and steering clear of conversations that might offend or threaten a teacher's educational doctrine. Again, I discuss Ellen's "good girl" tendencies in the concluding section of this chapter.

When Ellen talks about her daily work with students, the importance of comfort is also apparent. In February, Ellen made a radical decision to eliminate reading log prompts, a staple of her reading program. She felt like the questions she expected students to answer in response to their reading were too restrictive and her work with strategy instruction suggested that the class was ready for more freedom in choosing how to respond. (A more detailed description of this episode is also provided in a subsequent section.)

When I checked in with Ellen, several weeks after the purging of the reading response prompts, she was enthusiastic. She believed the students' reactions to their reading were more genuine, and she observed the quality of their talk about books improving, too. In January, she told me,

> When I say that their reading responses have improved, all of that, is sort of intuitive observation, but their writing about their reading is better. Their literature circle conversations are more--are higher level. It feels good. Doing the lesson it feels really good. You just get this pit in the--you know, this feeling in the pit of your stomach when things aren't going well. And then when things are going really well, it just changes the whole atmosphere of the room. And it's really been good. The atmosphere is good. I feel good. I think the kids are enjoying it. So that's my gauge. My gut.

Ellen also sets goals for her students based on how an outcome feels to her. She is less concerned, in some cases, with tangible assessments. Instead, she considers the students' emotional connection with their learning ample evidence of her success. In relation to reading, Ellen explained, "My goal is for them to love reading and to know that it's not just a thing that happens in a classroom. So I know it's not measurable . . . It's how I feel good about myself. It's my bonus."

In this section on Ellen's overall approach to teaching, I have described her passion for the profession, her belief in resiliency as the foundation for good learning and living, the role art plays in thinking about teaching, the way humor defines her interaction with students and colleagues, and the importance of comfort as a measure of instructional validity and success. And while these qualities are key components in her practice, one of the most crucial, deserving its own code, is Ellen's relationship with her students. Below I describe the environment she creates for her students in the organization of the classroom, then I examine the nature of Ellen's interaction with her students.

The Classroom

At the time of my study, Ellen was beginning her third year with the Sullivan district as a fourth grade teacher. My first visit was a scheduled after-school interview, and while I waited for Ellen to get prepared, I recorded my impressions about the environment in my field notes.

> September 18, 2001
>
> I am struck by the orderliness of the room, but it isn't a traditional kind of orderliness that ignores the presence of students. Instead, the room is neatly arranged in such a way that what Ellen has on her walls is noticeable, as though

> the items were carefully chosen to occupy the space, and not simply thrown up to fill the walls, add color, or overstimulate the audience.
>
> I have a sense of calm about the room. Books are nicely arranged, in places where kids can easily access them, and they're labeled by genre. There are curtains on the windows which adds a homey feeling to the room; the back table is filled with a bank of iMac computers. There is a science display in the front of the room filled with books and objects related to insect study. Ellen's desk is hardly noticeable on the east side of the room, buried in books, papers and plastic trays that hold student work. She has an iBook. The desks all face forward, in rows ,with a space down the middle for easy movement in and out of the rows. The desks face a large wipeboard that is covered with Ellen's writing; the agenda of the day, homework assignments for the evening, scraps of lessons from the day not completely erased, a list of student names, reminders about permission slips and lunch money. It's the end of the day, the last student has just left, and this place is remarkably neat.

The atmosphere in Ellen's room remained pleasant and calm throughout the many visits I made. I learned that the well-groomed space was not a quirk, nor was it the result of a quick cleaning session in anticipation of my arrival. Ellen craves order and is able to maintain it, along with a welcoming sense of style, in her classroom. She is conscientious about regularly changing the visuals around the room to add different colors and attractions. Student work plays a prominent role on bulletin boards once the year is underway. She regularly rotates books in the "New Books" basket and decorations matched the season.

One thing that did not change, during the times I visited, is the arrangement of desks in rows facing forward. Ellen explained her rationale for the static desk arrangement in a conversation with several MAT interns who had just visited her room. When they asked how she makes the decision about desk placement, Ellen explained that the arrangement sometimes changed, but that basically her class that year needed forward facing desks. She said she didn't think they were ready for more liberal arrangements based on her experiments with different formats (March 14, 2002).

Although I did not observe on days when Ellen experimented with different desk configurations, I did note that students were frequently re-positioned around the room to minimize disruption. Also, when students worked in small groups, they dispersed throughout the room, sometimes rearranging themselves at partners' desks, or working in a quiet corner . During one writing workshop, several pairs of students inhabited the area under the table of computers in the back of the room. Ellen invited this use of the room as long as the noise level stayed respectful and student groupings were industrious.

Ellen's comment to the MAT intern, that "basically the group needed forward facing desks," is indicative of her evaluation of the group she taught that year. The following section will describe this fourth grade class, including Ellen's assessment of them, and my impressions from observations.

The Class

Ellen's opinion of her fourth graders at the beginning of the year was guarded. With little information from the previous year's third grade teachers about the twenty-one kids she inherited, Ellen was learning that she had a wide range of academic abilities in her homeroom. She explained that this was typical of most year's groups, but that this year she had a student who could not write, which was a first for her. Her general feeling about her entering students was that until fourth grade, students had been coddled too much, particularly in the area of report cards. Before fourth grade students earned S for satisfactory or U for unsatisfactory in respect to their academic progress in each subject area. In fourth grade, students earned traditional grades for the first time and for many it was a shock.

> Fourth grade is the first time they get letter grades instead of satisfactory, needs work, unsatisfactory. So a child may have had all S+'s her whole career and then she comes to fourth grade and she gets a C. Holy cow! We're the demons!

Ellen felt like this primary school naivete permeated the current class's consciousness. As a result, she saw as one of her goals the need to support her students in becoming more independent learners during their fourth grade year. During many of my observations, I saw Ellen working toward this end. She had high expectations for the class, often citing their noisy behavior or lack of listening skills during discussions. There are several places in my field notes that indicate my disagreement with Ellen's assessment of the group's behavior. I was constantly impressed by how studious they were during work time. Ellen had only to start counting out loud, a behavior management technique designed to hasten transitions between learning activities, and the class quieted quickly.

I also frequently noticed how courteous the students were to each other. For example, one day, a student said, "That's a great idea, Jon!" in response to a classmate's contribution to a group discussion. On another day, my field notes captured the following incident:

> 3/13/02
>
> I am again struck by the kindness between students. When they come in from recess, one boy stops to tell me that they were playing Knock Out and he

> explains the rules. As he's walking away, another classmate, a girl, passes him and he says, "Great playing, Kelsey." It's a comment offered nonchalantly, with no concern for whether Kelsey appreciates the compliment. In fact, she doesn't acknowledge it verbally, but a little smile appears on her face which shows her appreciation for the recognition.

The students' kindnesses extended beyond their classmates, with my often being the recipient of their attentions as well. Every time I visited, I was greeted warmly, and by my third visit, when I entered the room, a student would scramble to find me a chair. The kids were curious about my work and often volunteered to set up my tape recorder or video camera. One morning, after a videotaping session, a boy asked if he could label the tape for me. He did, taking dictation about the title of the observation, the date and the time.

All of these behaviors were, as far as I could tell, unprompted by Ellen. (Although she did write the scheduled dates of my visits on the large class calendar that recorded events of group interest, beyond this, I don't think she raised kids' level of concern about my presence.) And while initially I noted these gracious episodes with more amusement than research curiosity, I began to recognize that the way the students related to one another, and the relationship between Ellen and her students, was a factor in their successful reading strategy experience. I will discuss this connection more in subsequent sections.

When I talked with Ellen about my observations of her students, some of which contradicted her assessment of them, she held firm in her belief that the class could reach greater heights of learning decorum. She agreed, however, with my opinion that students in the class were respectful and kind to one another. She explained that the district's involvement in "The Community of Caring" program was responsible for this healthy mood and that she tried to integrate the five principles of family, caring, responsibility, respect and trust at every opportunity.

Ellen's high expectations for her students might be misinterpreted as the sign of a traditional classroom with strict attention to the rules in service of an orderly learning environment. This interpretation would be inaccurate, though. Ellen's insistence on a well-run classroom was matched by her determination to share herself with her students, and in turn, to become familiar with each of them. She believed that an environment with consistent guidelines fostered a sense of trust that supported the special kind of classroom rapport she wanted to establish, a mood that I termed "formal intimacy". Ellen easily shared personal information about herself with her students, but her "confessions" were limited to details that advanced learning goals. She was intimate with her students, but always within professional boundaries. When I asked her to characterize the kind of relationship she has with her students, she included some aspirations as well as realities.

> I would like my students to be inspired by me. I would like them to understand that I care about them . . . I hope that they remember me. So as far as a relationship, I don't know if there's a way to categorize that. It's just who I am as a teacher. I do share things about my own life with them. And I think they share a lot with me. If I had more time to do things one-on-one I think I'd be closer with them. But I think I'm probably a little closer to my kids than most teachers . . .

Ellen was able to trace the roots of her approach to student-teacher interaction to an undergraduate course in human development. During our exit interview, I asked her to reflect on this experience.

S: You once told me that a human development professor told you, “Be firm, fair, but not familiar.”

E: Right. And I don’t know that I still agree. I agreed earlier. And I think her definition of familiar was not to let your students in too much on your own life. And I think that dehumanizes you. So with my kids, the relationship I have with them, I wouldn’t call me their friend, but I would like them to understand that I care about them. Now I don’t know what kind of a relationship that is.

Despite her inability to label the exact type of relationship she worked toward with her students, Ellen was deliberate about cultivating familiarity. An articulate description of the effects of strong relationship building, which may capture what Ellen intends in her classroom, is offered by Cardwell (2002) who writes about the power of teachers’ storytelling.

> When teachers share their own personal narratives with their students, in service to their students’ academic achievement and emotional development, they offer children a model of how to simultaneously manage closeness and vulnerability in an academic setting. [This approach] also elicits teachers’ need to maintain enough emotional distance so that the stories that teachers tell respond to children’s needs. A key aspect of remaining clear is for each teacher to maintain a boundary between his or her private stories and those stories that are available, as resources, to their students . . . To do this, teachers need to develop a repertoire of strategies so that the classroom is emotionally safe enough for children to take the intellectual risks necessary to learn new academic material (p. 84).

The results of Ellen’s efforts to create a safe intellectual environment were visible during my visits to her classroom. For example, during my first classroom observation, Ellen was launching her inaugural strategy lesson on making connections (schema). She began the class by asking the students if they remembered that she was taking a class through the University. The chorus of "Yes's" that followed indicated they had heard this before. One girl added, in a sing-song fashion, "You're learning about how to teach us to read better."

"That's right," Ellen responded.

"Because you think you can do a better job in reading class because you've been studying about ways that other teachers do it," the same girl continued.

"Did I say that?" Ellen asked.

"Yeah," a boy confirmed, "You said that we were going to learn more about reading because you were going to get better at teaching it."

After this conversation, Ellen caught my eye and grinned sheepishly, a look that said, "See, I'm an indiscriminate discloser with my students, too!"

Later in the year, during an observation in February, Ellen was presenting a lesson on questioning. She wanted the kids to understand that good readers ask questions before, during and after they read, questions that sometimes have answers, and some that do not. She assured the kids that even though she had a lot of experience reading, she still always had questions. There were even times, she told them, when she didn't understand what she read and had to work hard to comprehend. She imagined aloud what the kids might be thinking, "Wow, she's ancient, she's a dinosaur, and she's still having trouble reading, and this is how she's going to solve the problem. All on her own."

Ellen's willingness and ability to talk with her students about her own learning process is a constructive example of her openness with them. During our exit interview we had a conversation about this practice of admitting intellectual or professional weakness.

S: So what happens if your kids are thinking, "She's having trouble reading?" How do you deal with that? Do you think your kids are questioning your intelligence, or your credibility as a teacher?

E: I tell them I'm not Einstein, and even Einstein probably had trouble reading at some point in his life, that it's a very human thing and you hopefully continue reading all of your life, right down to the day before you cross that line. That I want to learn, that I like to learn new things, and if I'm having trouble reading it may be because it's something that's unfamiliar to me. It might be something that I don't like. I might not be focused. I might not be using my skills, and that's a big one. So I can say to the kids, "Okay. So I'm going to sit down and read this a little bit more, re-read," (which is a great thing for the kids to see me do), "and ask myself some questions and see if I can answer them." So it's fine. I think the kids know that I make lots of mistakes. I don't know everything.

S: You're cool with that?

E: I'm okay with that.

Ellen's explanation of how she rationalizes being vulnerable with her students is revealing. It suggests an important condition in the strategy teaching approach that I had not considered before, that is, the kind of intellectual relationships a teacher encourages in the classroom. If strategy teaching is a social-constructivist enterprise, grounded in the apprenticeship model which requires the more capable other to make her thinking visible, then the ability of learners in this partnership to tolerate ambiguity is key. Students need to be comfortable with the uncovering of their teachers' thinking processes, even when this display may reveal that a teacher is sometimes confused, underinformed, or otherwise lacking in cognitive performance. A student who expects his teacher to "know it all" will be uncomfortable with an apprenticeship approach. Similarly, teachers must be content with the effects of making their thinking visible. Ellen was candid when she made her reading behavior evident to her students. She presented occasions when she did not understand the context, had never heard of a word before, or was confused about a character's motive. Had she been unwilling to appear vulnerable in front of the class, much of the power of the method would have been lost. In fact, I doubt she would have been successful at all.

I have taken time to offer a profile of Ellen's teaching philosophy, her classroom design, and her relationship with her students in an effort to provide a backdrop for looking more closely at her practice as a reading teacher. This history provides a necessary context for evaluating her experience and identifying implications for further research.

A review of the key points described above shows that Ellen's self-exploration of her reading behaviors convinced her that using a strategy approach to comprehension instruction was a wise instructional decision. The fact that this method required direct explanation and modeling of reading behavior played to Ellen's strengths as a teacher. Not only is she a gifted speaker who effectively makes her thinking visible to her students, she also values a kind of relationship with her class that is enhanced by a strategies approach. Because she naturally shared her interests and curiosities with her students, and expected them to do the same with her and among themselves, discussions of reading habits simply extended the kinds of academic conversations she encouraged.

The characteristics of Ellen's overall philosophy of good teaching, which I have related above, suggest that many of the conditions necessary for using a comprehension strategy approach were in place, including an awareness of her own reading processes, a kind of academic relationship with her students that allowed uncertainty, and a belief in the social-constructivist notion of the learning apprenticeship. Strategy teaching was a good fit for Ellen. And yet, although many of the basic ways of thinking required by a strategy approach were evident before she began her inquiry into reading instruction, she constructed new knowledge that helped her revise her teaching. The next section of this chapter will describe Ellen's process of making strategy instruction part of her reading program.

On Teaching Reading: The Evolution

In our first interview, Ellen was not hesitant to share her feelings of inadequacy as a reading teacher. "I don't think I'm doing a good job," she confessed. "I really see that my reading program has a long way to go." She continued, "My reading instruction has pretty much been nonexistent before this year. You know, I tried a bit last year using some Scholastic resources, and I don't think I had the background that I needed to teach the strategies."

Despite believing that her reading program was underdeveloped, Ellen was quick to answer my question about what reading instruction looked like on a typical day.

E: O.K. Well, I do twenty to thirty minutes of independent reading, silent reading, DEAR [Drop Everything And Read] time. And they write--respond in their reading response journals. At this point, I'm asking them for a half a page or a *good* sized paragraph. Later on it will be longer.

S: This happens every day after DEAR?

E: Not everyday. Probably three times a week. I may, not every day, do a minilesson on what I'm noticing . . . I like to try to connect reading lessons to writing. I don't always do a great job, but I try.

Ellen's approach to reading instruction was markedly "hands-off". By her own admission, she was not *teaching* reading, she was *assigning* reading. In a letter home to parents at the beginning of the school year, she described her reading guidelines:

> Our reading program involves several components, including reading logs, book projects, and reading response journals . . . I will ask students to read from a particular genre each month (September is biographies). Once they have completed their book, they will hand in a reading log and I will assign a book project. These vary from month to month and the children may sometimes choose from a variety of activities. These activities are straightforward and quickly done, not major productions.

Ellen had interpreted the reading workshop model to mean independent selection of reading material, sustained silent reading time, and independent writing in response to the reading. Generally, Ellen was the audience for students' reflections about their books, although she did introduce literature circles toward the end of the school year. When I asked Ellen to describe the content of minilessons, she explained that they were usually offered to the whole group, based on a functional reading behavior such as taking notes on nonfiction writing or finding information to answer questions. She tried to circulate during DEAR time meeting with each student "ideally once a week" in a quick conference about their progress.

Ellen's interactions with her students around reading, according to our conversation in September, were primarily evaluative. She did very little instruction about how to become a better reader, and instead spent time assessing students' weaknesses which she tried to address in individual meetings. She worried every year that her fourth graders were not capable enough readers to handle the material they were expected to use as part of the curriculum, particularly in the content areas. A comment Ellen made about her students' reading abilities demonstrates the premium she put on being able to answer questions as an indication of achievement.

E: Honestly, I think kids are being spoonfed too much. They're not learning to read instructions and follow them because we're rephrasing, we're restating, we're answering questions. [When kids read] they just glaze over the words, go to the question, and try to answer the question.

Inherent in her complaint is the fact that Ellen was doing a lot of assigning, questioning, and evaluating as an approach to reading instruction, a pattern illuminated and quantified in Durkin's (1979-80) study of reading comprehension instruction in the 1970's. It is awkward to paint this unflattering portrait of Ellen's existing reading program. Yet, understanding where she began when I started this study will serve as an important touchstone to measure the significant changes she made both in her thinking and her instructional organization.

What is particularly surprising about Ellen's impoverished design of reading instruction in the beginning of the year is the fact that she named "enjoyment of reading" as her primary goal for her students. She told me,

> My goal is for them to love reading and to know that it's not just a thing that happens in a classroom . . . It thrills me to see them get excited about reading without me saying, you know, "Go get that book and sit down and read it" . . . [Enjoyment] is like a level of comprehension. You could comprehend a piece of

text if you're not enjoying it. Obviously lots of us don't enjoy textbooks, but we can comprehend them, we can pass the test. But are you going to reach that peak level of comprehension?

While Ellen's formal reading instruction probably did not foster a spirit of enjoyment around reading, her daily read aloud sessions did.

E: I think reading aloud is--I would never give that up. It's my favorite time of the day . . . I absolutely love it. And I can tell you, on the days when I've had to forgo it, I go home miserable. It just makes a big difference in the way my day goes because you can watch their faces and see them comprehending. You can hear the little giggles and, you know, the kids going, "Oh, I know what's gonna happen next!" It's like truly interacting, being part of a book with the kids.

Ellen "counted" read aloud time as part of her instructional plan for reading. In general, she chose books that would entertain her students, would connect with their lives, but she was also conscientious about using books that supported the Community of Caring ideals, and eventually, that offered opportunities for extending strategy instruction. When I observed Ellen's read aloud sessions, I noted the difference in the mood compared to the flavor of the room during general reading instruction. The kids sat on the floor around the rocking chair where Ellen sat to read. She began by asking for a volunteer to summarize what had been happening in their book so far and she solicited kids' predictions about what might happen next. She regularly paused in her reading to think aloud about what was going through her head, and to take comments from her listeners. I observed Ellen read aloud three times as part of my classroom visits, and each time she had the students' complete attention.

In retrospect, by thinking about Ellen's approach to read aloud, I can see she was leaving clues that predicted her eventual attraction to a strategy approach to teaching reading. The rest of her existing program was only a red herring. Her underdeveloped approach to many components of her reading instruction suggested that Ellen might balk at the requirements of strategy teaching. Yet, she held certain fundamental beliefs about reading, manifested in the way she actively engaged her students in books during read aloud time, that forecasted she would connect naturally with reading strategy instruction.

The Inquiry Course

Ellen was not unaware of the weaknesses in her reading program. In our exit interview in May, she recalled, "[Before this year] I was under the mistaken impression that by fourth grade teachers didn't need to do reading instruction. Maybe I thought, 'O.K. They should do it but it's low on the list of things that we have to do.' So it was not very high on my list of priorities. It was really low."

By the beginning of her fourth year of teaching, Ellen was having difficulty maintaining her belief that fourth graders should know how to read by the time they entered her classroom. She was looking to make some changes, and when the inquiry course was advertised, she quickly signed up, hoping the experience would provide a foundation she felt was lacking in her design of reading instruction. Ellen's reflections about the course, in-progress and after its completion, suggest that the experience lived up to her expectations. Her assessment of the integrity of the course also speaks to one of the essential questions I planned to explore in this study: How do teachers know? As a researcher, I was grateful to the course for instigating Ellen's reflective insights about the way her thinking about reading was changing.

The most significant pattern that emerged from hearing Ellen describe her course experience was that the bi-monthly meetings provided invaluable resources for teaching reading. This was an important criteria Ellen used to judge the value of a professional development experience. When I asked her during an interview in the spring to describe effective staff development she told me the perfect experience should offer ideas that were "immediately useful in the classroom because if I find it's not immediately useful, I take my notes or my materials or whatever was given and it goes in my file and I never get to try it." This attitude suggests that for Ellen, doing is knowing, that is, through the application of ideas to classroom practice she builds her knowledge. In Peirce's hierarchy of beliefs fixation, Ellen would be placed at the inquiry level.

For Ellen, another of the most salient components of the course were clips from a series of professional videotapes, developed from the book Strategies that Work, showing elementary school teachers enacting strategy instruction in their own rooms. Ellen remembered, "The videotapes . . . they were short clips, maybe only fifteen or twenty minutes, but it was enough so that you really got a sense of what was going on. And [strategy instruction] felt doable. You could see how [the featured teacher] was interacting with the kids and it wasn't staged." Again, the value Ellen places on seeing theory in action, in realistic settings, speaks to the question of epistemology. Action is the primary means of knowing for Ellen. In this case, by allowing her thinking to be influenced by a distant mentor (the teacher on the videotape whom Ellen recognized and respected) she was grounding her beliefs about strategy instruction from an authority in the field. Again, Peirce's system of beliefs fixation recognizes this effect. But for Ellen, watching someone else teach was not sufficient evidence of instructional potential. The videotape prompted further interest in the approach, but to truly understand its implications Ellen needed to attempt strategy instruction in her own classroom.

The year-long design of the inquiry course earned another stamp of approval from Ellen. Staff development, she explained, “should be something that’s not just a one-day, one-shot thing. I really think that’s when the papers go in the back of the file, because what can you learn in one day?” Offering a metaphor to illustrate her criticism of short-term professional development opportunities, Ellen said, “it’s like getting an hors d’oeurve rather than the full meal.”

Another reason the inquiry course was valuable for Ellen, and this feature was largely due to the year-long duration of the course, was the opportunity to hear feedback about her new instructional experiences. Ellen believes that good staff development “should allow plenty of time for people to interact with people who have already had this training, as well as your colleagues . . . And then you need to have somebody give you some feedback on how it worked.”

While the course sessions were designed to include at least thirty minutes of peer de-brief time, during which teachers met in small groups to discuss the progress of their inquiries, it is important to note that for Ellen, it was my regular presence in her classroom that made the difference for her. This fact was made most apparent in e-mail messages Ellen sent in response to questions I would ask about a classroom observation period. In November, Ellen wrote about the experience reflecting on her practice through e-mail exchanges. “I am really enjoying this. I was very anxious, but now I see how much your feedback can help me. Thanks!“

In an April e-mail, Ellen again confirmed the benefit of our collaboration. "Your feedback is always helpful. Reflecting on my work becomes easier when you ask me questions because you ask me questions that set me to thinking."

And in June, when I asked Ellen to describe her perfect staff development experience, and then to compare these criteria to the inquiry course design, she wrote,

> The comprehension/inquiry class was pretty darn close to the perfect staff training . . . The freedom that [the facilitators] encouraged was great. I felt comfortable taking risks and trying new things. The part that made the "trying out" so great was you! When I think about that class, and the things that happened in my classroom because of it, the piece that made the difference was having someone to reflect with. I know that didn't happen for everyone . . .

Perhaps the most obvious acknowledgement of the role I played in Ellen's work during my research project was a comment she made in an e-mail in May toward the end of our collaboration. She wrote,

> Thank you for your valuable advice [this year]. I really do appreciate it. I have an idea for another thesis. What about looking at how visits like yours, or visits from a doctoral student or master teacher, impact a teacher and the classroom? It really has been very positive.

There are two ways to interpret Ellen's enthusiasm for the effect of my participation on her work: One, Ellen's colleagues in the course were not a source of support; two, the attention I devoted to Ellen's work precluded her need, or perhaps even ability to depend on professional peers for feedback. I believe the latter is true, and here is a limitation of the single case study approach. Had I included in my sample other teachers taking the inquiry course, I would have more evidence to examine where participants found support for their work. With only Ellen as my study subject, however, I base my hypothesis about the benefits of one-on-one support for instructional change on the literature. In chapter two I described the "observation/assessment" model of staff development. In summary, this approach to professional development assumes that a) reflection by a teacher about his or her practice can be strengthened by another's observation; b) observation and assessment can benefit both involved parties; and c) when teachers see results from their efforts to change, they are more likely to stay engaged with a professional development effort (Sparks and Loucks-Horsley, 1990, p. 237). In addition, Joyce and Showers (1983) found that "continuous practice, feedback, and *the companionship of coaches* is essential to enable even highly motivated persons to bring additions to their repertoire under effective control [italics added]" (p. 4).

My recurring visits to Ellen's classroom, our post-observation dialogues, and the e-mail messages we exchanged produced the positive benefits inherent in an observation/assessment model. The focused attention on her practice was flattering to Ellen. "Can I admit something shameful?" she wrote in April. "I think all your attention is going to my head. Honestly, it's quite a thing to have someone interested in your opinions, ideas, etc." Ellen's response to the effects of our work together suggests that she was empowered by our collaboration to take risks in her reading instruction.

In trying to understand how the effect of coaching and diagloue around teaching influenced Ellen's ways of knowing, I realized that Peirce's model of beliefs fixation may be lacking. Although a case could be made for reflection being a part of the inquiry approach, I believe pedagogical talk deserves its own category. From a social-constructivist point of view, talk is the essential epistemology or way of knowing. Ellen's experience reflects this point. The importance of feedback and the opportunity to reflect on her practice with an informed, interested colleague were significant factors in Ellen's understanding of comprehension instruction.

It is important to note that Ellen did use colleagues in the inquiry course as a source of feedback. For example, Ellen worked closely with a woman named Vivian who taught third grade in the room next to hers. They regularly sat together during small group discussions in the inquiry course, and on one occasion, Vivian made time in her schedule to visit Ellen's classroom during a strategy lesson. Vivian explained, during an inquiry course session, that she was using "all those reading strategies", but she wanted to learn more, and knowing that Ellen was enthusiastic about the success she was having with the approach, she asked to observe during a reading lesson.

Vivian and I observed Ellen teach a lesson about questioning on the same day, and although Vivian had to leave before the lesson was over, I captured some of her reactions to Ellen's lesson, after the fact, in a progress conference Vivian had with the inquiry course facilitators. Vivian began the session by announcing that she needed to make adjustments in her classroom at her own pace and she resisted pressure to move more quickly than was comfortable for her. She told the facilitators that she appreciated what she had seen in Ellen's classroom during her observation, but that her students were not ready for that kind of instruction yet. Her instructional priority was helping her students summarize their reading, and in Vivian's experience, the basal readers were the best resource for supporting the development of this skill. Vivian acknowledged that she knew her methods were not as progressive as Ellen's, but they worked for her.

Vivian's visit to Ellen's classroom was a positive sign that teachers recognized the value of learning from each other about new practices, an attitude of professional collaboration whose value cannot be overstated. Yet Vivian's gentle dismissal of Ellen's experiment with strategy teaching, as an approach that was "not right" for her at the time, shelved the potential for this partnership to be a source of support for Ellen's work. Vivian and Ellen continued to talk together in the inquiry course, to question and offer advice, but the affiliation was limited to conversation. The collapse of the burgeoning research partnership may have made my role in Ellen's progress even more significant.

The benefits of our collaboration were only possible because Ellen's learning in the inquiry course was meaningful to her. The translation from course discoveries to classroom practice happened quickly, and by November, Ellen's instruction was already feeling the effects of her learning. In an interview after I observed a lesson on questioning, Ellen said, '"This stuff is a complete 180 for me. I realize now that I was just assigning the reading and telling the kids what to do with it when they were done. I wasn't doing any reading instruction."

In January, Ellen reflected again on how traditional and unsophisticated her reading program had been , and she acknowledged the significance of what she was learning through the inquiry course on the way she designed reading instruction.

> I didn't teach much about reading my first couple of years teaching. We read the books, we wrote a report, we got the grade. I didn't teach them how to read . . . I wasn't even aware of the need. Now I see it. I was really missing the boat.

In our exit interview in May she recalled,

> I was under the mistaken impression that by fourth grade teachers didn't need to do reading instruction. Maybe I thought, 'O.K. They should do it but it's low on the list of things that we have to do.' So it was not very high on my list of priorities. It was really low . . . But now that I've had a taste of what it's like to

> do a good job, I see that it really has made a difference. I really feel like it's made a difference with these kids.

The course illuminated for Ellen how powerful strategy instruction was. As I continued to think about the question of how teachers know, I realized that in Ellen's case, the evidence of interaction between Peirce's authority and inquiry approaches to beliefs fixation suggested that trying to identify a teacher's way of knowing by assigning her a distinct label was deficient. Adding a new category, talk, as a way to know, further complicated his paradigm. Ellen's experience offers a different way of thinking about how teachers acquire pedagogical knowledge. Her interest in observing, doing, and talking as ways of knowing points to the importance of viewing epistemology from an integrated perspective. Peirce's beliefs hierarchy is a useful heuristic, but trying to categorize teachers according to its discrete categories may ignore the complex, overlapping factors that affect teachers' thinking.

Inside the Classroom

So, Ellen was talking the talk about strategy instruction, admitting to weaknesses in her previous approach to teaching reading, singing the praises of the inquiry course, expressing delight in our work together. The question that remained was "How did her enthusiasm play out in her instructional actions?" My observations of her lesson planning and delivery of instruction, combined with our interviews and e-mail exchanges, validated the contribution the course, and our exclusive partnership, was making to her teaching. As early as October, Ellen was introducing reading strategy lessons so successfully that an uninformed observer might assume she had a long-standing familiarity with the approach, when in fact, she had less than a four week relationship with the intervention. The scenes offered below illustrate Ellen's proficiency with teaching her students how to think like expert readers when they read.

Ellen launched her inaugural strategy lesson on October 19. She chose to begin with activating schema after reading a chapter describing this strategy in *Mosaic of Thought*. When I arrived to observe, the children were working at their desks on editing exercises and math problems. Ellen transitioned to the strategy lesson by asking the kids to meet her at the front of the room, sitting on the rug, the way they gathered for read aloud time. To my observational delight, within the first few moments of her opening lesson, she experienced some classic comprehension teaching moments. Ellen opened the lesson with a question, "What's the hardest part about reading journals?" Several students responded.

Student A: Some people just don't like to write.

Student B: It's not hard for me, I just don't like to do it.

Student C: I can never remember what I read.

E: What we're going to learn about is the way we think and the way we think when we read. What do you think about when you read?

Student A: I don't really think. I just get away from where I am and I just get lost in the book.

E: What do you think helps you get lost in the book?

Student E: I don't concentrate on the book. I just keep reading and reading and reading. This is hard to explain.

E: It's going to get easier as we practice.

The students' comments were bold indications that her efforts to help them be metacognitive about their reading were not going to be in vain. Student E, a boy who is a proficient reader, did not believe he thought when he read. He did not recognize, and therefore could not verbalize, the strategies he used that helped him understand his book and "get lost in it." Hearing this student explain that he doesn't think when he reads gave Ellen a benchmark against which she could measure their progress throughout the year.

The lesson continued with Ellen explaining that schema meant connecting. She wrote the word schema on the board and told the class, "We're going to learn about this word. It's a word I don't think any of your teachers have ever talked about before." She then held up a book by Mem Fox titled Wilfred Gordon McDonald Partridge explaining to the class that she had chosen it because it's an all-time favorite of hers. She covered the title of the book, but kept the cover illustration visible, while the class guessed what the book was about. After some discussion, they decide it has something to do with old people and they shared what they already knew about the elderly.

Student G: I have a prediction. I think it's about a boy who helps his Grandma with the babysitting.

E: What you just did was open your mind up and you found out that you have some schema. You have some information already about old people. What I'm going to do is read this book, and then I'm going to re-read it, and I'm going to show you what a good reader does. I'm going to open up my head and I'm going to try to show you how I make connections.

With only two inquiry course meetings behind her, and a single reading of a chapter in a professional book about reading strategy teaching, Ellen was demonstrating a facility with making her thinking visible, one of the linchpins in effective strategy instruction. I was struck in all my subsequent observations by the ease with which she incorporated this metacognitive technique into her teaching. As noted earlier, "opening up her head" and talking about her thinking was a social-constructivist habit Ellen already embraced in her classroom. She encouraged an intellectual relationship with her students that valued inquiry even when the inquiry depended on revealing a vulnerability as the starting point of learning. Ellen's students did not need to adjust to hearing their teacher suddenly start sharing her thinking with them; it was a familiar verbal routine. With this prevailing climate of conversation, much of the foundation of strategy teaching was already in place.

The first schema lesson was successful, in Ellen's estimation. In an e-mail message I asked her to reflect on the lesson. In her response she wrote,

> What was I thinking as I read to the group? I worried that it was taking too long. I was afraid I would lose them, especially when I started the re-read. I was also mentally checking off the connections I would be making naturally. I wanted it to seem as natural as possible. (This is neat to reflect on! This thinking about thinking is almost as new to me as it is to the kids.) I was also thinking, "Why didn't anyone teach me this when I was a kid?"

I also asked her to consider what surprised her about the lesson.

> It seemed very natural. I felt comfortable doing it . . . It felt good. The other surprise was the continued conversation for several days. We [the class] have talked about the lesson as recently as today. The most gratifying part was these continued conversations and also the couple of kids that I knew were really struggling with connections seemed to feel more confident and sure of their own connections now.

In Ellen's reflection, two of her basic principles for good teaching were evident. First, her need for an instructional plan to feel comfortable, natural. Second, her belief that talk is central to learning. The fact that the lesson "felt good" and encouraged sustained student talk about their learning was important reinforcement for Ellen's initial experiment. With this positive experience under her belt, Ellen wrote, "I am really enjoying this."

Buoyed by success, Ellen forged ahead. In early November, I observed another schema lesson designed to reinforce the first strategy lesson. Ellen began again with a question to her students, "What do good readers do?" One student offered an interesting answer that suggested his growing understanding of proficient reader behavior.

Student A: They draft kind of.

E: They draft?

Student A: They draft a little before they read the next thing.

E: Is that like predicting?

Student A: Kind of.

Ellen continued with a read aloud from Alice Hoffman's Amazing Grace. She reminded the class that picture books are her favorite genre and several students were already excited because they recognized the book. Ellen told them that they probably had a lot of schema about the book since they had read it before. After reading it aloud, Ellen asked the class what they were thinking.

Student F: Lots of connections.

Student C: Text to self connections.

Ellen did not ask them to elaborate, but instead moved to the overhead where she wrote a two column chart with one side labeled What the Book Said . . . and the other side labeled Reminds me of . . . Then, she opened Amazing Grace again and began re-reading the first page. When she finished she wrote "Acting out stories" in the left column and “Tent Games” in the right column. She explained the significance of these entries to the class, then continued re-reading the book, pausing to add information to each column. After four pages of re-reading with this modeled demonstration, the students were asked to return to their desks, take out their independent reading books, and make a two-column chart like Ellen’s.

As the children worked independently, Ellen circulated answering questions and offering comments about students’ work. Eventually, we were able to talk privately for several minutes about the progress of that day’s lesson. In our conversation, Ellen expressed satisfaction with the results. She felt like the repeated schema lesson was an important follow up, noting that the double entry form would be useful across the curriculum. She also told me that she planned to model some connection strategies with the chapter book she was reading aloud to the class to help ease them away from the support of illustrations to make connections. We talked about the opportunity to introduce visualization when Ellen switched from picture books to chapter books as the focus of her instruction.

The fact that the next lesson I observed focused on how good readers visualize to help them comprehend speaks to the effect of my collaboration with Ellen around instructional decisions. This lesson in November showed how well-developed Ellen’s planning was becoming.

The class began with Ellen drawing an outline of her hand on the board and reminding the students about the conversation they had had about the senses. Inside each finger outline she wrote a different sense: smell, sight, touch, taste, hear, and in the palm she wrote feeling.

The kids began talking about their experience reading books they love. One girl shared that she feels like she enters books she really loves, that she's part of the story. A boy tells the class that when he's reading, if a character takes a deep breath, he does too. Ellen tells the kids that some books are so descriptive that she actually smells what's being described. She asks, "Have you ever read about bacon frying? Oh, I can just smell it and I get hungry!"

Ellen then tells the kids that she's going to read aloud a story while they close their eyes. She's not going to show them the pictures. When she finishes reading, they'll have a chance to draw what they visualized in their journals. As she begins reading Zolotow's The Seashore Book, the kids put their heads on their desks and Ellen turns on a tape recording of musak with sounds of the ocean in the background. (It is interesting to note here that in my field notes I observed, "As I look around the room, I am again puzzled by Ellen's assessment of the class as a 'difficult' one. They always seem so eager and engaged.")

When Ellen finishes and closes the book, a student blurts out, "That was a descriptive book!" Many other heads nod in agreement. Ellen then asks the kids to draw an image in their journals that stuck in their minds while they listened. Most kids set to work quickly, but one boy, Nick, tells Ellen that he didn't "see" anything. She moves a chair next to his and re-reads the book just for him. This time, she stops frequently and talks aloud about what she envisions as she's reading. She asks Nick if he has ever been to the seashore and when he says he has, Ellen asks him to describe the event. When Nick finishes telling her about the day he ate a sandy sandwich, burned his skin "lobster red", and swam in the coldest water of his life, Ellen reminds him that he has just made a series of connections. She explains that connections are the basis of most good pictures in the mind. Ellen leaves Nick when he says he feels ready to illustrate; by the end of the lesson, he has drawn three pages of images which he shares with the class during their group de-brief. In my post-lesson conversation with Ellen she acknowledged that Nick's success was her biggest achievement in the day's work. He is her poorest reader and also dislikes writing or art of any kind. For Ellen, the extra time she spent helping him understand what it meant to "see the movie in your mind" was valuable.

The combination of thinking aloud about her reading processes, planning an eyes-closed read aloud, following a lesson with an art activity, and working one-on-one with a struggling student highlights the facility Ellen felt with the strategy approach. Her integrated use of learning styles, hearing, seeing, creating, talking, suggests how thoroughly she was adopting the basic principles of strategy teaching, and then extending them with pedagogical techniques that capitalized on students' interests and strengths. Although it was only November, Ellen recognized that she was becoming a strategy teacher.

"Last year, " she told me during an interview in December,

> I didn't think that strategies were as important as they are. I don't think I did a real good job in the past of teaching these. And this year, I think I've just started, so I'm sure next year I'll be better. But now that I've had a taste of what it's like to do a good job, I see that it really has made a difference. I really feel like it's making a difference with these kids.

Contradictions

Throughout my year of classroom observation, I saw many examples of Ellen's accomplished use of the reading strategy approach to comprehension instruction. There were times, however, when I sensed she was reverting to more traditional kinds of instruction under the guise of strategy instruction. Pointing out two examples is illustrative of this phenomenon.

One day in early January I arrived in Ellen's room at what I thought was a scheduled appointment time, only to find that she was planning on my visit the following day. I talked with Ellen briefly before I left and my field notes recorded our conversation:

> The kids were all sitting quietly at their desks . . . working on an independent task. Ellen and I talked about how crazy her week had been. She told me that she had been praying for a second snow day (there was one on Monday) because she had a lot to do. A friend of hers, who lives in Georgia, had lost her house in a fire . . . Ellen had been working all week to organize other people to contribute financial help to the friend. I got the impression that when I arrived Ellen had been on-line working on this project.

Before I left, despite the fact that I told Ellen I was trying to get out of her hair, she wanted to share with me the work her class was doing. She handed me a stapled packet of reading material on Martin Luther King Jr. and told me, "The kids are working on comprehension stuff now. Here's what they're doing."

The first three pages of the packet were text and the last few pages were worksheet activities such as cloze exercises, word searches, defining key terms, and question prompts about the content of the reading . Again, my fieldnotes recorded my reactions.

> Ellen told me the packet was in partial fulfillment of a study of MLK Jr. I thought I detected a hint of sheepishness in this explanation, but maybe not. Coupled with her story about her friend, I'm guessing she was buying some extra time by using the worksheets.

> Here are my questions: How often does Ellen do exercises like this with commercial materials? How do the kids respond? Is there any follow-through? Why does Ellen think these exercises are valuable? I may be able to ask these questions since Ellen offered the material for me to look at. I found it fascinating that she shared so willingly with me. She must not understand the contradiction in what we talk about with strategy instruction and the traditional substance of this packet. If the exercises supported the independent practice of strategies she's worked on, that would be one thing. But these worksheets were not designed to do that.

This event was the first occasion I had witnessed a contradiction in Ellen's talk about comprehension strategy instruction and her instructional actions. In the end, I chose not to pursue the questions I had about the worksheet exercises. I reasoned that my visit was unexpected, and Ellen was dealing with a personal crisis. To challenge her planning choices on that day would have been in poor taste. I did, however, store this observation as evidence that Ellen was still working through her definition of reading comprehension. If she was being forthright in telling me that the worksheet questions were a comprehension activity, then the statement showed vestiges of her previous beliefs about reading; that is, if kids can read and answer questions, then they understand what they've read.

In March, I observed another lesson, this time as scheduled, when Ellen was introducing her students to the way good readers determine what's important in nonfiction texts. My field notes about the classroom environment that day captured a different kind of mood than I had recorded in previous visits. There was a tension in the air. On the board there was a hand-drawn sign of a red circle inside of which was written the words “I don’t get it”. There was a red slash running through the middle of the circle. The room had been revamped with a new display of animals and insects in the science corner. and there were posters on the wall announcing that “March is National Women’s History Month”. Hanging from the ceiling were huge cutouts of flowers, professionally done. On the windowsill were two new baskets, one filled with books labeled “Check out our new books!” and the other with math flashcards in them.

It may have been a coincidence, this freshening and tightening of the room, but I knew that in two days Ellen and her student teaching intern were going to host a learning lab in the classroom. During learning labs, teams of teacher interns and their mentor teachers observed in a designated classroom for forty-five minutes to an hour. The host classroom distributed an information sheet to observers prior to the learning lab describing the “lesson” the group would see when they observed. Knowing Ellen, the anticipation of this event would trigger her desire to perform well. She told me a childhood story once about her relationship with her sister that helped me predict that a learning lab situation would call on her desire to be recognized.

> I know this sounds silly, but when I was a kid there was a real competition between my sister and me and, you know, I could do a lot of things pretty well, but I wanted to be really good at one thing. I wanted to stand out at one thing, better than my sister. Because she was really good at one thing and it seemed to--it brought her a lot of attention . . . And I was like, “Oh, she makes baskets. She makes dolls. She does this. She does that. “ But she was never really good at one thing. So that was sort of my goal in life. I wanted to be really good at one thing . . . I wanted to stand out.

Ellen recalled this story during a conversation we had about the difference between an artist and a craftsperson, but I believe her desire to "stand out" permeates other areas of her life. For example, she had admitted to me in another conversation that she was a competitive student, she gauged the capabilities of those around her and tried to exceed the norm. She always wanted to "get the A."

When I observed on March 12, two days before the learning lab, and noticed the marked changes in the room, I was thinking about Ellen's professed quest for achievement. Two events during the course of my visit confirmed my suspicions.

First, her delivery of the "determining importance" strategy lesson was much more perfunctory than normal, peppered with known-answer questions. Ellen had chosen an article about Sacagewa to use for her lesson, an article they were all supposed to have read independently for homework the night before. She explained to the class, "Last night as I was reading I found out that Sacagewa was a sixteen year old girl, so I started visualizing a sixteen year old girl."

A student snorted and Ellen asks why he thinks that's funny. The boy wonders how to think about a sixteen year old girl *100* years ago. Ellen explained that she takes away today's clothes and the popular music and imagines what a girl so young would know. She also tells the class that Sacagewa was brave, and they agree with this. My field notes recorded the following conversation as the lesson continued. A running analysis of the lesson, a technique Bogdan and Biklen (1994) call "observer's comments . . . sections of the fieldnotes in which a researcher records his or her own thoughts and feelings" about the content of an observation (p. 157), follows key sections of the transcription in bold typeface.

E: What kinds of things can you infer from these two facts (about Sacagewa)--that she's young, but that she's very capable?

S5: That she's a good swimmer.

Ellen offers no response.

S6: She's brave.

E: Exactly! That's what I was looking for. She's brave.

Here is an example of known-answer questioning. I have not seen Ellen steer conversation in this way before. This shows her more traditional side. When she opens discussions with questions to which she wants specific answers, she limits the potential of the conversation to go in unexpected places. Usually I've seen her embrace these digressive opportunities.

Next, Bryce points out an interesting fact from the read aloud E. has finished about snakes. Ellen asks him which nonfiction convention he might use to highlight the fact in the book. He suggests a caption. Ellen does not respond, but asks if anyone else has ideas.

Student 9: Sidebars?

E: Right, sidebars. **Why wasn't Bryce's answer valid? Why not talk with him about what a caption does and why sidebars are the better choice?**

> After the lesson on finding important information, with an exercise in highlighting facts, Ellen gathers the kids and tells them that they've now studied all the conventions of nonfiction. She's designed an activity to "put their learning to work". It's a scavenger hunt. E. wrote to me about this idea and was excited to see how the class liked the activity. The kids, at first, are excited.

> They want to know if they're going to work in partners or alone (they're going to work alone).
>
> Ellen gives them a stapled packet of three pages, which she has created in conjunction with specific nonfiction books, and distributes the books. As I look through the activity, I can see that this is a thinly veiled traditional assessment of understanding. Using the language of nonfiction, Ellen sends the kids around their nonfiction books to locate facts. Some exercises are cloze statements, some ask kids to locate a page on which info. is found, some ask for definitions. There are LOTS of hands up. "What's carrion?" "This book doesn't have a table of contents!" "I'm ready for a new book!"

As I reflected on this lesson, I did not judge it as favorably as previous lessons, nor as positively as Ellen did. She was happy with the exercise because, she told me, it gave her a good measurement of how much her students understood about the conventions of nonfiction books. It is ironic that simultaneous with this exercise the class was working on writing their own nonfiction books which were replete with the conventions they had been studying. I was confused by Ellen's decision to offer a second, traditional form of evaluation to test students' progress. In my field notes I wrote:

> Maybe Ellen felt like she needed something concrete to allow kids to use what they know about conventions to find the answer. Maybe assessment is the last thing to catch up with instruction--evaluation is hardest to bring in line with new thinking about teaching? How can I get Ellen to talk about this without insulting her choice? This is certainly a comfortable exercise; more so than other instruction she's tried. Was she ready for a break? I know I've fallen victim to

> this, too. "I need to give them something 'hard' so they'll take the work seriously." Whatever that means.

I include these contradictions in Ellen's process of learning about strategy use (i.e. her use of "canned" materials, and her return to traditional pencil and paper measurements of achievement) to show that her path to adopting a reading strategy approach was not without steps backward. In examining teacher change, it is naive to expect that exploration of a new instructional technique will result in the rejection of all previously held beliefs and actions. Ellen's experience attests to this truth. One weakness in my response to recognizing these contradictions was not bringing them to Ellen's attention. Fear of offending her discouraged further exploration of these incidents, and as a result, the potential for accurately analyzing these contradictory episodes is limited to hypothesis.

Marquee Moments

Along with my recognition of inconsistencies in Ellen's strategy teaching, I observed successes that indicated she had extended her mastery of the technique beyond the limited descriptions of practice recommended in professional books. Throughout the year, Ellen's strategy lessons included visualization, questioning, determining importance, synthesis, and predicting. Once Ellen's consciousness about proficient reader strategies had been raised, and she had taught many of these with success, she began to see opportunities at every turn for integrating strategy use.

For example, one morning she "piggybacked" strategies during a discussion about an article on crocodiles. Ellen began by asking her class if they knew what the word "inferring" meant. She explained that the day's lesson was not about inferring (it was about synthesis), but she "couldn't let the opportunity pass" to tell them about another proficient reader strategy. On several occasions I recorded Ellen talking with her class about the nested action of strategy use. In May, during a particularly rich lesson in which Ellen reviewed all the strategies the class had studied, she explained that even though they had studied strategies separately, during "real" reading the strategies readers use are flexible and woven together; no one does a single discrete category step by step as they read. Instead, strategies overlap to support each other throughout a reading episode. I judged this explanation as evidence that Ellen had internalized significant understandings about the research behind proficient reading behavior. She had a firm grasp of the subtleties, recognizing that strategy use is more than a series of clever lessons with engaging texts. It is a coordinated cognitive act. The work Ellen and her students were doing was unraveling the mental ball of activity a reader creates during reading and identifying each strand to study its purpose.

Another teaching episode demonstrated Ellen's willingness to be flexible in her reading instruction. In the middle of December, the reading plan for the day was to learn about how readers question a text before, during and after they read. Ellen began the lesson by showing the students a magazine and telling them that they now have a subscription to *National Geographic Kids*. She opened the issue and began reading aloud an article about elephant communication, telling the class that they would have a chance to read it on their own later. As she read, she stopped frequently to make a note on a Post-it when she was confused by something she's read. She explained that the hallmark of a good reader is one who asks questions, and she asked the class why they thought she was using Post-its to record her questions about the elephant article. A boy suggests that by writing down the questions, Ellen will be able to find the answers later.

At this point, the conversation took a detour. One boy starts talking about what to do when a book is too hard. He describes a manual he has at home that he doesn't read because it's "beyond his level". A girl tells the class that she doesn't read parenthetical information because it's confusing. Ellen responds by telling the girl that she reads these sections because she's afraid she would skip information that might be important.

As the talk continues, Ellen acknowledges to the class that her planned lesson on questioning is not happening because the class is interested in what happens when you struggle with a book. She tells them this is an important topic, so she scraps the planned lesson and asks, "What can you do when you have trouble with a book?" After a few answers, Ellen reminds them of the word metacognition, "paying attention to your thinking", a word they studied in October. Rather than proceeding with her activity on questioning, Ellen distributes copies of *National Geographic Kids* and directs the class to a paragraph inside the front cover. She instructs them to "think about your thinking" while they read.

By changing her reading plans mid-lesson, Ellen demonstrated that she is not wedded to a schedule despite circumstances that suggest a change is appropriate. She took advantage of the "teachable moment" and used her students' interests to guide the direction of her instruction. Knowing Ellen's concern with professional appearances, I was surprised, but certainly not disappointed, that she was willing to abandon her original plan during an observation period. In e-mail exchanges Ellen frequently expressed distress that she was not doing a lesson that would help my research. Despite my assurances that *everything* she did was useful data, she remained concerned about the content of her teaching when I was in attendance. By accommodating her students' needs at the expense of not "delivering the promised goods" to the resident researcher, Ellen showed good pedagogical judgment.

Perhaps the most dramatic example of Ellen's shifting thinking about reading instruction occurred on January 22, 2002 during a classroom observation. The story that opens chapter one of this dissertation describes the event, but I will offer a summary here.

One of the staples of Ellen's reading program, prior to this date in January, was a salmon colored piece of paper with the heading "Reading Response Journal: 3 Times Each Week" (see figure 3). It is interesting to note that the content of many of the prompts closely matches the kind of thinking a comprehension strategy teacher would include in her teaching. The difference for Ellen, though, was that she was not doing very much scaffolding before asking her students to reflect on their writing. The explicit instruction and modeling that Ellen came to value were missing in her reading program at this point, and as a result, her students' responses were perfunctory and shallow.

Figure 3: Reading Response Journal Prompts

Reading Response Journal

3 Times Each Week

(Include one from each section below)

1. Make a connection:

   Does the book remind you of other things?

   Explain the relationship between the book and another book or story (text to text).

   Explain the relationship between the book and your life (text to self).

   Explain the relationship between the book and something in the world (text to world).

2. Make a prediction:

   Make a prediction about what you think will happen in the book.

   Respond to your previous predictions. Did they come true or not?

3. Answer a focus question~Use each question once before you start to repeat:

   What is the "problem" in the book right now, and how do you think it will be solved?

   If you could change something in the book right now, what would you change and why?

   Did you read a funny/scary/suprising/interesting section? What made it so?

   Who is telling the story?

   How do you feel about the main character and why?

   What is the current setting of the story and how does it add to the mood of the story?

   Is there a moral to the story? Explain.

   Has the main character changed? How?

   What questions do you have for the author?

   Draw a picture from the section that you read. Include a caption.

   How did you feel as you read this section? Explain.

4. Vocabulary

   List at least one new, interesting, or unusual word and use it in a sentence.

Every student had a copy of this handout and during every comprehension lesson I observed the lesson ended with students reading their independently chosen books and choosing a question, many of which were numbered, from the list of response options on the salmon colored sheet. Ellen often tried to integrate the day's strategy lesson with the response journal activity by pointing to prompts that related to what they had learned. For example, if the class had worked on connections, Ellen might point out that prompt # 10 "Copy a favorite passage or two and tell why they are special" was a way to think about text-to-text, text-to-self, and text-to-world connections. In fact, the list of response prompts was so familiar to the class, that on more than one occasion I heard different students refer to the paper by number, for example, "I'm going to do #5 and # 17 today." During one observation, when Ellen was teaching the students about questioning, a particularly strong student suggested, "This would be a good lesson to help us with #8, Mrs. Irwin." When Ellen looked confused by the numerical reference, the girl added, "You know, on our reading response sheets?"

Given the central role the response journals played in Ellen's reading agenda, it was a shock to everyone in the room when Ellen asked the class to take out their reading response prompts and, on the count of three, to rip them to shreds. After the public ballyhoo about this turn of events, with plenty of student commentary on why Mrs. Irwin was apparently losing her mind, a student asked, "So we can write anything we want about our reading? Like a song or a picture?"

Ellen asked, "Would I let you draw a picture every time?"

"No!" the class chorused.

"Right. Try different things. We'll have individual meetings each week to talk about your writing. But start today figuring out what you want to write. If you want to, you can respond to the read aloud we just did about the seashore."

Ellen had not given me any warning about her decision to shred the sacred journal prompts, although I discovered that she had been thinking about it and planned to do it during one of my observations. After the students had gone to lunch, we had a chance to talk about the whole lesson, including the demise of the salmon-colored paper. My field notes, combined with an edited transcription of our discussion, are recorded the following exchange. Again, the bold notes interspersed in the dialogue are my "in the moment" reactions.

1/22/02

Ellen's talking about the moment when the kids ripped up their reading log prompts. "And the whole business about getting rid of those response forms." (chuckles sheepishly)

S: Yeah.

E: You could tell how happy they were about it.

S: Right, right.

E: I'm a wreck about it.

S: You are?

E: "Cause I'm like, "O.K. Now I have to look at the different ways that they respond and am I going to be able to manage that? And am I going to be able to judge what their comprehension is depending on how they respond?" But I just--part of me was saying this is making--what I was having them do was making reading and responding a chore and I didn't want it to be. **This supports the goal of Ellen's that reading should be**

pleasurable for the students, something they'll choose to do on their own. There's a CONSISTENT PHILOSOPHY.

My field notes continued:

Ellen continues to talk about the rationale behind overthrowing the reading response prompts. "Yeah, because any time you number something, kids look at it in a linear fashion and they want to follow the steps and the numbers exactly. And what they do is give you minimal effort. They say, 'Well, I answered the question. What more do you want?' . . . And they do the minimal and I just felt like if I give them more responsibility and leave it open, a little more open-ended, then I might get more creativity out of them." **We go on to talk about kids who might struggle with this lack of structure/direction. It's important to see Ellen's thought process. Clearly, it was a difficult decision, and once it was made, she wanted me there to see it happen.**

Ellen is thinking more about the benefits of responding without the prompts. "Overall , they're [the students] really supportive of each other. And the one thing that I don't do enough of in the classroom, I think, is letting them share their work. So I think by doing this, they might be more willing, and it might be more interesting for them to share. If they were sharing that stupid form it could be pretty boring." Again, I see her changing her tune about traditional forms of response that are controlled.

And then I push Ellen a bit to recognize the value in starting out with some structure, like that offered by the journal prompts, to help kids see the many different ways readers respond. By eventually pulling away from these, she's telling them they're ready to think independently about the best ways to write

> about their ideas. "Well, that--it really did make sense--I don't think I did it consciously, but it made sense to give them that [the response prompts] to begin with because then they get the experience of all these different questions and all the different ways that they could respond to what they read. So I think it will help. And I think any kids who do get stuck, I'll let them lean back on that, and go back to it and see if there's something that they can pull from it." And here I worry that I've put words in her mouth, but I don't want her to be discouraged by how "provincial" her previous thinking was. It's all part of the process.

The termination of the Reading Response Journal sheet was a watershed moment for Ellen. I interpreted her decision as evidence that she was rethinking assessment to more closely match her progressive reading instruction. Although there were instances in the spring that showed Ellen's intermittent reliance on traditional forms of evaluation, overall she was developing more sophisticated methods for measuring achievement. When I compare her response to an interview question in September with her answer to the same question in May, the difference in her thinking is obvious.

In both interviews, I asked Ellen to describe her ideal reading assessment, one that would provide the kind of information about students that guided her subsequent instructional plans. "The sky's the limit," I explained. Time and money were no object. In September, Ellen's response was pure percentages.

> O.K. All right. I used the DRA the first year of my teaching experience and I had not had any training, so I don't think I used it as well as I could have. But I found it gave me information about where the kids were with comprehension. Not to a great extent, but enough so I could--if I wanted to group students, I could . . . So the test would be easy to manage, not take a lot of time. It needs to give them a

> chance to respond orally and silently. It needs to give them open-ended questions to respond to . . . But I know open-ended questions are hard to score. They're subjective.

Ellen's answer suggests she did not see the mismatch between the description of her current reading program (independent selection of books, reflective writing, and one-on-one meetings with the teacher), and her ideal form of assessment. By the spring, however, she was singing a different tune.

S: And here's this question again about your ideal assessment. Remember, the sky's the limit. It doesn't have to exist, this test, you can go for it.

E: O.K. I think there should be a way for the child to respond to all the comprehension skills. It should be broken down so that I can tell whether he has those skills under his belt. If he's read a piece, he should be able to draw a picture of what he saw as he read. He should be able to make some connection to what he read. He should be able to infer, there should be open-ended questions that ask him how he feels . . . But definitely I should be able to see what skills he has under his belt and it should give me--I don't like reading levels per se, they need to be--I think it's sometimes just a number and I think it's dangerous to say, "This child has a 3.2 reading level." Well, he only has a 3.2 reading level because he scored that on a test given at one snapshot in time--it's just a piece of time. In another situation, another piece of text, he might score differently.

S: So that would not be a useful piece of information?

E: No.

S: And you wouldn't put that in your ideal test "What's his reading level"?

E: No, no. And I'd also want them to tell me their feelings toward reading. What kind of books they've read, what kind of books they'd like to read, what they like to write. I think that's a piece of it. Maybe who their favorite authors are. I'd also like to know what kind of reading goes on at home. Do their parents read? What kinds of books and materials are around the house? Opinions about reading are important. How they use reading. I want to know if they understand that you have to read to live. You know, can you read a prescription bottle? Can you read the directions on the back of a recipe or can you read how to fix a box of macaroni and cheese? That's all reading and I want to know if they understand that that's all reading.

Ellen's long and complex answer to the assessment question at the end of her year of inquiry stands in stark contrast to the quantitative focus of her answer to the same question at the beginning of the school year. To my knowledge, Ellen did not read professionally about reading assessment during our work together, nor did the inquiry class address this aspect of reading instruction. Through her instructional experiences, and her reflections about the reading process, Ellen had arrived at an understanding of evaluation that reflected some of the same principles that grounded her beliefs about strategy use; these include the importance of a transaction between the reader and the text, an understanding of the reciprocal nature of literacy, how writing influences reading and vice versa, and the value of talk in socially constructing understanding about texts.

The milestone experiences I have described above confirm my conclusion that Ellen learned to fully embrace a strategy approach to teaching reading comprehension. To complete the presentation of my analysis in this chapter, it is important to discuss two external conditions of Ellen's experience that supported and inhibited her professional growth. These are her personal reading behaviors, and the role of community in her life.

The Teacher as Reader

A key component of successful strategy teaching is a teacher's ability to be explicit in demonstrating the way experienced readers think when they read. One of the reasons Ellen was so capable at presenting the raw version of her reading process to her students was through an exploration of her personal reading behaviors. As Ellen read professional books such as Mosaic of Thought, and Strategies that Work, she understood the need for reading teachers to be aware of their own strategies in order to teach them to others. Ellen believes she is a capable reader, and has been from the time she was a child raised by parents who read often. In our interviews, we often talked about her reading habits and it was clear that Ellen reads regularly and enjoys it. More than once, she apologized for the limited field from which she chooses her reading material as an adult. In our initial formal interview I asked her what kind of books she chooses to read.

> Oh! I feel awful saying this, but for the five years that I was an undergrad., I don't think I ever read anything that wasn't a professional--that didn't do anything for me professionally. I ordered every health magazine and every crafty, cooking, home economics thing you could imagine. And I still am guilty of not always choosing books for my pleasure. I tend to pick books that I think my [students] would like . . . The only thing that I choose for myself for personal pleasure aren't novels so much as instructional--I do a lot of art-type work. Even if I'm not reading a teacher instructional manual, I might be doing some other creative thing. So, that's why with novels and fictional stories I stick to kids'[books].

This self-description of the parameters of Ellen's reading choices is illuminating because it shows that Ellen extends her participation in important activities, like teaching and crafts, through reading. Her inclination toward efferent reading experiences, for reading that "does" something for her, was played out in her decision to pursue an intense study of nonfiction books as part of her work in the inquiry course.

Although Ellen had a long history as a reader, and professed to enjoying it, her study of strategy instruction identified weaknesses that surprised her. In a post-observation interview in November, my field notes recorded a conversation we had about metacognition.

> 11/29/01
>
> I began a line of questioning that asked Ellen to think about what she's learning about strategy instruction. Ellen commented on how new all of this focus on metacognition was to her. She assumed she uses all these strategies, but having to consciously call on them as part of her instruction is a challenge . . . After some conversation about the difference between skills and strategies, Ellen began talking about her own process of paying attention to what she reads for the first time. She felt like the challenge of thinking about her thinking made it more necessary to communicate clearly to kids what good readers do.

In an interview in January, Ellen continued to talk about the impact learning about strategy instruction was having on her practice.

E: To make it [reading instruction] richer, the strategies need to be taught because even though I *know* that I use strategies, I was never taught, so I'm not aware of them and maybe--no, not maybe, I really *know* that I'm not using them to my full potential.

And finally, in our exit interview, Ellen reflected on the power of studying strategies, not only as a tool in her planning for reading comprehension instruction, but in improving her adult reading experience.

> I think I learned from [the strategies], and if as an adult I can learn from the lessons that I'm giving the fourth graders, I think anybody can. There's value in it for everybody. Because a lot of it is--there were things that I did intuitively without anybody ever telling me, "You should visualize something. You should make a connection." But having them spelled out in black and white made me more aware of the fact that I was doing it and I think I started doing it better. As I read a textbook now for a class, I think I'm comprehending better. And if I'm not comprehending, then I slow down and say, "Okay. You just read a paragraph, what are some questions that you have about it? If you didn't understand it, what is it that you didn't understand?" So I can back myself up and do a better job at reading myself.

Ellen's personal reading habits, and her recognition that the way readers think is the basis for effective comprehension instruction, supported her in becoming a confident, effective strategies teacher. It is difficult to overstate the significance of Ellen's awareness. From my reading of the literature on strategy instruction, I came to believe that the approach would only be truly successful under two conditions.

First, a teacher who planned to use the technique had to be a reader, and by this I mean a person who chooses to read on a regular basis, for personal pleasure and/or professional interest; a person for whom reading is essential to a satisfying existence. Second, a teacher had to become metacognitive about her comprehension habits. She needed to recognize the ways of thinking that assisted her understanding of text and be able to name them. Ellen satisfied both of these requirements. She came into my study as a self-described reader, and throughout the year, as a participant in the inquiry course, and through her reading of professional books on strategy teaching, she enthusiastically examined her own reading behaviors. These two components were agents of support in Ellen's use of strategy instruction.

Confident in my developing theory about the importance of the teacher as a reflective reader, I put the question indirectly to Ellen, during our exit interview, when I asked, "Do you think some teachers would struggle with teaching reading strategies?" Her answer, which in no way supported my theory, helped me recognize other factors in teachers' thinking that would affect their success with strategy teaching.

At first, Ellen was stumped by my question. "It would work for anyone, wouldn't it? I mean, I can't imagine a teacher worth their salt that couldn't pull this off," she finally decided.

I reminded her that the research literature showed strategy instruction is not well-adopted by most teachers. Ellen thought some more, then offered an answer in the context of fourth grade teaching.

> What kind of teacher would reject strategy teaching? That's a really hard question. Well, the thing you need to know is that even though most kids at fourth grade read, I think some fourth grade teachers make the assumption that their kids are reading proficiently. I mean, they're reading and they're getting everything they ought to be getting out of it. But really, when I look at my kids and how they struggle with a textbook, or another piece of nonfiction, then it becomes clear to me that they're not getting it. They may be reading the words, but they're not comprehending . . . I think a lot of teachers don't see the need. They don't--they figure, 'Oh, well, my kids *read*, they need to learn to study, and they need to work it out on their own.' I don't think they see the real need. I mean, I think they feel like K-3 taught the kids how to read and the job's done.

> Maybe that's just the way I was feeling at first. Because I didn't teach much about reading my firstcouple of years teaching. We did--we read the books, we wrote a report, we gave them grades. I didn't teach them how to read! I might have--you know if a kid got stuck on a word or--I might have helped them do some decoding but I just didn't--I didn't think that was part of the job. I wasn't even aware of the need. And I think other teachers are in that place, too. Even those that have been teaching years and years. I think if they haven't been exposed to this, and I hadn't been before this year, they're not going to see how much richer this can make the reading process for kids . . . I don't know how to--I guess I'm not sure how to classify teachers into different kinds of teachers . . . It's just, all of this that I've learned in this [inquiry] class has just made it so much clearer to me personally. And I--it's so neat to be able to experiment and try this. And certainly I've had enough success with these lessons that I've done that, you know, I really feel like this is something I'll keep doing.

In Ellen's estimation, the primary condition necessary for motivating teachers' sustained engagement with reading strategies is an awareness of the need to offer comprehension instruction in the first place. She acknowledged that arriving at this understanding depended on how willing a teacher was to try new things, to take a risk. She added, "I think a teacher who is uncomfortable taking risks, or annoyed with the administration, I think sometime that can shut them down."

Ellen was also generous in considering the possibility that instructional change is not what everyone needs. "Somebody who already had a program in place that they felt was successful, that they were comfortable with, that they felt was working. Why would that person change?"

Our conversation during this exit interviewed continued with a focus on the battle between the teachers' union and the administration over contract negotiations. Then Ellen returned to the topic of matching strategy teaching with teachers' thinking. "You know," she said, "I do think some teachers don't want the kids to see that they're fallible. That's a big one. If you can't be real in front of your kids, you're going to have a hard time doing strategy teaching."

Ellen's recognition of this feature of strategy teaching launched my inquiry into the kind of teacher-student relationship a strategy approach demands. I realized that I had read little about the interpersonal conditions of a cognitive apprenticeship. After analyzing my data, the issue of fallibility developed into one of my major "learnings" from this study and is discussed at length in chapter five.

When I asked Ellen to take an objective view of strategy teaching by considering how her peers, near and distant, might consider the method, I was confident that she would have an opinion. Ellen has a set of socio-emotional antennae that allow her to sense the attitudes of those around her. She uses these perceptions to navigate both her professional and personal worlds. During preliminary analysis, I identified these patterns of sensitivity as "good girl" behavior. By the end of my data collection, however, I recognized Ellen's awareness of others' opinions as significant of a bigger phenomenon: Community. Reading through my field notes, transcripts, interview records and artifacts from Ellen's teaching, I realized that Ellen's membership in a community exerted a powerful force on her ways of thinking and interacting with others. Communities can support and extend teachers work, I learned, but they can also inhibit progress by silencing its members, sometimes inadvertently, but sometimes deliberately. In chapter five, I give attention to the theoretical spin on community as I describe another major learning from my research. Below, however, I relate several incidents that establish the role community played in Ellen's teaching life.

On Community

"[A community is] a group of people with generally the same goals in mind, working toward the same end, and helping each other," Ellen told me when I asked for her definition of community. She used her definition to answer the second part of my probe into how communities affected her work when I asked her to think about whether she belonged to different communities. When she decided that she did, I asked her to name them.

> Huh. Interesting question. I think I'm a member of my classroom community and the school community. I'd like to say I'm a member of the district community but I don't quite feel there yet because we're sort of segmented by all these little buildings. I'm a member of the town community. And I'm a member--there's a group of teachers who are really trying to change, or who are interested in changing and learning and I feel like I'm a part of that . . . it's a teaching-learning-teaching community. You know, if you're a teacher, are you still changing? Even if you're not attempting to get another degree, are you open to new ideas? So I guess that's a community I'm in, in a very loose sense.

In Ellen's description of her community memberships she identified four as central to her teaching work: her classroom, her school, her district, and a "teaching-learning-teaching" group. With some prompting, she also recognized herself as a member of the glass art community.

An analysis of my research data confirmed the existence of these communities in Ellen's world. Having used many pages of space to describe Ellen and her classroom community, I will focus here on four other circles of influence that affect Ellen's professional life. These are the teaching-learning community which is closely tied to her relationship with the university as an undergraduate and graduate student, and as a subject in my study; a nameless, faceless community that I termed the "omniscient other" whose presence is evident in comments Ellen makes about some of her professional decisions; there is the artistic community; and finally, there is the community of her professional peers, a group with particular control over Ellen's instructional thinking and actions.

For Ellen, each community she belongs to often sets unspoken expectations that she tries to meet. The following sections will describe her reactions to these perceived standards.

The Teaching-Learning-Teaching Community

Ellen takes pride in the fact that she is a teacher who is open to new ideas. For her, graduate work is a way to keep learning, but also a context in which she receives affirmation for her continued quest to grow as an educator. Praise and recognition are important factors in Ellen's motivation and she works hard to earn it. For example, she feels a strong obligation to be a positive example of the kind of student the University graduates from its MAT program. The following e-mail, in which Ellen agrees to be the single focus of my research, documents this fact.

> 11/25/01
>
> Wow. A single subject case study. Are you sure you want to do that? I feel fine with it, only concerned that you might be disappointed. One question, though, in your final work will I be identified by name? This may sound silly, but I guess I worry that if I do something horrible, the folks at Shibles will know who I am. I know you are probably thinking "oh, it'll be fine, don't worry." On the other

> hand, if I come out of this looking like the most innovative, wonderful, teacher-of-the-year-type person you are more than welcome to use my name. Ha! Do I sound like a politician or what?

In another instance, Ellen worried about being a good mentor for the MAT intern in her classroom, not only because she wanted Betsy, her intern, to have a good experience, but because Betsy's university supervisor, Debbie, was the same person who supervised Ellen's work in the MAT program. The following excerpt was transcribed from a post-observation interview in December.

E: I feel guilty, especially on Thursday after Betsy's been here, if it's been a really bad day. I say, "I've got to do something a lot better than that next Thursday. Because I don't want to say what *not* to do." (laughs)

SSK: You want her to have the ***perfect*** experience.

E: Of course!

SSK: That's all.

E: Well, actually, I had three perfect experiences. I did three different levels with three different teachers and they were all very different, but they were all wonderful.

SSK: You were lucky then.

E: I was, I was . . .

SSK: Sure. But don't you think even the blatant kind of bad day thing is part of the perfect experience?

E: Well, maybe it is!

SSK: Like how to cope with . . .

E: Yeah (*not totally convinced*), and I guess sometimes I worry too much about what other people think. You know, because I think, "Oh, what's Betsy going to tell Debbie?"

SSK. Yeah.

E: I mean how is that going to reflect on them [the University coordinators of the MAT program]?

In March, I had the opportunity to observe planning for a learning lab Ellen and Betsy would host. With university professors, including Brenda, and other MAT interns in attendance, I recognized this as a propitious occasion to examine Ellen's response to perceived standards from the teaching-learning community. I observed on the day prior to the learning lab, and as I noted in an earlier section of this chapter, major room renovations were underway. At one point during my visit, Ellen's students were at P.E. and I had a chance to talk with her and Betsy about their preparations for the lab.

The plan was to begin the lab with a role play demonstrating appropriate book sharing behavior. Ellen's students were almost finished writing drafts of a nonfiction article, and they were preparing to share their writing with a third grade class the following week. Betsy and Ellen agreed that having the kids watch positive and negative examples of buddy reading would be a good way to teach them about peer feedback.

What was going to happen after this role-play session was up for debate. My field notes recorded the following conversation, with my analysis in bold.

March 13, 2002

> Ellen explains that Betsy just wanted to do the workshop for the learning lab, but Ellen told her they have to DO something if people are watching.
>
> Ellen told me, "Betsy says that workshop is real teaching, but . . . huh!" Here's another example of Ellen wanting to play by the rules. What will be expected from the people who designed the learning lab concept? From the observers?

> In the end, Ellen and Betsy compromised by spending extra time during the lab observation working as a whole group to brainstorm good buddy reading behavior, then finishing the period with writing workshop.

After the lab, which I observed, the interns and supervisors met with Ellen and Betsy to debrief the session, a regular part of the learning lab experience. The response was favorable. Of particular note was one intern's comment about how positive the atmosphere in the classroom was due to Ellen and Betsy's frequent compliments to the students. She gave examples of what she overheard, such as, "I like the way you're working over here, " and "What great ideas you all have." Ellen responded by telling the intern, "Well, you catch more bees with honey." When I met with Ellen after the debrief, she told me about a piece of feedback that I had not heard.

"One of the interns said to me that my kids were using the language of readers and writers and I thought that was really nice to hear."

These examples of Ellen's efforts to secure affirmation do not signal an unnatural desire for recognition. Teachers too often work in isolation with only their students as an audience. One of the strengths of the University's MAT program, and its innovative learning lab design, is the support practicing teachers gain from their participation as mentors. In the examples offered above, Ellen's desire to be a good role model, and to "perform" are admirable. Her actions should be interpreted as within the normal range, yet rarely is a teacher's need for recognition considered an important part of the change process.

Another example of the way Ellen thrived under the spotlight of attention was in her collaboration with me as a research subject. Bogdan and Biklen (1992) warn that "in choosing a setting or group as the focus of an observational case study, keep in mind that the smaller the number of subjects the more likely you are to change their behavior with your presence" (p. 64). Many of Ellen's comments during our collaboration indicated her awareness of my presence in her classroom and the thinking that resulted from being observed. In an previous section of this chapter describing the inquiry course experience, I presented examples of Ellen's enthusiasm for our collaboration. Below I offer more evidence. In an e-mail message dated November 25, just one month into my research study, Ellen wrote:

> Honestly, I am getting a lot out of my work with you. Just the act of writing to you gives me the time and the opportunity to really reflect on what I am doing and why I am doing it. There's not enough time to do that in the course of a "normal" day . . . As long as you are able to give me feedback and let me ask you as many questions as you ask me I will be very happy to work with you.

Ellen's e-mail acknowledges the reciprocal value of her participation in my study. Her demand that the partnership continue to be productive for her as one of the conditions of her participation is reminiscent of Wollman-Bonilla's suggestion that, "Maybe research becomes a vice in teachers' eyes because too often it serves to overregulate and even corrupt their work rather than helping them improve it" (p. 312-314). Ellen's insistence on having a voice, on getting feedback, indicates her resistance to being "used". In her statement of conditional participation, I was reminded of Stephens' (2000) advice about educational research, that "It will not use classrooms, teachers, children, and families as spaces to do research but, I believe, it will reflect researchers' caring for and openness to all connected to and impacted by their work." (p. 324)

E-mail developed into a major tool of reflection for Ellen. It was a place where I could pose a question, and she could choose when or if she wanted to respond. In her reflections were many other indications that my research project was assisting Ellen's work in the teaching-learning community. In January, she wrote:

> 1/16/02
>
> I enjoyed our visit today. I will do a synthesis lesson next Monday at 10:30 a.m. Hope you can be there. Your feedback is always helpful. Reflecting on my work becomes easier when you ask me questions because you ask questions that set me to thinking.

And in April, Ellen commented that in our relationship she found support that was missing from her colleagues.

> 4/3/02
>
> Usually there is not really anyone to process things [from my teaching]. I know some of my colleagues are happy to listen to me, but they are not impartial, and I do worry that some of them would judge me. So far, I feel very safe with you.

This e-mail is noteworthy for two reasons. First, it is another example of the importance safety, or comfort plays in Ellen's willingness to take instructional risks. Second, it introduces the role of the peer community in her professional life. There was a distinction for Ellen between the colleagues in the inquiry course, some of whom were fellow teachers at the Elm Street School, and the other teachers in her school. She behaved differently with each group, often feeling silenced by the latter.

The Peer Community

The teachers room at the Elm Street School, that much maligned space in most schools, was a place where Ellen's peer community held its greatest influence. During a post-observation interview in February, when Ellen was singing the praises of strategy instruction and marveling at her conversion to this teaching method, I asked her how this enthusiasm was received by the other teachers in her building.

S: What happens when you talk to your colleagues about this stuff?

E: Well, it's really hard not to get excited about something, but in the teacher's room, I'm worried that people are going to misunderstand.

S: What do you mean?

E: I'm very careful there. (laughs) Because I don't want people to get the wrong idea. I'm not trying to change them.

S: That's how other teachers interpret your learning about reading strategies?

E: That's a piece of it. They think I'm the youngest person on the block, and so, "She's all full of herself and she's learning new stuff and she's trying to tell us how to teach and we've been doing it for thirty five years." I don't want to be pushy. I don't want to say, "Well, you've been doing it [reading instruction] wrong for thirty years. This is the way you should be doing it!" I try to be respectful.

When I read through the transcript of this exchange, I began to think about the fact that communities have a darker side. In the inquiry course, indeed through most of the professional development network activity, a culture developed that met Ellen's criteria for what a community should be, "a group of people with generally the same goals in mind, working toward the same end, and helping each other." Unfortunately, in the teachers' room, Ellen felt obligated to change her behavior to find acceptance in a different group. Obviously, certain kinds of teachers would not respond the way Ellen did. These teachers would either avoid the teachers room, or soldier on, ignoring the negative vibes and sharing their enthusiasm about curricular matters. This wasn't Ellen's style, however. She has a heightened sense of others' expectations and she reacts in a way that guarantees her acceptance among all her important communities. The results are apparent. Ellen is well-liked in her school, and in her district as a whole. She sits on several committees, and even acted as a representative in the school union. The administration values her sensitive leadership, and the parents of her students, past and present, adore her.

Before I discovered Ellen's beliefs about what kind of talk is off-limits among certain of her colleagues, I had asked her to compare herself to other teachers she knows.

> I think I'm much more easygoing than a lot of teachers are. I think--I think I have self-doubt, like most people, but I think I'm a little more open minded than people in taking risks . . . And I think maybe I'm more sure that I want to be here than lots of people and more confident about my teaching in general than most of my colleagues. And more sure that I can make a difference, which is nice.

What is interesting to note in Ellen's comment is her recognition that she is more confident than many of her teaching peers, yet she keeps this confidence in check when she is with them. Ellen translated her risk-taking attitude and belief that she could make a difference as liabilities among her colleagues, so she remained silent when she was in "unfriendly" territory.

Ellen's willingness to walk among many tribes is admirable, yet I was compelled to wonder how much more enriching her inquiry might have been had she felt more acceptance for her experiment with strategy teaching.

The Invisible Community

Ellen's habit of living up to others' expectations is most dramatically highlighted in the presence of an "omniscient other" who apparently is in constant attendance wherever Ellen is. When there is not a university professor around, or colleagues to make her feel like she's too big for her britches, Ellen tunes her antenna in to an unidentified, invisible judge (UIJ). For example, in one interview Ellen told me that the class was reading Jerry Spinelli's Crash. "The kids are really into it, they're just in hysterics," she told me. "He's a little irreverent, I know, and I probably shouldn't be reading it. Some people wouldn't like it." But in true form, Ellen turned this blasphemous read aloud into an acceptable opportunity. "What I do, " she explained, "is talk to the kids about the main character's choices. I ask, 'Well, you know, if he were a Community of Caring student, would he have done that?"

Ellen's "UIJ" showed up in ethical decisions, too. In our initial interview, when Ellen was describing the kinds of texts her kids read as part of her reading program, she confessed, "Once in a while I'll--I shouldn't say this on tape--but I break the copyright laws and photocopy short stories for my kids."

Her invisible critic even has the power to make Ellen feel condemned when she doesn't read the "right" kind of books.

"And I am guilty of not always choosing books for my pleasure. I tend to pick books that I think my kids would like, but I know I should be reading for myself, too."

The potential for Ellen's colleagues to influence, positively or negatively, her pedagogical thinking, and absent these tangible entities, for her UIJ to steer her decisions, spills into Ellen's behavior in the community of artists. The final section on community describes this relationship.

The Artist Community

The fact that Ellen's work as a glass artist and her work as a teacher nourish each other is undeniable. When she learned that she had been accepted as a fellow in the Maine Writing Project (MWP), a three week institute during the summer, Ellen was enthusiastic.

One of the major requirements for fellows in the program is the writing of a learning autobiography, a piece that asks teachers to explore an important event or influence that impacts their teaching practice. In our exit interview, Ellen admitted that she had already been working on an idea for her learning autobiography.

> I love to write. And I'm really excited about this piece of writing for the MWP because I'm going to take who I am here as a teacher and a writer and a learner, and me as the artist. It's going to bring them all together. And it's feeling really good as I work on it.

As our interview continued, I mentioned to Ellen that listening to her describe her glass making, and hearing her enthuse about teaching, made me think that she needed both in her life.

S: It sounds like one would suffer if the other wasn't there.

E: I think you're right. I think a lot of what I learned as an artist I can bring into the classroom.

At this point, Ellen began talking about resiliency, an issue I discussed in an earlier section of this chapter. I also wanted to know how Ellen's colleagues at the school responded to her art. Her glass beads were well-known not only at the Elm Street School, but around the district. Ellen acknowledged that, "I'm not a specialist in this glass thing, within the art community, in fact, I'm sort of an intermediate within that community--but in this community, as an artist, I'm really good. I stand out."

The fact that people admired Ellen's work was noted in the number of beads colleagues personally purchased, and in the pieces of jewelry she was commissioned to make for retirements, shower gifts, and other celebratory events around the district. And yet, the specter of judgment loomed close by. The following excerpt from our exit interview is a fine example.

E: It's very strange being a teacher and being an artist and trying to be who I am in both places.

S: What's the tension?

E: I know that probably it's self-imposed. I worry that people think, "She's spending all this time on this art work. She must be letting her teaching slide" Or I have a lot of people say, "Why don't you do the glass full time?" But I can't because I really--a big piece of me is a teacher. I really love what I do here. I love the art. I absolutely--in fact, when I was getting my--towards the end of my undergraduate program and all throughout my MAT class I had been doing all these crafts. I had to put it all away. And I got very depressed. I was really a basket case. And when I pulled out the crafts again, I started feeling more myself. This is me. I create. It's not good enough to teach somebody else how to do something, I need to do it myself. I need to make new things. It's like, "Oh, well, I can be both. I can do both." But people want me to be this or they want me to be that. They don't want me to be both. Even my husband is like, "You know, you spend so much money on that classroom. All that money could be used for your glass!" I think, "Yeah. But I'm making the decision how to spend my money." It's like having two full time jobs. Nevermind my family!

As an artist, Ellen found herself in the same situation as she did in her teaching, aware of and sensitive to outsiders' assessments of her activities. It is as a member of the art community, though, that Ellen feels most confident in her abilities. It's true, she censors some of her opinions to avoid offending people. For example, Ellen told me about an incident when a teacher friend told her, "Oh, you're just so crafty," "Oh, no! I'm an artiste!" Ellen replied comically. But in her mind, she admitted, "I sort of made light of the comment, but in my head I'm thinking, 'I have probably twenty-five hundred dollars worth of equipment in my studio, I take health risks. This ain't no craft."

Despite certain efforts to keep the peace, in this case by not arguing the difference between a craft and an art, Ellen was more publicly sure in her abilities as an artist than she was as a teacher. As an artisan, Ellen was *not* a symmetrical thinker. She told me once that she had taken only one lesson to learn how to work with glass. Beyond that, she was self-taught. In making a bead, she explained, she followed her instincts about color, shape and proportion. She imagined a bead alone, or as part of an ensemble, and crafted it with this big picture in mind. If a person chose to buy a bead and Ellen had a specific vision of how it should be worn, she made sure the buyer knew this opinion.

"I love art," Ellen once confessed. "And I think if I were to be anything in life, I would be an artist or I would teach art."

Ellen loves teaching, too. "It's my life," she told me. My analysis of the data from Ellen's work with strategy instruction allowed me to see that even though Ellen may not share her beliefs about best practice in teaching, the way she does her opinions about what makes a great bead, she takes creative liberties in the classroom that mimic her actions in the studio.

The parallels between the decision-making Ellen does when creating a bead, and her process of making instructional changes are clear. Ellen often practices from the gut whether deciding on the design of a bead, or establishing whether a teaching technique works for her. In this way Ellen does "think outside the box" by resisting complete allegiance to a prescribed program. Her pattern when trying something new is to read, experiment, adjust based on what feels right, and proceed. Ellen described her philosophy about beadmaking thus: "You don't give up. Work with what you have, make it better. Let go of the stuff that doesn't work for you. Just let it go."

And in her thoughts about how she adapts her teaching in the classroom, Ellen told me,

> A classroom takes on a life of its own. You know, depending on who you have in the class, what type of personalities, they each sort of live and breathe on their own . . . It's not just a community, it's an alien species. It just has its own life. And so you see different things with each kid because they're all so different. I have to be aware of this. I have to make my teaching fit what each kid needs. No one--no book can tell me what's best for each of those kids. It's my job to figure that out.

Recognizing the flexible thinking that governed Ellen's art and teaching was illuminating. It was a realization that allowed me to make a negative case analysis in respect to my theory that Ellen was the consummate "good girl". Her willingness to change a lesson to meet students' needs, in the same way she ignored "how-to" books and let the glass lead her process, contradicted my assumption that Ellen played by the rules. This "negative case" did not completely undermine the good girl theory; Ellen has many diplomatic behaviors that indicate her desire to be well-liked and accepted. But the inconsistencies in the way she acts privately and the way she presents herself publicly are important features to help understand Ellen as a teacher.

When Ellen's art world intersected her teaching world a new person emerged, one with a confidence to be strong in her work. Perhaps Ellen's special status as the "glass artist in residence" at her school gave her that sense of standing out that she had chased since she was a young girl trying to set herself apart from her sister's accomplishments. Perhaps if I had conducted my study with Ellen among glass artists, I would have witnessed the same contradictory behavior--Ellen stumbles on a bead-making technique based on the cognitive habits of proficient glass artists, but she resists offending the existing talents of her fellow artists in the studio by keeping her knowledge private. The analogy is hyperbolic, to be sure, but it is important to question whether Ellen's confidence about her art crosses communities, or if she enjoys a special rank among her teaching colleagues that is not apparent among artist peers.

Conclusion

Ellen once described a favorite childhood book when I asked her to recall her history as a reader. She couldn't remember the title of the book, but she told me, "It was a book about white lace and white gloves, and handkerchiefs. It was about etiquette, but I loved that book. I just loved it." Maybe Ellen's concern for proper decorum in all social situations can be traced to this early exposure to Emily Post-like reading. Whatever the roots, the many communities in which Ellen counts herself a member demand specific behaviors that she strives to exceed. It is important to recognize this feature of Ellen's personality in studying her work as a teacher. The data supports the fact that Ellen made significant changes in her reading program by using comprehension strategies as the focus of her instruction. The impact of the inquiry class on her learning is also well-documented. Yet, how much more profound might her work have been if she had sensed acceptance from her school community to make her inquiry public? The issue of community influence will be discussed in chapter five as I explore implications for future research.

Chapter four has presented an analysis of my data from a year long study of Ellen Irwin's inquiry project around reading strategy instruction. Three large lessons emerged from my research: Beliefs matter, relationships matter, and professional communities matters. It is these "learnings" that form the backbone of the following final chapter in my dissertation. In an effort to synthesize the smaller insights I learned from Ellen about what it takes to be an effective strategy teacher, I have drafted a characteristics chart that appears in Appendix C. This graphic is designed to show the relationship between the way one successful strategy teacher thinks and how this thinking is translated into reading instructional practice. These connections begin to answer one of the primary questions in my research project. In the first chapter of this dissertation I explained that "I wanted to find out if there was an identifiable cause for the failure of strategy instruction to gain favor with teachers". In retrospect, I realize I was addressing the problem from a deficit perspective. By turning this question around and asking about the identifiable causes for success, I was able to adopt a more positive stance. The results of this change in approach are reported in Appendix B.

Halfway through our research partnership, I shared with Ellen an insight I had about her as a teacher. I told her that I thought she had high expectations for her students, but that she held herself to an even higher standard. Several weeks later, she sent me an e-mail in which she commented on my observation. Her words effectively conclude this chapter that reported Ellen's experience.

> February 12, 2002
>
> You said I put a lot of pressure on myself. I think I do. . . I really don't have a life outside this building (laughs). I don't know that I'm a professional, yet. But I feel as if I'm getting better. You know, I'm getting better.

CHAPTER 5: LESSONS FROM ELLEN

CONCLUSIONS AND IMPLICATIONS FOR FUTURE RESEARCH

> The educator is responsible for a knowledge of individuals and for a knowledge of subject-matter that will enable activities to be selected which lend themselves to social organization, an organization in which all individuals have an opportunity to contribute something, and in which the activities in which they participate are the chief carriers of control (Dewey, 1938, p. 56).

As a member of the First Continental Congress in 1776, Thomas Jefferson was given the great responsibility of writing the first draft of the Declaration of Independence. When he set to writing, he did so alone, and when he was finished, he presented the document to his peers. Observers on the scene remember delegates from all the American colonies dissecting Jefferson's writing, making amendments and suggesting revisions. Jefferson, according to historical accounts, sat by stoically; "He is not known to have uttered a word in protest, or defense of what he had written" (McCullough, 2001, p. 131), although the impulse to justify his writing must have been tremendous. Watching his young compatriot squirm, Benjamin Franklin leaned toward Jefferson and told him the following story:

> He [Franklin] had once known a hatter who wished to have a sign made saying, JOHN THOMPSON, HATTER, MAKES AND SELLS HATS FOR READY MONEY, this to be accompanied by a picture of a hat. But the man had chosen first to ask the opinion of friends, with the result that one word after another was removed as superfluous or redundant, until at last the sign was reduced to Thompson's name and the picture of a hat (McCullough, p. 131).

Jefferson's exercise in restraint in the face of collegial review, and Franklin's writerly wisdom, is a fitting reference for examining the findings of this qualitative case study. The connections are many. Researchers, like Jefferson, are armed with facts and opinions which must be spun into a coherent statement. And like Jefferson, the researcher usually writes in isolation before taking her work to a wider audience for criticism. The story also speaks to the dilemma of the lone author whose own beliefs and experiences affect the way she interprets the data she has collected. In this way, Jefferson's struggle to listen with an open-mind to other delegates' criticisms is related to the limitations inherent in the qualitative study approach.

Chapter five begins with a review of the design limitations in qualitative research, and an explanation of how I addressed these weaknesses in my data gathering and analysis techniques. The second section describes the three major lessons that emerge from Ellen's yearlong study of reading strategy instruction; incorporated into each "lesson" are implications for staff development design and instructional practice. The chapter concludes with directions for future research.

Like the Declaration of Independence, Ellen's story is too rich to be reduced to a symbol and a name. In chapter five, however, I attempt to condense the essential findings from this study so that passersby might read it and understand the important work that goes on inside Ellen's classroom "shop".

Limitations

Choosing a qualitative case study design implies a belief about effective social science research. That naturalistic inquiry is a necessary foundation for a comprehensive educational theory defines my opinion about research methods. Yet, as with quantitative research techniques, the qualitative approach is saddled with shortcomings. These include reliability, external validity and internal validity. In chapter three I described the measures I took to ensure trustworthiness in these areas: Prolonged engagement, persistent observation, triangulation of data, participant feedback, peer debriefing, negative case analysis, and defense against bias. While I was conscientious to follow through with all of these methodological safeguards, certain limitations are unavoidable.

First, implicit in a case study approach is the fact that the research will only represent one experience, one point of view, one set of outcomes. For this reason, the reliability of a qualitative study, that is, "the extent to which independent researchers could discover the same phenomena" (Schumacher and Macmillan, 1993, p. 385) is compromised.

My awareness of this potential bias helped me to minimize its impact. Member checking, the frequent confirmation of my observations with research participants, helped me confirm that even though it was a single perspective, it was an accurate one. Throughout the collection and analysis of data I was careful to consult with Ellen to determine whether my emerging conclusions were valid. Ellen welcomed this opportunity and was active in providing feedback and clarification.

In addition to this participant review, I enlisted the help of other researchers who reviewed my accumulating data, listened to my nascent theories, and contributed feedback about the organization and content of my final report.

My effort to detect negative cases, those places in the data that disconfirmed apparent patterns in Ellen's thinking and teaching, and which I addressed in a section titled 'Contradictions' in chapter four, was another method I used to guard against "tunnel vision" in my data analysis.

Ensuring a high degree of internal validity, "the degree to which the explanations of phenomena match the realities of the world" (Schumacher and Macmillan, p. 391) was also a concern of mine. I was careful to establish a lengthy data collection period; the fact that my research plans changed from one half-year to a whole school year's residence in Ellen's classroom speaks to the fulfillment of my goal. I believe that my extended observation time allowed me to see Ellen in a variety of contexts, in collaboration with numerous professional colleagues, and through the completion of several major curriculum projects that contributed to my understanding of her reading instruction.

I was also careful to document Ellen's language accurately with the use of audio and video recorders, followed by verbatim transcription. These transcripts became the evidential basis of most of the findings reported in chapter four.

Finally, by regularly writing about my growing understandings and new questions as I researched Ellen's practice, I "reflected on issues raised in the setting and how they relate to larger theoretical, methodological and substantive issues," (Bogdan and Biklen, 1992, p. 159). This process of memoing, which Schumacher and Macmillan call "disciplined subjectivity" allowed me to submit "all phases of the research process to continuous and rigorous questioning and reevaluation" (p. 392). In this way I attempted to become more aware of my subjectivity during data collection, paying particular attention to places where my own held theories about effective teaching were coloring the way I recorded and interpreted Ellen's work.

In addition to concerns about reliability and internal validity, I was conscious of threats to external validity. In particular, I paid attention to confirmability and transferability (Guba, 1981a, p. 312). These words mean, respectively, the degree to which the research design is adequately described so that researchers may use the study to extend the findings of their studies (Lofland, p. 219); and the researcher's use of theoretical frameworks and research strategies which are familiar to other researchers (Lofland, p. 224).

My attempt to establish confirmability is evident in the detailed accounts of life in Ellen's classroom. These descriptions allow readers to observe the way she thinks about teaching reading and how these thoughts translate into practice. In so doing, her instructional words and deeds can serve as a template against which other case studies might be compared.

In the second half of this chapter, I establish three essential learnings from Ellen's exploration of reading strategy instruction. In these lessons are theoretical discussions of community, belief systems, and relational effects of teaching and learning. Researchers will recognize these theoretical constructs as infused through many educational studies. In addition, my use of traditional data collection methods, interviews, field notes, classroom artifacts, and classroom observation, are sufficiently familiar to educational scholars. The ease of applying these routine research methods to different contexts makes the transferability of my study easy to imagine.

Conclusion

Despite the careful steps I took to establish reliability, internal and external validity, certain aspects of this case study are vulnerable to criticism. One area I have not addressed is the fact that the personal knowledge and experience of the researcher influences the way data is gathered and interpreted. My experience as a fifth grade teacher instilled in me powerful beliefs about the substance of good teaching. It is likely that I carried these opinions into Ellen's classroom and that they directed some of my observational interests.

Further, Ellen's blatant admission that my presence in her classroom affected her practice, coupled with her documented habit of fulfilling the perceived expectations of people in her professional community, undoubtedly influenced the progress of teaching. In one respect, the positive influence of my participation in her work speaks to the value of the development and improvement model of staff development. Ellen's strategy teaching was enhanced by the reflective thinking she did at my urging. Also, in many of our post-observation debriefing sessions we discussed ways to improve a lesson in the future. This kind of coaching was welcomed by Ellen and the result can hardly be criticized in terms of the benefit to student learning.

On the other hand, by playing a central role in Ellen's exploration of strategy teaching, I skewed my own data. A future researcher interested in reproducing my study with a different case study would find it difficult to mimic the conditions in which Ellen and I worked. Anyone who is a participant observer takes an individual personality and set of beliefs to the collaboration that is not replicable. And while replicability is not a condition of qualitative research, Schumacher and Macmillan point out that knowledge from qualitative research is "produced, not from replication, but by the preponderance of evidence found in separate case studies over time" (p. 394), it is valuable to point out that the report of Ellen's experience was not completed as a disinterested observer. "Observer effects" (Schumacher and Macmillan, p. 395) were definitely present.

Having acknowledged the limitations of this case study, it is important to return to a quote that recognizes its strengths. Lofland reminds researchers that, "The case report provides an ideal vehicle for communicating with the consumer. It provides him or her a vicarious experience of the inquiry setting. The aim of the case report is to orient the readers that if they could be magically transported to the inquiry site, they would experience a feeling of deja vu--of having been there before and of being thoroughly familiar with all of its details . . . And, perhaps most important, the case report provides the reader a means for bringing his or her own tacit knowledge to bear . . . " (p. 215)

It is also valuable to cite Schumacher and MacMillan who assert that the findings of a single subject study "are problematic only if the data are claimed to be representative beyond the context" (p. 393). I recognize the contextual boundaries of my study and am firm in my belief that Ellen's story is her own, peppered, of course, with my analysis of her work. I also found support for a case study methodology in a commentary by Tisdale (2001) describing her choice to study a single pair of students involved in a cognitive apprenticeship. She wrote, "The strength of the qualitative case study is to provide in-depth understandings of a unique situation, and therefore, this case study does not claim to represent any other apprenticeship situations" (p. 58). I adopted Tisdale's perspective and did not work under any illusion that what was revealed from Ellen's teaching was suggestive of other teachers' experiences.

With these limitations in mind, I turn to the three fundamental lessons I learned when a fourth grade teacher explored strategy instruction in the context of a constructivist staff development model.

Three Learnings

During my first semester as a freshman in college, I was required to take an interdisciplinary general education course titled "Invention and Discovery". Each week we were given a rhetorical writing prompt and asked to discuss it in a three-to-five page paper. One week's assignment charged us with explaining the meaning of the phrase, "The pen is mightier than the sword". Another week we contemplated the domestic roles of men and women in contemporary society. Our biggest task, though, was an exploration of the difference between an invention and a discovery. We talked about Columbus' "discovery" of America and the "invention" of the computer. Through these conversations, the defining characteristics of invention and discovery quickly became blurred. I've never forgotten that exercise because it helped me sort through what is a genuine new understanding (an invention) and what is personally or socially created knowledge of an idea or place that already exists (a discovery). In fact, I began to question whether there was such a thing as a true invention in our modern time. So much of what we think we *invent* grows out of someone else's previous theories or practices. In this way, most new knowledge is only the discovery of a place that has always been there.

As I reviewed the numerous codes that emerged from the data on Ellen's teaching, I realized that the big learnings from my study were not inventions, but instead discoveries. When I began my research, I carried with me the optimism of a novice researcher who secretly harbors a belief that *her* study would be groundbreaking, a true invention of new educational theory. After my year of data collection and analysis, though, I had to admit that I had arrived at a place many had seen before. The three lessons Ellen's experience taught were that beliefs matter, relationships matter, and professional communities matter. No invention here. The territory is familiar to educational researchers who have explored the field of teacher change.

Confronted with the fact that my research findings could be reduced to three principles that exist as a common refrain in most of the literature, I was discouraged. With further thinking, though, I saw the benefit in exposing these familiar conclusions in the context of a single subject case study. Whole books, scads of articles, decrees from government-funded think tanks have been written about the primacy of beliefs, relationships and professional communities. My study supports these larger, more impersonal findings by examining one teacher on her little perch and showing how these issues make a difference in a particular classroom. In the following sections I discuss the three learnings from Ellen that define my research findings.

Lesson 1: Beliefs Matter

When I proposed my research study, I was primarily interested in exploring teachers' held beliefs about reading instruction and how these ways of thinking impacted their instructional decisions. My research with Ellen, however, helped me recognize that teaching reading well is more complex than the existence of a strong connection between beliefs and practice. Ellen's enthusiasm for a strategy approach was *partly* due to the fact that many of the intervention's founding principles matched Ellen's existing beliefs about high-quality instruction. Affective issues such as the relationship between a teacher and her students, and among students, were important, as were the characteristics of Ellen's professional community. So, while Ellen's beliefs were only a piece of her instructional success, this condition warrants attention.

Schoonmaker (2002) calls teachers' implicit theoretical perspectives "theoretical inclinations" (p. 3) and she explains that they are precursors to theory. Ellen's existing beliefs (a word I have used synonymously with theories throughout this paper) about reading instruction accurately fit the theoretical inclination definition; as a novice teacher with only three years of elementary school experience, Ellen's views about reading instruction were just developing. In fact, they were largely unarticulated at the beginning of my study. In our conversations, she indicated the following: She expressed a firm commitment to the notion that reading should be fun. She placed a high value on the importance of reading as seen in her belief that people need to read "to live". She acknowledged disagreement with a child development professor's advice in her approach to meaningful teacher-student interaction. Finally, Ellen recognized that modeling was an effective teaching tool.

All of these beliefs were part of Ellen's practice before she began her study of strategy instruction. They probably developed in the way described by Clark (1988) who noticed that "teachers' implicit theories tend to be eclectic aggregations of cause-effect propositions from many sources, rules of thumb, generalizations drawn from personal experience, beliefs, values, biases, and prejudices" (p. 6). In Ellen's case, the collection of experiences from her childhood as an avid reader, her exposure to educational theories as an undergraduate, her growing experience as an elementary school teacher, and her affective habits in relating to people, all contributed to her theoretical inclinations. Another important source of Ellen's belief formation as a pre-service teacher was her participation in the University's progressive MAT program. On a beliefs continuum representing the degree of progressiveness in instruction, Ellen's integration of these influences placed her more on the progressive side, although there were examples in her practice that indicated conservative actions, too. When Ellen entered her first classroom as a newly certified teacher, it was likely that she had more non-traditional beliefs about quality instruction than her colleagues.

Research cited by Schoonmaker (2002) suggests that Ellen's more liberal orientation toward reading instruction would be diluted once she began practicing in her own classroom. In reporting on her ten-year study of a teacher named Kay, Schoonmaker included research that predicted Kay's early theoretical inclinations, which were constructivist in nature, would likely dissipate. Based on the research characterizing typical teacher development, Schoonmaker hypothesized that Kay was "likely to become so involved in the rapidly paced life of the classroom that she [would] give little time to the kind of deliberation envisioned by reformers of teacher education . . . and her actions [would] often be inconsistent with her professed beliefs" (p. 5).

Ellen's thinking and instructional actions suggest a developmental trajectory that matches many predictions from the literature. When our study began, Ellen professed to beliefs about reading that were not evident in her instruction. Most significantly, she repeatedly told me that her primary reading goal for students was that they "love" to read, but her instructional plan of independent reading and subsequent journal responses was not having the intended effect. Students disliked the routine and Ellen recognized the approach as deficient. Yet, Ellen's held beliefs about reading instruction were not totally eclipsed by the curricular demands and varied ability levels of her students. She used her read aloud time to instill the love of reading she so highly valued, shared her own voracious habit of reading with her class in conversations about books, and lined her rooms with high quality titles in inviting displays to encourage students' desire to read. Also, Ellen's reading response journal prompts, which she eventually threw out, were effective questions--they simply lacked the instructional support that made the difference between assigning reading and teaching reading.

Perhaps the most telling evidence that Ellen's progressive beliefs about effective reading instruction had not disappeared lay in her positive response to the inquiry course offering. In this opportunity Ellen found a place to confront her dissatisfaction with reading instruction and to ask essential pedagogical questions (noted in chapter three) .

Ellen also found collegial support for her inquiry through her participation in the course. The combination of professional resources, university facilitators, regular peer collaboration, and the coaching relationship that developed from my presence in Ellen's classroom all supported her experiment with strategy instruction. As a result, some of her latent progressive beliefs began to surface.

Research on teacher development indicates that Ellen would face many pressures to participate in a life of teaching that conformed to the traditional expectations of her school. The fact that Ellen's school was exploring school change through its partnership with the university, coupled with Ellen's involvement in site-based professional development opportunities related to the partnership, helped her resist the pressure.

Given the right conditions, Ellen's work proved that her most valued beliefs were brought to bear on instructional decisions. In the case of strategy instruction, Ellen's theoretical inclinations about reading (i.e. the role of explicit instruction in reading, her commitment to high-quality personal interactions in the classroom based on talk and familiarity, and her belief that teachers are fallible and that students benefit by knowing this) were prevailing beliefs that lay the groundwork for her adoption of a strategy approach. Comprehension strategy instruction activated Ellen's existing beliefs and triggered new instructional thinking about a teacher's need to explore her own reading processes, and the value of making cognitive behavior visible. Both of these emerging beliefs added to the success of her experience with the strategy approach.

Conclusion

In the same way that academics can bat around the semantic distinction between invention and discovery, there is the potential for debate about the difference between what it means to change and to improve. To say a teacher has *changed* suggests a major paradigm shift in the way she thinks about instruction and how she acts on this new knowledge in the classroom. When a teacher *improves*, on the other hand, she builds on what she already knows, clarifies her beliefs, revises her practice, extends her existing knowledge. There is a strong case to be made for concluding that Ellen *improved* as a reading teacher. As the analysis of her strategy teaching experience showed, many of the qualities of an effective strategy teacher were in place before Ellen began exploring this approach to reading instruction. She did not need to *change* her beliefs or behavior to embrace the intervention. For Ellen, learning about comprehension strategy instruction was a thrilling discovery. In this method, she recognized a good "fit" between its principles and what she believed embodied effective reading instruction.

Beliefs mattered in Ellen's ability to consider a reading strategy approach as a viable instructional option, and to successfully put her learning into pedagogical action. When I began working with Ellen, she was searching for a way to improve her reading instruction. One reason why she quickly became proficient with a reading strategies approach was how closely its philosophical orientation matched her unarticulated, but existing, instructional beliefs. With an acceptance of this connection, there are implications for literacy staff development programs.

First, professional development in literacy needs to begin with an exploration of teachers' implicit theories about reading and writing. Rather than trying to eliminate teachers' beliefs that do not fit current visions of effective instruction, and replacing them with "official teacher education knowledge" (Schoonmaker, p. 136), universities and staff developers should work to bring these ideas to a conscious level. Once teachers are aware of their "theoretical inclinations", they can use them as a source of study. How will this personal knowledge impact their stance toward curricular change? is one beginning question to ask. Also, teachers should be encouraged to ask themselves "Is what I'm doing consistent with what I believe" based on the awareness of their held beliefs. The answer, whether negative or affirmative, will be compelling.

Second, powerful literacy coursework, professional development opportunities, and school administrator orientations need to recognize that teachers "have different levels of interest and background preparation and will invite those who have a more experimental mindset to engage in curriculum inquiry around new knowledge, research, or public demands" (Schoonmaker, p. 137). Not all teachers are ready or willing to change. Making available substantive professional development projects is the best way to encourage interested teachers; from here, strategies for involving greater numbers of teachers will develop.

The mission of Professional Development Schools to decide research agendas based on teacher and school interests, coupled with the expertise of university-based faculty, is an example of valuable teacher development planning. So is eliminating what Schoonmaker calls "treatment days", those one-shot staff development workshops that tell teachers about new methods or new curricula and how to implement them.

Some teachers may profess to appreciating this condensed exposure to new ideas because it helps keep them "current" without the investment of time required of an inquiry-based approach. This attitude is dangerous and should not be perpetuated by university faculty who agree to one-day workshops, or school districts that request them. The rationale for the continued existence of basal readers, whose instructional value is perennially disputed, sounds similar but is equally specious. University faculty who argue that "teachers are going to use basals no matter what the research shows, so we might as well make them as effective as possible," and who use this justification as a means to consult with textbooks companies for huge sums of money, are damaging their integrity and forfeiting the good faith of teachers. The same effect is predicted if teachers continue to be offered limited engagement with their professional development.

Finally, when teachers have recognized, named, and investigated the impact of their beliefs on the way they organize literacy instruction, the people in charge of introducing new pedagogy to teachers must acknowledge the theoretical foundations of the intervention. By starting with the *why*, rather than the *what*, of a new teaching idea, and explaining the research base for this recommended practice, teacher educators show a consistent commitment to the importance of a theory-practice connection. Making teachers aware of their theoretical inclinations is not enough. They must also be offered opportunities to compare their dispositions to educational innovations. Helping teachers develop this habit of mind will provide a valuable orientation that carries them through future professional experiences and provides a gauge for judging an experience's worth.

In my final analysis of the data, I had to admit that beliefs are such a potent factor in the way teachers think, plan and deliver instruction that I would not be exaggerating to conclude that *beliefs matter* is the only lesson from Ellen. When I say that in Ellen's work I discovered that *relationships matter* and that *professional communities matter*, I am obligated to confess that the way she negotiated her relationships with students and her colleagues was based on beliefs she held about personal interaction.

In deciding on how to organize my research conclusions, I might have chosen to summarize my findings simply by saying *beliefs matter* and providing evidence. In the academic tradition of enumeration, however, and recognizing the truth in I.A. Richards' pronouncement that "all thinking is sorting", I have pulled two larger ideas from under the beliefs umbrella to describe next.

Lesson 2: Relationships Matter

When I began my work in Ellen's classroom, I was interested in documenting examples of her practice and descriptions of her thinking that might indicate the strong beliefs she held about reading instruction. I knew, though, that a proper qualitative researcher observed with an eye toward emerging categories and I was faithful to this principle by documenting events that seemed innocuous, but which might develop significance with further analysis. One example of a seemingly trivial condition of Ellen's classroom that blossomed into a substantial area of interest was the relationship she had with her students. During each observation period I recorded at least one exchange between Ellen and her students that was noteworthy because of the genuine affection and interest it indicated.

> November 29, 2001
>
> These kids really know Ellen. She must spend a lot of time telling them about her likes and dislikes because they can predict how she might react to a food, a book, a situation on the playground. Today when she was reading aloud from Amazing Grace a student said, "I'll bet this reminds you of that time when you dressed up with your sister and put on that little play for your grandparents." Ellen had not talked about this connection today, but the girl knew about the incident from Ellen's childhood and recalled it as a connection Ellen might make.

On another day, I made a note about student interaction after recess when one boy complimented a girl on her kickball skills. During a class discussion in March, I overhead a student acknowledge the quality of an insight his classmate shared in her response to an article the class had read. And in April, after the students had done a week of literature circles around their nonfiction book choices, a girl brought in a bookbag full of books about sharks to give one of her peers.

"I remember you said you wanted more books about sharks and these were my brother's but he doesn't like sharks anymore so you can have them."

"I can *have* them?"

"Yeah. We don't want them."

The fact that student relationships in Ellen's classroom recognized academic interests, and tolerated questioning, indicate the kind of support systems that made genuine inquiry possible.

Episodes that illustrated this kind of intellectual and affective interaction among students were frequent, and I documented them more out of a sense of regard for the climate of the classroom than a possible area of further inquiry. Two articles from professional journals, however, helped me to see the importance of relationships in literacy learning. Taking Bogdan and Biklen's (1992) advice to 'begin exploring the literature while you are in the field" (p. 161) was an important catalyst in my analysis of the research data. By continuing to scan the literature on literacy research during my data collection, I was fortunate to come across readings that helped make sense of my observations. One was titled, *Beyond words: The relational dimension of learning to read and write* by Judith Lysaker (2000); the other was *Dissension and distress in a cognitive apprenticeship in reading* by Kit Tisdale (2001). These reports of classroom research pushed me to recognize the importance of the relationship observations I was making.

Lysaker's writing, which described her case study of a first grade boy named Paul and his struggles to learn to read, introduced me to the relational model of language learning. According to this theory, "the development of skills and strategies that are necessary for using written language are seen as both subordinate to and dependent on meaning-making experience by the participants, even if the participants happen to be a teacher and a student" (p. 480). After working with Paul in a year-long tutoring partnership, Lysaker concluded, "I believe we need to focus on what children do within relationships as they work with text" (p. 481). Integral to a relational model of language learning is the practice of "shared consciousness" (p. 480), another way to describe making thinking visible. Lysaker cites Bruner's example of an adult working with a child to teach block-building skills as an example of shared consciousness.

In her phenomenological study of Paul, Lysaker learned that there were five necessary conditions for shared consciousness. These were ritual, in this case the consistent, predictable organization of Paul and Lysaker's one-on-one reading times; physical closeness, Paul's habit of sitting close to Lysaker during their shared reading, and Lysaker's sanctioning of this intimate proximity; shared objects, Paul's desire to use Lysaker's pen and notebook, and his offering of favorite books and materials to her; shared meaning making, the way Lysaker made her thinking visible as she read with Paul and his growing metacognitive awareness of his own reading strategies; and celebration, the printing of Paul's final draft and his author status when he shared his piece during a writing circle (p. 480-483).

Lysaker explains that while Paul's classroom instruction included some of these aspects of a relational perspective in literacy learning, not enough of the scaffolds were present. She theorizes that the themes of her relationship with Paul "more common to a child's early language development and well documented in the interactions of mothers and young children, are not often prominent aspects of classroom instruction" (p. 483). She goes on to suggest that "perhaps for some children, part of learning to read and write in school is dependent upon the transposition of earlier relational dimensions of language learning in the classroom" (p. 483). When Lysaker's collaboration with Paul was coming to a close, she noted that he was "weaning" himself from the scaffolds she had provided and using his peers for literacy support in ways that were typically sanctioned in school activities.

When comparing Ellen's reading instruction to the relational model of language learning the similarities are evident. The examples of interaction patterns that I recorded, but at first ignored, turned out to match Lysaker's conditions of relational learning quite closely. In Ellen's daily offering of read aloud time, an event in the day that she and the students came to depend on ("And I can tell you, on the days when I've had to forgo [read aloud time], I go home miserable.") is seen the ritual that Lysaker named as an important aspect of her work with Paul. The way students gathered around Ellen's feet on a carpeted section of the floor and leaned toward her while she read, or the intimacy of students who brushed each other's hair while Ellen read, or sprawled shoulder to shoulder on the floor, mirrored the physical closeness that existed between Lysaker and Paul.

Further, Ellen's predictable delivery of a strategy lesson, beginning with a question to focus students' attention on a reading behavior, describing her own use of a strategy, reading aloud and sharing her use of the featured strategy in progress, followed by discussion and independent practice was a ritual that helped Ellen's students feel comfortable with a form of instruction that was new to most of them.

Other characteristics of Ellen's teaching matched the relational model. She was generous in sharing the materials in her classroom, especially the expensive library of books she had funded from her own resources and which decorated every available space in the room. When she wanted students to understand the way glass bead making was a metaphor for learning, she brought her equipment and sample beads for the class to see.

In response, students often contributed personal items to the class, including books, computer disks, artifacts related to a unit in science, and entertainment items such as Harry Potter merchandise or sports equipment for recess time. The sharing of objects recognized as important to a relational model of learning in Lysaker's work, also signaled a spirit of respect and concern among members of Ellen's classroom community.

Another feature of the relational model of language learning that was particularly evident in Ellen's classroom was shared meaning making. The basis of each strategy lesson Ellen offered during reading instruction was her willingness to "open up her head" and share her thinking with her students. The result of Ellen's metacognitive protocol was students' reciprocal behavior. Her fourth graders became proficient at recognizing their own expert reading behaviors and sharing these as part of text discussions. Like Lysaker, Ellen allowed her students to enter her reading process and to "borrow what they need" (p. 482) while they were learning comprehension strategies.

Finally, Ellen's reading instruction embodied the theme of celebration. In Paul's case, simply printing a piece of writing and sharing it with his classmates was ceremony enough. Ellen's efforts to recognize her students' reading achievements were more substantial. In one case, she arranged a "buddy reading" session with a class of third graders so her class could read a nonfiction article to a younger student and share their new strategies for comprehending with their "less informed" neighbors.

The crowning moment in the class's celebration of their reading achievement, though, happened one evening in May when they hosted a tea party in their classroom. Families and friends were invited to hear students read aloud from the nonfiction books they had written about a topic of interest. The response to the invitation was so overwhelming that Ellen and her intern Betsy had to use another classroom to house all the party-goers. As part of the evening, the audience sat in a circle as students shared the topic of their book, described their interest in the subject, named the resources they had read to research the topic, then chose a page from their book to read aloud to the group. After this presentation, the "authors" took questions from the audience. The mood in the classroom once the sharing had ended, and families mingled with cups of "punch" tea and pastries, was definitely celebratory.

According to Lysaker, celebrations are the part of a relational model that recognizes students' growing independence and self-identity. Celebrating the work learners have accomplished moves the responsibility away from the teacher and honors students' efforts in their own learning process. Ellen's teaching embraced this practice. Combined with the other features of the relational model of learning described by Lysaker, it is evident that Ellen operated according to its principles; although, she probably had no idea that her approach to instruction had a theoretical designation. Equally ironic is the fact that as the researcher I was unaware, initially, of the significance of what I observed in Ellen's interaction with students and among the students themselves. Because a strategy approach to teaching reading comprehension skills is dependent on trust among readers who support each other's work, and a respect for the vulnerability inherent in genuine learning experiences, Ellen's relational style of teaching was perfectly suited to this approach. When she began introducing reading strategies to her students, they were already learning about supportive citizenship, both through their Community of Caring program, and in Ellen's individual efforts to establish a respectful mood in her classroom.

Would Ellen's ability to use a reading strategies approach have been compromised without the strong relational basis that existed in her classroom? If a respect for fallibility in learners was missing, would Ellen's students have progressed as much using this pedagogical style? The research reported in Tisdale's article speaks to these questions.

Tisdale conducted a qualitative case study of a primary-aged student and her college-aged tutor involved in a reading apprenticeship. The girl, named Shantea, was a fourth grader enrolled in an afterschool reading program designed to assist her in her failing reading progress. Hannah, a senior in the education program at a local university, was Shantea's partner in the apprenticeship. As part of an undergraduate service-learning course at the university, Hannah met regularly with Shantea at the afterschool program, four days a week for thirty minutes a session (p. 57).

> Hannah trained to do the reading apprenticeship and participated in weekly discussions (as part of the service learning course) with the research team and other adult participants to troubleshoot, share, and learn about reading related issues," according to Tisdale. The basis of the apprenticeship approach, Tisdale explains, is the metaphor that there is "a community of practice for an apprentice to join . . . Apprentices are people becoming kinds of persons' . . . in a cognitive apprenticeship, it follows, the young apprentice is learning not just a skill but is becoming a mathematician, a physicist, or in this case, a reader (p. 67-68).

Hannah tape recorded each reading session with Shantea, and kept a reflective journal in which she documented the events of each apprenticeship encounter. Tisdale used the audiotapes, Hannah's journals, pre- and post-interviews with Shantea and Hannah, a final course paper by Hannah, and various quantitative data sources such as minutes of instruction, pages read, and books completed, as the substance of her data analysis.

The results showed that the apprenticeship between Hannah and Shantea slowly disintegrated until they were no longer able to work successfully together. Tisdale tracked the deterioration of the reading partnership on a continuum from "The good days" to "Moving from good to not-so-good", to "The not-so-good days". Tisdale describes her analysis of the situation in terms of an evolution. In the beginning of the intervention, Shantea was an eager reading partner who looked forward to Hannah's arrival. Over the course of the program, however, Shantea became avoidant and finally hostile. Gradually the shared reading experience, which began as a pleasurable time when Shantea and Hannah "shared reading the books and laughing at the stories," (p. 66) devolved into a power struggle. "It seemed everything related to reading was fair game for a struggle--where to read, where to hold the book, who would read first, what would be read, and how long the reading would last" (p. 66). The conflict became so intense, and Shantea's behavior so inappropriate, that Hannah "felt she could no longer be a friend [to Shantea] . . . yet she did not feel comfortable or legitimate in an authority's role" (p. 67).

Tisdale points to several incidents as examples in the breakdown of the apprenticeship. The biggest change in the apprenticeship was Shantea's growing refusal to participate in the shared reading experiences. She found multiple ways to avoid reading, first by trying to engage Hannah in off-topic conversations to fill their 30 minutes of reading time, and then to insulting Hannah to upset her and end the sessions. At first, Hannah attempted to bring the conversation back to books, or to resist the urge to be hurt by Shantea's insults about her appearance and choice of friends. Eventually, though, Hannah was unable to practice restraint and she contributed to Shantea's inappropriate behavior by trying to defend her personal choice of clothing and boyfriends.

As soon as Hannah started taking Shantea's bait, the apprenticeship was damaged beyond repair. Tisdale ascribes some of the failure of the partnership to racial differences; Shantea was African-American and Hannah was Caucasian. The cultural implications of their different racial and socio-economic status' are not inconsequential, but in terms of how the study relates to my research of Ellen's teaching, it is more significant to explore the instructional details of the failed apprenticeship.

According to Tisdale, Hannah's "beliefs about school and reading were in conflict with the apprenticeship model and seemed to (negatively) influence her scaffolding (especially during stressful reading times)" (p. 67). In other words, under pressure, Hannah ignored the principles of the cognitive apprenticeship and used traditional means of teaching reading such as correcting every misspoken word by Shantea, asking her to re-read sections of text until they were error-free, and ignoring signals from Shantea that she needed a break from the reading task and forging ahead with the prescribed plan.

Interestingly, it was not only Hannah's flawed execution of practice in the partnership that affected its development. Tisdale theorized that Shantea's beliefs about reading did not line up with those of the cognitive apprenticeship either, and that this mismatch doomed the project.

For Shantea, "being a good reader meant certain things," according to Tisdale. "Shantea described her [regular classroom] teacher as a good reading teacher because "she knows all the words" (p. 70). When Hannah revealed that there were times in her own reading when she was confused or had to look up the definition of a word, her status with Shantea as a "good teacher" was undermined. When Shantea expressed doubt about Hannah's efficacy as a reading partner, Hannah retreated to traditional ways of tutoring readers to regain Shantea's respect. As Tisdale notes, "the project failed to imagine with the adult participants and the children what it would be like to talk about books and reading in "unschooled" ways. Not surprisingly, Shantea and Hannah both clung to the familiar ways of discussing literacy" (p. 71).

There are important differences in the contexts of Tisdale's study and my study of Ellen's reading practices, most significantly Tisdale's focus on a partnership and my study of Ellen's relationships with her whole class, as well the cultural factors that impacted the relationship between Hannah and Shantea. Ellen shared the culture of her students, having been a resident of the Sullivan district her whole life, and except for one student, she shared every student's Caucasian background. Neither cultural nor racial diversity was a significant factor in Ellen's teaching relationships. These differences aside, there are important lessons to take from Tisdale's study.

First, the lack of trust between Shantea and Hannah negatively impacted the progression of their apprenticeship. Tisdale concluded from her analysis that "benevolence within the relationship seems important . . . The existence of goodwill between an apprentice and the more-knowledgable-other may keep interpersonal problems with power, communication, and trust from interfering with the learning possible in a cognitive apprenticeship" (p. 77). Ellen implicitly recognized the importance of relationships and made the development of positive interactions the center of her work. When she began to incorporate reading strategy instruction into her instructional plans, she did not need Tisdale to tell her that "adults must be aware of their roles in developing and maintaining these important interpersonal features when using guided participation with children" (p. 77). Ellen already had this awareness.

Another teaching from Tisdale's study is the reiteration of the importance of beliefs. For Hannah and Shantea, "the underlying tenets of the cognitive apprenticeship did not match the participants' beliefs" (p. 77). Shantea did not appreciate reading as a skill that was necessary outside the walls of her school. Hannah's beliefs and actions, particularly toward the end of the apprenticeship, "seemed to reinforce Shantea's beliefs in competition and getting the words right" (p. 77). The combination of a social constructivist view of reading instruction with a pair of learners who did not understand or embrace the philosophy spelled disaster. As I have discussed in the beliefs section above, Ellen's theoretical inclinations positioned her well to adopt the foundations of strategy teaching. The story of Hannah and Shantea point to the result when a mismatch between beliefs and practice exists.

Conclusion:

Lysaker and Tisdale offer compelling evidence that relationships matter in literacy teaching. Ellen's commitment to strong student-to-student, and teacher-to-student interaction, and her successful experience using a reading strategies approach, points to the positive effects of this bond on instructional practice. If Ellen had not been the kind of teacher who was firm, fair *and* familiar, her attempts to think aloud about her connections to literature might have fallen flat. If she lacked the confidence to be vulnerable when sharing her own reading obstacles and how she overcomes them, students would have lacked a sufficient example of genuine proficient reader behavior.

At the same time, the students needed to admire and trust Ellen enough to know that when she "opened her head" to show them what she was thinking, she was practicing effective teaching methods, not offering an example of her weakness as a teacher. And, when students were sent to work in groups, they needed to have sufficient regard for each other's thought processes and opinions to make the discussions valuable. Gallas (1995) points out that,

> friends, family members, and colleagues can challenge and transform a story, or an account of an event, without dissolving the relationship. The same process must happen in a classroom for a teacher and children to achieve new levels of synthesis and understanding when studying any subject. Saying what you think about a question on which you are not an expert is extremely risky (p. 44).

These kinds of relationships were evident in Ellen's classroom.

Relationships mattered in the successful implementation of a strategy approach. Although Ellen might not have been able to articulate that her pedagogical thinking and actions placed her squarely in the social-constructivist model of learning, she was there. Ellen valued talk. She valued relationships. She shared her consciousness with students and provided opportunities for them to practice this habit. The result was a mood of respect for and interest in learning.

What are the implications when one acknowledges the importance of relationships in successful learning? There are several. First, schools need to recognize the important role supportive classroom relationships play in learning. Programs like Sullivan's Community of Caring are examples of affective curriculum that address the benefits of healthy interpersonal relationships. There are some indications in the Sullivan district that the Community of Caring model is valued more for its effect on the noise level in schools and students' behavior on field trips than for its impact on learning. The Elm Street School is eerily quiet. Even when students are in physical education, which takes place in the cafeteria in the center of the school, it is difficult to know that students are playing ball, stretching, or listening to instruction from the teacher. It is that hushed. Hallway transitions are similarly ordered and silent. When bus drivers ferry Sullivan district students to field trip sites they regularly comment on the excellent decorum of the riders.

Of course, this respectful behavior creates a peaceful atmosphere and the Sullivan district should be applauded for creating schools that are pleasant to attend. I would hope, however, that Sullivan, along with other districts interested in the Community of Caring model, adopt it more for its potential impact on learning than on stellar hallway behavior. The kind of student exchanges I witnessed in Ellen's classroom when students complimented each others' athletic skills and literary insights are the examples to focus on.

Another positive academic use of the model happened the year before my study with Ellen. I was involved with a different inquiry project offering at another district school in which a pair of fifth grade teachers explored how to integrate the ethical principles of the Community of Caring program into their literature discussions and character studies. This curricular use of affective education is where the power of relational learning is most powerful.

Another implication of the relational model of learning is in its use during teacher education opportunities. Ellen's experience, along with Lysaker's study of Paul, and Tisdale's analysis of Hannah and Shantea, suggest the benefit of introducing the issue of relationships with teachers who are considering instructional change. An intervention such as reading strategy instruction is grounded in the assumption that teachers hold a benevolent view of interaction with their students. Teacher educators should not make this assumption, though; instead they need to bring it to the table as part of the pedagogical discussion. While it may be awkward for some teachers to confront the fact that their student-teacher relationships are impoverished and that they need to work harder to establish respectful relationships among their students, it is a discomfort that must be addressed if strategy instruction, in particular, is to be comprehensively studied. I would argue that relationships are an important factor in any apprenticeship situation, whether in reading, science, art, or mathematics.

In the two lessons discussed above, *beliefs matter* and *relationships matter*, the emphasis has been on the individual teacher, her instructional decision making, and the beliefs about relationships that she takes to the classroom. Despite the prevailing image of the teacher as an island, the truth is no teacher acts in isolation. She is responsible to her professional community and the way this sense of responsibility plays out has important consequences for her growth as a teacher. Ellen's story highlights this lesson.

Lesson 3: Professional Communities Matter

In May, 2002, Ellen sent me an e-mail asking if I would write her a letter of recommendation for admission into the Master's degree program in Literacy at the local university. In my letter I wrote,

> Ellen is an excellent candidate for graduate school. Her four years of classroom teaching experience have been full of progress and questions. Each year of her career she has chosen a curricular area to develop more fully, and she has devoted herself to improving her instruction using both professional literature and her students' learning as sources of information. This year Ellen chose to look more closely at her reading instruction. I have observed and recorded the insightful questions she has brought to this inquiry and I am consistently impressed by Ellen's willingness to be critical; these judgments apply equally to what she learns through professional reading and writing, as well as to her own teaching approaches (May 3, 2002).

I include this excerpt from my letter for three reasons. First, the fact that Ellen decided to begin another graduate degree program, after already earning a Master of Arts in Teaching, speaks to her dedication to continued professional learning. Second, her request that I write a letter of recommendation highlights the relationship that we developed. Ellen viewed me as a colleague from her teaching-learning-teaching community who had supported her work and who might speak to her academic strengths.

Third, the excerpt summarizes my year-long characterization of Ellen's approach to instruction. She has a curious mind. She is rarely satisfied with her professional progress and looks for opportunities to expand her pedagogical knowledge. She balances her instructional decisions with information from "expert" sources and her special knowledge of student interests and needs. What the letter does not explain directly, but which is true of Ellen, is her response to being supported by a community of active inquiry. Ellen blossomed during the year of my research study. In some school contexts she may have felt limited in her ability to share her growing enthusiasm for reading instruction, but she made professional decisions that put her in more positive situations than negative ones.

Along with her decision to apply for the Master's degree program, in which she has been accepted, Ellen also applied for fellowship in Maine's National Writing Project for the summer of 2002. The writing project accepts no more than thirty teachers around the state of Maine who, if selected, commit to studying writing instruction for four weeks in the summer, with continued responsibility as "former fellows" throughout the following school year. After a nomination process, a submission of an application, and a formal interview, Ellen was accepted as a writing fellow.

With Ellen's permission, I loosely followed her experience in the MWP, visiting on days when she did large group presentations, and observing during guest speaking events when I had the opportunity to watch Ellen's response. The three week institute was highly effective in supporting Ellen's love of writing. She produced three major papers during her fellowship, a learning autobiography, a piece of creative writing, and a position paper. This latter piece of writing, decrying the decline in reading among youth, was submitted to the city paper, by Ellen, and accepted in the Op-Ed section.

Another sign of Ellen's success in the writing project was her selection to present at a statewide Best Practices conference in October 2002. Her session, titled *Nonfiction Readers Becoming Nonfiction Writers*, builds on the reading strategy work Ellen's class did last year and its connection to nonfiction writing.

Perhaps the most noteworthy evidence of Ellen's successful MWP participation was an invitation to be a co-director for next summer's institute. One of the guiding principles of the National Writing Project is its co-facilitation by a University faculty member and a former fellow who has demonstrated exceptional instructional skills and leadership capabilities. Ellen accepted the co-directorship position.

(It is interesting to note that despite Ellen's success as a MWP fellow, she was still concerned with meeting arbitrary standards. On the morning of the institute's last day, Ellen sent me via e-mail raging about her computer:

> July 19, 2002
>
> Okay, today is the last day of the institute. Yesterday my computer died!!!!! So here I am on the last day with nothing to hand in. I have spent six years in college and have never handed in a single thing late! So I hope [the university facilitator] is understanding. ARGGGGG!)

The fact that professional communities influence Ellen's instructional practice positively is evident, both in the effect of the inquiry course, our research collaboration, and her participation in the Maine Writing Project. Hargreaves (1995), quoting Shulman, articulates this consequence:

> Teacher collegiality and collaboration are not merely important for the improvement of morale and teacher satisfaction . . . but are absolutely necessary if we wish teaching to be of the highest order . . . Collegiality and collaboration are also needed to ensure that teachers benefit from their experiences and continue to grow during their careers (p. 187).

Given the freedom Ellen felt in the inquiry class, and the resulting instructional experimentation, it is reasonable to imagine that an equally supportive school-based community may have extended her growth even more significantly. Ellen felt regulated by the teachers' room culture at her school, however, and chose not to share her learning and enthusiasm with that population of colleagues.

An obvious implication of this tension between teacher growth and collegial influence is to start school improvement projects at the community level. This conclusion, however, is too simplistic. Focusing on community requires a definition of community, a term fraught with nuance.

First, a professional community has many "also known as" monikers. The literature refers to professional communities as "professional learning environments" (Schoonmaker, 2002); "professional cultures" (Cooper, 1988); and "professional collaborations" (Lieberman, 1988). For the ensuing discussion, these terms will be used synonymously with professional community.

Recognizing the terminology surrounding community is easy compared to teasing out a thorough definition. Westheimer (1998) explains that:

> There are many visions of community. Some seek to reinforce conservative notions of individual rights and freedoms while others pointedly question relations of power and authority. Some visions differ from one another in the convictions and motivations they represent, and some represent convictions and motivations that are alarming and dangerous (p. 9).

The issue raised by Westheimer seems to be that public schools in the U.S. exist in the larger context of a democratic society. By definition, a democracy is a place where people have agreed to disagree. Their common vision is one of tolerance for the rights of the individual. How does this translate to the formation of a professional community? Westheimer suggests that

> before debating the proper course to steer toward stronger, more cohesive teacher communities, we must ask whether educators aspire to the same type of communities. Policymakers, practitioners, and academics must question whether the widespread calls for community and shared commitment obscure the diversity of interests, ideologies, politics, and cultures represented by today's schools (p. 1 11).

Cooper (1988) asks a powerful question that puts a point on Westheimer's more esoteric discussion of community. In her article, she writes about culture in the same sense that Westheimer uses community.

> Whose culture is it anyway? If teachers are told what to be professional about, how, where, and with whom to collaborate, and what blueprint of professional

> conduct to follow, then the culture that evolves will be foreign to the setting. They will once again have "received" culture (p. 47).

Hargreaves' (1995) research around teachers' work and culture revealed the "contrived collegiality" (p. 208) that Cooper questions. Hargreaves' data suggested that "in contrived collegiality, collaboration among teachers was compulsory, not voluntary; bounded and fixed in time and space; implementation-rather than development-oriented; and meant to be predictable rather than unpredictable" (p. 208).

Huberman, quoted in Hargreaves (1995), further problematizes the often unquestioned benefits of professional collaboration. While Cooper highlights the ethical dilemmas in building a school-wide professional community, Huberman raises doubts about collaboration at the individual level. He uses an analogy between art and teaching to make his case:

> 'Sculptors may often want to see each other sculpt, talk about sculpting with fellow artists and go to exhibitions of their work, but would never sculpt with a colleague on the same piece of marble.' Because of frequent differences in beliefs and approach, teachers . . . may be no different than sculptors in this sense (Huberman, 1990, quoted in Hargreaves, 1994).

Issues of power, as seen in the views of Westheimer, Cooper, Hargreaves and Huberman, saturate any academic discussion of community. These philosophical perspectives have helped me realize that the response to "professional communities matter" is more complicated than I originally thought. A collaborative culture demands more than a good instructional intervention and a convenient meeting time. Before dialogue about practice begins, a conversation about a community's vision needs to happen. Westheimer (1998), in his research of two middle schools in the process of change , found that the idea that members of a community share beliefs was a flawed truism in current philosophical debates. According to Westheimer, although shared beliefs play a prominent role in various recipes, guidelines, and discussions that surround efforts to build teacher professional communities in schools, there is , surprisingly, "little discussion of the nature of the beliefs. 'What beliefs should be shared?' is a thorny question almost always left to the imagination of practitioners and policymakers" (p. 138).

In my study of Ellen, the data suggested that professional communities did impact her practice, but I did not explore why beyond her personal reaction to the presence of what she perceived as a positive or negative force. I did not, for instance, investigate whether the school had an acknowledged vision. The school's mission statement, a variation on the "no student left behind" theme so prevalent in today's news, does not include a specific rationale for their position, nor does it include strategies for meeting this goal. And importantly, I think, a goal is different than a vision. The former implies a measurable outcome. The latter is a way of thinking about instruction that guides practice and reflection.

On the other hand, the Professional Development Network had a well-articulated mission statement that included genuine collaboration with teachers around questions of common interest. Systems for guaranteeing this kind of synergy were thriving--on-site course offerings, frequent research projects between classroom teachers and university based researchers, partnership-sponsored professional retreats, co-teaching of methods courses, and a progressive mentor teacher-intern program that eschewed traditional forms of student teacher evaluation in favor of more liberal practices.

Yet in my experience, conversations about a community vision, what a school faculty named as its bottom lines in teaching and learning, and how best to enact these principles, were not happening. The structure to explore these important questions was in place, but the building of a professional community was overlooked.

"The protection of [teachers'] individuality, and their discretion of judgment, is also a protection of their right to disagree and reflect critically on the value and worth of what it is they are being asked to collaborate about" (Hargreaves, 1995, p. 191). In this statement lies the conundrum of community. It is a group of people working together, operating from shared principles, with the understanding that these principles may be, even should be, questioned.

After considering the complex semantics around community, I have concluded that the most comprehensive definition is one that supports its members in their independent quest to answer questions related to a shared vision. In other words, a healthy community has a common focus but recognizes the individual needs of its members. Hargreaves adds to my definition when he lists the characteristics of a genuine collaborative culture. A true community is spontaneous, voluntary, development-oriented, pervasive across time and space, and unpredictable (p. 192-193).

What kind of professional teaching community has at its core a fundamental way of thinking about effective instruction while granting its members the freedom to "sculpt" on their own? The answer to this question may be found in the teacher research movement that has infiltrated educational research in the last 15 years. Places like the Mapleton School (Chandler, 1999), the teacher partnership networks in Atlanta, Georgia (Graham, Hudson-Ross, Adkins, McWhorter, Stewart, 1999), and the nationwide team of teacher researchers based in Philadelphia, Pennsylvania (Freedman, Simons, Kalnin, Casareno, 1999), have shown that educational collaboratives exist in which teachers study the theory and craft of teaching together, arrive at common understandings about best practice, then return to their own classrooms for experimentation.

The successes of places like these offer promise for educational reform. A solid professional development program will build on the knowledge that "beliefs matter" by creating long term opportunities for teachers to work in teams to explore and name these beliefs. The result should not be prescriptive. As Sergiovanni has noted, "Philosophies among successful schools differ, often dramatically. Instead, success seems to be related to the fact that though substance differs, the schools have achieved focus and clarity and have embodied them in a unified practice" (p. 100). Sergiovanni shares the mantra of teachers in schools where change happens. These teachers, he explains, constantly ask themselves, "Is what we're doing consistent with what we believe?" Professional development designs that begin with this question will go a long way toward establishing a culture of inquiry where teachers feel safe exploring their ideas and supported in the instructional changes they make.

Conclusion

Professional Communities mattered in Ellen's exploration of reading strategy instruction. I arrived at this conclusion after observing both positive and negative influences of her collegial interactions, experiences that simultaneously supported her professional curiosity and possibly compromised her ability to cultivate her inquiry to its fullest potential. Celebrating the contexts in which Ellen felt empowered in her professional development, and pointing a finger at those situations that restricted her voice and actions, is too facile a response to the data. Professional communities are not dichotomous, either all good, or miserably flawed. "The question of building a professional culture is methodologically complex, politically sensitive, and intellectually intricate," Cooper (1988, p. 54) concludes in her essay exploring the fallacies inherent in many "progressive" professional development movements. Most pertinent to the research reported here is the issue of "received" culture. Even when teachers become empowered, Cooper believes, the effect is illusory. "Essentially, the current empowerment of teachers in such areas as curriculum, school improvement, and professional development is *received* power, limited by others' decisions and subject to cancellation if extended beyond defined boundaries" (p. 51).

As I consider the implications of my conclusion that professional communities matter, I am obliged to weigh Ellen's experiences against the literature on school cultures. In Ellen's case, she felt most supported in contexts related to the professional development partnership. It was in these opportunities, the inquiry course, the data analysis retreat, the learning labs, and the relationship with her "researcher in residence", that Ellen felt confident reflecting on her practice, asking questions, and taking instructional risks. She also derived great professional satisfaction from her coursework in the traditional graduate school offerings through the university. And it is important to note that the opportunities to spend time in these supportive environments far outnumbered the amount of time Ellen was required to interact in the limiting conditions of the teachers' room--a climate, admittedly, that was largely self-created out of Ellen's desire not to alienate any faculty members.

Acknowledging the different effects each situation had on Ellen's professional behavior, I am compelled to question the conditions that led to the creation of both contexts. According to the literature, Ellen's feelings of professional support may be the result of conferred professionalism (Cooper) or "contrived collegiality" (Hargreaves).

The faculty room culture may *not* be a hotbed of conservatism, but instead a community of teachers who have been

> 'done to' so often that they are beyond illusion. Faced now with a new language of change, they are rather reserved in their embrace. Secretly, they are skeptical, wondering at this sudden interest in their professionalism and their culture, when for years their behavior has been standardized and prescribed (Cooper, p. 46).

The appropriate academic response to the knotty issue of professional communities seems to be a recommendation that schools interested in building a collaborative culture make the complexities visible. Bring to the table questions about individuality in a democracy, the true nature of empowerment, the potential for communities to simultaneously support and restrict its members. When a school realizes that 'the act of engaging in collaboration often brings the darker tendencies of the individual members of a group to the surface," and that "subtle and not-so-subtle battles over power and control occur and can preoccupy and divert a group from its avowed purpose" (Schoonmaker, p. 66), it will be closer to achieving a genuine professional community. This true collaborative environment will show a respect for "knowledge of the other" and understand that "true collaboration is an ideal won by working through the conflict that inevitably emerges" (p. 66).

At the Elm Street School, indeed in any school where teachers feel threatened by change or silenced by community norms, the faculty would be well-served by the introduction of "community theory" into its professional agenda. At the same time, university faculty, along with the public school personnel who organize the staff development activities in a professional development school, would extend their legitimacy among school-based participants by making a dialogue about professional communities part of the on-going conversation.

Professional communities matter, but stating this conclusion is more complicated than the three words would suggest. This final lesson from Ellen builds on the two earlier lessons about beliefs and relationships, while at the same time it casts these two conditions in a more problematic light. Ellen's beliefs about teaching and the relationships she encourages in her classroom suggest a vision of education that may not be shared by her colleagues. In order to build a genuine professional community in their building, Ellen and her colleagues would need to begin a discussion that eventually led to a shared commitment to agreed upon principles which directed their growth, but did not inhibit their individuality. Schoonmaker suggests that the essential ingredient in a professional learning environment "is not uniformity of practice or absence of conflict, but the commitment of a professional community to move forward amid conflict, uncertainty, ambiguity, and constant adjustment" (p. 82).

Although I am charged with presenting implications of my research findings, I am not required to suggest that the implications are desirable or even realistic. In the case of professional communities, I am compelled to conclude that the conditions for building and sustaining one may be out of reach for most schools. To embrace the fundamental principles of a genuine collaborative culture asks teachers to invest their thinking and energy in a direction with no certain outcomes. Such an orientation would take massive administrative support, significant funding, allocation of resources and time that most schools are ill-equipped to provide. The current climate of high-stakes testing, with its demands on district and teachers' professional time, is no small obstacle in the quest for community building.

Perhaps the best way to help teachers navigate the stormy waters of professional communities and what they mean for teachers' development, is to offer a litmus test to use when weighing the cost-benefit of participation in professional activities. For most teachers, at least for those who *deserve* to be in charge of learning, the key relationship is between the child and the teacher, and that relationship is "more comparable to a family than to an institutional model" (Cooper, p. 51). Even the untrained observer working among teachers would recognize that in professional settings, when teachers are most enthusiastic, it is usually because they are proud of something they have done with children. "Teachers' satisfaction," Cooper notes, "is not solely a product of professionalization, but of the fulfillment derived from positive relationships with children and the sense of efficacy drawn from helping children grow and succeed" (p. 51).

Teacher educators who understand the powerful connection teachers feel with their students must remind teachers that this core belief in the teacher-student relationship should be the guiding principle in their decision to be professionally engaged. At the same time, classroom teachers, university faculty, school administrators, and professional development consultants would be wise to remember that "if participation in the profession, in decision making, in the rites of power and control helps children, then a professional culture will have meaning" (Cooper, p. 54).

Directions for Future Research

Smagorinsky and Smith (2000), in their editorial letter at the beginning of the winter issue of Research in the Teaching Of English, explain their growing understanding about the way new research designs will impact the content of study reports. They write:

> One feature of traditional research reports is a section on implications. This section is often understood as being designed to foster specific suggestions about how teachers can enact research findings. But as studies become more highly contextualized, such suggestions become more difficult to offer unproblematically. On the other hand, we think that notions of what it means to be a writer, a student, a teacher, and a teacher educator that inform the articles in this issue, grounded as they are by data that have been carefully collected and analyzed, will make important contributions to the continuing professional dialogues about the direction education should be taking (p. iv).

In this final section of my dissertation, I offer suggestions about "the direction education should be taking", both in the classroom and in the larger arena of professional development, based on my "highly contextualized" study of Ellen Irwin's teaching.

What Next?

☐ After her successful year as a reading strategy teacher, how does Ellen's reading instruction develop? Does she become a statistic and abandon the comprehension strategies approach within three years (Pressley, et al., 1992)? Does she make adaptations that undermine the fundamental principles of strategy teaching? If so, what instigates this change? A longitudinal study of Ellen's professional development is a logical research step.

☐ This study explored one teacher's experience using reading strategy instruction as a new addition to her reading program. My analysis of the data suggested that Ellen became proficient with this approach as evidenced by her instructional planning and delivery of strategy lessons. What is not considered in this research is the impact Ellen's instruction had on student achievement in reading comprehension. A future research project might ask, "How does strategy instruction influence students' reading comprehension achievement?" I would be interested in considering traditional and nontraditional methods of assessment to measure student learning. In addition, I would track student attitudes toward reading as they participated in strategy instruction.

Another interesting avenue to explore is *long-term effects* on student learning. If I were to follow Ellen's students into fifth grade and observe their reading progress, would I see the transfer of strategy knowledge to a new context, even if the fifth grade teacher did not use the same approach?

- A question I embrace for future investigation was instigated by Schoonmaker's recommendation that staff development opportunities "include briefings on new knowledge, research, or public demands that have implications for curriculum reform" (p. 137). I would ask, what happens when staff development opportunities are not "treatment" days, but instead long-term relationships between a consultant and interested teachers? More importantly, what happens when these professional development partnerships *begin* with an exploration of teachers' held beliefs about literacy instruction?
- The concept of "contrived collegiality" which was introduced by Hargreaves (1995) is compelling. The term begs the question, "Is there any kind of collegiality that is not, at some level, contrived?" Most partnerships, whether in business, in a law office, or in schools are governed by some rules that are incontrovertible but which exist to make the alliance legitimate, at least at a very basic level. Very rarely do people come to a professional experience with the same expectations and goals. For this reason, systems exist to encourage a

collaborative spirit that moves the organization forward. I wonder what a genuine collegial environment looks like. In the best-case professional development scenarios, is the phenomena of "contrived collegiality" present? If so, is this always a negative condition? Do the principles of professional development schools resist the ethical problems involved in building a professional community?

- ☐ What are the implications of beliefs, relationships, and professional communities for pre-service teacher educators? What happens when a student in a progressive teacher education program enters the field for practical experience? What is the dynamic among her personal knowledge gained from at least twelve years of "studenthood", her limited, but growing exposure to professional knowledge, and the influence of mentor teachers during field experiences?
- ☐ In my effort to conduct this study with an "ethic of care", I made decisions not to question certain instructional decisions Ellen made despite the potential for these events to clarify sections of my research. What are the limitations inherent in a methodology that values trust as equally as "truth"? When a researcher is committed to the relationship between her self and her participants, what is sacrificed and what is gained?
- ☐ Finally, how does Ellen's experience compare to other teachers who experiment with strategy instruction? The limitations inherent in a single-subject case study might be improved with a follow-up study of other reading teachers at different grade levels and with different levels of classroom experience. Replicating the basic methodology of the study described here and analyzing the findings from the new contexts would add depth and further credibility to the conclusions I have presented.

Final Thoughts

In the first chapter of this dissertation I quoted James Hoffman (1998) from an article he wrote about the history of teacher change in the language arts. Only the first sentence was included in that chapter. Below I offer his whole thought because it seems more appropriate after having read about Ellen's year long study of comprehension instruction.

> Is there some evil force lurking out there that seeks out good ideas and takes pleasure in smashing them to bits? Is there something we can do to prevent this happening in the future? Or is there a much larger and more important lesson about educational change and innovation for us to learn?" (p. 106).

According to Hoffman, "fidelity of adoption", the match between a teacher's use of an educational intervention and its intended purpose, is an insufficient measure of teachers' exploration of new instructional innovations. He writes,

> Let me suggest an alternative to the strategy of protecting the innovation (i.e. the good idea) from outside forces--a strategy that regards fidelity of adoption as less important than meeting the needs of students. I have come to the position that too much protection may be a dangerous thing . . . If we inoculate against the bad things, we may indeed prevent learning and the kinds of fundamental long-term changes toward which we all aspire (P. 109).

I began my dissertation research convinced that teachers' instructional beliefs played a central role in their willingness and ability to use a comprehension strategy approach in their reading program. I believed that with the right theoretical orientation, social-constructivism, a teacher would embrace strategy teaching and overcome the many obstacles cited in the research that prevented successful implementation of the method. I was, I realize now, overly concerned with “fidelity of adoption” and I thought I had identified an antidote to teachers’ tinkering with pedagogically sound practices, or their failure to try a new instructional idea, in the beliefs-practice connection. Ellen’s experiment with reading strategy instruction illuminated the complex forces that act on a teacher’s desire to improve or change her practice.

Hoffman’s critique of the “fidelity of adoption” model, the “success test” in most implementation studies, is an interesting proposition because it shifts responsibility away from teachers exclusively and shares it with the people responsible for introducing and supporting curricular change. Rather than judging the changes teachers make to a new idea as detrimental to its effectiveness, Hoffman recognizes the deliberative, professional considerations teachers take to their instructional decisions.

Hoffman’s beliefs demand a re-thinking of how to study curricular change, and although he did not consider the lessons Ellen’s experience taught, his proposal does advocate for a more generous view of classroom-based research. This broader perspective would *not* operate from a deficit perspective noting all the ways in which teachers failed to meet an intervention’s objectives (as decided by an external “expert”). Instead, comprehensive classroom research would recognize the value in studying the whole context in which teachers work. For the best teachers, Hoffman theorizes,

> instructional decisions continue to evolve based on experiences with teaching students. The [teaching] strategies [teachers] use are not the same, if they ever were, as those that were mandated at the policy level. Likewise, the instructional materials published and marketed have become a catalyst for change for some teachers, a resource for others, but in the end teachers will continue to change in response to their students . . . Ultimately, the good ideas

> (if they have some inherent value to start with) never disappear entirely. They are reshaped, reformed, and strengthened . . . We start to fail only when we begin to focus too much on promoting the solution and lose sight of the challenges that gave it life (p. 109).

I would add to Hoffman's analysis of teachers' decision-making patterns the lessons about beliefs, relationships and professional cultures that emerged as significant factors in Ellen's experiment with reading strategy instruction. Educational innovation may begin with the recognition of a problem and the identification of a possible solution. But the life force that propels the innovation is neither in the problem nor the method. My case study of Ellen Irwin's exploration of strategy instruction has described the substantial influence of the teacher who embraces it, her students, and the professional climate in which she teaches and learns.

REFERENCES

Abdal-Haqq, I. (1996). Making time for teacher professional development. East Lansing, MI: National Center for Research on Teacher Learning. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. 400 259).

Alexander, P.A., Shallert, D.L., & Hare, V.C. (1991). Coming to terms: How researchers in learning and literacy talk about knowledge. Review of Educational Research, 61, 265-286.

Allington, R.L., Johnston, P.H., & Day, J.P. (2002). Exemplary fourth grade teachers. Language Arts, 79, 462-466.

Ames, C. (1984b). Competitive and individualistic goal structures: A cognitive motivational analysis. In R. Ames and C. Ames (Eds.), Research on motivation in education: Student motivation (pp. 117-207). New York: Academic Press.

Ames, C., & Ames, R. (1984). Systems of student and teacher motivation: Toward a qualitative definition. Journal of Educational Psychology 76, 535-556.

Anders, P., & Richardson, V. (1991). Research directions: Staff development that empowers teachers' reflection and enhances instruction. Language Arts, 68, 316-321.

Anders, P., & Richardson, V. (1994). Launching a new form of staff development. In V. Richardson (Ed.), Teacher change and the staff development process: A case in reading instruction (pp. 1-22). New York: Teachers College Press.

Anderson, R.C., & Pearson, P.D. (1984). A schema-theoretic view of basic processes in reading. In P.D. Pearson (Ed.), Handbook of reading research (pp. 255-291). New York: Longman.

Arnold, G.C.S. (1995). Teacher dialogues: A constructivist model of staff development. Journal of Staff Development, 16, 34-38.

Atwell, N. (1998). In the middle: New understandings about writing, reading, and learning. Portsmouth, NH: Boynton-Cook/Heinemann.

Barth, R. (1990). Improving schools from within: Teachers, parents and principals make a difference. San Francisco: Jossey-Boss.

Block, C.C. (1999). Comprehension: Crafting understanding. In L. Gambrell, L. Morrow, S. Neuman,& M. Pressley (Eds.), Best practices in literacy instruction (pp. 98-118). New York: The Guilford Press.

Bogdan, R.C., & Biklen S.K. (1992). Qualitative research for education: An introduction to theory and methods. Boston, MA: Allyn and Bacon.

Book, C. (1996). Professional development schools. In J. Sikula, T. Buttery, & E. Guyton (Eds.), Handbook of Research on Teacher Education (pp. 194-210). New York: Macmillan.

Bourdain, A. (2000). Kitchen confidential: Adventures in the culinary underbelly. New York: Bloomsbury Publishing.

Brandt, M.E. (1989, March). Getting social about critical thinking: Power and constraints of apprenticeship. Paper presented at the meeting of the American Educational Research Association, San Francisco, CA. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 311033)

Broaddus, K., & Bloodgood, J.W. (1999). "We're supposed to already know how to teach reading": Teacher change to support struggling readers. Reading Research Quarterly, 24, 426-451.

Bromley, D.B. (1986). The case study method in psychology and related disciplines. New York: Wiley.

Brown, R. (1992). Beyond direct explanation: Transactional instruction of reading comprehension strategies. The Elementary School Journal, 92 (5), 513-550.

Bruinsma, R.W. (1985). The effect of a summer workshop on teachers' theoretical orientation to the teaching of reading. (ERIC Document Reproduction Services No. 283 120)

Cambone, J. (1995). Time for teachers in school restructuring. Teachers College Record, 96, 512-543.

Cardwell, N.M. (2002). Teaching through relationships and stories. In N. Lyons & V.K. LaBoskey (Eds.), Narrative inquiry in practice: Advancing the knowledge of teaching (pp. 76-86). New York: Teachers College Press.

Carnine, D. (1988). How to overcome barriers to student achievement. In S.J. Samuels & P.D. Pearson (Eds.) (1988), Changing school reading programs: Principles and case studies (pp. 59-91). Newark, DE: International Reading Association.

Carver, R. (1987). Should reading comprehension skills be taught? In J. E. Readence and R.S. Baldwin (Eds.), Research in literacy: Merging perspectives, Thirty-sixth meeting of the National Reading Conference. Rochester, NY: National Reading Conference.

Chandler, K. (1998). Spelling inquiry: How one school caught the mnemonic plague. York, ME: Stenhouse Publishers.

Chandler, K. (1999). How women teachers experience membership in a schoolwide teacher-research group. Unpublished manuscript.

Chin, R., & Benne, E. (1969). General strategies for effecting changes in human systems. In W. Bennis, K. Benne, & R. Chin (Eds.), The planning of change (pp. 32-59). New York: Holt, Rinehart & Winston.

Cisneros, S. (1991). The House on Mango Street. New York: Vintage Books.

Clark, C.M. (1988). Asking the right questions about teacher-preparation: Contributions of research on teaching thinking. Educational Researcher, 17(2), 5-12.

Clay, M. M. (1985). The early detection of reading difficulties. (3rd. ed.). Portsmouth, NH: Heinemann.

Clay, M.M. (1987). Implementing Reading Recovery: Systematic adaptations to an educational innovation. New Zealand Journal of Educational Studies, 22, 35-58.

Cochran-Smith, M., & Lytle, S.L. (in press). Relationships of knowledge and practice: Teacher learning in communities. In A. Iran-Nudged & P.D. Pearson (Eds.), Review of Research in Education (Vol. 24). Washington, DC: American Educational Research Association.

Collins, A., Brown, J.S., & Newman, S.E. (1989). Cognitive apprenticeship: Teaching the crafts of reading, writing, and mathematics. In L. Resnick (Ed.), Knowing, learning and instruction: Essays in honor of Robert Glaser (pp. 453-494). Hillsdale, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum.

Cooper, M. (1994). "Whose culture is it anyway?", in A. Lieberman (Ed.), Building a professional culture in schools, New York: Teachers College Press.

Cowie, H., & Ruddick, J. (1990). Learning from one another: The challenge. In H.C. Foot, M.H. Morgan, & R.H. Shute (Eds.), Children helping children. London: Wiley and Sons.

Daniels, H., & Zemelman, S. (1985). A writing project. Portsmouth, NH: Heinemann.

Dewey, J. (1938). Experience and education. New York: Collier Books.

Duffy, G.G. (1991). What counts in teacher education? Dilemmas in educating empowered teachers. In J. Zutell & S. McCormick (Eds.), Learner factors/teacher factors: Issues in literacy research and instruction. 40th yearbook of the National Reading Conference (pp. 1-18). Chicago: National Reading Conference.

Duffy, G.G., & Metheny, W. (1978). The development of an instrument to measure teacher beliefs about reading. Paper presented at the annual meeting of the National Reading Conference, St. Petersburg Beach, FL. (ERIC Document Reproduction Services No. ED 163 433)

Durkin, D. (1978-79). What classroom observations reveal about reading comprehension instruction. Reading Research Quarterly, 14 (4), 481-533.

El-Dinary, P.B., & Schuder, T. (1993). Seven teachers' acceptance of transactional strategies instruction during their first year using it. Elementary School Journal, 94, 207-219.

Erikson, F. (1986). Qualitative methods in research on teaching. In M.C. Wittrock (Ed.), Handbook of research on teaching (pp. 119-161). New York: Macmillan.

Ernst, K. (1994). Picturing learning: Artists and Writers in the Classroom. Portsmouth, NH: Heinemann.

Fenstermacher, G.D. (1994). The place of practical argument in the education of teachers. In V. Richardson (Ed.), Teacher change and the staff development process: A case in reading instruction (pp. 23-42). New York: Teachers College Press.

Flavell, J.H. (1979). Metacognition and cognitive monitoring: A new area of cognitive-developmental inquiry. American Psychologist, 34 (10), 906-911.

Freedman, S.W., Simons, E.R., Kalnin, J.S., Casareno, A., and the M-CLASS teams (1999). Inside city schools: Investigating literacy in multicultural classrooms. New York: Teachers College Press.

Gaffney, J., & Anderson, R.C. (1991). Two-tiered scaffolding: Congruent processes of teaching and learning. In E.H. Hiebert (Ed.), Literacy for a diverse society: Perspectives, programs, and policies, (pp. 184-198). New York: Teachers College Press.

Gallagher, M.C., Goudvis, A., & Pearson, P.D. (1988). Principles of organizational change. In S.J. Samuels & P.D. Pearson (Eds.), Changing school reading programs: Principles and case studies (pp. 11-39). Newark, DE: International Reading Association.

Gallas, K. (1995). Talking their way into science: Hearing children's questions, and theories, responding with curricula. New York: Teachers College Press.

Gambrell, L.B. (1996). Creating classroom cultures that foster reading motivation. Reading Teacher, 50, 14-25.

Gambrell, L.B., Morrow, L.M., Neuman, S.B., & Pressley, M. (1999). Best practices in literacy instruction. New York: The Guilford Press.

Geertz, C. (1973). Interpretation of cultures. New York: Basic Books.

Glaser, B. (2001). Doing grounded theory. Grounded Theory Review. 2: 1-18.

Good, T., & Grouws, D. (1977). Teaching effects: A process-product study in fourth grade mathematics classrooms. Journal of Teacher Education, 28, 49-54.

Gove, M. (1983). Clarifying teachers' beliefs about reading. Reading Teacher, 37, 261-266.

Graham, P., Hudson-Ross, S., Adkins, C., McWhorter, P. & Stewart, J.M. (1999). Teacher/mentor: A dialogue for collaborative learning. New York: Teachers College Press.

Hampton, S. (1994). Teacher change: Overthrowing the myth of one teacher, one classroom. In T. Shanahan (Ed.)., Teachers thinking: Teachers knowing (pp. 122-140). Urbana, IL: National Council of Teachers of English.

Hansen, J. (1981). The effects of inference training and practice on young children's reading comprehension. Reading Research Quarterly, 16(3), 391-417.

Hao, R.N. (1988). Research and development model for improving reading instruction. In S.J. Samuels & P.D. Pearson (Eds.) (1988). Changing school reading programs: Principles and case studies (pp. 95-118). Newark, DE: International Reading Association.

Hargreaves, A. (1994). Changing teachers, changing times: Teachers' work and culture in the postmodern age. New York: Teachers College Press.

Harste, J.C., & Burke, C.L. (1977). A new hypothesis for reading teacher research: Both teaching and learning of reading are theoretically based. In P.D. Pearson & J. Hansen (Eds.), Reading: Theory, Research, and Practice. Twenty-sixth yearbook of the national reading conference. South Carolina: National Reading Conference.

Harste, J.C., Woodward, V.A., & Burke, C.L. (1984). Language stories and literacy lessons. Portsmouth, NH: Heinemann.

Harwayne, S. (1999). Going Public. Portsmouth, NH: Heinemann.

Hedegaard, M. (1995). The qualitative analysis of the development of a child's theoretical knowledge and thinking. In L. Martin, K. Nelson, and E. Tobach (Eds.), Sociocultural psychology (pp. 293-325). New York: Cambridge University Press.

Hoffman, J. (1998). When bad things happen to good ideas in literacy education: Professional dilemmas, personal decisions, and political traps. Language Arts, 52, 102-112.

Hoffman, J., & Pearson, P.D. (2000). Reading teacher education in the next millennium: What your grandmother's teacher didn't know that your granddaughter's teacher should. Reading Research Quarterly, 35. 28-44.

The Holmes Group. (1986). Tomorrow's schools of education. (Report No. 48824-1034), East Lansing, MI.

Joyce, B., & Showers, B. (1988). Student achievement through staff development. New York: Longman.

Joyce, B., & Weil, M. (1972). Models of teaching. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall.

Keene, E. O., & Zimmerman, S. (1997). Mosaic of thought: Teaching comprehension in a reader's workshop. Portsmouth, NH: Heinemann.

Lincoln, Y.S., & Guba, E.G. (1985). Naturalistic Inquiry. Beverly Hills, CA: Sage.

Lloyd, C.V., & Anders, P.L. (1994). Research-based practices as the content of staff development. In V. Richardson (Ed.), Teacher change and the staff development process: A case in reading instruction (pp. 68-89). New York: Teachers College Press.

Locke, L.F., Spirduso, W.W., & Silverman, S.J. (1993). Proposals that work: A guide for planning dissertations and grant proposals. (3rd. ed.). Newbury Park, CA: Sage.

Lofland, J., & Lofland, L.H. (1995). Analyzing social settings: A guide to qualitative observation and analysis (3rd ed.). Belmont, CA: Wadsworth.

Lysaker, J. (2000). Beyond words: The relational dimensions of learning to read and write. Language Arts, 77 (6), 479-484.

Mariage, T. (1995). Why students learn: The nature of teacher talk during reading. Learning Disabilities Quarterly 18, 214-234.

Markman, E.M. (1977). Realizing that you don't understand: A preliminary investigation. Child Development, 48, 986-992.

McCullough, D. (2001). John Adams. New York: Simon & Schuster.

Merriam, S.B. (1988). Case study research in education: A qualitative approach. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass Publishers.

Meyer, L. (1988). Research on implementation: What seems to work? In S.J. Samuels & P.D. Pearson (Eds.), Changing school reading programs: Principles and case studies (pp. 41-58). Newark, DE: International Reading Association.

Mohr, N. (1998). Constructivist zone. Journal of Staff Development, 19, 22-26.

Moore, K.D., Hopkins, S., & Tullis, R. (1991). Professional development schools: Classroom teacher perceptions. Teacher Education and Practice, 7, 45-50.

Morimoto, K., Gregory, J., & Butler, P. (1973). Notes on the context for learning. Harvard Educational Review, 43, 245-257.

Newkirk, T. (1992). Seduction and betrayal in qualitative research. In T. Newkirk (Ed.), Workshop 4: By and for teachers. The teacher as researcher (pp. 3-15). Portsmouth, NH: Heinemann.

Noddings, N. (1986). Fidelity in teaching, teacher education, and research for teaching. Harvard Educational Review, 56, 496-510.

Oldfather, P., & Dahl, K. (1994). Toward a social constructivist reconceptualization of intrinsic motivation for literacy learning. Journal of Reading Behavior, 26, 139-158.

Olson, J.R., & Singer, M. (1995). Examining teacher beliefs, reflective change, and the teaching of reading. Reading Research and Instruction, 34, 97-110.

Palinscar, A.S. & Brown, A.L. (1984). Reciprocal teaching of comprehension-fostering and comprehension-monitoring activities. Cognition and Instruction 1, 117-175.

Paris, S.G. (1985). Using classroom dialogue and guided practice to teach comprehension strategies. In T. Harris, & E. Cooper (Eds.), *Reading, thinking and concept development: Strategies for the classroom* (pp. 133-144). New York: College Entrance Examination Board.

Patton, M.Q. (2002). Qualitative research and evaluation methods. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Pearson, P.D., & Dole, J.A. (1987). Explicit comprehension instruction: A review of research and a new conceptualization of instruction. The Elementary School Journal, 88 (2), 151-165.

Pearson, P.D., & Gallagher, M.C. (1983). The instruction of reading comprehension. Contemporary Educational Psychology, 8, 317-344.

Pearson, P.D., & Johnson, D.D. (1978). Teaching reading comprehension. New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston.

Peirce, C.S. (1877/1955). The fixation of belief. In J. Buechler (Ed.), Philosophical writings of Peirce. New York: Dover.

Phillips, D.C. (1995). The good, the bad and the ugly: The many faces of constructivism. Educational Researcher, 24, 5-12.

Pressley, M., & Afflerbach, P. (1995). Verbal protocols of reading: The nature of constructively responsive reading. Hillsdale, NJ: Erlbaum.

Pressley, M., El-Dinary, P.B., & Beard, P. (1997). What we know about translating comprehension-strategies instruction research into practice. Journal of Learning Disabilities, 30, 468-488.

Pressley, M., Goodchild, F., Fleet, J., Zajchowski, R., & Evans, E.D. (1989). The challenges of classroom strategy instruction. *The Elementary School Journal, 89*, 301-342.

Pressley, M., El-Dinary, P.B., Gaskins, I., Schuder, T., Bergman, J.L., Almasi, J., & Brown, R. (1992). Beyond direct explanation: Transactional instruction of reading comprehension strategies. *The Elementary School Journal, 92*, 513-550.

Pressley, M., Goodchild, F., Fleet, J., Zajchowski, R., & Evans, E.D. (1989). The challenges of classroom strategy instruction. *The Elementary School Journal*, *89*, 301-342.

Pressley, M., Schuder, T., and Bergman, J. (1992). A research-educator collaborative interview study of transactional comprehension strategies instruction. *Journal of Educational Psychology, 84*, 231-46.

Pressley, M., & Wharton, R. (1998). The need for increased comprehension instruction in the upper-elementary grades. In M. Pressley (Ed.), *Reading instruction that works* (pp. 192-227). New York: The Guilford Press.

Rabinowitz, P.J., & Smith, M.W. (1998). *Authorizing readers: Resistance and respect in the teaching of literature*. New York: Teachers College Press.

Richardson, V. (1994). The consideration of teachers' beliefs. In V. Richardson (Ed.), *Teacher change and the staff development process: A case in reading instruction*. (pp. 90-108). New York: Teachers College Press.

Richardson, V., & Anders, P.L. (1994). The study of teacher change. In V. Richardson (Ed.). *Teacher change and the staff development process: A case in reading instruction*. (pp. 159-180). New York: Teachers College Press.

Richardson, V., & Hamilton, M.L. (1994). The practical argument staff development process. In V. Richardson (Ed.), Teacher change and the staff development process: A case in reading instruction (pp. 109-134). New York: Teachers College Press.

Richardson, V., & Anders, P. (1990). The role of theory in descriptions of classroom practices. East Lansing, MI: National Center for Research on Teacher Learning. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. 399 023)

Richardson, V., Anders, P., Tidwell, D., & Lloyd, C. (1991). The relationship between teachers' beliefs and practices in reading comprehension instruction. American Educational Research Journal, 28, 559-586.

Rogoff, B. (1990). Apprenticeship in thinking: Cognitive development in social context. New York: Oxford University Press.

Rosenblatt, L. (1938). Literature as experience. New York: Progressive Education Association.

Rosenblatt, L. (1978). The reader, the text, the poem: The transactional theory of the literary work. Carbondale: Southern Illinois University Press.

Rushcamp, S., & Roehler, L.R. (1992). Characteristics supporting change in a professional development school. Journal of Teacher Education, 43, 19-27.

Russell, T. (1988). From pre-service teacher education to the first year of teaching: A study of theory into practice. In J. Calderhead (Ed.), Teachers' Professional Learning (pp. 13-34). London: Falmer.

Samuels, S.J., & Pearson, P.D. (Eds.) (1988). Changing school reading programs: Principles and case studies. Newark, DE: International Reading Association.

Schoonmaker, F. (2002). Growing up teaching: From personal knowledge to professional practice. New York: Teachers College Press.

Schubert, W.H., & Ayers, W.C. (Eds.) (1992). Teacher lore: Learning from our own experience. White Plains, NY: Longman.

Schumacher, S., & McMillan, J. (1993). Research in education: A conceptual introduction. Chicago: HarperCollins College Publishers.

Shapiro, J., & Kilbey, D. (1990). Closing the gap between theory and practice: Teacher beliefs, instructional decisions and critical thinking. Reading Horizons. 31, 59-73.

Showers, B., Joyce, B., & Bennett, B. (1987). Synthesis of research on staff development: A framework for future study and a state-of-the-art analysis. Educational Leadership, 45, 77-87.

Sideris, E.C., & Skau, K.G. (1994). The role of staff development in school restructuring: A description of four interrelated themes that have the greatest implications for staff development. Education Canada, 34, 40-48.

Sikula, T., S. Buttery, & E. Guyton (Eds.) (1997). Handbook of Research on Teacher Education (pp. 102-119). New York: Macmillan.

Slavin, R. (1983b). When does cooperative learning increase student achievement? Psychological Bulletin, 94, 429-445.

Slavin, R.J., & Slavin, R.E. (1995). The cooperative elementary school: Effects on students' achievement attitudes and social relations. American Educational Research Journal, 32, 321-351.

Smagorinsky, P., & Smith, M.W. (2000). *Telos* and educational research. Research in the Teaching of English, 34, iv.

Smith, N.B. (1965). American reading instruction: Its development and its significance in gaining a perspective on current practices in reading. Newark, DE: International Reading Association.

Sparks, D., & Loucks-Horsely, S. (1990). Models of staff development. In W.R. Houston, M. Haberman, & J. Sikula (Eds.), Handbook on teacher education (pp. 234-250). New York: Macmillan.

Stallings, J., & Krasavage, E. (1986). Program implementation and student achievement in a four-year Madeline Hunter follow-through project. Elementary School Journal, 87, 117-138.

Stephens, D., Boldt, G., Clark, C. Gaffney, J.S., Shelton, J., Story, J., & Weinzierl, J. (2000). Learning (about learning) from four teachers. Research in the Teaching of English, 34, 532-565.

Stephens, D. (2001). Of magic doors there is this . . . Research in the teaching of English, 35, 292-301.

Stoddart, T. (1993). The professional development schools: Building bridges between cultures. Teaching Education, 4, 77-86.

Stone, C.A. (1993). What is missing in the metaphor of scaffolding? In E.A. Forman, N. Minick, & C.A. Stone (Eds.), Contexts for learning: Sociocultural dynamics in children's development (pp. 169-183). New York: Oxford University Press.

Strauss, A., & Corbin, J. (1994). Grounded theory methodology: An overview. In N.K. Denzin & Y.A. Lincoln (Eds.), Handbook of qualitative research (pp. 273-285). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Strauss, A., & Corbin, J. (1998). Basics of qualitative research: Techniques and procedures for developing grounded theory. (2d. ed). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Teitel, L., & Del Prete, T. (1995). Creating professional development school partnerships: A resource guide. Massachusetts Field Center for Teaching and Learning, Boston, MA. (ERIC Document Reproduction Services No. 387 460).

Tharp, R.G., & Gallimore, R. (1988). Rousing minds to life: Teaching, learning, and schooling in social context New York: Cambridge University Press.

Tippins, D., Tobin, K., & Nichols, S. (1995). A constructivist approach to change in elementary science teaching and learning. Research in Science Education, 25, 135-149.

Tisdale, K. (2001). Dissention and distress in a cognitive apprenticeship in reading. Reading Research and Instruction, 41, 51-82.

Tovani, C. (2000). I read it, but I don't understand it. Portland, ME: Stenhouse.

Vygotsky, L. (1978). Mind in society: The development of higher psychological processes. Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press.

Westheimer, J. (1998). Among schoolteachers: Community, autonomy, and ideology in teachers' work. New York: Teachers College Press.

Wilhelm, J. (1997). You gotta be the book: Teaching engaged and reflective reading with adolescents. New York: Teachers College Press.

Winn, D.D., & Mitchell, J.P. (1991). Improving reading instruction through staff development. Reading Improvement, 28, 82-88.

Wolcott, H.F. (1990). Writing up qualitative research. Newbury Park, CA: Sage.

Wollman-Bonilla, J.E. (2002). Does anybody really care? Research and its impact on practice. Research in the Teaching of English, 36, 311-326.

APPENDICES

Appendix A

Adapted Conceptual Framework of Reading Interview

[* indicates a probe]
NOTE TO TEACHERS: Whenever you are asked to describe the reading behaviors or abilities of students, please do not use the names of the students you are referencing. If necessary, use a pseudonym to facilitate the discussion.

Background:
Number of years teaching?
Grade levels?
Types of students?
Preservice education--where?
Reading education?
Student teaching--where? Characteristics of cooperating teacher's style of instruction?
Innovative teaching in this class? *If necessary probe: Quality of student teaching experience?
Describe yourself as a reader, historically and now.

Reading Instruction and Learning to Read:
What should a fifth grader know and be able to do to find reading success in fifth grade?
*What is your belief here, not necessarily what the program expects.

What can a really good reader do?
What accounts for the difference between a good and a poor reader?
*parents? gender? good teaching? learning style?

What is the nature/focus/goal of reading instruction in fifth grade?

How do you define reading comprehension?

Describe the reading comprehension instruction in your class on a typical day.

Have you ever tried a new approach to reading instruction? Why? What happened?

Have you ever wanted to try something different? Why?

How does grouping work in your class? *Why do you group this way? *Do you ever change the groups? Why? *Have you ever tried to teach the whole group? Under what conditions would you do this? Do you do different things with different groups? Why? Describe a student (always without naming names--use a pseudonym if necessary) who is having great difficulty in reading. *What's the cause? *What would you do to help this student?

Describe a student is just slightly behind in reading, but not a real problem. (same probes)

Describe a student who is doing really well in reading. (same probes)
What indicates to you that a lesson in not going well?

Of all the reading comprehension goals you have in mind during a school year, which one(s) do you think you accomplish with success? *How do you know when you've accomplished ____________________? *What do the students do that shows you they're doing a good job with __________? *What did you do, as the teacher, to get your students to _______________?

What do you do when a student is reading orally and makes an error?
[If a conditional answer is given] What practice do you follow under what conditions?
Is it a good practice to correct a child as soon as an oral reading error is made? Why or why not?
[If a conditional answer is given] When is it a good practice and when is it not a good practice?

What do you do when a student is reading orally and does not know a word? Why?
[If a conditional answer is given] Which practice would you use under what conditions?

You have many different kinds of activities in teaching your students to comprehend fictional texts. Which activities do you think are the most important for your students? Why?
*Do you use different kinds of activities with nonfiction texts? If so, what are they, and which are most important?

Read the two descriptions of readers below. Which person's orientation most closely matches yours? Why? [If a conditional answer is given] In which kinds of reading are you more like A? Like B?

∞Reader A believes that what the author meant in writing a text is important and that the reader should make an attempt to understand that meaning.
∞Reader B believes that meaning is constructed by a transaction between the reader and the author and that a justified meaning might be constructed that had not occurred to the author.

What kind of activities do you feel students should be involved in for the majority of reading instructional time? Why?
Here are the steps for reading comprehension instruction, in recommended order, as listed in a well-known reading textbook: (1) introduction of vocabulary; (2) setting purposes for reading; (3) independent reading; (4) reaction to silent reading; and (5) activities to develop comprehension skills. Rank these steps from the most important to the least important (not in the order in which you would follow them).
Why do you think _______ and _____________ are the most important?
Why do you think __________ and ____________ are the least important?

Is it important to introduce new vocabulary words before students read a selection? Why or why not? [If a conditional answer is given] Under what conditions is it important? Why?

Suppose you could say about a test, "This test is very useful diagnostically. I can use the information about John's reading to decide how I should instruct him." What information about John would this test give you and what would the test be like?
*When you get a new student in class, how do you decide how to instruct him/her in reading comprehension?

The School:

Do you feel there is a characteristic way of teaching reading comprehension in the State Street School?

Do you know what the other teachers are doing? (very well, sort of, not at all)
*How do you know?

Do you ever observe in other classrooms?
*Do you exchange materials, ideas, methods?

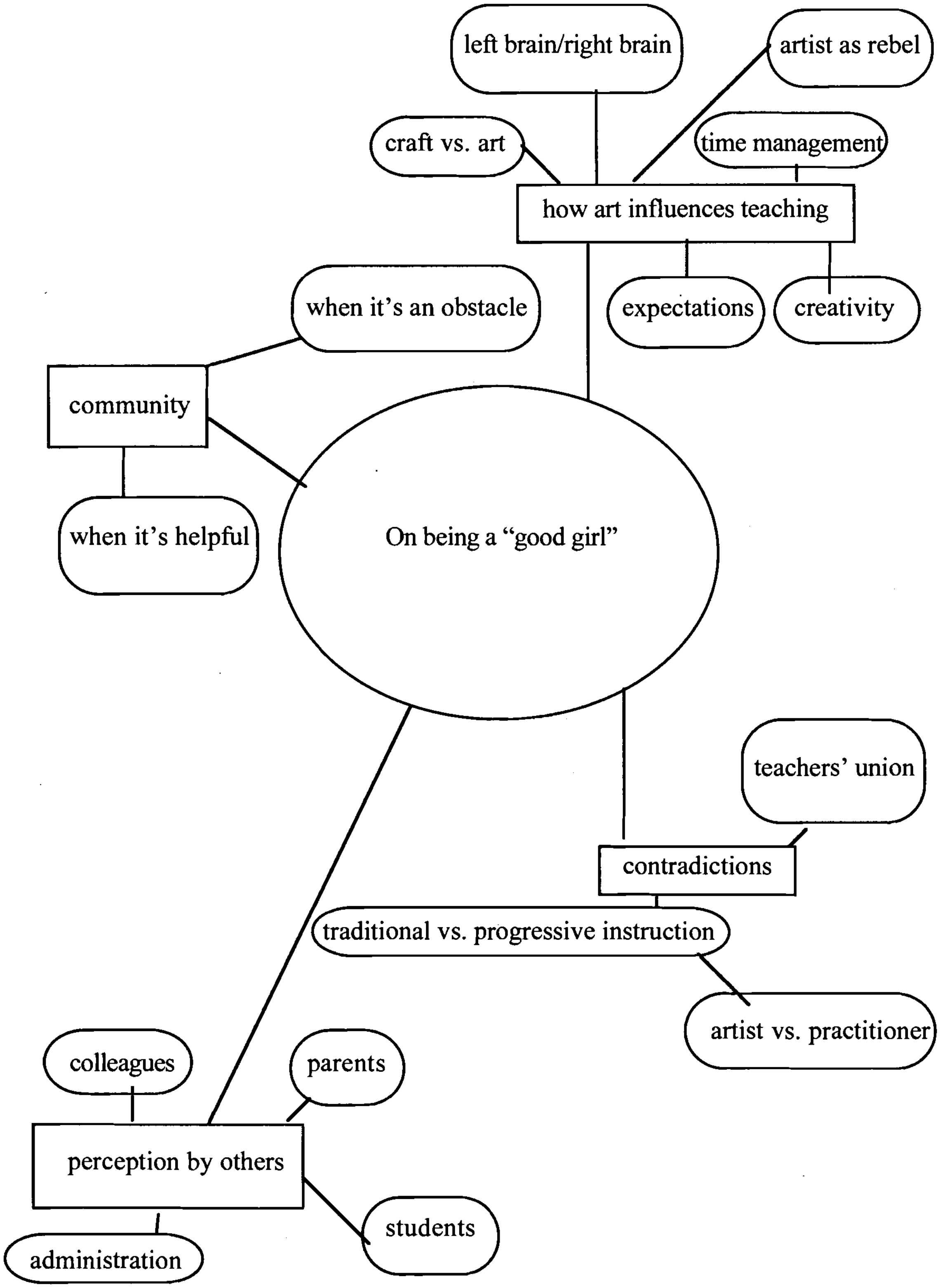
What is your communication with other teachers like? Specialists, etc.

How involved is your parent group in the State Street School?

How would you define a Professional Development Network?

How would you define your school's role in this partnership?
If you are a mentor for an MAT intern, how do you understand your role?
*Is it different than your role as a cooperating teacher with traditional student teaching candidates?

Appendix B: Example of Axial Coding Graphic



left brain/right brain
artist as rebel
craft vs. art
time management
how art influences teaching
expectations
creativity
when it's an obstacle
community
when it's helpful
On being a "good girl"
teachers' union
contradictions
traditional vs. progressive instruction
artist vs. practitioner
colleagues
parents
perception by others
students
administration

Appendix C

How She Thinks	How She Acts
Learning is socially constructed. (social-constructivism)	Ellen designs her literacy instruction to include talk as frequently as possible. Her kind of talk includes "thinking aloud" and storytelling; she creates time for her students to talk with her and one another in the same ways.
Being a reflective reader is an important prerequisite to understanding and implementing strategy instruction.	Ellen is deliberate about identifying her own reading strategies in use and she makes this thinking visible during reading instruction.
A reader is someone who decodes with fluency and who uses cognitive strategies to comprehend a variety of text genres.	Ellen defines reading broadly and uses flexible teaching strategies to meet all the reading needs of her students. She understands that matching books and kids at an appropriate reading level is crucial to developing fluency and supporting metacognition.
All teachers are reading teachers, at all grade levels, in all subject areas.	Ellen's strategy teaching extends beyond the boundary of fiction and language arts instruction. She teaches her students how to apply reading strategies to different genres and in their content area studies.
Familiarity with children's literature is necessary in making wise book selections for teaching specific strategies.	Ellen regularly chooses to read children's literature to help her stay current in the field. When she reads she "reads like a teacher of reading" and makes mental notes about the potential of a book for use in a future strategy lesson.
More experienced readers are mentors, less experienced readers are their apprentices.	During anchor lessons, as the "master reader", Ellen uses direct instruction techniques to make her thinking visible while demonstrating the strategy use of experienced readers. She provides opportunities for stud's to collaborate in the same way.

Appendix C

Successful teaching and learning is grounded in a personal relationship among the teacher and her students. (Relational Theory)	Ellen is interested in her students' lives and uses her knowledge of them to guide personal and academic interactions. She also uses personal stories to help her students learn about her as a whole person, not just a teacher.
The accurate assessment of reading progress happens with a variety of evaluation tools.	Ellen uses student talk, their body language, their written responses, and their reading project designs, and standardized test measures to evaluate both attitudes and achievement in reading.
Whole class lessons are valuable for introducing new strategies, but students learn at different rates and require individual instruction, guided practice, and independent practice. (Gradual Release of Responsibility Model)	She regularly observes students during independent reading time, and evaluates their written responses to thoroughly assess comprehension progress. She is responsive to students' individual needs by offering individual assistance & practice time.
Everyone in a classroom, including the teacher, is a learner.	Ellen encourages questions and the "puzzling through" of solutions. She models this desirable stance of inquiry by showing that she does not "know it all", and she expects students to understand and be comfortable with her fallibility.
Less is more.	She recognizes the importance of spending long chunks of time with one strategy, varying the level of sophistication to avoid wheel-spinning, and showing the application of strategies across the curriculum
Reading is taught not assigned. To teach reading well teachers need to accept the "messiness" of making thinking visible, the unpredictable discussions, and the required time to be thorough in planning sophisticated strategy lessons.	Ellen teaches her students to read by offering predictable anchor lessons. She begins a whole class lesson with a focusing question, defines the featured strategy, reads aloud from a hand-picked book, thinks aloud, and engages students' responses.

BIOGRAPHY OF THE AUTHOR

Suzanne Stroble Kaback was born in Cortland, New York, on August 9, 1967. She was raised in Cortland, New York, and Mars Hill, Maine, where she graduated from Central Aroostook High School in 1985. She attended Hobart and William Smith Colleges and graduated in 1989 with a degree in American History. While teaching middle school, she earned a Master's degree in Literacy, Language and Cultural Studies from Boston University in 1994. After several more years of public school teaching, she was accepted in the doctoral program in Literacy at the University of Maine in the winter of 1998.

In addition to her seven years of public and private school teaching, Suzanne has been the co-director of Maine's National Writing Project site. She has presented at state and national conferences, including the National Council of Teachers of English conference and the American Educational Research Association conference. Her writing has appeared in The Christian Science Monitor, The New Advocate, and publications of the National Middle School Association. In March, 2003, she co-published a book through Scholastic Inc. with two of her advisors, titled, The Back to School Book.

After receiving her degree, Suzanne will join Elmira College as an assistant professor of Literacy education where she will teach both undergraduate and graduate literacy courses. She is a candidate for the Doctor of Education degree in Literacy Education from The University of Maine in May, 2003.