Literacy: The Critical Role of Teacher Knowledge

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ALER
Association of Literacy
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LITERACY: THE CRITICAL ROLE OF TEACHER KNOWLEDGE

The Thirty-Ninth Yearbook: A Double Peer-Reviewed Publication of the Association of Literacy Educators and Researchers

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Table of Contents

Acknowledgments

The Yearbook provides a snapshot of the highlights of our Annual Meeting and sampling of some of the proceedings. It would not be possible without the diligent work of many of our colleagues. As always, we have many people to acknowledge for the completion of Volume 39. First, we wish to thank all the authors whose insightful thinking brought forth inquiries that add to and extend the body of knowledge on a wide variety of literacy topics. Next, we would like to thank our editorial board members, as they thoughtfully evaluated submissions and offered additional perspectives to strengthen each piece. This collaboration resulted in the creation of high quality articles and continues to add rigor to this Yearbook's publication. Additionally, we are grateful to the members of the Board of Directors who have continually supported the editorial team and the publication of the Yearbook, in particular Dr. Sheri Vasinda, the Publication Committee Chairperson.

We want to acknowledge Dr. Alexandra (Ale) Babino, Assistant Professor at Texas A&M University-Commerce, for her contributions to this year's final publication. She was instrumental in the final stages of our process as we checked for APA, proofread the final versions of manuscripts, and made final edits. We are particularly grateful and appreciative that she was able to assist us given the beginning of semester responsibilities we are all tasked to accomplish during the first year of a tenure track appointment. It is our hope that she will become a permanent part of the editorial team during our remaining years.

We are all very fortunate and grateful for the ongoing support provided by our individual universities. At Texas A&M University-Corpus Christi, we appreciate the support of Dr. David Scott, Dean of the College of Education and Human Development, Associate Dean Dr. Karen McCaleb, and Department Chair of Teacher Education, Dr. Carmen Tejeda-Delgado. We thank Dean Timothy Letzring of the College of Education and Human Services at Texas A&M University-Commerce, Dr. Martha Foote, Department Head of Curriculum and Instruction, and Jennifer Sennette, Ad Interim Department Head for providing

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Finally, amidst having two of our editors impacted by Hurricanes Harvey and Irma during the final stages of this editorial process, we became an even stronger team; we are especially proud of this year's publication of the 39th ALER Yearbook. Poet Mattie Stepanek articulates this well with "Unity is strength... when there is teamwork and collaboration, wonderful things can be achieved." From authors to reviewers to university support and every support in between, this publication is a reflection of each team member's contribution focused on a worthwhile goal. Enjoy!

—Robin D. Johnson, Juan J. Araujo, & Nedra Cossa

Introduction

The theme for the 60th annual conference of the Association of Literacy Educators and Researchers was Literacy: The Critical Role of Teacher Knowledge. Dr. Julie K. Kidd, in her 2016 presidential address, shared both in Myrtle Beach and in this publication, asked us to reflect on three questions surrounding the theme:

1. *What do literacy teacher educators and researchers need to know and be able to do?*
2. *What is the role of professional communities such as ours in literacy teacher educator and researcher professional development?*
3. *Why is it important for ALER to continue to play an active role in the professional development of its members?*

As you read her address on the following pages, we challenge you to reflect on your own experiences and how they have shaped your role as a literacy teacher and teacher educator. Each article published this year reflects the idea that our annual conference always provides opportunities to learn from and with each other, during keynotes and sessions, as well as the incidental learning resulting from the conversations and collaborations that occur as mutual interests are discovered during sessions, between sessions, and at social gatherings. ALER is known for a supportive collegiality and camaraderie in which educators and researchers at every stage of their careers learn from each other and are inspired to grow professionally and personally from these encounters.

All of the articles within this Yearbook represent a sampling of the sessions presented at the conference. After a peer-review process for conference acceptance, the ensuing articles underwent an additional round of peer review for acceptance in the Yearbook. We hope that as you read this year's publication you will add to your bank of teacher knowledge and discover additional thoughts on the importance of who we are as teacher educators and researchers.

—RDJ, JJA, & NC

The Critical Role of Professional Communities in Literacy Teacher Educator and Researcher Professional Development

Presidential Address

Julie K. Kidd
George Mason University

Dr. Julie K. Kidd currently serves as the Past President of the Association of Literacy Educators and Researchers (ALER). She began her service to ALER (formerly College Reading Association) as Co-Chair of the Research Commission and later served as Editor of Literacy News. She served as an ALER Director, Vice President, President-Elect, and President.

Dr. Kidd is Professor of Education in the College of Education and Human Development at George Mason University and is currently the Director of the Division of Child, Family, and Community Engagement. She previously served as the Early Childhood Education Academic Program Coordinator and teaches in the Early Childhood Education Program. Dr. Kidd holds a Bachelor of Arts degree in Elementary Education from the University of Richmond. She began her teaching career as a sixth- and seventh-grade mathematics and English language arts teacher in Page County, Virginia. During that time, she earned a Master of Education in

Reading Education at James Madison University. Dr. Kidd completed her Doctor of Education in Curriculum and Instruction with a Literacy emphasis at Virginia Tech. Prior to joining the faculty at Mason, Dr. Kidd was a reading specialist, lead teacher, and elementary classroom teacher for Alexandria City Public Schools in Virginia.

Dr. Kidd's research is focused on developing the cognitive, literacy, and mathematical abilities of children from diverse cultural, linguistic, and socio-economic backgrounds as well as on the professional development of pre-service and in-service teachers. She is currently co-principal investigator on an Institute of Education Sciences (IES) research grant. She was principal investigator on a Head Start University Partnership research grant and was co-principal investigator on four IES research grants. Current projects focus on (a) developing young children's writing, (b) teaching patterning to kindergarten children, and (c) the professional development of pre-service and in-service teachers who work with children from diverse cultural, linguistic, and socio-economic backgrounds. She has numerous publications in journals, such as Literacy Research and Instruction, College Reading Association Yearbook, Early Education and Development, Topics in Early Childhood Special Education, Journal of Research in Childhood Education, Teaching and Teacher Education, The Journal of Educational Research, and Journal of Applied Developmental Psychology.

It seems quite fitting that I stand before you today as your Association of Literacy Educators and Researchers (ALER) President. This morning, my mentor and colleague, Betty Sturtevant, was awarded the ALER Laureate Award. This afternoon, we will hear from Wayne Linek, our J. Estill Alexander Forum speaker, who was our 2015 ALER Laureate Award recipient. Both have been recognized for their dedication and service to ALER and their influence on the field and ALER members through their mentoring, teaching, research, presentations, and publications (http://www.aleronline.org/?page=laureate). This is especially significant for me because Betty took me under her wing as a new assistant professor and introduced me to the then College Reading Association (CRA). And when Wayne was Vice President, he invited me, on behalf of CRA President, Jane Matanzo, to serve as co-chair of the Research Commission with Charlene Fleener. In addition, they were co-editors of the *CRA Yearbook* along with JoAnn Dugan and Patricia Linder when I published my first article entitled, "Teaching Effective Research Strategies to Elementary School Students" (Kidd, 1999). These were critical moments in my development as a teacher educator and researcher, and I thank them for their role in providing these opportunities. Since then, many of you sitting in this room have contributed to who I am today as a literacy teacher educator and researcher. Supported by you, I have been able to grow in a career that enables me to make a difference in the professional and

academic lives of my students and the work they do with children and families in our diverse communities.

President-Elect and Conference Program Chair, David Paige, selected for this conference theme is "Literacy: The Critical Role of Teacher Knowledge." Today, I want to build upon this theme by examining three questions:

1. What do literacy teacher educators and researchers need to know and be able to do?

2. What is the role of professional communities such as ours in literacy teacher educator and researcher professional development?

3. Why is it important for ALER to continue to play an active role in the professional development of its members?

As we examine how professional communities such as ALER can enhance our success, I will share my own experiences to illustrate key points and I hope you will make your own connections, as well. It is my hope that by examining the importance of our professional networks, we can continue to capitalize on what ALER has to offer and explore ways to continue to mentor and support our literacy colleagues.

Teacher Educator and Researcher Identities

As literacy teacher educators and researchers, we all have rich and interesting experiences that contribute to who we are today and why we are sitting in this room. Think back to your earlier years. How many of you knew from the beginning of time that you wanted to grow up to be a teacher educator or a researcher? As a child, the career I have today is not what I envisioned at all. As my best friend, Julie, and I played with our dolls, I knew I wanted to be a wife and mom. Running around the yard with our large purses filled with gadgets, I was sure I was destined to be a secret agent. Right before heading to college, I was confident I would be a social worker. Six years later, I was two years out of college, married to John, teaching sixth- and seventh-grade mathematics and language arts, while studying to be a reading specialist. Within the year, I would be a new mom—and my envisioned career as a secret agent was now lived vicariously through books.

I moved on to become a reading specialist and completed my doctorate while I continued to teach. Unlike many who move from their doctoral programs to academia, I spent six more years as a lead teacher, fourth-grade teacher, and reading specialist before taking a leave of absence to give academia a try. It was

during my initial venture into academia, as I was challenged to find my niche, that CRA played a significant role in helping me begin to define my identity as a literacy teacher-educator and researcher.

In fall 1998, I attended and presented at my very first research conference when the CRA conference was held here in Myrtle Beach. That is when I realized there was so much to learn about academia. I grappled with everything from not being able to get a flight home on Sunday, because I waited too long to ticket my flight to worrying about eating alone because I set out to the conference knowing only one person. However, by the time my third flight in a very small puddle jumper landed at the Myrtle Beach International Airport, I had shared my life story with my new friend, Linda Rogers. Much to my dismay, the plane was so small that everyone else on the plane knew my life story, as well. By the time I arrived at the hotel, I had plans for dinner and a promise that at least one person would show up for my workshop.

My 50-minute workshop was another learning experience. I arrived armed with tons of chart paper examples from my classroom, student samples, and activities that would enlighten educators on how to teach children to write research reports. A decent number of people showed up, I did what I knew how to do, and wowed everyone with what children can do with the proper instruction and scaffolding; I reveled in the compliments bestowed upon me as attendees left. It was not until later in the weekend, after attending session after session, that I realized that research presentations were a whole different genre than I had envisioned. Being the quick learner that I am, I showed up the next year with my overhead transparencies and my analyses of teaching interns' perceptions of their collaborative integration of language and literacy into integrated projects, which turned into my second publication in the *CRA Yearbook* (Kidd, Sánchez, & Thorp, 2000).

With the support of my colleagues at George Mason University and my new professional home, CRA, I was up and moving. I was moving forward with a sense of adventure, a touch of fear, and a whole lot of excitement. I decided there was no need to be a secret agent when I had a life of intriguing numbers and words waiting to be collected, analyzed, and shared; classrooms of students eager to learn the mysteries of teaching effectively; and a number of colleagues willing to plot and scheme, as we planned how to fund and implement our next research project.

I share these stories with you because they illustrate the challenges doctoral students and early career assistant professors face as they grow into their new identities as teacher educators and researchers. Like many early career teacher educators and researchers, I experienced tensions as I embraced the role of researcher

and shifted from the role of teacher to teacher-educator (Izadinia, 2014). New teacher-educators and researchers often feel inadequate and disempowered, viewing themselves as imposters as their new professional identities emerge (Boyd & Harris, 2010; Field, 2012; Griffiths, Thompson, & Hryniewicz, 2010; Izadinia, 2014). I, too, found higher education to be very different from my school-based experiences. I felt like I had gone from being someone rather important in my school district to being rather insignificant within the university setting (Boyd & Harris, 2010; Field, 2012; Izadinia, 2014). I quickly realized that higher education had a culture unto itself and I had much to learn.

Literacy Teacher Educators' Knowledge and Skills

Eighteen years later, I am here at the ALER conference hopefully much wiser and more knowledgeable than I was when I first arrived in Myrtle Beach. Over the years, my work has given me the opportunity to explore pre-service teacher education and the professional development of practicing teachers. I have studied how teacher educators can prepare teachers to work with children and families with diverse cultural, linguistic, and socio-economic backgrounds as well as diverse abilities (Kidd, Sánchez, & Thorp, 2002, 2004a, 2004b, 2005, 2008; Kidd, Thorp, & Sánchez, 2002). I worked with colleagues to develop a professional development model that supports teachers' enactment of intentional teaching strategies (Nasser, Kidd, Burns, & Campbell, 2015). More recently, I have become interested in the professional development of teacher-educators and researchers and the preparation of doctoral students to take on these roles.

As I work with doctoral students and early career assistant professors on developing their teaching and research, I am particularly interested in the knowledge and skills they need to be successful and how they will continue to develop and sustain their knowledge over time. I want them to be well-positioned throughout their careers to (a) use and conduct research, (b) provide high quality teaching in teacher education, (c) promote effective literacy instruction, and (d) influence policy in ways that support equity and access for all learners (Menna, Dharamshi, Miyata, Cleovoulou, & Beck, 2015). So, what is it that these students and early career assistant professors (as well as all of us in this room) need to know and be able to do to be successful in our careers?

First, we must recognize the importance of not only using research to inform our practice, but also the critical need to develop and sustain a research agenda (Kosnik et al., 2015). Whether engaged in a research-intensive or a teaching-intensive faculty position, research is important to the work teacher educators do. Although engaging in research is critically important, teacher-educators

often face challenges as they work to develop an active research program. Many early career teacher educators and researchers feel tension as they transition from novice to active researchers (Murray & Male, 2005). They often struggle with the gap between how much they are expected to produce and the actual time they can squeeze into their schedules to focus on their research (Murray, 2010). Although most mid- and later-career teacher educators and researchers move beyond these feelings of inadequacy, they, too, feel tensions in their research as they seek to refine their research skills, secure grants, and make an impact nationally and internationally (Kosink et al., 2015).

Second, we must develop the knowledge and skills that enable us to provide high-quality teaching in higher education. Our quest to provide influential experiences for our students may also create tension as we work to develop and refine our craft (Kosnik et al., 2015). For example, those early in their careers recognize they cannot just replicate classroom teaching in their higher education classes (Loughran, 2011). They understand they must develop their knowledge of higher education pedagogy as they shift from teaching children and adolescents to teaching the adults who will or are teaching the learners they used to teach (Goodwin, 2014; Murray & Male, 2005). Likewise, mid- and later-career teacher educators also experience tensions in their teaching. They may be concerned about their lack of recent experience in the classroom, the challenges of ever-changing technologies, and balancing administrative duties with their teaching and research responsibilities (Kosnik et al., 2015).

 Third, we must continually develop our knowledge of literacy processes and instruction as we work to promote effective literacy instruction for all learners. This means we need to have the knowledge and skills to prepare teachers who (a) are knowledgeable about literacy processes; (b) provide literacy-rich environments for learning; and (c) implement effective curriculum, instruction, assessment, and evaluation in their diverse classrooms (International Reading Association, 2010). We also want our students to develop as a literacy professionals and leaders (International Reading Association, 2010). Well-informed and skillful teachers who teach and advocate for students increase the likelihood of positive student outcomes.

Fourth, in all that we do, we must strive to influence policy in ways that support equity and access for all students. Recognizing that our students are influenced by school and district policies, it is important that we keep informed on school and government initiatives that influence what teachers do (Kosnik et al., 2015). Knowing that we can be instrumental in what happens in classrooms and schools, we must consider how we might engage in long-term partnerships with schools that result in research that will be used when teachers and

administrators make decisions (Turley, 2016). And we must position ourselves to share research not only among ourselves, but also with policymakers so what we know about literacy teaching and learning is reflected in policies passed down to school personnel to implement.

When we think about engaging in research of consequence, providing high-quality teacher education, promoting effective literacy instruction, and influencing policy, it is possible for us to get overwhelmed. However, this is when focusing on our own professional development is essential. There are many ways we grow as teacher-educators and researchers. For example, we read and conduct research, we rely on feedback from students and peers, and we engage in collaborative partnerships. However, one influential form of professional development is what we are doing here today as we engage in learning and sharing within a professional community of literacy educators and researchers.

Role of ALER in the Professional Development of Literacy Teacher-Educators and Researchers

This brings me to my second question: What is the role of professional communities, such as ALER, in our professional development? If you take a moment to think, you can most likely come up with a multitude of ways ALER and other professional communities have played a role in your professional development. If this is your first conference, it may be that ALER has given you a chance to present and network like it did for me so many years ago. If this is your 50th conference, it may be that ALER has served as your academic home throughout your career. If you are somewhere in between, your experiences may be similar to my own. ALER's impact on my own career did not stop after my appointment to co-chair the Research Commission. Instead, it has continued to influence my growth every step of the way. As a pre-tenure assistant professor, ALER was a safe place to share my research, develop my presentation skills, and learn from others who shared a passion for literacy education. During this time, I had the good fortune to serve as Editor of *Reading News* and connect with many outstanding colleagues in our field. As a tenured associate professor serving on the ALER Board of Directors, I saw behind-the-scenes evidence of what ALER does to support us as a literacy educators and researchers. Being part of ALER provided me with opportunities for service as well as venues for advancing my research agenda and refining my teaching. And as a full professor serving in the presidential track, ALER provided avenues to develop my leadership skills as I planned last year's conference program and worked with many outstanding members over the course of the past few years. It is apparent that ALER has

been an influential force in my career, but how has it or will it contribute to your professional growth and to the professional development of your colleagues and those you mentor? To help us explore the myriad ways ALER plays a role in our professional development, I came up with eight ideas to get us started. I am sure you will come up with additional ideas that can be added to this list.

1. **ALER provides opportunities to recognize and support scholarship.** This morning, we held our annual awards breakfast that recognized colleagues across the span of their careers (http://www.aleronline. org/?page=awards). We honor those early in their careers with master's, dissertation, and promising researcher awards. We also provide grants to support research and projects and honor colleagues who have made significant contributions to the literacy community. I look forward to chairing the Awards Committee this upcoming year and urge you to submit your nominations.

2. **ALER provides support as we engage in collaborative research.** As we attend conferences and serve on committees together, we get to know each other's research interests and forge relationships that can be fruitful (http://www.aleronline.org/page/2016currentconf). If you recall, in my opening story, I talked about my workshop on teaching children to write research papers. Although the presentation might have been a little out of place, it later proved to be quite beneficial. People remembered me. And when Karen Bromley needed to revise a chapter on writing, she invited me to join her (Kidd & Bromley, 2008). A few years later, I was invited to serve on a panel at IRA as part of the Clinical Division and write a chapter on writing for a book Nina Nilsson was editing (Kidd & Burns, 2013). Think about your own collaborations. Are you here with a collaborative research group from your university or across universities? Did ALER provide you with an opportunity to present research conducted with teams of faculty and doctoral students? Did you make a connection while at this conference that could be the beginning of a productive collaboration? Most likely, you answered "yes" to one or more of these questions.

3. **ALER enables us to share and learn from each other's research and practice.** Through our annual conference, committee work, and publication venues, we provide opportunities to share our research and practice (http://www.aleronline.org/?page=pastconferences). Every

time you attend a session, you walk away with new ideas and new ways to think about issues of interest to you. Likewise, the conference provides many ways to share your ideas and research. You may have been involved in a graduate research poster yesterday morning or might be facilitating a roundtable discussion this afternoon. Or perhaps you have or will be presenting at a paper session or symposium. Whatever the format, coming together annually provides a way for us to share and learn.

4. **ALER has a focus on mentoring and learning with others.** One of the things about ALER that has most impressed me throughout the years is the commitment to mentoring and learning from each other. We have formal mechanisms in place like sessions on tips for aspiring authors, advice on entering academia, and guidelines for being successful with accreditation processes (http://www.aleronline. org/?page=pastconferences). Informally, mentoring takes place all around us. How many times has someone whose work you admire engaged you in a conversation and offered support and listened to your ideas? How many times have you been excited because you found someone with similar interests as yours or heard a new idea that got you thinking? Our mentoring and learning with each other is key to our professional development.

5. **ALER enables us to access, review, and publish research.** Our flag-ship journal, *Literacy Research and Instruction (LRI)*, and our *ALER Yearbook* provide excellent opportunities to access, review, and publish research (http://www.aleronline.org/). Because of our well-regarded publications, we have access to research that helps us stay informed and develop our knowledge. Both venues offer opportunities to review manuscripts and provide feedback. I find that every time I review a manuscript, I come away from the experience a better writer. As I identify strengths and areas for improvement in others' writing, I gain skills I can apply to my own. In addition, *LRI* and the *ALER Yearbook* give us opportunities to share our own research, which not only helps us as we seek positions in academia, promotion, and tenure, but also provides ways to make an impact through our work.

6. **ALER keeps us informed on current trends and issues.** In addition to our publications, we also keep on top of current trends and issues through our committees, conference sessions, and our networking with each other (http://www.aleronline.org/). For example, we offer sessions

that explore current trends and issues in literacy. We also are kept informed by our Legislative and Social Issues Committee as they work year-round to keep us apprised of what is happening in our field. Their posts to our ALER Blog provide timely and useful information.

7. **ALER helps us make and maintain connections.** For me, one of the greatest advantages of ALER is how the organization enables us to make and maintain connections that can last throughout our career and beyond. For example, Leslie La Croix and Nedra Cossa are two members who did their doctoral studies together. Leslie is now at George Mason University and Nedra is at Armstrong State University. They look forward to their time together to reconnect at the ALER conference. Other relationships may grow from a chance meeting at the conference. Perhaps you went to someone's session because it interested you, perhaps you served on a committee together, or perhaps someone introduced you to someone in casual conversation. Before you know it, you are running into these acquaintances at other conferences, reading an article they published, being asked to work on a project with them, or becoming Facebook friends!

8. **ALER supports us as we establish and foster networks.** As we make more and more connections with our ALER colleagues, we establish professional networks that support us in the work we do. ALER serves to foster these networks by providing the opportunity to come together on an annual basis and keep in touch throughout the year.

As you can see, ALER provides many opportunities for our professional development.

Importance of the Role of ALER in Our Professional Development

The final question I want to explore today is why it is important for ALER to continue to play an active role in the professional development of its members. As we established earlier, whether we are early in our careers or are in our mid- to later careers, our ongoing professional development is vital for our research and teaching, as well as our ability to promote effective literacy instruction and have an impact on policies that provide access and equity for all learners. ALER can and does play an important role in this process through venues for sharing and accessing information, the supports that are in place, and the connections they

fosters. Hopefully, as you have sat in this room this morning, you have identified why ALER is important in your professional development and ways that you can make the most of what ALER has to offer.

However, the question of why this is important remains. For me, there are two main reasons we must take advantage of the ways ALER can support us as we continue to grow and learn: learners like my son, Chris, and my colleagues' daughter, Anna. First, we owe it to Chris and students in our classes like Chris who aspire to be teachers, aspire to enhance their practice as teachers, or aspire to be teacher-educators. Chris is preparing to be an early childhood educator. He is the beneficiary of all the time and effort you have devoted to presenting and publishing your research, serving on and chairing ALER committees, and mentoring and supporting my colleagues and me as we continue to develop professionally. How can this be?

It's really quite simple. Chris has benefited from our research that informs his early childhood education program. He has learned about literacy processes and instruction from class readings influenced by our research. And he has worked with teacher educators who were shaped by your support of them. For example, he is currently taking classes with Dr. Leslie La Croix, who began attending ALER conferences as a doctoral student and continues to be involved. Leslie and I are mentoring a doctoral student, Sehyun Yun, who is also at this conference and will be presenting with us later today. Sehyun is engaged in a teaching internship supervised by Leslie and is working with Chris in that class. Leslie and I are also mentoring a doctoral student, Erin Geiger, who is the assistant director at the child development center where my son is doing his field experience this semester. So, you see, your support of my professional development enabled me to support Leslie's development, which enabled us to support Sehyun's and Erin's development, which will, in turn, make Chris the best teacher he could ever be! I use this example to illustrate how our work, supported by our membership in ALER, provides the life jacket that gives Chris and other pre-service teachers, practicing-teachers, and future teacher-educators the support and scaffolding needed to grow and learn.

Although this is a very important outcome of the work we do, there is one outcome that is the ultimate reason we do this work and that is Anna and learners like Anna who will be taught by the teachers we teach and the teachers who are informed by our research. Anna happens to be the daughter of Allison and Seth Parsons. All three are attending this conference and attended last year, as well. In addition to ALER's direct effect on Anna's learning as she attends our conferences, Anna also happens to be at the child development center where Erin works and my son is doing his field experience.

For learners like Anna, future teachers like Chris, educators like Erin, future teacher-educators like Sehyun and Leslie, and parents like Allison, Seth, and me, your engagement with professional communities like ALER is crucial. By engaging in continuous professional development supported by a professional organization like ALER, you make a difference that goes way beyond the relationships in my illustrations. As you share your research and practice, learn from others' experiences, and collaborate with other literacy teacher-educators and researchers, you are making a critical difference for learners in our diverse communities.

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Seven Things Everyone Should Know About American Indians

Awards Breakfast Keynote Speaker

Craig Howe
Center for American Indian Research and
Native Studies (CAIRNS)

Craig Howe, founder and Director of the Center for American Indian Research and Native Studies (CAIRNS), earned a Ph.D. in architecture and anthropology from the University of Michigan and has taught at colleges and universities in the United States and Canada. Howe has also served as Deputy Assistant Director for Cultural Resources at the National Museum of the American Indian, Smithsonian Institution in Washington, DC, and Director of the D'Arcy McNickle Center for American Indian History at the Newberry Library in Chicago. He co-edited This Stretch of the River: Lakota, Dakota and Nakota Responses to the Lewis and Clark Expedition and Bicentennial (2006) and He Sapa Woihanble: Black Hills Dream (2011), appeared in the DVD Oceti Sakowin: The People of the Seven Council Fires (2007), is the executive producer, co-write,r and narrator of Lakota Star Knowledge: Explorations of the Lakota Universe (2014), and is the executive producer, write, r and narrator of Lakota Emergence (2016).

15

Howe has authored articles and book chapters on numerous topics, including tribal histories, Native studies, museum exhibitions, and community collaborations. He has developed innovative hypermedia tribal histories projects and creative museum exhibitions, lectures on American Indian topics across the U.S., and provides professional development and cultural awareness training to schools and organizations.

Howe was raised and lives on his family's cattle ranch in the Lacreek District of the Pine Ridge Reservation, where he is designing and building Wingsprings, an architecturally unique retreat and conference center, that is featured in New Architecture on Indigenous Lands (2013). He is a citizen of the Oglala Sioux Tribe.

The educational roots of Howe's article, "Seven Things Everyone Should Know About American Indians," are anchored in the mission of CAIRNS: We are an Indian-controlled, nonprofit research center committed to advancing knowledge and understanding of American Indian communities and issues important to them by developing quality educational resources and innovative projects that acknowledge and incorporate tribal perspectives, and by serving as a meeting ground for peoples and ideas that support those perspectives.

CAIRNS also fulfills its educational mission through authoring a weekly 600-word column in Lakota Country Times, an independent print and online newspaper located in the Pine Ridge Reservation that is owned and operated by citizens of the Oglala Sioux Tribe. "Seven Things Everyone Should Know About American Indians" was published in Lakota Country Times in seven installments during February and March of 2017.

If you were asked to identify seven things about the United States that you think everyone should know, what would they be? Do you think that your neighbor would come up with the same list? How about random persons in Alaska and Augusta —would their seven things match up pretty close to yours?

Augusta, of course, is the capital of Maine, whereas Alaska and Maine are two of the fifty states that comprise the United States of America.

Perhaps you could manage to develop your list so that most people in Alaska, Augusta, and your neighborhood would agree with its seven items. But let's say your list would also have to apply to Canada, Mexico, and the other twenty countries of North America. Creating such a list would be an especially difficult task. Which seven things would you identify as the most important to know about all of these countries?

Today there are 567 federally recognized American Indian and Alaska Native tribes in the United States, and their citizens number approximately 1.9 million. To come up with a list of seven things everyone should know about these people and their nations is even more difficult than compiling the above lists. Nevertheless, here is my list.

American Indians are Plurals, Not a Singular

The first thing everyone should know about American Indians is that they are a plural and not a singular. When writing or talking about more than one of them, the plural "American Indians" instead of the collective singular "American Indian" should be used. Similarly, when writing or talking about American Indian tribes and their citizens, the singular and plural forms should be used appropriately.

Let's look at this idea with reference to a group of American Indians called "Lakota." "Lakota" is the singular form, and "Lakotas" is its plural. This seems obvious. However, there are many incorrect usages in textbooks and online resources. For example, here is the first sentence of "History of the Black Hills" from the Wind Cave National Park website: "Wind Cave is considered sacred and culturally significant to the Lakota and Cheyenne, and throughout the centuries, many tribal nations lived and traveled within reach of what would become Wind Cave National Park."

The author of the sentence correctly pluralized "nations," but did not pluralize "Lakota" or "Cheyenne." To see this more clearly, and because the topic is spiritual, let's substitute "Jew" and "Protestant" for "Lakota" and "Cheyenne." The sentence would begin: "Wind Cave is considered sacred and culturally significant to the Jew and Protestant." This is grammatically incorrect. The proper way to phrase it with these two terms would be: "Wind Cave is considered sacred and culturally significant to Jews and Protestants." Therefore, the sentence from the website should begin: "Wind Cave is considered sacred and culturally significant to Lakotas and Cheyennes."

To some people, this subtle spelling difference is inconsequential. But the names of all other groups of people are pluralized. And almost all animals are pluralized, as are the names of plants and objects. So why do some people refuse to pluralize Lakotas or the names of other tribes?

The answer is not inconsequential.

Using the collective singular objectifies an entire group of people. These objectified terms are often preceded by the pronoun *the*—"*the* Lakota," "*the* Cheyenne." Once any group is so objectified, it is easier for them to be discriminated against collectively. Perhaps some of the roots of racism are grounded in this grammatically incorrect yet unchallenged manner of referring to American Indians. Another possible consequence of objectifying American Indians is that they can be represented as mascots stuck in the past instead of human beings living today. Interestingly, mascots are pluralized even though the peoples they purport to honor might not be.

All languages distinguish singular from plural forms, so tribes' names should be pluralized. One positive consequence of using the letter "s" to pluralize

a name is that then an apostrophe can be used to indicate possession. For example: that Lakota's horse can run very fast, and this Lakota's computer is really slow. The "apostrophe s" makes the noun "Lakota" possessive. In other words, the computer and the horse belong to two different Lakotas.

The apostrophe can also be placed after the "s" in order to indicate possession by more than one person. These seven Lakotas' land is in trust status. This sentence means that the trust land belongs to all seven Lakotas. Without the "apostrophe s," Lakotas are linguistically dispossessed of their property!

So if there is one and only one Lakota person, then the proper term is "Lakota." Possession by one Lakota is indicated "Lakota's." If there is more than one Lakota, then the proper term is "Lakotas," and possession by multiple Lakotas is indicated as "Lakotas'."

American Indians Have Been Here a Long, Long Time

The second thing everyone should know about American Indians is that they have been here in North America a long, long time. To visualize how long they have been here, imagine a timeline from "Long Ago" to "Today." Then arbitrarily mark a point near the middle of the timeline and label it as "12,700 BP."

Why BP? Because "BP" stands for "years Before the Present," with 1950 being "the Present," based on radiocarbon dating conventions. On our timeline, the mark would roughly correlate to 10,750 BC. Archaeologists use BP instead of BC, and Lakotas jokingly like to do so too because of all the negativity associated with BCs: Before Christ, Before Columbus, Before Custer, and Before Costner.

Why 12,700? Because the skeletal remains of an American Indian infant boy found in a Montana cave in 1968 were radiocarbon dated to 12,700 years ago. This means that American Indians have been in North America for at least 12,700 years.

On our timeline, let's round 12,700 down to 12,000 and place our mark 12 inches from "Today." Thus, each inch on our timeline is 1,000 years. Therefore, American Indians have been here at least 12 inches of time. Columbus' voyages were about half of an inch ago. The United States was founded less than a quarter inch ago.

Putting American Indians into time is difficult for most people. For example, a 2010 article in *ScienceNews* reported that "ancient DNA" experts were attempting to sequence the DNA of Lakota spiritual leader Sitting Bull. Sitting Bull (Tatanka Iyotake) was born in 1831 and was killed in 1890. He was at the Little Bighorn when Custer was killed, toured Europe with Buffalo Bill's Wild

West Show, and went to Washington, DC with a Lakota delegation in 1885. Yet, the article reports that if the experts were successful, Sitting Bull's would be "the first ancient, non-frozen, Native American genome sequenced." According to the article, the DNA of an American Indian killed in 1890 was "ancient."

Another example of the difficulty of placing American Indians in time is from *The Express*, a newspaper from Lock Haven, Pennsylvania. On February 14, 2008, the online version of the newspaper reported that skeletal remains "between 100 and 700 years old" were found in Bald Eagle State Park, and the remains were believed to be of two American Indians. The coroner determined that one set of remains was of a juvenile under the age of 20, whereas the other was of an adult. The coroner could not determine the sex of the remains, but even though he asserted that the burials were from sometime between 1908 and 1308, he concluded that both were from a "prehistoric burial."

This means that both of my maternal grandparents are prehistoric (Grandma was born in 1906 and Grandpa in 1898). Grandma missed being in history by only two years! Who besides American Indians has to deal with contemporary news reports stating their grandparents are prehistoric? The history of American Indians' ancestors here in North America is over 12,000 years old, yet still today, newspapers and science articles cannot appropriately place American Indians in time.

It is past time to end this practice. American Indians and their histories should be accurately and appropriately placed in time.

Indian Tribes are Political Entities Higher Than States

The third thing everyone should know about American Indians is that Indian tribes are political entities whose sovereign status is higher than that of states. The legal sovereignty of American Indian tribes can be traced to three U.S. Supreme Court decisions that are collectively known as the Marshall Trilogy. The trilogy gets its name from the Chief Justice of the Supreme Court at that time—John Marshall.

The first case of the Marshall Trilogy is Johnson v. McIntosh. Thomas Johnson had purchased land from citizens of the Piankeshaw tribe in Illinois, and after his death, his descendants inherited it. William McIntosh had received a land patent from the U.S. to the same land. This 1823 case was to determine who was the rightful owner of the land.

Johnson v. McIntosh established that European nations acquired sovereignty—and title—over the lands they "discovered." The result was that Indian tribes had the right to occupy their lands, but that the titles to those lands were

held by the United States. Therefore, if tribes wished to sell their land, they could do so only to the federal government. They could not sell their lands to foreign governments, to any of the states in the United States, or to any citizen of the U.S.

The second case of the Marshall Trilogy is Cherokee Nation v. Georgia. In 1827, Cherokees adopted a constitution and established an independent Cherokee Nation. In an effort to force Cherokees to move out of Georgia, the state passed "Indian laws" in 1828 that undermined Cherokee independence and permitted the state to seize Cherokee lands. In response, the Cherokee Nation asked the Supreme Court for an injunction, arguing that it was a "foreign nation" over which the State of Georgia had no control.

After hearing the case in 1831, however, the Supreme Court refused to rule on its merits because it determined that the Cherokee Nation was not a "foreign" nation. Instead, Chief Justice Marshall famously coined the term, "domestic dependent nation," to distinguish Indian tribes from other foreign nations. The United States, therefore, has almost absolute authority over Indian tribes, since they are "domestic dependent nations."

One year later, the third case of the Marshall Trilogy was decided. In it, a missionary named Worcester was arrested by the State of Georgia for living in Cherokee land without a license from the state. Worcester appealed to the Supreme Court and it found that the Cherokee Nation and all Indian tribes are "independent political communities retaining their original natural rights." Therefore, the laws of Georgia and all other states have no force in tribal lands.

Worcester v. Georgia established that within U.S. law, Indian tribes are political entities with national sovereignty. They are not minority groups, cultural groups, ethnic groups, racial groups, or any other such groups. None of these groups negotiate treaties with the United States, nor do states of the United States. But Indian tribes signed treaties with the United States, as well as with other foreign nations.

Citizenship is another component of nations that shows tribes have a sovereign status higher than states. The United States and all other nations have criteria for determining who is and who isn't a citizen. Citizenship is different from residency. For instance, a person can be a citizen of Japan and be a resident of South Dakota.

Nations have citizens. Tribes have citizens. No U.S. state has citizens.

Tribes are Different than American Indian Persons

The fourth thing everyone should know about American Indians is that Indian tribes are different than American Indian persons. This critical difference is often not

understood. But if we wish to identify challenges and solutions in Indian country, then we must be able to discern whether the root of an issue is tribal or individual.

One way of illustrating the importance of keeping these entities separate is by examining federal Indian policies and programs. For example, when the U.S. was founded, numerous Indian tribes already existed as separate and distinct nations. Therefore, the U.S. generally treated with these tribes as nations, and did not concern itself with the tribes' citizens.

But after the military and economic power of the U.S. surpassed that of all Indian tribes combined, there was a shift in federal Indian policies. In 1871, Congress prohibited treaty-making between the U.S. and any Indian tribe, and thereafter the U.S. has dealt with tribes mostly through unilateral agreements and legislation. Instead of national allies or adversaries to be treated with, tribes were viewed as powerless and troublesome entities whose continued existences were at the mercy of the federal government. The 1830 Removal Act that forced tribes to leave their homelands and walk to what is now Oklahoma, and the 1871 prohibition of treaties, are examples of federal policies directed toward Indian tribes.

Regarding federal policies aimed at citizens of tribes during the "Removal" era (1820-1880), the major one was the development of "off reservation" boarding schools for Indian children. The first such institution, the "United States Indian Industrial School," was established at Carlisle, Pennsylvania, in 1878. Its founder and superintendent was Richard Pratt, an Army captain, whose motto was, "Kill the Indian, save the man." Generally known as the "Carlisle Indian School," its strategy was to remove Indian children from their lands and communities in an effort to force their assimilation into American culture.

Now let's turn to the "Termination" era (1950-1970) of federal Indian policy. The hallmark legislation for tribes was "House Concurrent Resolution 108," issued on August 1, 1953. It called for the immediate termination of the federal trust relationship with five tribes, and of all the tribes in California, Florida, New York and Texas. During the following 13 years, the federal government terminated over 100 tribes. This meant that the government withdrew all support from those tribes; any treaties with those tribes were abrogated; the tribes' lands were no longer protected by the federal government; and the tribes no longer had citizens recognized by the U.S.

The main federal program directed at citizens of tribes during the termination era was the "Indian Relocation Act of 1956." This program offered them one-way transportation to faraway cities, vocational training, and subsistence allowances. Its goal was to encourage American Indians to move away from the perceived negative influences of their lands and communities, and assimilate into American culture.

We can see that during the Removal and Termination eras, separate federal policies were directed simultaneously toward tribes and toward their citizens. Tribes and their citizens are separate entities, and whether we are talking about the past, today, or the future, we must be capable of articulating their differences.

American Indians Have Lost Nearly All Their Land

The fifth thing everyone should know about American Indians is that they have lost nearly all of their land. Imagine a map of the world with the Atlantic Ocean near its middle. On the right side of the ocean are Africa, the Middle East, and Europe. On the ocean's opposite side are South, Central, and North America. Most of us learn that the right side of the map is the "Old World" and the left side is the "New World."

But that is not true. The right side of the map is the "European Old World," and the left side is the "European New World." These two worlds were not named "Old World" and "New World" until Europeans became aware of what is now called the "Americas" and began settling here.

In 983 AD, Europeans had no idea that there was a "New World." Five hundred years later, in 1483, Europeans were still clueless about a "New World." Even after another three hundred years, in 1783, some interior areas of the European New World remained unknown to Europeans and unmapped by them. It wasn't until the early 1800s that Europeans had explored and mapped most of the landmass now known as "America." Nevertheless, every school child is incorrectly taught that the New World is, and always has been, a fact.

But what about American Indians whose ancestors have lived here for at least 12,700 years? Is America their New World? No! To them, America is their "Old World." It is true that no one American Indian knew all of her Old World, but no one European knew all of her Old World either. Collectively, Europeans knew their Old World, and for at least 12,700 years, American Indians collectively knew their Old World.

So if America is the "American Indian Old World," what is the "American Indian New World?" Imagine that America is under water except for a few scattered islands, and that these islands are the American Indian reservations in the United States today. These islands constitute the American Indian New World. They are the remaining lands within which American Indians have at least some degree of decision-making authority.

American Indian reservations are a tiny portion of the property that belonged to American Indians when Europeans first arrived here. In the United States, there are approximately 1.9 billion acres of land in the 48 contiguous

states, and 55 million, or less than 2.9% of them, are held in trust for American Indians and Indian tribes.

With regard to American Indian lands remaining in American Indian hands, the United States is better than any other country in the Americas. There is more American Indian land in the U.S. than in all the other countries combined. Nevertheless, even in the U.S., the rapidity with which the land changed hands is almost unimaginable. Of the 12,700 years that American Indians have been in what is now the 48 contiguous states, all of their lands remained in their hands for 12,290 years until Europeans settled at Jamestown in 1607. In the Plains, the loss started even later. For example, Lakotas retained their land until 1877, which is just 140 years ago. Then over the span of 35 years, they lost nearly all of it.

Despite this egregious history of land loss and theft, state and local county officials continue to try to remove land from tribal control, and to impede efforts by tribes and American Indians to place their lands into trust status under the protection of the United States government.

Tribal Spirituality Is Ongoing Here and Now

The sixth thing that everyone should know about American Indians is that tribal spirituality is ongoing here and now. All tribal traditions are tied to the American Indian Old World, the Western Hemisphere, and they are the only religious systems that can legitimately make that claim. All of the holy tribal lands are within the Western Hemisphere, and all of the sacred and venerated ceremonial artifacts are as well. None of the tribal spiritual traditions are linked in any way to lands, peoples, or objects overseas.

In many ways, these spiritual traditions are also what differentiate one tribe from another. Each is unique. Each has its own sacred sites, venerated artifacts, spiritual ceremonies, and cosmological beliefs. These traditions share some beliefs, but none of them claim to be the one true way. Each tradition explains the world that is known by its believers, but all acknowledge that there are other legitimate traditions.

For example, traditional Lakota belief is that their ancestors lived in the underworld and were called the Pte people. Sometime long ago, seven Pte families followed a wolf through the convoluted cave that connects the underworld with this world. Their leader was a man named Tokahe. They called the place where they emerged into this world Wasun Niya. Many people believe that place is known today as Wind Cave.

The children of those seven families were the first Lakotas. Eventually, Lakotas organized themselves as the Titonwan nation. Sometime later, they

subdivided and established seven oyates. Many generations later, the Itazipco oyate hosted a visitor who gave them a pipe. She told them the pipe was from their relatives, the Pte people, and that there would eventually be seven sacred ceremonies associated with it. Her name was White Buffalo Calf Woman and the pipe is called the White Buffalo Calf pipe. That pipe is watched over today near the community of Green Grass by Arvol Looking Horse, who is its 19th generation keeper.

One of the ceremonies associated with that pipe is the Sun Dance. In 1877, Lakotas were forcibly confined by the U.S. in what was then one large reservation, and their rifles and horses were taken away from them. Without rifles they could not hunt and feed themselves. Without horses—the basis of their economic system—they could not purchase food or anything else. To control the behavior of Lakotas, the U.S. forced them into dependency on the U.S. for every aspect of their lives.

Then, in 1883, the United States prohibited all American Indians from practicing their spiritual traditions, specifically naming the Sun Dance as one of the prohibited ceremonies. If found guilty of practicing their traditional spirituality, Lakotas were deprived of their rations or put in jail. This religious prohibition was essentially lifted in the mid 1930s.

Finally, just thirty-nine years ago, the first and original peoples of the Western Hemisphere, whose ancestors had lived here for at least 12,700 years, were granted permission to practice their spiritual traditions without penalty of hunger or incarceration. That year, 1978, the American Indian Religious Freedom Act was passed by Congress.

The seven ceremonies associated with the White Buffalo Calf pipe are all conducted today within and beyond reservation borders. However, many sacred sites are outside of tribal lands, and access to them is limited, or in some cases, prohibited. In this land of religious freedom, American Indians still must fight for their rights to honor and practice their spiritual traditions.

The Names of the Reservations, Tribes, and Capitals

The seventh thing that everyone should know about American Indians is names. Everyone should know the names of the reservations, tribes, and capitals that are near where they are living. If there are no American Indian reservations in the state where you live, then you should learn the names of the tribes who used to live there. American Indians were the stewards of all of the Western Hemisphere for at least 12,700 years. It was their "Old World." So if you live in the Americas, then the land under you was Indian land, and there were Indian

tribes who knew it as their home long before Europeans and other foreigners arrived.

In South Dakota, for example, there are nine tribes that are recognized by the U.S. government. They govern nine reservations with lands in South Dakota. Two of the reservations extend into North Dakota. In fact, the capital of Standing Rock Reservation is Fort Yates, which is in North Dakota.

The nine reservations comprise approximately 21% of the land in South Dakota. There are more than 67,000 residents whose homes are in these reservations. Yet, in our assessments over the past eleven years, not one person has been able to identify all of the official names of the nine reservations, their governing tribes, and their capitals.

Apparently, no one is teaching or learning these 27 data points. In fourth grade, many of us had to learn the names of the 50 states and their capitals. That is 100 data points. If we didn't learn them, we didn't get to fifth grade. In many ways, the 27 tribal data points are a litmus test of commitment to American Indian education in our state. If someone doesn't know them, then we can legitimately say that they may have specialized knowledge or expertise, but they do not have a basic fourth grade knowledge of American Indians in our state.

Yet, we have been told by "experts" that they do not need to learn these or other academic facts because "American Indians are oral people." This insidious anti-intellectual attitude of educational leaders and others in decision-making positions leads to widespread assumptions that American Indians are not as intelligent as non-Indians; that American Indians cannot speak for or act for themselves; and that American Indians cannot excel in school or business settings.

Then, when persons with an "American Indians are oral people" attitude teach American Indian children, these children often internalize the insidious assumptions of their teachers. The children decide that they are not good enough, or smart enough, so they wonder why they should even try to excel and assert themselves.

To mitigate the ongoing and long-term consequences of the "American Indians are oral people" attitude, we need more highly qualified American Indian teachers in classrooms across our state. We need more highly qualified American Indians in the Department of Education (other than the Indian Education Director, there are none). We need more highly qualified American Indians conducting professional development trainings about American Indians (non-Indians continue to lead most American Indian education initiatives sanctioned by the Department of Education). We need more highly qualified American Indian faculty members in our state's six universities (of the 1,508 faculty members, 15 are American Indians).

Learning the 27 tribal data points will not reduce any of these systemic biases in South Dakota. The same is true of learning the other six items discussed above. But no matter where you live in the United States, learning these seven items demonstrates that you care enough to invest your time to become more aware of issues important to American Indians and Indian tribes today. Only after such basic facts are learned and commitments are made can we legitimately work toward substantive changes in our attitudes, as well as in our institutions and communities.

Preparing Teacher Candidates to Become Culturally Responsive and Competent Educators: Recommendations for Literacy Teacher Educators

Teacher Education Division Keynote

Benita R. Brooks
Sam Houston State University

Burcu Ates
Sam Houston State University

Helen Berg
Sam Houston State University

Donna Cox
Sam Houston State University

The following article was presented at the 2016 Teacher Education Division meeting by our invited guest speakers. This presentation offered our special interest group members an insight into ways a university creates experiences for undergraduate students to work with diverse populations toward a mission to promote social change. TED, or the Teacher Education Division, through guest speakers and round table discussions,

seeks to share and highlight ALER members research and/or actions which focus on moving teacher education programs forward. We invite you to share in the conversations and become a TED member!

— A Note from Patricia Durham, Teacher Education Division Chair

Abstract

A culturally responsive teacher educator needs to possess dispositions, skills, and knowledge that cultivate meaningful learning experiences by embracing and teaching about diversity, inclusiveness, equality, and social justice. This article suggests that literacy teacher educators can facilitate culturally responsive teaching by incorporating topics and assignments into their teaching such as having their students participate in cross-cultural explorations, critical language education, and literacy. It also suggests collaboration of literacy teacher educators with teacher educators from other disciplines to better understand issues related to, for example, second language learning and acquisition. This article provides several recommendations for literacy teacher educators to better serve and prepare teacher candidates in their programs who will in return meet the needs of racially, ethnically, culturally, and linguistically diverse students better.

Introduction

The number of racially, ethnically, culturally, and linguistically diverse students in the United States schools are growing immensely (Hussar & Bailey, 2016). The change in student population demographics calls for teachers who are culturally responsive and competent educators. There is an extensive literature that emphasizes culturally responsive practices in P-12 settings (Ladson-Billings, 1992; Nieto, 2010); however, little emphasis is given to teacher educators on how they engage in such practices in their university classrooms (Baumgartner, Bay, Lopez-Reyna, Snowden, & Maiorano, 2015). The teacher educators have the responsibility of preparing teacher candidates to work in today's diverse classrooms (Prater & Devereaux, 2009). Therefore, future teachers need to be educated in a learning environment where the teacher educator himself/herself engages in culturally responsive practices (Baumgartner et al., 2015). A culturally responsive teacher educator needs to possess dispositions, skills, and knowledge that cultivates meaningful learning experiences by embracing and teaching about diversity, inclusiveness, equality, and social justice.

In this paper, we suggest that literacy teacher educators can facilitate culturally responsive teaching by incorporating topics and assignments into their teaching such as having their students participate in cross-cultural explorations, critical language education, and literacy. We also suggest collaboration of literacy

teacher educators with teacher educators from other disciplines to better understand issues related to for example, second language learning, and acquisition.

Benita and Donna are literacy teacher educators, while Burcu and Helen are Bilingual/ESL education teacher educators at a public university in the southeast of the United States. We all have been teacher educators for at least ten years now. Based on our individual work and research as teacher educators, we provide several recommendations for literacy teacher educators to better serve and prepare teacher candidates in their programs who will in return meet the needs of racially, ethnically, culturally, and linguistically diverse students better.

Recommendation: Cross-Cultural Exploration
Why a Cultural X-ray?

It is imperative that teacher educators provide opportunities for teacher candidates to examine their own cultural knowledge, values, and beliefs; otherwise, their perceptions may limit their openness to work with other cultures (Kratzke & Bertolo, 2013). It has already been recorded that with limited or inadequate exposure to other cultures, teacher candidates' knowledge about future students can be affected by stereotypes and misperceptions of people from other backgrounds different from their own (Jewett, 2011; Lee, 2012). In fact, Chan and Parr (2012) reported that research continued to show how teacher candidates' "pre-existing conceptions strongly mediate their learning journey toward the teaching profession" (p. 1) despite documenting a range of innovative teaching practices over the last thirty years. They declared teacher education needed to show it can have some impact on existing beliefs and attitudes by "productively disturbing the conceptions of teaching, diversity and culture that some teacher candidates bring with them into their teaching" (p.1).

It is our belief that when teacher candidates get to know themselves as complex, cultural beings first, they are able to appreciate and respect the cultural and linguistic diversity of today's students, families, and communities they serve. To do this, we recommend teacher candidates creating a cultural x-ray. Our first recommendation involves implementing a curricular framework designed by Short (2009) for cultural studies: 1) studying personal cultural identities and 2) engaging in cross-cultural explorations. To engage in cross-cultural explorations, Brooks, Votteler, Erasmus and Price (2017) adopted Schmidt's (2006) ABCs model of Cultural Understanding and Communication as an instructional framework for teacher candidates to develop "a deeper understanding of the impact of linguistic, cultural, social, and economic capital on quality of life and education and literacy experiences" (Xu, 2015, p.136).

Short (2009) coined the phrase "intercultural understanding" to describe cultural and global competencies. According to Short, intercultural understanding begin with learners exploring their own cultures and developing conceptual understandings of culture. She claimed looking at culture started with the realization of learners examining their own point of view before considering other points of view. Short (2009) identified the cultural x-ray as one strategy that helped students consider the multiple layers of experiences, traditions, and beliefs that contributed to their own cultural identities. The cultural x-ray is an outline of a person with a heart drawn inside. Surface aspects of culture, those that are evident to others, such as ethnicity, language, age, and gender are labeled outside the bodies, and the deeper, less-visible levels of culture, such as the values and beliefs are written inside the heart (Short, 2009). Short's curriculum framework is relevant because it provided a foundation for teacher candidates to develop an awareness of who they are as cultural beings. Brooks, Votteler, Erasmus and Price (2017) adopted Short's cultural x-ray strategy as a tool for twenty teacher candidates, enrolled in a fall 2015 literacy methods course in the southeast region of the United States, to identify and understand what mattered in their own cultures (see Figure 1).

Figure 1. This is an example of a teacher candidate's cultural x-ray. Inside the heart, the teacher candidate wrote faithful, family-oriented, willing to learn, creative, hopeful, forgiving, timid, thoughtfulness, musical, and sensitive to needs.

All teacher candidates created a cultural x-ray by drawing an outline of a person with a heart inside. After completing the cultural x-ray, all teacher candidates presented what they wrote, particularly what they wrote inside the heart. Once all teacher candidates shared, Benita asked them to define culture. One teacher candidate wrote, "I see culture as the physical and social environment that one is exposed to. Physical as in location, terrain, altitude, etc. and social as the people in that community determine acceptable practices, attitudes, dress, speech, and actions." Another teacher candidate defined culture as "many components not one characteristic defines it and it looks different from person to person." According to Gee (1999), our cultural models are rooted in our socially and culturally defined practices and they described what we believed about events and people in the world. Jewett (2011) defined cultural models as "…our first thoughts or best guesses about what is expected or normal for a particular situation…" (p. 21). Jewett described cultural models as "fluid and dynamic, leaving room for choice and for alternative constructions" (p.7). The teacher candidates realized culture is more complex and fluid than they originally thought.

Why an Online Cultural Exchange?

Getting to know themselves as complex, cultural beings first prepared teacher candidates for the online cultural exchange with teacher candidates enrolled in a foundation phase course in the northwest region of South Africa (Brooks, Votteler, Erasmus & Price, 2017). This online cultural exchange provided teacher candidates with opportunities to develop intercultural competence through online exchanges using Schmidt's ABCs model of Cultural Understanding and Communication in a closed group Facebook page. The key to the ABCs model is "Know thyself, understand others" (Schmidt & Finkbeiner, 2006, p. 4). According to these scholars, teacher education programs that used reading, writing, listening, and speaking to create "consciousness-raising experiences" enabled teacher candidates to gain a knowledge of self and others. Schmidt's (2006) ABCs model includes five major components:

1. Autobiography, written in detail by each teacher candidate including key life events related to education, family, religious tradition, and life experiences.
2. Biography based on teacher candidate interviews of someone culturally or linguistically different.
3. Cross-cultural analysis of similarities and differences between the life stories told by the teacher candidates (He & Cooper, 2009).

4. Analysis of cultural differences examined in writing with encouragement for participants to explain personal discomforts and identify positive affect.

5. Modification to implement in a classroom.

The online cultural exchange began with a fifty-five minute Skype session, where the American and South African teacher candidates met for the first time. The American teacher candidates introduced themselves and then the South African teacher candidates did the same. The Skype session ranged from conversations about different languages spoken to classroom/field experience practices, family traditions, and religious beliefs. The Skype session concluded with the South African teacher candidates singing the children's song, "Brother John" in Tswana and Afrikaans.

The next phase involved both American and South African teacher candidates writing a 1-2 page autobiography about key life events. After writing the autobiography, Brooks and colleagues paired an American teacher candidate with a South African teacher candidate. Some included groups of three. The researchers chose Facebook, because all teacher candidates had access to the online social networking site, and it offered a private feature that allowed the researchers to maintain control over who participated in the conversations. The American teacher candidates emailed their South African partners first. The American teacher candidates emailed a list of times for their partner to select to meet and chat on Facebook. In the email exchanges, the American and South African teacher candidates shared their autobiographies. They used autobiography as an introduction to their lived experiences.

The third phase involved writing a biography. Brooks and colleagues provided the teacher candidates with a list of interview questions related to education, family, religious tradition, and life experiences. The American and South African teacher candidates used the questions to interview one another using Facebook's message feature. Once they completed the interview, the teacher candidates created a table that included the interview responses. At this point, the teacher candidates had enough information to complete the fourth phase: cross-cultural analysis. This phase of the ABCs required them to analyze cultural differences and explain personal discomforts or identify positive effects. The final phase of the ABCs required the teacher candidates to write about ways to modify the ABCs for their own classroom. Brooks and colleagues combined phases four and five by creating a self-reflection chart (see Appendix A).

Using the ABCs model in this online cultural exchange enabled the teacher candidates from the United States and South Africa to travel across the Atlantic via

Facebook. All claimed the online cultural exchange was beneficial. One American teacher candidate found interacting with his South African partner enabled him to learn about the Zulu tribe, an African tribe that has a rich history throughout the world. They gained appreciation for cultural similarities and differences. In this case, the teacher candidates read beyond literacy events documented in their autobiographies and biographies; they became aware of their own and their peers' cultural heritages, including home languages such as Afrikaans, South Sotho, English, and Spanish (Brooks et. al., 2017). In sum, completing the cultural x-ray and participating in the online cultural exchange enabled the American teacher candidates to recognize and address misconceptions, find common ground, and develop an interest in the world.

Recommendation: Critical Language Education and Literacy

Why Critical Literacy?

Dozier, Johnston and Rogers (2006) argue, "To teach critical literacy, our teachers must become critically literate themselves, value social justice, and have sense of the cultural contexts in which they work" (p. 18). We believe it is the same for literacy teacher educators. As Lytle (2013) states, literacy teaching and teacher education are about "equity, access, and justice. They are about learning and teaching as political acts" (p. xvii). Education is never a neutral but a political process (Freire, 1970). Williamson (2013) discusses the challenges in literacy teacher preparation and argues:

> *A paradox of teacher education is that we must prepare teachers for the schools we have while at the same time we must prepare them for the schools we want. Though we must help our students become teachers who can understand the complexities of schools…see themselves as change agents who can make a difference…must invite students to take stock of how their literacy instruction provides kids with access to learning opportunities…*

This translates to a call for all teacher educators and how the teacher preparation courses are taught. We need courses that strive for diversity, equity, and social justice. One of the important topics we suggest literacy teacher educators highlight is the variety of Englishes that exist. Teacher candidates need to know that there is not just one English, but there are Englishes that exist (Seargeant, 2012). Indian English, Nigerian English, and Singapore English are only few varieties of

world Englishes (WE) (Kachru, 1985). World Englishes are "regionally distinct varieties of English that have arisen in areas of Asia, Africa, and Oceania, where there is a long (often colonial) history of English being widely used in education, commerce, and government" (Celce-Murcia, 2014, p. 63).

Teacher candidates need to support and advocate for linguistic diversity in their classrooms. They need to be informed that against Standard English many of these Englishes are delegitimized and often viewed as inferior. Similar stigmatization is also faced by American English varieties such as Chicano English and African American Vernacular English (AAVE) (Freidrich & Diniz de Figueiredo, 2016). According to Nero and Ahmad (2014) "vernaculars spoken by racial/ethnic minorities and/or those in the lower socioeconomic class throughout the world are particularly stigmatized, as language is a convenient foil for discrimination against marginalized groups" (p. 30). As teacher educators we sometimes come across views from teacher candidates that the AAVE for example is a *broken* English. Delpit (1998) suggests that rather than calling AAVE wrong or broken, teacher candidates need to recognize that the linguistic form their students bring into the classroom is connected with loved ones, community, and personal identity. Therefore, teacher educators specifically need to provide class readings on African American literature, language, and culture (Rogers, 2013). Audiotaping stories or children's books, read by family or community members from vernacular Englishes, would be a great way to empower and respect linguistic diversity in classrooms (Delpit, 1998). There is also a great TED Talk titled "3 ways to Speak English" (2014) by Jamila Lyiscott where she delivers a poem called "Broken English". She says:

> So I may not always come before you with excellency of speech
> But do not judge me by my language and assume
> That I'm too ignorant to teach
> 'Cause I speak three tongues
> One for each:
> Home, school and friends
> I'm a tri-lingual orator

Literacy teacher educators can deconstruct Lyiscott's talk in their university classrooms by discussing the power of language, how language and identity are interrelated, how history and culture influences use of language, and how we can embrace linguistic diversity and turn it into something powerful.

Another activity that could be completed in the classroom is to illustrate an example of *Beauty and The Beast* in Singapore English, which is in Singlish

(https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=d28yRBX0tgo), and have teacher candidates examine language similarities and differences between the Standard English and Singlish. For example, the word "*lah* is a marker of solidarity in Singapore English (e.g., *No problem lah. I go there anyway*)." (Celce-Murcia, 2014, p. 64). It is crucial to familiarize teacher candidates with different varieties of Englishes even if the teacher candidates might assume they may never hear this in their classrooms. Ates, Eslami, and Wright (2015) in their research study, for one semester incorporated the topic of World Englishes into their undergraduate courses using various activities with the teacher candidates. They concluded, "Incorporating WE into mainstream preservice teacher education programs provides a plethora of opportunities to prospective teachers for exposure to linguistic diversity" (p. 498) as well as noted, "As linguistically and culturally diverse learners increasingly come to dominate public school demographics, teacher education programs need to appropriately train teachers to have greater respect for English varieties among their students." (p. 498).

Another important topic we suggest literacy teacher educators is incorporating critical literary work in their classrooms. Norris, Lucas, and Prudhoe (2012) emphasize "Critical literacy views text meaning-making as a process of social construction with a particularly critical eye toward elements of the various historical, social, and political contexts involved" (p. 59) and state, "Critical literacy *is* culturally responsive teaching" (p. 60). Incorporating books that validate differences and endorse diversity in literature allows teacher candidates to appreciate and accommodate students from diverse backgrounds (Whitney, 2005). Few examples are *Smoky Night* (1999) by Eve Bunting, *Half Spoon of Rice: A Survival Story of the Cambodian Genocide* (2010) by Icy Smith, and *The Invisible Boy* (2013) by Patrice Barton. Cox, Miller, and Berg (2017) specifically provided suggestions on how such books can be implemented in the classrooms through read-aloud. Some other books they recommended that led to critical conversations included:

> *Relationships (Voices in the Park by Anthony Browne), gender (Oliver Button is a Sissy by Tomie de Paola), racism and immigration (The Other Side by Jacqueline Woodson & E.B. Lewis), homelessness (Fly Away Home by Eve Bunting), nature (The Lorax by Dr. Seuss), and differing points of view (Where Does Tuesday Go? by Jeneen Brian & Michael King) (p. 49).*

Rogers (2013) noted as teacher educators we need to provide cultural and linguistic resources into the learning spaces of teacher candidates which will provide

influential model of practices. Teacher candidates need to know how to utilize developing effective critical literacy lessons (Norris, Lucas, & Prudhoe, 2012) and need to be educated on ways to address issues of inequity and injustices in their classrooms, schools, and communities when they become teachers. This social action could be in various forms including the application of critical literacy that has been discussed.

Recommendation: Cross-discipline Faculty Collaboration

Why Collaboration Within Teacher Education Programs?

Many teacher education programs *under*-prepare teacher candidates for meeting the educational needs of English Language Learners (ELLs) (Ray, Bowman, & Robbins, 2006). In their study, Maxwell, Lim, & Early (2006), found that strategies for working with bilingual children was the least likely topic to be covered as part of a practicum for teacher preparation in early childhood (EC-6) programs. Yet, the number of ELLs in elementary schools in the United States has increased over 200% in 16 states in the last decade (Hernandez, Denton, & Macartney, 2007). One suggestion for improving preparation for teacher candidates is to foster dialogue between teacher educators in ESL/Bilingual programs and teacher educators in other program areas (Riojas-Cortez, Alanís & Flores, 2013; Sakash & Rodriguez-Brown, 2011).

Professors share students. This comes as no surprise to anyone. A literacy methods class will have students who may be specializing in Bilingual methods, Special Education methods, Early Childhood methods, or various other areas of specialization. Faculty hope that knowledge and practices learned in one class will be added to and used in subsequent courses. But what happens when new methods are shared that are fundamentally opposed to what has been taught in previous courses or are practices that do not address literacy needs of the diverse student population in classrooms today? This could easily create confusing among the teacher candidates. The following vignette will serve to illustrate this kind of predicament:

> Yvonne is a bilingual pre-service teacher seeking Bilingual certification. She is in her senior year at the university and is expecting to graduate in three semesters. She is taking a literacy methods block, which consists of a reading methods course, a reading assessment course, and a language arts methods course. The culminating assignment for Yvonne will be a case study. She is assigned to Santiago, who is a native Spanish speaking

kindergarten boy in a bilingual (Spanish/English) classroom. During the semester, Yvonne will be required to assess Santiago using an independent reading inventory (IRI) and a spelling inventory. She will use the results of these assessments to guide her in designing and teaching lessons to Santiago over the next six weeks. At the end of six weeks, she will assess Santiago again using similar assessments.

After her first meeting with Santiago, Yvonne becomes concerned. Santiago knows little to no English and because he is in his first semester of kindergarten, is just learning to read and write. Yvonne takes the opportunity to share her concerns with her professor during her lunch break. Her professor tells her not to worry about this because the class has practiced administering both assessments and she notes that Yvonne did an excellent job both administering and scoring the practice assessments. Further, she tells Yvonne that the IRI and spelling assessment she has chosen both have Spanish versions and that this solution should take care of any concerns. The instructor then gives Yvonne the Spanish copies of the assessments.

Now Yvonne is even more anxious. She has learned in her Bilingual/ESL courses that young children learning to read and write in Spanish are taught using syllables, then simple sight words. The spelling inventory, however, consists of leveled words, which are indeed in Spanish. Yvonne knows that even though Santiago's teacher has been working with her class on simple syllables, he will not do well on the spelling inventory. Even worse, as Yvonne looks through the IRI, she discovers that several of the passages are incorrectly translated and some of the sentences do not even make sense. What will she do? Santiago is a very smart boy and Yvonne knows that the results of the assessments will not show what Santiago can do. Further, if she is supposed to design lessons based on the assessment results, how meaningful would those lessons be? Should Yvonne go back to her professor to again express her concerns, should she just ask other bilingual students in the class what to do, or should she go back to her bilingual professors to ask them what to do?

Yvonne's dilemma could have been avoided if her professors had collaborated and discussed culturally responsive assessments and practices. Baldwin and Chang (2007) state that one of the primary benefits of collaborating with others is to achieve goals that cannot be achieved alone and to facilitate learning. It takes a whole village to teach teacher candidates and the village is comprised of experts in multiple fields. Typically, no one professor knows all there is to know about

all fields. The Bilingual/ESL professors were correct in teaching successful strategies for improving literacy skills and so was the literacy professor. However, the strategies taught were not pedagogically congruent. This was the point where collaboration should have come into play.

"Learning" is a major incentive for collaborating. Programs in education perpetually seek to learn about the newest or "best" practices to apply to their own courses. Increasing knowledge within and across programs is best achieved by connecting with others and sharing information. The outcome is new learning or insights to better adapt and more effectively respond (Kelly, Schaan, & Joncas, 2002) to a steadily changing field.

Yvonne's professors were Helen and Donna. They had history of working together. As her literacy professor, Donna shared Yvonne's concerns with her colleague Helen. Through professional collaboration, we came to a consensus as to what "best" literacy practices looked like for a diverse student population. Donna then was able to share not only with Yvonne, but with her whole literacy methods block the reasons for assessing bilingual (Spanish/English) students with spelling inventories that contain lists of simple syllables versus other spelling inventories that contain lists of simple words. We both had the opportunity to learn more from each other's area of expertise through collaboration. Donna learned from her colleague which IRI's have the most accurate Spanish version and then passed on this information to her teacher candidates. While professors encourage their teacher candidates to collaborate, they tend to stay within their fields rather than to search for a more integrated program of study (Blanton & Pugach, 2007).

Teacher candidates in colleges of education are perhaps as diverse as P-12 students due to their varied educational and life experiences, yet less consideration for diversity in instructional planning occurs (Merriam, Caffarella, & Baumgartner, 2007). A professional mindset of culturally responsive teaching includes a learner-centered model that will meet the needs of all learners at every level.

When professors of teacher candidates work closely with each other to address shared concerns and to grow together, the academic community becomes more vital. Creating conditions that encourage faculty collaboration is an important way for colleges of education to provide their varied cadre of teacher candidates with strategies and best practices that will ultimately benefit the diverse student population that are fully present in the United States classrooms.

Conclusion

In this paper, as teacher educators, we shared several recommendations that we hope will help literacy education teacher educators who are working with teacher

candidates in their university classrooms. Culturally responsive teaching must be modelled, incorporated, and applied in teacher preparation programs. Teacher candidates need to observe culturally responsive pedagogies in action during their teacher training and then practice instruction during their field work, student teaching (Darling-Hammond, Hammerness, Grossman, Rust, & Shulman, 2005; Goodnough, 2009) and eventually in their own future classrooms. At all levels of education, we need educators who are advocates for equity, diversity, and social justice.

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APPENDIX A

Reflection Questions	American Teacher Candidate	South African Teacher Candidate
What did you learn about yourself?		
What did you learn about your S. African partner?		
What were the similarities?		
What were the differences?		
What was the most shocking information you learned about your partner?		
What impact did this project have on you as a future teacher?		
What impact did this project have on your cultural beliefs and values?		
Would you want to participate in another online study abroad? If so, with what country If not, explain why?		

Increased Accountability in Teacher Education and Ways to Shape the Future

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From the Legislative and Social Issues Committee: *Consistent with its charge, the Legislative and Social Issues Committee informs ALER members of salient legislation/policies and examines how these mandates impact literacy teaching and learning. Recent projects have focused on the impact of CAEP Standards on teacher workforce diversity and ESSA's impact on teacher preparation. This article reflects major content from our 2016 Symposium, Increased Accountability in Teacher Education and Ways to Shape the Future. In addition to examining CAEP and ESSA as policy drivers, our symposium took a close look at the critical role of advocacy in shaping outcomes in teacher preparation and literacy development in K -12 schools. Symposium participants and attendees included classroom teachers, researchers, and higher education administrators. Our collective thoughts regarding literacy education advocacy are reflected in the following pages.*

Abstract

This article provides an overview of current legislation in teacher education. The piece is divided into three sections. First, it reviews the current CAEP standards and the potential changes in funding under the Every Student Succeed Act (ESSA). The next section examines the impact of CAEP and ESSA on teacher education programs. Finally, this article discusses advocacy for teacher educators in the midst of the present changes. As literacy educators, we must create and support advocacy work to improve literacy instruction in our schools.

Introduction

John F. Kennedy once stated, "For time and the world do not stand still. Change is the law of life." The literacy teacher education profession has endured a tremendous amount of change since the dawn of the new millennium; the preparation of teachers has not stood still. From the adoption of standards and accountability era's impact on the profession to the Teacher Education Accreditation Council (TEAC)/National Council for Accreditation of Teacher Education (NCATE) merger to create the Council for the Accreditation of Educator Preparation (CAEP) in 2013, there has not been a stone left unturned in teacher education accreditation standards. The CAEP standards present themselves as an agent of change.

In addition to the increased accountability with CAEP, the reauthorization of the Elementary and Secondary Education Act, also referred to as the Every Student Succeeds Act (ESSA) brought changes to Title II. Title II Part A, according to United States Department of Education, is titled the "Teacher and Principal Training and Recruitment Fund," and it provides funding to teacher preparation entities (https://www2.ed.gov/policy/elsec/leg/esea02/pg20.html).

The purpose of this paper is to inform the membership of the changes in teacher education. This paper consists of three parts. The first identifies the standards overview of the existing national level teacher education accreditation standards as well as recent legislation, passed by Congress, which impacts teacher education. The next part describes how the accreditation standards as well as legislation impact reading teacher educators. The final section provides thoughts on advocacy as teacher educators navigate the current polices and standards in teacher education.

CAEP Standards and ESSA's Title II

The purpose of this section is to provide an overview of the current CAEP standards as well as ESSA (2015).

CAEP History and Overview

The CAEP Board of Directors released five standards which participating institutions of higher education (IHE's) will be held accountable measurement and adherence that began in 2016. The standards, as viewed on the CAEP website (caepnet.org), cover content knowledge, clinical partnerships and practice, candidate recruitment/quality/selectivity, program impact, as well as provider quality/continuous improvement, and capacity.

Under TEAC and NCATE, teacher preparation programs provided a rich narrative with evidence to demonstrate they were meeting standards, and rubrics were used to evaluate programs at the unacceptable, acceptable, and target levels. Now, under CAEP, the program reports data only with limited narrative describing the data, and there are no rubrics to show programs how to meet the standard or at what level they are meeting the standard. Furthermore, institutions in good standing reported data every seven years; now, under CAEP, institutions submit an annual report with site visits and full-scale reports every seven years.

Standard one: Candidate knowledge, skills, and professional dispositions. Standard One focuses on candidate content knowledge, instructional design, and professional dispositions. This standard contains five subcomponents rooted in the previously mentioned areas. The first subcomponent focuses on the candidate's ability to demonstrate competency in the areas of learner/learning content, subject matter content knowledge, instructional practice, and professional responsibility (caepnet.org). Under NCATE and TEAC, colleges of education could measure these areas in various ways; however, under CAEP, all must measure using the InTASC standards (CCSSO, 2011). The InTASC standards, developed by teacher-educators and other education stakeholders, outline competencies needed by 21st century teachers. The standards were updated in 2011 in order to effectively embrace technology, collaborate, and teach literacy within the classroom context (CCSSO, 2011).

The second subcomponent deals with the candidate's ability to utilize research, evidence from his/her practice to measure professional growth, as well as student growth. The third subcomponent requires colleges of education to demonstrate how their programs meet Specialized Professional Association (SPA) standards (if applicable). The fourth substandard asks program completers to have equitable practices when implementing national or state standards in the PK-12 schools. The final subcomponent requires candidates to use technology in their teaching and assessment of PK-12 learners and in their own professional growth. The themes in this standard include technology, impact on student learning, and reflection.

Standard two: Clinical practices and partnerships. This standard focuses on the shared responsibility of PK-12 schools and teacher education programs in creating quality teachers. This standard asks that teacher educators actively contribute to PK-12 school communities. In addition, it asks PK-12 schools play an active role in evaluating and hiring higher education faculty and in selecting and retaining graduates from their programs. The two entities must be active, supportive partners and form a symbiotic relationship. This standard also encourages candidates to be in the field earlier and more often so that they may expand opportunities to learn from PK-12 teachers in school settings. While candidates are in the field, they must have a positive impact on the education of the PK-12 students with whom they work. Finally, it is important to note the terms "mutually beneficial" and "shared responsibility" emerge as themes in this standard.

Standard three: Plan for recruitment of diverse candidates who meet employer needs. This standard outlines an aggressive plan to raise the bar on the average cohort ACT/SAT/GRE score. Starting in the 2016-17 academic year, the candidate cohort must have an average ACT, SAT, GRE or Praxis CORE score in the top 50% of the scoring class and an average GPA of 3.0. By 2018-2019, the cohort's standardized test score average must be in the top 40%, and by 2020 the top 33% (CAEP.org). Not only does the standard make this a "must-have," but it also emphasizes recruiting and retaining a diverse cohort. In addition, teacher education candidates must pass rigorous dispositional evaluations that are valid and reliable. Furthermore, while candidates are being trained, teacher education programs must provide evidence that they are constantly monitoring candidates' skills, dispositions, and impact on learners; the inference made is that those candidates who do not perform well must be removed from the cohort. Upon program completion, under this standard, candidates must have a successful track record for positive impact on PK-12 students. The themes from this standard are impact on student learning and high standards.

Standard four: Impact on P-12 student learning and development. It is important to note that criteria under all previous standards, subcomponents, and descriptors were listed. However, in this standard, the phrase REQUIRED COMPONENT is explicitly printed next to each indicator; this standard is where a provider must display competence. If the teacher preparation provider does not meet this standard, then the provider will not receive accreditation on that visit.

In this standard, the provider must display multiple data sets indicating candidates' positive impact on PK-12 student achievement, including evaluation forms or surveys of PK-12 students. Furthermore, employers must rate their

satisfaction with candidates' abilities once they begin work as novice teachers. Finally, the teacher education programs must provide data indicating that candidates themselves felt prepared to teach upon program completion. The themes from this standard are data, impact on student learning, and REQUIRED COMPONENT.

Standard five: Quality and strategic evaluation. In this standard, the teacher education programs must demonstrate that they use valid and reliable data to meet each CAEP standard. Again, the words REQUIRED COMPONENT appear throughout this standard. However, here the words apply to programs' use of the data (collected in standards one through four) to make programmatic changes that enhance candidate preparation. Additionally, these results and measures must be shared across a variety of stakeholders and must be publicly available. The key terms from this standard include program impact, data-driven decisions, and valid/reliable data.

Summary. Upon reflection across all CAEP standards, it is evident that literacy teacher educators must produce candidates who 1) enact best practices in literacy; 2) proficiently instruct diverse student populations; 3) use technology to teach and assess; and 4) impact positively PK-12 literacy instruction prior to licensure.

Overview of ESSA

While the CAEP standards were being internalized by teacher educator preparation programs, changes to the *Elementary and Secondary Education Act*—herein referred to by its more commonly used name, the *Every Student Succeeds Act* (ESSA)—were on the horizon. When President Obama signed the 2015 reauthorization of the *Every Student Succeeds Act* (ESSA)*,* it carried potential funding implications for higher education. Title II of ESSA authorizes distribution of 2.41 billion to states annually, and within these state allocations, Section A provides funding for teacher education programs (Education Policy Center, 2015). According to the Alliance for Excellent Education (n.d.). Title II grants states and districts considerable latitude in determining how to target Title II funds so long as their efforts increase and/or improve educator effectiveness and access to effective teachers for students from low-income families and students of color." (para. 2)

This latitude includes development of non-university based and/or for-profit alternative teacher preparation academies that would be authorized to train and license teachers. One example of an alternative route that is gaining

momentum across the United States is Relay. Relay is based on Teacher U, a teacher preparation program designed to equip teachers to instruct in charter schools only (Mungal, 2016). Relay works from a scripted program for its one-year coursework for teacher candidates and relies heavily on time spent in the classroom (Mungal, 2016). Once candidates complete a ninety-day full-time internship, they are allowed to lead classrooms full-time and can be granted an initial teaching license ninety days after that. Mungal (2012) noted Relay is replacing Teach for America; TFA is the "recruiter" and "funnels its corps members to Relay" (p. 155).

While alternative certification routes are quite different than a traditional teacher education program, research indicates between 20% up to 33% of new teachers in public school settings were alternatively trained (Feistritzer, Griffin, & Linnajarvi, 2011).

The success of these alternative programs has been questioned by some scholars. For example, Zeichner (2015) points out that there are serious concerns with teacher preparation provisions found in ESSA, including provisions for teacher preparation geared toward support for such non-traditional programs. These programs "may be recognized by states as 'at least the equivalent of a master's degree' in education for the purpose of hiring, retention, compensation, and promotion in the state" (Zeichner, 2015, para. 5). Under the law, using Title II funds for these alternative programs is *allowable,* but not required.

Impact of CAEP & ESSA on Teacher Educators

The previous section provided an overview of the current teacher educator national preparation standards as well as potential changes in Title II funding under the Every Student Succeeds Act (ESSA, 2015). In this section, there is a transition from discussion of the standards and legislation to how the standards and legislation impact teacher educators directly.

The first impact from CAEP on teacher educators is candidate demonstration of InTASC standards. While it is outside the scope of this article to discuss the merit of the InTASC standards, it is important for teacher educators to note the assessment instruments they are using in the field to provide feedback to candidates must be aligned to the InTASC standards (CCSSO, 2011).

Next, the call for candidates to use research to measure their own growth as well as the growth of their K-12 students invites outside evaluation systems to become a normal occurrence in teacher education. For instance, edTPA is a commercially produced, performance-based assessment that measures candidate pedagogical knowledge, instructional decision-making, and impact on student

learning (edTPA, 2017). EdTPA has over six hundred institutes of higher education (IHE) in its system with more programs following suit; twelve states have adopted edTPA as their gatekeeper for teacher licensure (edTPA, 2017). According to the edTPA website, edTPA, allows for "a common, standards- and performance-based assessment of teaching effectiveness that would measure the classroom readiness of aspiring teachers and provide information for program improvement" (edTPA, 2017, np).

Sawchuck (2013) maintains edTPA is "the teacher education field's main response to the pressure (for higher expectations)" from outside sources, including the federal government, CAEP, and the National Center for Teacher Quality (NCTQ). However, Parkes & Powell (2015) suggest that edTPA is not a "rich data source for studying program effectiveness" (para 2). With edTPA, institutions cannot receive reports identifying trends in data over time. Rather, they only receive single data sets on individual students. This does not allow a rich, sustainable data source to make programmatic changes as expected by CAEP. It would appear, based on CAEP standard one and the trends in the field of teacher preparation, using an assessment akin to edTPA would become the normal measure of a reading teacher educators' success; however, the evidence backing its merit is discouraging at best.

Findings from CAEP standard two call for teacher education programs to work in close partnership with area schools to create, implement, and assess clinical experiences for pre-service teachers. Additionally, CAEP identifies models such as pipeline initiatives, partner networks, and professional development schools as acceptable partnership frameworks. Yet, implementing these frameworks presents hurdles that some colleges of education have yet to resolve. For instance, rurally situated institutions face added expenses associated with increased student and faculty transportation to area schools that may be, in fact, tens of miles away from campuses (McGriff, Horton, Stevens & Donaldson, 2016). An additional challenge that colleges of education face when implementing the partnership models specified by CAEP is hesitancy on the part of some schools to yield instructional time to pre-service teachers. Intense pressure to achieve predetermined student learning outcomes in these cases overshadows interest in mentoring pre-service teachers, and establishing meaningful partnerships in these cases becomes untenable (McGriff, Horton, Stevens & Donaldson, 2016).

CAEP Standard Three requires heavy reliance on ACT, SAT, GRE and/or Praxis CORE data to "ensure quality" of the candidates entering the program. While the research is inconclusive concerning test score impact on teacher education candidates (Goldhaber & Walch, 2014), the CAEP remains firm in its requirement that test score data being used to admit or deny candidates. Due to

the set test score requirements, teacher education programs may see a decline in the overall number of candidates eligible for admission. Furthermore, a complex array of historical and socioeconomic factors has resulted in lower rates of educational attainment among students of color, and this could serve to constrain the pool of diverse students who would qualify for teacher education program admission when using these standardized measures as criteria (Hrabowski & Sanders, 2015).

CAEP Standard Four stipulates that teacher education programs are responsible for collecting student impact data and reporting this data to CAEP; yet, this requirement has generated a number of logistical questions for teacher education programs. For instance, how can programs collect this data? How do programs ensure protection of sensitive data for both candidates and the PK-12 students? It is important to note that states, including Kansas and South Carolina, have opted not to help teacher education programs in their states collect these data. Therefore, teacher education programs are left to themselves to collect data on their candidates and their candidates' impact on PK-12 students. As a result, some programs have resorted to using university human resources records to locate graduates' contact information through informal channels. Programs have also turned to hosting focus groups to collect data. This process raises validity-focused questions such as: 1) who is invited to participate; 2) which candidates respond; 3) how this data can be used for program improvement due to limited participation and/or lack of fidelity in collecting data from participants.

Teacher education programs must track graduates into their novice years as in-service teachers to determine if the candidates produced are able to positively impact PK-12 student performance (CAEP, Standard 4). The ability to do this may have far reaching impact for teacher education programs. For instance, Simon (2014) comments, "The [federal government] plans to use tens of millions in federal financial aid as leverage to reward teacher training programs that produce teachers who routinely raise student test scores." (pg. 56). Additionally, the level of financial aid awarded to a teacher education candidate will be based on the record that institution has impacting PK-12 test scores in a positive manner (Simon, 2014).

Simon (2014) speaks to changes under ESSA Title II funding to support *more latitude* with educator preparation, and in this context, educator preparation dollars can be used to as reward or punishment to colleges of education depending on their ability to demonstrate effectiveness with all PK-12 students. For instance, if graduates of programs are not able to produce desirable results with PK-12 students, according to the assessment system in that state, the program in which the candidate was trained may lose Title II funding under the current

mandate. Conversely, if teacher preparation programs produce desirable results, these programs could receive an increase in Title II funding. Consequently, in order to "play the game", candidates and colleges of education could pursue relationships with "high achieving" schools and districts and conversely could try and avoid engagement with underperforming schools.

The new Title II funding also explores access for PK-12 students to "effective teachers" for students who traditionally underperform: low income students and students of color. While Title II funding may be more readily available for the programs meeting the needs of the students/districts, it is worth considering if candidates or teacher education programs will flock to these districts if the data stemming from these entities does not demonstrate a positive impact on student learning. It appears, on the surface, that the "Matthew Effect" could play a role in higher education as well as PK-12 education based on ESSA Title II funding.

Standard Five calls for valid and reliable measures to be used across teacher education programs. While colleges of education do not have to provide reliability and validity data on sourced assessments (like edTPA for example), the schools of education must provide metrics ensuring validity and reliability for all non-commercial based assessments. The assessment data are used to make programmatic changes in order to strengthen programs. Finally, colleges of education must make their data accessible to all stakeholders and potential students, allowing them to compare colleges' performance data and trends. For literacy educators, this could allow programs to fortify and strengthen if the data from the program is positive. However, it could lead to a reduction in candidates enrolling in programs if data were not complimentary. This places a need for programs to select measures aligning to best practice, allowing for candidate growth, and affording programs to refine courses and field experience to make program completers stronger teachers.

Literacy Education Advocacy

The preceding sections provided an overview of CAEP and ESSA Title II provisions and described how they impact the field of literacy education. However, just as with any legislative or policy initiative, it is important to consider not just how these measures impact our work, but also how we respond so that the actions we take reflect measured intentionality and clear agency. Our stance is that all members of the literacy education community are advocates for our field, and that advocacy, as a construct, should be broad enough to enable individuals and groups to take up lines of advocacy that best marshal their strengths and passions within the field. Drawing from a range of publications on education advocacy,

we therefore define literacy education advocacy as *taking action to influence decisions about how literacy is taught and learned* (Cochran-Smith, 2005; Edmonson, 2004; Lewis & Young, 2013; Scott, Lubienski & DeBray-Pelot, 2009; Shanahan, 2014, Short, 2015). With this as a guiding definition, we discuss how advocacy may take shape in legislative and grassroots organizational contexts. We then describe how advocacy may unfold in a grassroots pedagogical context. During this discussion, we invite readers to consider how they may adopt and/or modify these examples for their own use. Additionally, the following discussion may generate thinking about completely different ways to enact literacy education advocacy. If so, so much the better.

Advocacy in Legislative and Organizational Contexts

Legislative bodies and grassroots organizations are prime locations for work that influences decisions about how literacy is taught and learned. Language and literacy professional organizations offer explicit guidance about how legislative and grassroots advocacy may be operationalized at local, state, and national levels (Table 1).

For example, International Literacy Association, National Council of Teachers of English, and Teachers of English for Speakers of Other Languages all offer advocacy resources for

- educating members and the broader community about relevant legislative issues;
- developing structures for sustaining advocacy, including collaboration with other groups; and
- engaging directly with local, state and federal policy makers and their designees.

A hallmark of ESSA is the level of control over academic standards it affords individual states. Therefore, state-level literacy organizations are well positioned to strategically employ the three categories of advocacy resources promoted by prominent national literacy organizations. As the International Literacy Association 2015-2016 Advocacy Award recipient, the Texas Association for Literacy Education (TALE) provides an ideal example of cogent literacy education advocacy. TALE uses a combination of articles, email updates, and website posts to keep members informed of pertinent literacy policy developments such as Texas's recent revision of their state literacy standards. TALE is also a member of a statewide literacy coalition consisting of eight literacy organizations that

TABLE 1
Examples of legislative and grassroots advocacy at various levels

Organization	Advocacy Tools and Resources	Main Website

National Council of Teachers of English	• Literacy Education Advocacy Activities
	  • Advocacy activities listed according to time requirements
	• Everyday Advocacy
	  • Foundational information about principles of advocacy
	  • Core ideas for advocates
	  • Steps for creating an advocacy action plan
	  • Guidance for strategic use o website resources
	• Advocacy reports from state analysts
	• ESSA updates and news about state- level implementation
	• Tips for speaking out to eh media and elected officials
	• Advocacy success stories
	• Updates about Literacy Education Advocacy Day happenings
		http://www.ncte.org

International Literacy Association	• Advocacy Toolkit - Every Student Succeeds Act
	  • Detailed information about ESSA provisions
	• ILA Advocacy Award
	  • Application Guidelines
	  • Suggested advocacy activities
		http://literacyworldwide.org

Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages	• TESOL Advocacy Policy Summit
	  • Overview and registration information
	• Resource Toolkit - Every Student Succeeds Act
	  • Guide to ESSA provisions for educators
	• Reaffirming Our Core Values
	  • Message from TESOL leadership
		http://www.tesol.org/

recently collaborated in outreach to parents, school leaders and other stakeholders regarding the literacy standards revision. Additionally, TALE directly engages with policy makers. The organization prepared and distributed advocacy packets to Texas State Board of Education members that included specific recommendations for the literacy standards revisions (Sharp & Raymond, 2016). Literacy

educators play an active role in TALE's advocacy program, and their efforts illustrate how literacy educators' involvement in organizational advocacy efforts influence decisions about how literacy is taught and learned (Gaddy, Butler, Avrit, Briggs, Martin, Ranzau, & Sharp, 2017).

Advocacy through Grassroots Teacher Inquiry

Essential features of CAEP are its emphasis on teacher quality and its use of standardized measures of student achievement to gauge the effectiveness of education program graduates once they become teachers (CAEP, 2015). In this context, teacher inquiry networks cultivate teacher quality *and* provide a valuable example of grassroots literacy education advocacy. Teacher inquiry is inherently a process that influences decisions about how literacy is taught and learned by focusing attention on what teachers themselves identify as the specific instructional needs and broader educational interests that impact student learning in their classrooms (Cochran-Smith & Lytle, 2009; Raphael, Florio-Ruane, Kehus, George, Hasty, & Highfield., 2001; Short, 2015). When teacher inquiry takes place in teacher-lead, teacher-supported grassroots networks, such as local or virtual groups of teachers from different districts, the advocacy that results from their work is all the more impactful (Raphael et al., 2001; Short 2015).

Together with two colleagues, Mary (second author) initiated *Teachers' Voices*, an informal teacher inquiry network for educators working near her university. To maximize access to *Teachers' Voices*, participation is not linked to association with any institutional grant. Additionally, teachers do not need to be enrolled in graduate courses in order to engage in group activities, and there are no fees associated with participation. *Teachers' Voices* is open to all interested, practicing teachers who want to advance their professional learning in ways that address needs in their own classrooms and who welcome regular face-to-face interaction with colleagues from other city schools.

When *Teachers' Voices* convenes, teachers come together to collaboratively identify and take up the instructional questions they wish to examine. In some cases, teachers have discussed their initial difficulty thinking for themselves about instructional needs since their students' test score data and prescribed curricular interventions so pervasively influence their lesson delivery. For example, when participants decided to create a list of instructional questions they recently had, one newer participant wrote, "I suppose I have questions, but I'm not sure because no one ever asked, but I think the others' points are good ones." The conversations that take place in *Teachers' Voices* guarantee that teachers are asked about their priorities. Moreover, teachers determine topics of discussion, share thoughts

and experiences about these topics, set tenable outcomes, and reflect on ideas that Mary and her colleagues share from research and from their experiences in classrooms from across their state. As its name suggests, teacher agency is a foundational component of *Teachers' Voices*, and those who participate validate their interests, questions, and classroom experiences as worthwhile sources of professional learning. To stress the importance of finding excitement and professional learning potential in everyday contexts, one *Teachers' Voices* meeting concluded with teachers asking one another to identify what sparked feelings of excitement about their practice. One participant commented, "…I am most excited by the connections we form that open new doors for learning." Connections created and sustained by teachers do provide powerful opportunities to influence decisions about how literacy is taught and learned. When they come together for this purpose, they shed light on a form of literacy education advocacy that exemplifies teacher quality.

Conclusion: Expanding Advocacy in Literacy Education

As literacy educators, CAEP and ESSA's Title II present significant changes in how we approach and engage in our work. Yet, change is always accompanied by opportunity. So, in addition to providing CAEP and ESSA Title II overviews and examples of literacy education advocacy, this article invites us to consider the opportunities we may create or support as we work to improve the caliber of literacy instruction provided in schools.

As we consider the literacy organizations to which we belong, what are some tenable ways that we might contribute to the advocacy activities underway? Or, where tenability is insufficient for present needs, what are *necessary* ways in which we may freely give of our time and talents to influence decisions about how literacy is taught and learned?

Teacher-directed professional inquiry is a potent form of advocacy, and it is one that could be enacted in more locales. How might literacy educators better advocate for expanded use of this practice? How might we cultivate teacher inquiry informally? For literacy educators who also serve in administrative capacities at their respective institutions, how might faculty be tangibly and symbolically supported as they engage in this vital work?

As advocates, taking up these questions is something that falls within our professional purview, and taking up these questions positively impacts how literacy is taught and learned, both in the immediate and the long term. This is advocacy in its truest sense.

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From CRA to ALER: A Retrospective J. Estill Alexander Forum for ALER Leaders in Literacy

Laureate Award Winner

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Wayne M. Linek, Ph. D., is Professor Emeritus at Texas A&M University-Commerce. Dr. Linek has over 40 years of experience in education having served as a teacher, reading specialist, principal, and assistant superintendent in Ohio schools, then as a professor, department head, and doctoral program coordinator in Texas. He is a former editor of the College Reading Association Yearbook and the Journal of Literacy Research. He actively served CRA and ALER in multiple roles most notably as President from 2003 to 2004 and lead editor of The College Reading Association Legacy: A Celebration of Fifty Years of Literacy Leadership Volumes I & II. In addition to the ALER Laureate Award in 2015, he received the Al Mazurkiewicz Special Services Award in 2007, the Texas State Golden Apple Award in 2007, and was named a Regents Professor of the Texas A&M University System in 2006. He has published 13 books, over 100 articles/chapters, and happily graduated over 90 doctoral students—many of whom are active in ALER. Although he retired from higher education in 2014, Dr. Linek continues to be active in ALER as Co-Historian and is currently working on ALER's Sixtieth Anniversary Historical Update in collaboration with his ALER colleagues.

Abstract

What began in 1958 with 10 college teachers at Temple University has blossomed into the Association of Literacy Educators and Researchers (ALER). Lead by Bruce W. Bingham (Temple University), Edward Dillon (LaSalle College), and Albert J. Mazurkiewicz (Lehigh University), these 10 teachers formed a Committee for a College Reading Association focused on starting a professional organization in the north eastern and middle-Atlantic states. Almost sixty years later, ALER has an international presence with many past, current, and future leaders in the field of literacy. This chapter will explain a bit of the history of the organization, provide insight into the inner workings of ALER, consider people who have contributed to the development of the organization, and offer personal reflections on the value of ALER mentoring, collaboration, and friendship.

Introduction

In two years, the Association of Literacy Educators and Researchers (ALER) will be 60 years old. As I noted in the abstract, what began in 1958 with 10 college teachers at Temple University as the College Reading Association (CRA) has become an organization with an international presence that spawned many past and current leaders in literacy and will continue to do so.

But why is the history of CRA, now ALER, so important? As I said in the introduction to the 50 year history:

> *"Lest we forget" refers to two major concepts: one affective and the other cognitive. Neither concept is novel, but both are critical to the understanding and appreciation of the field of reading and literacy. When we forget what has gone before us, we are destined to repeat our mistakes. Knowing where we have been helps us understand where we ought to go and how we should go about getting there. Thus, finding and appreciating our roots, knowing our professional genealogy, and valuing our early leaders are just a few of the things we should acknowledge and document as the field of reading and literacy matures. (Linek, 2010, p. 4)*

Co-Historians, Fred Fedorko and Albert Shannon, were first charged with the task of developing a history of CRA in 1983. At the 1986 Legislative Assembly, a constitutional amendment was adopted that stated: "Historian duties will involve the compiling and updating of a history which will serve as an ongoing chronicle of important Association 'events and actions' Alexander & Strode, 2010a, p. 49)". But what is an "Association"?

According to *dictionary.com*, an association is defined as "an organization of people with a common purpose and having a formal structure" (www.dictionary.com/browse/association). Thus, my talk will focus on the purpose, structure, and people of ALER.

Purpose

The purposes of ALER have changed little over the years. Although initially the organization focused on improvement in college reading programs, the specific purposes of the organization as written in the first *Constitution and By-Laws* in 1959 were:

a. to promote professional standards of competency;

b. to establish a professional code of ethics, and promote adherence thereto;

c. to encourage the study of reading problems at all levels but to especially encourage the study of reading problems at the college-adult level;

d. to stimulate and promote research in reading as well as research related to training teachers to teach reading;

e. to study the various factors that influence the progress of reading;

f. to assist in the development of teacher-training programs to a degree of excellence;

g. to improve administration, diagnostic, and teaching procedure related to learning reading problems at all levels;

h. to act as a clearinghouse for information related to reading at all levels, but especially at the college-adult levels;

i. to disseminate knowledge helpful in the solution of problems related to reading at all levels, but especially at the college-adult level, through periodicals or other means;

j. to sponsor meetings planned to implement the purposes of The Association (Alexander & Strode, 2010b, p. 12).

If you check the current *Name and Purpose* section of our most recent *Constitution* (http://c.ymcdn.com/sites/www.aleronline.org/resource/resmgr/files/constitution_and_by-laws.pdf), you will see that little has changed except the word "reading" has become "literacy". It is quite commendable that our initial leaders had the foresight to create purposes that have stood the test of time.

Structure

CRA to ALER

Let's begin our foray into the association structure with the history of the name change. For newer members who are wondering why CRA became ALER, it was a contentious issue that took 40 years of debate. The first formal attempt to change the name came in 1967, after a failed initiative in 1965 to merge CRA with the National Reading Conference (NRC), now the Literacy Research Association or LRA (Alexander & Strode, 2010c). William H. Cooper wanted the association's name changed so that it would be more reflective of members' interests and affiliations. This was the first of many failed attempts. Two more undocumented failed attempts at changing the name occurred between 1966 and 1987 (Alexander & Strode, 2010d). A fourth attempt to change the name was initiated by Jerry Johns in 1988 (Alexander & Strode, 2010e). After 26 suggestions and 2 years of study by the committee of James Walker, Rita Bean, Bill Henk, Janet Miller, and Vicki Risko, the membership voted down the proposed name "Council for Reading Advancement: An International Literacy Society" in 1990. A fifth attempt to change the name occurred under President Vicki Risko because the name "CRA" did not communicate the goals and diverse membership interests (Alexander & Strode, 2010f). The name "Association of Literacy and Language Professionals" was voted down by a large majority in 1996. The sixth attempt at a name change occurred in 2006, but the name "Association of Literacy Professionals" failed to pass (Massey & Linek, 2010a). Finally, in 2007, the name of CRA was amended to the "Association of Literacy Educators and Researchers" according to established procedures and ratified by vote of those assembled at the Legislative Assembly. The name change became official with a vote of 80 for and 21 against. Ray Reutzel told us that ALER should be pronounced "allure"—but that hasn't stuck, has it? The name, ALER, finally reflects a broader perspective focused on literacy, is more inclusive of various levels of instruction in the field, and better mirrors the professional positions of the membership.

Division Structure

A significant change occurred when Jules Abrams, CRA President 1971-1972, promoted the idea that CRA should have divisions (Alexander & Strode, 2010d). Roy Kress worked out the details and by the 15th Conference in March 1972, three divisions became operational with the following purposes:

1. Teacher Education: To promote improvement of pre-service and in-service programs for literacy development.

2. Clinical Reading: To explore the reading process and its application to clinical, diagnostic, instructional, and administrative elements.

3. College Reading: To develop practical reading and study skills, as well as methods for teaching students at all achievement levels (Alexander & Strode, 2010d, p. 27).

With the success of these above divisions and the merger of CRA with the North East Area College Reading Association (NEACRA), the following additional divisions were considered in 1974:

1. Reading Supervisors
2. Junior College/Community College
3. Learning Disabilities (Alexander & Strode, 2010g).

These 3 proposed divisions were not approved. However, support for an Adult Learning division began in 1979, and in 1982 the Adult Learning Division was approved with the following purpose: "To coordinate adult learning, instruction, and research into a formally organized framework that would give impetus and meaning to the needs of the adult learner from Adult Basic Education (ABE) through the pre-college levels" (Alexander & Strode, 2010h, p. 41). Although some of the names have changed slightly, we still maintain these 4 divisions today:

1. College Literacy
2. Adult Learning
3. Clinical Research and Practice
4. Teacher Education

Challenges and Achievements
Membership, Finances, and Publications

Membership ups and downs as well as increasing publication costs have resulted in periods of financial difficulty for the organization. Newsletters, journals, programs, monographs, and annuals consume a large portion of ALER's budget. For example, in the 1970's, publications chairperson Linda Gambrell noted that expanding publications were leading to financial concerns (Alexander & Strode, 2010g). The annual publication, "Proceedings," was discontinued in 1970 (Alexander & Strode, 2010d). However, it was reinstituted after a hiatus

of 20 years with a peer-reviewed yearbook by Tim Rasinski, Nancy Padak, and John Logan (Alexander & Strode, 2010e).

Technology

ALER has responded to changes in, as Jack Cassidy would say, "What's Hot and What's Not" as well as the cultural, social, and technological evolution of our society. For example, the age of the computer arrived during the late 1970's and early 1980's. The Laytons, James and Barbara, petitioned the board to bring the operations of CRA into the technological age (Alexander & Strode, 2010a). Thus, the board voted to purchase the first CRA computer in 1984, so that the Treasurer and Business Manager could handle all accounts and journal subscriptions more efficiently as well as produce mailing lists. In 1995-1996, President Judy Richardson appointed an ad-hoc committee to establish and maintain a CRA website (Alexander & Strode, 2010f). Marino Alvarez established the website in 1997 at Tennessee State University, while Nancy Padak created a free electronic discussion group known as the CRA listserv through Kent State University. Thus, committees, commissions, publications, conferences, allocation of resources, and the division of labor have remained fluid over the years. In 2001-2002, the Technology Committee was finally formalized and in 2002-2003 a description for a webmaster position was written (Massey & Linek, 2010b). In 2004-2005 Sylvia Read became the first webmaster for CRA and the association archives became permanently housed at the Texas A&M University-Commerce library (Massey & Linek, 2010a).

Conferences

Originally an east-coast organization, ALER has expanded to a national and international organization over the years. Initially, membership was small. For example, there were only 53 members in 1963 (Alexander & Strode, 2010d). So, conferences were held at colleges and universities where leaders of the association were employed, such as LaSalle College in Philadelphia, Pennsylvania; Lehigh University in Bethlehem, Pennsylvania; Gannon College in Erie, Pennsylvania; Lafayette College in Easton, Pennsylvania; and New York University in New York City. These served as the first five sites for what was then a one-day conference (Alexander & Strode, 2010b). In 1963, the first 2-day conference was held at the University of Maryland in College Park. The first venture west was in 1967 when the conference was held at Bowling Green State University in Ohio, followed by the first 3-day conference at the University of Tennessee, Knoxville in 1968 (Alexander & Strode, 2010c). The first conference not held

in a school setting occurred in 1970 at a Marriott in Philadelphia (Alexander & Strode, 2010d). The first venture south of Washington, DC was in 1976 when the conference was held in Bal Harbour, Florida (Alexander & Strode, 2010g). The first conference held west of the Mississippi occurred in 1992 at the Hyatt Regency at Union Station in Saint Louis, Missouri (Alexander & Strode, 2010e). The last time we met in Myrtle Beach, South Carolina was in 1998 when Tim Rasinski was president and Nancy Padak was the program chair (Alexander & Strode, 2010f). At that conference, they held the first open presidential reception with photos from the conference on a slide show. Our next foray west occurred in 2003 when the 47th conference was held in Corpus Christi, Texas (Massey & Linek, 2010b). Our next expedition west occurred in 2007 when the 51st. conference was held in Salt Lake City, Utah (Massey & Linek, 2010a). The conference was expected to be smaller because of the western location, but it was the largest conference with over 460 attendees. In 2010, we met in Omaha, Nebraska; in 2013 Dallas, Texas; and last year, the conference location was extended to Costa Mesa, California (http://www.aleronline.org/?page=pastconferences). We are now truly a national organization, but I wonder when we'll broaden to an international location.

Keynotes

Over the years, the keynotes and presentations that really stand in my mind include: Wayne Otto's *If The Horse is Dead, Get Off* (Otto, 2010), Jeanne Chall's *My Life in Reading* (Chall, 2010), Linda Gambrell's *Motivation Matters* (Gambrell, 2010), Walter Pauk's *How SQ3R Came To Be* (Pauk, 2010), Patrick Shannon's *Pedagogies of the Oppressors: Critical Literacies as Counternarratives* (Shannon, 2010), and Gerald Coles's *Advancing Children's Literacy Requires Starting with the Right Questions in the Debate over Literacy* (Coles, 2010). Sadly, Gerald Coles's keynote was not included in the yearbook that year, because the lead editor thought it was too politically controversial in a publication that was being supported by the Texas A&M University System. However, I made sure that Coles's speech was included in the 50 year history that was published in 2010. Finally, who can forget the following presidential speeches: Tim Rasinski's *Outside of a Dog a Book is Probably Man's Best Friend and Inside of a Dog It's Too Dark to Read* (Rasinski, 2010), Marino Alvarez's musings on the role of paper clips and staples, Judy Richardson in her witch's hat, Ellen Jampole suffering from laryngitis wearing a pink wig and crown, or Jane Matanzo's humor when forced to give her speech behind a mirrored post in a basement room in Philadelphia. Jane would periodically wave at herself saying, "Hi, Jane" and had us in stitches. Fortunately, all of the above can be found in ALER's 50-year history.

Awards

The first formal recognition made by CRA occurred in the form of a posthumous plaque placed at the Rochester Institute of Technology in recognition of A. B. Herr who died on March 22, 1968 (Alexander & Strode, 2010c). The plaque recognized his service in the formative years of the association. President Bob Wilson appointed the first awards committee in 1971, as a responsibility of the Past President (Alexander & Strode, 2010d). The first award was known as the CRA Award for Outstanding Professional Service with Uberto Price receiving the award in 1972. In 1973, that award was split into two awards. One for outstanding contributions to the reading education profession (now the A. B. Herr Award) and the other award for outstanding service to the College Reading Association (now the Al Mazurkeiwicz Special Services Award). The first Master's Thesis award was in 1978 and the first doctoral dissertation award was in 1982 with Dan Pearce, Mary Ann Medley, and Karen Wood sharing the dissertation honors (http://www.aleronline.org/?page=futureleaders). In 2001, the student awards were renamed the J. Estill Alexander Future Leaders in Literacy Awards in recognition of Estill's mentoring (Massey & Linek, 2010b). Historians Al Mazurkeiwicz and Janet Miller initiated the CRA Laureate Award in 1995 with the first award to Lillian Putnam in 1996 (Alexander & Strode, 2010f). In 2003, the Judy Richardson Literacy as a Living Legacy Award was established to support a literacy project related to a need in a community or school that typically is not supported by other public or private funds (Massey & Linek, 2010a). The award supports projects in early childhood through adult literacy. In 2007, Jerry Johns established the Promising Researcher Award to honor and support research by a junior ALER member whose work is beyond the dissertation stage

People

Whenever I think of CRA or ALER, I always think of the word "GRATITUDE" which has an interesting variety of synonyms. When one uses the thesaurus in the Microsoft WORD program, the following words come up:

Indebtedness

Appreciation

Recognition

Gratefulness

Acknowledgement

Thankfulness

Obligation

As I reflected on why I'm grateful, people kept popping into my mind. So I'm going to organize this section of the speech around the concepts these terms engender as they relate to my perceptions of and experiences with the people of ALER. The problem I encountered immediately was that in less than 15 minutes I came up with almost 200 names of ALER colleagues and friends who hold a special place in my heart and mind. After going back through the 50-year history, my list increased to almost 300 names. I apologize up front for not mentioning everyone. However, I'm sure you don't want to sit through a 3 to 5 hour presentation. So, in the interest of time I'll limit my reflections and I apologize ahead of time for errors and leaving so many people out.

Indebtedness

Albert J. Mazurkiewicz (see photo) is the man that Estill Alexander and I think of as the *father* of CRA. Without his early leadership, the organization would have floundered and died. What you might not know is that when the first president resigned after 8 months, Al assumed the leadership for 4 years and planned 4 of the first 5 conferences. Al was the driving force behind the goals and purposes of our organization. He wrote the first *Constitution and By-Laws* in 1959, which as noted earlier, have changed very little over the years. Al started the CRA publications program by writing, editing, and funding the first issue of *The College Reading Association Newsletter* in 1961. This initial publication evolved into the *The Journal of the Reading Specialist* in 1962, *Reading World* in 1971, *Reading Research and Instruction* in 1985, and continues today as *Literacy Research and Instruction*. Although Al passed away last year (May 8, 2015), his legacy lives on in our association and in the Special Services Award which is named after him. Al, we are all indebted to you!

Appreciation

Tim Rasinski (see top left photo), Nancy Padak (see top right photo), Rich and Jo Anne Vacca (see bottom photo), and Kent State University provided me with an introduction to CRA. Upon arrival at my first CRA conference, Tim immediately introduced me to Betty Heathington, Fred Fedorko, and Bill Henk. I was speechless as I was using Heathington and Alexanders' work as part of the theoretical basis for my dissertation. I collaborated with Betty Sturtevant on my first national presentations that year, and was finally able to put faces with the names of people whose research I had been reading. This introduction to

warm, friendly colleagues and mentors at the national level set me on a professional path of success. Tim, Nancy, Rich, and Jo Anne, I truly appreciate your mentorship and connecting me to ALER.

Recognition

The J. Estill Alexander Forum is one of the formal recognitions for Estill (see photo), but he accomplished so much more. Although Estill died on March 10, 2001, his legacy lives on. If you google him, you'll get 248,000 hits in ½ a second. On the personal side, Estill was the Publications Committee chairperson who mentored Betty Sturtevant and myself in becoming CRA Yearbook

editors. He filled numerous service roles, maintained the CRA archives for many years, and wrote—with the assistance of Susan Strode—the first 40-year history. Since I served as the senior editor on the original 40-year history, I experienced the joy and humor of working closely with Estill. For example, in one email Estill described his work on the history this way:

> *It has been "pain and suffering"—physical as well as mental. I'll explain the physical. I organized my materials in 40 piles, one for each year. I placed these piles where I could reach them easily in my guest room. They covered the chest, the dresser, the stereo, and all around the bed. In the middle I had a stool that I sat on as I moved from pile to pile. The damn thing broke—sending me to the floor hard! I had to get my friend Bill to drive me wherever I went for a few weeks and I could only sit on one of those donut things! I thought about sending Gary Shaffer [CRA Treasurer at the time] a bill for pain and suffering, but I didn't want to upset him too much! (Linek, 2010, p. 5)*

Estill, we miss you, your humor, and recognize you for all your undertakings in support of ALER.

Gratefulness

I'm particularly grateful for two women who with whom I "grew up" professionally in CRA/ALER. My professional sisters and friends, Betty Sturtevant (see left photo) and Mary Beth Sampson-Perry (see right photo) have partnered with me in researching, writing, presenting, editing, and other service to ALER.

As you'll see on the ALER website, Mary Beth has won the Al Maurkiewicz Special Services Award and Betty has won the A. B. Herr Award. This year Betty also received the Laureate Award. From doctoral studies, first presentations, initial post-doc research, and first books to leadership/service positions in ALER, we've been through it all together. Ladies, I am truly grateful for your ongoing support, collaboration, and friendship. I treasure you both more than words can say.

Acknowledgment, Credit, Merit

I want to start by crediting Judy Richardson for the Literacy as a Living Legacy Award and the first 40-year history. Gone are the days when Gary Shaffer and Judy Richardson (see photo) would debate spending money at board meetings. Gary was our treasurer who sounded a lot like the character "Eeyore" from *Winnie the Pooh* (Milne, 1926). Gary was always predicting gloom and doom if we spent too much money. His reticence to spend was understandable since the association had numerous financial problems in the past. Judy, however, was always looking for ways our organization could spend money to help fund literacy projects. In her words, we were "rolling in it." Lively debate ensued for a number of years until the board finally decided to institute the "Judy Richardson Literacy as a Living Legacy" award during my presidency (Massey & Linek, 2010a). I also credit Judy with bringing the publication of the association history to fruition:

> *The impetus for writing the history of CRA came from charges given to the historians by then CRA President Judy Richardson on November 24, 1995. She took the charges from the Procedural Policies Manual which states: Begin the writing of the history by preparing a series of five-year highlights of the Association....and highlight CRA activities for each five year period. This will allow a beginning to the formation of the history (Charge Number 4). (Alexander & Strode, 1999, p. v)*

As I noted earlier, efforts to develop a CRA history go way back to minutes from the 1973 board meeting. Although there were previous efforts to create a history by Co-Historians Frederick J. Fedorko and Albert Shannon in the 1983-1988 period and Historian Jim Walker in the 1988-1993 period, there

were no tangible results. Under Judy's leadership, with strong support from executive officers Marino Alvarez and Gary Shaffer, the 40-year history became a reality.

The development of the first history would not have been possible without the assistance of Al Mazurkiewicz who supplied materials from the early CRA years from his personal archives and answers to many questions. However, there were numerous people who contributed support and many hours of work. Marino Alvarez, Jerry Johns, Marvin Joslow, and George Mason. Lillian Putnam, Gary Shaffer, Norm Stahl, and James Walker read and reacted to the entire history. Former Historians Elinor Kress and James Walker shared their personal archives while Linda Thistlethwaite and Ora Sterling King provided access to the Executive Secretary archives. Other Past Presidents and colleagues Jules Abrams, Robert Aukerman, Lois Bader, Rita Bean, Bruce Brigham, William Blanton, Janet Carsetti, Thomas Fitzgerald, Linda Gambrell, Susan Mandell Glazer, Betty Heathington, Clay Ketcham, James Layton, Martha Maxwell, Nancy Padak, Uberto Price, Vicki Risko, Arthur Smith, Jerry Weiss, and Bob Wilson responded to survey questionnaires and reviewed the document. We were lucky when we produced the 50-year history, as we didn't have to recapture the first 40 years. As you can see, the ALER history is a labor of love produced with the help of many wonderful colleagues.

In addition to Judy, I also want to single out Ray Reutzel (see photo): An interesting aside on Ray is that we both ran for president in 2001 and no one was more surprised than me when I won. Particularly because I was the one that had nominated Ray. Heck, I even voted for the guy. Ray was a much bigger name in the field than I, but at the time faculty members, doctoral students, and former doctoral students from Kent State University and TAMUC were overwhelmingly active in CRA—and we figured that my win occurred because of the Kent and TAMUC affiliations. Luckily, Ray was elected a few years later and he has had a major impact on ALER, bringing people such as John Smith, Parker Fawson (both past presidents), and Sylvia Read (former webmaster) into the organization. Ray was also the driving force behind turning *Literacy Research and Instruction* into a proprietary publication that is published, marketed, and distributed through the Taylor and Francis Group, now a part of Routledge. This one change has enabled ALER to grow its international reputation as well as putting money into our coffers. Way to go, Ray!

There are so many more people like Joan Elliot who served as executive secretary and John Smith who served as Treasurer/Business Manager during my tenure on the executive board; Bob Rickleman, who mentored me into the presidency; Jerry Johns who created the Promising Researcher Award; Helen Perkins whose focus on increasing diversity is a blessing; Ellen Jampole, our Boss Queen; Julie Kidd, our current president. . . . ah, but I digress, so let's move on.

Thankfulness

I am thankful for Texas A&M University-Commerce and particularly my colleagues and former doctoral students who have taken active roles in ALER. TAMUC provided support for travel and graduate assistants when working on the yearbooks and conference programs. In fact, Kit

Mohr (see photo), the former ALER executive secretary and *Reading Research and Instruction* editor, was my first graduate assistant and the editorial assistant for the first Yearbook that Betty and I edited. So, I'm particularly thankful for my former students and colleagues who have kept and continue to keep ALER vibrant by taking leadership/service roles such as:

- Marybeth Allen-Conference Coordinator and Chair of the 50th Gala Event;

- Pat Linder and Mary Beth Sampson, Division Chairs, Board Members, and Yearbook Editors;

Photo: Some of the Texas A&M University-Commerce Doctoral Students, Graduates, and Colleagues at CRA 2003

- Donna Harkins, Public Information Chair;

- Connie Briggs, Division Chair, Local Arrangements Chair, and Board Member;

- Charlene Fleener, Research Chair

- Larkin Paige, Newsletter Editor and Board Member;

- Richard Harlan, Professional Affairs Chair;

- Micheal J. Kessner, Linda Hurst, and Margie Garcia, Reading Room and Exhibits Chairs;

- Sheri Vasinda-Publications Chair and former Yearbook Editor;

- Robin D. Johnson-Reading Room and Exhibits Chair and Yearbook Editor;

- Susan Szabo, Joann Dugan, Leslie Haas, Martha Foote, Louise Cochran, and LaVerne Raine-Yearbook and Monograph Editors;

- Merry Boggs, Local Community Service Projects Chair and Yearbook Editor; and

- Barbara McClanahan, Reading Room, Monograph Editor, and Historian.

I'm also thankful for my former students and colleagues who have kept and continue to keep ALER vital by presenting. In addition to those named above, the following are presenting this year: Linda Lewis White, Jim Gentry, Maribeth Nottingham,

Photo: Some of the Texas A&M-Commerce Doctoral Graduates with Carol Burnett at the 2010 ALER Conference in Omaha, Nebraska

Photo: Some of the Texas A&M-Commerce Doctoral Graduates with me at the 2015 ALER Conference in Costa Mesa, California

Susan Morrison, Debra Lee, Susan Williams, Deborah Williams, Kimberly Welsh, Kathy Stephens, Juan Araujo, and Kay Hong Nam. I also want to thank all of the doctoral students who got stuck taking seminars with me. I required all of them to serve as reviewers for the program, and often for the yearbook.

Obligation

Finally, obligation is a form of gratitude, but who has an obligation to ALER? All of us! In 2010, we published a monograph that chronicled the 50-year legacy of the College Reading Association (CRA). We, the new editorial team of Barbara McClanahan, Peggy Lisenbee, Ellen Jampole, and myself, have been approved by the board of directors to complete a ten-year update to ALER's history. Although Barbara, Ellen, Peggy, and I will take the leadership on compiling the next install-ment of ALER's history, we all have an obligation to our predecessors and to the association to maintain and document our legacy. Ellen and Barbara have a handout explaining our need for authors and reviewers. CRA, now ALER, is my professional home, I hope you think so too. So, please take a minute to review the handout and, if you are willing to help, please sign up on this list noting whether you would like to serve as an author, a reviewer, or both.

Conclusion

In closing, I would like to leave you with the thought below and thank you for allowing me to share my perceptions, reflections, thoughts, and feelings with you today.

Each of us can look back upon someone who made a great difference in our lives, someone whose wisdom or simple acts of caring made an impression upon us. In all likelihood, it was someone who sought no recognition for their deed, other than the joy of knowing that, by their hand, another's life had been made better.

Stephen M. Wolf

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Writing-to-Learn in Science Class: The Impact of Low Cost Intervention on Students' Scientific Writing Skills

DISSERTATION WINNER

Katherine L. Wright
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Abstract

Using writing as a tool for learning is one method for authentically incorporating writing into discipline-specific coursework. Unfortunately, many proposed writing-to-learn strategies require a complete change in how content is taught. Therefore, the purpose of this study is to combine research-based best instructional practices into a feasible writing-to-learn intervention in a grade six science class that can be easily replicated by classroom practitioners, therefore addressing major barriers to writing integration. The participants were 18 sixth-grade children and their science teacher. The intervention took place over the course of seven weeks and was integrated into the students' normal science class. All students completed ten informal and three formal writing tasks. Results demonstrate qualitative and quantitative shifts in students' writing. The most notable area of growth was the students' scientific rhetoric scores (Cohen's d = 0.39). This effect was most evident when examining the students' ability to make a strong scientific claim.

Introduction

Research has demonstrated that reading and writing in science class can make students more active in the learning process; unlike traditional teaching practices,

literacy activities are student-sensitive and promote active student involvement in "constructing their own knowledge through questioning, reprocessing, reflecting, analyzing the ideas … and drawing conclusions and communicating their own ideas with peers and the teacher" (Alev, 2010, p. 1343). Engaging in scientific literacy is, therefore, fundamental to learning science (Norris & Phillips, 2002), and writing in science class allows students to mirror the work of field scientists (Warren, 2012).

While there have been many calls for content-area literacy instruction, exactly how to operationalize such approaches remains unclear (Miller, McTigue, & Scott, 2015). Most content-area literacy instruction involves generic strategies, such as the use of graphic organizers, which could be applied to any subject area (Warren, 2012). This practice is reflected in the types of writing most often assigned in science classes, including fill-in-the-blank worksheets and summarization tasks (Drew, Olinghouse, & Faggella-Luby, 2014). However, even these strategies have historically been met with resistance from practitioners (O'Brien, Stewart & Moje, 1995). Recent literature argues that these generic literacy strategies are insufficient, because students need more than just the skills to gain content knowledge; they must build "an understanding of how knowledge is produced in the discipline" (Moje, 2008, p. 97). This new approach to literacy in content-area classes, known as *disciplinary literacy* (Shanahan & Shanahan, 2008), focuses the types of the writing to authentic forms which are practiced by experts within that discipline.

Using writing as a tool for learning is one method for authentically incorporating writing into discipline-specific coursework. Bangert-Drowns, Hurley, and Wilkinson's (2004) meta-analysis examined the effects of writing-to-learn interventions on academic achievements. When examining studies across grades and disciplines, these researchers found a modest, positive average effect (weighted Cohen's d = .17), but the effect varied greatly across studies. Still, these researchers argue that the positive results were too frequent to simply account to sampling error.

While the studies reviewed by Bangert-Drowns and colleagues (2004) demonstrate that writing-to-learn can be an effective intervention strategy, most methods require a complete change in how content is taught and would require both teacher and administrator buy-in to be successful. Due to issues of feasibility and teacher resistance (O'Brien et al., 1995), the purpose of the present study is to design and implement a writing-to-learn intervention for science classes, modeled on the best practices identified by Bangert-Drowns et al. (2004), which could be authentically woven into existing classroom practices.

Existing Intervention Model: The Science Writing Heuristic

Many of the proposed intervention strategies are not compatible with current classroom practices. This is best exemplified by the Science Writing Heuristic (SWH), which currently dominates the work in the area of scientific literacy and holds great promise for school systems with the flexibility of making large changes away from traditional approaches to science instruction. Specifically, this model reframes science instruction to be more authentic, recursive, and to more closely mirror the work of professional scientists. Traditional laboratory reports contain five predetermined sections - purpose, methods, observations, results, and conclusions—all of which are essentially questions with right and wrong responses as the experiment generally replicates known findings. By contrast, "SWH emphasizes the collaborative and constructive nature of scientific activity [. . .] whereby learners are expected to engage in a continuous cycle of negotiating and clarifying meanings and explanations" (Akkus, Gunel, & Hand, 2013, p. 1748). In this model, students are not explicitly told how to do an experiment, instead they are expected to generate and answer questions. The semi-structured writing product encourages students to generate questions, design procedures to answer those questions, interpret data, propose claims with supportive evidence, and reflect upon how their views have changed (Choi, Notebaert, Diaz, & Hand, 2010).

Unfortunately, because SWH requires a major shift from traditional laboratory science instruction, it is difficult to determine which components of the model lead to concept knowledge gains. Hohenshell and Hand (2006) attempted to address this question through a quasi-experimental study. All participants experienced the same class content and laboratory experiences; however, the control group completed a traditional laboratory report and the SWH group used the alternative laboratory report template. After writing their respective laboratory reports, students were assessed for their content knowledge. Next, all students completed a writing activity in which they were expected to summarize all the information from the unit. Qualitative data indicates that students in the control group saw little difference between the laboratory reports and summarization activity, indicating that traditional laboratory reports did not elicit analysis and critical thinking skills. Additionally, while there were no significant differences in the groups' performance on the first post-test, a conceptual post-test administered after the summarization activity revealed that students who completed the SWH laboratory report retained more information than their control group peers. These findings suggest that the power of the SWH approach lies in

its facility to encourage students to critically consider and use science content rather than memorize and report facts (Hohenshell & Hand, 2006).

However, the success of SWH is highly dependent upon the fidelity of implementation. Akkus and colleagues (2013) implemented SWH to discover the intervention's effects on different levels of student achievement. After providing teachers with two days of training, the authors conducted a series of observations to score teachers as either traditional or embracing the SWH approach. The student and teacher performance were compared against a control group of classrooms. Results demonstrated that high-implementation SWH classrooms performed better than other groups. However, in low-implementation SWH groups only high achieving students outperformed their peers.

When proper training and time for transition are provided, SWH has shown to improve student knowledge and content-area skills (Choi et al., 2010). However, it is clear that SWH requires full teacher buy-in, making small-scale interventions difficult. SWH implicitly redefines the role of the science teacher. In SWH classrooms, the writing product of interest is the lab report, which is achieved through student discovery. In this situation, the teacher's role is to facilitate the discovery rather than directly provide information. Therefore, the implementation of SWH may be faced with resistance, as it would require most schools to alter their entire instructional approach (Akkus et al., 2013).

Purpose of the Study

While models such as SWH have shown to be effective, it is difficult for teachers to radically change their approach without leadership support, and it is equally difficult for principals to unilaterally implement new instructional strategies without teacher buy-in. O'Brien and colleagues (1995) argued that this is because many research based practices – such as SWH – do not account for the complex curriculum, pedagogy, and social climates of schools. Therefore, the field requires *feasible* intervention strategies (i.e. those that could be naturally integrated into existing science curriculum and classroom practices) to support scientific literacy. Additionally, in schools that are not within a crisis situation, enhancements to improve an instructional approach, rather than an overhaul, are most appropriate.

Therefore, the purpose of this study is to combine research-based best instructional practices (described below) into a feasible writing-to-learn intervention in a grade six science class that can be easily replicated by classroom practitioners, therefore addressing major barriers to writing integration. Making an analogy to medicine, a patient suffering from obesity may know that overhauling

diet and exercise habits will have a positive impact on their health, however these drastic changes often seem (and often are) impossible to implement and require a large investment of resources. However, if making a small change, such as taking the stairs rather than the elevator, proves to have a modest impact on overall health, the individual may be more likely to make this small change. Additionally, making similar step-wise changes to a curriculum allows researchers to understand the relative impact of each change.

The goal of this study is to identify whether a small change, the equivalent of taking the stairs, can have a modest positive impact on student achievement. This study is guided by the following research questions:

1. How does the content of students' informal science writing change with practice and feedback?

2. Can a small change, integrating writing into science classes, have a modest impact on students' scientific writing skills?

Theoretical Foundations of Present Intervention

Bangert-Drowns and colleagues' (2004) meta-analysis included only school-based studies, as the authors argue "controlled research may yield findings of theoretical interest but not be generalizable to application in natural, complex learning environments such as classrooms" (p. 33). In a similar manner, the goal of this writing-to-learn intervention was to synthesize established best-practices for writing in science class in a manner that would not drastically alter the daily routines and objectives of the teachers. Therefore, when making decisions regarding design, aspects of external validity were given high priority for greater assurance that such findings could be replicated.

Examining the interventions reported in the included studies, Bangert-Drowns et al. (2004) found that random assignment of participants and the involvement of the researcher in the classroom did not impact study effect sizes. Other findings from this meta-analysis included that certain study characteristics, specifically longer treatment lengths, two to three assignments per week, and in-class tasks of less than 10 minutes, were ideal. Finally, prompts that encourage metacognitive writing had both positive effect sizes and statistically significant results. In short, there are identified characteristics of writing interventions supporting student achievement.

Bangert-Drowns and colleagues' findings also indicate that random assignment of participants and researchers' participation in the intervention did not have an impact on effect sizes.

A review of existing literature clearly demonstrates that, in the field of science, certain characteristics tend to yield more consistently positive outcomes. While not an exhaustive list, using evidence to form arguments (Klein & Rose, 2010), writing for authentic audiences (Choi et al., 2010), and having multiple opportunities to become proficient at writing-to-learn (Hand, Hohenshell, & Prain, 2004), may support student achievement. Furthermore, writing that promotes metacognitive thinking about learning may also increase students' knowledge acquisition. These principles drive the current research and are the basis of the intervention studies which follow.

Multiple Opportunities for Writing

Strong effective writing takes time and practice; however, as students progress through grades, less time is spent on writing instruction, with very little taking place within the context of science class. Additionally, the majority of writing middle and high school students complete involves very short responses, such as filling in blanks on a worksheet or taking notes (Graham & Harris, 2012). This sort of writing is *knowledge telling* and does not allow for *knowledge transforming* (Bereiter & Scardamalia, 1987). In order for writing-to-learn activities to be effective, students need to engage in writing activities on multiple occasions over a longer period of time.

Unfortunately, the limited amount of research in this area makes it difficult to discern exactly how much writing is enough for learning to take place. In fact, in Miller and colleague's (2015) review of content-area writing interventions, only two included studies explicitly investigated how a specific number of writing experiences impacted student learning. In the first of these studies, Hand and colleagues (2004) examined how the number of writing assignments impacted student achievement. These researchers administered conceptual exams after the first and second writing task to create dependent measures of the students' content knowledge. The findings demonstrated that, regardless of treatment conditions, students developed stronger conceptual understandings after the second writing task. The researchers returned eight weeks after the conclusion of the instructional unit to re-administer the exam and found the same effects – two writing experiences were more effective at supporting student knowledge.

Knaggs and Schneider's (2012) work was also identified by Miller and colleagues (2014) as investigating the impact of multiple writing experiences. These researchers used vee-maps (complex graphic organizers that separate content knowledge and evidence from arguments and conclusions) to help students evaluate the evidence and ideas in their scientific writing. Three high school

classes participated in this study, each completing three writing assignments but using vee-maps as part of the process a different number of times. The authors then rated the students' writing products for understanding of relevant scientific concepts. Results demonstrated that the class that used vee-maps all three times had greater conceptual understandings than the group that used vee-maps once or the group that never used this tool. Considered in concert, these findings show that more opportunities for students to engage in assignments that require them to think critically as they write will better prepared them to think like scientists.

Authentic Audiences

The vast majority of writing completed for science class is for a common, inauthentic audience: the teacher (Gunel, Hand, & McDermott, 2009). If the teacher is the main audience, students are likely to agree rather than explore opposing points of view (Newell et al., 2011). Furthermore, when students write for the teacher they generally believe they are expected to use advanced terminology and phrasing. This often results in a retelling of information without any deep processing; that is, students can compose an acceptable *knowledge telling* (Bereiter & Scardamalia, 1987) answer without understanding the content by recycling the verbiage of their teacher or the textbook.

However, when students are required to write for a different audience, they must undergo a translation process where information is converted from technical textbook language into something comprehensible to both author and audience. When that audience differs from the author, students undergo yet another round of information translation, which can increase content knowledge. For instance, Gunel and colleagues (2009) demonstrated that when students wrote for a younger audience, they developed deeper conceptual understandings than their peers who wrote for the teacher. Hand and colleagues' (2004) findings support this claim and provide evidence that students recognize the benefit of writing for a younger audience. In a follow up interview, one student's description of writing for a younger student prior to composing an essay for the teacher illustrates this translation process: "First you dumb it down, learn that, and get the basics down really well, and then you can move into your large textbook definitions" (Hand et al., 2004, p. 204). Clearly, this student underwent a process of translating information in order to first develop a strong conceptual understanding before composing in academic terms. Together, these studies demonstrate that writing for authentic audiences, especially a peer or younger audience, can support student learning in science classes.

Use of Evidence

Argument development is the core of scientific thought, as the field relies on argument "to establish or justify knowledge claims" (Akkus et al., 2013, p. 1747). Unlike other fields, science is unique because it is collaborative, so scientists use arguments to work towards a common goal: "advancement of scientific knowledge" (Cavagnetto, 2010, p. 337). To proficiently write in the genre, students need to move beyond lab reports that summarize the replication of established findings (Norris & Phillips, 2002) and begin engaging in the rhetorical conversation of the field (Warren, 2012).

Studies have demonstrated that in scientific writing it is important to develop prompts that require students to use evidence to support arguments. For instance, Choi and colleagues (2010) show that one of the strongest predictors of total writing quality was the relationship between the claims made and evidence provided. These authors argue that, when done correctly, science "writing encourages students to hypothesize, interpret, organize, elaborate, synthesize and persuade others of the ideas that are central to the topic and to the information they collect" (p. 153). Therefore, it is essential for students to integrate evidence into science writing.

Metacognitive Prompts

Metacognitive writing, or writing about one's understandings, has been shown to improve college students' academic achievement, but the impact on students in high school and below has been inconsistent. Part of the struggle is that authors define metacognition differently (Glogger, Holzäpfel, Schwonke, Nückles, & Renkl, 2009). However, generally two types of metacognition appear in high school students' writing: negative and positive comprehension monitoring. Negative comprehension monitoring describes when students identify gaps in their knowledge, whereas positive monitoring involves noticing concepts that are well understood (Glogger, Schwonke, Holzäpfel, Nückles & Renkl, 2012).

Glogger and colleagues (2012) collected learning journals, defined as writing assigned to students to deepen understanding and retention, from high school math and science classrooms and coded the entries for four different learning strategies: three cognitive (rehearsal, organization, and elaboration), and metacognitive strategies. Codings were then correlated with student achievement, and through a cluster analysis the authors discovered trends in the use of learning strategies and achievement. In science, only rehearsal strategies (restating content information) were a strong predictor of student achievement. However, students with the highest levels of achievement in both courses used a combination

TABLE 1
Principles for Successful Writing-to-Learn Tasks in Intervention

Principle	How Operationalized in Intervention
Using evidence to form arguments	Long writing assignments required students to use content-knowledge as evidence to support an argument.
Writing for authentic audiences	Short writing assignments required students to write about what they learned in class to a friend who was absent. Long writing assignments were structured so students wrote a letter-to-the-editor correcting a misprint.
Multiple opportunities to write	Students had 10 short writing assignments and three long writing assignments over approximately eight weeks.
Metacognitive writing	Short writing assignments prompted students to identify what they had learned in class and explain the concepts in their own words.

of quality cognitive and metacognitive learning strategies. The authors argue that students at this level may have the metacognitive ability to identify gaps in knowledge in science, but that does not mean they have the maturity or motivation necessary for remediation. Thus, in this intervention I combine writing for authentic audiences with a metacognitive prompt to build in purpose, and hopefully motivation, for students to engage in metacognitive writing.

The goal of the current study was to combine these previously identified best-practices for writing-to-learn in science class in a multi-grade intervention. I hypothesized that using these four principles – using evidence to form arguments, writing for authentic audiences, providing multiple opportunities to write, and engaging in metacognitive writing – would encourage the success of the intervention, thus allowing me to compare student performance across grades and determine for whom writing-to-learn is an effective strategy. Table 1 further describes how each principle was operationalized in the intervention.

Methods of the Study

This intervention took place in a small independent school in a rural-type setting in the southwestern United States. The school serves children from Pre-K through 12th grade and has been recognized for its strong college preparatory programs. As this is an independent school, the teachers were not constrained by the same state testing requirements as public school teachers, and therefore had more autonomy and flexibility in their curriculum and teaching practices.

This site was specifically chosen for flexibility of teaching practices and progressive mindset, because this work, while research-based, was primarily exploratory.

Intervention Procedures

The participants were 18 sixth-grade children and their science teacher, Mrs. James (pseudonym). The intervention took place over the course of seven weeks and was integrated into the students' normal science class. All students completed intervention activities and received classroom grades for their work.

The majority of the writing activities (described as "short writing") asked the students to spend five to ten minutes at the end of class summarizing what they learned for a peer who was absent. The goal was that this authentic audience would encourage students to process the information rather than simply retell, thus cueing metacognition.

The second type of writing activity (identified as "long writing") presented the students with text from a mock-journal. The text incorrectly stated a fact about the topic of study, and students will write a letter-to-the-editor identifying what was wrongly stated, providing the correct information, and explaining why their information is correct. The goal of this activity was to encourage students to use evidence while writing for an authentic audience. The students completed these long writing assignments three times: once towards the beginning of the intervention, once near the middle, and once at the end. Students had a minimum of 20 minutes to complete this activity.

Short Writing Coding

Throughout the intervention, students were consistently reminded to describe what they *learned,* rather than what they *did*, that day in class in their short writing activities. Their teacher also gave informal grades based upon perceived effort (i.e., check, check plus, or check minus) and provided the students with regular informal feedback (e.g., writing "great work" or "add more details" on graded writing assignments). Similar teacher actions would be part of normal classroom practices, and thus were considered to be part of the intervention that could be easily replicated in other classrooms.

For research purposes, these writing samples were coded rather than scored. I first conducted word counts of the students' short writing samples. I then counted the number of activities described, scientific vocabulary used, and scientific facts present in each writing sample. Definitions and examples of these categories can be found in Table 2.

TABLE 2
Short Writing Coding

Code	Description	Student Examples
Activity	Student summarizes an activity done in class. Generally includes an active verb.	*Today in science we made a poster.*
Scientific Vocabulary	Words or short phrases used to describe the course content.	*Natural selection is a big part of an organism's life.*
Scientific Facts	Course content paraphrased in students' words. Individual facts were identified if provided sufficient information to create a typical test question.	*The water cycle is also called the hydro-cycle, because hydro means water.*

Long Writing Scoring

Students' three long writing samples were first scored using the *Rubric for Scientific Writing* (RSW, Wright, Hodges, & LeBlanc, 2016). This tool, based upon the expectations for writing established by the Next Generation Science Standards (NGSS; NGSS Lead States, 2013) and Common Core State Standards (National Governors Association, 2010), evaluates six different aspects of scientific writing on a scale of zero (poor) to three (meets or exceeds expectations): Claim; Evidence and support; Analysis of content; Organization; Audience; and Presentation of writing. The first three elements correlate into an overall score called *Scientific Rhetoric* and the later three into an overall score called *English Composition.* At least one rater with an English/language arts education background and one rater with a science education background scored each sample. Where raters disagreed, I calculated an average score for both.

Results

Over the course of seven weeks, students completed 10 short and three long writing tasks. I kept fidelity records for each class period indicating the time when writing tasks began and the time when the last student finished writing. Additionally, we made note of any unusual activities or distractions during the class period or writing time. Noteworthy observations from these records are described in Table 3.

TABLE 3
Notes from Fidelity Records

Mean (SD) minutes for short writing tasks	Short Writing Task Observations and Modifications	Mean (SD) minutes for long writing tasks	Long Writing Task Observations and Modifications
9.30 (2.63)	Teacher provided candies during first writing time	18.33 (5.51)	Last task took place the day before school vacation; many students required redirection

TABLE 4
Short Writing Task Participants and Average Words Written

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
Participants (*n*)	18	18	17	18	17	18	18	17	17	18
Mean (SD) Words Written	47 (20.8)	34.5 (21)	40.8 (12.3)	54.2 (25.4)	49.3 (15.7)	62.3 (31)	59.9 (23.2)	65.1 (21)	63 (16.2)	65.7 (19.9)

Short Writing Tasks

Most students completed all 10 writing tasks. In a few instances, one student was absent; however, there was always at least 17 of the 18 students present. Table 4 details their presence and average number of words written during each writing task. It is interesting to note that while the students composed an average of just over 40 words per writing sample during the first three tasks, this number grew by over 50% to an average of 64.5 words per writing sample during the final three tasks.

Examining the other variables reveals that while the overall number of activities remained relatively consistent, the number of scientific vocabulary and facts increased. This indicates that not only were students writing more in later writing samples, but they were also writing more science-specific content. Table 5 and Figure 1 detail these findings.

TABLE 5
Short Writing Sample Mean Activities, Scientific Vocabulary, and Facts

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
Activities	2.0 (1.1)	1.33 (.6)	1.8 (.8)	1.4 (.9)	1.7 (.7)	1.9 (.9)	1.3 (.5)	1.4 (.7)	1.5 (1.1)	2.1 (1.6)
Scientific Vocabulary	2.6 (2.1)	4.4 (4.0)	6.3 (2.6)	7.4 (4.8)	5.6 (3.3)	6.5 (4.4)	4.9 (2.6)	7.8 (3.5)	5.2 (2.2)	7.6 (3.5)
Facts	.05 (.2)	1.2 (1.8)	1.6 (1.3)	1.8 (1.9)	1.9 (1.8)	3.1 (3.5)	2.9 (1.9)	4.4 (2.0)	2.5 (1.6)	3.3 (1.9)

Note: Standard deviations displayed next to means in parenthesis.
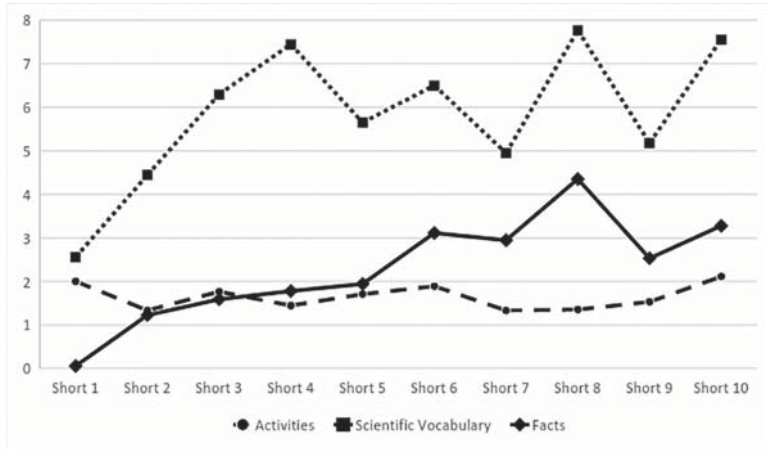
Figure 1. Average number of activities, scientific vocabulary, and facts included in each short writing task.

Long Writing Tasks

Students' scores for the long writing tasks (on a scale of zero to three) are presented in Table 6. In all areas, student scores increased from the first to the second task, and then decreased slightly from the second to the third task. However, the scores on the third writing task remained similar or better than the first writing task. To provide a conservative description of student growth, Cohen's *d* effect sizes comparing students' performance between the first and third writing task are also provided.

TABLE 6
Long Writing Scores

		Long Writing 1	Long Writing 2	Long Writing 3	Cohen's *d* (first to third task)
Scientific Rhetoric Scores	Claim	1.52 (.60)	2.50 (.64)	2.09 (.42)	1.10
	Evidence	1.38 (.68)	2.33 (.76)	1.56 (.44)	0.31
	Analysis	1.12 (.74)	1.86 (.92)	1.37 (.36)	0.43
	Scientific Rhetoric	1.48 (.62)	2.23 (.65)	1.68 (.34)	0.39
English Composition Scores	Organization	1.51 (.67)	1.94 (.66)	1.52 (.46)	0.01
	Audience	1.58 (.72)	2.11 (.78)	1.49 (.51)	-0.14
	Presentation	1.61 (.58)	1.78 (.52)	1.66 (.47)	0.09
	English Composition	1.56 (.63)	1.94 (.58)	1.56 (.39)	0.00

Note: Standard deviations displayed next to means in parenthesis.

Discussion

The purpose of the present study was to see if a low-cost intervention could impact students' scientific writing skills. I addressed this question by examining how the content of students' writing changed in both informal (i.e., short writing tasks) and formal (i.e., long writing tasks) writing assignments. Results demonstrate that the intervention procedures have the potential to impact students' ability to engage in scientific argumentation.

Short Writing Tasks

To answer my first research question, I examined the students' short writing samples. At the beginning of the intervention, most writing samples were relatively short and generally described class activities without providing much detail related to course content. The classroom teacher, Mrs. James, noticed this, and started reminding students to "write about what you learned, not what you did." Mrs. James added similar reminders while grading the writing samples, and the content of students' writing shifted. Figure 2 contains the transcription of one participant's first and final short writing task, demonstrating this change.

Andrew's 1st Short Writing	Andrew's 10th Short Writing
We learned or I learned how to enhance my vocabulary while describing Earth. I also learned the new vocabulary for chapter 3. Last but not least I learned it is hard to work with Nathan and brian as partners because I have to do all the work.	Today I learned that volcanoes magma is under ground and lava is the thing that erupts. Also I learned that acid rain plays a big part in destroying Earths surface. and that clear good water will help keep Earth in tact. So In all I learned that we should try to have good water not acid water to minamize the erosion

Figure 2. Transcriptions of a student's first and final short writing tasks
Note: All errors are from original sample, however, student names have been changed.

Figure 2. Andrew's First and Final Writing Tasks.

This shift in the content of the short writing samples demonstrates that, with minimal time and intervention from the teacher, students were able to practice writing about scientific content. However, in order to see if this improved focus and practice translated to improvement in the students' ability to engage in scientific argumentation, I examined their growth on the long writing tasks.

Long Writing Tasks

The students' long writing showed great growth from the first to second task, and then a slight dip from the second to the third task. This may be explained by the timing of the final task; it was the day before the December break and the students were having difficulty focusing. However, to provide a conservative estimate of their growth, I examined the differences between the first and third writing tasks.

Students' overall English composition scores did not show any clinically significant changes. This is to be expected as there was little to no instruction or feedback on their general writing performance. Mrs. James focused her comments on the scientific content of the samples, such as "You are correct, but back up your statements with evidence". Any feedback about the writing itself was fairly generic, and would not be sufficient for a sixth-grade student to make substantial changes (such as "Proofread to make sure your thoughts are complete").

By contrast, students' scientific rhetoric scores showed improvement with an effect size of 0.39. This effect was most evident when examining the students' ability to make a strong claim. According to the Rubric for Scientific Writing, a strong claim implies that the writing has one central purpose, argument, or

focus, and provides a framework for the evidence and analysis in the remainder of the piece (Wright et al., 2016). Therefore, it is logical that this area would serve as a starting point for improvements in other areas of scientific writing. Future research should examine how an improvement in students' ability to make a coherent claim predicts overall growth in scientific writing.

Conclusions

One of the greatest limitations of the present study is the sample size: 18 students is insufficient for estimating statistical significance or making generalizations regarding the effects of this intervention. Furthermore, while this intervention was successful in a 6th grade classroom, slight changes may need to be made to accommodate the needs of older and younger students. However, the findings suggest that this minimal intervention may have a positive impact on students' ability to write in science class. Furthermore, as the core components of this intervention have been clearly outlined and defined, future teachers interested in using this approach would be able to make slight changes without negating the research-based best-practices underlying this intervention.

Many questions regarding the effectiveness of writing-to-learn in science class remain. First of all, Mrs. James' informal feedback to students may have been instrumental to improving their writing, and future research should examine the impact of teacher feedback on scientific writing skills. Additionally, this sample was too small to identify how specific students' characteristics (such as background knowledge and writing ability) moderate the effectiveness of this intervention. Finally, while this intervention had some positive effect on sixth-grade students' writing, Bangert-Drowns and colleagues (2004) found that writing-to-learn interventions were less effective with middle-grade students than with their high-school peers. Future research should utilize similar intervention procedures at both middle and high school levels to compare the effectiveness between these two age groups.

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Content Area Reading and Disciplinary Literacy: Embracing the "And"

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Abstract

Proponents of content area reading and disciplinary literacy typically seek the same goal: to improve the reading abilities of secondary students. To further the discussion around this topic, this article explores the historical perspectives that frame content area reading and disciplinary literacy, as well as the similarities and differences between each type of reading instruction. The author presents the idea of embracing the 'and' between content area reading and disciplinary literacy, citing the most recent research which supports the idea that the best instructional method may be the one that blends both approaches to secondary reading instruction.

Introduction

Undoubtedly, there is an issue with secondary reading in the U.S. While the reading skills of students in elementary grades have improved since the 1970s, the reading skills of secondary students have remained at the same level (National Assessment for Educational Progress, 2012). Similar results can be seen with findings of international tests, such as the Programme for International Student Assessment (PISA); at the 4th grade level, students rank among the best in the world in literacy, but by tenth grade, students are ranked among the lowest among those who participate in the testing (Carnegie Council on Advancing Adolescent Literacy, 2010). Moreover, over 70% of students in grades 4-12 are not able to read and write proficiently in the subject areas (National Center for Education Statistics, 2011; Salahu-Din, Persky, & Miller, 2008)

Over the years, researchers have worked to develop ways in which higher-level reading instruction could occur in secondary schools, along with content instruction. Historically, content area reading was seen as one answer to this challenge. More recently, however, researchers have introduced the idea of disciplinary literacy, claiming that content area reading strategies are not sufficient, citing the National Assessment for Educational Progress (NAEP), PISA, and National Center for Education Statistics (NCES) results aforementioned. Though researchers desire to improve the reading skills of adolescent students, they do not agree on what may be the correct way to do so.

Research Questions

Guiding this analysis of research were three questions: 1) What historical perspectives frame content area reading and disciplinary literacy? 2) How are content area reading and disciplinary literacy similar and different? and 3) What are the pros and cons of both types of reading instruction, as presented by those on either side of the debate? This analysis will also examine how some researchers argue for blending the two approaches, or what the author calls embracing the 'and' between content area reading and disciplinary literacy.

Literature Review
Historical Perspectives

Since the early 1900s, researchers and educators have debated about how best to manage reading instruction and content instruction (Dunkerly-Bean & Bean, 2016; Moje, 2008; Moore, Readence, & Rickelman, 1983). Since the early 1920s, researchers have thought that the basic reading instruction students receive in elementary school might not suffice for the types of text students must read in secondary school (Dunkerly-Bean & Bean, 2016). In the 1970s, *content area reading* became a well-known term with Hal Herber's (1970) book, *Teaching Reading in the Content Areas*. Herber (1970) presented the idea that while reading instruction occurred during the elementary years, literacy development occurred during secondary school. Following this lead, researchers began developing instructional strategies to help content area teachers teach literacy, which turned into what is now called content area reading and is defined as "reading and writing to learn subject matter in a given discipline" (Vacca & Vacca, 2002, p. 15).

Early in the 21st century, however, researchers began to critique content area reading, presenting it as ineffective and calling for disciplinary literacy instruction

(Dunkerly-Bean & Bean, 2016). This type of literacy instruction was defined as "the use of reading, reasoning, investigating, speaking, and writing required to learn and form complex content knowledge appropriate to a particular discipline" (McConachie & Petrosky, 2010, p. 6). Those who supported this idea noted the recent linguistic research that had shown that disciplines have great differences in their academic texts (Halliday, 1994; Halliday & Martin, 1993; Scheleppegrell, 2004).

On this note, they claimed that while "content area reading education tends to emphasize the teaching of a generalizable set of study skills across content areas for use in subject matter classes", disciplinary literacy "builds an understanding of how knowledge is produced in the disciplines, rather just building knowledge in the disciplines" (Shanahan & Shanahan, 2012, p. 7; Moje, 2008, p. 97). This was seen as needed, since "without careful attention to what it means to learn in the subject areas and what counts as knowledge in the disciplines that undergird those subjects, educators [would] continue to struggle to integrate literacy instruction and those areas" (Moje, 2008, p. 99).

More recently, some researchers have begun to argue for a middle-of-the-road approach that blends content area reading and disciplinary literacy. (Brozo, Moorman, Meyer, & Stewart, 2013; Draper, Broomhead, Jensen, Nokes, & Siebert, 2010). Brozo et al. (2013) and Draper et al. (2010) were concerned that a false dichotomy or dualism between content area reading and disciplinary literacy were emerging. These researchers argued that content area teachers and literacy specialists should work together to "overlay adaptable generic content and discipline-dependent literacy practices to meet the learning needs of all students" (Brozo et al., 2013, p. 356). This approach, along with the others, will be discussed in further detail in the next section.

Content Area Reading

Theoretically, the traditional version of content area reading is an approach to teaching reading within the context of content areas, which is derived from a cognitive approach to reading and learning (Fang, 2012). Proponents of content area reading hold that through the use of cognitive strategies, such as predicting, inferencing, summarizing, note-taking, and concept mapping, students can learn to read and write texts in all content areas.

Many researchers contend that using the generalized strategies of content area reading instruction helps students improve their literacy and reading abilities, as well as prompt students to become more engaged in reading while learning the content being taught in the disciplines (Brozo & Simpson, 2007; Vacca, Vacca, & Mraz, 2010). Perhaps more important is that these claims have been supported

by decades of research (Alexander & Jetton, 2000; Alvermann & Moore, 1991; Meltzer, 2002). Moreover, using the What Works Clearinghouse evidence standards, Kamil, Borman, Dole, Kral, Salinger, and Torgesen (2008) noted that the evidence base for the cognitive approach to content area reading was strong.

Some researchers have also indicated that content area reading is best for struggling readers and writers, since "adolescents who struggle with reading and writing do not possess the foundational skills and strategies necessary to learn proficiently" (Faggella-Luby, Graner, Deschler, & Drew, 2012, p. 69), which disciplinary literacy instruction would require. This viewpoint has merit, since disciplinary literacy is, according to Shanahan and Shanahan's (2008) model of literacy progression, the highest level of literacy. Furthermore, even Shanahan, a proponent of disciplinary literacy, noted that content-area reading "tends to help the bottom kids" (Shanahan, 2012).

Supporters of content area reading also point out that disciplinary literacy instruction requires teaching students to use the strategies the experts in that discipline use, notwithstanding neither the teachers nor the students are disciplinary experts (Heller, 2010). Questions have been raised as to whether teachers or students should be even attempting to use the strategies that experts use. However, there is a great lack of research in this area. While researchers have demonstrated that teachers must have content knowledge (CK) as well as pedagogical content knowledge (PCK) to teach students effectively (Kleickmann, Richter, Kunter, Elsner, Besser, Krauss, & Baumert, 2013), they do not know if this content knowledge should be equal to those considered experts in a discipline. The research that has been conducted on teachers PCK and CK, as well as the relationship between the two (Ball, Lubienski, & Mewborn, 2001; Baumert, Kunter, Blum, Brunner, Voss, Jordan, & Tsai, 2010; Friedrichsen, Abell, Pareja, Brown, Lankford, & Volkmann, 2009) has been contradictory and thus inconclusive. As a result, this question is one that remains up for debate.

On this note, some researchers argue that disciplinary literacy should be left to higher education. As Heller (2010) pointed out, high school content areas differ drastically from their disciplinary counterparts in universities. For that reason, one cannot say that the disciplines, and therefore disciplinary literacy, should be taught in secondary schools. In considering what he views as the goal of secondary education, Heller (2010) makes the following argument:

> *In deciding what an adolescent should know and be able to do in the content area of history, say, our point of reference should not be the academic historian's ways of reading, interpreting, and arguing about archival materials… Rather, we should ask ourselves what a broadly*

> *educated U.S. citizen should know about history and the contentious nature of historical interpretation.*

Arguments such as those presented for content area reading are valid and understandable. Nevertheless, there is still another side of the debate. The arguments for disciplinary literacy will be discussed in the next section.

Disciplinary Literacy

The foundation of disciplinary literacy can be located within discourse theory (Gee, 2011) and the idea that each discipline has its own discourse. As Shanahan and Shanahan (2012) noted, "disciplines differ extensively in their fundamental purposes, specialized genres, symbolic artifacts, traditions of communication, evaluation standards of quality and precision, and use of language" (p. 9). One study has empirically validated this claim (Spires, Kerkhoff, Graham, Thompson, & Lee, 2015). As a result, supporters of disciplinary literacy believe that in order for students to read and write texts in any disciplinary area, students must learn the discourse of each discipline. Teaching disciplinary literacy involves teaching students not only the content of a subject, but also the literate practices, discourse patterns, and ways of thinking within that subject (Fang & Coatoam, 2013).

Those who favor disciplinary literacy over content area reading argue that the generalized strategies used in content area reading are not sufficient for students to build the advanced literacy that secondary school texts require (Shanahan & Shanahan, 2008). Furthermore, the goal of disciplinary instruction is to teach students how to read, write, think, and speak like a disciplinary expert; content area reading does not address this goal (Moje, 2008; Shanahan & Shanahan, 2012).

Though some have claimed that disciplinary literacy is simply a new name for content area reading, Shanahan (2012) explained that this is not the case:

> *Disciplinary literacy is distinct from "content area" reading. Disciplinary literacy is more aimed at what we teach (which would include how to read and use information like a scientist), than how we teach (such as how can students read the history book well enough to pass the test). The idea of disciplinary literacy is that students not only have to learn the essential content of a field, but how reading and writing are used in that field. On the other hand, content area reading focuses on imparting reading and study skills that may help students to better understand and remember whatever they read. (para. 3)*

Indeed, disciplinary literacy presents some advantages over content area reading. Some research has shown that students may struggle with or be burdened by certain strategies used in content area reading (Alvermann & Hynd, 1989; Wade, Trathen, & Schraw, 1990). In fact, it seems that "high achieving readers comprehend more when they used their own preferred strategies than when other strategies were imposed on them through instruction" (Dole, Brown, & Trathen, 1996, p. 82).

Furthermore, Shanahan argues that disciplinary literacy provides a better way for content area teachers to instruct reading in their discipline, since "a teacher striving to be a math teacher is dedicated to math goals and is interested in hanging with math teachers. Using instructional methods that bind them closely to the math community (as opposed to the reading community) would be attractive" (Shanahan, 2012). Others have acknowledged that this may be an issue with content area reading as well (Dillon, O'Brien, Sato, & Kelly, 2010; Draper et al., 2010).

Embracing the 'And'

Though both arguments for content area reading and disciplinary literacy are legitimate and understandable, a third argument positions both types of reading instruction as important and necessary. While supporters of this viewpoint such as Brozo et al. (2013) do not propose that students "should 'become' members of a disciplinary culture", as disciplinary literacy would have them do, they also advocate that content area reading strategies should be customized to the discipline in which they are being used (p. 354). Though they acknowledge that content area reading and disciplinary literacy are fundamentally different processes, as Shanahan (2012) argued, they still assert that a combination of the two approaches may be the best, most pragmatic approach to help all students (Brozo et al., 2013).

Similarly, Gillis (2014) shared that "strategies *adapted* (rather than adopted) to fit the content (discipline specific strategies) are more effective than general literacy strategies" (p. 616, emphasis in original). She presented an example of how a common English strategy known as the Response Heuristic could be adapted to history, science, and math content (Alvermann, Gillis, & Phelps, 2013). Though the heuristic was used traditionally in English as a way to help students infer the author's meaning as well as develop their own interpretation, its adaptation to other content areas changes the focus. For example, Gillis (2014) notes that the heuristic can provide a guide for students to think like a scientist and make connections, inferences and conclusions between data and observations.

Some research has shown methods such as this to be effective. Lai, Wilson, McNaughton, and Hsiao (2014) conducted a longitudinal study using an

approach that combined generalized content area reading strategies with disciplinary literacy elements. In their approach, the authors adopted a "blended view of literacy in secondary schools, where both generic and content area literacy are important" (Lai et al., 2014, p. 308). Students were taught "to view particular instances of reading and writing in specific context areas as manifestations of more generalizable principles and transfer such literacy knowledge from one content area classroom to another" as well as "knowledge that is specific to that content area" (p. 608). Over the three years that this study took place, Lai et al. (2014) saw significant increases in students' reading comprehension. As Dunkerly-Bean and Bean (2016) note, this seems to be due to the fact that "teachers from different content areas were able to collaborate and focus on blended, interdisciplinary approaches to advancing student achievement" (p. 18).

Another study conducted by the author of this paper examined the strategies teachers used to conduct disciplinary close readings before and after receiving professional development on disciplinary literacy (Paul, 2017). After the professional development, teachers reported using more disciplinary literacy strategies to conduct close readings themselves. However, upon examination of their lesson plans, the researcher found that many teachers planned to use content area reading strategies, such as annotating and defining words and concepts, along with disciplinary literacy strategies when conducting close readings with their students. This finding supports the claims of researchers such as Brozo et al. (2013) and Gillis (2014). Although teachers may know the disciplinary reading strategies specific to their subject area, they will adapt and use content area reading strategies to support students' use of disciplinary literacy strategies.

Other research currently being conducted involves using inquiry-based learning and content area reading to support disciplinary literacy. Through an explicit process, known as Project-Based Inquiry (PBI), Spires, Kerkhoff, and Graham (2016) incorporate content-area reading strategies to support the disciplinary inquiry process. Students first ask a compelling question which is rooted in the discipline they are studying. Then, students gather and analyze sources using content area reading strategies, which are used to support the entire disciplinary process. By the end of the inquiry, students will use the information they have gathered to support their claims, with the intent of answering their compelling question. The final stage of the disciplinary inquiry process is the creation of a product in which students generate new knowledge and share with the outside world.

Conclusion and Future Directions

There have long been debates over how to best teach reading in secondary school and in the content areas. There is no easy answer to this question, as each argument is

supported by research and theory. It is important to know each side of the debate and to recognize the pros and cons to each method of literacy instruction. The most current research seems to be indicating that adapting or blending content area reading strategies with disciplinary literacy instruction may be the most effective method.

Future research should clarify exactly what disciplinary literacy instruction looks like within a classroom. Following this research, others should examine student reading performance with explicit content area reading instruction and explicit disciplinary literacy instruction in order to see the gains or losses in performance from each. Research on the performances of struggling and high achieving readers with each approach would also be valuable to the field. Finally, research should endeavor to embrace the 'and,' clarifying what this means for instruction and then empirically examining student performance as a result of this instruction.

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Identifying Effective Parent-Teacher Reading Conference Using a Virtual Environment (TeachLivE™) with Pre-Service Educators

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Abstract

The absence of opportunities for pre-service teachers to develop parent-teacher conferencing skills in teacher preparation programs has been widely documented. This paper describes the first phase of a multiyear study in which pre-service teachers developed parent-teacher conference skills specifically related to sharing reading assessment data in a virtual conference environment with a parent avatar. In the initial phase described, an iterative implementation and refinement methodology was used to identify effective reading conferencing behaviors. The processes of developing an observation tool, instructional materials, research protocols, and a course assignment rubric are explored and shared.

Introduction

Researchers suggest that the parent-teacher conference is the most significant opportunity to foster collaboration between the school and family (Henderson & Hunt, 1994). For more than a decade, the need for increased school and family communication, involvement, and relationships has been at the center of national studies (Epstein & Sanders, 2006; Markow & Martin, 2005)family, and

community partnerships. Based on a sample of 161 schools, colleges, and departments of education (SCDE and federal policies (Individuals with Disabilities Education Improvement Act of 2004; No Child Left Behind Act, 2001) however, many new teachers continue to demonstrate a deficit in the area of parent communication skills. Baum and Swick (2008) attribute this deficit to the lack of targeted training and real-life applications in teacher preparation programs, specifically how to conduct a parent-teacher conference. We have found in our experience that pre-service teachers have difficulty accurately articulating reading assessment data they have collected on school-aged children. This impedes effective communication with parent and caregivers. Furthermore, while reading data collection, interpretation, and intervention are focus areas in many reading education courses, the actual communication of assessment to parents and families is often overlooked.

In a 2006 national study of 161 schools, colleges, and departments of education, Epstein and Sanders (2006) found that only 7% of respondents believed, "all of their teachers were prepared to work with all students' families and communities" (p. 96). Yet, parent-teacher conferences are essential structures of family-school communication, as evidenced in a large-scale survey where 97% of new teachers reported that student's parents are regularly asked to come to parent-teacher conferences. According to Markow and Martin (2005), "communicating with and engaging parents is the most frequently cited challenge among new teachers and the area they feel least prepared to take on in their first teaching position" (p. 4). This gap in teacher competence, especially among new teachers, is the focus of this study. The research reported in this paper is part of a broader multiyear study exploring the efficacy of elementary education pre-service teachers as it relates to conducting parent-teacher reading conferences. This paper describes the first phase of this study, the identification of effective pre-service teacher behaviors during parent-teacher reading conferences, and the alignment of these behaviors to the research tools designed to evaluate pre-service teachers' effectiveness communicating reading assessment data with instructional goals.

Literature Review
Assessment in Reading to Guide Instruction

The use of data-based decision making to inform reading instruction has long been recognized as a best practice in the field of reading (Risko & Walker-Dalhouse, 2010; Roskos & Neuman, 2012). According to Cooper and Kiger (2011), assessment serves three basic purposes: 1) to determine student progress, 2) to see how well students can apply learning across contexts and applications,

and 3) to guide instruction. Opitz, Rubin, and Erekson (2011) purport that assessment helps teachers figure out what children know, what they can do, and whether they are learning. Assessment in reading is integral to matching students to appropriate text for independent and guided reading, as well as and differentiating instruction. Gunning (2010) suggests that parents have a right to this information. Furthermore, he recommends that when teachers share assessment results with parents, they should "suggest ways in which the parents might build on strengths and try to shore up weaknesses" (Gunning, 2010, p. 79).

Parent-Teacher Conferencing and Pre-Service Teachers

The parent-teacher conference in particular requires a *thinking-on-your-feet* fluency which combines "professional knowledge, skill, and disposition" (Walker & Dotger, 2012, p. 65). Developing the fluency of a skill requires practice. In the past, there has been little opportunity in higher education environments for pre-service teachers to practice parent-teacher conferencing, yet there is a high need to include parent involvement training in teacher preparation programs (Henderson & Hunt, 1993). Previously, parent-teacher conference role-play has been shown to be the most prevalent and successful activity in training teachers for parent conferences (Henderson & Hunt, 1993). Related, teaching an active listening strategy is also a widely recognized technique employed to foster parent-teacher communication (McNaughton, Hamlin, McCarthy, Head-Reeves, & Schreiner, 2008) and allows pre-service teachers to make empathetic comments to parents, ask appropriate questions, and communicate effectively to the listener (McNaughton et al., 2008). Yet, despite the need for training related to parental involvement, pre-service teacher programs do not consistently recognize conferencing skills as a major objective in related courses of study (Henderson & Hunt, 1993; McNaughton et al., 2008).

More recently though, simulation has been employed, allowing pre-service teachers to practice teaching skills, such as parent-teacher conferencing, without the potential of unforgiving mistakes. Specifically, Dotger, Dotger, and Maher (2010) borrowed the standardized patient pedagogy approach of "cases," used widely in medical schools, and applied it to educator preparation. Individuals are trained to take on a case, exhibiting the medical symptoms and verbal expressions of the case, therefore allowing the future health professional to practice their diagnostic and communication skills. The application of this medical approach to the field of pre-service teacher education led Dotger to develop the Standardized Parent/Caregiver Conferencing Model (SPCM), resulting in the creation of six parent cases. This later evolved into a broader context and

the formulation of the Simulated Interaction Model (SIM). After using SIM in several studies, Walker and Dotger (2012) had numerous case-study videos of parent-teacher interactions, seeking to establish content validity and reliability for these interactions. They had experts in the field review the videos to determine the essential elements of a successful parent-teacher conference. This yielded seven categories. Four were related to the sequencing of the conference: "A Positive Opening," "Gathering Information," "Sharing Information," and "Suggesting an Action Plan." Three pertained to psychological structures: "Accepting Parent's Emotions," "Maintaining a Positive Relationship," and "Managing the Flow of the Conference." Ultimately, Walker and Dotger (2012) described the use of these effective parent-teacher conferencing categories in terms of an equal balance of structuring and responsive behaviors.

Virtual-Simulated Learning Environments

Not surprisingly, pre-service teachers require numerous opportunities to practice being teachers (Puvirajah & Calandra, 2015). While learning the fundamentals of pedagogical theory is essential to a teacher preparation program, virtual learning environments appear to be the most efficacious for practicing teaching skills (Johannesen, 2013). Researchers have found that pre-service teachers benefit from reality-based virtual learning experiences that require autonomous thinking and self-evaluation (McDonald, 2012). McDonald (2012) suggests that student engagement increases through the strategies of role-playing, simulation, and critical dialogue, thus building a pre-service teacher's instructional repertoire.

Several studies have validated the use of role-playing and simulation to provide benefits beyond those used in traditional classroom experiences (McDonald, 2012). McDonald (2012) examined skills acquired through role-playing and simulation enactments. The benefits were: (a) deeper comprehension (through critical, creative, and reflective thinking); (b) improved interpersonal relations (through active, emphatic listening, and position taking and empathy); and (c) communicative competency (through dialogic exchanges during enactments and post-enactment debriefings).

TeachLivE™: A Virtual-Embodied Experiences in Pre-Service Education

Puvirajah and Calandra (2015) suggest that pre-service teachers have opportunities to practice teaching skills outside the classroom in safe-to-fail environments where they are mentored by teacher educators. In addition to role-playing and simulation, a technique that can accomplish this goal is an "embodied experience"

in a collaborative virtual learning environment. A collaborative virtual world is a preparatory world of model simulations that guide pre-service teachers to master a skill. A virtual world can prepare pre-service teachers for verbal interactions with parents by helping them to refine communication skills (Dotger, Harris, Maher, & Hansel, 2011). Unlike learning from a traditional methods class, virtual worlds engage pre-service teachers in a real-world interaction through simulation (Puvirajah & Calandra, 2015). Role-playing in a virtual environment and participating in an embodied experience facilitates the development and identity of a pre-service teacher as an effective communicator.

The TeachLivE™ virtual classroom environment serves as an intensive learning laboratory by providing the unique benefit of facilitating teacher professional development without potential harmful effects (Dieker, Hines, Stapleton, & Hughes, 2007). "In a simulated experience, a [pre-service] teacher is able to do what they wouldn't, couldn't or shouldn't do in real life to obtain compelling, trial-and-error examples of why and how key methods work" (Dieker et al., 2007, p. 11). Whereas Dieker and colleagues (2007) discuss the benefits of the TeachLivE™ simulator use to include those for the student and teacher, in this study those benefits are expanded to communicating reading assessment data with parents. Instead of student avatars, the TeachLivE™ Interactors brought parent avatars to life, giving elementary education pre-service teachers the opportunity for realistic virtual rehearsal of parent-teacher reading conferencing skills.

Methods
Purpose of the Study and Participants

As part of a broader, multiyear study exploring the efficacy of elementary pre-service teachers related to conducting parent-teacher reading conferences, this paper focuses on the first phase, the identification of effective pre-service teacher behaviors in a parent-teacher reading conference and the development of research and instructional tools aligned to these effective behaviors. This phase occurred over three semesters at a large urban university in the state of Florida and included over 200 students. The participants were elementary education majors concurrently enrolled in a part-time internship in a K-6 elementary classroom in the central Florida area.

The study was conducted in RED 4942, a Reading Practicum undergraduate course. RED 4942 is the final course in a sequence of three reading courses taken by pre-service teachers that leads to a reading endorsement sanctioned by the State of Florida. In RED 4942, the pre-service teachers complete a case study on a K-6 student from their internship placement. After assessing a student they

have a data conference with the RED 4942 instructor. During this conference, the pre-service teacher shares the student's strengths and needs and identifies what they believe should be the focus of intervention and/or instruction. The instructor provides feedback and guides the pre-service teacher as needed. For example, the instructor may suggest an additional assessment or steer them to a specific instructional resources. The pre-service teacher then provides instruction, and completes a post-assessment to determine instructional effectiveness. The culminating assignment in this class is a "Letter to the Parent" of the child they worked with for the case study. In this letter, they describe the assessments they conducted and results, what they did instructionally based on this information, what they plan to do instructionally in the future, and what the family could do to support their child. The parent letter was added as an assignment several years ago to fill a gap in the elementary education program related to parent communication. The addition of the letter also allowed reading faculty to see if students could accurately and succinctly share data to a non-educator and whether they could communicate this information clearly. In most instances, the letter was never actually given to the parent.

Looking to make the parent letter a more authentic experience, we decided to adapt this assignment into a "Parent Project" utilizing a virtual environment. Instead of writing a parent letter, pre-service teachers would prepare for and conduct a seven-minute virtual parent conference with a parent avatar in the TeachLivE™ classroom laboratory. Upon receiving instructor feedback and identifying a goal for improvement, they would repeat the conference at end of the semester. This modified assignment would connect the skills of sharing reading assessment data and communicating with families, while also developing teacher candidates' *thinking-on-your*-feet fluency. TeachLivE had been used in several other courses in the Elementary Education program, but typically for demonstrating competence in instruction or applying classroom management techniques. Participation in the Parent Project for the course was mandatory, but if desired, the student could opt out of having their data included in the study. The course syllabus describes the Parent Project as follows, "a comprehensive project over the entire semester. You are graded upon participation and completion. The goal of this project is to improve your parent-teacher conference skills over time related to the student you work with for your case study". Based on the steps of the Parent Project (see Table 1), we provided a detailed checklist with the tasks to complete and the date each was due. At this point we had not developed a rubric for the assignment so the grade was determined based on completion of tasks and points were assigned to tasks.

TABLE 1
Pre-Service Teacher (PST) Parent Project Steps

1. All PSTs complete a Pre-Efficacy Survey for Parent-Teacher Reading Conferences- online

2. All PSTs attend class on parent-teacher conferencing and engage in related online module.

3. All PSTs attend and actively participate in Data Conference.

4. All PSTs participate in Mock Teacher Conference #1 in TeachLive. Instructor provides feedback and determines if student needs to or desires to complete a second conference and if needed sets goal for 2nd conference.

5. All PSTs complete Parent Teacher Conference (PTC) Reflection #1 after Mock Conference- online

6. If needed or desired, PST participates in Mock Teacher Conference #2 TeachLive. Instructor provides feedback.

7. PST completes PTC Reflection #2 after Mock Conference #2- online

8. All PSTs complete Post-Efficacy Survey for Parent-Teacher Conferencing- online

Our role in the research was as a participant, as we taught RED 4942 in a mixed-mode format. We met regularly throughout the semester, and after each semester we debriefed on the implementation of the project. In addition, a TeachLivE™ facilitator participated in the study. The facilitator regularly assisted with the virtual environment, utilized the observational tool, and provided feedback to us.

Data Sources

The data set for this study included: a coding tool, observational field notes, student formal and informal reflections, and instructor reflections. Initially, we used Walker's and Dotger's (2012) seven categories of effective parent-teacher conferences, along with the criteria they developed as our starting point for the behaviors we desired in our candidates. Instead of using a rating scale of 1-5 for each criterion, we chose to use the terms observed and not observed. We kept the four structuring behaviors of the conference in tact: "Opening," "Gathering Information," "Sharing Information," and "Reaching Agreement." We adjusted the responsive behaviors by combining "Maintaining a Positive Relationship" and "Accepting Emotions," and we created a new category, "Professionalism." We wanted the students to dress professionally and use professional language in the parent-teacher conference, just as we would expect them to demonstrate in an authentic conference at a school site. We did add one criterion under "Sharing

Information" related to explaining acronyms, as we found that this would be specifically relevant for students when discussing various reading assessments. From our experiences in data conferences, we knew many of our students did not know what some of the acronyms represented. For example, many of our students give a DRA as an informal reading inventory, but when probed, they do not know that this is the Developmental Reading Inventory (Beaver, 2012); in fact many refer to it as the Diagnostic Reading Inventory. When sharing with a parent, we wanted them to accurately explain acronyms, as well as explain how and what the assessment assesses. All of the research tools were developed or adjusted to align to these seven categories and criteria (see Table 2).

Findings

Fall 2015

As previously mentioned, at the end of each semester, we met to debrief on all aspects of the Parent Project. After the first semester, ratings were changed from "observed" or "not observed" to the three categories of "not observed," "developing," and "applying." We wanted to reflect more of a developmental philosophy and to mirror the terminology used for teacher evaluation in local school districts. Furthermore, we adjusted the seven categories to eight, adding another, "Communication Skills." We found that many of our students used conversational fillers such as "um" and "awesome" multiple times during a conference. For example, one student tallied 15 "um's" in a seven minute period. We also had several students use incorrect grammar or incorrectly use vocabulary, and a few students had issues with body language, such as not looking at the parent avatar, or overly gesturing with their hands.

Our observations also led us to add new criteria to many of the seven categories. For example, our main focus for the parent-teacher conference was on the actual sharing of the reading data collected. Therefore, we wanted to observe them accurately sharing data and aligning the student's performance to grade level expectations. Many of the pre-service teachers were unable to explain their data when questioned by the parent and in some cases, they responded inaccurately. One example was when the parent avatar asked the pre-service teacher what she meant when she said the child lacked phonemic awareness. The pre-service teacher could not articulate what phonemic awareness was, and in fact, what they explained was phonics.

For many of the pre-service teachers, when asked whether the child they were working with was on grade level, they replied with an overly positive response or they avoided responding altogether. In one instance, a pre-service

teacher had worked with a fourth grader who was reading at a first grade level, and she told the parent not to worry and implied that the child was only slightly behind. Another example is when a parent avatar asked what her child's reading level was, a question we prepared our pre-service teachers that they would likely hear. Many pre-service educators gave a number, like "14" (referring to a DRA level), but when the parent asked what that meant in terms of grade level, the pre-service teacher could not clarify.

Furthermore, we wanted the pre-service teachers to be specific and avoid generalizations when describing a student's reading behaviors. Instead of saying "she's a great reader" we wanted them to provide specific observations, such as "she reads at a good rate for her grade level and has excellent intonation". After revising the pre-service teacher behaviors, we adjusted all of the research tools used in the project to reflect the criteria changes in each of the categories and the addition of "Communication Skills" as an eighth category. Because we had added a category and many criteria to other categories, we adjusted our online module related to the Parent Project and our face-to-face content to reflect these changes. Since we made several changes to the pre-service teachers' behaviors, we held off on developing a specific rubric for the assignment and again used completion of tasks as the grading scheme.

Spring 2016

During the second semester of implementation, our goal was to develop a specific coding tool based on common patterns for each criterion under both the "developing" and "applying" performance categories. We also had discussed the possibility of not requiring students to do a second conference if they demonstrated the desired criteria in their initial conference. Finally, we wanted to verify the categories and create a specific rubric for the Parent Project. After the second semester of implementation, the researchers debriefed again. We refined the names of each category and we changed the structuring behavior "Reaching Agreement" to "Identifying Next Steps," to more accurately reflect the goals of our project. We also collapsed some criteria and removed criteria. For example, "validating the parents' ideas and/or feelings" had been a criteria under "Maintaining a Positive Relationship." We felt that in our simulation, the students did not always have an opportunity to accomplish this and that this competency could fit under an existing criterion. Thus we combined items and the new criterion became "being positive, encouraging efforts, and/or validating ideas/feelings." With the categories and criteria refined, we set out to develop a coding tool that reflected these behaviors and aligned all of our other research instrumentation to these

behaviors. Table 2 shows the evolution of the pre-service teacher conferencing behaviors over the three semesters. In addition, we again made adjustments to online content and face-to-face content.

Taking our field notes and observations we had made over two semesters, we designed a coding tool (see Appendix A). This coding tool would allow us to quickly document student behaviors. For most criteria, it also provided concrete examples of typical behaviors, which would represent whether a pre-service teacher was developing or applying the conference skill. But for some criteria they either did it or did not demonstrate the desired behavior. For example, during the opening of the conference, it is expected that the pre-service teacher introduces himself/herself to the parent using his/her name, along with the parent's and child's name; thus if they did it they would be rated "applying" and if they did not, it would be "not observed". Whereas, when stating the purpose of the conference, the performance can be objectively ranked as "developing" or "applying" depending on the language used with the parent. An example of a developing performance would be the pre-service teacher stating, "I'd like to talk about your child's reading today." To be rated applying, the pre-service teacher might state, "I'd like to talk about your child's phonics development, specifically long vowel knowledge".

Next, we debriefed on the necessity of a second parent-teacher conference. We felt that many of our students did not need to complete a second conference, but a handful did. We realized that we had to identify a concrete way to determine the need for the second conference. We turned to the behaviors outlined in our criteria, and we revisited our goals for the project. Of the eight categories, the two most important to our goals were the sharing of the reading data and exhibiting professionalism. Thus, we decided that our students had to demonstrate that they were "applying" for each criterion under these two categories. We also decided to leave it an option for the student to do a second conference if they desired or they were not pleased with their ratings in the other categories. Finally, we took the steps of the Parent Project and developed rubric criteria for each step, allowing us to better quantify the project with a letter grade.

Fall 2016

Utilizing the researcher coding tool (Appendix A) during the third semester allowed us to provide more concrete feedback to the students and document a rationale for whether a second conference was necessary. The rubric aligned to the steps of the Parent Project and the desired effective conferencing behaviors also improved our evaluation of the student's participation and engagement in the project. Ongoing data analysis from this semester will enable us to further develop

the project and research in future phases of the study; however, the observations made and data collected during this semester helped to confirm that the development and refinement of the tools for the project and research was complete.

Implications, Limitations, and Conclusion

This phase of the multiyear study included much trial and error. The TeachLivE™ virtual environment provided pre-service teachers a safe environment within which to practice parent-teacher conference skills and allowed us to identify effective reading conference behaviors. We believe this to be the only study to date focused on reading conferencing behaviors of pre-service teachers. After three semesters of implementing, debriefing, and adapting the desired reading conference behaviors, we believe the research tools now reflect the overall goals of the Parent Project and allow us to move to phase two of the study. The biggest limitation is the tools we developed were based on our goals, which are not the only reasons why teachers conduct conferences. Our categories and criteria are specific to reading conferences, although we believe they could be easily adapted to other content areas. This study points to the complexities of parent conferencing and the need for including this training in teacher preparation programs. Further, it establishes an additional rationale for using virtual environments for educators to practice teaching skills, including parent conferencing skills and for researchers to launch pilot projects.

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Appendix A: Researcher Parent-Teacher Reading Conference Coding Tool

Structuring Behaviors	NO	Developing	Applying
1. Opened the conference by…			
introducing self.			
using parent's and child's name.			
using specific comment(s) to affirm or praise the child.		Used some comments to affirm or praise child, but non-specific (the child is great…fun…awesome).	Used specific comments to affirm or praise the child (ex. the child did great during the math activity, they could count by 5's).
stating the purpose of the conference specific to reading assessment data.		Identified a purpose for the conference referencing data or instructional goals in general/nonspecific terms (I'd like to talk about your child's reading) and/or lacked clarity.	Identified conference purpose specific to reading assessment data (I'd like to talk about your child's phonics, specifically long vowel knowledge).
2. Gathered information from the parent by …			
asking if they had specific concerns/ questions they wanted addressed in the conference.			

seeking input regarding out of school reading habits.		
actively listening and responding.	Some listening and responding.	Actively listened to the parent by nodding, taking notes, repeating what parent stated, and/or probing.

3. **Shared reading data by…

Using the data conference form or other documents.	Used minimal data sources and/or had documents but did not use them.	Used data conference form or other documents while sharing data.
responded to the parent's questions with specific answers.	Responded to parents questions, but not necessarily answering them in full, correctly, and/or vague (Oh I think your child will be fine).	Responded to the parent's questions with specific answers.
using terminology the parent could easily understand.	Used some terminology but did not fully or accurately explain acronyms or content-specific language.	Used terminology easily understood by parent (no acronyms or explained acronyms and/or content-specific language).
accurately reporting reading data interpretations.	Shared somewhat accurate interpretations of assessments/data.	Shared completely accurate interpretations of assessments/data.
accurately sharing how the child's reading behaviors align to grade level expectations.	Somewhat shared how child's reading behaviors align to grade level expectations (ex- seems to be doing fine, no need to worry, he's doing well).	Accurately shared how child's reading behaviors align to grade level expectations.

4. Identified next steps by…

sharing what would be done at school to improve reading.	Vaguely identified "next step" procedures and/or next steps which may not be aligned to student's needs.	Identified feasible "next step" procedures aligned to student's needs.
providing ideas for at home support to improve reading.	Provided parent with non-significant home ideas to improve (vague, not specific to student's needs).	Provided parent with home ideas to improve (specific, feasible examples related to student's needs, such as book titles).

Responsive Behaviors

5. Maintained a positive relationship by…

being positive. praising, encouraging efforts, and/or validating ideas/feelings.	Sometimes maintained a positive tone and/or inconsistent. Validated little or showed little about parent's ideas and feelings.	Maintained a positive tone by smiling, gesturing, good posture, and/or appropriate tone. Validated/ showed parent's ideas/and feelings throughout the duration of the conference.
showing a genuine interest in the student's well-being.	Showed little interest in the student's well-being and success.	Showed interest throughout the conference in the student's well-being and success by being animated, nodding, agreeing, and/or notetaking.

6. Managed the flow by…

maintaining the time.	Did not manage time (too short, too long, or may have spent too much time on one aspect of the conference).	Managed time well (finished on time or slightly early), clear, succinct.

maintaining the flow.	Conference was disjointed (jumped from one thing to another) and/or used a script to read off (robotic in nature).	The conference was well planned and flowed from one part to another. A conversational tone was mainatained.
keeping the conversation "on track."	Held conversation but did not keep it "on track". May have lost track of purpose.	Conversation was "on track" for the most of the conference
meeting the purpose of the conference.	Somewhat met the purpose of the conference.	Met the purpose of the conference as stated in the opening.

7. **Exhibited professionalism by…**		
arriving on time.		
dressing professionally.		
using content-specific language.	Used content-specific professional language minimally.	Used content-specific professional language throughout the conference.

8. Clearly communicated by…		
using transition words to connect ideas (rather than conversational fillers).	Used some transitional words, but used conversation fillers (ex-um, definitely, excited, okay, awesome, yea).	Used transitional words to connect ideas and primarily stayed away from conversational fillers.
using grammatically correct English.	Used grammatically correct English inconsistently during the conference.	Used grammatically correct English throughout the duration of the conference.

Displaying appropriate, engaging body language.	Displayed some welcoming body language throughout the duration of the conference (posture, facial expressions, gestures, and/or eye contact).	Displayed consistent welcoming body language throughout conference (posture, facial expression, gestures, and/or eye contact).

** In order to be excused from mock conference #2, candidate must demonstrate all behaviors in sharing data and exhibiting professionalism, and can only miss one behavior in each of the other areas.

I-pad Metacognitive Awareness of Reading Strategies: How Do We Assess?

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Abstract

The need for metacognition in effective reading and learning is not a new concept. However, there is little research to support the types of metacognitive skills required when students learn in technology-enhanced classrooms. Thus, it is important to develop tools and techniques to support students' and teachers' technological metacognitive knowledge needed for learning. The purpose of this study was to explore how the i-MARSI, a tool for assessing students' metacognition for learning when using an iPad, could be used to inform teachers of the areas to focus instruction on improving learning when using an iPad for academic understanding. This research positioned the inventory as a useful tool to help students and teachers in the identification of metacognitive skills and strategies that are used more often or least often when reading on the iPad. Teachers may use results from this study to better understand students' needs when reading digital texts using an iPad and subsequently guide their instructional planning regarding reading and comprehending digital texts.

Introduction

As society and technology changes, so does literacy. In turn, technology has increased the intensity and complexity of the nature of a literate environment. Technology usage for academic purposes requires students and teachers to have a wide range of knowledge, strategies, and skills that are adaptable. For students to successfully use new technologies for learning purposes, they must enact strategies that support learning when using technology. The application of new or modified strategies and the manner in which technology has changed how students apply print based strategies has led to a new definition of literacy. "Literacy is the ability to identify, understand, interpret, create, compute, and communicate using visual, audible, and digital materials across disciplines in any context" (The International Literacy Association, n.d.). This definition is especially important when we consider the prevalence of technology within our schools.

Computers, tablets, and mobile learning devices are present in almost every school in the United States, yet despite the increased presence of technology in classrooms, little is known about the metacognitive strategies students use to read and comprehend digital text while using mobile devices. Technology-enriched learning environments include traditional texts as well as e-books, websites, videos, and the use of other applications that facilitate teaching and learning. The complex nature of literacy combined with a technology-enriched classroom requires the cognitive awareness of metacognition in order to learn. As Pressley and Afflerbach (1995) argued, teachers can play a significant role in enhancing a student's awareness of such strategies to develop a constructively responsive reader. Teaching students to become constructively responsive can promote and enhance academic success. In particular, metacognitive awareness of strategies can aid the cognitive process described by Flavell (1979). Flavell (1979) described this cognitive process as actions and interactions of metacognitive knowledge, metacognitive experiences, goals or task related to the process and actions or strategies used to complete the process. Recent trends within the domain of digital reading and the role of metacognitive awareness have impacted students' cognitive monitoring while reading digital text for academic or school related material on an iPad.

The increased cognitive monitoring of metacognitive strategies when using a digital device for learning has led to the exploration of existing available inventories. Efforts to develop metacognitive tools have been well intended and helpful to determine metacognitive awareness of reading strategies in print environments (Jacobs & Paris, 1987; Pereira-Laird & Deane 1997; Schmitt, 1990). However, the existing tools measure print based metacognitive reading strategies, leaving a

gap in the research. Therefore, the development of tools to understand students' metacognition in the technology-enhanced learning environment are essential. One such tool is the focus of this study. The iPad- Metacognitive Awareness of Reading Strategies Inventory (*i*-MARSI), is a useful tool for teachers and researchers in accessing and promoting learner awareness of the underlying process of reading. The survey was utilized to inform teachers of the areas of strengths and weakness based on the results from the *i*-MARSI. These results lead to more focused instructional scaffolding for the improvement of learning, when students used a digital device for instruction.

Literature Review
Metacognition and its Role in Literacy

Metacognition includes self-regulation, as well as knowledge about the process and the application of the process that leads to learning (Dinsmore et al., 2008; Winters et al., 2008). Pintrich, Wolters, and Baxter (2000) highlighted the interrelated nature metacognition through metacognitive knowledge, metacognitive judgment, and metacognitive control, and regulation. Metacognitive knowledge includes the declarative, procedural, and conditional understanding of cognition, including cognitive strategies, knowledge of self, and of tasks. Metacognitive knowledge is focused on understanding, not on enacting. Whereas, metacognitive judgments and monitoring are related to the process of being metacognitive and involve the assessment of the task, monitoring of comprehension, and the recognition of learning. Yet, the process of engaging in metacognition to build learning cannot occur without self-regulation and control. Self-regulation requires planning, strategic identification of strategy use, allocation of learning resources, and volitional control (Pintrich et al., 2000). Skilled learners must have knowledge of metacognition and recognition of learning to employ metacognitive judgments and monitoring to ensure self- regulation and control.

When applied to literacy, students must regulate how much time they spend on material, and decide on whether to skim, scan, or deeply read the text. Students must utilize metacognitive judgments regarding the task and their learning of the material to determine which strategies would be effective to build knowledge. Research postulates strategies that support literacy that include predicting, asking questions, building background information, visualizing, summarizing, and analyzing text structure (Pressley & Afflerbach, 1995). Yet, in a technology-enhanced learning environment, application of these strategies may look different. For example, a learner may know that note taking is an effective strategy for summarizing a passage when reading a print based text. Yet,

note taking might look different when reading and writing on a digital device. Additional cognitive demands of the text, the device and content knowledge now require the learner to shift, adjust, and modify these same strategies to meet the additional demands of these new goals, actions, and or strategies to achieve their cognitive and metacognitive objectives. The additional task associated with this common strategy of summarizing now requires knowledge of application, knowledge of device features, knowledge of text features, and knowledge of support features. The additional layers of knowledge and skills require the learner to actively monitor and self- regulate the orchestration of these processes.

Metacognition in Technology Enhanced Learning

The increased levels of metacognitive knowledge require influences of both metacognitive judgments and self-regulation. "There is growing evidence for metacognitive and behavioral differences associated with learning from texts presented on screen and on paper" (Lauterman & Ackerman, 2014, p. 456). Research indicated students scored lower in reading comprehension when reading on a screen versus a paper text (Mangen, Walgermo, & Bronnick, 2013) and people report reading more superficially when reading on screens (Liu, 2005; Morineau, Blanche, Tobin, & Gueguen, 2005). These differences have been attributed to preference (Ackerman & Lauterman, 2012; Cardullo, 2013), contextual cues (Morineau, Blanche, Tobin, & Gueguen, 2005), and confidence with screen reading (Ackerman & Goldsmith, 2011). Despite the negative results when studying screen reading versus paper reading, Lauterman and Ackerman (2014) found that students can overcome these processing deficits with practice, support, and guidance. In a technologically advanced world, literacy has become more complex and multifaceted. All students deserve teachers who provide a variety of texts, equip students with multiple literacy strategies to access and develop meaning from these texts, and also provide them with instruction about how to read and comprehend multimodal print and non-print texts (The International Literacy Association, 2012).

The full integration of metacognitive knowledge with monitoring and strategic use of strategies distinguishes a skilled reader from an unskilled reader (Shoerey & Mokhtari, 2001). Often unskilled readers lack the metacognitive judgments and self-regulation of the comprehension process. This process is critical to successful reading and writing for academic purposes using digital devices such as the iPad. In the technology-enhanced classroom, this process requires knowledge of the device and of one's metacognitive behaviors. The learner must identify the task, monitor goals, evaluate progress, and predict what the outcome will be all while evaluating task, device, and knowledge. Thus, awareness of

Device-Supported Metacognitive Strategies and Self- Monitoring Metacognitive Strategies are necessary for metacognition in this environment. This awareness is a part of learners' metacognitive knowledge.

Assessment of Metacognitive Awareness Reading Strategies

Since metacognition is so important for student learning, how can teachers gauge students' metacognitive skills and processes when they are reading and learning in a technology-enhanced environment? In the print environment, students' metacognitive knowledge could be assessed using self-reported paper/pencil inventories. One such inventory, the Metacognitive Awareness Reading Strategies Inventory (MARSI) (Mokhtari & Richard, 2002), asks students to use a Likert scale to rate their application of metacognitive strategies. Responding to the inventory requires both metacognitive knowledge of strategies and metacognitive judgments. The MARSI (Mokhtari & Richard, 2002) is a widely-used scale because of its reliability and validity (Anderson, 2003; Al-Dawaideh & Al-Saadi, 2013; Fitrisia, Tan, & Yusuf, 2015; Mokhtari & Sheorey, 2002). However, what we found were many of the items within the MARSI inventory are print specific and void when identifying students' metacognitive strategy use when reading on a digital device. Therefore, the MARSI in its current state was not an appropriate inventory to use as students move from print to digital text.

A review of the research indicated that there were no metacognitive tools for analyzing metacognitive knowledge or judgment in technology-enriched environments. Thus, the *iPad-* Metacognitive Awareness Reading Strategies Inventory (*i*-MARSI) was developed (Cardullo, Wilson, & Zygouris-Coe, 2016). This self-report instrument provides teachers, students, and researchers with a means of understanding students' perceived use of metacognitive digital reading strategies on a digital device. The 39-item questionnaire was validated using a large population (n=869) representing students in grades seven and eight. The inventory uses a Likert-type scale, which ranges from 1 (I never or almost never do this) to 5 (I always or almost always do this). The consistency reliability coefficient for the two subscales: Device-Supported Metacognitive Strategies (DSMS) and Self-Monitoring Metacognitive Strategies (SMMS) ranged from 0.93 and 0.94 respectively, which confirm the reliability of the instrument. The *i*-MARSI has a .93 internal consistency reliability alpha coefficient for all items. These high measures of internal consistency are indictors of high reliability of the *i*-MARSI. Therefore, indicating that it is a valid instrument for assessing metacognitive knowledge and judgments while supporting self-regulation in a digital environment (Cardullo, Wilson, & Zygouris-Coe, 2017).

The 39-item *i*-MARSI has two factors that are used to identify and assess metacognitive knowledge and judgment when engaging in academic tasks on the iPad. Factor 1 is composed of Device-Supported Metacognitive Strategies (DSMS), which can be thought of as supportive tools aimed at addressing students' metacognitive knowledge and metacognitive judgment on how learning is supported when using an iPad. Examples include setting a purpose, looking at the accuracy of information, previewing text for content by scrolling, paying attention to text features (hyperlinks, bold, color or italized text), making decisions in relation to what to read carefully or closely to enhance reading comprehension. The following items are exclusive for factor 1 (DSMS): 1, 3, 4, 5, 8, 9, 12, 13, 14, 17, 19, 22, 27, 28, 29, 31, 35, 36.

DSMS INVENTORY Item

1. I have a purpose in mind when I read text on an iPad.

3. I look carefully at the accuracy of Internet sources when I read online.

4. I preview the digital text by scrolling up or down, left or right to see, what it is about before reading it.

5. I can combine information I read from multiple websites.

8. I think about whether the content of the text fits my reading purpose.

9. When I read text on an iPad I read slowly but carefully to be sure I understand what I'm reading.

12. I skim the text first by noting characteristics like length and organization.

13. I check the reliability of the information when I use the Internet?

14. I try to get back on track when I get distracted by pop ups or advertisements.

17. I adjust my reading speed according to what I'm reading online or in an e- text.

19. I decide what to read closely and what to ignore when reading online.

22. When text becomes difficult, I pay closer attention to key words, hyperlinks, or text features in what I'm reading.

27. I use context clues or click on the word to look up the definition to help me better understand what I'm reading.

28. I paraphrase (restate ideas in my own words) to better understand what I read

29. I try to picture or visualize information to help remember what I read.

31. When I read on a digital device I focus on understanding the main points which are bolded, italicized, or colored to indicate a hyperlink.

35. I try to make predictions about what the material is about when I read.

36. When reading on an iPad if the text becomes difficult, I re-read to increase my understanding.

Factor 2 is comprised of Self-Monitoring Metacognitive Strategies (SMM S). These include the metacognitive judgments and possible self-regulation steps learners may use when learning with an iPad. Examples include taking notes electronically, using features of the iPad to listen to the text annotations, using discussion tools (chat, wikis, or blogs) to discuss text with others, using reference tools, using an electronic dictionary, adjusting font size, using the search feature to look for key terms and the navigation through the electronic text using features in the e-book or i-Pad to support reading comprehehnsion. The following items are exclusive for factor 2 (SMMS): 2, 6, 7, 10, 11, 15, 16, 18, 20, 21, 23, 24, 25, 26, 30, 32, 33, 34, 37, 38, 39.

SMMS INVENTORY Item

2. I take notes electronically when I read on an iPad to help me understand what I read.

6. When text becomes difficult, I use iPad features to listen to the text being read (e.g., audio narration).

7. I use annotation features or apps on the iPad to summarize what I read to reflect on important information in the text.

10. I discuss what I read with others using discussion tools such as chat to check me understanding.

11. I discuss what I read with others using discussion tools such as discussion boards, wikis and blogs to check my understanding.

15. I underline or circle information electronically in the text to help me remember it.

16. I click on words or hyperlinks to define words electronically in the text to help me remember it.

18. I adjust the font size according to what I'm reading.

20. I use the find feature to see where else the author has used a term or phrase in the text to help me understand what I read.

21. I use hyperlinks to search for reference materials such as dictionaries and webpages to help me understand what I read.

23. When text becomes difficult, I often bookmark the page so I can come back to it after reading a little more.

24. When reading texts on the iPad do you text-code or annotate the text as you read? (Example: highlighting in different colors, writing on sticky notes, underlining…)

25. I use tables, figures, and pictures in text to increase my understanding.

26. I stop from time to time and think about what I'm reading and take electronic notes.

30. When I read on an iPad I often search for pictures or visuals to help me make connections while I am reading.

32. I critically analyze and evaluate the information presented in the text and verify the information through an Internet search.

33. I often use the find feature to go back and forth in the text to find relationships among ideas.

34. When I read on an iPad I check my understanding when I come across conflicting information by completing a web search, or finding other electronic information related to what I am reading.

37. I navigate from e-book to Internet and back in a clear logical path.

38. I scan a digital page or pages looking for key words and phrases to focus on what is important.

39. I often flip back and forth in the e-text to look for additional information as I read for meaning.

The reliability and validity of the *i*-MARSI to assess metacognitive knowledge, judgments, and self-regulation make this inventory an effective tool for learning more about students' metacognitive awareness when learning in an iPad environment. The purpose of this study was to explore how the *i*-MARSI could be used to inform teachers of areas to focus instruction for improving learning when using an iPad. Two research questions guided this research: 1) What are the reported digital reading strategies used by students in grade seven and eight? and 2) Do students in grades seven and eight rely more heavily upon Device-Supported Metacognitive Strategies (DSMS) or Self-Monitoring Metacognitive Strategies (SMMS)? This study used the *i*-MARSI to assess students' self-perception of metacognitive strategies used while using the iPad for academic learning. In addition, analysis of the data helped to inform recommendations for teachers to scaffold and build students' metacognition awareness when learning on an iPad.

Methods

Participants

Sunshine Junior High School (SJHS) (pseudonym) is the largest traditional junior high school in the southern region of the United States. SJHS has a staff of approximately 65 certified staff and 20 support staff members. Student demographics at SJHS are 807 Caucasian, 246 African American, 21 Hispanic, and 15 Asian and the school although it was not designated, as a title one school is eligible at 44.77%. The school population is evenly mixed in regards to male and female with 49.1 % female and 50.9% male. It is also important to note that SJHS is located in the proximity of two Air Force Bases and supports many military families.

Data Collection

The *i*-MARSI was administered individually by the homeroom teachers (n=10) in a group setting to students in grades seven & eight. Although there was no time limit for the inventory completion, students often completed the inventory in

10-15 minutes based on their reading ability. The teachers read from a script to delineate the directions accurately to all students. The inventory was administered via an electronic link using Qualtrics, an on-line data collection tool. Once the inventory was completed, students closed out of the link and exited the website.

Findings from the 869 inventories are discussed and positioned into two sub-scales or factors: Device-Supported Metacognitive Strategies (DSMS) and Self-Monitoring Metacognitive Strategies (SMMS). Using these factors the researchers provided suggestions to support digital reading strategies within both subscales.

Summary of Results

To identify and categorize the self-reported reading strategies used by students in grade seven and eighth, the researchers used descriptive statistics and internal consistency, with Cronbach's Alpha organized by gender, grade level, and student type to show the overall tendencies. The overall tendency and statistical descriptions of the reported reading strategies are shown in Table 1. In Table 1 the factors are classified into two subscales Factor 1 Device-Supported Metacognitive Strategies (DSMS) and Factor 2 Self-Monitoring Metacognitive Strategies (SMMS).

TABLE 1
Descriptive Statistics and Internal Consistency Cronbach's Alpha by Gender, Grade Level, and Student Type

		Factor 1 DSMS (item n = 21)			Factor 2 SMMS (item n = 18)			*i*-MARSI (item n = 39)		
		M	*SD*	*α*	*M*	*SD*	*α*	*M*	*SD*	*α*
Gender	Boys (n = 431)	2.3	0.73	.91	3.1	0.72	.88	2.7	0.64	.93
	Girls (n = 538)	2.5	0.75	.91	3.2	0.73	.88	2.8	0.66	.94
Grade Level	7th (n = 428)	2.4	0.73	.91	3.1	0.72	.88	2.7	0.66	.94
	8th (n = 441)	2.4	0.76	.91	3.2	0.71	.88	2.8	0.65	.93
Student Type	A (n = 307)	2.3	0.76	.91	3.4	0.70	.88	2.8	0.66	.93
	B (n = 413)	2.5	0.77	.91	3.1	0.69	.88	2.8	0.66	.94
	C↓ (n = 149)	2.4	0.65	.89	2.8	0.67	.87	2.6	0.61	.94
Total (n = 869)		2.4	0.75	.91	3.2	0.72	.88	2.8	0.66	.93

Note: M = Mean; SD = Standard Deviation; a = alpha coefficient.

Examining the reading strategy usage of individuals and groups (i.e., gender and grade level) of students using the *i*-MARSI three levels were identified for each sub-scale: high (mean of 3.5 or higher), medium (mean average is 2.5-3.4), and low (mean average is 2.4 or lower). The levels indicate average performance of the students. Overall score averages indicated how often students used the strategies identified in the inventory when reading on an iPad for academic learning. Overall both male and female scored within medium range for SMMS with a mean average of 3.1 and 3.2 respectfully (see Table 1) with females scoring slightly higher than males (i.e., taking notes electronically, using features of the iPad, and navigation throughout the text).

Scores on Factor 2 (DSMS) indicated a lower usage of strategies. Male eighth grade mean average was identified as low 2.3 and male 7th grade mean average was identified as 2.6. The female averages were lower as well, with eighth grade mean average being 2.5 and seventh grade mean average being 2.5. The overall total composite for the school indicated a 2.7 mean average for strategy usage (see Table 2). Although these are medium scores, they are on the lower end of the scale (Medium score 2.5-3.4). After a line item analysis, it was noted that several items had a mean score averaged between a 2.0 and 2.4. Of the items, several are of importance to readers as they navigate and negotiate electronic text for academic reading using the iPad (i.e., using more strategies such as paying close attention to hyperlinks or text features when text gets difficult, try to visualize what I am reading, or re-reading when text becomes difficult).

The inventory was also used to determine if students rely more heavily on a specific subcategory (Device-Supported Metacognitive Strategies (DSMS) or Self-Monitoring Metacognitive Strategies (SMMS)). The frequency distribution using statistical descriptions of the reported reading strategies identified DSMS being used more frequently in both the seventh and the eighth grade. Girls scored slightly higher than boys in the subcategory DSMS (see Table 2). Self-monitoring strategies such as taking notes, annotation, and using features such as listening to the text, adjusting the font or using search features scored relatively low in usage. These strategies often require direct explicit instruction in print therefore these strategies should be taught to the students as well to support comprehension. Overall, frequencies for both subscales were relatively low: Eighth grade males had a total mean of 2.7 and eighth grade females had a total mean of 2.9. In seventh grade, the overall frequencies were low as well with seventh grade males scoring slightly higher then eighth grade males with a mean of 2.8 and seventh grade females scoring slightly lower then eighth grade females with a mean of 2.8. Taken together, males scored slightly lower on the inventory regardless of subcategory than females with a mean of 2.8.

TABLE 2
Mean Averages for Gender in Grades Seven and Eight

8th Grade	DSMS	SMMS	Total Mean	7th Grade	DSMS	SMMS	Total Mean	7th and 8th Combined	DSMS	SMMS	Total Mean
Male	3.2	2.3	2.7	Male	3.1	2.6	2.8	Male	3.1	2.4	2.7
Female	3.3	2.5	2.9	Female	3.2	2.5	2.8	Female	3.2	2.5	2.8

Note: DSMS = Device-Supported Metacognitive Strategies; SMMS = Self-Monitoring

Metacognitive Strategies

The overall mean averages indicated the level of strategies used by students in grade seven and eight. A 3.5 mean score or higher indicated a relatively high awareness and usage of strategies, while a 2.5-3.4 mean average indicated a medium awareness and usage of strategies, and a 2.4 mean or lower indicated a relatively low usage of strategies. The overall scores of 2.7 for males and 2.8 for females indicated how often students used the given strategies as they navigated and negotiated digital text when reading academic or school- related materials such as textbooks, library books, etc. using an iPad. The mean average for each subgroup showed a relatively low/ medium mean average for both subpopulations. Further analysis indicated many students scored higher on the Device-Supported Metacognitive Strategies (DSMS), which indicates many print-based strategies are transferring over to digital reading. Such transferable strategies include: carefully checking the accuracy of what I am reading, reading slowly but carefully to be sure I understand what I am reading, skimming the text, and adjusting the rate of reading.

Limitations and Conclusion

The *i*-MARSI is a validated tool to help students and teachers identify strategies that are used more often or less often when reading on the iPad. This information creates an awareness of strength and weakness as students read digital texts on iPads for academic purposes. A low score in a given area may indicate that some strategies in this subsection are underutilized or underdeveloped. The findings underscore the importance of helping students develop metacognitive awareness of specific reading strategies when using the iPad for academic learning. Yet there is a limitation that must be noted when interpreting the results from this study. Self-reports have limitations because of the self-reporting perceptions of the participant. Self-reported surveys are vulnerable to "over-rater or under-rater bias,"

and there may have been a tendency for a student to respond with consistently high or low ratings (Isaac & Michael, 1995, p. 137). The issues or limitations are shared to aid the reader of this study in the interpretation of the results.

Because technology is changing what it means to be literate in the 21st century is changing along with it, it is imperative that researchers explore what skills and strategies are necessary for students to develop beyond reading and writing with pen and paper. Self-reporting surveys can provide researchers with valid and reliable data about students' perceptions of metacognitive awareness when using e-readers to read and comprehend digital texts and inform future research on students' metacognition in digital contexts.

Many U.S. districts have introduced iPads in elementary through secondary classrooms for academic purposes. Reading digital texts and constructing meaning about texts via e-readers, such as the iPad, require students to interact with, transact, and navigate the digital texts in an online space to successfully access information and learn. In addition, there is a need to develop and use instruments and methods to capture the strategies and processes students use as they read texts using an iPad. How students read, construct, repair, and navigate meaning about texts they access via an iPad requires metacognitive skills and processes. Learning about the what, when, and how student use reading strategies to construct meaning from texts accessed via an iPad may help provide educators with useful information about how to plan for instruction and supports that will support students' reading and learning.

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Asking Questions: The Pivotal Mentoring Move in the GIR Model

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Abstract

This study investigates use of the research-based GIR model as a guide for mentoring student teachers. The model recognizes the varying and increasing expertise of student teachers and the need for different mentoring approaches as student teachers' abilities increase. Specifically, this study examines the third phase of the GIR model, asking questions, and considers how mentors move from a consulting to a mentoring stance in utilizing this move. Findings indicate the level of intern knowledge necessary for questioning to become the dominant move did not occur until after about 15 weeks of student teaching; earlier, interns relied on recommendations from their mentors. Additionally, findings demonstrate that mentors used questioning in conjunction with other mentoring moves.

Introduction

Student teaching offers the opportunity for targeted guidance and encourages nuanced instructional judgments by situating teacher learning within the real work of teaching. Support provided *in situ*, as student teachers implement new practices, allows for dialogue as concerns arise and encourages student teachers to think about their own practice (Leshem, 2014). Mentoring by school supervisors and university liaisons can guide student teachers through the metacognitive processes they must access to flexibly and appropriately apply what they have learned in previous course work to differing contexts.

This study explores a research-based model for mentoring student teachers through this instructional change process. The Gradual Increase of Responsibility Model (Collet, 2012) is an adaptation of Pearson and Gallagher's (1983) Gradual Release of Responsibility model. GIR emphasizes the meditational role of mentoring; it includes mentoring practices that provide decreasing levels of scaffolding as teachers become more proficient, emphasizing how mentoring changes over the course of student-teaching. In GIR, mentors model, make recommendations, ask probing questions, affirm teachers' appropriate decisions, and praise in order to provide decreasing scaffolding which moves student teachers toward independent use of effective instructional practices. The current study looks closely at the third phase of this model, considering how *asking questions* encourages consideration of instructional decisions and reflection.

Theoretical Framework and Review of Literature

Learning is a complex process involving interactions between people, tools, and communities (Leontiev, 1978). This is true of teachers' learning as well as that of their students. Risko, Roller, Bean, Block, and Anders (2009), in their survey of research on reading teacher education, considered variables that impacted how knowledge about teaching developed. They found that pedagogical content knowledge increased when coupled with procedural knowledge, when opportunities for application were present, and when guidance was offered. These aspects of learning are present in the student-teaching experience, unfolding as the supervising mentor teacher (mentor) scaffolds the student-teaching intern's (intern) experience. Feedback and dialogic conversations provided through mentoring play important roles in the change process.

The Role of Dialogue in Student-Teaching Experiences

Enactive experiences, such as student teaching, provide a foundation for learning. Extending the experience through dialogue encourages interns to voice and internalize their developing understandings (Coombs & Goodwin, 2013). Mentors scaffold learning through dialogic mediation of teaching experiences by probing, prompting, and questioning to encourage revisioning of practice. Dialogue encourages teachers to reflect on their instructional experiences, promoting deeper conceptual understanding that can be contextually applied (Collet, 2011). Through discussion with the mentor teacher, the intern is given the space and Discourse to consider teaching experiences (Gee, 1999). Learning occurs when interns and mentors reflect on and dialogue together about instruction that they have observed or participated in. As interns implement new

instructional strategies, dialogue with mentors encourages interns to reflect on their own practice.

Dialogue is a means by which instructional support is provided and adjusted in the teaching/learning process. Through dialogic interactions, mentoring can improve the effectiveness of interns' reflection and encourage flexible and appropriate use of teaching practices (Amobi, 2005; Hoffman & Pearson, 2000; Matanzo & Harris, 1999; Schon, 1987; Zwartz, Wubbels, Bergen, & Bolhuis, 2009). As they ground questions and goals in authentic events, mentors can encourage examination of theory and broad concepts. Questions that bring theories, principles, and concepts of instruction into focus can have a far-reaching effect on instructional practices (Zwartz, et al., 2009).

The GIR Model

Learning is supported through scaffolding that is adaptive and responsive, gradually releasing responsibility from the expert to the learner. Through scaffolding, learners' independent skills are used as stepping stones (Vygotsky, 1978). To be effective, support should be continuously adjusted; providing support when it is no longer needed may stifle learning. For example, researchers found that continuing to model once a learner has gained competence undermined the learner's agency and resulted in decreased self-confidence. Accordingly, scaffolding moves should change to support learners' gradually increasing ability. This adaptive role is described in Pearson and Gallagher's (1983) Gradual Release of Responsibility Model.

The GRR model depicts the varied scaffolding needed as learners move toward independence. The Model has been applied to students' literacy learning for over 30 years (Clark & Graves, 2005) and has potential for adult learning as well, specifically teacher education (Carrier, 1980; Berk & Winsler, 1995; Sweeney, 2003). The current study examines use of an adaptation of the GRR Model: The Gradual Increase of Responsibility (GIR) Mentoring Model (Collet, 2012; see Figure 1). The GIR model adapts Pearson & Gallagher's instructional model to describe phases of mentoring as interns' experience increases.

Like the GRR Model, the Gradual Increase of Responsibility Mentoring Model portrays intentional scaffolding to support successful learning. It describes changes in mentoring that occur as interns become more reflective and gain additional tools for instruction. Support provided by mentors changes in both quantity and quality as interns' expertise increases. The Model describes a decrease in the amount of support provided as well as a change in the type of support. By modeling, making recommendations, asking inquiring and probing questions, affirming student teachers' appropriate decisions, and praising, mentors provide varying and
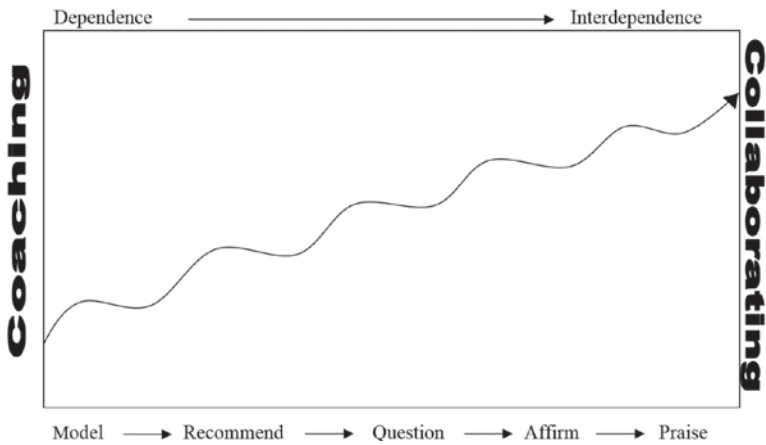
Figure 1. Gradual Increase of Responsibility Model for Mentoring and Mentoring

decreasing scaffolding, which moves interns toward interdependence and collaboration. The Model emphasizes the dynamic nature of interns' zones of proximal development (Vygotsky, 1978) and the importance of staying within this zone during mentoring.

The GIR Model grew from research on support provided by mentors in a reading clinic (Collet, 2008, 2011, 2012, 2013a). The model has also been applied in in-service teacher settings (Collet, 2013b, 2014). The current study applies the GIR Model in a pre-service teacher-education context, exploring the third phase of the GIR Model, which is questioning. Specifically, this study considers the question: To what extent does the mentoring move of *asking questions* support interns' instructional decision-making and reflection?

Methods

This study examined the participation of mentor teachers and interns in a student-teaching apprenticeship that used the Gradual Increase of Responsibility Model. The study considers whether the mentoring move of *asking questions* leads to more effective practice on the part of interns. The investigation suggested a qualitative case study approach.

This case study foregrounds the experiences of mentors by examining records of weekly interactions with interns and also mentor interviews conducted at the end of each mentoring experience. Additional data was obtained during

mentor training meetings and intern interviews. Data collection instruments are described below.

Context

Case selection. Stratified purposeful sampling resulted in selection of two mentor/intern groups for participation in the study (Teddlie & Tashakkori, 2009). We identified two subgroups within the population of interest (mentors and their student-teaching interns): those in a four-year teacher certification program and those in a master's teaching program. We felt these groups might provide different lenses through which to view the phenomenon of student teaching. We then selected cases from each subgroup, "selecting samples within samples" (Teddlie & Tashakkori, 2009, p. 186). This purposeful sampling yielded a small number of cases to provide depth of information about the mentoring experience while also providing variation within the sample and sufficient numbers to support statistical significance (Creswell & Plano-Clark, 2011).

Sites selected were similar in that both included a yearlong internship with each intern having placements in three different grade-level classrooms. In both schools, the first and last placements were short (6-12 weeks) and the middle placement was a longer opportunity to explore teaching strategies (15-19 weeks). This similarity allowed for appropriate comparison across sites. Both sites were elementary schools in an urbanized area in the southern United States.

Sites. The placement site for the eight student teachers seeking their Bachelor of Science in Education (BSE) had 530 students in grades pre-k through five and a diverse student population with 61% Hispanic, 28% white, and small percentages of other ethnicities represented (Arkansas Department of Education, 2013). Of the 14 teachers who served as mentors, ten have a master's degree and three are National Board Certified. Teaching experience ranged from five to 27 years. The eight interns at this site had no previous formal teaching experience, although they had all participated in practicum experiences that included observation and some participation. In addition, two of the interns' mothers were teachers, and they had spent significant time in their parents' classrooms.

The placement site for 11 student teachers seeking their Master of Arts in Teaching (MAT) had 627 students in grades kindergarten through five. This site also has a diverse population, with 59% Hispanic, 25% white, 10% Pacific Islander, and small percentages of other ethnicities represented (Arkansas Department of Education, 2013). Of the 16 teachers who served as mentors, 11 have a master's degree and three are National Board Certified. Teaching

experience ranged from three to 25 years. The 11 interns at this site had no previous formal teaching experience, although they had participated in practicum experiences that included observation and some participation.

Data Sources and Analyses

To consider the question regarding mentoring practices, data sources included GIR conferring guides, interview data, and field notes during mentor meetings. Although dialogue between mentors and interns was ongoing, the conferring guides (Appendix A) were completed by mentors as a planning and reflection tool for more formalized conversations with their interns that occurred each week. Mentors usually marked on the GIR model which mentoring move (model, recommend, question, affirm, or praise) was most supportive for their intern at that time. However, mentors sometimes did not make this identification. In these instances, researchers determined which mentoring move was dominant by considering the labeling of a mentoring move in another location on the form and the description of mentoring conversation in the planning or reflecting sections of the form. This information was compiled and conferencing guides for which questioning was the primary mentoring move were included for consideration.

At the conclusion of each placement, mentors were individually interviewed using the semi-structured protocol found in Appendix B. Interviews were recorded, transcribed, and analyzed using constant-comparative methods to identify themes related to use of questioning as a mentoring move. Field notes taken during mentor meetings were similarly coded and provided insights regarding the research question. After they completed student-teaching, interns were interviewed using the semi-structured protocol found in Appendix C. These interviews provided a secondary data source, useful for comparing themes noted during the analysis described above.

Procedures

Prior to the beginning of the academic year, all mentors were asked to attend a one-hour training on use of the Gradual Increase of Responsibility Model for mentoring. The training included textual and video examples illustrating each of the mentoring moves in the GIR model (model, recommend, question, affirm, and praise). Mentors who did not attend received this training informally. In addition, mentors participated in ongoing training for approximately 20 minutes during scheduled weekly mentor meetings that were standard for participation with student teachers. During this segment of the meeting, mentors discussed the mentoring moves and considered which might benefit their interns at that time. Weekly conferring forms were collected at this meeting.

At the beginning of each new grade-level placement, it was suggested that mentors allow time for student teachers to observe in their new classroom. In this way, modeling was encouraged as an initial mentoring move. As each placement progressed, mentors were encouraged to flexibly use the mentoring moves described by the model in ways that would best meet the varying needs of their interns.

Findings

Cycles of Mentoring

Because of the structure of the participating university's student teaching program, interns experienced three mentoring cycles as part of their student teaching experience. As evidenced through analysis of the conferring forms, these cycles generally followed the GIR pattern and varied only slightly between the BSE and MAT programs. Figures 2, 3, and 4 show mentoring moves for each placement in the program. Points graphed represent the mode of the mentoring moves recorded by mentors on the GIR conferring forms.

As noted in Figure 2, *asking questions* was never the primary mentoring move indicated during the first student-teaching placement. During placements two and three, mentors indicated that *asking questions* was the primary mentoring move in about the middle of each placement (see Figures 3 and 4). Considering the patterns of mentoring across time in these two schools, the GIR model can be viewed as descriptive of the ways in which mentors scaffolded their interns by providing support that progressively turned more responsibility for planning, teaching, and reflecting to the intern.
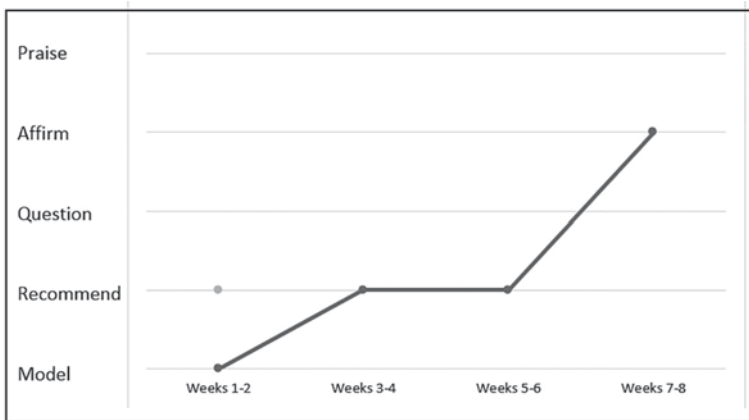
Figure 2. Placement 1 GIR Mentoring Moves
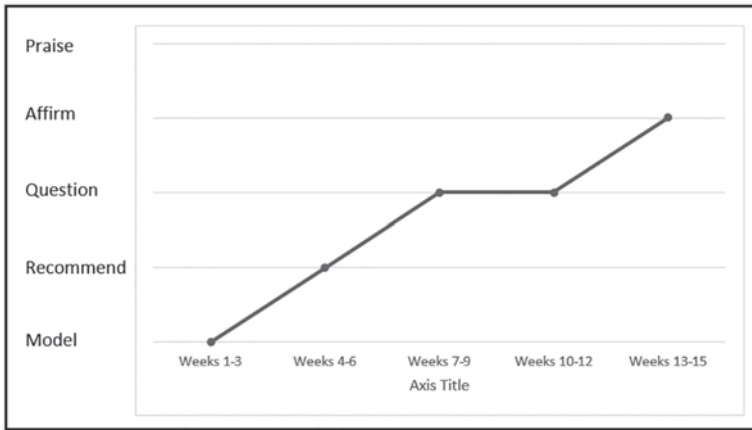
Figure 3. Placement 2 GIR mentoring moves
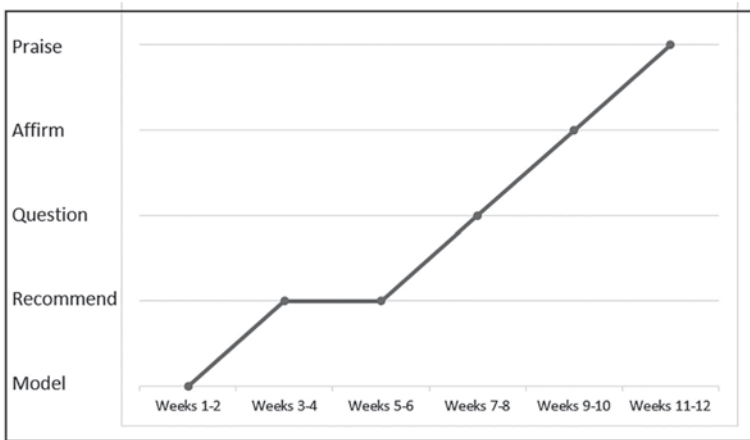
Figure 4. Placement 3 GIR Mentoring Moves

Guidance Offered by the GIR Model

Although comments from mentors in the BSE and MAT programs were initially considered separately, similar themes were evidenced related to the guidance offered by the GIR model. Mentors saw the language and structure of the model as a road map for where their mentoring should lead; they used the model as a guide for considering the individual differences of interns and determining when to use questioning as a their primary mentoring move.

Mentor comments indicated that the GIR Model and conferring guide provided direction for their mentoring. They said the model was a reminder of different levels of scaffolding to avoid "getting stuck" and "remind me, this week I maybe need to try to hit some of these (other mentoring moves)." One mentor noted that being prompted to write plans for a more formal mentoring conference supported her effectiveness. The mentor described how questions she was asking her intern were being met with minimal responses until she planned in advance a few specific questions to ask. "I had to be specific with her. It helped me to…write down the questions so that it was right there," she said. As a guide for transforming practice and a reference for adjusting scaffolds, mentors described the GIR model as helpful in considering the support they were providing to their interns and how that support should change over time.

Individual differences. Mentors were encouraged to use the GIR model as a flexible guide for meeting their interns' needs, and this flexibility was evident in the mentoring moves reported on the GIR conferring guides each week. Graphs above report the mode for each week; however, the complete record of mentor responses demonstrates a variety of mentoring moves being used most weeks. Mentors' comments, too, reflect this differentiation. Mentors talked about how they decided which mentoring move to use. "Watching her in my room and seeing how well she responded to my modeling and recommendations helped know when to let her have more or less support," one mentor said, as she reflected on turning to *asking questions* as the dominant mentoring move. Similarly, another said, "Yeah, I just watched her. I watched her, and her interactions with the kids and how she was picking up. Just basically I was just keeping a keen eye if she was just ready. You can tell if she was ready or not, and I just slowly…I just gradually just let her go." Recognizing the need to scaffold differently because of individual differences and differing contexts, one mentor said, "Because you can't come in and tell every mentor, here's where you should be with them. Because they're all at different places…they're all at different spots." The GIR model provided flexible guidance that mentors adapted to meet their interns' needs and turned to questioning as the dominant mentoring move based on their intern's needs.

Growing as mentors. Many of the mentors in this study had hosted student teachers in the past without the support provided by the GIR model. During weekly meetings and interviews, mentors indicated that exposure to the GIR model had helped them grow in their understanding of mentoring. In the area of questioning, teachers reported the most growth, as discussed below.

Questioning as a Mentoring Move

Interviews and field notes substantiate the patterns found on the GIR forms relative to modeling: it was important early in each placement and then was no longer the dominant mentoring move. Similarly, recommending occurred early in each placement and became the dominant mentoring move as interns assumed some teaching responsibility. Mentor's comments during interviews evidenced the need for and use of recommendations, showing some variation over time and by intern.

Once interns had developed more background knowledge about teaching and about the specific context, questioning became the dominant mentoring move. Asking specific questions supported interns' planning and reflection. This mentoring move was more difficult for mentors than recommending or modeling, but mentors indicated it provided insight regarding what their interns needed and supported interns' growth.

In this study, the GIR conferring forms suggest that the level of intern knowledge necessary for effective questioning did not occur until the middle of the second placement, after about 15 weeks of student teaching. Early in the student-teaching experience, interns relied on recommendations because they "didn't have anything to go off of" and "were not secure enough," so mentors "had to still make the connections for (them)." Questions became effective later, as evidenced by this mentors' comment: "(Then) I could begin to ask her some questions, and she could reflect on what was going on. Before that, she thought (the lesson) went really well." Statements such as this implied that questioning helped interns' reflect and recognize areas for improvement.

Supports reflection and planning.   Mentors indicated that asking questions "really pulled out that reflection." When interviewed, mentors highlighted questions such as the following for supporting reflection:

- "What would you do differently?"
- "How did you know they were getting it"
- "What did you do if you thought they weren't (getting it)?"
- "Why isn't it working?"

Questions encouraged interns to revisit their instruction, considering what they had noticed. They invited analysis and then encouraged interns to apply their new learning. Although less frequently mentioned than questioning during reflection, mentors also discussed the role of asking questions during planning

conversations. One mentor pointed out the importance of asking not just "What are you going to do," but also "How would you do it?" According to mentors, questions such as, "Why are you teaching this lesson?" and "What are your expectations?" supported well-developed lessons by encouraging interns to focus on lesson objectives and how they would be measured in addition to the learning experiences that would get them there.

Specificity promotes growth.　　Mentors found that, in order to be effective, the questions they asked needed to be specific. "When we try to have those conversations it's just like when your kid gets home from school," a mentor commented. She continued, "I had to ask a lot of questions to get something of substance to talk about." Similarly, another mentor said, "In the beginning, she would just say, 'It was fine.' I would go, 'Well, tell me. I want to know, you know, how does this person treat you and how did it go with your group discussion independently?' I just kind of had to delve deeper." Describing similar discussions, another mentor said, "I had to ask more probing questions to get it out of her." A mentor described how she started writing questions down in advance so that she was prepared when her intern gave generic responses. "That made her aware of what I was talking about when I asked for reflection," she reported. Comments from other mentors affirmed that asking questions can support interns' independent reflection. "When you're reflecting, don't just think it went fine. You think about what you could change."

Mentors described how their questions could be more open as interns became more proficient at planning and reflecting. Such questions were "leaving it open and framed for ideas." At the end of their student teaching, some interns appeared to no longer need their mentors' prompts. "It was really kind of funny," said one mentor. "She would just kind of cut me off and start talking about the lesson." Asking questions seemed to help interns internalize the planning and reflecting processes. As one mentor described, "For you to learn and continue to grow, you need to be asking *yourself* those questions."

An unnatural move.　　Although mentors frequently described making recommendations as a mentoring move that came easily, asking questions was more difficult to put into practice, as reflected in this comment:

> *"It's easy to model and it's easy to recommend but it's harder to see a need and phrase it as in a question. Besides just recommending something, [you have] to stop, to hold back your own opinion and give her the opportunity to express her own opinion."*

Another mentor similarly expressed, "The hardest thing for me was letting go. The questioning. I could recommend all day long, because I know what to do. I know the process, and so that letting go was just, you know, hard. That's where my struggle comes in."

Although mentors recognized the importance of questioning to support the growth of students in their own classroom, it was difficult for them to generalize this skill to asking reflective and probing questions of their interns. "If you ask me to question my kids, well…But questioning an adult...that was just my struggle…. That's where my weakness was, is asking "why." Similarly, when introduced to asking questions as a mentoring strategy, a mentor said, "I don't think I have asked this type of question to my intern." Then another teacher added, "We do this type of questioning all the time when we do CGI (Cognitively Guided Instruction) with students, why didn't it occur to do this type of questioning for our interns?"

Insight and growth.   Although mentors felt that questioning was a more difficult mentoring move to put into practice, they described benefits for both themselves and their interns. A mentor commented that asking questions helped her see, "What does she bring to the table?" Another said, "It helps me to see where she's at…and the areas that she had grown." In addition to providing evidence of aptitude and growth, mentors felt it pointed the direction forward. "It would help me have more insight into areas where she needed to go next," a mentor commented.

Asking questions built interns' abilities while providing assistance. A mentor described how asking questions gave interns "opportunities to try and figure it out on their own and being there with them." As mentors asked questions, they were available to scaffold their interns' responses and support success. Rather than "just telling them what to do," questioning "validated what she, herself, was giving" and "made her go deeper." One mentor recounted "an ah-hah moment for (her intern)" It occurred through a lengthy sequence of questioning about the purpose for a research activity she was teaching. The mentor's questions focused on the big understandings of the project, what the intern was hoping students would learn, and what evidence she needed of that learning. Through this process, the intern realized that "she had this big to-do list" for her students and herself that was not relevant to the projects' objectives. The mentor described the insight her intern gained as "earth shattering," but she said, "At the same time I think it was a relief." This scenario illustrates the potential for questioning to help interns look at their teaching in new ways. As stated by a mentor, "To me, when you question, it makes a lasting impression on them. They have to think."

Not in isolation.   Although questioning became the dominant mentoring move at times during the second and third rotations, it did not occur in isolation from other mentoring moves. For example, in the scenario above about an intern's research project, the mentor reported that she gave recommendations after her intern had realized the need to refocus her lesson. Another mentor said, "Even within (the questioning phase) there's so much affirming and praising going on; to some degree, I don't really feel like its maybe as linear." These comments illustrate that, although dominant mentoring moves can be identified, mentoring is iterative as the different approaches of the GIR model are used together to support interns' growth.

Discussion

Mentoring using the Gradual Increase of Responsibility Model appeared to facilitate instructional change for student teachers with different ranges of proficiency by allowing for appropriation of ideas through modeling and the dialogic interactions of recommending, questioning, affirming, and praising. By varying their mentoring approach depending on knowledge of the learner, mentors facilitated their interns' instructional decision-making and reflection based on learners' needs.

As depicted in Figure 5, mentoring cycles were iterative and expanding, with questioning included beginning with the second placement. The data

Model-Recommend-Question-Affirm-Praise

Model-Recommend-Question-Affirm

Model-Recommend-Affirm
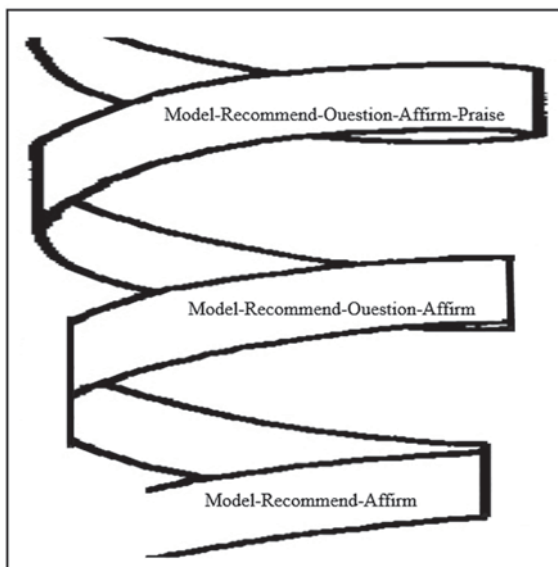
Figure 5. Expanding roles of mentors

instantiates the variable mediation provided by mentors as interns' competencies were emerging and the mentor leveraged interns' abilities by providing support that changed to match teachers' increasing ability.

A less intuitive mentoring move.   Findings suggest that asking questions may not be a support that mentors intuitively use. In this study, the GIR model served as a reminder to let go of recommending, a mentoring move which mentors reported came more automatically. Use of the model is thus recommended as a way to encourage mentors to increase the responsibility they are giving interns for instructional decision-making and reflection by asking questions. This is important since research suggests that mentors may not adjust the support they provide over time to adjust to their mentees changing needs (Hibbert, Heydon, & Rich, 2008; MacGillivray, Sassiter Ardell, Sauceda Curwen, & Palma 2004).

Questioning once interns gain experience.   Although asking questions may be used effectively throughout the mentoring process, the findings suggest that questioning will be more effective after interns have had some teaching experience. When interns have a limited range of experiences to consider, responses to questions about instructional decision-making may be constrained (Kohler, Henning, & Usma-Wilches, 2008). Interns need to have their own practice to draw from when their mentors prompt and probe.

Questioning to support planning and reflection.   Once interns have their own repertoire of experiences to draw from, mentors can be encouraged to use asking questions as a dominant mentoring move. As opposed to recommending, a mentoring move during which mentors provide teaching options, questioning gives interns responsibility for generating their own instructional ideas. Table 1 lists questions that could be used to support interns as they make instructional decisions during the planning process.

TABLE 1
Questions and Question Stems to Support Reflection

Questions to revisit instruction
What did you notice?
What did you notice about students' thinking?
Were their times when students seemed lost? What did you do about it?
When were students less attentive? Why?
When were students most engaged? What caused it?
When did you feel successful today?
Did you have any "light bulb" moments today? Did your kids?
What surprised you today?
What was something that went totally different than you anticipated?

Questions to invite analysis

What stands out in students' work?"

What are your hunches about what may have caused…?

What did students learn? How do you know?

What might be going on here?

What might have happened if…

Questions to solidify discoveries

What insights can you take from this?

So what do you want to stay mindful of as you're planning?

What would have to change…

What do you want to be sure to do during the next lesson?

Similarly, asking questions can encourage interns to recognize instructional successes and shortcomings themselves, rather than receiving these evaluations from their mentors. In this way, interns internalize reflective practices. Table 2 lists questions that could be used to support interns as they reflect on instruction.

TABLE 2
Questions and Question Stems to Support Planning

Questions about lesson objectives

What important concepts are you hoping your students will take away from the unit (lesson)?

What will you see and hear your students doing if they reach this learning goal?

Questions about assessment

How have you assessed students' understanding of these concepts in the past?

What might help you assess your students' understanding of these concepts?

Questions about engagement

How will you grab students' attention in a purposeful way?

What personal connections could they make?

What needs to happen so that students recognize the importance of the work?

Questions about learning experiences

What learning experiences might help students move in this direction?

What have you been considering? What else have you been considering?

Can you remember some past students who really improved in this area? What lead to their improvements?

If you were planning this lesson just for (student), what would you do?

If you had twice as much time (or half as much), what would you do?

Other questions

What support might your students need?

What might the benefits be?

What are some other ways that might be done?

How will today's learning connect with what students did yesterday and what they need to be able to do tomorrow? How will you make students aware of these connections?

Questioning changes over time.   Our findings suggest that, initially, mentors may need to probe for specificity in order for questioning to be effective in supporting instructional decision-making and reflection. This finding aligns with implications from discourse analysis of teacher-mentor interactions that indicated open questions might not support reflection (Kim & Silver, 2016). Questions that are general in nature may at first lead to unproductive responses that only scratch the surface of the complex teaching-learning process. Asking specific questions can lead interns to plan and reflect in ways that lead to positive change. As interns begin to internalize the planning and reflective processes, however, mentors could ask questions that are more general, allowing interns the opportunity to make their own thinking specific. Asking questions can help interns develop productive habits for planning and reflecting.

Questioning as part of a mentor's repertoire.   Our findings suggest that mentors can effectively use *asking questions* as the dominant coaching move once interns have gained some teaching experience, and that the need for questioning diminishes as interns internalize the planning and reflective processes. Questioning takes prominence in the middle of a mentoring cycle. However, in our study this mentoring move was not limited to this stage. Mentors reported that they asked questions throughout all phases of mentoring; however, the primacy of this mentoring move changed relative to other moves in the GIR model (modeling, recommending, affirming and praising). When interns had little experience, although questions were asked, modeling and recommending were the dominant coaching moves. Later, as interns gained proficiency, they needed less support, and affirming and praising became dominant moves, with questions taking less prominence.

Limitations and Implications

This study is limited to two groups of student teaching interns (n=19) and their mentors (n=30) participating in either a four-year undergraduate elementary certification or a five-year graduate elementary certification experience in an

urbanized area in the southern United States. These interns had a yearlong student-teaching experience, rather than the semester-long internship more typical at universities in the United States (Ronfeldt & Reininger, 2012). These characteristics limit direct transferability of findings; however, recommendations relevant to practice and future research are implied.

Because mentors found the GIR model and conferring guide helpful as a "road map" that provided direction for where their mentoring should lead, the model is recommended for use in supporting interns' mentors. Additionally, use of the conferring guide (Appendix A) is recommended, as mentors found that its use encouraged differentiated mentoring and increased the effectiveness of mentoring conversations.

Asking questions is a mentoring move that may be used profitably throughout the student teaching experience. However, in order for questioning to be an effective dominant mentoring move, interns need foundational knowledge about students, classroom routines, and curriculum. Findings imply that mentors should gradually shift to asking questions as a dominant mentoring move as interns gain knowledge, expertise, and experience about the classroom context. Decisions about which mentoring move to use should be based on needs of individual interns.

As interns gain competence, questioning can be used to help them plan, reflect and recognize areas for improvement. Because the specificity of questions was found to influence their effectiveness, mentors are encouraged to ask specific, probing questions initially. More open questions can be effectively used as interns become more proficient with planning and reflecting. Because mentoring was found to be a beneficial mentoring move, but one that mentors felt was difficult for them to effectively utilize, training in use of this strategy is recommended.

Although mentors in our study reported that *asking questions* required more intentional planning than other mentoring moves, findings suggest that questioning builds habits of effective planning and reflection for student teaching interns as they take on increased responsibility in the classroom.

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Appendix A

G.I.R. Conferring Guide

Conference Plan for Gradual Increase of Responsibility (GIR)

Dependence ⟶ Interdependence

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Model ⟶ Recommend ⟶ Question ⟶ Affirm ⟶ Praise
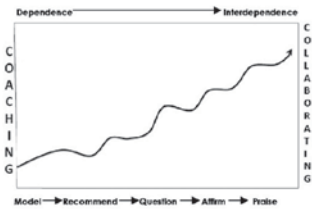
Intern's Name _____

Date _____

Focus _____

Mark on the model to the left where the teacher may be for this focus.

Check coaching practices you might use:

Modeling	Recommending	Questioning	Affirming	Praising
☐ Provide a video ☐ Model in conference ☐ Model with students	☐ Teaching strategy ☐ Content or skills being taught ☐ Developmental processes ☐ Standards/the curriculum	Promote reflection: ☐ What stood out? ☐ Why did you...... Promote analysis: ☐ What makes you think that..... ☐ What might the benefits be? ☐ What are some other ways........	☐ Validate practice ☐ Agree with plan ☐ Confirm information	☐ Commend practice ☐ Praise plan ☐ Applaud knowledge

Other things to stay mindful of:

_____
_____
_____
_____

Notes during coaching session:

_____
_____
_____
_____
_____
_____
_____
_____

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Appendix B

Semi-Structured Mentor Interview Protocol

What areas did you see the most growth in for (your intern)?

What areas do you see the most need in for (your intern)?

What helped you in your role as a mentor?

In what ways did you turn teaching responsibility over to your intern during this placement?

What role did modeling play as you mentored your intern?

What role did making recommendations play as you mentored your intern?

What role did asking questions play as you mentored your intern?

What role did affirming play as you mentored your intern?

What role did offering praise play as you mentored your intern?

How did you decide which mentoring move to use the most each week?

What guided you as you thought about how to adjust the support you provided your intern?

Was the support provided by the university (and the university liaison) helpful in deciding how to turn teaching responsibility over to interns? In what ways was support provided by the university (and the university liaison) helpful in deciding how to support your intern?

What role did training in the GIR model play as you turned responsibility over to your intern?

Talk about your use of the GIR Conferencing plan.

Appendix C

Semi-Structured Intern Interview Protocol

What helped you in your role as a student-teaching intern?

In what ways did you take on teaching responsibility during this placement?

What guided you as you thought about how to take on more teaching responsibility during your internship?

Did the support your mentor provided change over the course of each placement? How?

What role did your mentor's modeling play in your internship?

What role did your mentor's recommendations play in your internship?

What role did your mentor's questions play in your internship?

What role did your mentor's affirmations play in your internship?

What role did you mentor's praise play in your internship?

Social-Emotional Learning as a Vehicle for Vocabulary Acquisition: A Review of Recent Literature

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Abstract

To comprehend the ideals and perspectives of others in a socially just education, children must first be able to understand their emotions and social interactions. In the present study, we reviewed research articles aimed at exploring how social-emotional literacy could be taught through literature. Our specific focus included ways to teach children vocabulary for communicating emotions, guided by reading experiences where characters confront conflict. An initial search uncovered 65 articles, with only five classified as intervention studies. Ultimately, we identified five themes present across these studies, guiding future research and practice for integrating literacy and social-emotional learning to promote social justice in young children.

Introduction

Promoting social justice begins when children are very young. To comprehend the ideals and perspectives of others, children must first be able to understand their emotions and social interactions. Understanding one's own feelings, emotions, and their impact on others is social-emotional competence (Reyes, Brackett, Rivers, Elbertson, & Salovey, 2012). Children can develop social-emotional competence through reading texts with children engaging in conflict resolution.

165

For example, in *Spaghetti in a Hotdog Bun* by Maria Dismondy, a young girl encounters a bully who teases her about the food she eats, her natural curly hair, and the clothing she wears. She learns how to interact with the bully, and the bully learns a new perspective about a peer he did not take the time to respect or understand. These are social-emotional skills taught through a children's book. In this way, social-emotional learning and literacy are intricately linked (Jones, Brown, & Aber, 2011).

Social justice, social-emotional competence, and literacy may seem to be three unrelated concepts, but they work together in harmony to develop children into lifelong learners and advocates. For children to become productive members of society, they must internalize the ability to empathize with others. Empathy allows children to think critically about social situations, connect their knowledge to real world experiences, and understand and debate diverse perspectives (Cochran-Smith, Gleeson, & Mitchell, 2010). Literacy instruction provides a logical platform for increasing students' empathy and building students' awareness of social justice issues (Comber, 2015; Williamson, 2017). Primarily, literacy instruction can expose students to various experiences, perspectives, and diverse people. Within safe reading environments, children can understand how they might react to specific situations. When children experience those situations in life, they have a schema from which to understand and evaluate the situation (Author, 2015). Thus, literacy includes children's ability to create meaning from their reading experiences and apply their new understanding to life experiences (Figueroa-Sanchez, 2008).

When social-emotional competence is taught, it is called social-emotional learning. Social-emotional learning includes developing social, cognitive, developmental, and language skills appropriate to interacting with others and resolving conflict (Figueroa-Sanchez, 2008). According to Wigelsworth, Humphrey, Kalambouka, & Lendrum (2010), much discussion currently surrounds the definition for "social-emotional learning". Social-emotional competence includes three fundamental skills: (1) self-awareness, or understanding one's own emotions; (2) self-management, or the ability to regulate one's emotional outcomes; and (3) social awareness, or the ability to understand others' emotions and empathize with them (Denham, 2006; Wiglesworth, et al., 2010). Therefore, social-emotional learning is the process through which children learn self-awareness, self-management, and social awareness of emotions.

In the present study, we reviewed literature regarding how social-emotional literacy could be taught through literature. Our focus was specifically on ways to teach children vocabulary appropriate to communicating emotions, guided by reading experiences in which characters confront conflict. In the following

sections, we review the linkage between social-emotional learning and literature before we detail themes present in the research.

Teaching Social-Emotional Learning through Literature

The need to teach social-emotional competence often arises in special education to help children acquire skills and strategies for interacting with their peers and navigating social situations. However, as children's literature focuses more and more on unique contemporary childhood challenges, social-emotional learning can be integrated into literacy education.

As society's childhood views have progressed from seeing children as mini adults to now acknowledging childhood as a distinct and critical development period (Tunnell & Jacobs, 2013), children's literature has also evolved. Specifically, children's literature no longer simply teaches children morals (Tunnell & Jacobs, 2013), but focuses on situations and conflicts central to childhood. Increasingly, children's literature represents themes such as solving conflicts with bullies, accepting oneself and others, appreciating cultures, and celebrating differences.

Furthermore, as education increasingly promotes diversity, inclusivity, and multiculturalism, children's literature has developed to support multiple dimensions of children's development. However, teachers hold the key to tailoring the message found in the literature to support students' emotional development. McTigue and colleagues (2015) stated, "literature teaches readers about the social world and how to navigate through difficult emotions" (p. 92). In their study, McTigue, Douglass, Wright, Hodges, & Franks, 2015 (2015), asked children to read children's fiction texts and consider the primary conflict from the two different characters' perspectives. Often, the characters were not in agreement, requiring students to shift their perspective to understand why each character felt and reacted the way they did. When children change their perspectives, students can consider both conflict sides and develop a more compassionate and empathetic response to how the conflict was resolved. Considering different characters' perspectives demonstrates social-emotional competence and can be transferred to situations in the students' lives, once the reading experience is complete.

Moreover, Ivey and Johnston (2013) found "features of contemporary text, such as multiple narrators, shifting perspectives, and multimodalities, invite readers to consider varied viewpoints on personal and social problems, including those normally underrepresented" (p. 257). Again, perspective-taking supports utilizing social-emotional learning with literacy through authentic

reading experiences. In their study, Ivey and Johnston (2013) examined the students in four English teachers' classrooms. The English teachers abandoned a whole-class novel mentality and instead allowed students to self-select their own texts based on relevancy and engagement. The students in the study reported developing new relationships with peers through their conversations around the literature they chose to read, often by recommending books to their peers then discussing their unique viewpoints on the novels. Second, the students reported expanded their social imagination, or "ability to imagine what is going on in others' minds and to imagine the logic of social interaction" (Ivey & Johnston, 2013, p. 262). Both examples show how reading children's literature can foster social-emotional competence.

Theory of Mind Framework

Research on how literacy and social-emotional learning are connected is supported by Theory of Mind (ToM), which describes children's ability to understand mental states or emotions (Thirion-Marissiaux & Nader-Grosbois, 2008). Moreover, ToM supports students' social cognition development, which is their ability to navigate social interactions and situations (McTigue et al., 2015; Thirion-Marissiaux & Nader-Grosbois, 2008). The idea of integrating ToM with literacy development makes sense then, as literature is a forum through which students can be exposed to various belief systems, experiences, and conflict-resolution scenarios in a safe environment (McTigue et al., 2015). In other words, ToM builds children's emotional intelligence, which is their "ability to reason out and use emotions to enhance thought more effectively" (Mayer, Salovey, & Caruso, 2008).

ToM goes beyond just emotional literacy. ToM can be used to teach both cognitive and affective domains from both interpersonal and intrapersonal perspectives (Westby & Robinson, 2014). First, ToM develops students' cognitive knowledge about the world around them. Children learn new information in an intrapersonal way when they relate the new knowledge learned to their individual schema. For example, if a little girl at the zoo sees a rhinoceros for the first time, she solidifies her schema by explaining a rhinoceros is an animal with a horned nose and grey, leathery skin. If a caregiver or adult asks the little girl, what other children might think the animal is or how other children would describe the rhinoceros, the adult is now teaching the cognitive, interpersonal skills. Now, the little girl is relating the new information others' perceptions (interpersonal; Westby & Robinson, 2014). Both intrapersonal and interpersonal skills can be taught with the affective domain as well. For example, in the study by McTigue

and colleagues (2015) study, when the researchers asked students to consider each characters' feelings and emotions, the affective interpersonal domain was taught. Children considered what others were feeling and thinking. In a situation where a caregiver asks children what they personally think or feel about a situation, the affective intrapersonal domain would be the focus. Asking children to consider cognitive and emotional information from both interpersonal and intrapersonal viewpoints develops students' social-emotional learning.

Research also reveals a strong connection between ToM and prosocial behavior, or behaviors that positively develop compassionate relationships with others. In a meta-analysis of prosocial behaviors, researchers found that children over the age of six who could consider what others were thinking and feeling were more likely to act prosocially (Imuta, Henry, Slaughter, Selcuk, & Ruffman, 2016). This meta-analysis looked at 76 studies and more than 6,000 children. The findings indicated that children with higher scores on ToM measures acted more prosocially by engaging in activities such as comforting, helping, and cooperating (Imuta et al., 2016). Interestingly, the researchers note that language development played an important role in the findings but could not be parsed out specifically. Therefore, language development through reading could also play a major role in ToM and emotional competence development.

How children develop emotional competence is still being researched. However, there is research indicating children learn about emotions and learn how to adapt to social situations through reading stories (Widen, Pochedly, & Russell, 2015). Widen and colleagues (2015) found that children were better able to identify the emotions of others and recognize how people were feeling through storytelling, rather than face recognition. While research has consistently shown that children exposed to fiction develop higher-order thinking skills related to emotional competence, a recent replication study found that effects are strongest over a lifetime of reading fiction (Panero et al., 2016). In other words, children who read fiction often are more likely to develop strong emotional competence, as opposed to children who do not read fiction often. This finding indicates that reading fiction should occur throughout life, as children develop and move into adulthood.

In summary, ToM supports the idea that children learn about social behaviors, emotional language, and prosocial actions through literature. We believe that teachers can harness these skills by engaging students in thoughtful discussions of literature that specifically addresses social conflicts students may encounter (i.e., bullying, acceptance of others, and acceptance of self). Additionally, reading literature can develop emotional competence which can lead to children who are more aware of social justice concerns as adults.

Rationale for the Current Literature Review

Literacy development links to building social-emotional awareness (McTigue et al., 2015). When children read literature widely, they develop skills for engaging in social interactions (Imuta et al., 2016; Panero et al., 2016; Widen et al., 2015). Through literature, children can experience the emotions and complex social situations of characters in a safe environment. With proper instruction, children can then adapt the lessons they learn from those interactions to their own social situations later in life. For example, when reading *Chrysanthemum* by Kevin Henkes, children learn to accept themselves from a positive perspective. Specifically, a young mouse named Chrysanthemum learns to love her name and identify the positive qualities she possesses. This lesson is relevant to many children who may experience bullying or self-doubt related to their identity. By learning about this situation through a text and engaging in thoughtful discussions with competent adults, children can learn how to use those lessons in authentic situations later in their lives.

While many factors exist for developing social-emotional competence through literature, we are most interested in how interventions develop vocabulary. McTigue and colleagues (2015) found that one student, in particular, benefited from explicit vocabulary instruction. The student understood social situations in the literature she was reading but struggled to communicate the emotions. When she was taught specific vocabulary for the complex emotions (i.e., disappointed, courageous), she was able to express her understanding of the social situations better and her reading comprehension improved. Additionally, other researchers (Imuta et al., 2016) have hypothesized that language development may be the missing link between how children develop perspective-taking skills and prosocial behaviors.

In our research on social-emotional awareness, we found a clear gap in the research literature. Specifically, we wondered how educational researchers linked social-emotional competence, reading literature, and learning vocabulary for emotions. We found few studies that integrated these factors in intervention studies and did not find an existing review of the relevant literature. Therefore, we sought to fill this research gap by analyzing the recent literature, which emphasized developing social-emotional competence through literature in intervention studies. Our research question was, "How are social-emotional skills developed through teaching emotional vocabulary from literature in elementary classrooms (i.e., K-6)?" With this broad question, we targeted interventions that assessed both social-emotional competence and literacy outcomes in elementary grades, defined as kindergarten through grade six. Additionally, we emphasized

vocabulary development as previous studies have alluded to a link between social-emotional competence and vocabulary development, though to date a definite does not exist.

Method

In the following sections, we describe the search and selection procedures for finding relevant existing literature regarding: (a) social-emotional intervention studies using children's literature; (b) the intervention results on social-emotional competence; and (c) literacy outcomes gained through the use children's literature focused on social-emotional skills.

Inclusion and Exclusion Criteria

We used four criteria for selecting studies. First, we selected social-emotional studies published in peer-reviewed journals due to their stringent peer evaluation procedures, resulting in more descriptive intervention study explanations. Second, studies included participants in second through sixth grades. Third, studies described social-emotional interventions using children's literature to teach social-emotional skills. Finally, intervention studies needed to include child outcomes addressing both social-emotional and reading development skills.

Social-emotional intervention studies were defined as any study imposing social-emotional and literacy instruction using children's literature as one treatment component, on at least part of the participant pool. For example, single-case design and experimental studies were included. Furthermore, if an article did not specifically use the terms "social-emotional", but alluded to social-emotional skills, we added it. For example, if an article focused on reading books to build vocabulary skills for problem-solving, we included it; as problem-solving is an SEL skill. However, if the article did not clearly emphasize SEL skills, we did not add it unless the article specifically utilized the term "social-emotional" or one of its synonyms.

We defined literacy measurements as vocabulary, reading comprehension, and/or writing. For example, shared reading and/or dialogic reading intervention studies were included if the focus was on building social-emotional competence and literacy skills. If studies focused only on the strategy and did not include measures for both SEL and literacy, they were omitted. Articles were excluded if they were meta-analyses; however, we did pull articles used in published meta-analyses on the topic.

Search Strategies

We used three search types to identify key articles: (a) an electronic database key term search; (b) a search of frequently occurring author names; and (c) a reference search for additional key literature.

For the first search type, we identified frequently found terms describing children's ability to identify, understand, express, and manage emotions as "social-emotional," "socio emotional," "social emotional," "emotional literacy," and "prosocial." Second, we chose additional search terms required to identify interventions addressing literacy. We selected literacy terms such as, "emotional vocabulary," "reading intervention," "dialogic reading," and "children's literature" based on a broad read of the literature about social-emotional instruction. Third, we entered social-emotional and literacy terms into electronic database search engines from 2000-2015. The university based library system searched the following databases: Sciencedirect, Sage Premier, PsycINFO, PubMed, PsycARTICLES, MEDLINE Complete, JSTOR, HaPI, ERIC, Education Research Complete, Dynamed, Cochrane, CINAHL, and Academic Search Premier.

Second, we conducted a search for common authors' names from 2000-2015. We selected the names based on literature found in the first search. Based on their field of research and previous publications, we searched the following authors: Rivers, Fuchs, Aram, Salovey, and Brackett. For the third search, we manually reviewed studies' reference lists for literature that did not surface during our first two searches.

Three search types identified 65 results. For each of the 65 results, we read the abstracts and eliminated studies not meeting our initial criteria. Finally, we read the remaining articles' full text to determine if they continued to meet our standards. After reviewing 65 articles, we found five intervention studies meeting the inclusion criteria.

Dwindling 65 possible articles to only five is both disappointing and invigorating for the literacy field. First, we hoped to find more intervention studies that addressed both literacy and social-emotional competence; however, this connection between general education and special education was not prominent in the literature. We found the majority of studies emphasized either literacy development or social-emotional competence but did not cross the two components. Additionally, most of the studies did not constitute interventions. We chose specifically to only address intervention studies, as those would show controlled results that could be compared and replicated by future researchers. Second, we found the result of five studies invigorating because it shows a clear pathway for future research in the field. We found this finding to be a positive opportunity for general education and special education researchers to work together with

classroom teachers. Because we did not find many intervention studies, there is quite a bit of work for educational researchers to do in building this research base. Finally, researchers and teachers can integrate social-emotional development and literature by building on the work of non-intervention studies already created. In short, the field has done some great work but still has opportunities for growth.

Data Analyses Procedures

After identifying five relevant articles using the above search and selection process, we developed a coding matrix that included participant information (e.g., grade level, SES, ethnicity), reading skills addressed in the intervention (e.g., definition of reading skills, how reading was measured), study design information (e.g., before/after measurement, setting, who conducted intervention), intervention (e.g., key features, frequency, duration, results), technology (e.g., how it was used, by whom), emotional literacy (e.g., terms, definition, how measured). We reviewed each article and added the article's data to the coding matrix to allow for comparisons across articles; see Table 1 for a blank example of the coding matrix. Due to space requirements we could not include the completed matrix.

Nvivo coding. To identify general themes not related to the studies' design, we used qualitative software. First, we uploaded all five intervention articles to Nvivo. Then, we performed a key term query across all articles. After we identified key terms, the authors manually checked other articles for the context of the same theme. If we found unique themes or frequently occurring themes, we created a node. Finally, we compared the Nvivo results to our manual coding, ensuring all appropriate codes were located. Using these nodes and codes, we discovered five themes present in the literature. These five themes are described in detail in the following section.

TABLE 1
Example Literature Review Coding Matrix

	Citations		
Coding a Criteria	**Study 1**	**Study 2**	**Study 3**
What theoretical framework was used? Cognitive or affective perspective?			
Participants Participant grade level Participant SES & ethnicity What was the sample size?			

Coding a Criteria	Citations		
	Study 1	Study 2	Study 3
Reading Skills Addressed			
How article defines reading skills assessed?			
How was reading comprehension measured?			
1 = standardized test; 2 = existing grades/evaluations; 3 = published reading assessment; 4 = study specific measurement			
How were other reading skills measured			
1 = self-report; 2 = teacher/parent report 3 = published measure; 4 = study specific measure; 5 = observations			
Study Design			
Were before/after measures used?			
1 = yes 2 = no			
Was a control group used?			
1 = yes 2 = no			
What was the setting of the study?			
1 = in class, 2 = in school-outside of class			
3 = clinic, 4 = other			
How were students evaluated?			
1 = individual 2 = small group 3 = full class 4 = school wide 5 = other (specify)			
Intervention conducted by			
1 = Teacher, 2 = Researcher, 3 = Parent			
What was the research design?			
1 = random 2 = quasi random 3 = non random			

Coding a Criteria	Citations		
	Study 1	**Study 2**	**Study 3**
Intervention			
Describe the intervention			
(be sure to include study purpose/goal)			
What are the results of the intervention?			
Frequency of intervention			
How long is each session?			
Duration of the study			
1 = one week or less; 2 = one month or less; 3 = one marking period or less; 4 = one semester/summer or less; 5 = one school year or less; or 6 = more than school year			
Technology			
Was any technology used?			
How was the technology incorporated?			
Who primarily used the technology?			
1 = teachers; 2 = students; 3 = research team; 4 = other			
Emotional Literacy Terminology			
How is emotional literacy addressed?			
What emotional literacy terms are used?			
How is the term defined?			
How is emotional literacy or social-emotional competence measured?			

Results

The authors of the five studies developed interventions including literacy elements to develop social-emotional competencies (see Table 2 for a summary of each study).

TABLE 2
Description of Social-Emotional and Literacy Integrated Intervention Studies

	(Aram & Aviram, 2009)	(Aram & Shapira, 2012)	(Brackett, Rivers, Reyes, & Salovey, 2012)	(Daunic et al., 2013)	(Kumschick et al., 2014)
Description	Researchers collected data from the mothers on their reading to children. They compared adult outcomes to child outcomes to determine the influence each had on the other.	Researchers collected data on mothers' literacy activity frequency with children. Child reading and SEL information was collected and compared to children's SEL and reading skills.	Researchers designed a pilot effectiveness study to examine the impact of RULER in real world conditions with minimal contact with the program developers.	Researchers sought to (a) determine if small-group SEL intervention and literacy instruction is feasible, (b) pilot implementation protocols, and (c) collect preliminary data examining the links between the intervention and social outcomes.	Researchers designed the intervention to promote emotional competence and to evaluate the effectiveness of the READING and FEELING program.

The studies employed different designs, measurement tools, and interventions. In the following paragraphs, we describe our findings related to the study designs, measurement, and how each integrated literacy and social-emotional development.

Five key intervention features warrant a short discussion (see Table 3). These five intervention features (i.e., small group, storybook reading, published curriculum, puppets, and technology) were used alone, in combination with each other, or was not present at all. All three studies using small group instruction were the same studies that used a published curriculum (Brackett, Rivers, Reyes, & Salovey, 2012; Daunic et al., 2013; Kumschick et al., 2014). Four studies utilized storybook reading (Aram & Aviram, 2009; Aram & Shapira, 2012; Daunic et al., 2013; Kumschick et al., 2014). One study utilized puppets (Daunic et al., 2013) within a published curriculum utilizing small group instruction and storybook reading. Finally, technology was not integrated in the interventions for any of the five studies reviewed.

The first feature, small group instruction, impacts children's academic achievement by providing them opportunities to work together and learn from each other. These three studies (Brackett, Rivers, Reyes, & Salovey, 2012; Daunic et al., 2013; Kumschick et al., 2014). provided opportunities for to learn from their more knowledgeable peers (Vygotsky, 1978). Additionally, small group instruction allows teachers to reduce the teacher-student ratio while not teaching children in isolation.

TABLE 3
Intervention Design of Social-Emotional and Literacy Integrated Intervention Studies

	(Aram & Aviram, 2009)	(Aram & Shapira, 2012)	(Brackett, Rivers, Reyes, & Salovey, 2012)	(Daunic et al., 2013)	(Kumschick et al., 2014)
Intervention Features					
Small Group	-	-	✓	✓	✓
Storybook Reading	✓	✓	-	✓	✓
Published Curriculum	-	-	✓	✓	✓
Puppet Use	-	-	-	✓	-
Technology	-	-	-	-	-
Intervention Lead By					
Parent	✓	✓	-	-	-
Researcher	-	-	✓	✓	✓

The intervention design used most (i.e., four of the five total studies) was storybook reading. Reading storybooks can develop children's motivation and value for reading (Shanahan & Shanahan, 1997). Two of the four studies using storybook reading (Aram & Aviram, 2009; Aram & Shapira, 2012) based social-emotional development on individual interactions between caregivers and children. Aram and colleagues (2009 & 2012) described a caregiver and child reading, looking, and discussing books as shared book reading. This particular intervention has been successful in promoting young children's vocabulary acquisition (Ezell & Justice, 2005; Hargrave & Sénéchal, 2000; Whitehurst & Lonigan, 1998). Additionally, shared book reading develops students' empathy while developing language and literacy skills.

Third, all five studies included a focus on vocabulary, either through instruction or measurement. In terms of other literacy skills, one study (Aram & Shapira, 2012) emphasized alphabetic knowledge while two other studies developed comprehension (Daunic et al., 2013; Kumschick et al., 2014).

When we looked specifically at social-emotional development, we found three studies focused on building empathy (Brackett et al., 2012; Daunic et al., 2013; Kumschick et al., 2014). Additionally, two studies provided opportunities for students to engage in problem solving (Brackett et al., 2012; Daunic et al., 2013). Three studies worked to build students' self-regulation strategies and skills (Brackett et al., 2012; Daunic et al., 2013; Kumschick et al., 2014). When we look at these results holistically, we can see each study integrated literacy and social-emotional learning; the studies did favor one of those skills more. For example, three studies emphasized social-emotional skills, while two focused more on literacy skill.

Discussion

We found five themes present in the included studies: 1) children's literature impact on building vocabulary for social-emotional learning; 2) children's literature impact on increasing reading comprehension for social-emotional learning; 3) children's literature impact on building perspective-taking skills for social-emotional learning; 4) how strategies for increasing social-emotional competence influence students' academic development; and 5) literacy and social-emotional learning integration. We will discuss each theme further in the following sections and analyze how the selected studies revealed each them.

Impact of Children's Literature on Building Vocabulary for Social-Emotional Learning

The most prominent theme we located described how reading children's literature supported students' vocabulary for social-emotional learning. Specifically,

several studies included instruction related to empathy, describing character traits, and explaining how others are feeling. For example, Kumschick and colleagues (2014) structured their intervention to teach students about multi-levels of emotions such as masked feelings and mixed feelings. In this intervention, students were taught to identify when characters may be hiding how they feel, masked feelings. Simply looking at illustrations or reading the text cannot locate these feelings. Instead, students need to have background knowledge or experience from similar situations to identify the emotions. Additionally, the intervention taught students to recognize mixed feelings, in which characters are showing and experiencing more than one, often contrasting feelings. Children were taught the language surrounding the emotions, as well as how to identify those emotions within themselves and in others.

A second example of how children's literature builds on vocabulary for social-emotional learning is present in Daunic et al., (2013). In their intervention study, the researchers taught children five basic social-emotional competence principles: (1) self-awareness, (2) self-management, (3) social awareness, (4) relationship management, and (5) responsible decision making. The children developed these competencies by engaging in discussions with their teachers and other students. The discussions centered on storybooks the children read in small groups and identified specific situations from the text, including emotions the characters were feeling. In their results, Daunic and colleagues (2013) found children made behavioral adjustments and were better able to internalize their own as well as others' feelings and emotions. They used more precise language to explain the emotions, showing greater social-emotional competence.

Within the RULER intervention design, which helps students recognize, understand, label, express, and regulate emotions, children developed increased word comprehension relating to specific emotions (Brackett et al., 2012). In the RULER intervention, children first learned new vocabulary for feelings through instruction and discussion. Then, the students read texts and discussed how the characters may be expressing the feeling words they previously learned. Finally, students engaged in writing activities to reflect on a time they experienced the feeling. The intervention results indicate children who participated in RULER showed higher scores for social-emotional competence and increases in their ELA achievement, including their ability to name and utilize feeling vocabulary.

Finally, when considering shared book reading (Aram & Aviram, 2009; Aram & Shapira, 2012), researchers conclude home literacy activities lead to increased vocabulary knowledge. Children who read with caregivers and engage in literacy activities outside the home develop vocabulary more quickly and utilize their vocabulary knowledge more effectively.

In summary, when we evaluate the five studies together, we note all addressed how using children's literature could impact vocabulary development for social-emotional competence. While each study approached the task in a unique way, each revealed emotional vocabulary knowledge can be developed through reading and discussing literature. The key conclusion from this finding was reading alone does not increase emotional vocabulary. Instead, children need a vehicle for interacting with characters and speaking about why feelings and emotions are appropriate. They also need opportunities to consider how the emotions relate to their own lives. Strategies such as writing, discussions, and shared book reading can all help children make these connections.

Impact of Children's Literature on Increasing Reading Comprehension for Social-Emotional Learning

We found two interesting findings related to reading comprehension in the studies. First, only one study had a reading comprehension measure while all studies discussed links between vocabulary knowledge and reading comprehension. A reading comprehension measure was only included as a post-test measure that revealed moderate gains in the study conducted by Kumschick and company (2014). Importantly, this same study defined reading comprehension to be a child's ability to comprehend words, phrases, and entire texts (comprehensive reading). These results could not be definitively linked to the treatment, despite the careful link between the intervention and assessment.

Second, not all studies provided clear definitions for reading comprehension. For example, one study (Kumschick et al., 2014) described a child's ability to comprehend words, phrases, and entire texts to be reading comprehension. These findings are consistent with previous research and illuminate the struggle researchers have had in operationalizing reading comprehension. For example, two reading comprehension types are typically measured: 1) the strategies and procedures used by proficient readers, and 2) the knowledge of different text structure types (Gersten, Fuchs, Williams & Baker, 2001). Two studies measured students' problem-solving skills and found positive results which not only indicates gains in social-emotional skills but improved text structure (reading comprehension) knowledge (Daunic et al, 2013; Brackett et al., 2012). These findings indicate social-emotional learning may increase students' text structure awareness, which could result in greater achievement in reading comprehension and writing. Thus, we recommend future researchers link social-emotional problem solving to text structure evaluation as a reading comprehension measure.

Impact of Children's Literature on Building Perspective-Taking Skills for Social-Emotional Learning

Children need to develop perspective taking to demonstrate empathy (McTigue et al., 2015; Thirion-Marissiaux & Nader-Grosbois, 2008). Two studies included perspective taking in lessons provided in the intervention (Brackett, Rivers, Reyes, Salovey, 2012; Kumschick et al., 2014). One important aspect of RULER lessons was teaching children perspective taking, reflecting on how their actions may affect others (Brackett et al., 2012). Similarly, Kumschick and colleagues (2014) developed a Reading and Feeling program allowing children to evaluate the protagonist's perspective in stories. However, the Reading and Feeling program did not measure the intervention's effectiveness in advancing children's perspective taking skills. Other research has postulated empathy is learned through adult facilitated moral dilemma discussions where students are guided to understand another's perspective (McTigue et al., 2015, Upright, 2002). Therefore, we recommend future researchers use writing activities to measure children's ability to recognize, understand, and reflect upon how their actions or the character's actions within fictional text affect others.

How Strategies for Increasing Social-Emotional Competence Influences Students' Academic Development

Researchers link positive learning outcomes to social-emotional competence development (Denham & Brown, 2010; Raver & Knitzer, 2002). This literature review revealed academic learning outcome gains in vocabulary, language development, and English language arts (ELA) scores. Specifically, one study reported improvements in children's emotional vocabulary (Kumschick et al., 2014). This study sought to evaluate children's ability to analyze text; however, the researchers found no significant differences.

Second, the interventions linked language development to social-emotional learning; however, we must be cautious in attributed language improvements to only the interventions. Other factors such as parental involvement or teacher instructional practices could be mediating these results. Prior research supports book reading frequency as improving language development (e.g., van Kleeck & Stahl, 2003). Furthermore, research indicates that when children have better language development they tend to score better on initial test measures within an intervention (Daunic et al., 2013). Furthermore, when determining whether a language improvement is due to one intervention over another, we should examine the vocabulary quality within fictional text. Rich vocabulary and repeated vocabulary exposure when reading books enriches children's vocabulary

(DeTemple, 2001). In conclusion, while several studies show combining social-emotional learning with book reading improves language development; many external factors were also present. Future research should explore these relationships more closely to determine how book reading and social-emotional learning contribute to language development.

Third, higher academic performance in ELA scores existed for the treatment group using RULER (Brackett et al., 2012). These findings were similar to other research conducted by Durlak and colleagues (in press). Brackett and colleagues (2012) measured Math scores at the end of year and found no improvement. Linking learning outcomes to social-emotional competence was not proven true, when measuring math skills. Thus, we recommend researchers continue to explore links between social-emotional competence and academic outcome growth. In addition, we should consider not only proximal academic growth measures such as alphabetic principles and vocabulary but also distal academic growth measures such as reading comprehension and other content related measures. Therefore, simply reading and being exposed to letters and vocabulary do not enhance or improve children's alphabetic skill (Aram & Levin, 2002). Researchers need to better understand what specific instructional practices yield increases in alphabetic skills.

Integrating Literacy and Social-Emotional Learning

The studies we reviewed primarily addressed literacy through reading children's literature, which we analyzed in the first theme. However, the studies also utilized literacy in several unique ways including reflective writing, class debates, visual aid critiques, and development background knowledge. These activities address literacy skills related to writing, speaking, visualizing, and critiquing.

First, several studies utilized writing to help students consider their social-emotional awareness and relate new emotional knowledge to their own lives. For example, Brackett et al., (2012) asked students to create a reflective writing piece about a time they felt a specific emotion. In reflective writing activities, children are provided the opportunity to self-reflect and analyze their own feelings and experiences. When children are exposed to a new emotion, they may grapple with understanding it, particularly if they have never experienced it. Writing can help children think through their confusion and provide clear meaning to an abstract idea. Additionally, children may have experienced an emotion before but may not have had the terminology to describe it. Through writing, children can solidify their terminology understanding and apply that knowledge to previous

experiences. In these ways, writing can help students have empathy for others and evaluate their own social-emotional development.

Second, few studies utilized class debates to provide children with a forum for discussing and analyzing emotions. When children read alone, they only have their perspective to understand the characters' emotions. However, when they speak with others, they have an opportunity to learn from their peer and develop deeper emotional awareness. Again, these debates proved to be particularly useful when students had not experienced a specific emotion before. By hearing their peers' or adults' experiences (e.g., teachers and researchers), children could better understand their own emotions. For example, in Daunic et al., (2013), students were asked to discuss emotions with a partner and consider what they could do to help someone experiencing various emotions. These question types ask students to consider emotions from their own viewpoint and then apply that knowledge to helping someone else. Through these skills, children can learn to navigate social situations they may experience in the future.

Third, the RULER intervention focuses on helping students understand emotional visualizations. Pulling from the work of Marzano (2007), the visualization strategy asks students to create a visual vocabulary representation to provide another layer of helping students remember the concept. In RULER, students are taught a new vocabulary term related to emotions, then they are asked to create a visual emotion representation. Students then discuss and describe why their visualization accurately portrays the term. These skills build on children's media literacy skills and visualization skills. As adults shared images with children, they developed the skills to understand, create, and evaluate new vocabulary words. RULER blends children's literacy and social-emotional knowledge.

Finally, several studies help children build background knowledge for situations in which specific emotions may be felt or expressed. For example, in Daunic et al., (2013), children were provided time to develop their emotional vocabulary understanding. The students practiced identifying emotions, discussing them with peers, and engaging in dialogue around different emotion representations. Through these experiences, children learned the emotions on a deeper level and built a schema for how and when the emotions may appear.

By developing students writing, speaking, listening, and visualizing skills, the four social-emotional interventions discussed in this review also show contributions to literacy research. Several skills are combined through discussions, visual analysis, and reflective writing tasks. Teaching literacy and social-emotional literacy in unison can better develop young learners to be conscientious and empathetic young citizens.

The Significance of Emotional Vocabulary

As this review shows, understanding how children develop emotional vocabulary through literature is under-studied. Children's literature can be a vehicle for helping students understand the emotions of characters engaged in social interactions. When teachers thoughtfully teach and discuss those emotions, children can develop stronger social competence, which they can use in future interactions with peers. Moreover, if children continue developing their emotional vocabulary through reading fiction, they can better adapt to increasingly complex social situations.

In our ever-changing social and cultural climate, children need to develop skills that allow them to interact with others, globally and locally. Theory of Mind research suggests that children who develop stronger perspective-taking skills can better adjust to changing social situations positively and prosocially. In our review, we found that combining Theory of Mind, children's literature, and social-emotional competence could result in positive findings for teachers and students. When research linked social-emotional learning and literacy development, the results indicated stronger gains for children in prosocial behavior, academic achievement, and reading comprehension. These positive outcomes beg the field of educational research to further explore domains related to literacy and social-emotional learning.

As stated in the introduction of this review, social justice can also be fostered through teaching social-emotional competence and reading children's literature. More and more, children's literature addresses themes focused on accepting and engaging peers who are different positively. This positive development of children's literature offers many opportunities for teachers to instruct students through development of social-emotional competence. Looking forward, we believe that our review shows the need for interventions that emphasize social-emotional skills taught through literature. This is a positive outcome as it helps the field move forward to fill that gap.

Conclusion

The research on social-emotional development is sparse, especially when considering how children develop vocabulary for emotions. One limitation to the present review surrounds the dearth of literature found. While we located 65 studies matching most of our inclusion criteria, only five studies represented intervention studies. The literature review apprises the research community of the need for more rigorous research investigating specific instructional practices' impact on literacy and social-emotional outcomes. Both teachers and researchers can develop classroom practices to benefit students

Despite the lack of research linking literacy and social-emotional competence, the research we reviewed in the analysis is critical to the field. From this research, we found that children benefit from reading children's literature, discussing emotions, and engaging in various activities to develop their social-emotional competence. Future research has an opportunity to develop these studies further by implementing interventions with diverse populations, and considering additional literature and strategies proven to effectively increase children's social-emotional and literacy outcomes.

In conclusion, researchers know intertwining literacy development with social-emotional development yields positive rewards for teachers and students. Therefore, teachers should consider ways to integrate both into their classroom settings. Creating more empathetic and socially just young learners may help to build a greater community of respect. Children can develop skills for adapting to various social interactions and can better understand how to approach unique experiences. Through these skills, children will become more open to others' perspectives, further promoting social justice in the classroom.

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Supporting Authoring in Bilingual Children

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Abstract

The purpose of this study was to determine whether drawing or symbolic representation is a more effective intervention in eliciting oral language in preschool children learning English as a second language. Children learning a second language in a preschool setting participate in a wide array of instructional activities designed to facilitate the development of their receptive and expressive language. An adapted alternating treatment design was conducted. Dependent variables observed included changes in the rate of utterances, the percentage of verbal responses to others, and the percentage of child initiated responses. The two interventions applied included a drawing intervention and a symbolic representation intervention. The results indicated that both interventions may show a functional relation with expressive language. Additionally, there appears to be a relation between type of intervention and the operationally defined type of utterance. Finally, limitations of this study are discussed.

Introduction

There are nearly four hundred languages spoken in the United States (Kushinka, 2014) and there are a growing number of children joining preschool classrooms who do not speak English as a first language. If they are learning English as a second language near or after the age of three, these children are called sequential bilinguals. Young children who are sequential bilinguals are learning to communicate in a second language while learning the vocabulary of new concepts within their first language. They often enter English-speaking preschool programs without a means of effectively communicating their wants, needs, thoughts, and dreams. Significant research has been conducted with children

entering kindergarten and elementary school programs (Araujo, 2002; Gort, 2006; Ranker, 2009; Seda & Abramson, 1990) regarding how language can be fostered through early writing activities. Little research has been conducted with bilingual children in preschool at this time.

Although research is ongoing regarding the most appropriate means of educating young children, there is no consensus on what is best practice. Early childhood education programs are funded and run primarily by Departments of Health and Human Services at the national and state level when they are monitored, and there is currently no nationally recognized set of standards of best practice for what and how instruction should be given (Gillanders, Iruka, Ritchie & Cobb, 2012). There is not agreement on the most effective means of encouraging receptive and expressive language skills in bilingual preschoolers.

Research has confirmed a relationship between children's oral language, play, and writing (Ball, 2006; Burns & Kidd, 2016). Through play and interaction with materials that can be utilized to represent real and imaginary items, children increase their vocabulary and their knowledge of the world around them. Drawing and early writing skills have been shown to develop side by side with receptive and expressive language (Dyson, 2013; McCloskey, 2011; Steward, 1995). This connection between early writing skills and oral language is authoring, defined for this study as using oral language to describe a self-made creation or activity. The activity of authoring develops over time into storytelling and writing activities, as children must first learn to imagine and describe their thoughts. This study seeks to increase the field of knowledge on effective interventions for working with new sequential bilingual preschool children to support early childhood educators and researchers.

Theoretical Perspective

Sociocultural theory views language as developing from interactions with others; these interactions not only facilitate language learning but are causative forces (Saville-Troike, 2012). Learning occurs in a community, and in supportive classrooms children can work together in scaffolding each other's learning (Nieto, 2010). As children move through their environments they create an image of themselves through the lens of their unique positionality (Barron, 2016). Children who are sequential bilinguals may not feel comfortable in communicating verbally with peers or teachers. Encouraging them to engage in play-based activities allows children to draw upon their own funds of knowledge and potentially increase their understanding and use of the second language.

Research Purpose/Questions

The purpose of this study is to determine whether drawing or symbolic representation is a more effective intervention in eliciting oral language in preschool children learning English as a second language. Three specific research questions were pursued:

1. Is drawing or symbolic representation a more effective intervention in increasing the rate of utterances in the second language (English) of a preschool child?

2. Is drawing or symbolic representation a more effective intervention in increasing the percentage of response accuracy to others in the second language?

3. Is drawing or symbolic representation a more effective intervention in increasing the percentage of intelligible utterances in the second language that are child initiated?

Methods of the Study

Participants

The participants in this study were preschool-aged children attending a play-based preschool program located on the campus of a large university on the east coast of the United States. The preschool was composed of up to 128 children, the majority of whom were children of faculty, staff, and students affiliated with the university. The university, and therefore the preschool, was highly diverse in factors such as culture, country of origin, socioeconomic status, and language of origin. The children and families of the preschool represented over twenty languages.

Participants were selected through enrollment information by the following criteria: 1) grew up speaking a language other than English at home, 2) moved to the United States recently, and 3) joined the preschool in the fall of 2015. An initial selection of participants was determined and classroom teachers were asked to provide input on children with minimal receptive and expressive levels of English as compared to other children in their classrooms. Four participants met criteria, and of the four, parental consent was obtained for three participants. All three participants engaged in the baseline sessions. During treatment sessions Participants 2 and 3 joined the researcher on request though they did not appear to enjoy the sessions. Consultation with the faculty advisor

overseeing this research determined that although the children had given assent to participate in the study, due to their age and culture they may have participated out of a sense of obligation rather than willingness. Therefore, sessions with Participant 2 and Participant 3 were discontinued prior to the conclusion of the treatment sessions. Neither child spoke more than 1 word in the course of the study, therefore the limited amount of data collected does not allow for further examination. For purposes of this paper, all additional information will focus on Participant 1, Elliott (pseudonym has been used).

Elliott was a three-year-old Caucasian male who was born in Brazil. He grew up speaking Portuguese, and moved to the United States in the summer of 2015. He was an only child and lived with his mother and father. His father had his doctorate and was a visiting professor at the university at which the preschool was located at the time of the study. His father was bilingual in both Portuguese and English. Employment and educational information was not available for his mother and she had a limited understanding of and vocabulary in English.

Elliott joined a three-year-olds classroom in the preschool program in August of 2015. At the time of enrollment he had limited exposure to English but was reported by his parents to speak Portuguese at a level considered fluent for his age. They spoke Portuguese at home and his father spoke a mixture of Portuguese and English with him when they were out in the community. Elliott was initially shy and spoke little to his teachers or peers. He engaged in baseline sessions reluctantly but appeared to enjoy the intervention sessions, occasionally requesting to work with the researcher at other times of the day. Over the course of the study, Elliott developed a strong friendship with one classmate as well as relationships with other peers and teachers.

Setting

The preschool attended by the participant was a culturally and linguistically diverse population of children ages 2 to 5. Children were in classrooms designated by age, and the age groupings were informed by the age requirement for attending kindergarten at the local public elementary schools. There were two classrooms for each age group for a total of six classrooms. At the time of the study Elliott was part of a three-year-olds classroom that enrolled 17 other children.

The classroom was designed to facilitate movement and play. Three tables were used for meals or for small group activities. An open area was utilized for large group meetings and for floor play, and a quiet area was available for children who wanted to spend some time alone. Science centers, a dramatic play kitchen, library, and easel were positioned around the classroom. Two baseline

sessions and one intervention session were conducted within the classroom. The classroom was a busy, noisy environment, and many students attempted to interrupt sessions by communicating directly with the researcher. Upon review of the video recordings and discussion with Elliott, it was determined to conduct the remainder of the sessions in a separate location.

One baseline session and all but one intervention session were conducted in the multi-purpose room of the preschool. This room was located in the center of the building and opened on the intersection of the two main hallways with a wall of glass windows and doors. The room was large and open with two tables in a corner used for children who ate breakfast upon arrival to the preschool. The second corner held storage cubbies with supplies for music class or overflow materials from the classrooms, which was inaccessible to the children. In a third corner was situated a book rack and mat, and in the fourth corner was a dramatic play area containing a kitchen, doll house, and supplies such as pretend food and dolls for the children to engage with. Elliott chose to bring one or two classmates to all but two of the intervention sessions, one of each intervention type.

Research Design

This study used an adapted alternating treatment design. This design was chosen to determine the relative effectiveness of more than one intervention on oral language, and was selected over a treatment/withdrawal design as increased vocalizations can be considered a learned behavior, which cannot be removed. As the purpose was to "facilitate acquisition" of oral language in English, the adapted alternating treatment design was chosen as most appropriate for teaching functional and developmental skills (Gast, 2010, loc. 8645). The design standards as described by Kratochwill and colleagues (2010) served as a foundation upon which this study was built. A baseline and the two interventions were systematically manipulated so that the participant engaged in only one type of session at a time. Each dependent variable was observable, measurable, quantifiable, and operationally defined. Additionally, interobserver agreement was collected on 33% of sessions and was calculated as 99% agreement across sessions. The baseline was collected at the start of the study and was compared to two alternating and simultaneous interventions, which were also comparable to each other. The design sequence was AAABCCBCBBCBC which resulted in more than five repetitions of the alternating sequence, with 5 sessions of each intervention and no more than 2 sequential sessions in either intervention.

Independent variables and materials.   The independent variables in this study were two separate, distinct interventions. During the Drawing intervention sessions, Elliot was asked to create an image about his day. In separate drawing sessions, Elliott was provided with markers, a magnetic drawing board, and paint. In Symbolic Representation sessions, Elliott was asked to act out his day. In separate sessions, Elliott was provided with a variety of little people and dramatic play manipulatives, such as a toy cash register, pretend food, and a dollhouse.

Dependent variables.   The dependent variables in this study were the rate of utterance, response to others, and child-initiated responses (Huennekens & Xu, 2010). All sessions were video recorded and transcribed. Rate of utterance was a calculation of all intelligible words and partial-words said by Elliott divided by the total number of minutes in the session. If a word was unintelligible to the researcher or observer, both native English monolinguals, the utterance was not counted in the calculation. If a single word or partial-word was repeated it was counted for the first two utterances only.

Each series of utterances made was coded either as response to others or as child-initiated. Response to others was calculated as a percentage of accuracy by counting the number of individual words or phrases divided by the number of questions, statements, or prompts by the researcher or peer. Individual words or phrases were defined as separated by a minimum of 3 seconds or a communicative exchange by either the researcher or a peer. Child-initiated utterances were calculated as a percentage of total frequency of responses.

Data collection procedures.   Prior to implementation of the study approval was obtained from the university Institutional Review Board (IRB) of the researcher and faculty advisor. Parental consent was obtained and the following demographic information was collected from school records: the child's age, gender, home language, and length of time in the preschool program. A social story, written by the researcher and included in the appendix, was provided to the parents. The social story explained that Elliott participated in a number of activities during his school day, and if asked to tell someone about his day he could use his words to describe what had happened. Elliott's father, bilingual in English and Portuguese, was requested to read the story at home to Elliott in Portuguese at least once prior to the beginning of the study and as many times as requested thereafter. Elliott's father reported that Elliott declined to hear the story more than once, stating it was 'too easy'. At school, the researcher read the story to Elliott in English. On both occasions, Elliott was given the opportunity to ask questions about what "tell me about your day" might mean. After reading the social story at school, the researcher obtained assent by explaining the research

project and following an assent script deemed appropriate for children under age seven by IRB. Elliott indicated his assent by nodding.

Video recordings were set up to record all baseline and intervention phases. They were used for interobserver reliability and treatment fidelity measures. Recordings were made on an iPad, set up out of the way of the participant to reduce the potential of distraction. Children other than Elliott who appeared in the video recordings had signed photo releases at the preschool and were not included in the analysis or identified in any way in the study.

Baseline procedures.   Baseline data was collected by measuring the dependent variables in response to the request "tell me about your day." Sessions 1 and 2 were collected during free play in the classroom, a time when children may participate in a variety of activities. Session 3 was collected during free play and Elliott was requested to accompany the researcher to the multi-purpose room.

Intervention procedures.   Intervention took place during free play in order to minimize disruption of teacher-facilitated learning opportunities. Elliott was requested to join the researcher and was invited to select a friend to join him in all treatment sessions held outside of the classroom. He was presented with materials appropriate to the intervention session and given a brief period of time to begin engaging with the materials. Within the first minute of the session the researcher attempted a communicative exchange by asking Elliott to "tell me about your day". Throughout each session several methods of communication were attempted by the researcher including asking questions, making comments, and interacting together with the materials. Sessions were discontinued when Elliott requested to leave the interaction or when a maximum of 10 minutes had elapsed. Sessions ranged in time from 1 minute to 10 minutes.

Generalization.   Generalization occurred through the use of a variety of materials in both intervention sessions.

Interobserver agreement.   Interobserver agreement (IOA) was calculated to "increase the probability that data accurately reflect the subject's behavior by assessing the degree to which two observers agree that responding has occurred" (Repp et. al, 1976). A co-worker of the researcher served as the observer and was trained in the operational definition of the rate of utterance dependent variable. Thirty three percent of the sessions were randomly selected and included at least one session from baseline and each of the treatments. The observer was given the video recordings and the transcriptions of the sessions to observe. Interobserver agreement was calculated by using a total agreement method for which the smaller total number of intelligible words was divided by

the larger total number, and multiplied by 100. Utilizing this procedure, IOA was determined to be 99%.

Procedural reliability (or fidelity of treatment).   Fidelity of treatment was implemented by use of a social story so that Elliott would understand the verbal request of the researcher (Appendix A). Reading the social story in both the child's home language as well as English increased procedural reliability as the participant can be shown to understand the expectation of the sessions. At the start of each session, the researcher asked Elliott to "tell me about your day". This was utilized in a naturalistic manner and in drawing sessions was occasionally reworded to "draw me a picture about your day". The observer noted in each of the randomly determined sessions that the phrase was utilized and treatment fidelity was calculated to be 100%. Therefore, the primary component of the intervention was delivered in each session in a comparable manner (Smith, Daunic, & Taylor, 2007).

Results

Data Analysis

Visual analysis was conducted on each of the three separate research questions incorporating evidence standards defined by the What Works Clearinghouse (Kratochwill et. al, 2010). Graphs of the data collected follow the discussion of the results of each research question.

Research question 1.   Is drawing or symbolic representation a more effective intervention in increasing the rate of utterances in the second language (English) of a preschool child? The baseline of Elliott's rate of utterances showed a high degree of stability with a mean of 0.67 utterances per minute. The drawing and symbolic representation interventions both showed an immediate effect on rate of utterances by increasing from one utterance to 8 and 10 respectively. Drawing showed a mean of 8.36 utterances per minute and a low, negative slope, while symbolic representation showed a mean of 5.5 utterances and a low, negative slope. Percent of non-overlapping data (PND) was calculated as 40% between interventions and although data from initial sessions was noticeably separate, as the study progressed overlap developed which indicated a low magnitude and consistency of separation between the two interventions. Figure 1 demonstrates that both Drawing and Symbolic Representation showed a moderately strong effect on Elliott's rate of utterances with little difference between the two interventions. While he spoke more during these interventions than during the baseline sessions, the rate that Elliot uttered words intelligible in English overall declined slightly over the course of the study.
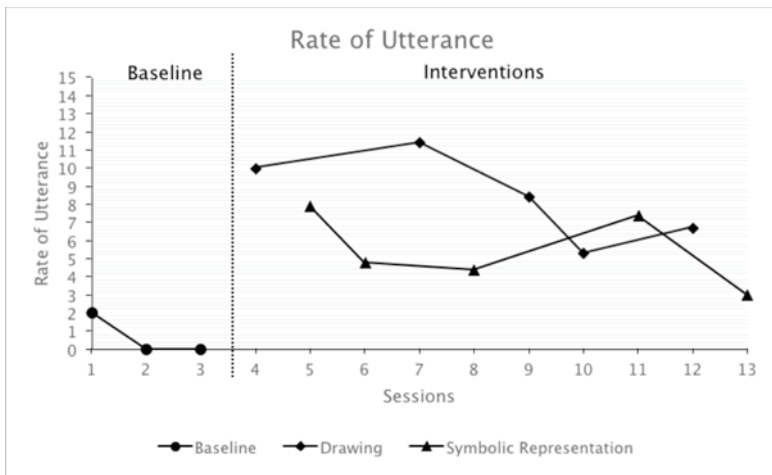
Figure 1. Elliott's rate of utterances per minute

Research question 2.   Is drawing or symbolic representation a more ef-fective intervention in increasing the percentage of response accuracy to others in the second language? The baseline of the accuracy of Elliott's responses to oth-ers showed a high degree of stability with a mean of 6.67%. Drawing resulted in a mean level of 52% of responses to prompts with a flat trend line. Symbolic representation demonstrated a mean level of 21% of responses to prompts with a low, negative slope. PND was calculated as 100% between interventions. PND for drawing to baseline was 100% and showed an immediacy of effect from baseline. PND was calculated as 60% between baseline and symbolic representa-tion and did not show an immediacy of effect. There was a high level of magni-tude and consistency of separation between interventions, and drawing showed a strong functional relation to Elliott's responses to others, while symbolic representation showed no functional relation (see Figure 2). Over the course of the study, Elliot responded consistently and increasingly to others while engaged in the drawing intervention.

Research question 3.   Is drawing or symbolic representation a more effective intervention in increasing the percentage of intelligible utterances in the second language that are child initiated? The baseline of the percentage of child initiated responses showed a high degree of stability with Elliott elicit-ing no self-initiated responses during this phase. In the drawing intervention a mean of 34% of responses were child-initiated, indicating a low, negative slope, while in the symbolic representation intervention a mean of 59% responses were
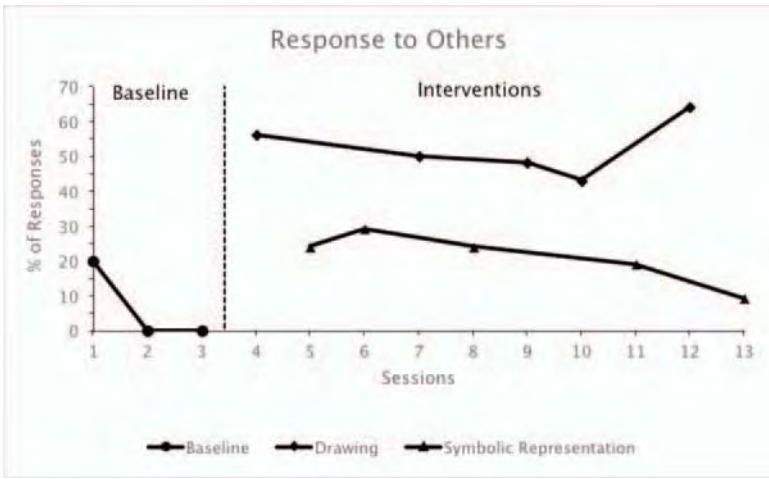
Figure 2. The percentage of prompts from others to which Elliott
responded

child initiated and showed a moderate, positive slope. Both interventions showed
an immediate effect and had PND of 100% from baseline. Overlap of data between
interventions did exist and PND was calculated as 60%. There was a low level of
magnitude and consistency in separation between interventions, which increased
as the study progressed. Figure 3 demonstrates that there is a moderate functional
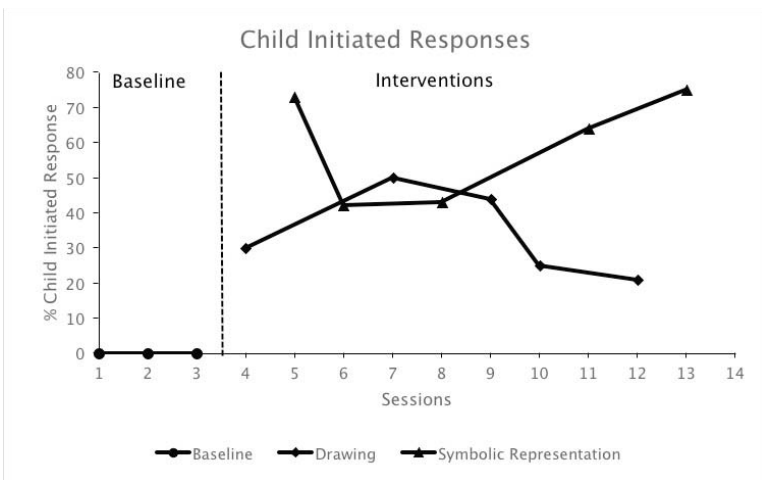
Figure 3. Percentage of Elliott's responses that were child initiated

relation between intervention types for Elliott's child initiated responses. Elliott initiated communicative exchanges more consistently and with increasing frequency while engaged in the symbolic representation intervention.

Discussion

The drawing and symbolic representation interventions both resulted in a strong functional relation to baseline data, indicating that engaging in activities is more powerful in eliciting oral language from a child learning English as a second language than simply talking with an adult. The rate of intelligible words that Elliott spoke did not significantly differ between interventions as the data overlapped over the course of the study, though this may have been impacted by variation in session times and by the limitations of his vocabulary development both in Portuguese and English. Surprisingly, Elliott responded to more questions and prompts during the drawing intervention. This may be because he was willing to answer questions about his artwork. An example of his drawing and segment of the transcript from session 11 can be found in the appendix. Demonstrating developmentally appropriate play skills, at age 3 he was more self-absorbed during symbolic representation sessions and was engaging mainly in parallel play. This was in evidence in the higher percentage of child initiated utterances in symbolic play, demonstrating that he was more interested in his own activities than in engaging with someone else.

The purpose of this study was to help children increase their communicative interactions with teachers and peers in the preschool classroom and ultimately to build their social-emotional development. Favorable outcomes of the interventions would provide both immediate and long-term benefits for the participants (Kaiser, 2014), as the ability to communicate can not only help children in their daily lives, but in their future academic careers. Engaging in activities with an educator can help children foster trusting relationships in the school setting as the child can draw upon his or her funds of knowledge when drawing or playing. During this one-on-one or small group time, the child can demonstrate his skills and share his interests, fostering trusting relationships between child and educator (Gillanders, Iruka, Ritchie, & Cobb, 2012). During informational and consent discussions of the study, parents of participants noted that a better understanding of instructional tools that can assist preschool-age children to become bilingual is an important field of research. Following the study, Elliot's Assistant Teacher noted that he had become much more verbal, was easy to understand by classroom staff, and utilized the correct context when speaking with others; skills not demonstrated prior to implementation of the study.

Practical Implications

There are a large and quickly growing number of children entering the school system who are learning English as a second language. These children are often taught through rote memorization and imitation of others. Additionally, these children often experience a disconnect between school and home due to differences in beliefs, values, and practices (Gillanders et. al, 2012). Clay (1975) states that between the ages of 3 and 5 children begin to realize that they can express the oral language that they are comfortable in using through making marks on paper. This study demonstrates that engaging in the developmentally appropriate play-based activities of drawing and symbolic representation with an educator allows a child to develop his/her expressive language skills in English by using mark making or play as the comfortable starting place. Educators and researchers can build upon the findings of this study to implement practices within the classroom that better meet the needs of their students and to continue future research in this critical area.

Limitations and Future Research

The findings of this study are from one participant with a small data set. The study was conducted in a short time frame of just over one month. In that time, thirteen sessions were conducted; three of baseline and five of each intervention. Ideally, additional sessions would have been conducted to determine the relative strength of the effect of each intervention over time. These factors limit the ability to generalize the findings of this study or to replicate the procedure.

During the study, there were issues involving the video recording. One of the baseline sessions was not recorded due to user error and the recording cut out early on one of the intervention sessions. Additionally, the image did not always contain Elliott's face making it more difficult to ascertain if he was responding softly or to collect data on gestural responses. Elliott generally spoke in a low volume and the sound quality of the recording device was perhaps not sensitive enough to pick up all utterances in a manner which would have caused them to be intelligible to the researcher and the observer.

During participant selection, criteria did not define participants as willing or unwilling to speak with adults. Partway through the study it was determined that two of the participants may have felt unable to refuse to participate and ethically the decision was made to discontinue the study with them both. Had the selection criteria been more specific, this issue may not have arisen. An area to consider for future research is how culture influences responses in preschool children.

Future research should look at increasing procedural reliability to ensure that all aspects of the study were implemented comparably across sessions and participants. An additional avenue for research would be to compare a child

participating in intervention with a similar control child to determine if the increase in utterances and responses is due to participation in the study or as a result of natural development as a participant in an English speaking pre-school. Finally, fine motor development was not explored as part of this research study. Incorporating this area of development with the areas of language and social emotional development that this study explored could provide information for a more holistic curriculum.

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Appendix A: Social Story

I go to school.

Figure 4. Social Story page 1 of 3

Figure 5. Social Story page 2 of 3

Figure 6. Social Story page 3 of 3

APPENDIX B: SAMPLE DOCUMENT

Figure 7. Session 11 product and sample of transcript

Family Engagement in Adolescent Literacy

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Abstract

Family engagement in children's education is a crucial factor for academic success. The support and encouragement that family members provide their children can impact a child's success in school more than socio-economic status, education level or cultural background. Researchers posit that family engagement that is so frequent in the early years of school needs to be maintained until the last year of high school. This integrated review explores the current literature in order to address the following research questions: How important is family engagement in adolescent education? How can family engagement be promoted in school? What is the opinion of adolescents about their parents' support? What are the beliefs that parents hold about their role in adolescent education?

Introduction

The engagement of family in children's education has been identified as a crucial aspect of academic success (Anderson & Minke, 2007; Bokhorst-Heng, 2008; Carreón, Drake & Barton, 2005; Goodall, 2013). Several studies asserted that the support and encouragement family provide to their children can impact a child's success in school more than socio-economic status (SES), education level or cultural background (Barton, Drake, Perez, Louis, & George, 2004; Bokhorst-Heng, 2008; González & Jackson, 2013; Goodall, 2013). Research also indicated that family engagement, which is so frequent in the early years of school, needs to be maintained until the last year of high school (DePlanty et al., 2007; Hoover-Dempsey et al., 2005).

The definition and expectations of family engagement vary according to teachers, parents, and students (Anderson & Minke, 2007; Bower & Griffin, 2011; Carreón et al., 2005; González & Jackson, 2013). Families from diverse backgrounds hold different beliefs about their participation in school activities (Brough & Irvin, 2001; Carreón et al., 2005; Kim, 2009), and teachers bear their own pre-conceptions about family engagement in education (Gutman & Midgley, 2000; Hoover-Dempsey, Walker, Jones, & Reed, 2002; Hornby & Lafaele, 2011). Students do recognize the need of parental support (Epstein, 2010; Gutman & Midgley, 2000), but require guidance and opportunities from school personnel to engage in activities that promote this home-school interaction (Barton et al., 2004; Bryan & Henry, 2012; González & Jackson, 2013; Peña, 2000).

Research showed that in order to promote family engagement, the establishment of home-school partnerships is essential (Cassity & Harris, 2000; De Gaetano, 2007; Epstein, 2010). This relationship needs cooperation from educators, parents, students, and the community to understand the different perspectives of family engagement in school and to establish common goals that reflect the interest of the group (Bryan & Henry, 2012; Manz, Hughes, Barnabas, Bracaliello, & Ginsburg-Block, 2010; Peña, 2000).

This integrated review explores the current literature to address the following research questions: How important is family engagement in adolescent education? How can family engagement be promoted in school? What is the opinion of adolescents about their parents support? What are the beliefs that parents hold about their role in adolescent education?

Literature on Family Engagement in Adolescent Education

The following review examines the literature base around family engagement with children's learning, with an emphasis on adolescent education. This review is built on existing knowledge on family engagement in school activities, learning motivation, and adolescent education. In this literature, the terms *parents, parental, and family* refer to biological parents and to a heterogeneous group of people who relates to children, school, and community in diverse ways (Kim, 2009; Manz et al., 2010). The term *family engagement* is used in this review to indicate a strength-based approach that values the skills and interest of family members and aims to establish a reciprocal home-school relationship. This term differs from the traditional *parental involvement* paradigm that includes activities initiated by parents following the school's lead.

Definition of Family Engagement

Several definitions of family engagement exist in the body of literature (Anderson & Minke, 2007; Barton et al., 2004; Bower & Griffin, 2011; Carreón et al., 2005; González & Jackson, 2013). Research in high poverty inner-city schools has defined it as an active and collaborative process that changes with students' age, learning context, available resources, and characteristics of each individual (Barton et al., 2004; Carreón et al., 2005). Family engagement emerges from the relationship between parents and child and it is a commitment parents have to influence their child's lives throughout different actions (Goodall, 2013; Kim, 2009). Several studies have stressed the fact that it is what parents do at home to positively influence children what makes a difference in student academic achievement (Anderson & Minke, 2007; Bryan & Henry, 2012; Cassidy et al., 2004; González & Jackson, 2013; Goodall, 2013). Actions and attitudes parents have to support student's learning are more important than parents' socioeconomic or cultural backgrounds (Barton et al., 2004; Bokhorst-Heng, 2008; González & Jackson, 2013; Goodall, 2013; Harris & Goodall, 2008). Family engagement varies according to the circumstances of each family (Barton et al., 2004; Brough & Irvin, 2001; Carreón et al., 2005; Kim, 2009; Lopez, 2001), but there are elements of parental behavior that make this interaction more effective (Goodall, 2013). These elements are organized in three frameworks that have been used in different research studies:

Epstein Model.   This model defines six types of family engagement: parenting, communicating, volunteering, learning at home, decision-making, and collaborating with the community (Epstein, 2010). Among these types of parental behavior, the concepts of trust and respect are common in all interactions (Epstein, 2010). The Epstein model recognizes the important role of parents in home environments as well as the vital communication between home and school (Bower & Griffin, 2011).

Ecological Model.   The ecological framework considers family engagement as a set of relationships and actions that parents promote to take an active role in their child's education (Barton et al., 2004). The Ecologies of Parental Engagement (EPE) model challenges traditional views of parent involvement in school activities as a passive element and places importance in the role of parents as creators and mediators in schools (Barton et al., 2004).

Goodall Model.   This model is composed of six elements that interact together and complement each other as the child goes through different stages in his educational life. The model includes the following elements: authoritative

parenting, learning in the home, beginning engagement with learning early, staying engaged throughout school, holding and passing on high aspirations, and taking an active interest in children's learning and education (Goodall, 2013).

Importance of Family Engagement in Adolescent Education

Adolescence is a period of transition characterized by physical and emotional growth that presents transformations in the social and learning environments, therefore it is a difficult phase for many students (Goodall, 2013; Gutman & Midgley, 2000). Even with the challenge of managing a new educational format (i.e. new school settings, more teachers, new routines, etc.), students can succeed academically if family engagement is present (Fan & Williams, 2009; Lam & Ducreux, 2013; You & Sharkey, 2009). Several benefits of family engagement in academic and behavioral areas include: improvement of academic achievement (Anderson & Minke, 2007; Carreón et al., 2005; González & Jackson, 2013; Gutman & Midgley, 2000; Jeynes, 2007), closing the achievement gap (Jeynes, 2012), writing (Wiseman, 2009), reading (Klauda, 2009; Sénéchal & LeFevre, 2002), mathematics (Sheldon & Epstein, 2005; Wilder, 2015), improving homework (Patall, Cooper, & Robinson, 2008), decreasing dropout rates (Archambault, Janosz, Fallu, & Pagani, 2009; Barnard, 2004; Fall & Roberts, 2012), improving attendance (Epstein & Sheldon, 2002), reducing retentions and special education placements (Miedel & Reynolds, 1999), and increasing ability to self-regulate behavior (Martinez-Pons, 2002). González and Jackson (2013), for example, analyzed data from the Chicago Longitudinal Study to investigate the long-term effects of family engagement from elementary through high school (González & Jackson, 2013). Their study concluded that family engagement was associated with lower rates of high school dropout, increased on-time high school completion, and highest grade completed.

Promoting Family Engagement in Schools

Family engagement is a critical element that influences student success (Anderson & Minke, 2007; Bryan & Henry, 2012; Cassidy et al., 2004; W. H. Jeynes, 2007), therefore, it is important that schools promote it through active partnership programs (González & Jackson, 2013; Manz et al., 2010; Walker, Shenker, & Hoover-Dempsey, 2010). These programs can have a direct impact on student achievement, can design safe and engaging environments, foster respectful relationships, and promote meaningful experiences for parents and students (Bryan & Henry, 2012; González & Jackson, 2013; Manz et al., 2010). The design and

implementation of partnership programs need to consider the school culture as well as students' culture (Cassidy et al., 2004; Epstein, 2010). There is no specific method to implement a program or an exclusive model that will fit the needs of all schools (Brough & Irvin, 2001; Feiler, Greenhough, Winter, Salway, & Scanlan, 2006; Peña, 2000).

According to Epstein (2010), an action team should be formed to guide the development of a program that integrates the different types of involvement in school and promotes a caring environment of trust and respect (Epstein, 2010). A sample of an action team can be a group formed by school counselors, teachers, and parent liaisons. School counselors can provide teachers and parent liaisons with information and training in honoring cultural differences and applying effective interpersonal communication skills while interacting with parents (Walker et al., 2010). Counselors can also assess the attitudes of families and students regarding family engagement and guide parents, students, and teachers in the process of integration and engagement in school life (Walker et al., 2010). Teachers can invite parents to participate in classroom activities inside or outside the school such as participation on interactive homework, career fairs, classroom presentations, special assemblies, staff meetings, family fun nights, parent-child lessons, family gym events, etc. (Walker et al., 2010).

Research on family engagement in minority groups emphasizes the need to re-conceptualize family engagement for teachers and schools (Bower & Griffin, 2011; Carreón et al., 2005; González & Jackson, 2013). Family engagement needs to reflect the culture and characteristics of families and students (Carreón et al., 2005). In a 3-year study of immigrant parents in a high-poverty, urban community funded by the National Science Foundation in Texas, researchers found that immigrant involved parents felt disconnected from school and school personnel didn't know how to improve the interaction with these parents (Carreón et al., 2005). The study suggested the need to create structures and design activities to foster the dialogue between immigrant parents and school personnel.

Parent Vision of Family Engagement

Parents from different cultures and diverse socio-economic backgrounds want to be engaged with their children's education (Epstein, 2010; Goodall, 2013; Hornby & Lafaele, 2011), but their views of family engagement vary according to different cultural backgrounds (Brough & Irvin, 2001; Manz et al., 2010). Studies have suggested that families and schools don't perceive family engagement in the same way (Anderson & Minke, 2007; Kim, 2009; Lopez, 2001). For example, home activities that parents value as family engagement are not deemed significant by school personnel (Bower & Griffin, 2011). Likewise, activities

promoted by schools do not echo what is happening at students' home environments (Harris & Goodall, 2008; Kim, 2009).

Furthermore, family engagement varies according to each family (Anderson & Minke, 2007; Barton et al., 2004; Brough & Irvin, 2001; Carreón et al., 2005; Kim, 2009; Lopez, 2001) and it is influenced by individual barriers like lack of language control, basic level of education, low self-esteem, challenging economic situation, cultural differences, family obligations, negative feelings toward schools based on previous experiences, insufficient comprehension of curriculum and school culture, limited knowledge of their rights as parents, difficulty to create social networks, demanding work situations, and preconception of parental roles (Carreón et al., 2005; Hoover-Dempsey et al., 2002; Kim, 2009). Research on family engagement of minority groups suggested that an effective way to overcome these barriers is to identify them, place them into the particular school context, and make efforts to create a caring learning community that welcomes all parents and embraces their cultures (Barton et al., 2004; Bower & Griffin, 2011; Brough & Irvin, 2001; Carreón et al., 2005; Kim, 2009).

Teacher Vision of Family Engagement

Teachers have a critical influence on family engagement (Anderson & Minke, 2007; González & Jackson, 2013), and their beliefs and attitudes can promote or suppress family engagement (Epstein, 2010; Gutman & Midgley, 2000). Research has shown that teachers have their own conceptions and goals of family engagement and hold assumptions about the efficacy of families (Brough & Irvin, 2001; Hoover-Dempsey et al., 2002; Hornby & Lafaele, 2011). Studies on family engagement of minority groups have highlighted the need for a reconceptualization of family engagement from teachers and schools (Bower & Griffin, 2011; Carreón et al., 2005; González & Jackson, 2013). Findings also stressed the importance of teachers as originators of the communication with parents and indicated the need to design effective ways to engage parents (Anderson & Minke, 2007). Some ways to improve this communication can be the use of automated messages for parents informing them about special events in the class or about student's performance, inviting parent liaisons to mediate meetings and helping with understanding cultural differences, providing workshops on parenting, etc. (Walker et al., 2010). Other studies have indicated the importance of teachers for motivating students to actively participate in academic activities and encouraged teachers to create strong bonds with students to foster students' school involvement (Anderson & Minke, 2007; Fall & Roberts, 2012). One of these activities is the participation in homework. School counselors and teachers

can create an individual profile for each student using the Homework Motivation and Preference Questionnaire to identify students' sources of motivation and personal preferences while doing homework. This information can be used to inform and guide parents, personalize homework, and create a system of rewards that is meaningful for students and parents (Walker et al., 2010).

In the process of involving parents, teachers deal with their own limitations like scarcity of resources to implement partnership programs, lack of experience establishing positive partnerships, and inability to effectively communicate with parents (Hoover-Dempsey et al., 2002). Research has indicated the need for teacher training to educate them on effective methods of family engagement (Hoover-Dempsey et al., 2002). An exploratory study conducted in teacher education departments of three universities in Belgium, the Netherlands, and the United States, has shown that limited attention was given to family-school partnerships in formal curricula and stressed the need to prepare teachers to interact with parents (de Bruïne et al., 2014).

Student Vision of Family Engagement

Adolescence is a period of biological and psychological change that makes the transition from elementary to middle school a complex process (Goodall, 2013; Gutman & Midgley, 2000). Students from low SES and minority groups have an extra element of stress added to this transition process because they are living in poverty and face social pressures while adapting to a new culture (DePlanty et al., 2007; Gutman & Midgley, 2000). Subsequently, family engagement is imperative during adolescence since students view parent support as an indication of their parents expectation of academic achievement (Gutman & Midgley, 2000).

In a study focused on explaining how adolescents' attitudes, actions, and feelings influenced the participation of family members in a poetry program, students described different feelings about family participation that reflected their home experiences and their willingness to share their work. Some students had a positive attitude towards family engagement, while others avoided parents' participation because of the intimate nature of their poetry, and other students didn't initiate parent participation because of the burden this may pose on their parents (Wiseman, 2009). Findings of this study suggested that the role of students is critical to the participation of their families at school. They also indicated the need to include students in the creation of family literacy programs to improve their understanding of these programs. This study supported other findings indicating the impact students can have on family engagement (Epstein, 2010; Wiseman, 2009).

Additionally, research completed in a junior high school indicated that students in the study had higher expectations for family engagement than parents. Students considered assuring daily attendance to school was the most important element of family engagement, and students identified parent-teacher conferences as the activity parents participated the most (DePlanty et al., 2007). A study about home-school partnerships in Singapore determined that students' multiliteracies were broad and complex: they wanted their parents to be involved but didn't know how the interaction would look and how much their parents would be willing to participate; they wanted to improve communication and relationships with parents but they didn't want their parents to get into their adolescent world; and they wanted their teachers to know more about their lives at home (Bokhorst-Heng, 2008).

Application

Research has demonstrated the importance of family engagement for adolescents' academic success highlighting that attitudes and actions parents have at home are the ones that are especially influential to academic success (Anderson & Minke, 2007; Bryan & Henry, 2012; Carreón et al., 2005; Cassidy et al., 2004; González & Jackson, 2013; Goodall, 2013; Hoover-Dempsey et al., 2005; Jeynes, 2007).

Studies indicated that there are diverse definitions of family engagement (Anderson & Minke, 2007; Barton et al., 2004; Bower & Griffin, 2011; Carreón et al., 2005; González & Jackson, 2013) and emphasized the importance of reconceptualizing the traditional definition of family engagement (Barton et al., 2004; Carreón et al., 2005). These findings have suggested the use of a more dynamic concept of family engagement that includes parents and students as active members in the learning process, especially in schools where the majority of students come from low SES and minority groups (Bower & Griffin, 2011; Carreón et al., 2005; González & Jackson, 2013).

In addition to redefining family engagement, much research has underlined the specific benefits on both academic (Anderson & Minke, 2007; Carreón et al., 2005; González & Jackson, 2013; Gutman & Midgley, 2000; Jeynes, 2007; 2012; Klauda, 2009; Patall et al., 2008; Sheldon & Epstein, 2005; Sénéchal & LeFevre, 2002) and behavioral areas (Archambault et al., 2009; Barnard, 2004; Epstein & Sheldon, 2002; Fall & Roberts, 2012; Martinez-Pons, 2002; Miedel & Reynolds, 1999) For this reason, it is critical for schools to implement programs that promote family engagement through an active partnership between home and school (Bryan & Henry, 2012; González & Jackson, 2013; Manz et al., 2010; Walker et al., 2010).

The implementation of these partnership programs needs to take into consideration the cultural and socio-economic backgrounds of families in order to understand their realities and design programs that meet the necessities of parents and students (González & Jackson, 2013; Manz et al., 2010; Walker et al., 2010). These programs need to authentically embrace parents' cultures and promote an environment of care and respect where parents feel appreciated and encouraged to participate (Barton et al., 2004; Bower & Griffin, 2011; Brough & Irvin, 2001; Carreón et al., 2005; Cassidy et al., 2004; Epstein, 2010; Kim, 2009). Studies on family engagement have also indicated that there is no one explicit model or a specific way to implement partnership programs (Brough & Irvin, 2001; Feiler et al., 2006; Peña, 2000). Effective programs should focus on the specific school population within the context of each school and they should be designed by a group of professionals in collaboration with parents and students (Epstein, 2010).

Research has also focused on the importance of teachers in promoting family engagement (Anderson & Minke, 2007; González & Jackson, 2013). The way teachers relate to parents can build or rescind a safe environment where parents feel welcomed (Epstein, 2010; Gutman & Midgley, 2000). Because of this, research has suggested the need for teachers to rethink their concept of family engagement to one that includes characteristics and cultural differences of parents and students (Bower & Griffin, 2011; Carreón et al., 2005; González & Jackson, 2013; Goodall, 2013; Kim, 2009). Findings also have revealed the need for teachers to establish effective ways to engage parents (Anderson & Minke, 2007; González & Jackson, 2013), as well as to build a strong connection with students (Anderson & Minke, 2007; Fall & Roberts, 2012). Researchers also have encouraged school districts and high academic institutions to train teachers on establishing successful ways to relate with parents (Hoover-Dempsey et al., 2002; de Bruïne et al., 2014).

According to research on parents' perception of family engagement, each family has its own perception of family engagement based on its particular family situation (Anderson & Minke, 2007; Barton et al., 2004; Brough & Irvin, 2001; Carreón et al., 2005; Kim, 2009; Lopez, 2001), and this perception is limited by individual barriers (Carreón et al., 2005; Hoover-Dempsey et al., 2002; Kim, 2009). Research on family engagement of minority groups has suggested that to improve family engagement, schools need to identify the specific barriers of its population, frame them into the school context, and design a plan to build a caring learning community (Barton et al., 2004; Bower & Griffin, 2011; Brough & Irvin, 2001; Carreón et al., 2005; Kim, 2009)**.**

Research on adolescents' perception of family engagement has found that students have high expectations of family engagement. In particular, they think

that the most important aspect of family engagement is guaranteeing daily attendance. They also consider parent-teacher conferences to be the activity that has the most parent participation (DePlanty et al., 2007), and that this participation demonstrates their parents' expectation for academic success (Gutman & Midgley, 2000). Other findings have stressed the central role of students in the participation of their families at school, and the need to include students in the creation of family literacy programs in order to improve the comprehension in these programs (Wiseman, 2009). A study in a high school in Singapore has indicated that students value the communication between and relationship with parents and want to share their home experiences with their teachers, but don't know how to do it (Bokhorst-Heng, 2008).

Conclusion

As the documented research has shown, family engagement is critical to promote academic achievement in adolescents (Anderson & Minke, 2007; Bokhorst-Heng, 2008; Bryan & Henry, 2012; Carreón et al., 2005; Cassidy et al., 2004; Goodall, 2013; Jeynes, 2007). Even though diverse definitions of family engagement are used throughout the literature (Anderson & Minke, 2007; Barton et al., 2004; Bower & Griffin, 2011; Carreón et al., 2005; González & Jackson, 2013), many have indicated the need to consider family engagement as a dynamic interaction between school, parents, and students—particularly in schools that serve minority groups and students from low SES (Bower & Griffin, 2011; Carreón et al., 2005; González & Jackson, 2013). Family engagement programs should aim at building safe caring environments where parents' cultures are cherished and a climate of trust is established according to the unique needs of each school's community (Barton et al., 2004; Bower & Griffin, 2011; Brough & Irvin, 2001; Carreón et al., 2005; Cassidy et al., 2004; Epstein, 2010; Kim, 2009).

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Scaffolding Professional Development Through a Book Club

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Abstract

In-service middle school teachers from multiple content areas in a large, urban school district engaged in a book club over the course of three months to support their use of academic conversations in their classrooms. Analysis of discussions during the book club, as well as reading responses and discussion records highlighted themes of professional learning through participation in the book club. These themes include reconceptualizing the importance of talk in learning, developing classroom culture, and the importance of structuring professional development activities to promote teacher metacognition. Suggestions are made for designing professional development book clubs.

Introduction

In a world of technological innovation and increasingly diverse classrooms, professional development has become an integral element for school districts

to maintain and support their teaching faculty's classroom instruction. Despite this increase in importance, district spending for professional development has decreased in recent years as both public and private educational institutions contend with diminished funding from both public and private sources. Despite these challenges, schools and school districts are exploring alternative ways to provide support to their teaching faculties, exploring the capacities of technology, utilizing expertise from within their own ranks to support new learning.

Book clubs are one such professional development paradigm, with teachers reporting satisfaction in their participation in changing their beliefs and practices (Thomas, 2012). Book clubs allow teachers to address their individual needs within the context of their own classroom (Darling-Hammond & McLaughlin, 2011), providing both flexibility as well as meaningful learning opportunities for educators. This work seeks to explore the potential of book clubs as a professional development opportunity through careful analysis of book club discussion and participant-created artifacts in an attempt to understand how book clubs support the development of teacher knowledge.

Present Study

The work reported here is extracted from a larger, grant-funded professional development project seeking to support the development of pre- and in-service teachers' competencies in effective instruction for students for whom English was not their primary language. In-service middle school teachers from a variety of disciplines were engaged in a two-year-long series of professional development, including coursework at the university as well as monthly Saturday seminars meant to expand coursework and connect it to classroom instruction. Classroom observations, undertaken as part of the larger project, highlighted a lack of student talk in classrooms; when approached about this, participating teachers expressed discomfort with fostering and supporting student talk in the classroom. Fully believing that "learning floats on a sea of talk" (Barnes, 1976) and grounded in sociocultural theory, particularly in the notion that knowledge is mediated through our interactions and conversations with others (Vygotsky, 1978), the team sought opportunities to help develop teacher expertise in academic conversation and structures teachers could utilize in their classrooms.

Given the constellation of activities associated with the larger project, a book club was chosen for its affordances as it provided a variety of opportunities for teachers to intellectually and socially grapple with ways to support conversation in the classroom (Flood & Lapp, 1994) and to contemplate perspectives on both conversation and education that may differ from their own (George,

2002). Teachers wanted to learn more about how to utilize conversation in their classrooms through participation in this book club; to that end, the question we seek to answer through this project is what understandings did teachers develop about conversation through participation in this book club? Furthermore, we sought to understand the mechanisms within the book club that supported the development of these understandings.

Book Selection

While the book for the book club experience was, ultimately, chosen by the team, the research team and the participating teachers agreed upon a series of criteria. Collaboratively, Nicholas and the teachers decided upon the characteristics of the book they were to read together. These characteristics, and how they were operationalized in the selection process, can be found in Table 1.

It is important to note that several books were auditioned for this experience, each read in whole or in part to ascertain how it fit to the criteria laid forth. No one book addressed all criteria, particularly the criterion to address all content represented by the teachers involved. To this end, books were also considered for their gaps within these criteria and how readily these gaps could be addressed through the use of supplemental materials.

In the end, *Academic conversations: Classroom talk that fosters critical thinking and content understandings* (Zwiers & Crawford, 2011) was selected as the book club text. When read against the criteria, the book provides teachers with pragmatic and easy-to-understand protocols for fostering academic conversation

TABLE 1
Text Selection Criteria for Book Club

Criteria	Description
Grounded in Research	Book needed to be grounded in recent, peer-reviewed research conducted in a variety of school settings. Particular attention was paid to ensure inclusion of studies in urban schools.
Accessibility	Book needed to be accessible to teachers. In other words, the book needed to use research to illuminate teaching possibilities and communicate those possibilities in complex yet understandable ways.
Pragmatic Application	Book needed to provide opportunities for teachers to apply learning about the content of the book immediately. Indicators included protocols and routines and activities within the book.

within the classroom, was grounded in both research and classroom experience, was accessible to teachers, and addressed the majority of the content areas represented by the teachers in the book club. Mathematics was not addressed within the text, so this content area was augmented through the use of an article that utilized the same ethos as the book.

The book club was laid out over the course of three monthly meetings over the spring and summer, providing participants with time to think about and read through the text. Participants were also asked to maintain structured reflections as they read to be utilized in the book club conversation.

Participants

There were thirteen participants in this book club, twelve of whom were in-service, middle school classroom teachers in a variety of content areas in a large urban district. A school district administrator also joined the book club. Information about individual teachers, including content area and years taught, can be found in Table 2. All participants attended all three book club discussions. All names in this report are pseudonyms.

TABLE 2
Participant Information

Participant Pseudonym	Grade Taught	Content Area
Chrissle	Administration	Not Applicable
Maya	6	Science
Jamyla	6	English Language Arts
Carrie	8	Mathematics
Jan	6-8	Mathematics
Madison	6-8	Science
Mitchell	7-8	English Language Arts
Meredea	8	Mathematics
Janelle	7	Special Education
Sherry	8	Mathematics
Stephanie	6-8	Special Education
Jennifer	7	English Language Arts
Merie	6-8	Special Education

Data Collection

The researchers employed five data methods to more closely understand the ways participating teachers expanded their understanding of content through participation in the book club.

Transcripts of book club discussions.   The book clubs met three times over the course of four months for approximately one hour during Saturday professional development sessions. The first author, having received individual reflections from book club participants, facilitated the book club through questioning. Each of these book club sessions was audio recorded and were transcribed for analysis.

Structured responses.   In preparation for the book club, participants were asked to engage in three different types of structured responses to the sections being read. These structured responses were shared with the first researcher prior to the book club meeting and were analyzed as part of the data set.

Discussion records.   In order to support active listening and contribution in the book club, each participant was asked to complete a discussion record, which asked participants to summarize their thinking about the book club discussion and identify salient contributions by each member of the book club discussion. These discussion records were collected as part of the data set.

Field notes.   As facilitator, the first author maintained a set of field notes throughout the book club discussions. These field notes focused on elements he anticipated would not be captured well on the audio transcript, such as nonverbal cues by participants

Survey.   A final survey was distributed on the last day of the book club to all participants to collect feedback on the overall experience and their anticipated implementation of academic conversations in their classroom during the new school year.

Analysis

This project utilized an explanatory multiple case study, with each of the participants comprising a single case for a total of thirteen individual cases. Multiple case studies allow the replication of procedures on multiple cases that enhances both the validity and, to some extent, the generalizability of the findings (Galloway & Sheridan, 1994). Yin (2009) asserts cases should be viewed as independent from

one another rather than a unit of a larger inquiry project; in this way, a multiple case study design can be viewed as having the same logic as a cross-experimental design (Yin, 1982; 2009).

The book club discussions data were transcribed and compared with the other sources of data. Data was analyzed in two phases. The first phase of data analysis concerned itself with building descriptions of participation and creating reliability amongst the codes used within the data set. The research team read through the transcripts and artifacts independently, developing an initial list of participation types and the description dimensions that could be ascribed to these types. Together, the team looked across their notes to construct a series of primary and secondary codes. These descriptions of participation were shared with the participating teachers and administrators.

The second phase of analysis shifted focus from description and reliability to explanation and validity. This study draws upon Yin's (2009) notion of validity: that generalizability is analytical rather than statistical, generalizing to theory rather than population. In this phase, the research team triangulated (Huberman & Miles, 1994; Sackmann, 1991; Wells, 1987; Yin, 1981) the typologies generated in phase one, in addition to the other data sources to develop explanations for the types of learning occurring in book clubs.

Findings

In a post-book club survey, twelve of the thirteen participants reported finding the experience very beneficial for their own practice as they sought to implement ideas around academic conversations in their own classrooms. While the timing of the book club, April through July, was described as inopportune in terms of implementing new protocols in the classroom, the same number of participants anticipated implementing steps to foster more academic conversations in their classroom in the coming school year.

Looking across the data provides insights regarding the types of learning teachers experienced through participation in the book club. These insights emerged around three larger themes: the role of talk in the classroom as a conduit for learning, the role of culture in the classroom, and the structure of the book club discussions themselves as a way for professional development.

A Renewed Focus on Talk in the Classroom

Given the topic of the book selected for the book club experience, the focus on talk as a conduit for teaching and learning was not unexpected; how each participant in the book club thought of talk varied at the beginning of the book

club experience and changed throughout the experience. Zwiers and Crawford (2011) characterize conversations as "exchanges between people who are trying to learn from one another and build meanings they didn't have before. Partners take turns talking, listening, and responding to each other's comments" (p. 1). This particular quote resonated with the book club, as it showed up in many of the punctuation prompts for that week and provided the gravity for much of the conversation during that first meeting.

In her punctuation prompt, Chrissle, a school administrator reflected: "I have never given much thought to 'conversation.' I have them all the time- or at least thought I did. I did not approach the many conversations I have had as a 'learning process.'" (4/4/2016). This notion of conversation as quotidian and unexamined was an ongoing and illuminating concept for participants, as demonstrated in the dialogue of that first meeting:

> *Mitchell: I just started thinking about all the questions I ask, all the short responses that I get from students, and how frustrating it is! The thing I'm taking away is I need to provide a chance for my students to talk in class. They need to be saying things! (Book Club Discussion, 4/4/2016)*

An underlying understanding shared by all the participants in the book club discussion was that the talk was to be purposeful, utilized to promote learning. As Jan wrote in her reading response: "The truth is, is they can't say it, they can't write it. Students have to be able to articulate an idea, whether in their heads or out loud, in order to be able to put it on paper… it's obvious that students need time to practice speaking about everything they're learning" (Punctuation Prompt, 4/4/2016). Jan's insight is indicative of a larger understanding that emerged through the written reflections around the purpose of talk to process thinking within the classroom, though the ephemeral nature of talk created tensions around accountability.

This tension, again, was not present in the larger book club discussion, but was present in individual written responses. Maya captured this tension well in her discussion record: "I worry that talk in my classroom is going to be read as not managing my classroom. A paper, my principal can look at and see if there is learning or not. What would they look for in a discussion? They would have to be on board. If they're not, it won't go well" (4/4/2016). This tension permeated through the entirety of the book club experience as teachers worked toward more complex understandings of academic conversation in their own classrooms as a way to support their students' learning but also negotiated the kinds of teaching that were recognized by their administration.

Through book club discussion, teachers shifted their thinking about talk, exploring how they conceived of conversation itself, its place in their classrooms, as well as began to think about the tensions that emerge when new ways of teaching are enacted.

Building Cultures of Talk, Respecting Student Cultures

With the importance of talk a central concern, the focus for many participants shifted to thinking about how these discussions might occur in their own classrooms. Some participants, such as Theresa, began thinking about these concerns as early as the first meeting, as evidenced in a response on her punctuation prompts: "I so badly want my class to function like this but I really do not give them enough time to talk. I say I want my room [to be] fair, peaceful, etc… but students do not get enough time getting to know one another and hear different opinions" (4/4/2016). Much of the discussion for teachers in this first book club was aspirational, taking stock of the current cultures of their individual classrooms. As they considered possible futures for their classrooms, the teachers were cognizant of the limitations placed on them by structures external to their classrooms, including, but not limited to, administration, curriculum, and testing. Despite these challenges, the teachers worked through these challenges in their book club discussion:

> Janelle: I keep thinking about what this will look like when an administrator walks in. They're going to see kids just talking, right? I mean, they won't be just talking, you know, but that's what it might look like. That's a risk, isn't it?

> Sherry: I was thinking about this too, but then I thought about something Nick said at our last session about being professional. Part of that is breaking what that principal or whoever is seeing up. Telling them why, why we do things like this [academic conversations] and it is [emphasis] good test prep. If we set this up well, kids should be talking about what we want them talking about, right? (4/4/2016)

This exchange is representative of larger shifts in thinking that occurred both through talk and were represented in their reflection papers and discussion records. Sherry highlights an additional concern that unfurled through the book club discussion and dominated the talk of their second meeting: "what are the routines and protocols that can be used to support student talk in academic

conversations?" Such concerns were widespread in the participants' discussion records as they prepared for the second book club meeting:

- "What is the quickest method for designing conversation tasks? How do we train our students for advanced conversation" (Mitchell, Book Club Discussion Record, 4/4/2016).
- "I never realized just how much work goes into having a conversation" (Carrie, Book Club Discussion Record, 4/4/2016).

With the collaborative goal of creating these cultures of conversation in their classrooms, the teachers turned their attention to the routines and structures that could be helpful in their own contexts. Again, *Academic Conversations* was selected as a text for the book club because of its pragmatic approach to supporting students in engaging in conversation. Teachers found the protocols in the book "very useful immediately" (Sherry, Book Club Discussion Record, 4/4/2016), though conversation centered on how best to implement these protocols within their practice.

> Mitchell: *I've been using them, using them a lot. I couldn't wait, you know, to try them out and see what my students would do and it was kind of a hot mess, but we tried it.*
>
> Jan: *I haven't tried them yet. I think there needs to be larger buy in from our teams so we're using the same talk in all classes.*
>
> Mitchell: *But why wait? I think this is a chance for us to try some stuff out, see how it goes, and it's all here in the book. Our students already get they have different expectations in different classrooms. This is just like that. (Book Club Discussion, 7/7/2016)*

The precarious relationship between individual classrooms and the school as a whole was a tension arising in this second discussion, with teachers aligning with either an individual approach or a collaborative approach. Mitchell, as demonstrated by his contributions to the talk above, embodies an individual approach, taking up and enacting the protocols in his classroom; Jan, on the other hand, is more cautious and embodies a collaborative approach, a coordinated effort by her grade-level team or school as a whole. While Mitchell is enacting these practices in isolation, without any other support in his school, he is working toward that collaborative effort Jan would like: "So the first time was rough but I will get

better, the kids will get better, and then I can start pulling colleagues into my room and showing them, 'look, this is what our kids can do. Here's how I did it'" (Book Club Discussion, 7/7/2016).

Regardless of whether they favored individual or collaborative implementation, all teachers in the book club found routines to be essential to supporting their students in engaging in conversation. These routines had been referenced early in the book club process, as Jan wrote: "I've read in other teaching resources how repetition is a necessary part of teaching and learning, and this passage seems to support that idea" (Punctuation Prompt, 4/4/2016). While the book provided multiple protocols for helping scaffold academic conversations, teachers initially sought routines that could be used across any given unit; in other words, routines that all teachers would utilize, regardless of their context and content. This approach shifted as teachers neared the end of the book club discussions and had a chance to delve into what academic conversations looked like within their particular content area.

Meredea, a mathematics teacher, reflected upon this during that final conversation:

> *I've been quiet so far [in the previous book club discussions] because I didn't really see how any of this connected to me, connected to math. Sure, English, sure, social studies, even science, but not math. So I read this article and it's not in the book like some others read and it made sense. I can see how this works in math now, I can see how what you do in your class (points to Mitchell) and your class (points to Maya) can match with what's happening in mine. It doesn't look the same, that's what I didn't get before, but the ethos is there. I wouldn't have gotten that without this article. (Book Club Discussion (7/7/2017)*

Meredea experienced dissonance as she attempted to see how the work of academic conversation worked for her particular content area; it was not until the she was able to see examples specific to her and her teaching that she was able to the larger picture of how this work might be utilized on a larger scale.

In creating cultures for academic discussion, both the book, as well as the teachers themselves, considered the cultures of their students. As a culturally relevant pedagogy, academic conversation asks that teachers be conduits between discourses. Jamyla referenced this in her response form prior to the final book club conversation: "One of the challenges I see in all of this work is how to teach my students to move between two ways of talking. This academic language is

what we want but that's going to need to be taught. How do I do this without telling students how they talk is bad" (Punctuation Prompt, 7/7/2016)? In this final book club discussion, there was much attention paid to a chart in the book title "You Say… And Yet". In this chart, Zwiers and Crawford (2011) outline phrases from everyday speech and provide equivalents for academic language. "It's like a translator," replied one of the teachers during discussion. "I want them for everything."

This assertion, that students' everyday language should be welcomed in the classroom and leveraged as a way into academic conversations, also fostered tension among participants, though this dissension only manifest itself in private, written responses. Madison, in her reading response, wrote: "…we cannot provide a double standard when it comes to the use of appropriate language to communicate" (Q & R Response, 7/7/2016). Maya also reflected on this in her own response: "I want to make sure that students are using academic language. They already know how to talk street, I want them to talk like scientists" (Q & R Response, 7/7/2016).

While perspectives on the roles of home cultures of students in the classroom could be tenuous, all teachers in the book club thought deeply about classroom and school cultures, contemplating how they might change their own classroom cultures to invite more conversation and leverage those changes to better their larger school.

Structuring Activity in the Book Club

A third theme to emerge from the data wasn't about the book itself but about the ways the book club was structured. Participants were asked to create responses for each book club discussion with the form of the responses changing for each meeting. These response forms were meant to help scaffold the work teachers were doing within the book club discussion, though the purpose of them was not always clear to the participants. As Mitchell reflected: "I cursed you. Every time I had to fill out one of those response forms. I thought it got in the way of my reading, but then we would talk and I wouldn't have to find the pages in my book or nothing, I could just look at the response form and sound intelligent. Then I was all, 'well played'" (Book Club Discussion Record, 7/7/2016).

Teachers found use in the forms utilized and some began using them in their own classrooms. Jan, despite her misgivings about implementing academic conversation without the support of her larger team in her classroom, found the responses useful in her class: "I used Punctuation Prompts with my life science kids and was pleasantly surprised how well it worked with them. I thought I

would need to make adaptations because of my content area but ran out of time and just handed it out. The students were able to make really good sense of it, but I think that's because I had to do it myself and could talk about how it worked for me" (Book Club Discussion Record, 6/6/2016).

The book club was structured in such a way that the responses were aligned with the ethos of the text the teachers were exploring together. Through active and authentic engagement with these forms, teachers thought through their own learning and how it was mediated through these responses. "I realized the book club was doing all the things we were talking about trying to do in our own classrooms: create meaningful conversation," wrote Jamyla on her final discussion record (7/7/2016).

Limitations

In this manuscript we have attempted to report on efforts to understand how teachers' thinking changes from engagement in a book club as a professional development activity. The study at hand has heavily relied on artifacts of teacher thinking, structured responses, and discussion records to elucidate these revisions in thought; while these data sources have been placed into conversation with other types of data and checked with the participants, the claims contained in this report of the work have, ultimately, been constructed by the research team. Additional sources of data, including an interview or series of interviews, would help elaborate the changes in teachers' thinking over time and provide opportunities to more fully understand the impact of the book club on their thinking in more detail. Additionally, a follow up survey of implementation as well as classroom observations would help us understand the full impact of the book study on classroom conversation.

Discussion

This project highlights the potential of book clubs as a professional development option for in-service teachers. Throughout the book club experience, teachers were engaged in dialogue around salient concepts relevant to both their teaching and their content area. Selecting a book that balanced theory as well as practice was essential, as teachers were able to make ready connections between what they were reading and implement routines in their own classrooms.

This project also highlights the tensions that come about in a professional book club. As documented in the themes outlined above, there were many instances of tension between what the book was asking teachers to attempt

in their classroom and what administrators expected of them. These tensions were very rarely verbalized, though they were very much present in the written responses created by teachers. This could be attributable to the participation of a district administrator in the book club discussions: while the discussion itself was a public space, the reflections were personal. The personal responses were an important element of this book club experience. When thinking about potential book clubs, it would behoove organizers to contemplate response forms and how to best use these forms to create meaningful and relevant discussion.

For book clubs to be successful opportunities for professional development, there must be an overarching organizational structure (Burbank, Kaushak, & Bates, 2010). Organizers must attend to text selection, carefully seeking a book that will both push teachers' thinking while also providing robust material for conversation and action in the classroom.

Conclusion

As schools respond to increasingly shrinking budgets, book clubs provide one possible way forward when considering how to provide in-service teachers with high quality professional development. This project illuminates several best practices when utilizing book clubs in this manner, including the criteria for book selection, the use of particular structures for responding to the book itself, and structures to support constructive talk when the book club meets. The flexibility of a book club, which could meet before or after school, on the weekends or during lunch hour, or even in the summer months, allows for teachers to work through material with their peer group in a way that is responsive to both their personal and professional lives.

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With (Social) Justice for All: Facilitating Critical Thinking in the Social Studies Classroom

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Abstract

This single case study examined how one fifth-grade teacher enacted her vision of social justice education into her teaching practice. Guided by Bell and Wade's conceptions of social justice education, observational field notes and transcripts of student and teacher interviews were analyzed to answer the following: 1) How does a fifth-grade teacher promote students' critical thinking in the social studies classroom? 2) How does this facilitate social justice education at the classroom level? Findings indicate that the teacher intentionally supported critical thinking through scaffolds, purposeful student interactions, utilizing multiple texts, and giving students choices of texts and tasks. These supports created a classroom community where all voices were valued; thus, students were empowered and equipped to learn.

> *Learning about social justice matters. When examining real world examples or literature, children have models for navigating issues in the world. They learn approaches to solving problems, and they learn universal life lessons about the importance of contributing to the world and making a difference. They realize that ordinary people are important.*

They see that they can make a difference, and maybe, hopefully, they internalize it, and it shapes their perspective on their role in the world.
– Michelle, 5th grade teacher (Interview)

Perkins (2016) asserted that educators must consider what learning really matters in the lives of students: "[A contemporary education] is about critical and creative thinking, collaboration, communication, citizenship skills and more" (p. 15). This study reveals how one fifth-grade social studies and language arts teacher, Michelle (pseudonym), used connected texts to examine multiple perspectives and facilitate critical thinking as a means of enacting her vision of social justice education in her classroom.

Bell (2007) describes part of the goal of social justice education as helping people to develop "critical analytic tools" (p. 2) that enable an understanding of oppression and the ability to enact change. She outlines several principles of social justice education, including the following:

- Balance the emotional and cognitive components of the learning process;
- Acknowledge and support the personal (the individual student's experience) with illuminating the systemic (the interactions among social groups);
- Attend to social relations within the classroom;
- Utilize reflection and experience as tools for student centered learning;
- Value awareness, personal growth, and change as outcomes of the learning process. (Bell, 2007, pp. 32 - 33)

Wade (2007) further refines this definition by relating social justice education in the elementary classroom. She describes such classrooms as the following: Student-centered, collaborative, intellectual, critical, multicultural, and activist. She notes that care and fairness are keys to a socially just classroom, stating:

Social justice is about the day-to-day ways that we relate to our students, how we give them a voice in their learning, and our efforts to treat them according to their needs and abilities. At the same time, we must work for social justice in the world (Wade, 2007, p. 6).

Teachers may attend to students' needs and abilities through an array of connected texts. Connected texts include a diverse collection of resources on a topic,

theme, or genre (Lent, 2012). Incorporating theme-based texts from various genres and formats supports students' literacy learning (e.g., Neuman & Roskos, 2012) while simultaneously expanding their content understanding, such as in social studies (e.g., Tschida & Buchanan, 2015). They promote a critical exploration of ideas from multiple perspectives (e.g., Bersh, 2013; Dunkerly-Bean, Bean, & Alnajjar, 2014). When students read and synthesize across texts, they encounter conflicting information, different interpretations, and changing perceptions over time. Hence, they must weigh evidence and consider trustworthiness (Shanahan, 2013). Utilizing multiple texts can challenge the idea of a single story (Agarwal-Rangnath, 2013; Dodge & Crutcher, 2015), which invites discussion about social justice issues.

In this single case study (Yin, 2014), we considered the following research questions:

1. How does a fifth-grade teacher promote students' critical thinking in the social studies classroom?
2. How does this facilitate social justice education at a classroom level?

Theoretical Framework

Vygotsky's (1978) sociocultural learning perspective shaped our study, because learning occurs collectively and is mediated by cultural tools. This fits with Wade's (2007) definition of social justice, which asserts that through shared experiences, students collaboratively build knowledge as a means of "working toward…meeting everyone's basic needs and fulfilling everyone's potential to live productive and empowered lives as participating citizens of our global community" (p. 5).

Since classrooms are complex places, "teaching requires constant improvisation" (Johnston, 2012, p. 4); it is an unpredictable human endeavor. In order to meet students' learning needs, honor their natural curiosities, and invite students' co-creation of knowledge, teachers must flexibly adapt their instruction and ". . . provide spaces for their students to enter into the curriculum based on their individual histories, beliefs, and understandings" (Vaughn & Parsons, 2013, p. 90).

Methodology

This single case study (Yin, 2014) occurred in a Title 1, K-8 public school in the rural mountainous southeastern United States. Of the 600 students enrolled, 59% receive free or reduced-priced lunch. Approximately 75% of the student population identifies as White, while 18% identify as Hispanic, 2% as Native

American, and less than 2% each of Asian/Pacific Islander, two or more races, and Black.

Participants

We used a convenience sampling in that the school location was easily accessible, but we were strategic and purposive because we wanted to focus on Michelle's unique context (Miles, Huberman, & Saldaña, 2014). Michelle, an engaged teacher-leader with 16 years of experience, holds a National Board Certification and a Master's Degree in Elementary Education. She provides literacy professional development regionally, hosts student teachers and interns, and teaches methods courses as an adjunct. While Michelle earned her undergraduate and graduate degrees from our institution, neither researcher knew her as a student. We met her through colleagues and began collaborating with her on various projects. We planned and implemented this study with her input. Indeed, in the previous school year Michelle taught sixth grade language arts, and we collaborated with her on a project about using text sets with her students.

This study occurred during Michelle's first year teaching fifth-grade. She teaches social studies in her departmentalized grade level team of three. Thus, the teachers teach their subject area to each of the three classes, and then each teaches language arts to their homeroom class. While there were 58 students total, 40 held parental consent and assented to participate. We also invited the two other fifth-grade teachers to participate, and we invited the fifth-grade social studies teacher at a nearby school to participate, but they declined.

Data Sources and Analysis

Data included 12 observations over the school year with detailed field notes, one teacher interview, and seven focus group interviews with students. Observations were scheduled with Michelle in advance and conducted by researchers individually. Additionally, interviews were audio-recorded and transcribed.

Data analysis was ongoing and followed pattern coding, where initial codes emerged, changed and developed as more data were analyzed (Miles et al., 2014). First, we printed out the data sources and individually highlighted text that we thought addressed our research questions. We assigned words or short phrases to those highlighted areas. As a research team, we met and discussed our codes from the individual work and came to complete agreement as we re-examined the data together and decided on final codes.

To ensure overall trustworthiness, we maintained an audit trail, spent ample time in the field with rich descriptions, followed protocols to ensure

consistency in observations and interviews, used member checking with Michelle to ensure accuracy and credibility, and asked a peer unaffiliated with this research to conduct a review (Miles et al., 2014).

Findings

By creating a safe space where students could consider multiple perspectives and think critically about their learning, Michelle's teaching was a means of facilitating social justice. For example, Michelle strategically selected texts around historical topics and related them to contemporary ideas (e.g., industrialization and the impact on today's world; Immigration: then and now) through different lenses. This required students to consider different perspectives, as well as the relationship between the past and the present. Agarwal-Rangnath (2013) explains that part of social justice education is helping students see the connections "between the past and the present so they can see ways in which our past determines and influences our present and future" (p. 100).

We discovered that Michelle facilitated critical thinking through intentional support, using scaffolds, purposeful student interactions, multiple texts, and choices of texts and tasks, which supported social justice education at a classroom level. Michelle carefully supported the difficult work of encouraging critical thinking and allowing students to struggle with their understanding of ideas.

Scaffolds

Scaffolds encompassed explicit teaching, modeling, and anchor charts. Each scaffold was intentionally designed to create strategic readers and critical thinkers, as well as to meet the varied needs in the classroom. Michelle embedded relevance and connection between ideas throughout her use of scaffolds. An illustrative example from observational notes from March 31 follows:

> *This is a social studies class and the students are fully emerged in literacy, particularly with texts. They read, write, and discuss. They are constantly reading all sorts of books and doing all kinds of writing. Within this, Michelle provides varied supports and is strategic in the ways that she supports student understanding. She cycles back to many of the things that she's taught previously - referring to charts, notes, and books.*

When Michelle noticed that students were struggling, she immediately and flexibly adapted her instruction by providing modeling of her own thinking while

re-teaching the concept and referring to an existing visual or creating a new one with the students. None of the learning happened in a vacuum. Instead, each concept continued to build from prior learning so that anchor charts from one unit remained relevant touchstones to support future learning. One such chart was a large bulletin board decorated as a cell phone bar graph, described in the interview with Michelle in June:

> *So even taking the idea of let's read this picture book and let's talk about it, but then let's post and evaluate how deep our thinking already is. I had a cell phone bar graph that said, "How many bars is your thinking today?" Just actually weighing how much strength their comments were and putting it in visual kind of really established the culture of going deeper. The kids would ask, "Can we go deeper on this? Can you schedule some time for us to go deeper on this?" That was the kind of talk that was in my classroom this year that wasn't there before. I said, "Here is something we are going to try," and they took over.*

Students explained the idea of "going deeper" in their focus group interviews. This demonstrates how Michelle's use of scaffolds enabled all students to have a voice. She valued what students said and they, in turn, felt their voices were heard and valued, which empowered them. For instance, Emma, Mallory, and Tyson shared the following in their focus group:

> *She always wants us to think deeper… and I am saying to still dig deeper because it's what she loves us to do. When she says a fork in the road, she means not a fork that's in the road. There are two paths: Would you take the path where you are not going to do anything, or are you going to take the path where you are going to learn something and succeed in life?*

Other students further discussed how thinking critically was not a skill reserved for school. For instance, in a focus group interview, one student shared, "…you should do it at home too, because at home is where life happens and if you dig deeper with the problem you are working with, you can find an explanation to what you are looking for." During that same focus group, another student stated, "If you are going to be a cop, you have to write paperwork. If you are a detective, you have to research carefully."

Wade (2007) explains that social justice education is rigorous and gives students "opportunities for significant intellectual work that requires them to

think both critically and creatively" (p. 10). She notes that such work has to be done in a way that accommodates the needs of different learners. The scaffolds Michelle used to support deeper thinking exemplify such practice.

Purposeful Student Interactions

Michelle created opportunities for purposeful student interactions through opportunities for discussion and collaboration. Discussion helped build the learning community and expand students' thinking. For instance, during a focus group interview one student shared, "I like how… we get in a circle… we have a text discussion and everybody can share their thoughts and it can sink into everybody else and it's better for us to understand."

Beyond whole class discussions, Michelle dedicated much time for group work and partner work. Like whole class discussions, the discussions during these small groups helped students consider their own and others' perspectives. For instance, the researcher captured the following observational notes from January 7, during the unit on heroes and leaders:

> *Students working in groups. Jose wrote that President Obama was a hero but he couldn't articulate why. We talked as a [small] group about him possibly being listed as a leader and what made him a leader… [In that discussion] I brought up immigration. Jose said that's why President Obama was a hero and not just a leader. He mentioned that he saw on the "Mexican News" that President Obama would let illegal immigrants without a "bad record" stay in the country. He said that was like his dad… and would help get his dad papers… I shared that people viewed immigration differently and not everyone saw this as a good thing so it was important to put his perspective/opinion up for others.*

This brief conversation helped to expand students' thinking while considering a contentious topic, seen through different perspectives. During her interview, Michelle related this exact story and explained how it helped build the learning community and how students learned to work to co-construct knowledge through sharing. Michelle stated,

> *…it really set the tone for the rest of the year for what is acceptable sharing. It really set the tone for the community…it set a premise that we could share our ideas and be respectful. We can hear the way other people think about things in a respectful way and thoroughly listen to them and*

even consider what their reasoning is…. So these two could have had a
clash, but they ended up having a bond for the rest of the year.

It was evident in Michelle's class that she was working to create critical thinkers who were also able to collaborate and respect others' ideas. Michelle intentionally builds opportunities in the classroom community for true collaboration and cooperation in heterogeneous groupings. Wade (2007) notes that collaboration exposes students to different ideas and strategies and helps them understand how change rarely happens from isolated work. During the interview Michelle explained that by engaging in collaborative efforts and the resulting discussions, **"**Good thinking spreads and everyone starts thinking more."

Students shared in focus group interviews that they recognized value in collaborations and their commitment to the classroom community was evident throughout the observations. During a focus group, one student stated, "I like that the teacher put us in different groups and makes us work together with the people we need to help us learn."

Michelle empowered all of her students through their shared discussions and collaborations, with the focus squarely on learning as much as possible from others to help sharpen students' ideas. An illustrative example was from the November 5 observation, when Michelle noticed that students were beginning to talk about winning and losing. She stopped the activity and reminded students, "Don't let competition get in the way of critical thinking… It's not about winning but expanding the mental file." In this instance, Michelle attended to students' individual perspectives while trying to help them understand the importance of multiple perspectives through interactions in the classroom community (Bell, 2007; Wade, 2007).

Multiple Texts

Michelle used multiple texts as support because they were resources that promoted considering various perspectives, which facilitated critical thinking. She provided multiple entry points to learning through connected texts while sparking interest in learning more. For instance, Michelle selected various text types and reading levels to pique their interest in the social studies content. Students had to decide whether they had enough information to understand and participate in discussions or if they needed to find more sources or other perspectives. For example, from the March 4 observation notes, one group decided to pursue researching the lost colony of Roanoke. Students were actively searching through various texts (e.g., picture books, *National Geographic*, textbook, etc.) about this

mystery and were coming up with their own theories as they searched for information. This fits with what Agarwal-Rangnath (2013) calls "inspiring wonder" (p. 14), which "…sets the stage for intrigue, surprise, question, uncertainty, and inquiry…as wonder is often what awakens and motivates students to connect to subject matter" (p. 14).

During focus group interviews, students discussed the importance of multiple texts for multiple perspectives. One student shared, "Because in the textbook you might get information, but it's not going to give enough information." Another said, "At the end of last year I was just skimming through the textbook just looking for stuff. Now I am reading closer, finding text details and comparing texts to different texts." This illustrates Agarwal-Rangnath's (2013) position that integrating language arts and social studies is beyond learning to read and write in the content area, but instead is about learning to see what isn't there, questioning the text, and thinking for themselves. Michelle's use of multiple texts within her social studies classroom to understand what is missing from the textbook is a means of helping students begin to question the text and to think critically about the materials that are presented to them (Agarwal-Rangnath, 2013).

Michelle also connected texts from the past and present to help students see the relevance of history to their lives. For instance, during the introduction to the unit on colonists, February 4 observational notes captured the following:

> *Students read/listened to Green Day's "Good Riddance (Time of Your Life)" (Armstrong, Dirnt, & Cool, 1997) and Frost's "The Road Not Taken" (Frost & Lathem, 1979). After a discussion where everyone shares favorite lines, etc. . . .*
>
> *Michelle: What does this have to do with new beginnings?*
>
> *Student: I didn't really know what it meant by the line 'tattoos of memories' and I really liked that because it could mean so many different things.*
>
> *Michelle: What do you think they might mean by that line?*
>
> *Students suggested different things, then "maybe it was like a tattoo on your brain that never washes off."*
>
> *Michelle: What do you think this line about dead skin means?*
>
> *Students: "ewww" - but shared ideas. "Maybe it's like shedding skin and starting over;" "maybe it's talking about the afterlife."*
>
> *Michelle: Reflect on these ideas… What factors can lead to you having the time of your life? What might stand in your way?*

> *Students partnered up and compared the song and poem. Michelle shared, "This is connecting to colonists. What was their experience? How were they feeling? We're going to compare their experiences to our own experiences."*

Choices of Texts and Tasks

One means of developing students' sense of agency was to allow them choice in their learning, particularly in selecting texts and tasks within certain parameters. Often, Michelle designed instruction that allowed students to determine what they were interested in learning more about within the curriculum. For instance, in the March 4 observation, Michelle told the groups that they were going to do a data swim and that she wanted them to pursue their interests. Groups [self-selected] would focus on possibilities, problems, and solutions. One group was completely intrigued by the lost colony of Roanoke. They were clearly very interested in the topic and eager to read more, while discussing their theories as they pursued a variety of texts on the lost colony.

During focus group interviews, students shared that they valued the opportunity to learn in this way stating, "That's what I like most about Mrs. M, the projects. I like the more hands-on stuff" (John, Peter, Allison). Another student said, "I don't like to read assigned books. I like to pick a book I am interested in." Michelle believed that helping students find what intrigued them was a means of empowering their own learning. During the interview, she shared the following:

> *The complaint [from another teacher] was that kids don't know how to write a research paper question and I said well they probably don't know what they care about or what's in their heart so they have to read, they have to explore. They have to form questions as they're going and realize their question isn't getting them anywhere in their reading, and a new voice or argument might take shape.*

Wade (2007) states that social justice classrooms are student-centered places where children's "experiences, concerns, and needs" (p. 8) drive instruction. By allowing choice and helping students discover what they care about, Michelle was putting her students at the center of their learning. Agarwal-Rangnath (2013) asserts:

> *In a social justice classroom…students are encouraged to use their voices and share their opinions so that they are active, contributing members of their classroom community. Teachers can take advantage of students'*

curiosity and wonder by allowing opportunities for students to explore their important and meaningful questions (p. 19).

Discussion and Implications

As we reflected on our findings within the principles of social justice education that Bell (2007) and Wade (2007) outlined, we noted that Michelle's intentional support of students and her work to build collaborative critical thinkers was a means of giving voice to all students, empowering them, and equipping them to learn.

It was clear that Michelle valued her students and their thinking. She wanted to develop in them a sense of curiosity and agency that would extend beyond her classroom and allow them a safe space where their ideas would be heard and valued. Michelle described teaching as becoming an "agent for change" and this guided her instruction.

As a visionary teacher, Michelle implemented practices that promoted critical thinking. Wade (2007) asserts that such critical thinking is essential "if we wish to foster citizens who will actually improve, rather than just participate in, our democratic society" (p. 11). Indeed, Michelle recognized that social justice education included giving voice to those who are often silenced, which empowers students and equips them to learn. She strategically developed a classroom learning community that promoted independence and risk taking as students tackled increasingly complex ideas. Observations and focus group interviews indicated that Michelle's classroom was a place where students of differing backgrounds felt safe. Michelle attended to students' cognitive and social and emotional needs, which is important for students (e.g., Wentzel, 2009).

It is apparent from our work with Michelle that she has a strong sense of who she is. It is important for teachers to have strong visions and understandings of the world to guide their classrooms. To Michelle, social studies was not just a content area to be covered but instead was at the heart of everything in the classroom community. "Learning to teach for social justice is a challenging, complex endeavor" (Agarwal-Rangnath, 2013, p. 2). Michelle was committed to enacting her vision of social justice into her teaching. Her students noticed this commitment to them and shared the following in a focus group:

> *I wonder why teachers take time out of their own lives whenever they could be spending time with their kids and stuff to help us;*

> *Yeah, we are total strangers to them and they take out of their own time to teach us;*

> *They might do that because they like helping other people and teaching us.*

Limitations and Future Directions

We recognize that our study has limitations. Most prominently, the single case study design means it is not widely generalizable, although others in comparable contexts may have similar experiences. Additional cases of teachers enacting their social justice vision are needed to look for patterns and differences across varied situations. For example, this study was conducted in a small rural school in the southeastern United States. How might the findings be different at a large urban school in a different geographic area? Additionally, while we were interested in the facilitation of critical thinking, we did not attempt to quantitatively measure students' critical thinking. Finally, this was a one-year study that did not follow the students beyond fifth-grade, so it is not clear if students maintained their social justice learning once they were no longer in Michelle's class. More longitudinal studies might look at how lasting student learning is around social justice issues or what factors seem to affect how open students are to such learning.

While our study certainly has limitations, it is an important look at how a teacher's social justice vision can be enacted. As we reflected on our work with Michelle, it lead us to question what our ultimate goals are as educators and what we are doing to create classrooms/schools where teachers can lead with their vision. These questions are especially pertinent in a standards-driven, high-stakes environment. Future research should explore what supports and restrains teachers from enacting their visions in their classrooms, as well as how this is addressed in teacher education programs, professional development efforts, and educational leadership preparation.

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Literacy Leaders in Partnership

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Abstract
A first-year elementary school literacy specialist and a literacy professor collaborated within a school-university partnership. Their combined efforts to meet the needs of teachers and students resulted in mutual growth in professional knowledge and skills imperative to their effectiveness in each of their roles. In this article, the literacy professor describes the gains they've experienced and the specific actions that led to these gains.

Introduction

In 2001, The National Council for the Accreditation of Teacher Education (NCATE) put forth standards for professional development schools (NCATE, 2001) in which the necessity of partnerships between K-12 schools and teacher preparation programs is made clear. As is evident from decades of K-12 education reform (Hedrick Smith Productions, 2005), improving student learning is not limited to the context of K-12 schools and classrooms. With their standards for professional development schools and the Report of the Blue Ribbon Panel on Clinical Preparation and Partnerships for Improved Student Learning (NCATE, 2010) NCATE has asserted that significant and sustainable improvement of K-12 student learning is only possible when teacher preparation and professional development are also addressed. Partnerships between K-12 schools and teacher preparation institutions address both entities simultaneously and with greater success than can be achieved individually (Holen & Yunk, 2014; Teitel, 2004).

Further supporting this attestation, standard two of the Council for the Accreditation of Educator Preparation (CAEP) standards for accreditation *requires* educator preparation programs to develop partnerships that will ensure high-quality clinical practice for teacher candidates (Council for the Accreditation of Educator Preparation, 2013). There is a great deal of research supporting NCATE's work and this CAEP standard, not only to improve teacher candidate preparation, but also for the professional development of teachers (Vernon-Dotson & Floyd, 2008, 2012) and improvement of classroom instruction and student learning within partnering schools (Mariage & Garmon, 2003). Unfortunately, the literature reveals that literacy specialists are rarely considered in such partnership work and insufficient attention has been given to the benefits to higher education faculty.

Conceptual Framework

Learning Theories Supporting School-University Partnerships

School-university partnerships afford preservice teachers, classroom teachers, literacy specialists, and teacher educators a plethora of learning opportunities given the context within which their learning occurs and the constant collaboration required in partnership work. School-university partnerships are ideal contexts for the development and preparation of these educators given their frequent and consistent experiences aligning with the learning theories of cognitive apprenticeship (Collins, Brown & Newman, 1987), communities of practice (Wenger, 1998), situated learning theory (Lave, 1991), social learning theory (Bandura, 1977), and experiential learning (Kolb, 1983). While alignment with such learning theories has been noted as a benefit for preservice teachers and classroom teachers working in school-university partnerships (Darling-Hammond, 2012), I argue that when a school's literacy specialist and a teacher educator partner within this context, they too gain knowledge, skills, and understandings through their experiences aligning with these learning theories.

Roles and Responsibilities of Literacy Professionals

The roles of literacy professionals have and continue to evolve with changes in schools and education policy. For example, the employment of literacy coaches and various attempts to define this role became prevalent following the passing of the No Child Left Behind Act in 2001 (No Child Left Behind [NCLB], 2002; Kowal & Steiner, 2007; Borman & Feger, 2006). The subsequent Reading First

initiative provided grant money to fund literacy coaches, thereby increasing the number of coaches employed in U.S. schools, though many of these coaches were rarely fulfilling the intention of the literacy coach role (Shaw, 2007) as described by the International Reading (now Literacy) Association (International Reading Association, 2004).

Changing policies, standards, and the contexts within which specialists work continue to influence the work of literacy professionals in schools, descriptions of their roles, as well as the standards guiding their preparation (Bean & Lillenstein, 2012; Galloway & Lesaux, 2014; International Literacy Association, 2015). The literature investigating the work of literacy professionals in schools reveals an ever-increasing leadership role in which these professionals are expected to support student learning school-wide through collaboration with administrators, teachers, and other specialists (Bean, Kern, Goatley, 2015; Calo, Sturtevant, Kopfman, 2015; Elish-Piper, L'Allier, & Zwart, 2008; Sturtevant & Kopfman, 2011). While specialized knowledge of literacy processes, acquisition, assessment and instruction are paramount (L'Allier, Elish-Piper, & Bean, 2010), the increased responsibilities of leading school-wide literacy program development, evaluation, and improvement, and providing professional development to all teachers requires that literacy professionals also obtain knowledge of adult learning principles and interpersonal skills, while continually developing leadership dispositions (Calo, Sturtevant, Kopfman, 2015). This is clearly a tall order, especially for newly hired literacy professionals, and necessitates literacy specialists' ongoing professional development to ensure their success and the continued growth of all teachers and students within their schools. To prepare literacy specialists who can fill these complex roles, faculty in higher education must also continue to refine their knowledge and skills with careful attention to the realities of very demanding contexts within which literacy specialists work.

Methodology

Procedure

Clearly, the benefits of partnership between schools and universities are many, and the need to support newly certified literacy specialists are great. This drove me to establish a partnership with a school near the university where I teach undergraduate preservice teachers and graduate literacy specialist candidates. While I was initially focused on capitalizing on the benefits of the school's philosophy of literacy education (i.e. emphasizing meaning making and children's love of reading), I realized in a short time the ways in which the partnership was

influencing me as a professional. As the partnership continued, now in its fourth year, it has evolved into a much more transformational rather than transactional partnership (Butcher, Bezzina, Moran, 2010) in which there is a mutually beneficial exchange of knowledge and expertise. A key factor in this evolution has been consistent collaboration with the school's literacy specialist.

As a university faculty member charged with preparing undergraduate preservice teachers to teach reading and writing, I sought out a context within which teacher candidates would have the opportunity to see in action the various approaches and teaching strategies I was teaching in their literacy methods course. In addition, having read of the benefits of long-term clinical experiences, I desired a context within which candidates could remain in one building working with a classroom teacher over the course of more than just one semester. The partnership matches ten undergraduate candidates with ten veteran teachers in the building. I serve as the candidates' fieldwork supervisor and professor. As such, I am in the elementary school all day one day per week observing the candidates, collaborating with the classroom teachers, and teaming with the building's newly hired literacy specialist, Katie.

As a recently certified literacy specialist, Katie (pseudonym) was feeling confused about her role in the building. The school and district administration provided little direction and seemed very uncertain about what a literacy specialist could or should be doing to support the literacy instruction of children in the building beyond providing intervention services. As this is a common occurrence in the field (Hathaway, Martin, & Mraz, 2015), I was not surprised and jumped on the opportunity to guide her and the administration to expand her role to encompass more of what literacy specialists are currently prepared to do. Within the first two weeks of the school year, Katie and I were meeting during my weekly visits to the school, and by the end of the school year, we had planned and presented a wide variety of professional development sessions together. Our collaborative work resulted in layered coaching and leadership (Allen, 2016) which has facilitated valuable changes to literacy instruction and assessment, and measurable positive impacts on student learning. At the end of our first year working together to support the teachers and administrators, we reflected on the numerous gains we had experienced as a result of our work.

Findings

The findings are organized according to the gains experienced by the literacy specialist and literacy professor before discussing mutual gains from the partnership.

Novice Literacy Specialist Gains

Increased knowledge and use of literacy research.   As I've found to be true of many newly graduated literacy specialists, Katie found that she'd strayed away from reading the research and keeping up to date with developments in the field. In our work of preparing various professional development sessions for the teachers in the building and collaborating to support individual teachers and students, I called on the research and other professional publications for answers and advice. Witnessing this recurring practice and the positive outcomes helped Katie renew her interest in research and expand her knowledge with reputable resources. After having collaborated for over a year now, it is very common to exchange articles, book titles, and digital resources that fulfill both our needs.

Reframing her thinking of the literacy specialist role.   Katie was hired to replace the twenty-year veteran reading teacher, and as such, encountered uncertainty about her role and responsibilities in the building. When I started working with Katie, it was clear that the teachers and administration had outdated conceptions of what literacy specialists do and were bound to the idea that these professionals work almost exclusively with struggling readers in a pull-out intervention format. Though Katie had gained knowledge and skills to take on other responsibilities through her graduate coursework (i.e. professional development and coaching), she and the administration had difficulty reshaping the position to fit the school's needs. As she and I worked together to support teachers and students, we openly discussed the confusions and ambiguity she was running into. Through our ongoing communication with the administration and teachers, in addition to co-presenting professional development sessions for teachers, Katie's and others' understanding of her role within the building has expanded. Teachers now routinely approach her to obtain support with classroom literacy instruction as opposed to limiting their contact to concerns about struggling students. In addition, our conversations and collaborative work reveal her interest in and ability to support building and district-wide literacy instructional challenges.

Confirmation of professional knowledge and skills.   Just as is the case with a novice in any professional field, Katie has grown in her confidence and assuredness. In our work planning professional development, discussing ways to address teachers' and students' challenges, and determining next steps to support the building, I have had the opportunity to point out to Katie the ways in which she is succeeding in her new role and benefiting others with her knowledge and expertise. Katie shared the following with me after our first year working together,

> *Even though I finished my graduate work in literacy, when I started working with you, I was new to the profession. I was worried that I was not qualified enough to give input during our discussions. As our relationship progressed, I became more confident and able to express my ideas and share resources more frequently – I began to see the value of what I was sharing. Working in such close proximity with you helped me become more confident in the knowledge I had and more confident in assisting other teachers who have more experience than myself.*

In fact, in our first months of working together, Katie frequently exclaimed, "Hey look! I know something!" While humorous, this comment reveals a growing sense of self-efficacy that is crucial to success in this oftentimes isolating and uncertain role bridging administrators and classroom teachers. Because I had been supporting the school's teachers to improve classroom literacy instruction prior to Katie being hired, it was not unusual for them to approach me with questions or concerns; therefore, it was important that I refer teachers to Katie and promote her knowledge and expertise. Katie shared the following at the conclusion of our first year working together,

> *I could see the other teachers in the building were beginning to trust my opinions and expertise because they already had trust in you and saw that* you *had trust in* me*. By working together, the other teachers were able to see me as a resource when they were struggling to help students that were below or above grade level, or even when they needed reassurance or clarification on literacy assessments and activities.*

With each successful experience of supporting the teachers, Katie has further strengthened her self-efficacy in this new role.

Literacy Professor's Gains

I experienced many of the gains evident in the literature on the benefits of school-university partnerships (Holen & Yunk, 2014). For example, I was drawn to new areas of research, and gained a deeper understanding of challenges teachers face when attempting to learn and implement current best practices in their literacy instruction. My credibility among both teacher candidates and practicing teachers also grew as a result of weekly contact and discussion with them at the school, as well as my support of the elementary students within their classrooms. Although these gains are important, I found significant and different gains resulted from collaboration with the literacy specialist, Katie.

More critical stance toward teacher and literacy specialist preparation. Seeing and often experiencing the challenges of a newly hired literacy specialist has helped me identify practices, knowledge, skills, and dispositions that must be addressed in the teacher and specialist programs within which I teach at the university. For example, as I worked with Katie and the school and district administration to better understand how to shape the literacy specialist role within the school, I realized that the undergraduate teacher candidates had little, if any, understanding of what a literacy specialist does or how they might work with a literacy specialist in their future careers as elementary teachers. Furthermore, I realized the necessity to equip graduate literacy specialist candidates with the dispositional skills and facility to navigate the challenges of being an advocate for children, teachers, and literacy learning in the context of what is oftentimes a political minefield.

Perspectives that influence literacy instruction in schools. The most influential benefit of collaborating with the literacy specialist in the partnership is my deeper understanding of various perspectives on literacy teaching and learning. This collaboration has helped me to analyze literacy teaching and learning from the perspective of elementary students at varying grade levels, classroom teachers, and the literacy specialist, principal, and district level administration. Observing instruction on a day-to-day and long term basis (over the course of four years) within multiple classrooms at all elementary grade levels has helped me understand the ways in which today's elementary students learn and classroom teachers work to meet students' literacy learning needs. This knowledge and understanding has been critical to collaboration with the literacy specialist as we both work to support teachers and students, as well as administrators. Discussing these day-to-day observations and developing insights over time has enabled us to assist the building principal and district administration in making important decisions about curriculum, assessment, and future professional development.

Working alongside the literacy specialist, classroom teachers, principal, and district administrators has increased my understanding of the contexts and constraints teacher candidates and specialist candidates will encounter in their future careers. With this increased understanding, I am better equipped in my teaching and have been able to positively impact program planning at the university. For example, I have altered lectures and created in-class activities and assignments to facilitate literacy specialist candidates' awareness of the multiple factors that currently influence assessment decisions at the state, district, school, classroom, and intervention levels. I have also helped specialist candidates refine their coaching and professional development skills by exposing them to the current challenges and complexities of designing and delivering professional development.

Mutual Gains

Collaboration skills.   One very challenging aspect of the literacy specialist role is collaborating with a wide variety of people from various perspectives who have differing goals, ideas, and understandings of literacy. Listening to Katie's experiences with this as well as both working together with teachers and administrators has helped us improve our collaboration skills. We have learned a great deal about the value and impact of clear communication, developing trust, responsiveness to adult learners' needs, and working through tensions in the elementary school context. The ongoing development of my collaboration skills and awareness of their importance has helped me to assist future teacher and specialist candidates to learn and practice these skills in the college classroom.

Increased commitment to literacy specialist work and self-efficacy. Katie and I have become more cognizant of and committed to the impact of a literacy specialist in a school. Because we've collaborated so closely, we have had many opportunities to put our heads together to solve a wide variety of problems impacting children's literacy learning. For example, when we observe or learn of teachers' struggles to implement assessments or instructional techniques we've taught in a professional development session, we both reflect on why and how to address it. With each success and each challenge we face, our self-efficacy improves. We see the value of our work within our different contexts of the elementary school and the university classroom and grow in our belief that we can make a difference in the lives of the children and teachers we work with.

Validation and refinement of evidence-based practices.   Because we have consistent contact with one another, we have been able to share resources, ideas, and reflections on our teaching experiences with children and adults. We have shared success stories of using particular literacy instructional practices, and our struggles or confusions with others. We've questioned, discussed, and researched practices we are curious about and have supported one another to implement them. Following co-presented professional development sessions, we have reflected on our teaching and the teachers' evaluations of our sessions. All of this has helped us become more skilled, creative, and effective teachers of children and teachers, and has helped me to teach the most current evidence-based practices to future teachers and specialists at the university.

Discussion

Katie and I have established and maintained an important professional collaboration that positively influences our learning and growth. And yet, how can our

experience be of value to others? As we reflected on the gains we experienced, we identified specific mindsets and actions that led to the positive outcomes and that could be enacted within other collaborative partnerships between literacy specialists and university professors.

Mindsets

Katie and I were very open to discovering what could come of collaboration with one another. We discussed the ways we could revise our responsibilities to meet the school's needs and were flexible about how this could look and how it might change over time. For example, whereas I was originally trying to work with individual classroom teachers on their instructional needs, Katie was originally trying to work with individual students on their learning needs. We quickly determined how we could become more efficient and effective by working together to address the common instructional challenges impacting struggling students' literacy learning in various classrooms throughout the building. This required developing trust in and respect for one another's knowledge, expertise, and professional experiences. The trust and respect we established has become the foundation for learning from and with one another.

Actions

Given that novice literacy specialists are often inexperienced in teaching adults, and that Katie had not yet established a leadership role within the building, it was important to her that I take the lead with professional development at the beginning of the year. In the beginning of the first year of our collaboration, Katie assisted with some of the planning and mostly observed professional development sessions. Her follow-up work after these sessions was extremely important to affecting change in the building and to establishing her role as a support for teachers. She checked-in with teachers about what they were trying to implement and retaught strategies and techniques informally when needed. In addition, when approached by classroom teachers with questions or concerns related to professional development topics, I often referred the teachers to Katie. She quickly grew in her ability to field questions and address concerns with recommendations and resources, and the teachers soon began to see Katie as a source of knowledge and support. Over time, Katie and I began to co-plan and co-present numerous professional development sessions that varied in purpose, length, and audience. We mutually agreed upon who would take the lead and then observed and provided feedback to one another following each session.

Most importantly, we established routine meetings approximately once per week when I was in the building with the undergraduate teaching candidates. These weekly meetings were critical to our efforts to meet students' and teachers' needs, and led to many of the gains we experienced. At these meetings, we discussed what we'd observed in classrooms focusing on the areas for which we'd provided professional development. We also discussed questions and concerns teachers had shared with each of us, and determined how these could be addressed individually or at the building level. Katie and I also reviewed and analyzed data from school-wide literacy assessments, feedback surveys that followed professional development sessions, and surveys of teachers' instructional needs. These conversations helped us understand the needs of students and teachers, and informed our conversations with the principal and administration as we advocated for time and resources to meet these needs.

Recommendations

Katie and I have determined that the collaborative partnership we've established is unique, and yet we believe such partnerships can be replicated by others in the field of literacy. One of the easiest ways to do so is for professors and recently graduated literacy specialists to remain in contact. A professor who approaches a building literacy specialist to establish a partnership should do so with the intention of supporting the specialist to become a literacy leader within the school. Showing respect for the specialist's knowledge and perspective is imperative and will help create a foundation of trust that can lead to mutual gains and improved literacy learning throughout the building.

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Beliefs of Inservice Teachers about Implementing Literacy Strategies in the Content Areas

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Abstract
The study investigated in-service teachers' perception about teaching literacy strategies in content areas and their confidence in implementing content literacy strategies in lesson. It examined changes in their perception and confidence over the course of semester. Pre-and post-surveys were collected from 23 in-service teachers enrolled in master and doctoral content area reading courses. The teachers reported changes in their beliefs, attitudes, and confidence in teaching reading in content areas and some changes were statistically significant.

Introduction

Literacy is important for successful learning. In fact, research has shown that students learn more when they have teachers who explain, model, and guide their practice in how to use literacy strategies so that students can use them independently (National Reading Panel, 2000; Rosenshine, 2012; Rubie-Davies, 2007). Research has also shown that when teachers used literacy strategies in content areas such as science and social studies, students' understanding of the content improved (Greenleaf, Brown, & Litman, 2004; Mosborg, 2002).

The use of literacy strategies is especially important in the classroom, since classroom textbooks are most likely written above grade level (Robison, Roden, & Szabo, 2015; Szabo & Sinclair, 2012). Additionally, textbooks are not reader friendly, as they include inaccurate headings, authors who jump from one topic to another, and use different text structures that are embedded within the same sections. These concepts make learning and using literacy strategies while teaching content imperative for teachers to use. Thus, effective teachers know the subjects they teach as well as how to teach those subjects to students (Shulman, 2016).

Purpose

Ness (2016) found that over the course of her study, only 3% of instructional time was spent on comprehension strategy instruction at the secondary level. Reasons include a lack of training in reading comprehension and beliefs that using reading strategies detracted from teaching content information. While much research has been conducted with secondary preservice and in-service teachers' attitudes toward teaching content area literacy strategies (CALS; Hall & Sabey, 2007; Hong-Nam & Szabo, 2014; Szabo, Sinclair & Boggs, 2008), as well as elementary preservice teachers' attitude toward CALS (Hong-Nam & Szabo, 2012; Sampson, Linek, Raine, & Szabo, 2013; Szabo, Linek, Sampson, & Raine, 2012; Szabo, Sinclair, & Boggs, 2008), little research has investigated the attitudes and beliefs of in-service teachers enrolled in a graduate content area reading method course and their knowledge and self-efficacy in content area practices (Hong-Nam & Szabo, 2017, Jackson & Cunningham, 1994; Konopak, Readence, & Wilson, 2001; Ness, 2016). Therefore, the current study investigated the following questions:

1. What attitudes do in-service teachers enrolled in a graduate content area reading methods course have about teaching literacy strategies in content areas?

2. How does a content area reading method course change/affect in-service teachers' attitudes toward teaching content literacy strategies and their knowledge and confidence over the course of semester?

Literature Review
Theoretical Framework

This study is situated in several theories: adult learning theory, metacognition theory, and self-efficacy theory. The adult learning theory states that adults are reflective, problem-oriented learners and are motivated by internal factors to

achieve their learning goal (Knowles, 1984). The metacognitive theory states that it is important for learners to think about their thinking and adjust when new information has been added to their knowledge base (Flavell, 1979, 1987). Metacognition includes being aware of one's knowledge base and adjusting one's understanding when knowledge is added to deepen the learning process that drives one's actions (Bransford, Brown & Cocking, 2000; Tanner, 2012). When applied to teaching, self-efficacy theory is the belief in one's ability to become an effective teacher (Bandura, 1994; Kushner, 1993). This confidence in one's ability to teach well will motivate the teacher to learn how to change his practices and purposefully use literacy comprehension strategies while teaching, in order to promote better learning.

Teachers' Attitudes and Beliefs

Since attitudes and beliefs determine one's actions, a teacher's attitudes and beliefs not only impact classroom happenings but also the instructional process (Richardson, 1996). Thus, it is important to consider teachers' beliefs and attitudes in order to help them develop into effective teachers. Teachers' attitudes and beliefs determine if they have a positive or negative impact on student learning (Darling-Hammond, 2000; Hong-Nam & Szabo, 2012; Soric, 2011; Szabo & Mokhtari, 2004). There is no "play book" underlying teaching practices, which makes teaching an art (Szabo, 2009). It is teachers' attitudes and beliefs that determine how teachers will respond to classroom happenings and if their actions promote a positive response from the students. In effect, teachers start to build confidence in the ability to become an effective teacher.

Teacher Confidence and Effective Teaching

The issues of confidence and competency have been discussed within Bandura's concept of self-efficacy (Bandura 1994). This includes "what people think, believe and feel affects how they behave" (Bandura, 1986, p. 25), as well as a person's beliefs about their abilities directly impacting their performance. Subsequently, it is important that teachers develop confidence in their ability to explicitly teach students how to use literacy strategies well so their learning flourishes.

Darling-Hammond (2000) emphasized that effective teachers teach with confidence and confidence is developed as teachers learn what good teachers do. She continued that effective teachers not only have content knowledge but also understand how to use various skills and strategies to help students learn. In turn, effective teachers have high expectations for both themselves and their students (Rubio, 2010). Effective teachers constantly self-evaluate, analyze, reflect,

and learn about teaching. Thus, taking coursework at the university is one way for teachers to learn and develop new ways to teach their students how to use literacy comprehension strategies while reading content textbooks.

Explicit Instruction and Strategy Usage

One of the best tools to promote learning is explicit instruction (Rosenshine, 1987, 2012). Explicit instruction provides both support and scaffolding to students while they are guided through the learning process. Rosenshine (1987) described this form of instruction as "a systematic method of teaching with emphasis on proceeding in small steps, checking for student understanding, and achieving active and successful participation by all students" (p. 34).

By using explicit instruction, teachers may maximize students' literacy strategy use. This is especially essential since strategies and skills used to teach comprehension are numerous, unnecessary, and ineffective (Dewitz, Jones & Leahy, 2009). Many times the large amount of strategies taught means that students acquire a superficial understanding of how they work. Dewitz and colleagues stated:

> *Our analysis of comprehension instruction in core reading programs demonstrates several shortcomings that may undermine their efficacy. First, the comprehension skills and strategies curricula are wide but not terribly deep. The structure of the curricula is often incoherent so that students and teachers do not know how skills and strategies relate to one another or how acquiring these sets of skills leads to becoming a better reader. (p. 120)*

In sum, research has shown that teaching students how to use comprehension strategies as they read improves reading achievement and comprehension (McKeown, Beck, & Blake, 2009). It is through explicit instruction and scaffolding students receive the support necessary to apply strategies well in order for them to be successful in learning content information (Archer & Hughes, 2011).

Methods

Design

This action research study used a pre/post- survey design to help the teacher reflect on the curriculum within the content-area teaching course. Because of the nature of action research, it is not generalizable to other populations.

Participants

The current study participants consisted of 23 graduate students enrolled in a content area reading course at a university in the southwest United States. The participants were 10 master students and 13 doctoral students. The participants consisted of 22 female students and one male student who ranged in age from 20 to 58 with mean age of 41 years. The composition of ethnicity of participants was 12 Caucasian (52%), 6 African American (26%), 3 Hispanic (13%), and 2 Asian (9%). A majority of the participants were classroom teachers (65%) currently teaching K-12 and the rest (45%) were working as school administrator (e.g., principal or assistant principal) or school district officer (e.g., curriculum director). About half of the participants had more than 10 years (58%) of teaching experiences and the rest (42%) had under 10 years.

Content Area Reading Course

The participants in the study were enrolled in two separate content area reading courses. Masters students were enrolled in a master level course and doctoral students were enrolled in a doctoral level content course. Both content area reading courses were a mandatory course for both student groups working toward their degrees. Although the courses were designed for graduate students to explore ways to integrate reading and writing instruction into content instruction, the focus of each course varied slightly: the masters level course examined learning strategies across disciplines and grade levels as well as research on content area literacy, while the doctoral course emphasized metacognition in the content area classroom and research in content area reading. Both masters students and doctoral students were provided various reading materials and course assignments related to the content area literacy during the 16-week semester. The same instructor taught both courses.

Instrument

To investigate in-service teachers' attitude toward implementing literacy instruction in content areas, the researchers employed the attitudes questionnaire, *A Scale to Measure Attitudes toward Teaching Reading in Content Classrooms* (Vaughan, 1997). The questionnaire is comprised of 15 statements about teachers' attitudes toward teaching reading in content area classrooms. Responses were scored by assigning values on a 7-point Likert scale from 1(Strongly Disagree) to 7 (Strongly Agree). The survey also included questions asking demographic information of the participants, such as age, gender, major, ethnicity, current position, and years of teaching experience.

Data Collection and Analysis

Data were collected from 23 in-service teachers and school administrators enrolled in graduate content area reading courses using the pre/post- survey approach. A pre-survey was administered during the first class period and post-survey was distributed during the last class session in order to determine any changes in their attitudes and confidence in the application of content literacy strategy use over the course of semester.

Several statistical techniques were employed for data analyses after the post-survey collected. Descriptive statistics were calculated for summarizing demographic information and describing in-service teachers' attitudes toward teaching reading and their confidence in implementing literacy instruction in the content areas. A Paired *t*-test was used for determining the differences in changes in the teachers' attitudes and confidence between the pre-and post-survey.

Findings

Overall Attitudes Score and Change

The mean scores revealed that the in-service teachers reported changes in their attitudes and opinions about implementing literacy instruction over the course of the semester (Pre: M = 4.54; Post: M = 4.76) and the changes were statistically significant (t = –2.05, p = 0.04) at $p<0.05$ level. Table 1 presents the overall mean scores and Paired *t*-test score of the pre/post survey data.

TABLE 1
Paired *t*-test Score on Attitudes Survey

Survey	*M*	*SD*	*t*	*p*	Difference*
Pre	4.54	4.76	–2.05	0.04	Post>Pre
Post	4.73	5.27			

Note: * $p < 0.05$

Specific Changes in Attitudes

As shown in Table 1, the participants reported some degree of changes, either positive or negative, on all but one individual item over the course of semester. In addition to the mean scores for overall attitude change, the results of the descriptive statistics (mean and standard deviation) and Paired *t*-test of each item on the attitudes questionnaire were determined and are presented in Table 2.

Among the items, changes on four individual items were statistically significant. First, Item two asked the participants if technical vocabulary should be introduced in content areas before reading the text. The mean score showed high agreement on the pre (5.9) and moved even higher on the post (6.5). Thus, this change was statistically significant (Item 2, $t = -2.73$, $p = 0.01$). Second, participants were asked if only few students can learn all they need to know about how to read in six years of schooling. The mean score showed moderate agreement on the pre (3.95) but a high mean score on the post (5.35). Thus, this change was statistically significant (Item 4; $t = -2.08$, $p = 0.05$). Third, the participants were asked if knowing how to teach reading in content areas should be required for K-12 teaching certification. The mean score showed there was a high agreement with this statement for the pre (5.3) but an even higher agreement was found at the end of the course (6.04). Thus, the mean difference was statistically significant (Item 6; $t = -1.79$, $p = 0.09$). Finally, participants were asked if content area teacher should be responsible for helping students think on an interpretive level as well as a literal level when they read. The mean score on the pre (5.9) was high but at the end of the course it was even higher (6.4). Thus, the change was also statistically significant (Item 10; $t = -1.81$, $p = 0.08$).

The mean scores on ten items indicated that there were some changes in students' attitudes and beliefs over the course of semester although the changes were not statistically significant. Five of the statements had a positive change while five statements at negative change. For example on the positive changed statements, more participants felt content area teacher should help students improve their reading (Item 1). They also felt that content teachers should be responsible for helping students to set a purpose as they read content material (Item 12), be able to help students to read the content textbook (Item 13) and become familiar with theoretical concepts or reading process (Item 15). However, they still strongly felt the primary responsibility of a content area teacher should be to teaching subject matter (Item 3).

The participants lowered their score on five items. They disagreed that content teachers should teach only content (Item 3 & Item 9), and that it was the responsibility of the reading teacher to teach the students how to study in content area classroom (Item 5, Item 9, & Item 14). However, item 8 which ask the participants if a teacher who wants to improve students' interest in reading should show them that he or she likes to read, was unchanged.

TABLE 2
Paired *t*-test of Items on the Attitudes Questionnaire

	Item	Pre		Post		*t*	P
		M	**SD**	**M**	**SD**		
1	A content area teacher is obliged to help students improve their reading ability.	6.26	1.02	6.43	0.53	–0.64	0.53
2	Technical vocabulary should be introduced to students in content classes before they meet those terms in a reading passage.	5.91	1.45	6.48	0.44	–2.73	0.01*
3	The primary responsibility of a content teacher should be to impart subject matter knowledge.	5.09	1.63	4.83	0.59	0.62	0.56
4	Few students can learn all they need to know about how to read in six years of schooling.	3.95	4.68	5.35	3.42	–2.08	0.05*
5	The sole responsibility for teaching students how to study should lie with reading teachers.	2.09	2.36	1.78	1.18	0.85	0.41
6	Knowing how to teach reading in content areas should be required for K-12 teaching certification.	5.30	2.50	6.04	1.50	–1.79	0.09**
7	Only English or Reading teachers should be responsible for teaching reading in K-12 classrooms.	2.30	2.04	2.00	2.27	0.75	0.46
8	A teacher who wants to improve students' interest in reading should show them that he or she likes to read.	5.83	2.24	5.83	2.6	0.00	1.00
9	Content teachers should teach content and leave reading instruction to reading teachers.	1.87	0.76	1.70	0.86	0.75	0.46

10	A content area teacher should be responsible for helping students think on an interpretive level as well as a literal level when they read	5.91	1.08	6.39	0.52	−1.81	0.08**
11	Content area teachers should feel a greater responsibility to the content they teach than to any reading instruction they may be able to provide.	3.44	1.80	3.57	1.89	−0.33	0.75
12	Content area teachers should help students learn to set purposes for reading.	6.39	0.61	6.52	0.35	−0.68	0.50
13	Every content area teacher should teach students how to read material in his or her content specialty.	6.35	0.78	6.65	0.42	−1.43	0.17
14	Reading instruction in K-12 content area classrooms is a waste of time.	1.44	0.53	1.22	0.36	1.10	0.28
15	Content area teachers should be familiar with theoretical concepts of the reading process	5.96	1.50	6.17	0.88	−0.74	0.47
	Total						

Note: $*p<0.05$
$**p<0.10$

Confidence in Teaching Reading in Content Areas

At the end of the course, participants were asked to report if they felt the content area reading courses better prepared them to teach reading skills to their students using a 5-point Likert-scale. The participants felt the course prepared them to better teach reading ($M = 4.4$) and helped them to learn content literacy strategies and improve their teaching practice in content area classrooms ($M = 4.78$).

Limitations

Even though there were some positive findings, the following limitations should be kept in mind as discussion of findings are read. First, this was a small sample size, as there were only 23 participants. Second, all the participants were in-service

teachers enrolled in a content area reading course but some were working on their master's degree and some their doctorate degree. Even though the 2 courses were taught by the same instructor, the content was a little different and each class worked on different strategies and pedagogy. Third, the participants were not all teachers in the classroom who would be teaching reading, as some participants were assistant principals and principals. Fourth, all the data is self-reported and one tends to rate themselves higher than they should. Fifth, action research is used to look at solving problems in a particular setting and is not generalizable to other settings. This action research was interested in looking at the curriculum of the university course to ascertain potential course changes.

Discussion

When looking at individual items from the survey, four changed significantly and 10 changed but the change was not significantly. Only one item stayed the same (Item 8). The participants strongly agreed that technical vocabulary should be introduced in content areas before reading the text and knowing how to teach reading in content areas should be required for K-12 teaching certification. The similar findings were also reported in prior studies which have reported the importance of frontloading of new vocabulary before reading and providing content area reading course in teacher education program (Bean, 2001; Hong-Nam & Szabo, 2012, 2014, 2017; Patberg, Dewitz, & Henning, 1984).

Another significant change in the participants' belief was that they strongly felt teacher education institute should provide a mandatory content area reading method course in K-12 education certificate program. Additionally, as the participants reported that the content area reading courses better prepared them to teach reading instruction and literacy strategies to their students, they felt the content area reading course helped them improve their teaching practices and become more effective teachers. Previous research also indicated that effective teachers are not only knowledgeable in content but confident in teaching; they know how to teach and incorporate various literacy strategies into their lesson when they are provided with appropriate training and education in reading comprehension (Darling-Hammond, 2000; Ness, 2016; Rubio, 2010).

More in-service teachers also strongly felt that content area teacher should be responsible for helping students think and read, because they strongly believed that not all students can learn all they need to comprehend the text during the school years. It is apparent that the in-service teachers felt that content area teachers should scaffold students' learning and provide explicit instruction with various CALS such as think-aloud or comprehension monitoring to improve the reading skills and abilities of students.

After a 16-week content area reading instruction course, the in-service teachers in the current study strongly felt that content area teachers should share the responsibility of teaching reading skills with English teachers to help students to think critically when reading. These findings can be significant, because the participants were experienced teachers with more than 10 years of teaching experience. Even these experienced teachers grew in their confidence to implement include explicit strategy instruction. This is an important step, as research has shown that effective teachers know the subjects they teach as well as how to teach those subjects to students (Rosenshine, 2012; Shulman, 2016).

Conclusion

The findings of the current study indicated that the participants' attitudes toward CALS not only changed but improved, as the overall mean score changed from a fairly high score of 4.5 (pre) to 4.7(post) and the changes were statistically significant. Thus, the content area literacy courses did have a positive impact and helped these in-service teachers and administrators to change their beliefs and attitudes toward the importance of using literacy strategies in content area classrooms. Because the participants felt more knowledgeable and better prepared, the course also helped them to improve their confidence and their self-efficacy beliefs that they could and should incorporate CALS into their content area teaching instruction.

In turn, the results of this study support the findings of previous research showing that teachers' teaching practices improve when they are provided content area reading course (Hall, 2005; Hong-Nam & Szabo, 2017; Kenopak, Readence, & Wilson, 2001; Stieglitz, 1983). Therefore, ongoing education at the university level where teachers receive explicit instruction can be a compelling professional learning community that allows them incorporate CALS into their classroom instruction. Not only did teachers learn to change and feel better about their teaching practices, but they also became confident in increasing student learning (Darling-Hammond, 2000; Shulman, 2016).

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Teachers' Application and Integration of Multiple Literacy Modalities in Teaching as Students Learn and Communicate Knowledge Within and Across Disciplines

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Abstract

This action research examined faculty, teacher, and teacher candidates understanding and application of literacy modalities and strategies to teach and learn content within and across disciplines. To achieve this goal, the study explored the why and how of the pedagogical decision making in using the literacy modalities of reading, writing, speaking, listening, viewing, and visually representing. Data were gathered from observations and document analysis of class discussions, lesson plans, student work, and peer lesson feedback. The results indicated that, although a majority of faculty members, teachers, and teacher candidates recognized the importance of applying the literacy modalities during teaching and learning, a few needed further guidance on how to integrate the multiple modalities, aligning them with the selected strategies to better be able to support the students' learning.

Introduction

Our goal is to develop a theoretical shift from only teaching reading, but also applying literacy modalities to learn and communicate knowledge within and across disciplines. When literacy modalities (reading, writing, speaking, listening, viewing, and visually representing) are embedded within content area instruction, students critically understand, create, and share new information. This action research examined how literacy faculty facilitated this shift in teachers' pedagogy to enhance their students' learning and communication of disciplinary knowledge. In our previous research, using surveys and observations, we identified that teachers often perceived a disconnection between teaching their content and teaching reading or literacy. Teachers identified literacy using a narrow lens of teaching only reading and to some extent writing.

Theoretical Framework and Related Literature

This action research draws from the theories of literacy, disciplinary literacy, social constructivism, and intersubjectivity to examine faculty, teacher, and teacher candidates' understanding, and application of literacy modalities and strategies to teach content in their specific discipline. We have examined the shift from teaching only reading and writing skills to an expanded definition of literacy by using oral, written, and visual information to understand and communicate ideas across disciplines. While the *Standards for the English Language Arts* (National Council of Teachers of English and International Reading Association, 1996) added viewing and visually representing to reading, writing, speaking and listening as the updated areas of language arts, unfortunately all these six areas have not been emphasized in teaching and learning across disciplines. Brozo (2017) states, "researchers are …leading us to see that literacy should no longer be defined as mere reading and writing of print but something much more complex, fluid, and multifaceted" (p. ix).

Distinguishing Disciplinary Literacy

Brozo (2017) goes on to state that literacy also includes speaking and listening of print and non-print texts. Ming (2012) defined content-area literacy as the ability to use the five modes of listening, speaking, reading, writing and viewing to receive, process, and produce information. Valmont (2003) defined visual literacy as not only the ability to interpret the meaning of visual images, but also the ability to construct effective visuals in order to convey ideas to others. With the emphasis on technology and visual literacy, the visually representing

modality needs to be incorporated in the definition of literacy. This led the authors (Msengi and McAndrews, 2016) to combine other perspectives to develop a new expanded definition of literacy as the ability to use the integrated modalities of listening, speaking, reading, writing, viewing, and visually representing to comprehend and communicate information within and across disciplines (see Table 1). When learners are given opportunities to critically and aesthetically listen, read, and view others ideas and speak, write about, and visually represent these ideas as well as their own, they become more able to participate in and contribute to society.

Not only do teachers need to use and model these modalities during instruction, they also need to provide opportunities for students to apply them in authentic contexts. Another clarification needed is the difference between content area literacy and disciplinary literacy. Content area literacy focuses on skills and strategies that are generalizable across subjects or disciplines (e.g. summarizing, concept mapping, comparing/contrasting), whereas disciplinary literacy is concerned with the specialized ways of knowing and communicating in different disciplines (e.g. viewing and creating maps, diagrams, and other visuals) (Gillis, 2014; Fang & Coatoam, 2013; Shanahan & Shanahan, 2012). Although subject area teachers are content experts, they often lack the literacy strategies to help students cope with the specific language and literacy demands of their discipline (Fang & Coatoam, 2013).

Social Constructivism

While the Common Core State Standards (National Governors Association Center for Best Practices & Council of Chief State School Officers, 2010) support the greater emphasis on literacy in the content areas K-12, many teachers still resist or do not know how to integrate literacy in their teaching (Brozo, Moorman, Meyer & Stewart, 2013). Literacy and content teachers should be encouraged to collaborate so as to bring their expertise to the planning and delivery of disciplinary literacy instruction (Fang & Coatoam, 2013; Ming, 2012). Productive collaboration involves a partnership between teachers with the shared goals of learning from each other, a commitment to working from each other's strengths, and the ability to reflect on student learning as a result of their joint work (Siebert & Draper, 2012). This complex notion of literacy is supported by theories of social constructivism and intersubjectivity.

Based on social constructivism, learners, whether they are students or educators, construct and co-construct knowledge through discussion and application as they comprehend and communicate their multiple perspectives

(Tracey and Morrow, 2012). Educators can create an environment that fosters mutual cooperation, emotional support, and professional growth as they work together to achieve what they cannot accomplish alone (Tracey & Morrow, 2012; Vygotsky, 1978). It is through this constructivist experience that literacy and content experts are able to work together to achieve a common goal.

Intersubjectivity

The theory of intersubjectivity means developing mutual interpretation and understanding through divergent perspectives and consensus of ideas that helps us relate one situation to another (Tharp, Estrada, Dolton & Yamauchi, 2000). According to Beck (2006), intersubjectivity implies that students and instructors each have responsibilities; students are tasked with discovering how to build knowledge and manage their learning, and instructors are tasked with guiding students in these processes. While teachers come with different disciplinary knowledge, they can develop a shared understanding of using literacy modalities and strategies necessary to teach in their specific disciplines.

Through clarifying the definition of literacy and applying social constructivism and intersubjectivity, teacher and teacher candidates from different disciplines are able to solve problems and communicate ideas not based on traditional pedagogy, but based on flexible learning from both literacy and discipline perspective lenses. The goal of disciplinary literacy (k-12) is not just to know the content, but also to know how to teach in their specific discipline. This action research posits that applying strategies using multiple literacy modalities can achieve this goal.

Study Rationale

As literacy faculty preparing teachers and teacher candidates, we realized that there was a lack of understanding in how to apply the literacy modalities to teach and learn content. Previous researches on content and disciplinary literacy have not adequately addressed the application of all six modalities in classroom instruction. In our previous research where we interviewed and observed teachers and faculty, we found that they did not have a clear understanding of what literacy was and how to apply the six modalities in their teaching and student learning. Our current research adds to the literature by examining the *why* and *how* of pedagogical decision making in using the literacy modalities of reading, writing, speaking, listening, viewing, and visually representing in teaching and learning content across disciplines.

Method

Setting and Participants

This action research took place in a midwestern university that prepares teacher candidates and continuing education for graduate practicing teachers. The participants included ourselves (two literacy professors) and in-service and preservice students in two different literacy courses (eight teachers in a graduate Upper Elementary and Middle Level Literacy course and 26 elementary and secondary teacher candidates in an undergraduate Content Area Literacy course).

Design

In this research we applied the cyclical stages of the action research cycle of reflecting, planning, acting, observing, followed by additional reflecting (Kemmis and McTaggart, 2000). We wanted to know: 1) How can university faculty support teachers in understanding why and how to apply literacy modalities and strategies in their instruction and student learning? 2) How can in-service and pre-service teachers develop a shared understanding of literacy and disciplinary literacy within and across disciplines? 3) How can teachers make informed decisions to engage their students in applying the literacy modalities and strategies as they comprehend and communicate content information?

Reflecting. In our 2015 research (Msengi & McAndrews, 2015), we collected literacy survey data from teacher candidates, practicing teachers and education faculty about their beliefs and practices in teaching and applying literacy. The literacy faculty and teacher candidates also analyzed lesson plans, observed instruction, wrote observational notes and provided feedback about the use of the literacy modalities during teaching and student learning experiences. After analyzing the survey and observational data, many teacher candidates, practicing teachers and university faculty were using a narrow lens of literacy, emphasizing reading of print texts and to some extent writing, without attending to the other modalities. Several had misconceptions about the understanding and application of the six literacy modalities and related strategies during instruction. In addition, there was a disconnection between teachers' understanding of teaching their content and teaching literacy. Teachers who were content experts did not know how to apply the literacy modalities and strategies that support the content learning. Findings indicated a need for more professional development in literacy modalities and related strategies at all levels. This led us to our current research questions.

Planning.   We, as literacy faculty, met weekly to plan and conduct our research on literacy modalities. During each meeting, we wrote agendas and kept meeting minutes where we recorded our thoughts and decisions. First we developed our research questions about how to support university faculty, teachers and teacher candidates in understanding and applying the six literacy modalities, as well as engaging their students in these modalities.

Then we planned how to address faculty concerns and collect data to respond to the questions. Our data collection instruments were divided in three groups: Data from our literacy meetings, data from our teacher candidates and in-service teachers, and data from other university faculty. Literacy meeting data included our meeting agendas and minutes, changed syllabi, changed assignments and rubrics, and anecdotal notes for planning professional development sessions in class and with the faculty. Teacher candidate and in-service data included teacher lesson plans and commentaries, lesson observation feedback notes, and class professional development sessions and debriefing notes. University faculty data included: faculty interviews, informal conversation notes, faculty meeting notes, professional development presentations, and handouts to faculty.

Acting and Observing.   To incorporate this shift in teaching to emphasize the integration of the literacy modalities. We first focused on our discussion and document changes during our faculty meetings, We then applied these changes during our instruction of our graduate and undergraduate literacy courses. We also conducted professional development with our faculty members.

Literacy faculty meetings.   In this stage of our action research, we revised and created new documents. From our literacy meeting minutes, during our initial meetings, we clarified and redefined literacy as written in the literature review, and created a visual representation of the modalities as seen in Table 1.

TABLE 1
Literacy Modalities

Modes	Receptive Modes	Expressive Modes
Oral	Listening	Speaking
Written	Reading	Writing
Visual	Viewing	Visually Representing

Next, we further defined each of the six modalities:

1. **Listening** is the process of perceiving what is heard and co-constructing meaning using the oral text and listener's background knowledge, and experiences, purposes and feelings.

2. **Speaking** is the process of organizing and orally communicating information for specific purposes.

3. **Reading** is the process of perceiving what is written and co-constructing meaning using the written text and the reader's background knowledge and experiences, purposes and feelings.

4. **Writing** is the process of organizing and communicating ideas through a written form for specific purposes.

5. **Viewing** is the process of perceiving what is viewed and co-constructing meaning using the visual images, symbols, and context and the viewer's background knowledge and experiences, purposes and feelings.

6. **Visually representing** is the process of organizing and communicating ideas by constructing effective images either alone or along with spoken and written words for specific purposes.

While each of the six modalities is defined separately, it is clear that they do not stand alone, but are integrated in the processes and strategies of teaching and learning.

We examined the Common Core State Standards and Content Area Standards, lesson objectives, and strategies to identify how multiple literacy modalities were or could be incorporated to meet the leaning needs of teachers and students.

Revision of graduate and undergraduate courses. In collaboration, we (literacy faculty) revised the course content, objectives, and assignments in the syllabi for each of our graduate and undergraduate literacy courses to include explicit instruction and application of the six literacy modalities. We added literacy modalities as part of the course objectives and assignments to each of the literacy courses (Emergent Literacy, Upper Elementary and Middle Level Literacy, Content Area Literacy, Adult Literacy, Literacy Diagnostics, and Literacy Practicum). The most comprehensive content listing was in our Literacy Practicum Course where teachers applied all of the literacy modalities when tutoring K-12 students (see Appendix 1 Literacy Practicum Syllabus excerpt). For each of the other literacy courses, we selected those specific elements that were most appropriate for the grade span or emphasis of the course.

Developing a shared understanding.   During our instruction in our graduate and undergraduate classes, we went through a formative process of developing a shared understanding of the literacy modalities (written, oral and visual modes of receptive and expressive language) by identifying them in their own and others' practices. We modeled how to plan and analyze lessons, standards, objectives, and literacy strategies to incorporate the modalities in content lessons. We identified and modeled specific literacy strategies that incorporated multiple modalities such as Think-Pair- Share (Lyman,1981) for Speaking and Listening, Reciprocal Teaching (Palincsar, 1986) for speaking and listening, Quick Write (Fisher & Frey, 2008) for reading and writing, the Vocabulary Frayer Model (Frayer, Frederick & Klausmeier, 1969) for Writing and Visually Representing, and Multimedia presentations with reading, writing, visually representing for the creator and reading and viewing for the observer. Then, we led discussions and modeled why and how to apply and evaluate strategies using the modalities.

We further modified the lesson plan template to include a checklist for incorporating each of the modalities (See Appendix 2: Lesson Plan Excerpt). Specifically, we revised our thematic unit template to include each of the literacy modalities within each element (content area lesson plans, matrix for objectives and assessments, concept map, and the unit plan commentary). Subsequently, the teacher candidates must now explain how the teacher and the students applied each of the literacy modalities in the commentary. We then planned and conducted several professional development sessions for teachers and teacher candidates to understand and apply the modalities. We created PowerPoint Presentations and activities for the teachers to apply these modalities using a variety of strategies in class. We modelled the use of all six modalities and provided activities for them to analyze lessons and enhance their instruction using the modalities. We added this content to class sessions in each of our literacy courses. We observed teacher and teacher candidates' lessons and provided them with feedback, pointing out effective use of the modalities and suggestions for changes especially related to the six modalities.

Practicing for understanding.   In the graduate course, the in-service teachers created an integrated literacy unit incorporating all modalities during their teaching and students' learning, including assessment rubrics for evaluating each modality. One integrated unit example was created based on the book *Fever 1793* (Anderson, L. H., 2014). In this unit, the students read and discussed the book in their literature circles (speaking/listening) using the "Say something" Strategy, and wrote in a "double entry journal" including important ideas and quotes. They created a video trailer describing the book and time period and used a "Pictionary" strategy to act out or draw words from the text (viewing and

visually representing). Students also created, collaboratively revised, and orally shared a newspaper advertisement for a missing person describing and drawing characteristics for Martha Adams who was kidnapped (writing, visually representing/viewing, and speaking/listening), shown below:

MISSING PERSON: Martha Adams

Martha Adams was last seen traveling to the Pennsylvanian countryside in the neighbor's wagon. She was dropped off at a family member's estate in Philadelphia and never returned. Martha would have been 23 today. She has brown hair, brown eyes, and was last seen wearing a floral shift. Please contact the local police department with any additional information.

The in-service teachers taught, observed, reflected, and debriefed their lessons. This included video recording the lessons and self and peer assessment and reflection of their teaching and student learning. With scaffolding and support, all teachers were able to plan and teach lessons that incorporated all of the literacy modalities. They wrote reflections and shared them in class. Three of the eight teachers stated in their reflections that there was increased student engagement when they implemented all six modalities, while half of the teachers stated that their students increased their content learning. During the final discussion the others concurred with these comments. The teachers reflected that literacy modalities are necessary and beneficial for teaching content and they discovered that there was an alignment between effective strategies and literacy modalities.

In the undergraduate course, the teacher candidates also designed and taught lessons that explicitly applied the literacy modalities. During introduction of units, teachers did not understand the difference between viewing and visually representing. Also there was confusion about the role of the teacher versus the role of the student. In response, the professor modeled a lesson and the teacher candidates identified the different modalities that the teacher used and the student used. During peer planning of lessons, peers identified missing modalities and brainstormed strategies that incorporated the modalities. One teacher candidate stated "I never realized how important it was to use viewing and visually representing in my lessons. I am going to use more of these strategies in my class." A Social Studies teacher stated, "I am going to use Think-Pair- and Share (strategy) so that more of my students can share their ideas."

In addition, teacher candidates conducted focused observations of how the teacher and students used modalities in K-12 schools in their specific disciplines. Some teacher candidates were still unable to explicitly identify and articulate

the modalities. It was reported that a math teacher had students listening to the teacher talking and copying notes from the board to use for tests. There was little student interaction or guided practice as students worked and practice problems solving on their own. There was no evidence of students visually representing ideas. A Spanish teacher had students repeat phrases but not composing ideas. The teacher used verb conjugation drills. A history teacher had a lack of participation from students, just calling on individual students. She used a PowerPoint to deliver information, but there was little discussion. This data confirmed our previous years' data that content teachers are generally not applying all of the literacy modalities in their instruction. At the end of the semester teacher candidates wrote commentaries about their use of modalities in their interdisciplinary unit. For example, one student described how he applied the literacy modalities in their Space unit plan:

This unit incorporates all six of the literacy modalities within each lesson. Often, modalities were paired so that students would read, view, and write all within the same activity. Students also used speaking and listening as questions were asked in each lesson along with strategies such as Grand Conversation, Think Pair Share, and Fishbowl Discussion. With each lesson, viewing was included with videos, flowcharts, images of solar system to show perspectives, constellation star charts, and movable graphs of functions. Students then created visual representations of drawings of each of the planets and acted out the rotation and revolutions around the sun. We facilitated the implementation and peer constructive feedback of applying them during instruction. We created a "Lesson Demonstration Feedback" form for peer and professor to describe how the modalities were applied in the lesson (See Appendix 3: Lesson Observation Feedback Form). One of the observers identified the following:

- **Reading.** Teacher read electronic texts (about diseases in the new world, art, space, oceans and standards) to create PowerPoints of essential concepts on selected topics. Students read from PowerPoint presentations and from excerpts of the texts.

- **Writing.** Teacher wrote text for PowerPoints. Students took notes on important ideas in sentence frames, completed a table, wrote notes in structured foldable, wrote questions, fishbowl debate worksheet, and wrote what they learned on exit slips.

- **Speaking.** The teacher orally presented the PowerPoint (on healthcare in the new world) and gave instructions for activities. The students shared (what they would bring with them to prevent spread of

disease, shared opinions, shared interpretations of art, creation vs. evolution debate)

- **Listening.** Students listened to PowerPoint Presentations, excerpts read by peers, videos, questions and opinions posed by the teacher and peers. Teachers listened to student-led discussions, comments, opinions and responses

- **Viewing.** Teachers viewed images and videos to add to PowerPoints. Students viewed images (microscope pictures of germs, images of planets and spacecraft, historical paintings) and videos (about the spread of small pox, astronaut's voyage, video adaptation of story), animated videos (planet orbits) in PowerPoint.

- **Visually Representing.** Teachers represented information using images (of disease) and videos. Students created diagrams, role played (The spread of Tuberculosis), created conceptual art, create images of the changes in planets over evolutionary time.

Finally, we re-assessed their beliefs and their instruction incorporating the modalities to teach their k-12 students to understand and communicate the content of their discipline. We analyzed this data to examine how teachers shifted their thinking to incorporate these modalities in their instruction and how students applied them in learning the content. The majority of the undergraduate teacher candidates included examples that demonstrated the application of each literacy modality. There were some that were still confused about the difference between viewing and visually representing, whereby the students did not do the representing, but only observed. Some did not include a specific strategy to teach and assess the listening modality. Since these lessons were presented on multiple days, the faculty was able to provide immediate feedback and the subsequent lessons did include all of the modalities.

Professional development of content faculty. In addition to informal conversation with faculty members, we conducted two professional development workshops for all faculty members in the Curriculum and Instruction department. We asked faculty to bring objectives for their content courses and learning standards. We began by sharing the survey results and discussed the implications for instruction. We discussed faculty concerns about the new requirement for implementing literacy in their content courses. To develop a shared understanding of literacy we shared and discussed the definition of literacy and literacy modalities described above and visually represented them.

Education faculty members were concerned because they were now required to prepare teachers and teacher candidate to meet English Language Arts/Literacy Common Core State Standards and the new Education Teacher Performance Assessment (edTPA) requirements (Stanford Center for Assessment, Learning and Equity, 2014). We planned professional development sessions and individual meetings to respond to their concerns about how to incorporate literacy modalities in their instruction. Our first discussion began with the science professor wanting to understand how to develop literacy strategies and skills within the edTPA lesson framework. We began by asking him for a science objective, then analyzed the components of the objective together, and demonstrated how to identify and incorporate the literacy modalities in the lesson. We planned and implemented our first professional session for the entire faculty in the Curriculum and Instruction Department based on understanding the edTPA assessment. During this session, we discussed the requirements for edTPA literacy lesson planning and clarification of literacy terms (Central focus, learning objective, essential literacy strategy, reading/writing connections, academic language, and language demand). We introduced the notion of incorporating all the literacy modalities and literacy strategies into the lesson. Afterwards, the faculty discussed the need for a unified lesson plan template that included both content and literacy standards, objectives, strategies and assessments. We asked faculty to provide us with examples of lesson plans and lesson plan templates, and then we modified them to explicitly incorporate the literacy modalities. During our literacy meetings we developed a template and created a model lesson.

During our next all-faculty professional development session, we shared the lesson plan and modeled a science lesson on the butterfly life cycle that incorporated all of the literacy modalities. The following were examples of the content and literacy objectives that were presented:

1. Students will orally dictate their background knowledge about butterflies, using the think-pair-share strategy (*listening and speaking*), as the teacher writes the shared information on the K-W-L chart.

2. After *viewing* a YouTube video of butterfly metamorphosis and *reading* in literature circles multiple leveled texts including the *Life of a Butterfly*, a group of four students will *orally* describe the four stages of development and create a data chart with characteristics of each stage and academic language.

3. Students will create a detailed 3-D model to *visually represent* each stage and *write* a one-sentence caption to describe the stage characteristics.

4. Each group of students will *orally and visually present* to the class using academic language to describe the butterfly life cycle using sequencing words in complete sentences.

5. After *listening* to each presentation, students will give *oral* feedback on what they learned and questions they had about the presentation to enhance their knowledge of the scientific sequence of butterfly metamorphosis.

During the session, we modeled the lesson and asked faculty members to identify all six literacy modalities in the lesson. The following were example responses: reading (the text), writing (captions), speaking (orally describing to group and class), listening (to group members and to other presentations and give constructive feedback), visually representing (detailed model of each stage), and viewing (video clip and examining the drawings for accuracy). By writing an objective with this amount of detail, teachers would be able to teach the lesson and assess student learning effectively. These objectives support the science concept of life cycles with related academic vocabulary, and the literacy objective of sequencing, and speaking in complete sentences.

Following the lesson demonstration, we modeled additional literacy strategies and faculty identified which modalities were exhibited. The faculty reviewed their own course objectives, standards, and instruction to brainstorm how they could be aligned with the literacy modalities and strategies. We examined the academic language used to see how it related to the modalities. For example, using the word "describe" would be either speaking or writing. "Viewing" would involve observation and interpretation of visual information. "Visually representing" would include creating images, presenting realia, or using gestures to communicate meaning to others. The faculty then discussed why the modalities were beneficial across the disciplines and how to integrate them during teaching and student learning to enhance content knowledge. One social studies faculty member explained that she has not explicitly taught the modalities, but now realized how they could enrich her social studies instruction. The science professor has now incorporated the literacy modalities within his workshops. The faculty realized that in order to teach using the Common Core State standards, it was important to include the literacy modalities in each strategy they used. As we began our redesign of our graduate programs, the faculty members have found it beneficial to emphasize the use of literacy modalities in each of the education courses. The lesson plan template now includes a section for identifying how the modalities were used by the teacher and the students.

During the months following this session, we collaborated with individual faculty members to support them in adapting their instruction to include the modalities and literacy strategies into their content. Next, the faculty examined the lesson plan and demonstration for the objectives, standards, strategies, and assessments and then identified how each of the modalities was used by the teacher and by the students and why they were beneficial for learning the content. The objectives included six elements: the learner, the observable behavior, the content, the assessment criteria, the condition, and the rationale, correlated to Next Generation Science Standards and Common Core Literacy Standards. This collaborative effort would continue as participants learned how to integrate the six literacy modalities and strategies within and disciplines.

Discussion and Implication

It was the purpose of this study to examine faculty members, teachers, and teacher candidates' understanding and application of literacy modalities and strategies to teach and learn content within and across disciplines. This collaborative action research enabled us to develop a shared understanding of literacy and literacy modalities among faculty, teachers and teacher candidates. Learning content (history, math, science, literature, etc.) by applying the literacy modalities (reading, writing, speaking, listening, viewing and visually representing) is an integral part of teaching and learning. It is evident that there was a powerful transformation in the way faculty members, teachers, and teacher candidates shifted their thinking as content experts by realizing that being content expert is a prerequisite to content literacy (Brozo, 2017).

Supporting In-service and Pre-service Teachers

In our study, initially most faculty members, teachers, and teachers candidates did not recognize or incorporate multiple literacy modalities in their teaching; however, through our facilitation, they were able to integrate the modalities in their teaching and students' learning. For example, one teacher candidate said "applying the six literacy modalities and strategies in my chemistry or algebra classroom will relieve me from relying on lecture to deliver the content." It became evident that by using multiple literacy modalities, this particular teacher was confident in his ability to support students in learning from complex text. All teachers are called to explicitly support the students' understanding of the content by using the six literacy modalities and strategies that align with them (Ming, 2012; Msengi & McAndrews, 2015). By revising the syllabi for each of our graduate and undergraduate literacy course to explicitly include the literacy

modalities as part of the course objectives and assignments, teachers were better able to engage their students in disciplinary learning and communication of the content. Teachers commented that including literacy modalities in their instruction was not an added responsibility, but a means to efficiently design and teach lessons that fostered more in-depth learning of the content. Fang and Coatoam (2013) maintained the notion that content teachers need to apply literacy strategies to support students in the specific language and literacy demands of their discipline. In our study, teachers' reflections indicated that students were more engaged and better able to understand and communicate information in the content areas when the literacy modalities were applied. Fang and Coatoam (2013) encouraged collaboration between subject area teachers and literacy teachers to assist in planning, designing and implementing the literacy modalities in the content instruction to enhance student learning. In this way, our work joins other researchers, such as Fang and Coatoam (2013), Tracey and Morrow (2012), and Ming (2012) as we collaborated with our colleagues, teachers and teacher candidates to support student's ability to receive, process and produce information.

Developing a Shared Understanding

It is important to note that the result of this action research is within the framework of social constructivism, intersubjectivity, and content literacy theory. Faculty members, teachers, and teacher candidates were able to construct and co-construct knowledge through discussion and applied the literacy modalities and strategies to comprehend and communicate their multiple perspectives (Tracey and Morrow, 2012). As the results demonstrate, faculty, teachers, and teacher candidates, must continue to create an environment that fosters mutual cooperation, emotional support, and professional growth as they work together to achieve what they could not accomplish alone (Tracey & Morrow, 2012; Vygotsky, 1978). Our teacher candidates, teachers and faculty developed a shared understanding of literacy and how it supports content learning when they created integrated lessons, team planned and taught, and provided critical feedback through peer evaluations.

For example, one teacher candidate remarked, "I felt a sense of professional growth when I read and reflected on my peer's critical feedback during and after our lesson demo to improve my math teaching." She added, "I will provide more opportunities for students to think, pair and share before writing responses to questions." It is through this constructivist experience that literacy and content teachers are able to work together to achieve a common goal. We found the faculty, teachers and teacher candidates developed a mutual interpretation and understanding of literacy and its role in content teaching through sharing our

divergent perspectives and developing consensus of ideas as supported by the research of Tharp, Estrada, Dolton, and Yamauchi (2000). Faculty members during professional development sessions collaboratively developed a template for content instruction that included instruction using all of the literacy modalities. During classroom interactions, teachers and teacher candidates created lessons and interdisciplinary units that also incorporated the modalities. Indeed, productive collaboration involves a partnership among team members with shared goal of learning from each other, a commitment to working from each other's strengths, and the ability to reflect on learning as a result of a joint work (Siebert & Draper, 2012). While teachers come with different disciplinary knowledge, they can develop a shared understanding of using literacy modalities and strategies necessary to teach in their specific disciplines.

Applying the Literacy Modalities in Content Instruction

The shift of perspective from teaching just content to applying literacy modalities to teach content was evident as educators identified and planned ways to enhance their instruction using strategies that incorporated the six literacy modalities. Teachers learned to make instructional decisions that incorporated oral, written, and visual modalities. They selected and taught using a wide range of supplemental materials such as hands-on manipulatives, realia, pictures, visuals, multimedia, demonstrations, print, and non-print texts. They selected strategies that taught students how to listen to each other and how to comprehend various written and visual texts. They also taught students how to discuss and share information orally, in writing, and through visual representations. One Social Studies professor noted, this integration of content and literacy knowledge was essential in supporting students as they critically interpreted, comprehended, and shared information about history and contributions to society.

As literacy professors, we learned that faculty members and students were receptive to new ways of thinking about incorporating literacy and were able to adapt their instruction to explicitly integrate literacy modalities and strategies during teaching and learning of the content. However, we realized that we need to continue to reach out to support our colleagues and practicing teachers in incorporating the literacy modalities within their content disciplines. Based on this research experience, we are encouraged to continue cultivating a shared understanding of applying the six literacy modalities during instruction and student learning among faculty, teachers, and teacher candidates.

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Appendix 1: Diagnostic Literacy Practicum course syllabus (2016) Excerpt:

COURSE CONTENT:

1. Applying the Literacy Modalities in K-12 Instruction:

Listening, speaking, reading, writing, viewing and visually representing

Listening Mode- Receptive
    Purposes for Listening:
        Discriminative Listening (discriminate sounds and message)
        Aesthetic Listening (for pleasure or enjoyment)
        Efferent Listening (to understand messages)
        Critical Listening (evaluate messages)
    Strategies for Listening
    Impediments to Listening
    Administer, analyze, and use listening assessments to plan instruction and evaluate learning/teaching

Speaking Mode- Expressive
    Purposes for Speaking: Entertain, inform, persuade, and inquire
    Type of speaking: Interpersonal and presentational speaking
        Interpersonal Speaking Strategies: paraphrasing, summarizing, questioning, asserting
        Presentational Speaking Strategies: use appropriate language, meaningful organization, accurate content, visual media use, attentive manner, audience awareness/participation.
    Strategies for Speaking
    Impediments to Speaking
    Administer, analyze, and use speaking assessments to plan instruction and evaluate learning/teaching

Reading Mode-Receptive
    Purposes: aesthetic, efferent, critical
    Elements and Assessment of the reading process
        Phonemic Awareness, Phonetic and Morphemic Analysis (reading and writing words)
        Concepts About Print and Conventions

Word Identification and Sight Word Recognition
Syntactic and Semantic Analysis
Constructing meaning in different ways (literal, inferential, critical, personal)
Levels of Comprehension Questions- including explicit, implicit, and critical
Text Features and Formats-impact on comprehension
Genre and Text Structure Strategies
   Narrative- identify character, setting, plot and resolution
   Expository and Information- identify simple description, problem-solution, compare-contrast, sequence, classification, and/or cause –effect
   Persuasive- identify stated position, evidence to support the position, and conclusion that restates the topic and summarizes the main points.
   Descriptive- identify sensory details that portrays a person, place, or object.
   Creative- identify structures of poetry, songs, journaling, scripts, and multi-media
Before, During and After Reading Strategies
   Oral Reading, Self- monitoring and Fluency Strategies
   Vocabulary Strategies- meaning and use
   Comprehension Strategies- include predicting, monitoring, connecting, visualizing, questioning, summarizing, inferring, analyzing, evaluating, and creating.
Reading Workshop Instructional Approaches- include set purpose, read, understand, make connections, question, analyze, and discuss texts
Stages of the Reading Process- pre-reading, reading, responding, exploring, and applying
   Matching Readers to Texts
   Administer, analyze, and use reading assessments to plan instruction and evaluate learning/teaching
   Strategies for Reading and Impediments to Reading

Writing Mode- Expressive
   Purposes: aesthetic, efferent, and critical
   Features of writing different genres and text structures
      Narrative- describe characters, setting, plot and resolution
      Expository and Information- use simple description, problem-solution, compare-contrast, sequence, classification, and cause –effect
      Persuasive- include an introduction that states the position clearly, evidence to support the position, and a conclusion that restates the topic and summarizes the main points.
      Descriptive- use sensory details to portray a person, place, or object.
      Creative- include structures of poetry, songs, journaling, and scripts
   Multi-media Compositions
   Identify and apply Mentor Texts and Writer's Craft
      Elements and Assessment of the writing process: compose content (ideas and details, organization, voice and audience awareness, sentence fluency, word choice) and use conventions (grammar, capitalization punctuation, spelling, handwriting and format)
   Writing Workshop Instructional Approaches- including predictable structure, mini-lessons, free choice of topic, daily writing time, conferencing, and teacher demonstration
   Stages of the Writing Process- prewriting, drafting, revising, editing, publishing
   Administer, analyze, and use writing assessments to plan instruction and evaluate learning/teaching
      Strategies for Writing
      Impediments to Writing

Viewing Mode- Receptive
    Purposes: aesthetic, efferent, and critical
    Non-lexical examples including- video, on-line, digital, illustrations, charts, photos, theater, presentations, displays, artifacts
    Elements of Viewing: comprehending non-lexical features, constructing meaning, contextualizing, and integrating visual knowledge with other literacy knowledge
    Comprehending multi-media presentations
    Critiquing visual media
    Administer, analyze, and use viewing assessments to plan instruction and evaluate learning/teaching
        Strategies for Viewing
    Impediments to Viewing

Visually Representing Mode- Expressive
    Purposes: aesthetic, efferent, and critical
    Elements of Visually Representing- audience awareness, compose non-lexical signs and symbols, construct meaning, and contextualize representation
    Composing multi-media presentations
    Administer, analyze, and use visually representing assessments to plan instruction and evaluate learning/teaching
    Strategies for Visually Representing
    Impediments to Visually Representing

APPENDIX 2: LESSON PLAN TEMPLATE EXCERPT

Part 6: Teaching/Learning Sequence (Procedure)

K-12 students should apply all six literacy modalities during the lesson: (check each one to verify it was included in your teaching/learning sequence)
___ reading, ___ writing, ___ listening, ___speaking, ___viewing, ___ visually representing

Describe teaching procedures and student assessment (formative and summative) in order.

Introduction (Describe how you will engage the students to build on prior knowledge, experience, and interest)

Development (Describe ordered activities and strategies that that promote student learning and meet the objectives)

Closure (Describe student centered overview or summary of what was learned and connection to future learning)

Learning Extensions (Describe how students can apply or deepen new learning outside of school or after the lesson is over?)

APPENDIX 3: LESSON OBSERVATION FEEDBACK FORM

Observer: _____

Presenter (s) _____

1. Describe how each of the modalities were included in the lesson:
    a. *Reading*
    b. *Writing*
    c. *Speaking*
    d. *Listening*
    e. *Viewing*
    f. *Visually Representing*

2. Rank the clarity of the following (underline 1- not clear, 5- very clear)
    a. Content and language objectives   1 2 3 4 5
    b. Procedure (*into, through, and beyond*)   1 2 3 4 5
    c. Strategies   1 2 3 4 5
    d. Assessment   1 2 3 4 5
    e. Accommodation /adaptation   1 2 3 4 5

3. Comment on strengths of lesson:

4. Comment on suggested changes for lesson:

5. Raise at least one question about lesson:

6. Additional comments:

Constructing a Community of Practice: Started by Faculty, Owned by Students

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Abstract

The purpose of this paper is to describe the experiences of an informal research and writing group of faculty and doctoral-level graduate students at a large university in the southwest United States. Semi-structured interviews and personal narratives were used to illustrate the group members' perceptions and experiences. Interviews, observations, and reflections were gathered from both the viewpoints of the graduate students as well as from the participation and perspective of the facilitating professor. It was found that informal writing groups provide opportunities to increase writing productivity, while developing a Community of Practice for camaraderie and accountability. Findings suggest that writing groups are valuable resources for doctoral-level graduate students and faculty as a place to further hone their writing practices and academic writing while developing valuable connections with others within the setting.

Introduction

As doctoral students strive to keep up with the demands of pursuing a terminal degree, the writing process remains a constant component while working toward degree completion. Nearly 50% of doctoral students in the United States withdraw from their graduate programs prior to degree completion (Cassuto, 2013), with the majority of students drop from their programs during proposal or dissertation-writing phases (Harris, 2011).

Previous studies (Cotterall, 2011; Lassig, Dillion, & Diezmann, 2013) on doctoral students and academic writing suggest that research and writing groups can support students through this process, providing opportunities for students to build Communities of Practice (Lave & Wenger, 1991), described as a unit of learning that emphasizes the social world as a resource for identity construction. Additionally, common themes among faculty and doctoral student writing groups suggest that along with increased scholarly productivity, participants also report benefitting emotionally from these groups, citing increased feelings of connection and support within an academic community (Maher, Fallucca, & Halasz, 2013).

Writing and writing groups have a long history in the "educational landscape" (Aitchison, 2010, p. 83) of higher education (Gere, 1987). More importantly, writing "is a vital activity for academics" (McGrail, Rickard, & Jones, 2006, p. 19). Writing is complex and critical (Maher, Timmerman, Feldon, & Strickland, 2013), and for doctoral students and faculty in higher education, writing often elicits anxiety (Cotterall, 2011). This is true for higher education systems around the world, since research on writing groups is explored across the continents: Australia, Canada, Hong Kong, Jamaica, United Kingdom, and the United States, to name a few (e.g., Aitchison & Lee, 2006; Kwan, 2013; Murphy, McGlynn-Stewart, & Ghafouri, 2014).

For this paper, the terms *writing groups*, *research writing groups*, and specific to higher education contexts, *academic writing groups,* are used interchangeably. As student-centered environments, writing groups initially surged in the 1960s and transitioned to process-oriented stances in the 1970s (Aitchison & Lee, 2006; Gere, 1987). Since this movement, writing groups have ranged from structured (i.e., formal; Lee & Boud, 2003), programmatic (Caffarella & Barnett, 2000), cross-disciplinary and multi-disciplinary (Lee & Boud, 2003; Galligan et al., 2003), online (Kozar & Lum, 2015), and informal and voluntary (Maher, Fallucca et al., 2013; Wardale et al., 2015).

Review of the Literature

In 2000, Caffarella and Barnett stated that little scholarly research had focused on the perceptions of graduate students toward the writing process or writing programs. While not exactly a *hot topic,* more research has been conducted the past two decades. Currently, much of the research focuses on graduate student perceptions of the writing process (Torrance, Thomas, & Robinson, 1992, 1994) or graduate student writing (Lassig et al., 2013; Maher, Fallucca et al., 2013; Maher et al., 2008; Wegener, Meier, & Ingerslev, 2016). These studies provide

evidence for supporting graduating students through their academic endeavors and writing identities.

Other research has examined the implementation of writing groups focused on the doctoral students' identities as researchers and/or writers (Aitchison & Lee, 2006; Lee & Boud, 2003; Wegener et al., 2016). These studies show that writing groups appear in varied types and forms (Gere, 1987; Maher, Fallucca et al., 2013). One such form includes the idea of a third space (Curry, 2007; Lee & Boud, 2003). Individuals' writing preferences are evident in the contexts chosen: working/writing with others/colleagues or in solitude; working in public spaces (coffee shops/restaurants), working at home; as well as working with others at a personal residence. Gere (1987) describes how writing groups "operate both within and outside schools" (p. 1) and "highlight the social dimension of writing" (p. 3). Theoretically, researchers (e.g., Kozar & Lum, 2015) express that writing groups are "rooted in a Community of Practice framework (p. 39). In this paper, I employ Lave and Wegner's (1991) discussion of Communities of Practice (CoP) as a construct to better understand how members' participation in the community was a shared experience, and also seek to contribute to the limited research and the newer phenomenon of doctoral writing groups (Maher et al., 2013; Aitchison, 2010).

Background of the Study

As a recent Ph.D., I eagerly entered my new role as a junior faculty (Fall 2013). In the early months, I worked hard to find my "new normal" as an academic, both as a researcher and professor (Boice, 1992). During my first semester, I acquainted myself with other faculty and doctoral students but continued to struggle with my own writing. Eventually, I sent an email to several doctoral students and one faculty member, asking if they would be interested in participating in an informal writing group. They all accepted and for the next few months the group meet several times per week during the 2013–2014 school year. Writing sessions included weekly writing meet-ups, supported with bi-semester dinners at my house to set writing goals, discuss our writing progress and products, and provide feedback. These doctoral students and I (and sometimes other department faculty) used this time to sit in a common place (e.g., coffee shop, restaurant; Wardale et al., 2015) to work on our own individual writing projects. Individual writing projects varied for the members, faculty often worked manuscripts and grants, while doctoral students spent their time writing for course assignments, research projects, dissertations, and manuscripts they were working on with peers and faculty. This individualized goal setting and group accountability is critical for students who plan to pursue a career in academia and fulfill the expectations of publishing (Nettles & Millett,

2006). Over the next few semesters, the group continued to morph: some students graduated and new students joined the program and group.

Due to the group's evanescent nature, an email invitation was sent to current and former students and other faculty within the college at the beginning of each semester (fall, spring, and summer). An online website was used to find common times and locations throughout the week to meet. After several iterations of previous writing groups, this study came to fruition in fall 2015.

As a faculty member and member of the writing group for almost four continuous years, I am personally and emotionally invested in the writing group and its members. Typically, members meet a couple of times per week in locations around a large urban city. Members select the day and time that works best for their schedule, such as Tuesday evenings at Panera Bread ™, Thursday afternoons at Coffee Bean™, and Friday mornings at Starbucks™.

Gradually, it became evident to many members that this was more than just a "writing group," and discussions led to questions such as, "What does the research say on informal writing groups?" Shortly thereafter, Internal Review Board approval was granted and research began. The writing group discussed in this study is informal (i.e., not university sponsored) and formed through an organic, holistic process. While a larger study is focused upon the writing group members' cognitive, social, and emotional development, this paper addresses the motivations and perceptions of the community's members and addresses the following research questions: 1) Why do doctoral students participate in informal writing groups? and 2) How do writing group members perceive their participation in an informal writing group?

Method

I embarked on this exploratory study since I was interested in "why" students participate in an informal writing group. I recognized how the group grew (physically and mentally), a growth that is depicted through the perspectives and experiences of the members. In order to provide rich descriptions of members' experiences, a qualitative approach was used. I intentionally gathered diverse data sources, including participant observations, semi-structured interviews, follow-up interviews, jottings from informal writing group conversations, text messages, and weekly group emails.

Participants

As the professor and author, I am also an active member of the informal writing group and participate in weekly sessions. Since fall 2013, the group (comprised of

members who meet on several occasions over the course of each week) has included at least 16 doctoral students and two faculty members from several departments within the College of Education at a large, high-research university (as classified by Carnegie), which is located in a large urban city in the western United States.

Over the past three-and-a-half years, the writing group has included students at varied stages: starting course work and new to the program, working on research projects and grants, and analyzing data and writing their dissertations. The investigation for this study officially began fall 2015. Currently, there are 8-10 active group members, including myself. A total of eight members (seven students and one faculty) completed and signed the consent form and questionnaire, and four of the eight participated in semi-structured interviews.

The questionnaire's demographic results indicate that all seven students (100%) participating in the writing group are full-time students (i.e., registered for a minimum of six credits or two courses each semester). Although full-time students, five are either state or federally funded and are employed by the university as graduate research/teaching assistants. Over half the students (n=4; 57%) work as teaching assistants for the college in either literacy or teacher education courses, and one student (14%) is a student researcher working on a federally funded grant. The remaining two students have full-time careers outside of their graduate studies, one an instructor for another local educational institution another a district-level administrator. Of the eight consenting participants (including myself), six are female, and two are male. Of the four interviewees, three were female and one was male. All four are full-time students and research/teaching assistants. One female is an international student for whom English is a second language, and the other three members are native English speakers.

Data Collection

Data collection was conducted via semi-structured interviews held in person: three at the coffee shop locations usually frequented by the group and the fourth on the university campus in a department office. Data such as demographic details and open-ended questions was collected through an online questionnaire. Using qualitative research methods, data was also gathered through participant observations, follow-up interviews, informal writing group conversations, text messages, and weekly group emails, which I kept in an online journal.

In general, the semi-structured interviews ranged from 31 to 42 minutes and, with participants' permission, all interviews were recorded for transcribing purposes. As the lead researcher on the project, I conducted all four interviews. Once the interviews were transcribed, I aligned my analysis to qualitative research methods.

Analysis

After the interviews were transcribed, each was revaluated for a second time to ensure accuracy of the transcriptions. Next, constant-comparison analysis (Glaser & Strauss, 1967/2006) was employed to understand the naturally emerging thematic categories from both the transcripts and questionnaires. During the initial read, line-by-line open coding was used for each of the interviews and questionnaires, creating initial coding categories. The initial codes resulted in more than 30 identified codes from the interviews and the questionnaires. Codes included accountability, collaboration, consistency, Communities of Practice, feedback, habit, help, productivity, purpose, relationship(s), resource, routine, schedule, structure, support, writing process. Next, all transcripts and categories were read two more times and clustered into the refined categories (Saldaña, 2009). Through this multi-step analysis, the overall themes were developed.

Findings

In this section, I present the findings of the qualitative analysis. Prior to reviewing the findings, however, I reflect on the purpose of this informal writing group. Next, I review the following themes that emerged pertaining to the research questions: 1) productivity, and 2) Communities of Practice, with subthemes of camaraderie and accountability. To highlight the findings and address the research questions, I excerpt the members' voices as captured in the interviews and questionnaires.

The Writing Group: Formal or Informal?

The reflective process began after the first round of interviews. I revisited with members to seek clarity on their definitions of informal and formal writing groups and which they preferred. I started with this clarifying question because it clarifies the foundation for this particular writing group and, ultimately, this study.

As previously mentioned, informal and formal writing groups differ. *Writing group* is often an arbitrary term, though in its formal iteration it typically refers to a group that has scheduled times and locations and is made up of members who work specifically with academic literacies (e.g., feedback, critiquing, etc.). In contrast, the particular group in this study focused on the *informal* aspects of writing groups, characterized as groups of individuals with similar interests who work with others in a public setting to complete individual or group writing tasks. Varied perspectives emerged during the initial interviews,

and thus members were asked to clarify their understanding of the two. Lucy shared,

> …*informal means I come and I might write and I might not talk to anyone about what I am working on while I am there…It is a social place where we are going to sit and work and be productive but each individually on our own things and those things aren't necessarily connected to anyone else sitting at the table.*

Likewise, Eric believes the "writing process is very personal," and he appreciates the group's informality, "To be honest, for me I wouldn't need that [check-ins/goals] or I don't feel like I need that because I go there [writing group] sometimes not even knowing what I'm going to do." He notes that group members may not be "like-minded" but "we share some commonality." Furthermore, Lucy clarifies,

> *formal writing structure for me would be defined as when I am working on a project along with other members and we come together, like you [professor], Eric, and I did this morning to get specific work products done by meeting together and writing on those products.*

On the contrary, Cher explicitly stated that she thought the informal writing group of this study was useful; however, she prefers something more formal,

> *those are the writing groups that I have participated in. In other university or other settings are quite formal. So I have that, so the product [is] ready for [the group] to review and give feedback.*

Cher's preference is that she appreciates the pressure of a formal writing group. "For me I need some pressure. I like deadlines…I feel like I would rather use [writing] time to do this stuff that has deadlines."

Through the interviews and additional discussions, the group has been discussing the inclusion of more "formal" activities as part of the writing group to better support more group members. Before, this informal writing group community strove to support the members in their coursework, research, and writing—both collective and individual. As for formal sessions moving forward, we

have discussed designing sessions with a *group* purpose, such as reading members' work, providing feedback, and setting goals.

Benefits of Writing Group Participation: Production and Productivity

For graduate students and faculty, production and productivity have multiple meanings. For students this may include finishing a class assignment or being productive in teaching, research, and writing. When discussing their productivity, some members, such as Eric, explained it as simply as "finishing a class, getting an A, and checking [a task] off your list." In terms of the writing group, Eric reflected that the writing group has "completely impacted my productivity, because that's where I do a lot of the work that helps me be successful in the [doctoral] program."

Through her own self-imposed pressure, deadlines keep Cher productive. She personally does not attribute her productivity directly to the writing group, partly because her attendance has been inconsistent due to scheduling obligations. During her interview, however, I discovered that she desired a more formal writing group. Additionally, due to the fact that she was not currently working on a project with anyone in the group, she felt less connected socially and academically. Cher commented, "I don't have the kind of research you do [referring to me as the interviewer] …Because I don't have the resources." She also recalls a particular event,

> *[you] talk about writing, some possibilities of writing grants or papers for courses. They [the members] talk about [the] process of the research and how [Simone, Lucy], and you, your work is close together. So, this is one reason that I do not participate very often, because I am not working with you [on] certain projects so I feel like sometimes I am on my own.*

As a faculty member it was this particular response that made me reflect about the group and our actual process. Although this section pertains to productivity, a relevant topic emerged when Cher talked about her productivity. She described how her process for production differs partly due to the minimal projects she is currently on, and she also stated that she works on her own because she not a native English speaker and has sought out the support of another friend (not in the doctoral program) to help her with her writing. As a result of this interview, I have checked in with Cher more often regarding her writing and productivity. Also, since this interview, Cher has been hired as a lead researcher on a large

grant in the college and is gaining valuable experience in research and writing with other faculty.

Productivity was experienced differently by other writing group members. Simone shared a conversation with her husband in which he remarked to Simone, "You're pretty nonchalant about not getting that grant." In turn Simone thought, "If I am producing, I'm putting myself out there and being successful, getting [into] conferences, I'm submitting things, I feel like [I'm] actively participating in learning from professional expectations." According to Simone, "Productivity results in participating fully and learning from the experience." As Simone's dissertation co-chair, I understand her current projects; however, I asked her to be more specific about her productivity. She responded,

> *Whenever I run into some of my fellow doctoral students who are not actively involved or who are working full-time, I think, oh they really need this writing group because I think it would be really easy for me to just get the degree...Now, I am in a Community of Practice...[I'm] taking the lead on other things, taking the back seat on some, but always watching and learning, I don't think I would have done that.*

Another member, Elizabeth, wrote, "I joined the writing group before I started my program. Since joining, I've been invited to contribute to a book, participate[d] in some studies, and present[ed] at conferences." Currently, the majority of the writing group members are taking courses; some are even taking the same courses. Therefore, writing group time is often used for course-related writing, but as previously stated productivity is relative to each individual. Thus, the group strives to support one another in both their individual tasks and group/research tasks.

Building a Community of Practice

The theory and research addressing CoP (Lave & Wegner, 1991; Wegner, 1998; Wegner, McDermott, & Snyder, 2002) purports that a CoP is not formed instantaneously; rather, forming a community is a process, similar to that of this writing group. Additionally, a CoP is shaped through participation in social practice (Lave & Wegner, 1991; Wenger, 1998). For this writing group, the development of a CoP was not automatic. Instead, it evolved as group members who were working toward a purpose. The members of the group acknowledged the building of a CoP; in fact, on several occasions members would tell me (the author), "Thank for organizing this group," or "Did you know this is a CoP?"

Camaraderie.   A trend in the interviews was the camaraderie of the writing group. Not only do members feel that they are part of a community, but they are also seeing changes in the way they work and critically think. Here Simone reflects on her growth,

> *I think that having the writing support and collaboration makes a big difference. It is a true Community of Practice…cognitively I feel like I am shifting my way of thinking. In the beginning I felt really resistant to academic writing and I feel like the conversations that we have around writing have really influenced the way that I think.*

I can concur that Simone has also been encouraged to support the group in other capacities, such as: "It's a Ph.D. apprenticeship, and I've been encouraged to take leadership with other [doctoral] students coming in." The growth that Simone describes reveals the inherent capacity-building benefit of the writing group. The participants begin as graduate students, and they grow into new possibilities of both confident and empathetic academic participation, such as writing for publication, presenting at conferences, and mentoring incoming students. During a recent conference presentation, members shared their camaraderie. One remarked that the writing group is "like an oasis" and because of the group "I couldn't disappear." Another noted that her "imposter syndrome" is more manageable.

Accountability.   As an informal writing group, members described the group's organic formation and emphasized that there was a lack of pressure to participate. The members expressed that the group supported them in their desire to become a part of something. Through this community, the members began to hold each other accountable. Lucy explained, "Writing group where I am accountable to someone else for showing up and that accountability to another person outside of myself help[s] me be more productive." During the interview, Lucy also made a direct reference to CoP and accountability,

"So far it truly has evolved to a CoP where no matter what I am writing or working on I feel like I can reach out to group members and get their feedback or get their support."

When asked the question why she was motivated or drawn to the writing group, Lucy continued to share,

> *… originally it was more about building relationships with folks at the university… more than it was about my writing … I didn't think that I necessarily needed a group … to make me a better writer. But I did, because having a community in which to operate is really vital for myself in terms of motivation and emotional health…being accountable means*

> *being accountable to people not just abstract projects, and so developing connections to people, was, you know, my primary reason for coming [to the] writing group...Then the realization that how strong of a support it was for my own writing accountability to myself, that came later.*

Support and accountability comes in many different forms. Simone compared her experience with exercising:

> *It's kind of like working out. I feel bad if I don't do it ... So that is what I feel like with my writing group, I need it. Yesterday, for example I was so wiped out, so exhausted it had been a long week, and I thought, maybe I should just cancel and just sleep in tomorrow and see if [my husband] can take the kids, but I just can't, I feel like I need it.*

The subthemes of camaraderie and accountability combined to build our Community of Practice. The comfortable relationships allowed for gentle—and not so gentle—pushes for members to engage in additional capacities and pursuits outside of the confined requirements of coursework.

Discussion

In reflecting upon the research questions that guided this research, I sought to discover the following: 1) Why do doctoral students participate in informal writing groups? and 2) How do doctoral students perceive their participation in an informal writing group?

Support for Coursework and Scheduling

This writing group seeks to support the members not only in their writing, but also in their coursework and other facets of their program and life. Each member is at a different stage in the higher-education process, from first-year doctoral students to me, a fourth-year assistant professor making strides toward promotion and tenure. Despite this diversity, Elizabeth maintains that the group "offers a connection to an academic community of learners with similar goals." As a group, we embrace the accountability and the flexible organization of the group, a stance similar to the perspective of Wardale and colleagues (2015), who describe their research team as striving to "allow the evolution of the group's rules and processes as different stages have been adopted to enhance the operation of the writing accountability group through time...[and] a supportive organizational environment" (p. 1307). These components are important to the functionality of an informal writing group such as the group in this study.

Similar scholarship supports this study's findings. Maher, Fallucca, and Halasz (2013), a team comprised of a lead faculty member and two doctoral students, conducted their research on the use of Write On! and demonstrated that members of their community were able to take part in individual writing opportunities while participating in an intellectual community. Likewise, our writing group encouraged students to respect their writing time and, more importantly, make it part of their regular schedule. Here, members participated to connect with peers, to work with others, to gain practice, and to be productive as they traverse through their doctoral program.

As a true CoP, this and many other instances demonstrate how the students have taken ownership of the group and how it has become part of our lives and part of their programs. This point was reiterated recently when I asked one the members, Lucy, what her semester schedule was. After she listed her courses, I asked, "Will you be able to make writing group on Fridays?" With a surprised look, Lucy said, "That's a given!" In comparison, participants in a study conducted by Page-Adams, Cheng, Gogineni, and Shen (1995) felt that "learning to make time for such writing during doctoral training was crucial" (p. 403); likewise, our group makes writing time a priority and part of their routine.

Participation of Faculty

Similar to the research of Aitchison (2009), I, too, was the facilitator/professor of the writing group. As a member of this writing group, however, I continue to see myself as a collaborative member, despite a job title that designates me the senior member of the group. My situated placement in the group has several different roles: (a) facilitator, (b) chair or committee member to group members, (c) mentor, and (d) writer trying to complete projects among peers. Although the group was originally formed by me, I acknowledge that some responsibilities have been fulfilled gradually by other members of the group. For example, a group text was sent out to members of the group during the first week of the spring 2016 semester that read: "I hope the semester is off to a great start, anyone joining me for writing group this week?" On another occasion, I decided to write on our typical day (i.e., Friday morning) although it fell during the holiday break. When I arrived I was pleasantly surprised to find several members of the group at our usual table, quietly working.

Production and Participation

Through analysis and reflection, I found much overlap between production and participation. One member wrote, "writing groups provide more than writing support, they help me stay connected and in 'academic' mode … I think I've

learned more about writing and becoming an academic through these informal meetings." Furthermore, accountability is connected to participation. Elizabeth wrote that participating in the group "keeps my writing time sacred ... provides a support system when life gets in the way." Another member shared their thoughts on the questionnaire:

> We provide accountability for each other ... I have been on track to graduate in 3.5 years because of peer/professional support, in spite of working full time the first year ... I might not have continued without this network. So, it's more than just writing. Writing is the absolute most important aspect of my degree program, along with my research and studying.

Limitations

This study, although interesting and relevant to writing groups, has specific limitations. Similar to other research (Aitchison & Lee, 2006; Caffarella & Barnett, 2000), this study is limited by its sample, the group size, and the group dynamics. The members of this writing group are from one doctoral program and one writing group; thus, generalizability of the findings is not possible. A sample of convenience and self-reporting was used; however, this group is rather close and candid with one another, so I contend that self-reporting was not a significant limitation. Additionally, there were many opportunities for clarity and data collection (e.g., jottings, reflective notes) that were implemented throughout the research process.

Another possible limitation relates to the differing opinions between the members of the group regarding the formality of the writing group and the desired needs of the members. For instance, Cher expressed that she wanted "more structure ... because I imagine [the] ideal writing group that I want to have is, is everybody brings something, right? And then we read everybody's work during this time and we get feedback." On the contrary, Simone, Eric, and Lucy appreciated the informality of the writing group. As Eric puts it, "Sometimes I go early, and I do my to-do list then that'll tell me what I am going to do. So, I am willing to try anything if somebody wants to coordinate that, but it's not something that I need in order to get my work done. As recently as January 2017, Cher wrote:

> I have mixed feelings; the informal writing group was different from what I thought it should be. However, I gain other things that I did not expect: social connections with faculty and colleagues; more writing ideas; reading suggestions, etc. I realize that the informal writing group is not just about writing but beyond writing.

An additional limitation and shortcoming of this study is my role in the group and the project. I acknowledge that my faculty position is a position of power, even though the group is not engaging in graded work (for me), it is likely that they are interested in pleasing me. It is necessary to reiterate that the group is voluntary and I am not the primary professor or serve as a doctoral committee member for many of the members. Similarly this limitation aligns with the other research, for example, I was mindful and well-documented my engagement and research practices (Aitchison, 2009) while fostering an environment that was built on trust and without "social positioning" (Wegener et al., 2016, p. 1103). Therefore, this CoP writing group continues to provide collaborative learning and writing opportunities (Bosanquet, Cahir, Jacenyik-Trawoger, & McNeill, 2014).

Conclusion

Notably, the writing group in this study has received recognition by other department faculty, who have in turn developed another "Drop By" writing time for students within the college. This new group has a weekly location in the building where students can "drop by" to get writing support. Groups such as these not only connect to student writing productivity and degree completion, but also reduce feelings of isolation common to doctoral students. Researchers (Klein, Riordan, Schwartz, & Sotirhos, 2008; Maher et al., 2008) have shown the value of these groups, particularly for doctoral students and those who mentor them. The data presented in this paper promotes a better understanding of how doctoral students who participate in informal writing groups navigate the demands of their program coursework, teaching, outside work, other life roles, and particularly their academic writing toward completing their graduate degree. This research contributes both breadth and specificity to the minimal research looking at doctoral writing groups. Additionally, this work provides insight into how to promote a positive writing atmosphere in a university environment for the benefit of the individual academic writers and the college and university as a whole.

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The Road Less Traveled: Encouraging Thoughtful Comprehension Instruction Among Pre-service Teachers

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Abstract

This is a report of the first year of a four-year longitudinal study of pre-service teachers. The purpose of the study is to examine the effects of the encounters of pre-service teachers with carefully planned online presentations focusing on detecting and using underlying themes in text. The question is whether such encounters will affect the reading comprehension of pre-service teachers, their ability to plan thought-provoking instruction, and their ability to deliver challenging instruction to their own students. As part of a literacy course, 127 subjects from four East Coast universities were pre-tested in reading comprehension and in lesson planning. They viewed a series of 7 voiced Power Point presentations designed to help them identify and use underlying themes in text. Post-testing on alternate forms of the same assessments showed encouraging gains in both reading comprehension and planning for thought-provoking and challenging reading lessons. While actual classroom observation has not yet taken place, it seems that the delivery of online experiences in promoting thoughtful literacy lessons may hold some promise for use in pre-service teacher preparation as well as in-service professional development programs.

Introduction

When I consider the state of reading comprehension instruction in the United States, I am reminded of a simple but profound story from Alice in Wonderland. When Alice first meets the Cheshire Cat, she asks, "*Would you tell me, please, which way I ought to go from here?*" The Cat answers, "*That depends a good deal on where you want to get to.*" When Alice responds, "*I don't much care where,*" the Cat retorts, "*Then it doesn't matter which way you go.*" In this paper, I will take the position that regarding reading comprehension, where we want to go as a nation very much matters.

At the risk of oversimplification, I believe that there are three groups of teachers who take different overarching approaches to comprehension instruction. The first group, when they arrive at Alice's proverbial fork in the road, stops in their tracks, pitch their tents, and end their journey. These are the teachers who provide basic skills instruction, monitor fluency, and automaticity, and live in the hope that once their students master these underlying skills, comprehension will simply and automatically follow. Even a cursory review of the literature suggests that there are a great many campers and tents at this point in the road. Another group of teachers recognize that for many students, comprehension instruction is a necessary part of their educational experience. Unfortunately, after a review of an entire series of study of reading comprehension, Allington (2001) concluded that the tasks assigned by teachers overwhelmingly emphasized copying, remembering, and reciting details from the text, with virtually no opportunities presented for children to respond thoughtfully to what they were reading. Apparently, the road that these teachers follow is well worn and crowded. A third group of teachers follow a road that is infinitely less traveled. These teachers try to challenge their students to think deeply about what they read, stack it up against their own experiences, and beliefs, and grow as thinkers. Teachers in this group share a particular gift: the ability to see deep ideas and themes embedded in even the simplest of texts, and the ability to use those ideas as a springboard to challenging and inspired instruction.

But what if pre-service teachers have not been able to perceive spontaneously the depth of ideas in text? And if the odds are against encountering a gifted and influential teacher like those in group three, where will they learn? How will they be able to take their place in that group of thoughtful and influential teachers? And in an era of increasingly complex national and local standards for the preparation of teachers, how will institutions fit instruction in thoughtful literacy into their teacher preparation programs?

This study examines the effects of the encounters of pre-service teachers with carefully planned online presentations focusing on detecting and using

underlying themes in text. The question is whether such encounters will affect the reading comprehension of pre-service teachers, their ability to plan thought-provoking instruction, and their ability to deliver challenging instruction to their own students. This article describes the results of the first year in a four-year longitudinal study.

Review of the Literature

Road One: No Comprehension Instruction

When Dolores Durkin set out to examine how reading comprehension was taught in the typical American classroom, the reading world was stunned at her findings. Durkin (1978/79) reported that reading comprehension was largely untaught; that is, the average teacher taught the skills that might enable an average reader to understand text, but engaged in an overt act of faith that comprehension would emerge of its own accord. To be sure, comprehension was assessed, but it seemed that widespread confusion existed about the nature of assessment and the nature of teaching. What is even more discouraging is that Durkin's findings have been replicated again and again (Connor, Morrison & Petrella, 2004; Pressley, 2002; Taylor, Pearson, Clark & Walpole, 2000; Taylor, Pearson, Peterson & Rodriguez, 2005), suggesting that an absence of actual teaching of comprehension is not an historical artifact, but very much a contemporary issue.

In many respects, this finding is not surprising. When the National Reading Panel (NICHD, 2000) released its final report, the writers identified reading comprehension as one of five "pillars" of reading, and thus fell victim to what we might call "the equivalence fallacy." Instead of recognizing that comprehension is the foundation, the very raison d'etre of reading instruction, they placed it is a global mix along with phonemic awareness, phonics, fluency, and vocabulary. Consequently, it became possible for schools to report that their children were making significant "progress" in reading, based on instruments that focused on skills more readily measurable than comprehension (e.g., Dynamic Indicators of Basic Early Literacy Skills (DIBELS)) and de-emphasized, simplified, or simply postponed instruction and assessment of comprehension.

It can be argued that the Report of the National Reading Panel paved the way for the re-emergence of the Simple View of Reading (Hoover & Gough, 1990). The Simple View, simply put, takes the position that reading comprehension can be explained by the interaction of two variables: decoding and listening ability (aka: language comprehension). Having taken this position, proponents of the Simple View conclude that improvement in decoding or listening comprehension will result in improvement in reading comprehension (Gough &

Tunmer, 1986; Hoover & Gough, 1990). The thinking behind the Simple View has frequently been linked to the insight of LaBerge and Samuels (1974) that an increase in automaticity frees up mental resources squandered in decoding, and makes it possible for the reader to direct these resources toward comprehension. As Hoffman (2009) has observed, the Simple View is a policymaker's dream: easily understood and straightforward in its implementation. But as the nation's six-billion-dollar investment in Reading First suggested, mental resources thus freed up do not necessarily flow directly to comprehension of text (Gamse, Jacob, Horst, Boulay, & Unlu, 2008).

Road Two: Literal Comprehension Instruction

Nonetheless, it would be a mistake to conclude that instruction in reading comprehension is completely missing from the landscape of American reading education. The parallel phenomena of the standing of American children in international comparisons such as Programme for International Student Assessment (OECD, 2012) and Progress in International Reading Literacy Study (PIRLS, 2011) and the emergence of the Common Core State Standards (CCSS, 2010) have converged to place increasing emphasis on comprehension of text. But all too frequently, that emphasis has taken the form of a stress on remembering the text, not necessarily thinking deeply about it (Allington, 2001). Black & William (1998) have suggested that teachers accentuate literal comprehension, because they believe that the focus of standardized accountability testing lies in remembering and recognizing details in text. Indeed, analyses of state tests (Applegate, Applegate, McGeehan, Pinto, & Kong, 2009) suggest that they may be quite accurate in that assessment. The problem with that approach is that rote reproduction of details in text is not associated with motivation to read. In fact, research is largely unequivocal in pointing to a precipitous decline in reading motivation throughout the elementary school years (Marinak & Gambrell, 2010). Other research has suggested that the inclination to think about ideas in text associated with a much higher level of reading motivation than is literal comprehension (Applegate & Applegate, 2010).

Road Three: Instruction in Thoughtful Literacy

And that brings us to the third road: the road traveled by teachers who challenge and motivate their students to think deeply about what they read. When teachers build thoughtful literacy into their classrooms, they stand a much better chance of developing the intrinsic motivation that characterizes engaged readers (Deci, Vallerand, Pelletier & Ryan, 1991). Intrinsically motivated readers

engage in reading for its own sake, in response to their own interest and curiosity. When they do so, an entire constellation of good effects seems to follow. Engaged readers read more than their peers (Guthrie, Wigfield, Metsala, & Cox, 1999; Wigfield & Guthrie, 1997), get better grades (Sweet, Guthrie, & Ng, 1998), score higher on accountability measures (Gottfried, 1990), and read with deeper comprehension (Cunningham & Stanovich, 1997; Guthrie, Schafer, & Huang, 2001).

Rosenblatt (1983) shed considerable light on reading comprehension through her description of the aesthetic and efferent stances that readers take as approaches to text. The read with a predominantly efferent stance tends to see reading as information gathering. The aesthetic reader, on the other hand, tends to see reading as an active immersion into text and the opportunity to live vicariously through the situations and lives of the characters in it.

The distinction is an important one because of Ruddell's (1995) insight into the influential teacher. Ruddell helped us realize that truly successful teachers create classroom environments that promote engagement and that convince reluctant readers that reading is a worthwhile endeavor in its own right. The strategies that influential teachers often use tend to create a sense of excitement about what they teacher. All in all, Ruddell found that influential teachers tend to emphasize the aesthetic stance in their instruction, while non-influential teachers use predominately efferent strategies (Ruddell, 2995; Ruddell, Draheim, & Baraner, 1990). If this insight is an accurate one, teachers who have internalized the view of reading as a thoughtful transaction with the text are more likely to be engaged readers themselves and to be able to orient their students to view reading as thinking.

Obstacles in the Road

It is difficult to avoid the conclusion that teachers who are engaged and enthusiastic readers are more likely to cultivate at least some kindred spirits in their classroom. It is in the classrooms of such teachers that children are more apt to encounter teaching strategies that foster a love for a high level of engagement in reading. In a study of pre-service teachers, Applegate and Applegate (2004) found that more than half of the teacher candidates they investigated could be identified as "unenthusiastic readers." They coined the term "Peter Effect" ("I cannot give what I do not have") to describe the situation of unenthusiastic readers charged with the responsibility of igniting reading enthusiasm in their students. Admittedly, the prospect of so many lukewarm readers entering the rank of the profession suggest grim prospects. Equally discouraging but certainly

not surprising, Modla, McGeehan, and Lewinski (2014) found that pre-service teachers performed solidly on a reading comprehension measure that assessed literal comprehension, but struggled mightily when the comprehension task called for a thoughtful response to text. In a similar vein, Applegate, Modla, and Applegate (2009) found a powerful tendency among teachers to identify as strong readers as those children who could read fluently and respond to text-based comprehension assessment. On a positive note, Applegate and Applegate (2004) identified a significant number of subjects who entered college as unenthusiastic, but encountered professors and learning experiences that ignited their love for reading. Thus, hope springs eternal and that hope spurred us on to develop a series of learning experiences designed to help pre-service teachers to discover the joy of reading and learning.

The Methodology

The goal of this study was to determine if a well-designed intervention that focused on the detection and use of underlying themes in text might affect: 1) the reading comprehension of pre-service teachers, 2) their ability to plan thought-provoking reading lessons for their students, 3) their ability to deliver those lessons, and 4) the extent to which their lessons affected the achievement levels of their students. Because we are in year one of a four-year longitudinal study, we do not have data that addresses the actual teaching of participants or the achievement of their students. Consequently, this paper will address only those data that shed light on participant reading comprehension and participant ability to plan challenging reading lessons.

We used a simple designed-based method. This has been described by Bradley and Reinking (2011) as, "experiments but in a sense broader than the formal hypothesis testing that guides a conventional, rigorously controlled conventional experiment." In this context we conducted a pre-test, then provided an intervention and then conducted a post-test. We then compared the results of our intervention using a simple pre-post-test analysis. The intervention and assessment measure for the pre-post-testing will be described below.

The Intervention

We created a series of seven online instructional modules that provide viewers with a process for identifying the underlying themes in text, and then using those themes to create challenging and thought-provoking lessons. The modules took the form of voiced Power Point presentations, and participants were assigned to

view all seven modules as part of their course requirements. The website where the modules are located (www.thoughtfulliteracy.com) was programmed to identify which participants signed on to view the modules, so data could be used by course professors and researchers as indicators of who had or had not completed their assignments. One hundred and twenty-seven participants from four East Coast universities have participated in the study to date.

Module Content

1. Presenting the case for thoughtful literacy, with an example from children's literature.

   Contrasting recall with thought -provoking questions.

   A study of state and national reading tests.

   Taking a closer look at the demands of the Common Core.

2. Examples of underlying themes that reflect the human condition.

   Rosenblatt and the aesthetic/efferent stances; Ruddell and the influential teacher.

   A closer look at the "simple view" of reading.

   The Peter Effect

   A Continuum of Reading Comprehension & examples.

3. Planning and implementing the Underlying Theme Directed Reading Thinking Activity.

   Promoting the development of Influential teachers

   Steps in the DR-TA.

   Identifying and using underlying themes in purpose-setting.

   Using a concept map as a guide to instruction.

4. The Common Core and the craft of the writer.

   Example: Identifying and using an underlying theme.

   Developing pre-reading and post-reading activities.

   Exploring text structure.

5. Using underlying themes with emergent readers: read-alouds and planning challenges.

   Video demonstration of the use of themes in pre -reading.

6. Modeling thoughtful literacy with Informational text.

   Navigating structural inconsistency in Informational text.

Use of subordinates and super ordinates as organizing principles.

Using the Comprehension Continuum to challenge students to think deeply.

7. Another look at Informational texts.

Reconsidering the aesthetic/efferent continuum.

Pre-reading and post-reading examples

Promoting Level 4, 5, and 6 thinking in the Comprehension Continuum.

In order to assess the reading comprehension of study participants, we administered two informational passages from the *Critical Reading Inventory* (CRI) (Applegate, Quinn & Applegate, 2014) at the start of the semester (See Appendix A). We selected the CRI because of its emphasis on differentiating between text-based comprehension and higher-level comprehension. Forty percent of the comprehension items focus on text-based, literal comprehension, while sixty percent focus on high-level inferences and critical response.

At the same time, we assigned a Modified Lesson Plan activity (see Appendix B) designed to give us some insight into whether participants were likely to challenge their students to address thematic elements in text, or whether they approached reading instruction as an exercise in literal comprehension.

Near the conclusion of the semester, we administered an alternate form of the CRI and the Modified Lesson Plan with the order of the forms counterbalanced to avoid the effects of task difficulty. All pretests and posttests were scored independently by two experienced researchers; the Modified Lesson Plans were scored by the same researchers using the rubric included in Appendix C. All differences in scoring were resolved by discussion.

Results

The results for participants' reading comprehension are shown in Table 1. The average comprehension scores of the pre-service teacher participants increased from 74.8 to 79.1, a modest but statistically significant increase. It is interesting to note that their greatest gains (10.9%) occurred with text-based comprehension. It may be that attention to underlying themes and the need to support responses with details from text may influence the participants' sensitivity to text-based comprehension. Gains in higher-level inferences (3.9%) and critical response (3.6%) were also modest but solid.

TABLE 1
Pre-service Teachers' Reading Comprehension Scores

	Total Comprehension	Text-based Questions	Higher-Order Inference Questions	Critical Response Questions
Pre-Testing Scores	74.8	72.5	71.6	84.5
Post-Testing Scores	79.1	83.4	75.5	88.1

TABLE 2
Modified Lesson Plan Scores

	1 Pre-Reading Themes	2 Link: Discussion & Purpose	3 Student Involvement	4 Clarity of purpose	5 Higher-order questions	6 Text dependence of questions
Pre-Testing Scores	2.53	2.11	2.38	2.08	1.43	4.73
Post-Testing Scores	3.38	2.64	2.84	2.78	1.83	4.80

Regarding the ability to create lesson plans that emphasized higher-level comprehension, results were also positive. As can be seen from an examination of Appendix C, we regarded an effective lesson plan as one which engaged students in a thoughtful pre-reading discussion that led to the establishing of a clear purpose for reading. In such a plan, reading is followed by thought-provoking questions that are passage-dependent and serve as the basis for lively conversations.

Given the fact that scores on lesson plan features ranged from a low of 1 to a high of 5, an examination of the data in Table 2 suggests that the participants as a group scored quite low, both on pretests and posttests. That said, the participants made their greatest gains on the ability to identify and discuss, prior to reading, higher level themes in text (2.5 to 3.38). Their ability to link that pre-reading discussion to purpose-setting increased from 2.11 to 2.64. Their evidence of plans to involve students in purpose-setting increased from 2.08 to 2.78. The most disappointing finding was the increase of comprehension questions that provoked thinking from a discouraging 1.43 to 1.83, an increase that is far too small, given

the thrust of the professional development included in this study. Even though the participants made significant strides in their ability to identify and discuss themes, that ability did not seem to translate into the creation of challenging questions. The final category was the need to create questions that are passage dependent. Scores in this category started high and remained high (4.73 to 4.80).

Conclusion

Causal conclusions based on the data gathered in this study are inappropriate, since we could not exercise the level of control characteristic of experimental research. The only conclusion we can validly draw is that there appears to be a relationship that exists between the educational experiences of the participants in this study, including the online modules we prepared, and an increase in both reading comprehension and the ability to plan for thought-provoking literacy lessons. If the same results occur in the subsequent years of this study, we may be able to conclude that instructional modules focusing on underlying themes in text can contribute to the professional growth of pre-service teachers.

One can assume if the modules are effective for pre-service teachers, they may also benefit teachers currently working in schools. Future studies will allow us to determine if the modules are just as beneficial when used as professional development opportunities for in-service teachers. They may be particularly useful for institutions that prize higher order thinking in literacy to prepare the way for student teachers placed in local schools.

Limitations

The most obvious limitation in the current state of the project is the fact that we have not yet had the opportunity to observe lessons taught by participants who have completed the modules. Naturally, we are not in a position to contrast their classroom performance with their peers who have not been assigned the modules. Future observations of these pre-service students during their field placement experiences will allow us to determine if the modules have a direct impact on their teaching. It remains to be seen whether online experiences with underlying themes will prove itself as a feasible addition to teacher preparation programs in literacy.

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Appendix A: Sample passage and Comprehension Items - The Critical Reading Inventory

The Search for Pancho Villa

America's hunt for the infamous Mexican revolutionary Pancho Villa in 1916 was in reality the result of a series of botched political, economic and military decisions. The United States had huge business interests in Mexico, interests that were threatened by the Mexican Revolution of 1910. Anxious to protect these interests, President Woodrow Wilson decided to throw his support behind one of the leaders of the revolution, Venustiano Carranza, as the Mexican president. Carranza was the man he believed to be most sympathetic to the American agenda. But Carranza regarded his American allies as something of a mixed blessing. While grateful for any support he could muster, Carranza remained fearful of alienating his own people by showing favor to the hated neighbor to the north. He refused to give in to some of Wilson's demands. In retaliation, Wilson then began to supply another revolutionary, Pancho Villa, with arms and supplies. It was Wilson's hope that Villa might overthrow Carranza and be more favorably inclined to the United States if he came into power.

But Villa's potential as a threat to the Mexican leader failed to materialize quickly enough to satisfy the American president. Wilson decided to make his peace with Carranza and recognize his government. Villa was infuriated at the desertion of Wilson and the loss of the support to which he had become accustomed. In retaliation, he and his men killed 16 Americans traveling on a train in Mexico. But his boldest attack occurred on American soil in the town of Columbus, New Mexico and left 19 Americans dead. Villa hoped that by provoking a counter attack by the Americans, he could turn popular opinion against

Carranza and expose his ties to the United States. Then Villa would be waiting in the wings to assume the leadership of all of Mexico.

America, in its turn, launched what came to be known as the *Punitive Expedition* against Villa and his men. Wilson sent General John J. Pershing and 5000 soldiers, equipped with trucks, armored vehicles, and even airplanes into Mexico to hunt down and destroy Villa and his army. Suddenly the overwhelming popularity that had never come about during all the years of Wilson's support suddenly materialized. Pershing naturally underestimated Villa's enormous support among the Mexican people. They consistently protected their local Robin Hood, giving Villa advance notice of Pershing's movements. They even supplied false information about Villa's whereabouts to Pershing's troops. After nearly two years of trying, Pershing had nothing to show for his efforts. He had not even come close to locating Villa. The *Punitive Expedition* was finally called off.

Despite the miserable failure of the Expedition in achieving its primary end, many historians consider it a resounding success in the larger scheme of things. With the threat of World War I looming, American troops had the chance to familiarize themselves with their new weapons and technology. In particular, their use of reconnaissance aircraft, despite its failure in the short term, led to a great deal of success in the preparation for the war against Germany. John J. Pershing went on to become leader of the American forces in Europe and the most celebrated military leader of the war.

Comprehension Questions

1. What would President Carranza gain by refusing to give in to President Wilson's demands?
2. Why did President Wilson abandon Pancho Villa after first giving him arms and supplies?
3. What did Presidents Wilson and Carranza have in common with respect to their political decisions?
4. Did Mexico have any reason for hating the United States?
5. Was Pancho Villa successful in his quest for power in Mexico? Explain.
6. How did the U. S. benefit from the Punitive Expedition?
7. Why would the people of Mexico consider Pancho Villa another Robin Hood?
8. Why did Pancho Villa turn against the United States?
9. With 20-20 hindsight, how should Pershing have gone about finding and arresting Villa?
10. How does the saying "You reap what you sow" fit both President Wilson and Pancho Villa?

Appendix B: A Modified Lesson Plan Activity

Modified Lesson Plan Task Form A

Task: Your task is to read the following story and think of how you might present it to a group of 4th grade students in a literacy class. Then respond to the 3 items that follow the story.

The Lion and the Mouse

A little mouse was having a wonderful time jumping and playing in the forest when all of a sudden he came upon a huge lion sleeping soundly under a tree. The mouse thought it would be great fun to run up the lion's tail and onto his back, and when he did, the lion never even stirred. But when he began to jump up and down on the lion's head, the lion awakened with a roar and snatched up the terrified mouse in his great paw. "How dare you!" the lion roared. "Because you have treated your king with such disrespect, I will kill you and eat you for lunch!"

The mouse trembled with fear and managed to squeak, "But Your Majesty, I meant no disrespect. Spare me and I will be your friend forever, and someday I might be able to help you." The lion roared with laughter. "How could such a tiny thing like you ever help a powerful king like me? But because you made me laugh so much, I will spare your life." And so the mighty lion set the little mouse free. Not even a week later, the lion was prowling through his kingdom when he tripped a hunter's snare and became entangled in a huge net. The miserable lion roared with rage and fear, but try as he might, he could not free himself from the trap. The mouse happened to be nearby and heard the lion's roars. He recognized at once that his friend and king was in trouble. The loyal mouse rushed to the lion, took in the situation at a glance, and without a word began nibbling furiously at the ropes that held the lion fast. In a matter of minutes, the lion was freed. Humbled and amazed, the delighted lion recognized that his little friend

329

had indeed been able to help him. The mouse simply said, "You spared my life, Your Majesty. It was only right that I do my best to help you."

1. Describe briefly how you might prepare your students to read the passage above.

2. What purpose for reading would you use to focus your students' attention on the reading task?

3. List five (5) questions that you might use to assess the comprehension of the students who read the passage.
   1)
   2)
   3)
   4)
   5)

Appendix C: Rubric for Scoring Modified Lesson Plan

Pre-reading Discussion	Higher Order Theme(s) clearly identified	H.O. Themes implied	H.O. Themes confused or combined with lower levels	Literal themes or discussion irrelevant to thoughtful response	Vague or non-existent pre-reading discussion
Link between Discussion & Purpose	Direct link between discussion & purpose	Implied link between discussion & purpose	Partial link between discussion & purpose	Tenuous link between discussion & purpose	No link between discussion & purpose
Student Involvement in Discussion	Student-dominated discussion	Tendency toward student-dominated discussion	Combination of teacher & student domination of discussion	Tendency toward teacher-dominated discussion	Teacher-dominated discussion or lecture
Clarity of Purpose for Reading	Clearly stated purpose for reading	Implied purpose for reading	Multiple purposes for reading	Tenuous or vague purpose for reading	No clear purpose for reading
Higher Order Comprehension Questions	Five of five questions	Four of five questions	Three of five questions	Two of five questions	One or none of five questions
Passage Dependency of Questions	Five of five questions	Four of five questions	Three of five questions	Two of five questions	One or none of five questions

331

"Thinking Like an Artist in Core Curriculum Subjects" Pre-service Teachers' Participation in a Federally Funded Arts Integration Project

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Abstract

The purpose of this paper is to describe the rationale, model, and participation of pre-service teachers in a four-year Arts in Education Model Development and Dissemination Program (AEMDD) grant, funded by the U. S. Department of Education entitled: "Thinking Like an Artist in Core Curriculum Subjects." The purpose of the grant is to improve reading and mathematics achievement in an elementary and middle school, populated by urban minority students living in poverty. Examples of sixth grade art-integrated ELA lessons based on the young adult novel As Brave as You with connected art room lessons are outlined. A pair of secondary ELA

pre-service teachers and an art pre-service teacher planned and presented the lessons to students. The response of pre-service teachers and cooperating teachers is described. Lessons learned about the inclusion of pre-service teachers in this projected are noted.

Introduction

A considerable amount of research suggests that students who learn in the arts are more likely to succeed in school (Burnaford, 2007; Deasy, 2002; Hetland, Winner, Veneema, & Sheridan, 2013). Schools where teachers implement arts-integrated curriculum have been found to increase test scores, with scores increasing for every additional unit of arts integrated into the curriculum (Burnaford, Scripp, & Paradis, 2012). Schools implementing arts-integrated curriculum are transformed (Marshall & Donahue, 2014). The benefits associated with the study of the arts are inclusive of all students, although they can be greatest for those who are educationally or economically disadvantaged (Nevins, 2002). A report from the National Endowment for the Arts found a correlation between arts education and achievement of low-income students (Catterall, Dumais, & Hampden-Thompson, 2012). By nearly every indicator studied, a student from a low-SES background with a high-arts educational experience significantly outperformed peers from low-arts, low-SES background, closing—and in some cases—eliminating the gap that often appears between low-SES students and their more advantaged peers. Thus, the purpose of this paper is to describe the rationale, model, and participation of pre-service teachers in a four-year federally-funded art-integration project to improve reading and mathematics achievement in an elementary and middle school, populated by urban minority students living in poverty.

Theoretical Framework

This project is based on the research and practice of semiotics, Visual Thinking Strategies (VTS), and Studio Habits of the Mind (SHOM). The following section describes each study area upon which art-integration instruction is based.

Semiotics

Semiotics is the study of how meaning is made and communicated in systems such as art and language. From semiotic theory comes four principles: 1) representation of meaning occurs through the use of semiotic systems; 2) sign systems offer potential for a range of meanings and alternative perspectives; 3) semiotic texts

are culturally and personally situated; and 4) inquiry-based learning offers flexible opportunities for semiotic expression. Reading art means that a viewer comprehends a visual statement made by the text maker. When teachers and students both learn to read art, discussion may focus on critical readings of visual texts that make visible learned assumptions about gender, race, class, and other social issues.

Grounded in semiotics, an arts- and inquiry-based curriculum has as its core the importance of learners' interests and experiences. According to Burke (2004), learners bring their schema and experiences to their learning, and it is this personal inquiry that drives their interest in a subject. Eisner (2002) argues that art builds students' imagination and encourages symbolic and metaphorical thinking. This process is valuable across the curriculum. This is because specific higher order thinking and critical thinking skills are key aspects of the Common Core Standards, which ask students to interpret, assess, integrate, evaluate, persevere, critique, reason, as well as discern patterns and structures (National Governors Association for Best Practices, 2010a, 2010b).

Visual Thinking Strategies

Visual Thinking Strategies (VTS) is a method initiated by teacher-facilitated discussions of art images. It is perhaps the simplest way that teachers can provide students with key behaviors sought by Common Core Standards; as thinking skills become habitual and transfer is promoted between oral and written language literacy, visual literacy, and collaborative interactions among peers. Through her research, cognitive psychologist, Housen (2001; 2002) studied how people think when they look at art. Based on these findings, VTS have been developed as a method initiated by teacher-facilitated discussions of art images (Yenamine, 2013). Through VTS' rigorous group "problem-solving" process, students are motivated and enabled to present their own ideas, while respecting and learning from their peers.

According to Klein and Stuart (2013), art may provide the scaffolding students need to move from a text-free environment to a text environment. This is to say, students may experience inferential thinking and talk about their justification for the inferences they make viewing art. Then students may apply this thought process and reasoning when read aloud to. Ultimately, students then may understand the inferential thinking process and finding of evidence in the text to justify their inferences when reading silently (Williams, Burns, & Daisey, 2016).

Studio Habits of the Mind

The Studio Habits of the Mind (SHOM) is a framework designed by practitioners at Project Zero, the research arm of Harvard's School of Education (Hetland

TABLE 1
Studio Habits of the Mind (SHOM)

Observing	Learn to attend to visual contexts more closely than ordinary "looking" requires, and thereby to see through that otherwise might not be seen.
Envisioning	Learn to picture mentally what cannot be directly observed and imagine possible next steps in making a piece.
Reflecting	Learn to think and talk with others about an aspect of one's work or work-in-process, and learn to judge one's own world and work-in-process and the works of others.
Expressing	Learn to create works that convey an idea, a feeling, or a personal meaning.
Exploring	Learn to reach beyond one's capacities, to explore playfully without a preconceived plan, and to embrace the opportunity to learn from mistakes.
Engaging and persist	Learn to embrace problems of relevance within the art world and/or of personal importance, to develop focus conducive to working and persevering at tasks.
Understanding the art community	Learn to interact as an artist with other artists, i.e. in classrooms, local arts organizations, and across the art field and within the broader society.

et al., 2013). Out of the studio thinking framework comes the Studio Habits of the Mind, a set of eight dispositions that an artist uses. They offer a language for critical thinking that spans across every discipline. They describe eight habits of mind used in art practice and encourages learners to recognize their thinking behavior as they make art: observing, envisioning, reflecting, expressing, exploring, engaging, persisting, and understanding art worlds (Hetland et al., 2013). The Studio Habits of Mind are in effect the common core in the visual arts. SHOM, described in detail in Table 1, can guide teachers' thinking when using the national arts standards to foster achievement in diverse subject areas.

In the following sections, the art-integration project, participating middle school, as well as secondary ELA and art pre-service teachers will be described.

The Grant

The participating school district received a four-year Arts in Education Model Development and Dissemination Program (AEMDD) grant funded by the U. S. Department of Education entitled, "Thinking Like an Artist in Core Curriculum Subjects." The participating university was subcontracted to work with the school district. The purpose of the grant program is to support the enhancement,

expansion, documentation, evaluation, and dissemination of innovative, cohesive models. These projects are based on research and have demonstrated that they effectively 1) integrate standards-based arts education into the core elementary and middle school curriculum; 2) strengthen standards-based arts instruction in these grades; and 3) improve students' academic performance, including their skills in creating, performing, and responding to the arts.

There is an annual 30-hour summer art-integration institute presented by art teachers and university art professors. There are also three Saturday morning professional development workshops presented by an art professor from the university. During this time, the art professor shows his/her ark work, talks about his or her thinking as an artist and walks teachers through an art project in their media. This is followed by a discussion about how the thinking involved could be used during instruction to promote motivation and achievement of K-8 students in language arts and mathematics. The university art professor also visits art classrooms in the elementary and middle school during the year to present lessons that describe thinking as an artist and to walk students through art projects.

In order to model art-integrated lessons for teachers, in each of the four years of the grant, on 20 Fridays during the school year, three pairs of secondary language arts pre-service teachers, three pairs of secondary mathematics pre-service teachers, who are paired with art pre-service teachers work together. Each week they plan and travel to the middle school to present art-integrated language arts or mathematics lessons and then extend those lessons into the art class. The pre-service teachers plan the lessons with input from the classroom teachers, as well as from literacy, mathematics, art education, and technology consultants from the university and teacher consultants. Each lesson includes one common core goal from either language arts or mathematics and one national art standard. Each lesson begins with a Visual Thinking Strategy by showing a Powerpoint of artwork (and its artist) related to the topic of the class. In this project, pre-service teachers facilitated discussions through Visual Thinking Strategy that required students to think on the factual level ("What do you see?"), inferential level ("Why do you think?"), and generalization level ("What is the moral?" "How does this relate to…?").

On the Tuesday by noon, before the Friday when pre-service teachers go to the school to present their lessons, they are required to submit their lesson plan and VTS PowerPoint, rubric, and supply list to the cooperating teachers, and mathematics, ELA, and art consultants for feedback. On Friday morning at 7am, the group of pre-service teachers meet at the education building on the campus to pick up their bags of supplies and photocopies for the hour bus ride with the project supervisors to the schools. (Also, three pairs of elementary language arts

pre-service teachers, three pairs of elementary mathematics pre-service teachers, as well as art pre-service teachers work together. Each week they plan and travel to the district's elementary school to present art-integrated language arts or mathematics lessons and then extend those lessons into the art class.) The focus is on the middle school pre-service teachers for the purposes of this paper.

The Setting

The middle school where this project takes place is in an urban area in the Upper Midwest about 35 miles from the participating university. The student population of 300 is diverse: 65% African-American, 18% Hispanic, 10% Caucasian, and 4% mixed races. Almost all of the students (95%) are eligible for free or reduced lunch. Standardized tests scores are well below the state average. When the grant began, there had not been an art teacher in the school for the past seven years. With the funding of this grant, a certified art teacher was hired for the middle school.

The Secondary Pre-service Teachers

The secondary mathematics and language arts (ELA) pre-service teachers, as well as the art pre-service teachers are enrolled in a secondary content area literacy course and practicum taught by the author. There are also some pre-service teachers who are able to stay in the project after they have completed the content area literacy course for the following semester. Pre-service teachers are given an option for their practicum. They may participate in the grant project and receive a stipend plus college credit or they are placed with a cooperating teacher near to the university and not paid a stipend. The secondary content area literacy course typically is the course that precedes the student teaching semester, although some pre-service teachers still have one semester of coursework to complete between the content area literacy course and student teaching. As a result, the pre-service teachers have completed most of their content as well as method courses. Pre-service teachers in the project are young and are in the process of completing their undergraduate degree; although a few have an undergraduate degree and have returned to complete courses for their teaching certification. Most are Caucasian, although there are a few African-Americans, and thus far, two Hispanic pre-service teachers. Two of the pre-service teachers in the project are Spanish minor have participated. In the following sections, the method for partnering ELA and art pre-service teachers, along with the method for developing and presenting art-integrated ELA and extension art room lessons will be discussed.

Partnering of ELA/Art Pre-service Teachers

For this paper, the pairing of ELA and art pre-service teachers will be the focus. Pairs of ELA pre-service teachers (one pair for each grade) planned and presented lessons in three classes during the school day of ELA 6th, 7th, and 8th graders. The reason for the pairing was to provide a backup in case one of the pre-service teachers was absent, as well as to provide collaboration and help teaching. Since there were only five art classes; not all middle school students were in an art class. However, all students participated in visual thinking strategies and art-integrated instruction in their ELA classroom instruction.

Pairs of ELA pre-service teachers plan their lessons based on the topic their cooperating teacher gives to them. Their art pre-service teacher partner helps with planning the ELA lesson by suggesting related artwork for the Visual Thinking Strategy discussion. The art pre-service teacher develops the art extension of the ELA lesson for the art room lesson. The art pre-service teacher goes with the ELA pre-service teachers to the ELA classes to assist with the Visual Thinking Strategy discussion and the art project portion of the lesson (unless teaching an art class at the time). The ELA pre-service teachers go to the art room to reinforce ELA concepts with students, (unless they are teaching an ELA class at the time of the art room lesson).

Procedure

Most pre-service teachers in this project have never written or presented a class-long lesson plan. Moreover, secondary pre-service teachers are not required in their college program to take an art class. Peggy, as the secondary content area literacy course instructor and supervisor of pre-service teachers at the middle school, recommended the following steps to develop an art-integrated lesson.

1. First, the ELA pre-service teachers ask the ELA cooperating teacher a week ahead of time, for the topic and common core goal for the lesson.

2. ELA pre-service teachers working with their art pre-service teacher partner, Google the topic or a key word of the common core goal with the word "art." They scroll down to images. They select two or three images that could be useful in their power point for their Visual Thinking Strategy discussion. The art pre-service teacher chimes in with any other images or YouTubes that might relate to the topic and be relevant and motivating to students.

3. The pre-service teachers find a photograph of one of the artists of the artwork to add to their Powerpoint.

4. The pre-service teachers think of three questions for their Visual Thinking Strategy discussion: one each on the literal level, inferential level, and moral level.

5. The pre-service teachers then Googles the topic or key word in the common core goal again along with the words "art project" for a potential art project for the ELA class time. With the advice of the art pre-service teacher, they select an art project that will afford students an opportunity to explore further the ELA concept and to express what they have learned through art, while gaining an opportunity to learn about art. Each lesson contained an ELA common core standard and a national art standard.

6. The art pre-service teacher then develops a power point of artwork and photograph of an artist for a VTS art room discussion as well as a class-long art project that relates to the ELA concept as well as a national art standard.

7. A rubric is developed for both the ELA's and art classrooms' lessons, and added to the end of each power point.

8. Lesson plans are submitted for feedback from project staff. Peggy purchases supplies and makes photocopies.

Several days before the first Friday, Peggy scheduled a time to call each of the pre-service teachers to walk them through their lessons in order to promote a positive teaching experience. She recommended that pre-service teachers build relationships with students by talking to them before class and sitting down with small groups of students and helping them with their work. She advised pre-service teachers that the first 30 seconds of a lesson was huge and to have a big voice, big presence, and to beam students their best smile while waiting for them to focus. Peggy suggested that pre-service teachers note what time they want it to be when they were done with their Visual Thinking Strategy, what time they want it to be when they were done explaining the ELA concept, and what time the class was over, so students could clean up their art work area. She advised pre-service teachers to thank students and the cooperating teacher. What follows is one example of a series of art-integrated ELA lessons.

Findings

The following presents an example of a sixth grade art-integrated English Language Arts and art room series of lessons based on the young adult fiction

book Brave as You (Reynolds, 2016). A summary of the book, followed by the sample lesson plan unit and students' responses are illustrative of teachers and students' work in the grant.

Summary of Book

This Coretta Scott King-Johnson Steptoe Award-winning book is a story about two African-American brothers. Genie who is 11 and his 13-year old brother, Ernie live in Brooklyn, New York and spend the summer with their grandparents in rural Virginia while their parents work out their marital problems. They learn that their grandfather is blind, never goes outdoors, has a secret room filled with birds, and owns a gun. When Ernie turns 14, his grandfather presses him to learn how to shoot a gun as advent to manhood. Although Ernie has no wish to shoot a gun, he complies and disaster strikes. The story explores the concept of bravery and if bravery means to do something as opposed to not do something.

Because pre-service teachers were at the school only one day per week, and the ELA cooperating teacher had other curriculum to teach; the students did not read the entire novel. Thus, the two ELA pre-service teachers (Chandler and Matthew) analyzed the sixth grade common core standards that the ELA teacher was required to teach. After the ELA pre-service teachers read the novel, they took turns selecting vignettes from the book that could serve as opportunities to teach a common core goal. Once the ELA common core and passage from the novel were selected, the two ELA pre-service teachers asked the art pre-service teacher (Lori) for her thoughts about related art work and artist for the VTS discussion,. They also asked what art project would be helpful for students to do in the ELA classroom to explore and develop their understanding of the ELA concept, while expressing what they had learned about the concept and learning about art. Then, Lori developed a related lesson for the sixth graders who took art class with a new VTS artwork, Powerpoint, and class-long art project based on a national art standard. What follows are sample lessons from this unit based on the young adult novel, *As Brave as You* (Reynolds, 2016).

EXAMPLES OF Connected ELA/Art Lessons

Titles of ELA and art lessons and common core goal/national art standard	Overview of ELA and art lessons	Visual thinking strategy-ELA and art lessons	Samples-Studio Habits of the Mind-ELA and art lessons	Rubric-ELA and art lesson (Achieves goal)
Lesson 1: ELA-What do you see? CCSS.ELA-LITERACY.RL.6.5. Analyze how a particular sentence, chapter, scene, or stanza fits into the overall structure of a text and contributes to the development of the theme, setting, or plot.	ELA-Students will read aloud text passages where the narrator describes two scenes. The first passage will have rich literary imagery. Students will reflect and sketch. Students will read aloud a second paragraph with less description and sketch. Students will compare sketches with classmates' to see inferences students made.	ELA-Literal level-(Blank canvas-Robert Rauschenberg "Erased de Kooning" and detailed painting-"Napoleon Crossing the Alps" Kehinde Wiley) Two quotations-one detailed-one not. "What do you see?" Inferential level- "Why do you think the artist and author painted or wrote the way they did?" Generalization level "What message is the artist and painting trying to convey based on your prior knowledge?"	ELA-Stretch & Explore: Students who do not typically spend much time making inferences when reading will be encouraged to do this.	ELA-Students participate and complete the tasks of the lesson. Students reflect on what they found through their sketches and discuss how conceptualizing their reading is helpful for understanding. Students create two sketches and develop them based on quotations from the novel.

Lesson 1 Art-Re-imagined Rooms Art Standard 11: Relate artistic ideas and works with societal, cultural, and historical context to deepen understanding.	Art- Students will work in pairs. One student will describe a familiar place and the other student will attempt to draw it.	Art- Literal level- ("My Bed" by Tracey Emin) "What do you see?" Inferential level- "Why do you think the artist chose to create this artwork?" Generalization level- "How does this artwork relate to your life?" "How does this artwork relate to *As Brave as You?*" "How does the setting of the piece change the meaning of this artwork?"	Art- Engage and Persist- Students will use their own experiences and perspective to create artwork. Develop craft- Students will be given a brief lesson on one-point perspective in drawing.	Art- Students create a finished and clean composition of the room with good use of color.
Lesson 2 ELA-You and a Character CCSS.ELA-LITERACY.W.6.3	ELA-Students will draw a passage from the story that describes a	ELA-Harry Potter & Batman photos Literal level: "What do you see?"	ELA-Reflect-Students will connect why ability to write thoughtful and descriptive narrative is helpful to written communication.	ELA-Students participate and complete the tasks of the lesson. Students reflect on what they found through their sketches and have

Titles of ELA and art lessons and common core goal/national art standard	Overview of ELA and art lessons	Visual thinking strategy-ELA and art lessons	Samples-Studio Habits of the Mind-ELA and art lessons	Rubric-ELA and art lesson (Achieves goal)
Write narratives to develop real or imagined experiences or events using effective technique, relevant descriptive details, and well-structured event sequences.	character. Students will then write a description about themselves.	Inferential level: "How are these two characters the same?" "How different?" Generalization level- "Why do you think good descriptions are important to good writing?" "What is the moral to this story?"		have discussed how conceptualizing their reading is helpful for understanding. Students create two sketches and develop them based on quotations from the novel.
Lesson 2 Art-	Art-	Art-	Art-	Art-
Genie's Question Sketchbook Standard 10: Synthesize and relate knowledge and personal experiences to make art.	Students will transform Genie's journal questions from *As Brave as You* into illustrations. Students will then create a list of questions they	Artist, Cathy Johnson's Sketchbook images. Literal level: "What do you see?" Inferential level: "Why do you think Cathy Johnson chose to illustrate	Envision: Students will envision thoughts/questions/ text in a creative visual representation.	Students successfully create a list of 10 questions/thoughts they have.

Lesson 3 ELA-Our Own Nonfiction CCSS.ELA-LITERACY.L6.4

Determine the meaning of words and phrases as they are used in a text, including figurative and connotative meanings; analyze the impact of a specific word choice on meaning and tone

think about and turn them into illustrations. This will prompt conversations about how Genie's questions built his character and how students' own thoughts make up their personality.

ELA-Students will write about something that happened to them and illustrate it to become more familiar with the nonfiction genre.

her surroundings this way, as opposed to describing them in words?"

Generalization level: "How does daily sketching relate to Genie's question journal?" "What is the importance of these activities?"

ELA- Photos of prehistoric cave drawing of a dog biting a person.

Literal level: "What do you see?"

Inferential level: "Why do you think the dog is biting this person?" "What would this look like today?"

Generalization level: "Compare this drawing to something bad that happened to you."

ELA-Envision-The lesson is designed to encourage students to envision the text that they read.

ELA-Students participate and complete the tasks of the lesson.

Students will write at least six sentences telling about something that happened to them.

Students' drawing will give details about narrative.

Titles of ELA and art lessons and common core goal/national art standard	Overview of ELA and art lessons	Visual thinking strategy-ELA and art lessons	Samples-Studio Habits of the Mind-ELA and art lessons	Rubric-ELA and art lesson (Achieves goal)
Lesson 3 Art-				
"My Life as an Album Cover"	Art-	Art-	Art-	Art-
Art Standard 2: Organize and develop artistic ideas and work.	Students will discuss the art form of album covers. Students brainstorm and list what they would include on an album cover about their life. Students will make a rough drawing and finished product.	Photos of albums by Fashawn, ENCORE, Jason Mraz, Gnarls Barkley St. Elsewhere, and A Day to Remember's "What Separates Me from You." Literal level: "What do you see?" Inferential level: "What message are the artists trying to get across?" Generalization level: "How do the themes of the album covers relate to the fictional text in ELA class?"	Observe: Students will observe various album covers from a compositional stand point.	Students successfully create a brainstormed list.

Lesson 4 ELA-Fears CCSS.ELA-LITERACY.L.6.4	ELA-Students will discuss the word "atelophibia" and aphobias. They will read about a time when Genie, a character in *As Brave as You*, was afraid. Students will draw something that they fear and connect it to its phobia.	ELA- Photo of a poisonous spider. Literal level: "What do you see?" Inferential level: "How do you feel when you see this photo?" Generalization level: "How does this art work relate to phobias?"	ELA-Develop Craft-By thinking about their own literary practices, students will improve their own skills.	ELA-Students participate and complete the tasks of the lesson. Students draw a fear of theirs and discuss it with their neighbor and how it compares to Genie's fear.
Lesson 4a Art-				
Art Atelophobia	Art-	Art-	Art-	Art-
Art Standard 10: Synthesize and relate knowledge and personal experiences to make art.	Students will test their fears of art-making and having a "perfect" art work by using discarded paper, not looking at their drawing while drawing,	Distorted self-portraits by artists, Anthony Midcallef, Junaz Miralles, and John Ashton Golden Literal level: "What do you see?" Inferential level: "What do you think the artists are trying to say with these artworks?"	Stretch and explore: Students will explore a new means of art-making by using blind contour drawing.	Students successfully test their abilities to create art with used paper and permanent markers.

Titles of ELA and art lessons and common core goal/national art standard	Overview of ELA and art lessons	Visual thinking strategy-ELA and art lessons	Samples-Studio Habits of the Mind-ELA and art lessons	Rubric-ELA and art lesson (Achieves goal)
	and not picking up their writing utensil while drawing.	Generalization level: "How do these artworks relate to your language arts class' word of the week-'atelophobia'?" "How does fear relate to *As Brave as You?*"		
Lesson 4b Art-	Art-	Art-	Art-	Art-
Art Under the Microscope Standard 11: Relate artistic ideas and works with societal, cultural, and historical context to deepen understanding.	Students will take images of organisms that cause disease under a microscope and turn them into small colored drawings. This will be a reference to reference about germs in *As Brave as You* and address the principles of art.	Petri dishes of germs-by artist Laura Katherine McMillan. Literal level: "What do you see?" Inferential level: "What message is the artist trying to get across here?" Generalization level: "How does this artwork relate to *As Brave as You?*"	Reflect: Students will reflect on how their artwork includes the multiple principles of design.	Students successfully incorporate the principles of art to create a finished composition.

Lesson 5 ELA-What Makes a Home (I) CCSS.ELA-LITERACY.RL.6.4 Determine the meaning of words and phrases as they are used in a text, including figurative and connotative meanings; analyze the impact of a specific word choice on meaning and tone.	ELA-Students will discuss their identities and their homes and compare it to the home of the characters in *As Brave as You*. Students will make their 2-dimensional house out of popsicle sticks on a piece of paper.	ELA-Paintings of distorted houses. Photos of houses in students' neighborhood. Literal level: "What do you see?" Inferential level: "Why do you think these were selected to accompany *As Brave as You*?" Generalization level: "Which house would you prefer to live in?"	ELA-Express: Students will explain why they chose certain features in their sketches.	ELA-Students participate and completes the tasks of the lesson. Students will participate in the discussion and describe how their structure compares to their home.
Lesson 5 Art-(See below)	Art-(See below)	Art-(See below)	Art-(See below)	Art-(See below)
Lesson 6 ELA-What Makes a Home (II) CCSS.ELA-LITERACY.RL.6.4 Determine the meaning of words and phrases as they are used in a text, including figurative and connotative	ELA-Students will think about colors as symbols. Students will paint the inside of their 2-d houses.	ELA-Photos of houses in different colors. One painting is of a house that is bright red. Literal level: "What do you see?"	ELA-Reflect-Students will consider how the displayed illustrations that they see compare to the corresponding nonfiction text.	ELA-Students participate and complete the tasks of the lesson. Students will describe why they chose the color they did for their home painting.

Titles of ELA and art lessons and common core goal/national art standard	Overview of ELA and art lessons	Visual thinking strategy-ELA and art lessons	Samples-Studio Habits of the Mind-ELA and art lessons	Rubric-ELA and art lesson (Achieves goal)
meanings; analyze the impact of a specific word choice on meaning and tone.		Inferential level: "Why do you think the artist created these or used certain colors?" Generalization level: "Why do you think people paint their houses the colors they do?" "What does the color represent?"		
Lesson 6 Art- (See below)	Art- (See below)	Art- (See below)	Art- (See below)	Art- (See below)
Lesson 7 ELA-What Makes a Home (Part III) CCSS.ELA-Literacy.RL.6.4 Determine the meaning of words and phrases as they	ELA-Students will think about symbolism and the items that are important to them and their lives.	ELA- Paintings of colonial American woman with spinning wheel, African American man and young boy with banjo. Literal level: "What do you see?"	ELA-Express-Students will express why they chose certain features in their sketches.	ELA-Students reflect on what they learned through their sketches and discuss how conceptualizing visually their reading is helpful for understanding.

	Art-	Art-	Art-	Art-
are used in a text, including figurative and connotative meanings; analyze the impact of a specific word choice on meaning and tone.		Inferential level: "Why do you think the artist included certain items?" Generalization level: "Why would you include particular items in your house drawing?"		
Lesson 5-7 Art- Safe Place Structure (This art lesson was developed by former art pre-service teacher, Courtney Miller who first taught it to the teachers in the summer institute). Standard 4: Select, analyze and interpret artistic work for presentation.	Students will use wood, pebbles, sea glass, glue, and artificial greenery to build a structure that they think could keep someone safe. This is connected to the ELA lessons based on *As Brave as You* about the definition of home. Students will think about the abstract concept of feeling safe and transform it into a physical small scale structure.	Artwork of distorted houses by Dennis Maher, Valerie Goutard, and Trailheads. Sculptures along House Creek Trail, Raleigh, NC. Literal level: "What do you see?" Inferential level: "What message is the artists trying to get across?" Generalization level: "How does this piece relate to your current ELA home project?"	Stretch and explore: Students will explore a variety of materials to visualize and build their structure.	Students successfully use provided materials in a creative way.

Figure 1. Faith's Safe Space

The two examples of students' safe houses shown here exemplify the Studio Habits of the Mind. This is to say, in both cases these students were able to envision or picture that which they could not directly observe and imagine possible steps to make their safe space. Faith's safe house in Figure 1, expressed a modern edge with how she placed the wooden pieces. Whereas, her layer on top of layer design seemed whimsical, and the turquoise pieces seem tropical unlike the school's surrounding neighborhood houses that are shades of tan and brown.

Lorena's safe space in Figure 2, suggested a home's courtyard perhaps reminiscent of one in Mexico. This student persisted when her walls fell over on her first attempt to glue them to stand. Both students stretched and explored since they had not experienced such an art project before. Thus, they reached beyond their capacities, to explore playfully and embraced the creative opportunity. The
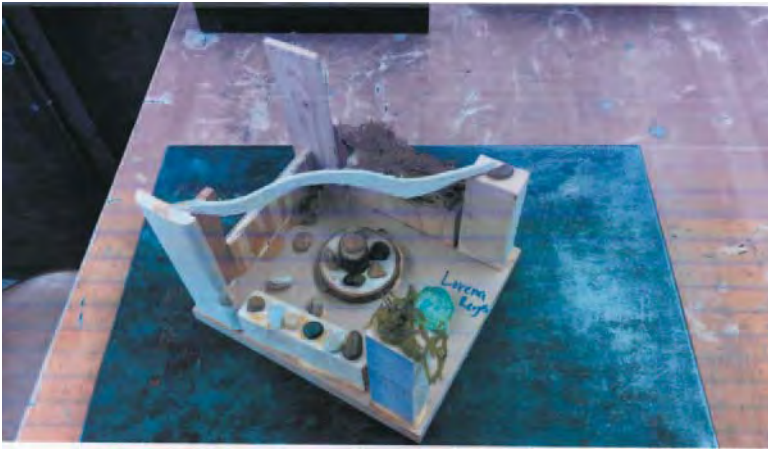
Figure 2. Lorena's Safe Space

art pre-service teacher thought that the students were proud of their ability to design and construct a safe place. Students valued their safe spaces, and they had ownership in them. Students could be heard to ask, "Can we take this home?" Faith and Lorena's safe spaces were displayed in the glass exhibit hall way case across from the art room.

Discussion

At the end of the first year (20 Fridays presenting art-integrated lessons) of this four-year grant, the value of art-integration instruction for pre-service teachers was recognizable. One benefit of art-integrated instruction was that pre-service teachers improved their ability to facilitate a class discussion through Visual Thinking Strategy conversations. Peggy observed that students were eager to contribute their thoughts. Pre-service teachers learned how to call on a variety of students. They encouraged students to develop and share their thoughts through pair-shares. Pre-service teachers learned to ask students "Why?" and to probe their inferential thinking based on what they saw in the artwork on power point slides.

Chandler noted that the novel had a lot of figurative language in it. He felt that using VTS was a way to approach thinking figuratively through metaphors, similes, and personification. He believed that when students were able to bridge from the literal or physical to the abstract in their answers about artwork in the VTS discussion, it was apparent that the students had learned something. For example, after a VTS discussion, a student drew a large fireplace in an artwork

that was associated with a warm and hospitable environment; another student sketched a home that was dark and broken down to suggest sadness and despair. Lori also agreed that through VTS discussions in the art room, students were able to connect literal level images to analogous comparisons. For example, in her art lesson entitled, "My Life as an Album Cover," students were shown the album cover from the group "A Day to Remember," which visualized the message in their song, *What Separates Me from You*, by depicting a man in the bottom of an hour glass trying to get out while people pass by outside not noticing him. Lori remembered that students understood that the album cover was telling a story just as the words to the song were.

Another important lesson learned by pre-service teachers is the value of writing and drawing with students to show them as an example. As an observer of lessons, Peggy recalled when Matthew wrote a paragraph about a time when he was young and his brother broke his leg when they were playing (See lesson 3, "Our Own Nonfiction"). The students were listening intently. The room was seldom so quiet. This was also the case when Lori showed students her own artwork in art room lessons. Lori cautions non-art teachers not to tell their students that they (the teachers) are not good at art, just as she believes that ELA teachers would not tell their students that they (the teachers) are not good at writing. In both cases, Lori feels that students may improve their skills through instruction and practice. Peggy explains to pre-service teachers that although they may not enjoy writing themselves, it is valuable for teachers to describe their past writing experiences good or bad with students; so that students who dislike writing or think that they do not write well, may come to see that they do not struggle alone and that there is a path forward (Daisey, 2008).

It seemed clear that pairing ELA pre-service teachers with an art pre-service teacher gave each the opportunity to learn from each other. For example, ELA pre-service teachers were able to observe how an art pre-service teacher led students through the inferential thought process by directing their attention to what they saw in artwork (such as the effect of wind on Batman's cape). This is to say, ELA pre-service teachers witnessed students reading art; thus discussing meaning through the use of a different semiotic system. On the other hand, the art pre-service teacher experienced how poetry, writing, and reading could be incorporated into their lesson and its benefits by working with ELA pre-service teachers. Thus, pre-service teachers were able to observe middle school students receiving instruction to learn a concept twice during a school day and consider it in multiple ways, in both ELA class, as well as in an art class (for those students who had art class). Peggy recalled hearing the three pre-service teachers when they were with the sixth graders in the art room, reminding students in art class

about what they learned in ELA class. Thus, pre-service teachers could observe weekly students conceptualizing a concept and then expressing it in diverse art forms. This is the value of art-integration methodology (Burnaford, Aprill, & Weiss, 2001).

Through their teaching experience in this project, pre-service teachers were rewarded with increased confidence in their ability to teach. For example, Matthew initially was worried about whether he was capable of teaching minority students living in poverty. He worried whether he was capable of "reaching "students. Yet, "through time I was able to see how much I grew and how much the students] touched me… I believe that I am able to reach students in a way that I did not think possible." He concluded this was because the art-integrated lessons were taught in a more relaxed atmosphere so there was less stress. Peggy, as well as, the ELA cooperating teacher noted that water coloring calmed students. They sat quietly and worked with their classmates. Pre-service teachers learned as well, that sixth grade students enjoyed being read aloud to. They relaxed and were quietly content to hear a story. The ELA and art teachers acknowledged a shift in their classrooms during content area art-integrated and extended art room lessons. They observed that students were much more engaged, persisted at the task at hand, and exhibited few problem behaviors during the lessons.

Given the amount of time pre-service teachers spent in front of students, it was clear that their confidence to manage a class increased. New art teacher Rachel Branham (2016) in her graphic novel *"What's So Great About Art, Anyway? A Teacher's Odyssey* recalled her evolution from student to teacher and her increase in confidence when talking in front of students. Peggy believes that because pre-service teachers had to submit their lesson plans early and were given feedback, they were well prepared and thus more confident in their instruction (See more lesson plans of the projects' website riverrougearts.org).

Challenges exist with this model. It is a complicated schedule to figure out. Also, if not enough ELA or art pre-service teachers enroll in the secondary content area literacy course or wish/are able to participate in the project, then it necessary, in order to have pairs, to work with pre-service teachers who are not as far along in the certification program and may require more mentoring. Another constraint was that not all members of a pair or threesome were in the same section of the content area course, thus necessitated working on-line to develop lessons. Chandler explained that the art integration aspect of the lessons did not come easy for him since he had no art background. (None of the core content area secondary pre-service teachers are required to take any art course for graduation purposes). Other researchers working with secondary pre-service teachers also have found that some pre-service teachers struggled to integrate art into core

content subjects (Ames, 2016). Yet, pre-service teachers in this project were able to find connections between art and core content area lessons. Chandler said that at times, the lessons were "reverse-engineered", which is to say he would write the ELA portion; then Matthew would find the artwork. Then at times Lori would find out what the topic was afterwards and scramble to plan the art room lesson. Chandler also noted that at times there was a time crunch to fit the VTS discussion, ELA content, and art project into a 55 minute period, in a meaningful way.

Conclusion

ELA teachers might wonder "Why art when my students need to know how to read and write?" (Albers, 2007, p. 13). The reporting of a detailed evaluation of student outcomes is beyond the scope of this paper. However, through discussion of art and relevant projects, students in this grant were given the motivation and space to experience thinking on different levels of thought, which are key aspects of the Common Core Standards. ELA and art pre-service teachers were offered two avenues to construct meaning and express that meaning personally by offering students dual sign systems. Through the inclusion of art, pre-service teachers attempted to help student develop metacognitive skills, thus foster students' continued academic growth. Through VTS discussions and related art projects, pre-service teachers experienced how they may facilitate a method for students to learn to think about how they know something, about what questions they have, and about why following questions to their answers matters. Pre-service teachers gave students the experience to think as artists. Art-centered integrated learning, which involves applying the thinking of art to learning in other disciplines, allows learners to develop habits of mind that not only are useful for learning across the curriculum, but also will be critical to their development as learners and to their learning in the future (Marshall & Donahue, 2014). It is also clear through this project of the value of collaboration among teachers to offer students a rich environment to promote motivation and opportunities to think critically and creatively. Eisner (2004) writes, "Academic schooling would do well to look more like the processes the arts celebrates. In the current educational policy climate we have it upside down. The arts are not marginal niceties; they should be regulative ideas for all we do" (p.8).

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Leveraging Cooperating Teacher Knowledge to Improve Discourse in the Field Experience

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Abstract

This study examines the nature of discourse about literacy instruction that occurs within the field placement. Using a comparative case study design within three first and second grade classrooms, participants conducted four read-aloud lessons over the duration of the study. Written and verbal post-lesson conference feedback was analyzed for evidence of discussion about high quality read-aloud instruction. The findings suggest that cooperating teachers provided limited feedback about literacy instruction; however, with the implementation of a researcher-developed feedback tool in the second phase of the study, post-lesson discussion with preservice teachers about the features of a high quality read-aloud lesson was more prevalent. These results suggest that cooperating teachers and preservice teachers may benefit from an explicit focus on feedback and that university supports in the form of a feedback tool may be one way to emphasize, and thus improve the discourse around literacy instruction in the field.

Introduction

When you're new in the profession, you don't realize that some books are so rich for discussion in teachable moments… you're just trying to get through the story,

and there's a lot left on the table. So trying to help her discover how to make best use of all the materials that are available, and read aloud being one really good way to open doors for discussion and to teach. (Ms. Rochester, Cooperating Teacher, 2014)

In this quote, Ms. Rochester highlights the critical work of cooperating teachers as they support and "help [preservice teachers] discover" the many ways that literature can be used to support young children's literacy development. This article describes a research study examining how experienced educators mentor novice literacy teachers in the critical instructional practice of reading aloud within a complex teacher preparation environment.

Teacher preparation programs are under scrutiny to demonstrate that graduates are well prepared for the rigors of the current education environment (U.S. Department of Education, 2011). One way that universities can support preservice teacher learning is through coherent program design, in which practices and course content are explicitly connected to teaching opportunities in field experiences (Grossman, Hammerness, McDonald, & Ronfeldt, 2008).

During elementary education field experiences, preservice teachers must negotiate an alignment between the theoretical perspectives and instructional practices emphasized in literacy coursework, with those espoused and enacted by their cooperating teachers (Beck & Kosnick, 2002; Feiman-Nemser & Buchmann, 1985; Lesley, Hamman, Olivarez, Button, & Griffith, 2009; Moore, 2003; Shantz & Ward, 2000; Valencia, Martin, Place, & Grossman 2009). The conversations that occur throughout the field experience are essential to this negotiated experience and can help highlight the challenges that preservice teachers have in exercising their own instructional decision-making processes. This research study examined the nature of the written and verbal feedback cooperating teachers (CTs) provided to preservice teachers (PTs) as they enacted read-alouds, and provides insights into the dialogic dimensions of the field experience context within literacy teacher education. This study was designed with the dual objectives of exploring the nature of feedback CTs provide about a specific literacy practice and finding ways to use this information to facilitate more robust conversations with PTs about high-quality read-alouds. The following questions guide this work:

1. What is the focus of CTs' written feedback to PTs during read-aloud lessons?

2. What is the focus of the post-lesson conference between CTs and PTs after read-aloud lessons?

3. How does a researcher-developed literacy feedback tool support CTs as they provide written and verbal feedback to PTs?

Conceptual Framework

This study uses multiple lenses in order to explain the complex phenomena occurring in teacher preparation environments (Tracey & Morrow, 2017). Theories of situated cognition and social constructivism, along with the pedagogies of practice framework, work together to describe the ways in which language mediates and influences preservice teacher learning within field placement classrooms (Grossman, Compton, Igra, Ronfeldt, Shahan, & Williamson 2009; Lave & Wenger, 1991; Vygotsky, 1978). The field experience is an environment in which novice teachers gradually increase their participation in the culture and practices of a school community, thus learning about teaching as they teach, while guided by more experienced colleagues. Each classroom is situated within a particular grade, school, and district, with policies, curricula, and teachers interacting continuously within that context. This larger context forms a community of practice where PTs enact lessons, discuss issues, and develop their pedagogical skills and professional identities. Pedagogies of practice include representations, decomposition, and approximations of practice that constitute teacher education programs (Grossman et al., 2009). As novices are apprenticed into the profession, they are provided with representations, or models, within coursework and field experience contexts. Cooperating teachers, university supervisors, and teacher education faculty decompose those models through written and verbal feedback, reflection and discussion, which lays the groundwork for the approximations of practice, or lesson enactments, which take place. The pedagogies of practice are nested between the situated learning contexts and communication practices that are essential components of teacher preparation. Thus, this integrated conceptual framework (Figure 1) provides the foundation for this research study.

Literature Review

Field experiences constitute a significant aspect of teacher preparation. Lacina and Block (2011) found that carefully designed, relevant field experiences were considered to be the most important programmatic feature within exemplary literacy teacher education programs (TEPs). Grossman et al. (2008) examined the relationship between PTs' perceptions of program coherence to features of the field experience. Coherent programs provided students with an aligned vision of teaching and learning that occurred across school and university settings, and had specific structures that consistently worked together to link coursework and fieldwork. The authors found that coherent TEPs were more likely to include control over the selection of CTs, increased supervisor observations, and more opportunities for supervisors to meet with university faculty. Ronfeldt (2012)
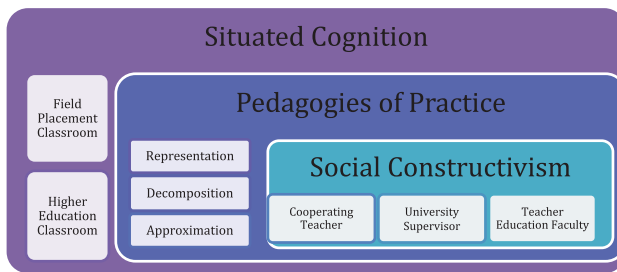
Figure 1. Integrated conceptual framework designed for use in this study. Preservice teacher knowledge in teacher preparation is co-constructed with cooperating teachers, university supervisors and teacher education faculty working with pedagogies of practice within two distinct communities of practice: higher education classrooms and field experience classrooms. Based on work by Vygotsky, 1978; Lave & Wenger, 1991; and Grossman et al., 2009.

extended these findings and investigated whether beginning teachers who completed field experience in "easier-to-staff" schools had better or worse retention rates and student outcomes than those prepared in "harder-to-staff" schools. The results suggest that easier-to-staff schools were more effective placements because teachers prepared there had higher retention and better student outcomes over the next five years, even if those individuals went on to teach in harder-to-staff schools.

The teacher preparation system is complex and includes many stakeholders: teacher educators, university supervisors, and cooperating teachers who shape the knowledge and experience of preservice teachers on a daily basis. Each stakeholder has a set of beliefs and practices that they promote in the work of preparing teachers (Anderson & Stillman, 2012; Darling-Hammond, 2006; Graham, 2006; Valencia et al., 2009). Acknowledgement of these multiple stakeholders is needed so that PTs can learn collaboratively from all participants, and academic knowledge, acquired from higher education spaces, is not privileged over the knowledge of CTs (Zeichner, 2010). In elementary classrooms, PTs must negotiate how to make instructional decisions about literacy instruction based on both coursework and fieldwork experiences. When PTs are confronted with dissonance between instructional theories and practices espoused in university courses and instructional decisions that occur in classrooms, they often adhere to the practices in the field experience, imitating and replicating the "working" instructional practices of CTs with little opportunity to question these practices (Moore, 2003; Lesley et al., 2009). Borko & Mayfield (1995) found that PTs' "perceptions of their cooperating teachers' influence were associated, to some

degree, with the cooperating teachers' views of their roles and with the nature and extent of student teacher/cooperating teacher interactions" (p. 513). More recently, Ronfeldt and Reininger (2012) found that the quality of the cooperating teacher was the strongest predictor of preservice teachers' perceptions of instructional preparedness and efficacy.

Clarke, Triggs, and Nielsen (2013) emphasize that CTs' primary responsibilities include being "providers of feedback." However, PTs often cite a need for more explicit feedback from CTs in order to negotiate these decision-making processes (Beck & Kosnick, 2002). Valencia and colleagues (2009) provided additional evidence of the need for feedback in their description of a continuum of interactions, ranging from mimicking to neglect, between PTs and their CTs, which influence preservice teacher development. In every case, there were missed opportunities for CTs and PTs to have systematic debriefings about lessons and substantive discussions about language arts instruction.

The read-aloud is a critical component of a classroom literacy program. One study of exemplary classroom teachers described common elements of the interactive read-alouds they enacted (Fisher, Flood, Lapp, & Frey, 2004). The authors identified seven key practices: 1) selecting high quality, interesting books; 2) texts are previewed and practiced by the teacher; 3) clear purpose established for the read aloud; 4) the teacher modeled fluent oral reading; 5) teachers read with expression and animation; 6) teachers thoughtfully asked questions periodically to focus students on elements of the text; and 7) teachers made connections to independent reading and writing. The authors argue that with more attention to these seven common practices, all teachers can implement high-quality interactive read-alouds. This study utilized this set of practices to examine how CTs supported PTs as they developed their specialized knowledge about reading instruction generally, and the read-aloud particularly, as an effective method for teaching students about text.

Methods

This qualitative study took place in three classrooms within two field placement sites in a medium-sized mid-Atlantic city. Three preservice and cooperating teacher dyads, a total of six participants, were involved in the study, occurring during the semester in which the PTs were completing their K-4th grade student teaching experience at a large urban research institution.

Green Valley School (all names are pseudonyms) is a public K-5 elementary school in an affluent suburban school district, enrolling approximately 700 students. Two study participants, Ms. Riley (CT) and Abby (PT) were selected

from Green Valley School and taught together in a second grade classroom. Mountain View School, the second site, is a tuition-based, K-8th grade laboratory school in the same city, enrolling approximately 400 students. Four participants from Mountain View School were selected for this research: Ms. Patrick (CT) and Hannah (PT) taught first grade, while Ms. Rochester (CT) and Sara (PT) worked together in second grade. Both Green Valley School and Mountain View School have low teacher turnover, and may be described as "easier-to-staff" settings (Ronfeldt, 2012).

Data Collection

This study consisted of two phases (Figure 2). The first phase included a pre-study interview for all six subjects to probe beliefs and expectations about field experiences, mentoring practices, and literacy instruction. Then PTs were asked to video record two read-aloud enactments as well as the two corresponding post-lesson conferences with CTs. Cooperating teachers' written feedback about each read-aloud was also collected for these observations.

During phase two, PTs conducted two additional read-aloud enactments; however, a Literacy Instruction Feedback Tool (LIFT) was provided for the phase two observations (see Appendix A). This form was designed as a data-gathering tool in order to open a window into the feedback process and to provide CTs and PTs with support in discussing the read-aloud as a specific instructional practice, emphasizing literacy and instructional content over general procedures and management skills. Finally, there was a post-study interview with all participants

Phase One:
- Cohort Survey (CT)
- Pre-study Interviews (CT & PST)
- CT Model Read-aloud
- Read-aloud enactment #1
- Unstructured feedback conference #1
- Read-aloud enactment #2
- Unstructured feedback conference #2

Phase Two:
- Introduce LIFT to CTs
- Read-aloud enactment #3
- LIFT conference #1
- Read-aloud enactment #4
- LIFT conference #2
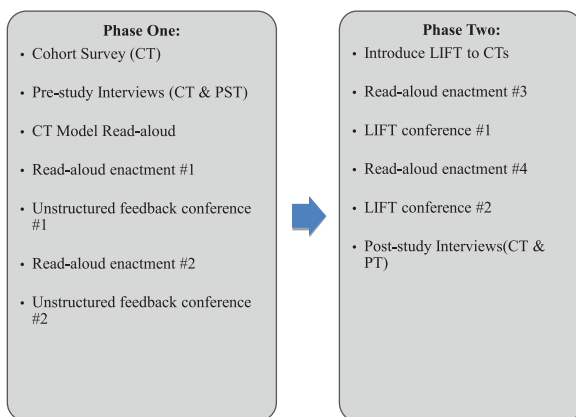- Post-study Interviews(CT & PT)

Figure 2. Research Study Design

to gain deeper insight into any shifts in beliefs and practices around mentoring, feedback, and literacy instruction.

Data Analysis

Data sources were primarily qualitative in nature, which required detailed analysis of important themes about feedback, mentoring and literacy instruction that emerged from the data. Two levels of descriptive coding were used to examine the content of the written artifacts and verbal feedback conferences (Merriam, 2009; Miles, Huberman, & Saldaña, 2014).

  Written feedback and post-lesson conferences. Cooperating teachers were asked to provide written feedback for all four read-aloud enactments. All written feedback artifacts and transcribed post-lesson conferences, eight data sources for each preservice teacher, were subjected to two levels of coding and analysis. First, "aspects of practice" described by Valencia and colleagues (2009) have been adapted for this study and provide insight into the dimensions of talk that characterized the written and verbal discourse between the two participants (Table 1).

  When CTs provided feedback that addressed literacy content in the lesson, a secondary level of coding and analysis investigated what aspects of the read-aloud practice were emphasized in the written and verbal feedback for the preservice teacher. Table 2 shows the seven features that characterize a high quality

TABLE 1
Initial Coding of Feedback on Aspects of Practice

Feature	Description
Management	Discipline, student participation, homework, pacing, engagement
Planning	Planning for upcoming lessons
Literacy Instruction: Specific	Discussion of **specific** literacy and/or instructional strategies
Literacy Instruction: Nonspecific	General or vague mention of literacy and/or instructional strategies
Logistics	Review of feedback form, planning/goals for next observation
Praise-General	Management, classroom procedures, general behaviors
Praise-Instruction	Instruction or content of lesson
Objective description	Description of lesson activity (similar to field notes)

Note: Adapted from "Complex interactions in student teaching: Lost opportunities for learning." by Valencia and colleagues (2009).

TABLE 2
Secondary Coding of Features of a High Quality Read-aloud

Feature	Description
Text selection	Is the text an appropriate read-aloud choice?
Previewed and practiced	Has the teacher created a lesson plan/demonstrated preparation for the read-aloud?
Clear purpose established	Does the teacher communicate a purpose for reading this text to students?
Fluent reading (including animation and expression)	Does the teacher demonstrate fluent oral reading? Is the teacher animated and expressive when reading aloud?
Vocabulary	Does the teacher discuss vocabulary words within the text?
Comprehension/ Text Discussion	Is the reading interactive? Does the teacher strategically pause to ask questions and facilitate discussion with students?
Independent reading and writing	Does the teacher connect the read-aloud to independent reading and writing that may occur throughout the day?
Lesson Closing-Big idea	Does the teacher close the lesson by asking students to discuss the big idea or important theme?

Note: Adapted from "Interactive read-alouds: Is there a common set of implementation practices?" by Fisher and colleagues (2004).

read-aloud (Fisher et al., 2004). These categories have been adapted for use in this study; specifically, codes were added for Vocabulary and Lesson Closings.

Interviews.   Transcribed interviews with cooperating teachers provided insights into classroom contexts and served as resources for understanding their instructional and mentoring decision-making. These interviews were not coded, but reviewed holistically for ideas and themes that provided insight into the mentoring experience. Post-study interviews were examined for evidence of any shifts in beliefs and practice that may have occurred over the duration of the study.

Findings

Nature of Written Feedback

Three CTs each wrote feedback about four read-aloud lessons, for a total of 12 written data sources. This feedback may be understood as a catalyst for the decomposition practice (Grossman et al., 2009.) That is, the CT notes features or aspects of the lesson that she would like to discuss with the PT, with the goal of improving future lessons. Overall, the three CTs provided their student

teachers with a range of written feedback about general aspects of practice as they observed read-aloud lessons. They also included points about the specific literacy instructional practices that are part of a high quality read-aloud. CTs' written feedback ranged from a low of three to a high of ten suggestions for one lesson, and their written feedback took two primary forms: email and handwritten notes.

In the analysis of written feedback after read-aloud lessons, Ms. Patrick provided between three and six suggestions for Hannah to consider, focusing on literacy instruction, praise, and classroom management. For example, after the first read-aloud, Ms. Patrick wrote, "Great expression and enthusiasm. I liked that you took time to show the illustrations panoramically." In the second LIFT observation, she highlighted that Hannah had previewed the text prior to reading, noting that Hannah had selected 'pandemonium' as a vocabulary word to emphasize.

In each of her four written feedback artifacts, Ms. Rochester provided Sara with seven to ten suggestions for consideration. Ms. Rochester wrote the most about classroom management in the first read-aloud lesson. For example, she praised Sara, stating "good job refocusing the students who were off task." She offered praise about Sara's teaching in the second read aloud, noting, "'Insisted' was one of the vocabulary words from your Text Talk lesson. Great job drawing attention to the word in this book and demonstrating its use to the students."

Across all four read-aloud lesson observations, Ms. Rochester provided written feedback to Sara about two to four facets of literacy instruction. She included comments about text discussion/comprehension and fluency across all four lessons. For example, during the third read-aloud and first observation using the LIFT, Ms. Rochester wrote, "Reading was fluent and you used appropriate animation, expression, and enthusiasm. As you continue to read aloud, you might want to try out different voices. We have discussed pacing; continue to be aware of that."

Ms. Riley provided written feedback to her student teacher, Abby, in the form of handwritten notes based on lesson observations. Ms. Riley made one point about classroom management in each lesson. In the third read-aloud, Ms. Riley wrote, "Class management good. Transition smooth." She also praised Abby both generally, and about literacy instruction, in three of the lessons. For example "The video was a good way to introduce the play and enhance the children's understanding of the play." The literacy-specific feedback was further analyzed to show that Ms. Riley provided written feedback about fluency, animation, and expression during three of the four lessons. Specifically, in the first read-aloud, she wrote, "Her reading was good but not as animated as usual." Ms. Riley provided additional feedback about text discussion in two lessons. In the

second read-aloud Ms. Riley stated, "She provided opportunities for prediction. She clarified the action in the story with pertinent questions."

Nature of Verbal Feedback

Each cooperating teacher conducted four feedback conferences that were video-recorded, transcribed, and analyzed. All conferences occurred immediately after the lesson or later that same day. These conferences served as a dialogic space for decomposition of the read-aloud practice as well as an extension and elaboration of the written feedback provided by the cooperating teacher.

Questions can extend the discussion and indicate to the PT that their insights and analysis of the lesson are important. The study participants used questions in varied ways. Ms. Rochester asked Sara the most total questions of all CTs, increasing her questioning over the duration of the study. Her preservice teacher, Sara, also had the most participation in the conversation of all preservice teacher participants. Ms. Patrick and Ms. Riley typically asked one or two questions during each discussion and also had the shortest post-lesson conferences. Table 3 shows the nature of each CT's questions during each post-lesson discussion.

Ms. Patrick's post-lesson feedback conferences were brief, lasting an average of just over 2 minutes. The data indicate Ms. Patrick discussed many of the aspects of practice described by Valencia et al. (2009). In the first conference, she provided more specific feedback about management, which then shifted into an increase in general praise in the final conference. In three out of four discussions, Ms. Patrick praised Hannah's instructional decisions. In every post-lesson conference, Ms. Patrick included specific feedback about literacy instruction. The following transcript of the final conference for this study is one example of the way Ms. Patrick utilized "how do you think it went?" as a question posed to Hannah and how the discussion of prediction (an aspect of text discussion/comprehension), and vocabulary are included within the wider conversation about the read-aloud lesson with the text *Hook's Revenge* (Schulz, 2014):

Ms. Patrick:	*Hannah… how do you think it went?*
Hannah:	*I think it went pretty well. They liked it. There were the predictions, which were cool because they were either… going to run into the crocodile or run into a cliff. So…*
Ms. Patrick:	*Yeah, kind of a wide range there.*
Hannah:	*So it was interesting to see what they thought. Even though we didn't get to that much excitement yet they still seemed to enjoy the journey to where that leads to.*

Ms. Patrick:	*Yeah, that actually is a really good observation…so it was neat to see that they were still pretty riveted and involved and invested in the story. The predictions from beforehand were good and I liked how you're like, "Catch me up." Then right after you asked them to catch you up then you went right into, "What do you think's going to happen?" So it was…very fluid. Then you asked at the end what they thought was going to happen. It was still kind of the same and I think you can't really expect their predictions to change when it's just a bridge chapter because nothing new has happened to change their predictions. But I thought it was excellent. As always great fluency and enthusiasm. You did a nice job with proximity. …You found some more vocabulary words yesterday. Was it 'pandemonium'?*
Hannah:	*Mm-hmm.*
Ms. Patrick:	*And then there was another one…they were able to figure it out. I mean that child knew the definition but as soon as he said, "It's like acting everything's crazy," you're all like, "Yeah, yeah, that makes sense." So I thought that was good. So keep it up.*

Ms. Rochester had the longest feedback conferences, averaging over 9 minutes each. She also asked the most questions, frequently soliciting thoughts about the lesson and asking Sara to justify instructional decisions. Ms. Rochester's discussion of literacy instruction figured prominently in each conversation and was the most common type of feedback she provided in three out of four conferences. Ms. Rochester touched on a variety of read-aloud elements, with text discussion/comprehension discussed in every conference and fluency discussed in three out of four. She also referenced Text Talk, a method of reading, which emphasizes "tier two" vocabulary and reading comprehension (Beck & McKeown, 2001).

Ms. Riley's post-lesson conferences were very brief, averaging 90 seconds. Ms. Riley provided general praise, praise about literacy instruction, and feedback about specific literacy practices in each feedback conference. Ms. Riley discussed fluency, text discussion, text selection, and connections to reading and writing tasks each in two conferences, while vocabulary instruction was emphasized only in the last conference.

Influence of LIFT

The Literacy Instruction Feedback Tool (LIFT) (see Appendix A) was designed as a research-gathering device in order to provide CTs with a formal set of cues to enhance literacy-specific feedback to student teachers. This form was emailed to CT participants before the 3rd read-aloud lesson for use in the final two observations.

Analysis of Ms. Patrick's post-lesson verbal feedback conferences using the LIFT suggests an increase in praise about literacy instruction and more limited discussion about classroom management. Ms. Patrick provided more feedback about text discussion and comprehension in the LIFT conferences than in the first two conferences. In the post-study interview, Ms. Patrick seemed to value the LIFT to help her formalize feedback. She stated:

> It was neat once I had … the form, because that could help guide the kind of things I wanted to talk about during the post-game show, so to speak. Some of it I felt was not necessarily relevant for the purpose of why we do read-alouds in this classroom, like lesson planning and you know what's the purpose or objective, things like that per se. But it was still nice to have that framework. So I know now that I need to give that kind of feedback…so I think it is important to give …more concrete, formal, feedback.

Ms. Rochester's conversations with Sara consistently included literacy-specific feedback and the LIFT did not influence the *amount* of this type of feedback included in post-lesson conferences. However, the LIFT appeared to support Ms. Rochester in varying the feedback provided to Sara about her read-aloud lessons. Specifically, discussion about comprehension more than doubled in the second LIFT conference over the first three lessons. Further, Ms. Rochester mentioned lesson closings and establishing a clear purpose exclusively during the LIFT conferences.

In the interview excerpt below, Ms. Rochester indicates the value of using the LIFT with her student teacher and for her own instructional practice. The form seemed to help her reflect on her role as a cooperating teacher and how she can use the read-aloud as a low-risk lesson observation experience in the future. She states:

> I found it really informative for my own practice as a cooperating teacher, to provide more… guidance…and I also discovered that can be a way

> to do an observation so I don't have to wait for them to actually teach
> a lesson. We can start with just observing and having a lesson plan for
> a read-aloud. I never thought about all of that so…we both found the
> experience to be very…helpful and enjoyable…and it also helped me to
> think about when I'm reading aloud. You do something all the time…
> it becomes a habit but I have been thinking about some of the questions
> in the formal observation that you asked us to do, to apply to myself.

Ms. Riley's feedback was very limited throughout the course of the study. However, use of the LIFT increased her literacy-specific written feedback to Abby. In the final two LIFT observations, Ms. Riley essentially doubled the amount of literacy-specific feedback she discussed with Sara compared to the first two observations. In addition, Ms. Riley wrote about vocabulary instruction and making connections to reading and writing tasks only in the LIFT observations.

Discussion
Situated Learning During the Field Experience

This study focused on the situated learning that occurred in the field placement classroom, with an understanding that the university literacy methods courses provided a foundation from which students would further develop. The PTs in this study received implicit messages about literacy instruction and the teaching profession, generally based on what occurred in this student teaching placement. These tacit understandings may run counter to what teacher preparation programs emphasize.

Lesson planning is one example of a context in which student teachers may receive implicit messages. Specifically, this university teacher education program requires that student teachers create lesson plans for *all* lessons, and they were specifically provided lesson plan templates and models for planning a read-aloud lesson. Lesson plans are important tools for novice teachers as they become intentional in their instruction, considering how state standards, learning objectives, and instructional decisions should align to support student literacy development. Sara, Hannah, and Abby had the experience of constructing, revising, and implementing read-aloud lesson plans at numerous points in their university coursework. However, none of them chose to prepare lesson plans for any of the read-aloud lessons for this study. They did prepare lessons for other literacy instruction lessons, and other content areas, but in the reality of the field experience classroom, the read-aloud was excluded from this requirement. So, while all CTs discussed the importance of previewing the text prior to reading,

they also did not ask student teachers to prepare lesson plans for this instructional practice. After participating in this study, Ms. Rochester indicated that she would consider asking future student teachers for a lesson plan in which the read-aloud is the focus, reflecting that a novice teacher could probably use more guidance in this practice than she initially realized. She also stated that this study supports her thinking more deeply about planning for the read-aloud and the mentoring opportunities that can occur during a read-aloud.

These three classrooms were situated in schools with significant affluent student populations. Further, both schools in this research study had high staff stability, with low teacher turnover. Ronfeldt's (2012) work highlights many benefits of student teaching in these types of easier-to-staff settings. While student achievement data is not available for tuition-based Mountain View School, it is generally perceived to be a school where most students are academically successful. Based on publicly available data, most Green Valley School students are proficient or advanced in reading on state assessments. Placing student teachers in these classrooms may provide them with opportunities to work with teachers and students who are part of a school culture that is "more desirable for teacher practice" (Ronfeldt, 2012, p. 8). However, being that most students in these three classrooms were strong readers, student teachers may not have been challenged to make the most of the read-aloud lesson. The instructional and curricular pressures may not exist as they would in a harder-to-staff environment. For example, in Ms. Rochester's classroom, where there was significant post-lesson discussion of vocabulary and comprehension, her student teacher, Sara, did not have explicitly stated specific student learning goals in mind as she taught. Thus, PTs may receive the additional implicit message that a read-aloud is primarily for pleasure without the emphasis on a specific instructional objective or alignment to standards, and without a need for infusing the read-aloud with instructional elements that support students of all abilities.

Constructing Pedagogies Of Practice

The PTs in this study had many opportunities to see representations of the read aloud, both in university courses and models provided by CTs in the field. These representations served as guides for PTs as they began to make their own instructional decisions as teachers. Specifically, teacher education faculty introduced a variety of read-aloud models as well as criteria for selecting texts, including the features of a high quality read-aloud outlined by Fisher et al. (2004). In addition, these representations included both expository and narrative titles written from preschool through fourth grade levels and were presented across at least three courses within the students' teacher education program. Cooperating teachers in

this study provided multiple examples of reading aloud, representing the practice throughout the student teaching semester. Thus, student teachers had many examples to draw upon once they were asked to implement these lessons. These representations of the read-aloud serve to ground the social constructivism inherent in the teacher education process. The more knowledgeable "expert" teacher educators, both at the university and in the field placement classrooms, provide examples that they believe are worth emulating, challenging student teachers to develop their knowledge about literacy instruction through their use.

Decomposition occurs when learners understand the components of a practice in order to enact and improve upon the practice as a whole. Feedback is at the heart of the decomposition process, for it is in the reflection and discussion about instruction that one's teaching practice may be further developed and refined. The primary focus of this particular study was the written and verbal feedback that CTs provided to PTs about the read-aloud practice. The space in which feedback is given is the embodiment of social constructivism at work. The study findings suggest that each cooperating teacher approached feedback differently and thus, each preservice teacher had a widely varying experience with decomposition and reflection about literacy instruction. Two out of three CTs, Ms. Patrick and Ms. Riley, provided very brief written feedback and post-lesson conferences (1.5 – 2 minutes each) with their student teachers. They also asked the fewest and most simplistic questions of their student teachers, so dialogue was limited. In addition, both CTs provided fairly limited feedback about literacy instruction.

Ms. Rochester provided an altogether different example of decomposition at work in the field experience. She facilitated the longest feedback conferences, an average of 8 minutes, and provided the most feedback of the three CTs. Ms. Rochester's post-lesson conferences were also more dialogic. She asked Sara the most questions in her feedback conferences and allowed her to answer fully in response. This situated learning space provided Sara with the opportunity to co-construct her knowledge about literacy with Ms. Rochester. The conversations were the basis for reflective discussions about instructional decision-making and the read-aloud practice.

In a small but important way, TEPs provision of feedback tools such as the LIFT, can serve as a form of *meta-decomposition* of the read-aloud practice as well. By using specific language in the guidance provided to CTs, they may be cued to think, discuss, and possibly even teach differently than they have before. For example, Ms. Rochester stated in her post-lesson interview that she might incorporate the literacy aspects highlighted in the LIFT to improve her own read-alouds. So it may be that by shaping the feedback that a TEP requires for its student

teachers, the teaching practice of CTs could be transformed as well. Thus, through decomposition of a literacy practice such as the read-aloud, development of both experienced and novice educators may more clearly align with the TEP, increasing program coherence, and possibly even student learning in the classroom.

The read-aloud was considered to be an accessible early entry point into teaching, so it was handed to the student teachers within a few weeks of beginning this field experience. Participating CTs mentioned in interviews that they assisted the preservice teacher in book selection for the read-aloud, which in at least two classrooms resulted in handing a previously read (and loved) text to the preservice teacher for the lesson. Text selection is one way that CTs can provide PTs with the freedom to make a 'low-risk' instructional decision. The read-aloud was clearly considered a low-risk instructional practice, in that student teachers were allowed to enact these lessons very early in the field placement and lesson plans were not requested. When it came time for the PTs to select texts and conduct their own read-aloud lessons, Sara was given the freedom to choose her own read-aloud texts in Ms. Rochester's classroom, while Ms. Riley and Ms. Patrick selected texts for Abby and Hannah. When Abby had the chance to discuss the read-aloud with Ms. Riley, text selection was not emphasized. Ms. Patrick discussed text selection in that she elaborated on why the text (that she selected) was a good choice, whereas Ms. Rochester had conversations with Sara about this important first step in conducting a read-aloud. So it is in the decomposition and dialogue about the lesson that elements of the approximation, and thus features of high-quality literacy instruction, are reflected upon and discussed.

Limitations

The findings from this research can only describe the relationships and field placement contexts of the six participants. Moreover, the findings only relate to the read-aloud instructional context; thus, the extent to which cooperating and preservice teachers are familiar with read-aloud instruction may influence the findings as well. The school sites have particular characteristics that provide certain advantages and disadvantages when drawing conclusions about the results of this study. Mountain View School, as a private laboratory school setting, has additional staffing and more flexible schedules than what may be present in a public school setting. Both field placement schools also served students from primarily middle-class and affluent families in the region and therefore do not represent typical classrooms in the United States. However, both sites are examples of easier-to-staff settings, an important characteristic to consider for preservice teacher learning within the field placement. Finally, the findings from this study

can elucidate and suggest patterns, but are not generalizable to other field placement classrooms or instructional contexts.

Conclusion

This study suggests that teacher education programs may be able to leverage the expertise of cooperating teachers in a way that provides enhanced discourse about literacy instruction within the field experience. As teacher education faculty, we rely on cooperating teachers to provide models, conversations, and instructional opportunities that align with our coursework but often provide little support or guidance. When supports are provided, we acknowledge and respect cooperating teachers' essential role in teacher preparation.

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Appendix A

Literacy Instruction Feedback Tool (LIFT): Read-aloud

Text title: _____

Author: _____

Have you previously used this text as a read-aloud? __ Y __ N

Did you recommend it for this lesson? __ Y __ N

Please note the extent to which the following features were present during this lesson, providing evidence and examples for reflection and discussion.

Lesson Features	Evidence/Examples/Notes
Planning/Preparation • Completed lesson plan • Has previewed and practiced the text prior to reading	
Classroom Management • Implements smooth transitions • Engages a majority of students in the read-aloud discussion • Addresses behavior issues appropriately	
Launch/Introduction • Provides clear explanation of lesson purpose/objective(s) • Lesson purpose/objective(s) matches text selection • Includes brief discussion of the author and illustrator	Purpose/Objective(s): _____
Oral Reading • Appropriately models fluent oral reading • Demonstrates appropriate animation, expression, and enthusiasm for reading	

Lesson Features	Evidence/Examples/Notes
Text Discussion • Elicits student thinking about the text by using prompts, cues and questions about important text ideas • Responds and connects students' ideas to one another • Emphasizes vocabulary (interesting, precise, and sophisticated words) • Draws attention to language (figurative, idioms, expressions, rhyme, dialect) *Lesson Closing* • Asks students to articulate big ideas connected to the learning/objectives • Connects read-aloud text to independent reading and writing that will occur (or has occurred) during the day • Lesson met stated purpose/objective(s)	

Any additional comments/questions for discussion?

TABLE 3
Nature of CT Questions in Post-lesson Conferences

	Conference 1	Conference 2	LIFT Conference 1	LIFT Conference 2
Ms. Patrick	How do you think it went? What else are you thinking? The live action, right? You got any other questions?	So, what did you think? How did it go? Thoughts, reflections, ideas, concepts? Any other questions or anything?	How do you think it went?	How do you think it went? Was it 'pandemonium'?
Ms. Rochester	Any reflections that you have off the top of your head? Or anything that you – you've had a chance to do it, that you've thought about – what did you – did you think…? Anything else that you would do – have you had a chance to think about if you were to do that lesson again, would there be anything you would change?	But I did want to ask you where you – what prompted you to pick this book for your read-aloud? Have you read – did you read the book ahead of time or are you reading as you're going along with them? Is that how you're feeling?	Do you think that there's anything else that you would have done differently in terms of classroom management? One thing I wanted to ask you is why did you choose this book? So I mean there's tons of books that you could have chosen but what prompted you to choose this one? When you read the book the first time did you ask students what they predicted the book might be by the title?	So do you have a lesson plan for this lesson? So it was just a read-aloud just to…? And change – calm the energy? Before transition? Had you had an opportunity – had you either previewed or practiced this book prior to reading? You just went with it? What prompted you to choose that book?

TABLE 3
Nature of CT Questions in Post-lesson Conferences

	Conference 1	Conference 2	LIFT Conference 1	LIFT Conference 2
			Did you have anything that you wanted to add?	Then you incorporated the students by giving them opportunity to choose by just looking at the back rather than them noticing the title or anything?
				Was there an illustrator for – was the author and the illustrator the same person?
				Is there anything that you'd like to add?
Ms. Riley	Anything else that you would like to add to that?	All right, the name of your book was…?	Is there anything else that you think you could have done with the story?	What would you like to add to that?
		The Snow Globe Family and you're using it as a…?	You think there were any other points, perhaps, that needed some clarification?	
		So is there anything that you think that you need to improve?		

A University Literacy Center Moves to Offsite Afterschool Tutoring: Five Lessons Learned

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Abstract

Historically university literacy centers provided on-campus tutoring, yet recently many have moved offsite to address needs to expand services to marginalized students, to support national afterschool movements, or to adapt to online program structures. The goal of this qualitative case study was to examine a university literacy center that moved tutoring to an offsite urban elementary afterschool program. According to the experiences and perceptions of tutors, children, parents, and instructors, the program was impacted by four variables: afterschool setting, parental involvement, cultural differences between tutors and children, and program design. The researchers offer five lessons learned for literacy educators who offer or are considering offering literacy tutoring in afterschool settings.

Introduction

Historically university literacy centers provided K-12 tutoring on campus, generally with families paying for these services. Recently, literacy centers have moved

tutoring services off-campus due to funding, staffing, and space issues, to give pre-service teachers more experience working with diverse learners, to provide services to marginalized students, and to address dwindling numbers of on-campus tutors due to online university programs (Bevans, 2004; Bosse, 2006; Ryan, 2013; Heinrich, et al., 2014; Lilienthal, 2014). Many argue off-campus settings are "an optimal environment to explore and refine approaches to literacy remediation" (Ortlieb & McDowell, 2016, p. 270).

Concurrent to literacy centers moving off-campus is the growing expansion of K-12 afterschool programs. According to a report by Afterschool Alliance (2014), afterschool program enrollment increased from 6.5 million students in 2004 to 10.2 million in 2014. The focus of many afterschool programs seeks ways to offer meaningful and purposeful activities to children, especially in the area of literacy (Lauer, Akiba, Wilkerson, Apthorp, Snow, & Martin-Glenn, 2006; Vadasy, Sanders, Peyton, & Jenkins, 2002).

Since linking university literacy centers to off-campus afterschool programs is a relatively new initiative, there is a need to better understand this partnership (Garrett, Pearce, Salazar, & Pate, 2006; Ryan, 2013). As Luter, Lester, and Kronick, (2013) explain, "Far less exploration has occurred around the process by which schools and universities go about collaborating and the school improvement results achieved when they form collaborative structures" (p. 165). The purpose of this study was to add to this body of literature by examining a university literacy center that moved tutoring to an offsite urban elementary afterschool program. The questions guiding this study included: 1) How was the afterschool program implemented? 2) What were tutors, children, instructors, and parents' experiences and perceptions of the program? and 3) What were the key approaches and barriers related to the program? This research took place during the first fall and spring semesters this university literacy center offered off-campus services.

Theoretical Perspectives

This study was grounded in a sociocultural theoretical framework, a belief that students learn via interactions with others both within and across cultures (Lave & Wenger, 1991; Rogoff, 1994; Vygotsky, 1986). To understand specifically how afterschool programs are linked to sociocultural theory we embraced seven features offered by Honig and McDonald (2005) who explained, "sociocultural learning theory helps 'sort' [afterschool] programs by their impact on learning and demonstrates the less equivocal finding that afterschool programs with certain features tend to strengthen student learning while others demonstrate less or

no success in this area" (p. 2). Honig and McDonald's (2005) features include: (a) afterschool sites should create learning communities that encourage children to interact with one another; (b) purposeful and worthwhile tasks allow children to take ownership of their learning; (c) strong afterschool programs provide opportunities for collaboration and offer children new ways to integrate knowledge; (d) mentor relationships founded in trust and respect provide a scaffold for learning; (e) learning environments establish clear roles for all program participants but value everyone regardless of skill level; (f) children participate in program curriculum at varying levels of proficiency, mastering materials and activities at different rates; and (g) knowledge transfer is an important component within afterschool programs, meaning children need opportunities to apply their gained knowledge to another setting. These seven attributes connecting afterschool programs to sociocultural theory are considered by Honig and McDonald (2005) as hallmarks of effective afterschool learning environments.

University Literacy Centers

University literacy centers were established in the 1920s and utilized a framework of skill remediation until the latter portion of the century (Cuevas, Schumm, Mits-Cash, & Pilonieta, 2006; Jensen & Tuten, 2007). Initially, centers seldom diversified instruction and focused primarily on Caucasian students (Ortlieb, Grandstaff-Beckers, & Cheek, 2012). When calls for more authentic assessment and instruction grew stronger, many university literacy centers closed and those that remained open changed their programs from a one-size-fits-all approach to an individualized instructional response (Cuevas et al., 2006).

Houge, Geier, and Peyton's (2008) research identified three essential components for effective instruction at campus literacy centers: 1) the clinic needs a coordinator with literacy expertise to monitor instruction quality; 2) the session structure should include vocabulary and writing instruction and consistent use of literacy strategies; and 3) the tutors should be trained, though they did not determine specific training methods to implement (Ritter, Barnett, Denny, & Albin, 2009). Researchers do agree training and implementation should ideally be supervised by a certified teacher or reading specialist (Elbaum, Vaughn, Tejero Hughes, & Moody, 2000; Wasik, 1998; Woolley & Hay, 2007). Others also argue the importance of training in culturally relevant pedagogy, a method that "provides a way for students to maintain their cultural integrity while succeeding academically" (Ladson-Billings, 1995, p. 476). This pedagogy addresses the needs of our growing diverse society (Delpit, 1995; Gay, 2000; Ladson-Billings, 1994).

AFTERSCHOOL PROGRAMS

Afterschool programs first appeared in the late 1800s as child labor laws liberated children's afterschool time (Halpern, 2002). Programs increased during the mid-1900s as mothers steadily joined the workforce (Lauzon, 2013). Although there are many variances in afterschool program content, tutoring through skills reinforcement is a common theme (Reisman, 2005). Research shows students who participate in academic afterschool programs perform better in the classroom than peers who do not attend (Vandell, Reisner, & Pierce, 2007). Quality academic afterschool programs utilize a solid program design and provide tutoring that is individualized and complements classroom teaching (Burns, Senesac, & Symington, 2003). In particular, Shanahan (1998) cautions, "Care must be taken to ensure adequate time on task for students, high quality of instruction, and appropriateness of curriculum. Otherwise, tutoring can actually lead to lower rather than higher achievement" (p. 223).

Another key to successful afterschool programs is parental involvement, a component understood from Bronfenbrenner's (1979) ecological systems theory to mean that a child's development is positively impacted when environmental systems work together. In this case, schools and parents within the microsystem are factors which directly affect a child's participation and growth in a program. Research also substantiates this link between parental involvement and academic achievement (Blanch, Duran, Valdebenito, & Flores, 2013; Hindman, & Morrison, 2011). Parents are apt to become involved when their child or their child's school encourages their participation (Hoover-Dempsey, Walker, Sandler, Whetsel, Green, Wilkins, & Closson, 2005; Green, Walker, Hoover-Dempsey, & Sandler, 2007). When parents believe their actions will benefit their child's success, "[they] find ways to be involved regardless of their resources" (Anderson & Minkle, 2007, p. 319).

Method

Setting & Participants

This yearlong qualitative case study was set in an afterschool program housed in a public PK-5 school that is part of a large urban district located in the Mid-South (Yin, 2009). The school functioned under a "community school" plan, meaning they offer and encourage community involvement during and after school hours. School enrollment was 1,153 with population: 84% African American, 13% Hispanic, 3% Caucasian, with 76% participating in free or reduced lunch. State testing indicated failing grades for literacy skills with 77% of the school population

reading below grade level. One hundred fifty students were enrolled in the after-school program, which began at 3:15 PM with parent pick-up at 6:00 PM.

Pseudonyms are used for all participants in this paper with university students labeled *tutors* and elementary students labeled *children*. School administration targeted second and third graders to receive literacy tutoring and sent intake and consent forms to parents. There were 21 children who participated in the program with 14 children participating in both fall and spring. All children were African American with 14 females and seven males.

Tutors consisted of undergraduate students who were either education majors or in the university honors program. Seven honors students, two of whom were also education majors, participated in the fall. In the spring semester, nine honors students and one education major participated. Of the 17 total tutors, 13 were female and four were male. Fourteen tutors were Caucasian, one Hispanic, one Multi-racial, and one Asian American.

The research team consisted of a literacy professor, who was the current director of the literacy center with 24 years of experience, and two ABD doctoral students: one in literacy and one in educational research. The literacy student taught fall semester, and the literacy professor taught spring semester. The educational research student served as a non-participant observer during both semesters.

Tutoring Overview

Tutors enrolled in a three-credit hour undergraduate elective course entitled *Literacy Tutoring* and received three hours of training on campus once a week for three weeks, followed by 10 weeks of off-campus tutoring. The purpose of the off-campus program was to create community-tutoring opportunities for college students and for elementary children to participate in a literacy program that produced books for a local children's hospital. The program was called "Books for Kids by Kids."

Each tutor taught two children weekly for one and a half hours using iPads following a semi-structured lesson plan format (see Appendix A) that included process writing, mini-lessons, and read aloud books. At the end of each session, children reflected on their learning, which tutors reported on a program blog for parents. Children also received a storybook to keep. Debriefing meetings between tutors and instructors occurred at the end of each session. Additionally, tutors wrote weekly reflections on their teaching and instructors provided feedback. During the second semester, instruction on culturally relevant pedagogy was included.

Within the sessions, tutors and children created e-books using an app, *Book Creator*. The books, written, illustrated, and electronically published by each tutoring group, included content related to a weekly assigned topic about their city such as: downtown, sports, museums, restaurants, and famous people. On the last night of tutoring sessions, children shared their e-books during a parent celebration. Finally, the books were professionally printed with each tutor and child receiving a hard copy along with the children at the hospital. During the second semester, help was enlisted from the university's Spanish department to make the program books bilingual, which gave Spanish students an authentic assignment and expanded the audience to Spanish readers. Funding for the program came from the university, a national grant, a local non-profit, individual donations, and program t-shirt sales.

Data Collection

The same data were collected both fall and spring semesters. Tutor data included: (a) training feedback forms, (b) weekly teaching reflections, (c) pre- and post-conceptual knowledge surveys, (d) pre- and post-confidence surveys, (e) end of course self-assessments, (f) focus group interviews, (g) weekly debriefing prompts, and (h) end of course feedback. Data collected from children included: (a) non-participant observation notes from 20 tutoring sessions and (b) semi-structured focus group interviews. Parent data included: (a) an online parent survey, (b) parent blog comments, and (c) non-participant observation during parent celebrations. Data were also collected on the program from instructors' weekly journal entries.

Data Analysis

Analysis occurred after all data were compiled by inductively generating initial categories and identifying common underlying themes (Saldaña, 2009). No a priori codes were chosen but data were read through for Initial Coding using InVivo and Descriptive Codes (Saldaña, 2009). Codes were refined through second and third cycle methods as repetitive patterns were determined and included topics such as child motivation, cultural assumptions, iPads as a tool, tutoring space, school partnership, parent communication, vocabulary development, revision, and tutor training. These codes were then collapsed into categories of descriptions and processes with four themes emerging. These themes were analyzed through sociocultural theory allowing the data to be seen through the lens of its social and cultural context. Effort was placed on triangulating findings (Lincoln & Guba, 1985) as researchers analyzed individually and met together weekly.

Findings

According to the data, four variables impacted a university literacy center moving to an urban afterschool program: 1) afterschool setting, 2) parental involvement, 3) cultural differences between tutors and children, and 4) program design. Though there are overlaps, each theme is supported with evidence from multiple data sources.

Afterschool Setting

The first variable regarding the move to the off-campus program was the impact of the afterschool setting, which had both positive and negative consequences. First, the school embraced the program and welcomed the university's efforts. School administration assisted with implementation in every way although a shared understanding of what the program entailed was only realized as implementation progressed.

Another positive aspect was that children were typically on-time for tutoring since the program was physically located at their school. However, some were late due to participating in other afterschool activities such as theater and dance. Additionally, children were sometimes picked up early by their parents leaving limited time for instruction as noted in an instructor's journal entry: "I am concerned about parents picking up their children early from the program. We need to determine how to get parents onboard with leaving their children here until 5:30."

An additional negative aspect included the tutoring space being at a minimum because of the school's large aftercare services. The tutoring program was not assigned a guaranteed location until second semester and spaces used were sometimes crowded and loud, as this tutor explained in her teaching reflection: "[The children] had a somewhat difficult time following [the storybook], partially due to their surroundings this week being a little more distracting." Also, during first semester, tutors were frustrated with school Wi-Fi strength and filters that blocked websites; however, second semester the tutoring location changed and they no longer voiced these concerns.

On the other hand, children were familiar with any area they were placed, providing a safe and comfortable environment for them. For example, observation notes cite when a child asked to go to the restroom, the tutor indicated she was not sure where they were located. The child proudly responded, "I can show you. I know where everything is."

In sum, a positive and evolving partnership was developed between the university and school administration. Although the afterschool setting created

some distracting factors such as changing locations or children leaving early or arriving late, findings suggest the children exhibited a comfort with the setting due to their knowledge of the school environment.

Parental Involvement

Moving the literacy center to an afterschool site created specific challenges related to establishing and encouraging parental involvement. For example, the instructors did not meet with parents during the intake process and no initial face-to-face parent informational meetings were conducted. Also, at the end of tutoring sessions, children returned to afterschool staff that coordinated parent pick-up. Parent participation decreased during second semester; therefore, the instructor sent a weekly electronic newsletter to parents' email addresses listed on children's intake forms. It was unknown if all were received or read.

Data revealed there were three opportunities for parents to participate in program activities: commenting on children's work posted on the program blog, attending the end of semester parent celebration, and completing an online survey. Parents were notified about the program blog through letters sent home with the children and through follow-up phone calls. After phone contact was made, an email with the blog link was sent to parents. Ultimately, during fall semester, 79% of parents joined the blog with 29% leaving a comment and in spring semester 37% joined, all of whom made comments. The number of parent visits to the blog was unknown as tracking was only possible via posted comments.

The parent celebration gave parents a chance to see their child's completed e-book and was attended fall semester by 50% of parents and 42% spring semester. Children were confident and proud of their work during this event as evidenced in the instructor's April 26, 2016 journal entry:

> *In my opinion, the parent celebration is an important component of the project. Even if a child's parent isn't there, the child receives a certificate to take home to celebrate with family. For example, after the celebration, I walked with Kelvin back to the cafeteria. He held up his certificate and told me that his mom, who wasn't there for the celebration, would be so proud of him. He also said [the afterschool director] would be proud and when we entered the cafeteria he immediately showed him his certificate. It was obvious that this child wanted to please these adults and was confident that what he had accomplished was worthy of their praises.*

There were 43% of parents who completed the online survey about their children's activities and learning. Parents cited they were pleased with the program

and communicated their children were reading more at home. Additionally, they believed their children's confidence in literacy had improved as this parent explained, "My son has gained more confidence reading out loud and he also was able to learn a lot of the history about the city." Another parent shared, "[He] has always been very studious and enjoys reading, but since the program he has expressed more interest in the writing process."

In sum, this finding suggests the afterschool off-campus literacy centers' limited interface with parents was due to the enrollment process, lack of face-to-face opportunities with instructors, and online forms of communication. While it is unknown if all parents were satisfied with the program, parents who did respond were positive with their feedback.

Cultural Differences

According to the data, there were both positive and negative aspects to the cultural differences between children and tutors. First, cultural mismatches between tutors and children led to brief tutoring disruptions. Some tutors were uncomfortable with culturally sensitive topics such as segregation and Dr. Martin Luther King, Jr.'s assassination. This sometimes resulted in children taking leadership roles in sessions, eagerly sharing knowledge on racial topics while tutors appeared unsure how to proceed, as written in March 15, 2016 field notes,

> *While reading a storybook on King's fight to end segregation, the tutor appeared to become uncomfortable and lowered the tone and volume of her voice. Concurrently, the child immediately started speaking louder, describing what the protests looked like. The child stated, 'All the black people carried signs and protested to let everyone know segregation was bad. A few white people protested too because not all white people hate us.' The tutor stopped talking and focused on the child's comments.*

In other sessions, tutors were observed expediting the lesson and not making eye contact with their children.

On the other hand, tutors did sometimes lead discussions on sensitive topics attempting to eliminate false assumptions and clarify misunderstandings. For example, observation notes captured an instance when a child stopped a lesson focused on music to ask questions about segregation, specifically questioning why Elvis would be hanging out with black people. The tutor told him, "Segregation is an attempt to make one group of people think they're better than another but they're not. They're the same. Elvis understood that. That's why he adopted aspects of African American music into his own."

Additionally, even with cultural differences, data revealed bonds between tutors and children were quickly formed and were sustained throughout the semester. By the second tutoring session, children were greeting their tutors with large smiles and hugs. During one session a child was observed greeting her tutor by hugging her and saying, "Miss Josie, I love you! I really missed you." Another observation reported when a child was assigned to a different tutor, he became visibly upset and began to cry. He refused to tell his new tutor what was wrong, but the instructor's journal entry from April 5, 2016 documented,

> Later [the afterschool director] said Kelvin was upset because he was moved to another tutor…. I learned a big lesson I should have already known. These children are attached to their tutors. As [the afterschool director] commented today, 'These kids love you.'

Child interviews were conducted at the end of each semester and when asked their favorite part of tutoring, responses included, "My teacher [tutor] she's so nice, she's pretty." "My tutor, she is nice, kind, awesome." Tutors from each semester had similar comments of their attachment during interviews: "I had no idea that I would become so close to [the children] and so quick." "I never expected to miss the kids after tutoring ended." "This was so much more than just an honors class."

In sum, this finding suggests that although there were cultural mismatches and misunderstandings between tutors and children, their bonds transcended any misconceptions one had about the other. Both groups reported strong attachments and positive feelings from their time together.

Program Design

The last variable that impacted tutoring was program design. All tutors and children were successful in meeting course requirements. It was noted both tutors and children were focused and engaged throughout the sessions as the instructor commented to a researcher, "It's amazing to watch the tutoring. It's like a well-oiled machine."

Both tutors and children appreciated the authentic audience and purpose (creating books for hospital patients) of their weekly sessions. Observation notes recorded one tutor's statement, "I'm glad we are doing something good for the children of [the hospital]. I would rather do something like this than just help them with their homework." Additional April 5, 2016 observation notes explain the children's appreciation:

Tutor states, 'I think the kids at [the hospital] are going to love this book!' Child, 'Me too! If I was in the hospital I will like to have a book like this. My cousin was in that hospital. She would like this book when she was there.'

The iPads were used extensively for e-book research and creation and were critical for building student background knowledge. They were also the means through which the children's work was posted to the class blog for parent communication and sent to instructors for Spanish translation. Tutors reported children were eager to use the iPads with one commenting in her weekly reflection, "It did not seem to affect them that we did not actually read a book this week. They liked looking at pictures and looking up information on the Internet." Another tutor wrote, "We used the iPad a lot today. It made the students more interested in researching the zoo and the different animals that reside there." But tutors also shared that occasionally the tablets were distracting, time consuming, and the digital research content difficult. One tutor stated, "It was difficult finding excerpts of interest; it added a lot of extra time… big words and loss of attention was hard for kids."

Data specific to tutor perspectives regarding the program found tutors valued their training in literacy strategies, technology integration, and culturally relevant pedagogy. They also cited the value of peer collaboration with lesson plan development and end-of-session debriefings. Furthermore, end-of-program surveys indicated tutors were more confident with their instructional skills and made gains in conceptual literacy knowledge.

Observation notes, child focus interviews, and parent surveys reveal all children enjoyed the program and reported increased confidence levels. Data also indicated the children's pride in their accomplishments. In first semester focus group interviews, one child said, "I had fun learning about new things and wanted the [hospital] kids to learn too" while another replied, "I didn't know that kids could be published!"

In sum, this finding suggests the program design facilitated tutors and children meeting program requirements and both reported improved confidence in their roles. All children, regardless of their literacy levels, were able to write and illustrate a book. Tutor surveys found increased conceptual knowledge, and parents responded seeing increased interest in reading and writing at home.

Discussion

We conclude that when moving a university literacy center off campus there are five major components to consider: selecting the afterschool setting, understanding

cultural differences, designing the program, promoting parent involvement, and fostering relationships with university and community organizations. We offer a checklist that outlines these components to assist teacher educators who have moved or plan to move their university literacy center tutoring to an off-campus afterschool program (see Appendix B). We next discuss these five components as five lessons learned from a sociocultural perspective to further clarify this process**.**

Five Lessons Learned

Lesson one: Moving a university literacy center off-campus starts with selecting an afterschool setting.   The partner school is key to the university center moving off campus. A special relationship is created when university and school administrators determine together how to create, implement, and sustain the program. In this study, the principal initially outlined how the initiative fit the school's goals and designated staff to work with instructors to ensure all needs were met. Yet, at that time no one knew there were components that needed to be negotiated such as disruptions from early tutoring pick-ups or changes in the tutoring location. Thus, even though an initial meeting with school administrators is essential to seek buy-in, it takes continuous conversations to clarify the complexities of the program. Just as Vygotsky (1978) posits learning communities are created through dialogue, collaboration, and feedback, an afterschool-tutoring program entails a committed partnership that evolves overtime. This implies choosing the school partner is a foundational step in the success of moving a university center to an afterschool location.

Lesson two: Moving a university literacy center off-campus promotes cultural interactions and understandings.   Understanding and embracing children's cultures is a critical component of the teaching and learning process. Tutors and children gain new insight and awareness as beliefs and customs are shared and embraced. In this study, although tutors and children experienced cultural misunderstandings, the friendships formed outweighed their varying backgrounds and social understandings. Consistent with a culturally relevant pedagogy (Ladson-Billings, 1994, 1995) children thrive in a safe learning environment that honors their culture and background and empowers them to excel in their learning. This suggests culturally relevant pedagogy is needed when university programs are moved off campus where cultural mismatches will occur (Delpit, 1995; Gay, 2000).

Lesson three: Moving a literacy center off-campus requires a structured, peer-supported training program.   When tutors are undergraduate students with

little or no education experience, initial training and ongoing peer support is critical for their success. Parallel to Rogoff's (1995) concept of apprenticeship, during training, tutors in this study observed and participated in instructor-modeled lessons, and then partnered to create lessons with the provided format. Throughout the semester, tutors reported a sense of growth in their teaching confidence and feeling prepared for sessions. Consistent with Honig and McDonald's (2005) claims, learning occurs when there are opportunities to engage in collaboration. This implies tutors not only need a structured lesson plan framework malleable enough to meet specific tutoring needs, but also opportunities to partner with others who can provide support, additional instructional ideas, and validation of one's teaching.

Lesson four: Moving a university literacy center off-campus requires new strategies for engaging parents. Engaging parents in a university off-campus program is especially challenging and requires instructors to reach out to parents through various strategies, including digital communication. According to this study, there were limited interactions between university instructors and parents. Scheduling face-to-face parent interactions was limited because after tutoring, children returned to school-sponsored afterschool activities or were picked up through the afterschool sign-out procedure. This leaves handouts, phone calls, parent celebrations, and digital forms of communication such as email, e-newsletters, blogs, and texts as the primary tools for informing parents about expectations and opportunities to participate. Additionally, these strategies offer ways to share children's progress and work. As noted in Vygotsky's (1978) theory, social interactions (parent-child and parent-staff) enrich the learning experience as all participants communicate goals, expectations, and pride. Likewise, strengthening the parent/school partnership promotes child development and learning (Bronfenbrenner, 1979). This implies coordinating parent involvement, a critical component to children's learning, takes extra effort in an afterschool program and requires exploring various digital approaches.

Lesson five: Moving a university literacy center off-campus fosters relationships with other university and community organizations. Involving other organizations can enrich and benefit an off-campus program while promoting and helping the collaborators as well. In this study, several partners in addition to the elementary school were involved: the university honors program recruited tutors, the Spanish department translated the children's e-book text, a community non-profit furnished the children's take-home books, and a local hospital was the recipient of the printed program books. Furthermore, other potential relationships could exist by collaborating with established elementary school

sponsors. Adding other university and community organizations to the scope of the program can broaden the environmental systems in which the children interact and could create new cultural interactions (Bronfenbrenner, 1979; Vygotsky, 1978). This implies engaging with various university and community organizations can lead to a wide audience for the program and engender more options for collaboration.

Future Research

This program and its research bring more questions to the forefront about moving a university literacy center off campus such as (a) How do children respond differently to one-on-one versus small group tutoring? (b) How can parent participation be improved in an afterschool setting? (c) What are the options for sustainability in this setting? (d) What are the options for expansion? (e) What can research tell us about the navigation and impact of cultural differences between tutors and children? The researchers hope that answers to these questions along with the conclusions of this study will enable university literacy centers to better meet the diverse needs of all children enrolled in afterschool programs.

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APPENDIX A

TUTORING LESSON PLAN FORMAT

TIME	INFORMATION/ACTIVITIES
	Objectives:
4:00-4:20	**Introduction & revision of last week's writing:** (Welcome, overview/ objectives of tonight's lesson, connect to last week's lesson, conduct mini-lesson, revise last week's writing using mini-lesson focus).
4:20-4:40	**Prewriting for this week's writing:** (Introduce topic and activate prior knowledge, review online links related to topic, generate/review vocabulary words, complete graphic organizer and/or other prewriting activities, have children tell their stories orally).
4:40-5:00	**Writing rough drafts and illustrating this week's writing:** (One child types or dictates his story to you while the other child illustrates his. Reverse tasks with children.)
5:00-5:15	**Connecting literature to writing:** (Complete before, during and after reading activities with this week's book. Make connections to children's mini-lessons, drafts, etc. that can help them consider revisions to their own writing.)
5:15-5:30	**Closure:** (Photograph an artifact for each child and have children reflect on learning to post for parents on KidBlog. Children select take home book. If time, vocabulary games.)
	Materials Needed:

Appendix B

Checklist for Moving a University Literacy Center to an Off-site Afterschool Setting

1. Afterschool setting:

☐ Find an afterschool program with an adequate number of children

☐ Determine if the goals and objectives of the program align with school's vision

☐ Determine availability of administrators who will buy into, monitor, and help sustain the program

☐ Choose a school liaison to recruit parents and students

☐ Establish enrollment criteria and determine tutoring schedules

☐ Locate appropriate space for tutoring with limited distractions and Wi-Fi access

2. Cultural differences:

☐ Train tutors in culturally relevant pedagogy: include role playing, watching videos, and reading articles

☐ Use multicultural curriculum and books in sessions

☐ Use differentiated instruction tailored to child's culture

☐ Debrief tutors after each session to discuss how they are creating a safe and inviting learning environment for diverse learners

☐ Expect tutors to be reflective practitioners through weekly writings including ways they are connecting with diverse learners

3. Program design:

☐ Elicit university support to purchase resources such as tablets, multicultural children's books, and publish e-books

☐ Provide semi-structured lesson formats with scheduled routines

☐ Design training so instructors model the same process writing approach and children's literature integration that tutors will use

☐ Utilize small group instruction during training and in tutoring sessions

☐ Engage learners in purposeful and authentic tasks

☐ Identify an audience to receive published books

☐ Allow children opportunities to make decisions about and assess their work

☐ Allow all children to be successful and feel proud of their work

4. Parent involvement:

☐ Offer an initial program orientation meeting for parents

☐ Include digital communication such as e-newsletters and blog postings

☐ Post weekly summaries of tutoring activities with opportunities for parent response

☐ Post weekly pictures of tutoring sessions

☐ Elicit parent feedback regarding communication and program goals

☐ Form a parent advisory group

☐ Collaborate with the school throughout the program regarding parental involvement

☐ Host a parent celebration at the end of the program

5. University and community relationships:

☐ Form advisory board with community and university members

☐ Collaborate with university departments whose students might benefit from the program

☐ Invite elementary school supporters to assist with the program

☐ Find community organizations that want copies of the published books

☐ Communicate online and hard copy information about the program to interested parties

Examining Teacher Education in the Era of Technology Integration

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Abstract

Teacher education faculties at several Southwestern universities engaged in a two-phase investigation of technology integration by teachers in their service areas. Phase

One, a survey, provided quantitative data while Phase Two, observations with interviews, provided quantitative and qualitative data. Survey data showed 80% of teachers in the study employed a variety of technologies frequently, but 39% or less used technology at the highest levels of Technology Pedagogy and Content Knowledge Framework (TPACK) or Substitution Augmentation Modification Redefinition Framework (SAMR). Newest teachers were essentially equivalent to teachers with 20 or more years of experience in both frequency of use and planning with the highest levels of TPACK or SAMR. Classroom observations compared to interviews revealed inconsistencies between observed learning activities and teachers' stated concerns about providing technology for students. Researchers noted a lack of understanding on the part of administrators regarding the characteristics of teachers who integrate technology proficiently. Suggestions for teacher educators and administrators are made to address these findings.

Introduction

Virtually all components of American society now expect, even demand, that students be digitally literate (Bakir, 2016). However, there are constant reports that our students, our teachers, and our teacher educators are not as digitally literate as they need to be, thus affecting their personal feelings about technology and its effectiveness in their classroom. If digital literacy is the goal, it is important for educators to feel prepared to plan, teach and use technology at high levels of effectiveness within their lessons. It is also important for both K-12 and teacher educators to determine the current status of digital literacy and look for direction for reaching the goal. The researchers of this study attempted to do that for the specific region in which they serve and the administrators, teachers, and teacher educators who live and work there.

Literature Review

The call to incorporate use of technology in K-12 classrooms began in the late 1980s. Initial surveys on how technology was used in schools were conducted in 1988 and 1995 by the federal Office of Technology Assessment (Office Of Technology Assessment, 1988, 1989, 1995). Recommendations based on these surveys laid out guidelines for incorporating technology in K-12 classrooms in order to advance student achievement. Millions of dollars in government funding were dispersed in an effort to achieve this result (Bakir, 2016). In addition to government impetus, pressure came from national professional organizations, accreditation entities, and business and educational partnerships to ratchet up technology use in schools (Bakir, 2016).

Each succeeding report on this topic, however, revealed troubling statistics. A recent government report (Gray, Thomas, & Lewis, 2010) discussing a series of surveys conducted in all 50 states, verified that computer technology was represented in 97% of the nation's classroom as of 2008. Although teachers reported high usage of computers for various kinds of administrative purposes, fewer than 43% of the teachers in the study reported using computers during instructional time "often or sometimes." Teachers reported "often-or-sometimes" use for the indicated purposes at the following rates: drill/practice programs - 50%; simulation or visualization activities - 33%; use of blogs or wikis - 16%; use of social networking - 8%. These statistics suggest that while technology was clearly present and often used in classrooms, its use tended to lean toward administrative and drill/practice with much less in terms of instructional tasks requiring critical or creative thinking on the part of students.

In early surveys and reports, teachers were referred to as "computer-using teachers," but this designation became problematic as advances in technology became increasingly available in schools. The phrase slowly transitioned to "technology integration," rather than just computer use or "teachers' use of technology" but an operational definition of the term still eluded the research community and may distort how surveys are understood by participants and interpreted by researchers, policymakers, and administrators (Franklin & Bolick, 2007; Bebell, Russell, & O'Dwyer, 2004; Hew & Brush, 2007). The publication of the TPCK, later TPACK, framework of Mishra and Koehler (2006) provided visualization of the complexity of the term and how its parts are interrelated. While TPACK has been the subject of considerable research and modification over the ensuing ten years, many teachers, administrators, and teacher educators remain unaware of its existence (Bakir, 2016).

Although more controversial because it is not as well researched, another framework for technology integration has gained popularity (Green, 2014; Hamilton, Rosenberg, & Akcaoglu, 2016). Developed by Puentedura (2003), this model focuses on four tiers of implementation—Substitution, Augmentation, Modification, and Redefiniton, hence the acronym SAMR. Although Puentedura (2003) sees no tier as having more inherent value than any other, he believes the tool should match the expected task. Only the Redefiniton task, however, which "allows for the creation of new tasks, inconceivable without the computer," seems to correspond most closely to the central goal of TPACK.

Both TPACK and SAMR rest on the concepts of Teacher Efficacy. Teachers who have high levels of content knowledge and technology knowledge are likely to have greater confidence in their ability to teach the content appropriately with technology (Bandura, 1977; Koehler, Mishra, Kereluik, Shin, & Graham, 2014;

Tschannen-Moran, Woolfolk Hoy, & Hoy, 1998). Additionally, the early years of teaching are particularly amenable to the development of teacher self-efficacy (Woolfolk-Hoy, 2000).

With the impetus to raise the level of technology use by teachers came the understanding that teacher education (TE) must play a major role in preparing teachers to incorporate technology into their teaching. Virtually all of the recommendations discussed earlier called for such an emphasis (Bakir, 2016). By the mid 1990s, there were calls for TE programs to begin instructing preservice teachers specifically in how to apply available technologies into the teaching of content (Bristor, Kinzer, Lapp, & Ridener, 2002). However, many TE faculties were reluctant to give technology more space in their programs and coursework (Duran & Fossum, 2010).

Eventually, most schools of education introduced a stand-alone technology integration course into their programs (Bakir, 2016; Frambaugh-Kritzer, 2008). Such a course generally presents an overview of the technologies in current use in schools with some decontextualized hands-on experience. In 1999, the International Society for Technology in Education, partnering with the Milken Exchange on Educational Technology, conducted a survey targeting schools of education. The results convinced them to call for a cessation of dependence on stand-alone technology integration courses as the primary vehicle for teaching technology integration to preservice teachers. Instead, this group called for incorporating the teaching of integration into other coursework, emphasizing the opportunity for hands-on practice in fieldwork, and the encouragement of TE faculty to model and integrate technology themselves (Moursund & Bielefeldt, 1999). A number of researchers since have echoed these recommendations (Duran & Fossum, 2010; Kajder, 2005; Stolle, 2008; Sutton, 2011).

Since many faculty were not themselves adept with technology, O'Bannion, Matthew, and Thomas (1998) reported true integration of technology, such as that later described by TPACK, rarely occurred effectively within the pre-service coursework. Both Brenner and Brill (2016) and Bakir (2016) report that progress has been made, but the field as a whole has not yet achieved this goal (Bakir, 2016; Gomez, Sherin, Griesdom, & Finn, 2008; Kay, 2006; U.S. Department of Education, 2010).

Theoretical Framework

In 2014, several TE faculty members at various universities primarily in the Southwest began discussing concerns based on observations during student field experiences. They were not seeing the level of technology integration expected

from their students and the mentor teachers of those students. Their thinking was guided by several theoretical models and frameworks.

Activity Theory, as originally developed by Engestrom (1987), is used frequently in studying education because of its guidance in understanding how individuals and systems interact to affect and change each other. Blanton, Moorman, and Trathen (1998) demonstrated that the theory provides a "conceptual tool" for guiding research on teacher preparation relative to technology use. Anthony (2012) further developed the theory as a lens for examining how various components within a single district impacted the success of a one-to-one laptop initiative.

Theories of teacher efficacy and self-efficacy provided conceptual insight for the study. These theories, developing initially out of the Rotter's (1966) Social Cognitive Theory, view efficacy along two main strands. One strand locates efficacy in a teacher's sense of control as influenced largely by external forces (Armor, Conroy-Oseguera, Cox, King, McDonnell, Pascal, Pauly, & Zellman 1976; Berman, McLaughlin, Bass, Pauly, & Zellman, 1977), while the other sees a teacher's beliefs as a major determiner of specific teacher classroom actions (Bandura, 1977). Tschannen-Moran, Woolfolk Hoy, and Hoy (1998) offered a model of teacher efficacy that takes both aspects into account. These theories, along with Activity Theory, are used to understand how and whether changes occur.

The multinational collaboration of the New London Group (1996) produced a Theory of Pedagogy of Multiliteracies. Recognizing that traditional literacy must make room for expanded understandings of literacy in many forms, especially as enacted through rapidly developing technology, this theory laid the groundwork for further research in the field. Its concepts were further developed by the Theory of New Literacies offered by Leu, Kinzer, Coiro, and Cammack (2004), which focused explicitly on the Internet as the primary vehicle for Information and Communication Technologies (ICTs) that were coming to dominate many aspects of school curricula.

The introduction of the Technology Pedagogy and Content Framework (Mishra & Koehler, 2006) provided researchers and practitioners with a theoretical and visual model of what technology integration looks like. Based on Shulman's (1986) concepts of the integration of pedagogy and content knowledge, TPACK adds knowledge of technology into the mix. This framework is seen by many as clarifying the concept of technology integration (Thompson, 2007). It can be used to analyze and evaluate the planning processes of teachers in fully utilizing all tools at their disposal. Nevertheless, unlike SAMR discussed earlier, it does not rank various aspects of technology use.

The theories and models discussed in this section provide a framework for guiding and interpreting this study of teachers, administrators, and technology integration. Faculty members first decided to "take the temperature," so to speak, of the teachers in their service areas as well as preservice teachers in their programs. A survey was developed intended to address the following research questions:

1. What specific technologies are teachers of various experience levels actually using in their classrooms?

2. How and for what purposes are these technologies being used in the schools and classrooms of the participants?

3. How much and what kind of training or professional development is being provided for use of various technologies in the schools and classrooms of the participants?

4. How effective do the participants perceive this support to be?

The results of the survey revealed a definite need for better understanding of how administrators and teachers were interpreting the original survey questions (Bebell et al., 2004). They concluded on-site observations would provide important insight. The research questions for this second phase of the research were:

1. What important topics or categories in technology integration may have been overlooked in the initial survey?

2. What do highly regarded teachers, who are reported by administrators to use technology integration procedures well in their classrooms, feel is important in integrating technology?

Phase One: Survey

Methodology

A survey consisting of ten demographic questions and eight technology-specific questions was created by researchers. The survey questions were developed during multiple conversations and electronic communications over a period of approximately two months. They were reviewed for content validity by several knowledgeable individuals not directly connected with the research.

The technology-specific questions in the survey focused on teachers' perceptions as to what kind of technology the participants used, how it was being used, and their perceptions of the professional development or other training to support the use of the various technologies (Appendix A). Through contacts

with school districts facilitated by researchers' work as teacher educators, teachers and administrators in three states were invited to participate in the survey. Superintendents of the districts were asked to disseminate a link to the survey in Survey Monkey to their teachers, inviting them, but not requiring them, to take it. The survey was available for five weeks during the spring of 2014. Slightly over 1,300 participants completed the survey, although not all participants responded to all questions. The number of participants responding who claimed 0 to 1 year of experience was 151; this included preservice teachers as well as recent graduates.

Following the close of survey access, researchers reviewed the descriptive statistics, first for each individual question, then by filtering various questions in cross-comparisons to identify important results. Chi-square analyses for statistical significance were performed on a number of the cross-comparisons.

Quantitative Results

Results and conclusions drawn from viewing teachers generally have been reported elsewhere (McClanahan, Jensen, & Sloan, 2016). This discussion is focused on teachers with from 0 to 1 year of experience, who have just finished their TE programs. Important findings for this experience group are now discussed.

First, teachers with from 0 to 1 year of experience reported having received no training for the use of interactive whiteboards at a rate of 52.4% and tablets at a rate of 57.1%. However, this group of participants plans for technology use in lessons daily at a rate of 75%, with another 13% using technology in lessons at least once a day (see Table 1). Thus, the newest teachers use technology at a rate nearly equaling that of teachers with two to ten years of experience, which is a significantly higher rate than teachers with more than ten years experience. Additionally, they reported the likelihood of using multiple types of digital devices at a rate of 4 or more on a scale of 1 to 5, with 1 indicating never and 5 highly likely.

A comparison of teachers with 0 to 1 year of experience with other experience groups shows clearly that the newest teachers do not differ significantly from their more experienced counterparts in their approach to using technology. Twenty-four to 31% of all teachers add technology after the lesson plan is done; 25 to 34% of all teachers use technology as a substitute for paper/pencil; while only 30 to 39% of teachers in all experience groups approach planning with technology in a way that allows them to achieve student outcomes not possible without it, aligning with the most integrated level of TPACK. Interestingly, only teachers with 20 or more years of experience were more likely to use technology at more integrated levels of TPACK or SAMR than teachers with 0 to 1 year of experience, although not significantly (see Table 2).

TABLE 1
Frequency of Lesson Planning with Technology Use by Experience Levels

Response Options	Experience Level Categories												
	0-1 Year		2-5 Years		6-10 Years		10-20 Years		20+ Years		Total	
	Raw Score	%	Raw Score	%	Raw Score	%	Raw Score	%	Raw Score	%	Raw Score	%
Several times a day	90	75	136	77.7	140	76.9	222	71.4	236	67.2	824	72.3
Once a day	13	10.8	14	8	16	8.8	25	8	20	5.7	88	7.8
2-3 times a week	12	10	13	7.4	16	8.8	38	12.2	61	17.4	140	12.3
Once a week	0	0	6	3.4	5	3	13	4.2	15	4.3	39	3.4
Once a month	1	1	1	0.6	1	0.5	2	0.6	1	0.3	6	0.5
Rarely	3	2.5	2	1.2	2	1	4	1.3	11	3.1	22	1.9
Never	1	0.7	3	1.7	2	1	7	2.3	7	2	20	1.8
Totals	120	100	175	100	182	100	311	100	351	100	1139	100

Note: Scores and percentages for non-responses not included.
*p = .000

TABLE 2
Preferred Approach to Lesson Planning with Technology by Experience Levels

Response Options	Experience Level Categories											
	0-1 Year		2-5 Years		6-10 Years		10-20 Years		20+ Years		Total	
	Raw Score	%	Raw Score	%	Raw Score	%	Raw Score	%	Raw Score	%	Raw Score	%
Develop lesson plan, then add technology	29	29.6	50	31.4	49	29.5	71	28.2	60	24.4	259	28.1
Use technology as an alternative to paper and pencil	25	25.5	40	25.2	57	34.3	81	32.1	76	30.9	279	30.3
Purposes that cannot be achieved with paper and pencil	37	37.8	57	35.8	50	30.1	80	31.7	97	39.4	321	34.9
No planning	7	7.1	12	7.5	10	6	20	7.9	13	5.3	62	6.7
Totals	98	100	159	100	166	100	252	100	248	100	921	100

*$p = .571$

Conclusions and Implications

Quantitative survey results show the strengths and weaknesses of the preparation and training the newest teachers received from their TE programs and school district professional development. With over half of the preservice and beginning teachers answering that they did not receive training on interactive whiteboards or tablets, a conclusion may be drawn that TE programs are not providing enough instruction on devices in current use on K-12 campuses. Since the majority of the teachers surveyed, including those with from 0 to 1 year of experience, do not report high levels of technology integration aligned with TPACK or SAMR frameworks, it can be concluded that represented TE programs continue to need to improve alignment of course curriculum with technology integration.

A positive survey result is that these newest teachers are not intimidated by technology and are entering the classroom better prepared to use technology than the majority of experienced teachers. One explanation for this may be that Prensky's (2001) controversial digital native theory may actually be operating at some level. However, although these digital generation graduates may be relatively comfortable with technology in general, the results regarding approach chosen also suggest that they still need guidance and instruction on how to appropriately integrate technology into their teaching (Koutropoulos, 2011; Li, Worch, Zhou, & Aguiton, 2015).

Another possible explanation for this finding is TE programs may be intentionally incorporating additional instruction in technology integration now more than in the past and preparing new teachers for the classroom to use technology in new and different ways. If so, the trend needs to continue and expand across TE programs, providing beginning teachers with proficiency and confidence in this area of classroom instruction.

Phase Two: Observations and Interviews

Methodology

Using a convenience selection process, administrators in districts participating in the initial survey (2014) were asked to recommend teachers from their districts for technology observations in the fall of 2015. Researchers requested administrators recommend one or two teachers in the district considered by the administrator to be proficient in classroom technology. Seven school district superintendents were approached; five granted the researchers access to their campuses. Six of the twenty-two campus principals in the five districts nominated two to three teachers to be contacted for observations and interviews. Ultimately, twelve teachers were observed and interviewed.

The recommended teachers taught at various grade levels ranging from second grade to high school and in various content domains. Five researchers were assigned from one to three of the 12 classrooms for observation and interview. The observations spanned from ten minutes to one hour in duration. To maintain fidelity, each researcher used the same formatted protocol, developed by the researchers (see Appendix B), and also the same four semi-structured interview questions, although they were permitted to ask follow-up questions. The semi-structured interview questions were:

1. Please explain your view of technology integration.
2. Describe the process you went through to arrive at the level of integration you are now.
3. What was/is the most difficult aspect of tech integration?
4. What would you tell professional development providers (of any type) about best practices in supporting tech integration?

Quantitative Results

Data from the completed observations were analyzed quantitatively simply by developing frequency counts from the observation protocol forms to confirm first the number of teachers using technology in each classroom. Of the twelve classroom observations conducted, eleven teachers used technology, and nine of those teachers used technology 100% of the allotted observation time. Often teachers used varied forms of technology during the same observation so the total of individual instances of technology use during the allotted observation time was 30 (see Table 3).

The observation protocol included a column to report whether the teacher or the students were using the technology during the allotted observation time. There were 12 recorded instances of teacher-only use during the classroom observation, and 14 of student-only use. There were four instances of simultaneous use by teachers and students. Researchers came to the tentative conclusion that in these observed classrooms, use of technology was fairly evenly distributed among students and the teachers.

Another column of the observation protocol asked for comments on the kind of technology use observed. Frequency counts showed that most of the technology use observed was test review or Istation/curriculum-generated with 23 instances in which technology was used as a substitute for paper/pencil activities, e.g., test review, worksheets, or reading books on iPads. Three instances were observed where technology was used to accomplish outcomes difficult or

impossible without the technology, e.g., reviewing done in "gameshow" format, self-selecting answers scanned by teacher's phone that then generated graph-formatted data, or allowing students to record data found on Internet searches in a science notebook on an iPad. Lastly, four instances were of students using Istation or other digital learning centers; observers were unable to determine type of use for these instances (see Table 4). Researchers concluded most of the teachers singled out by the administration in their districts, though very technology-savvy, did not typically display evidence of highly integrated levels of technology as described by the TPACK or SAMR framework.

Qualitative Results

The qualitative portion of the study focused on teacher-written or -oral response to four structured interview questions. These questions were designed to determine whether administrators or teachers were knowledgeable about the TPACK or SAMR frameworks by name or concept. Data from the narratives of the four semi-structured interview questions were analyzed and coded using a Content Analysis approach (Glaser & Strauss, 1967) looking for patterns and themes within the teachers' interview statements.

Several themes were clearly apparent. First, all seven teachers who responded indicated that availability of hardware, including peripherals, along with connectivity were major concerns. One teacher stated, "Our district just doesn't have the funding available for the kind of technology that would benefit our children to the maximum level. We also have several issues with technology 'not working' correctly or too slowly. . ." These are common barriers to technology integration often cited in the literature (Levin & Schrum, 2013).

A second theme was related to how these teachers had arrived at their level of expertise with technology. Five of the seven respondents indicated that they were individually proactive in seeking out their own professional development. As one teacher reported, "I am constantly on the lookout for new ways to use technology in my lessons."

In responding to the question regarding the preferred type of professional development, teachers were very clear that they needed more, and a specific type of, professional development. The teachers wanted training to integrate technology in a meaningful way into their curriculum, making it easier to implement into their instruction. One teacher said she wanted "real practices we can use in the classroom right away with the equipment we have." Another complained, "Teachers do not have time to figure out how technology works." Some mentioned they wanted technology to be fun and easy to use. Lastly, several alluded to the idea that it was important and productive to learn from other teachers

who understood their needs. Summing up, they asked not for new programs, but innovative ways to use what they already had; not complicated applications, but enriching and fun applications that scaffold off what students are already learning in the classroom. This theme might be expressed as "By Teachers for Teachers."

In regard to the question on the teachers' views of technology integration, responses were highly varied and often failed to address the question. Only one pattern truly stood out: five of the seven made some statement as to the importance of technology for student success in school and for their futures after school. Only two used wording that could be construed to suggest anything close to the TPACK or SAMR frameworks. One of those teachers indicated several distinct ways in which technology could be used in the classroom, from computer-as-tutor, to being used as an "add-on" to traditional instruction, to "help[ing] students develop higher order thinking, creativity and research skills." The other, who happened to have a master's degree in technology integration, stated, "As a teacher I should spend less time creating presentations and more time crafting powerful learning activities." These statements suggest these two teachers have better understanding of the basic concepts of true integration than that of other teachers interviewed.

Conclusions and Implications

In comparing data from both the observations and the interviews, researchers discerned distinct disconnects among teachers' stated beliefs concerning technology integration in the interviews, what was actually happening in their classrooms as observed, and the concepts of the TPACK or SAMR frameworks. Though teachers were planning technology implementation on an almost daily basis, they were mostly using it as support systems: having a second pair of hands in the classroom or to review for testing. Teachers generally were not using technology to enhance lessons in ways that would enrich learning beyond what could just as easily have been done using pencil and paper, or allowing students to be creative with technology, as the more integrated levels of TPACK and SAMR call for. Thus, the researchers conclude many teachers are confusing technology integration with simply using technology in lessons with students.

The observations and interviews taken together also provided insight into the thinking of the administrators who recommended the teachers who were observed and interviewed. None of the correspondence or interviews with administrators or teachers mentioned TPACK or SAMR framework components. Further, there seemed to be no familiarity with any structured measurement of the levels of technology integration in regard to planning or instruction in the nominations made to the researchers. Thus, the researchers conclude that

administrators as well as teachers display little awareness of the concepts of either TPACK or SAMR frameworks.

For this study, campus principals were asked to nominate teachers on their campus who integrated technology into the classroom instruction well. There was no interview of, nor interaction with, campus principals other than to ask for teacher nominations. Researchers perceived misinterpretation on the part of administrators relative to technology use versus technology integration by teachers. The TPACK framework, in particular, "emphasizes the connections, interactions, affordances, and constraints between and among content, pedagogy, and technology." As such, it does not treat each of the three components as separate entities, but rather "emphasizes the complex interplay of the three bodies of knowledge" (Mishra & Koehler, 2006: Thompson, 2007). Inferred from the teacher nominations and the analysis of the teacher interview and survey data is the strong suggestion that administrators understand the interplay of content and pedagogy in classroom instruction but may not yet understand the role played by technology.

It appeared to the researchers that principals perceived those who used interactive whiteboards, laptops or tablet devices frequently in their classrooms to be teachers who integrated technology into their teaching, regardless of the specific use. This finding resonates with Stolle (2008). In her study, one teacher participant who, according to the researchers' assessment data, showed weak understanding of the integrated use of technology, was favored by his principal as the first to receive a SmartBoard because he had been observed using a great deal of multimedia. The frequency of his use of movie clips using a DVD projector appeared to position him with his principal as a "tech-savvy teacher."

Discussion and Recommendations

Taken together, the results of both phases of this study provide insight into the first four research questions posed as they pertain to the newest teachers in the study's service area. Results suggest that new teachers may not be receiving adequate instruction in the technology commonly available in area classrooms, especially during initial educator preparation. Expecting new teachers to fully integrate technology in teaching when they have not been adequately prepared is unrealistic, as teacher efficacy theory asserts. However, results showed that new teachers and those with less than ten years of experience in the study are using technology more than older teachers, suggesting that they are indeed less intimidated by technology than older teachers and that they may be more open to true integration. In addition, we learned that these teachers are not satisfied with the type of instruction or training for technology integration that they

have received, a finding that should be a concern for both teacher educators and school administrators. These results resonate with many other studies (Duran & Fossum, 2010; Gray et al., 2010; Kay, 2006).

One of our research questions focused on what may have initially been overlooked in the survey, and the second phase clearly identified a major omission—the role of administrators. Results suggested that administrators in the study seemed to equate technology integration with programs and frequent technology use in the classroom; they may not necessarily be concerned with how or whether the technology use enhanced lessons, rather that computers or other technology were on and being used. That conclusion is inferred because few of the teachers identified by the administrators were observed to be integrating technology at high levels. This finding may be related to Activity Theory in that teachers may be definitively impacted by administrator expectations.

Results also indicated a complete lack of awareness of TPACK, SAMR, or any of their components on the part of both administrators and teachers. Because the observed teachers appeared to have limited knowledge of TPACK and SAMR framework components, they did not generally seem to understand how to use technology to its full potential to support student learning. Regarding the final research question as to what these "tech-savvy" teachers felt was important, results showed that teachers thought technology integration is very important for their students, but very little of the observed technology use involved students actually creating and collaborating with technology; most of the observed use was substitutionary. Regarding training for technology, teachers want support specific to their situations; they want the content provided by knowledgeable people they trust, people who understand their particular situations, curriculum, and grade levels—in other words people like themselves who have experience with what works in their classroom settings (Levin & Schrum, 2013).

For teachers, administrators, and schools to progress beyond the current state of technology integration, or lack thereof, both administrators and teachers need a more nuanced understanding of the characteristics of the best in technology integration. Administrators need a better understanding of the kind of professional development their teachers need, and they should use their evaluation process to encourage and promote deeper understanding of true integration using a framework such as the TPACK or SAMR, as applied to each teacher's specific content.

Limitations

This study was subject to several limitations. Phase One, the initial survey, was limited by the fact that it elicited self-reported data. Specific measures were

taken, including assurances of anonymity, to support honest and accurate responses. A related limitation is, only teachers whose administrators agreed to provide the invitation to participate and then followed through on it could participate in the survey. To that extent, the sample population is a convenience sample. Additionally, due to the nature of the school contacts available to the researchers, all of whom teach at regional institutions serving more rural populations, the results may not be generalizable to populations garnered through larger institutions that might have access to more urban populations. An additional limitation in regard to the survey is, some of the terms used were not well defined and subject to multiple interpretations. This indeed was one of the catalysts leading to the second phase of the research, the observations and interviews.

Phase Two of this study was limited in design and nature, as the intent was to gather preliminary data and information in preparation for the development of a larger research project. While the number of classroom observations and interactions with teachers and administrators was small, the data and information collected proved to be useful in providing direction both for future study and for improvement of educator development.

Another limitation of Phase Two is that all participants were from five school districts in the Southeastern Oklahoma State University service area. Four of the districts were in Oklahoma and considered to be rural by state and federal Title I standards. The other district was in Grayson County, Texas. While the district is identified as rural by most state standards, the population of Grayson County is just above the limit of the federal definition of rural schools.

Phase Two was also limited by the voluntary nature of the selection of teachers for the study and self-reporting of structured interview questions. An additional limitation was the single observation of each teacher. Teachers who granted permission for researchers to observe their classrooms were asked to provide several time-slots when one of the research team could come to their classroom to observe their teaching with integrated technology. Each teacher was then observed only once for a lesson or class period lasting from ten to fifty minutes.

Further Suggestions/Recommendations: Pulling the Pieces Together

Several suggestions and recommendations have arisen from the findings of both phases of the current research study. These recommendations are two fold, including suggestions for both TE programs and for school administrators.

Recommendations for Teacher Educators and Teacher Education Programs

Data from the current study supports three key suggestions for teacher educators and TE programs. First, TE programs need to provide content-specific technology integration that builds on digital natives' comfort with technology (Lei, 2009). Teacher candidates need to see what integration looks like in reading methods class, math methods class, science methods class, music methods class, and art methods class. This is in direct contrast to the one-size-fits-all approach currently being used at most universities whereby teacher candidates from all degree majors (e.g.--elementary education, math education, special education, physical education, etc.) take a stand-alone technology integration course. Sutton (2011) reported novice teachers, in discussing their preservice stand-alone technology course, "perceived a disconnect between their technology training and the rest of their teacher preparation program." As Bakir (2016) writes, "The focus of pre-service teachers' training has shifted from instructing teachers on how to use technology to encouraging teachers to think critically about using technology in the classroom as a learning tool" (p. 27).

Second, teacher educators must clearly and directly teach and model the components of TPACK and SAMR frameworks and require teacher candidates to incorporate all of them in their coursework and field experiences. TPACK and SAMR should be fundamentally well-known models to teacher candidates, much as Bloom's Taxonomy or the Zone of Proximal Development are currently taught, as is supported in current literature (Brenner & Brill, 2016; Kajder, 2005).

Third, TE programs should develop investigative procedures to determine the effectiveness of their integration programs and efforts. Such evaluation of teacher candidates' use of technology integration can be accomplished via a TPACK/SAMR-aligned rubric applied in various assigned lessons. Appendix C contains a rubric designed by faculty at one of the universities involved in this research, which was adopted for use following this study. Ideally, such systematic evaluation should take place in various methods courses, continue throughout student teaching, and to the degree possible, follow the graduates into their first classrooms to help determine the success of the TE program.

Recommendations for Administrators

Phase Two of this study strongly suggests administrators in general must achieve a deeper understanding of true technology integration in the classroom. "Schools must incorporate technology or be viewed as out of touch or even irrelevant" (Leu et al., 2004). A framework for technology integration planning

and implementation is needed so educators, both administrators and teachers, can discuss the "complex interplay" of content, pedagogy and technology. A part of teacher evaluation and continuous improvement by administrators must look at the levels of technology integration the teacher employs, not just fact or frequency of use. A greater understanding of true integration as defined by the TPACK or SAMR framework and an understanding of how to evaluate the depth and purpose of technology integration is needed. A teacher should be able to explain the rationale for choosing a particular technological activity and the principal must understand the explanation.

Administrators should be exploring ways to provide the kind of technology integration support teachers want and need in innovative ways. Martin, Strother, Beglau, Bates, Reitzes, and Culp (2010) pointed out traditional technology professional development focuses on the software and devices rather than the content areas being taught. To a great extent the focus has been on providing technology hardware, software, and professional development with little guidance on how the technology, or if the technology, will actually improve instruction and student academic achievement. For well-thought-out technology integration to occur in our classrooms, those most responsible for student achievement must be trained, provided time for planning true content, pedagogy and technology integration, and then sustained through monitoring and discussions of continuous improvement.

Quality, effective staff development can be provided in many ways. Teachers can have on-going staff development provided through in-house coaching and peer support aiding successful technology integration. The survey data in Phase One of the study and the teacher interviews in Phase Two indicate periodic staff development for relatively short amounts of time is preferred by teachers. Administrators must provide teachers with training for effective use of the resources currently in the classroom rather than exposing them to resources not yet in their hands. Teachers need additional planning time to focus on planning and implementation of truly integrated lesson delivery methods. For productive collaborative discussions of technology integration to occur, administrators and teachers must have a shared framework of understanding classroom technology integration.

The current study makes important contributions to the currently limited body of knowledge regarding the integration of technological pedagogical content knowledge in the field of literacy and TE programs. As TE programs make changes to their curriculum, it will be important to conduct follow-up research to confirm any benefit observed in the teaching of their graduates. Other research should be done to confirm the understandings of administrators indicated by the results of this research.

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Appendix A

Classroom Technology Survey

Demographic Questions:

1. Indicate which role describes you.
   a. Teacher candidate
   b. Classroom teacher mentoring teacher candidate within last 2 years
   c. Classroom teacher not mentoring teacher candidate within last 2 years
   d. Administrator

2. If in a teaching role, what grade level? Check all that apply.

P-K	K	1	2	3	4	5
6	7	8	9	10	11	12

3. If in a teaching role, which of the following describes your teaching responsibility?
   a. self-contained, all subjects
   b. departmentalized - Language Arts
   c. departmentalized - Math
   d. departmentalized - Science
   e. departmentalized - Social Studies
   f. other _____

4. Which designation best describes your educational level?
   a. associate's degree
   b. bachelor's degree
   c. master's degree
   d. doctoral degree

5. Which group below best describes your years of teaching experience?
   a. 0-1
   b. 2-5
   c. 6-10
   d. 10-20
   e. 20+

6. Your gender is
   a. female
   b. male
   c. prefer not to say

7. What size campus do you teach in?
   a. Less than 100 students
   b. 100 to 400 students
   c. over 400 students

8. Which description best applies to your school?
   a. urban
   b. suburban
   c. rural

Technology Questions

9. How likely are you to use the following technology in your classroom? Use a scale from 1 (not ever) to 5 (highly likely). If the technology is not accessible in your classroom, use N/A.

audio rec.	TV	computer	OH digital proj.	smartboard	audio player (e.g., iPod)	e-reader (e.g., Kindle)	tablet (e.g., iPad)

   1 (not ever)
   2 (unlikely)
   3 (somewhat likely)
   4 (likely)
   5 (highly likely)
   N/A

10. If you have a smart board in your room, how many hours of training or professional development did your school provide for using it?
    a. none
    b. 1 hour

c. 2 to 5 hours

d. two days

e. several sessions over several days

f. several sessions during a concentrated time period

11. Indicate which statement most closely describes the kind of follow-up training you received for use of smart board?

a. none

b. a one-to-two hour follow-up session with the original trainer

c. classroom visits and demonstration lessons by the original trainer or other knowledgeablespecialist

d. access to trainer via email or website

e. informal regular sessions with peers to discuss issues related to the technology

f. informal occasional sessions with peers to discuss issues related to the technology

12. If you have one or more tablet devices, e.g., iPads, in your classroom, how many hours of training or professional development did your school provide for using it?

a. none

b. 1 hour

c. 2 to 5 hours

d. two days

e. several sessions over several days

f. several sessions during a concentrated time period

13. Indicate which statement most closely describes the kind of follow-up training you received for using tablets?

a. none

b. a one-to-two hour follow-up session with the original trainer

c. classroom visits and demonstration lessons by the original trainer or other knowledgeable specialist

d. access to trainer via email or website

e. informal regular sessions with peers to discuss issues related to the technology

f. informal occasional sessions with peers to discuss issues related to the technology

14. Rank the following purposes for technology use in the classroom by importance.
    a. entertainment
    b. engagement
    c. rewards
    d. learning in general
    e. learning 21st Century skills
    f. enrichment

15. How often is the use of technology a part of your daily lesson plan?
    a. several times a day
    b. once a day
    c. two to three times a week
    d. once a week
    e. once a month
    f. rarely
    g. never

16. Which of the following describes your approach to using technology in lesson planning?
    a. I develop my lesson and then think about how I can add some technology into it.
    b. I use technology as an alternative to paper-and-pencil tasks to engage students.
    c. I plan for students to use technology to accomplish learning which they cannot do using traditional paper-and-pencil tasks.
    d. I don't really plan for it; it just happens.
    e. I don't plan to use technology at all.

Appendix B

Observation Protocol for Teachers

Observation Protocol for Teachers
Code for Participant: Date:

Time Segment	Teachers				Students		Comments
	Type	Duration	Substitute for Paper/ Pencil	Task only accomplished with tech	Type	Duration	

Explanation of Terms in Protocol:

Time Segment: Try to break up the observation into approximately 15-minu However, there are constant reports intervals. Note the time duration of the intervals in this column.

Type: For both teachers and students, this refers to the specific type of technology used, e.g., viewing of video on a screen, use of a computer device to write a paper, use of a computer device to research on the Internet, use of an audio device to listen to a recorded book or podcast.

Duration: For both teachers and students, this refers to how long either were engaged in the technology activity; in other words, how much of the class period was technology actually being used?

Substitute for Paper/Pencil: This refers to whether or not the activity done using technology could actually be done just as easily using paper and pencil.

Task only accomplished with tech: This refers to any activity which could not be done without the use of technology.

Comments: Please note anything of interest that may prove insightful as we write questions for the next survey.

APPENDIX C

Observation Protocol for Student Teachers

Technology Observation Protocol for Student Teachers

Grade Level: Date: Length of Observation:

Elements	No technology observed	Minimal	Developing	Advanced	Highest Possible	Comments
Technology Planning	No technology was used during the observed lesson	Any/all use of technology in planning seems incidental and/or unplanned; not in keeping with lesson content or pedagogy	Use of technology in planning substitutes for use of a traditional tool but offers no improvement in lesson outcomes	Use of technology in planning substitutes for use of a traditional tool, but offers enhanced management, engagement, or content improvements	Use of technology in planning thoroughly integrates with content and pedagogy; permits the accomplishment of learning tasks not possible otherwise	
Teacher use of technology during teaching	No use of technology by teacher	Teacher use of technology was awkward, uncoordinated, and ineffective.	Teacher use of technology was somewhat awkward but occasionally effective.	Teacher use of technology was competent, with minimal disrupting events.	Teacher use of technology was seamless and effortless throughout the lesson	
Student use of technology during lesson	No use of technology by students	Students used technology to complete basic tasks individually.	Students were asked to locate and utilize information using technology following a set list of digital resources in order to complete an individual assignment.	Students were asked to use technology either individually or in groups to demonstrate their mastery of a topic by modifying or remixing existing digital models, adhering to guidelines supplied by the teacher.	Students were permitted and encouraged to direct their use of available technology, individually or in groups, to meet content standards and objectives with an original digital creation; use of technology has the potential to enhance student understanding, critical thinking, and creativity.	

Helping Preservice Teachers Get the Power of Parental Involvement: Establishing a Connection from Day One

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Abstract

The authors of this chapter present reflexive narratives and a discussion of their collaborative introspections as they modify instruction in three undergraduate classes to help preservice teachers build expertise about effective relationships with parents. As these students come to their final semesters prior to becoming full time professionals it is necessary for university professors to prepare them for working with parents through intentional, systematic, deliberate practice. Our findings suggest that preservice teachers need explicit instruction about the benefits of parental involvement to build expertise, confidence and resiliency. It is our hope that the resources they develop as students can become affordances they refer to as they transition to their professional roles and responsibilities.

433

The ideas and skills that the families bring to the school and, even more important, the exchange of ideas between parents and teachers, favor the development of a new way of education, which helps teachers to view the participation of families not as a threat but as an intrinsic element of collegiality and as the integration of different wisdoms (Cadwell, 1997, p. 6)

As teacher educators who recognize the importance of working collaboratively with parents, we are working to assure that our Preservice Teachers (PSTs) have opportunities to understand the transformative nature of building relationships with parents/families and to provide explicit instruction about ways to interact with parents that is meaningful and productive. Feedback from our graduates, first year teachers, has indicated they wished for more instruction and guidance in developing expertise or capacity to communicate with parents during their teacher education program. Building this skill is particularly important prior to full time teaching because new teachers find little free time to take on additional new learning. They are too busy fitting in to the school, getting to know their work demands, and learning the curriculum. To that end, the goal of this chapter is to share adaptations we have made to our undergraduate classes to build expertise about parental involvement for our preservice teachers and to enhance teacher/student relations over time.

Theoretical Underpinnings

It is broadly believed that learning is an active and constructive process in the social context (Vygotsky, 1978). Learning with this perspective happens through apprenticeship (Rogoff, 1990); the expert leads the novice until the novice can do the task without help or assistance. Moreover, Hattie (2013) tells us that "the majority of things that we debate in education don't matter much: structure of the schools, attributes of the students, programs, and technology." Rather, it is the expertise of the teachers that makes the most difference for student success. Therefore as teacher educators it is necessary that we create an atmosphere in undergraduate education where preservice teachers are invited to learn, practice, and assess their own learning. According to Hattie (2009) effect size (Cohen's *d*) calculations tell us a great deal about what matters—he believes that we need to focus on those influences that are at above $d = 0.4$ because according to him they equal a year or more in growth. He came to this conclusion after taking on the largest meta-analyses of student and teacher data from around the world. He calculates the effect sizes of our inquiry at: parental involvement ($d = 0.49$) and building teacher/student relations ($d = 0.72$)

[see Hattie (2015) ranking for updated list], which if we follow his logic equates to more than a year growth.

Our review focuses on the literature that looks into what researchers say about the state of teacher preparation and parental involvement, the roles youth and inexperience play in new teachers' abilities, what takes the most time for new teachers, and the various benefits of parent involvement on emergent literacy development and English Learners. Today's realities tell us that meaningful learning happens in and out of school. Schultz, Hull, and Higgs (2016) assert that creating boundaries between home and school is no longer an option and instead advocate for strengthening family literacy projects.

We have known for years that parental involvement and family literacy are predictors of early literacy success and academic achievement (Lawrence-Lightfoot, 2003; Linder & Foote, 2002; Rowe, 1991). More recently we learned that parental involvement matters most for children with an achievement gap (Dearing, Simpkins, Krieder, and Weiss, 2006). Yet, more direct instruction needs to take place in preservice education regarding how to take advantage of this relationship.

Preparing Preservice Teachers

Throughout their coursework preservice teachers are exposed to extensive content and pedagogy that prepare them for their future classrooms (Risko & Walker-Dolhouse, 2009), however, few new teachers are prepared to build relationships with parents that are meaningful to student literacy success from day one.

It appears, also, that once preservice teachers graduate there is a misconception about their preparation. For example, a recent survey (OSEDA, 2015) of 1700 principals and 1427 first year teachers in Missouri depicted the diverging beliefs: 72 percent of first year teachers felt prepared to work with parents yet nearly 90 percent of principals said they believed that first year teachers were able to perform this task. In other words, more than 300 first year teachers felt unequipped to work with parents and most prinicpals felt first year teachers were unable to do so.

Youth and Expertise

Preservice teachers are always eager and excited to learn about content and pedagogy, yet when given the opportunity to put these skills into practice in a classroom setting, many of them exhibit low confidence. That is to say, their inexperience with providing instruction to students and therefore communicating with parents is sometimes inhibited by inexperience.

Researchers suggest that teacher educators are now spending more time trying to help their preservice teachers become more confident, reflective learners

about their own practice. This has become more and more important because once preservice teachers have become actual teachers of record, they can sometimes feel alienated and experience "transition traumas" (Johnson et al., 2014).

Parental involvement and Emergent Literacy

According to the National Early Literacy Panel, NELP (2008), there is agreement in the literacy community about the positive effect of parental involvement in the preschool and early years. Pearson and Heibert (2010) note that it is generally useful to know for preservice teachers that the parent and home programs make a difference for students (p. 292) as they make decisions about what to do. The NELP report concludes that these programs have moderate to large effects on children's oral language skills and general cognitive abilities (Pearson & Hiebert, 2010).

Particularly when rooted in a "wealth hypothesis" (Heath, 1983) about the value of a family's language and literacy, teachers of emergent readers can tap into the existing language and literacy being used within the child's family as the starting place for further development of language and literacy. Examples of this would be the opportunity for young children, or even older emergent readers, to share family stories or traditions orally. Opportunities to write and/or share their "story" with others or to illustrate it or turn it into a book could also enhance the message that that their language is valued and that they are in fact users of language and authors as well as readers. Working with parents and families to help them see that their language and stories are valuable to the child's literacy development could occur through informal one-on-one interactions, newsletters, classroom family meetings, or digital communication (E-mails, websites, etc.).

While we know that the use of language and literacy practices within homes varies and will be different from literacy instruction in schools, helping parents and children to see a connection between the uses of language and literacy in their homes and those of the school can support an emergent reader's overall literacy success (Auerbach, 1995; Teale & Yokata, 2000). Additionally, preparing preservice teachers to seek an appreciation for whatever kinds of language and literacy exist in homes and to work toward an authentic, two-way, and deeper level of parental or family involvement in their child's literacy learning is paramount if we are to access and capitalize on the powerful resource of family literacy.

While some emergent readers may only see literacy being used for such things as lists or reading signs, others may come from a "5,000 book" household. The wide variance in experience and background can seem daunting to new teachers and indeed it is. However, the teacher educator's role is to help preservice teachers learn ways to build on whatever literacy and language exist.

Additionally, it is critical that each family's language, oral stories, or traditions are shown respect and value by the responses and actions of the school. All of these ideas are important in preparation of new teachers. Thus, leveraging prior knowledge is a key part of building literacy (Fisher, Frey, & Hattie, 2016). In order to design instruction that leads to both skill development and the complex, critical thinking required of readers, preservice teachers can benefit from an understanding of how a child's existing literacy and language and the involvement of parents or families can be a vital support for emergent readers.

Parental involvement and English Learners

Parental advocacy and involvement has a long history with second language learners (Epstein, 2002; Milano, 2011; Vera et al., 2012). These researchers have found that parents of second language learners help to monitor homework, ask about school activities, and listen to students read. Parents become more involved when they are included in the decision-making, are invited to volunteer, and see themselves as part of the community.

More recently researchers have studied the ways social media like Facebook or Twitter are used as a way to extend parental involvement (Stewart, 2014) for students whose parents live outside of the United States. Although these technologies present some challenges (i.e., privacy, out-of-school contexts) for teachers, initial attempts to use the online or digital venues show promising results for building asynchronous parent/teacher/student relations.

Inquiry Question

As university faculty we know that it is not enough to just continue to hone in on our content knowledge of language and literacy. We also need to seek purposeful ways to emotionally connect to our students that go beyond content delivery. We believe our students need to do the same.

To help us understand more about how to better prepare preservice teachers to engage with parents, the following question will guide our inquiry:

What, if anything, do reading faculty experience as they engage in modifying curriculum to target parental advocacy/involvement?

Methods

Prior to becoming university professors we held teaching positions in elementary school settings. Early in our elementary teaching careers we came to understand the importance of advocating for parental involvement. For some of us our one

regret is that we wished we made close ties with our parents from day one. In thinking about our individual experiences we realized that our initial preparation focused on content delivery and content knowledge.

Action Research

Our review of the literature suggested that we needed to look inward and consider making changes to our course assignments to better meet the needs of our preservice teachers in order to prepare them to work with parents from day one. To take on this work we used an action research approach (Freire, 1970; Pine, 2008; Stringer, 2007) as our primary lenses to seek within. Specifically, we take on a critical action research stance (Patterson et al., 2010) whereby we systematically collected and analyzed the evidence (data) of the impact of our efforts to share the "why's" and demonstrate the how's of parent involvement; and to "take action" or make changes to our instructional design based on our findings. Recursive analysis capitalized on the collaborative nature of this process and helped to ensure that the reforms we made were worthwhile and sustainable.

Following is information pertaining to the settings of this inquiry, faculty participants, courses and assignment descriptions. Afterwards, you will find the reflexive narratives (Columbo, 2003; Lyle, 2009) of the three professors and the Department Head who is aiding in the process to modify instruction so it fits the mission and vision of the program along with a discussion and the takeaways that emerged from our inquiry.

Setting

This inquiry takes place at a medium size university (13,500 students) in the southwest of the United States during the spring and summer 2016 long semesters. Preservice teachers in our program are typically students who transfer from local community colleges. In most cases, preservice teachers take RDG 350-Reading and Literacy I during the first semester at the university, and RDG 360-Word Analysis Skills and RDG 370-Reading and Literacy II during the semester prior to student teaching. We graduate approximately 400-500 teachers yearly. Our five-year retention rate in school districts is 82.8 percent (CREATE, 2016).

Participants

Participants include three reading professors who teach undergraduate and graduate courses in reading education and serve as the course leads for the particular courses (RDG 350, RDG 360, RDG 370) and our department head who teaches graduate courses. Juan is an Assistant Professor and the graduate

program coordinator of the reading program. He teachers courses which address comprehension and assessment. Tami is an Assistant Professor of reading. She teaches courses which focus on the five elements of literacy and children's literature. Kathy is an Assistant Professor of reading. She teaches courses which focus on phonics, fluency, and word work. Martha is Professor of early childhood education and as Head—the instructional leader for our department. She teaches courses that focus on emergent inquiry approaches that include a strong parent partnership component, such as those in the schools of Reggio Emilia, Italy and Curricular and Instructional Design. As teacher educators and learners, we take on a constructivist learning/teaching approach (Piaget & Inhelder, 1966) with the recognition that students learn best through collaboration and socialization (Vygotsky, 1978).

Reading Methods Courses

Preservice teachers who intend to earn a bachelor of science in interdisciplinary studies with EC-6 certification take three literacy intensive courses prior to student teaching. The classes typically meet for one hour and fifteen minutes two times a week. Below find the course descriptions taken from the class syllabus.

> *RDG 350 Reading and Literacy I. This course introduces the theoretical foundations of reading and explores how reading, literacy and cognitive processes are developed. An examination of teaching approaches, text genre, writing, listening, speaking, linguistics, cueing systems, letter-sound relationships, phonemic awareness, phonics, word recognition, spelling and comprehension are included. This course includes a 15-hour observation requirement that will acquaint preservice teachers with public school reading instruction*
>
> *RDG 360 Word Analysis Skills. This course examines word examination of word identification within the context of language. The focus of this course is an examination of how to implement TEKS when facilitating children's development of the phonological system through writing. Specific attention is given to strategies that are useful to readers in the areas of word knowledge and word analysis.*
>
> *RDG 370 Reading and Literacy II. This course builds upon the theoretical foundations of reading and literacy presented in the previous course, RDG 350. The developing teacher will explore how to integrate school reading and writing instruction. The focus of this course is an examination of how the Texas Essential Knowledge and Skills (TEKS) can be implemented with basal readers, trade books, literature,*

cognition, reading comprehension, comprehension strategies, formal assessments, and informal assessment strategies.

Assignments

To improve preservice teacher knowledge about parental involvement we modified three key assignments. The assignments were discussed and sometimes completed using a reading/writer's workshop (Fountas & Pinnell, 2016) approach to solicit conversations about findings and "*ah-has*"

1. *Parent Advocacy Questionnaire*. With this assignment preservice teachers were asked to consider their knowledge, preparation, and desire to work with parents.

2. *Livebinder Assignment*. This is a two-part assignment that preservice teachers complete in RDG 350 and RDG 370. The purpose is for students to seek electronic resources about effective practices with parents then store them in a central location (www.livebinder.com).

3. *How to Involve Parents in a Literacy Classroom*. For this assignment students write a 2-3 pages essay about how they plan to work with parents. Within the essay students detail their philosophy about parental involvement, what and how they plan to work with parents during the first year, and how might they plan to use technology to aid them with the process.

4. *Informal Conversations & Discussions*. Professors have made it a priority to hold both informal and formal conversations about how to involve and advocate for parents. These conversations allow students to share what they are learning; faculty fill in the knowledge gaps and/or suggest further reading.

During upcoming semesters we foresee further modifications to these assignments and an evolution to include other courses in the program.

Reflexive Narratives

1. What, if anything, do reading faculty experience as they engage in modifying curriculum to target parental advocacy/involvement?

The following narratives depict the history and development of our inquiry in chronological order. Juan initiated the conversation with preservice teachers

about practical knowledge relating to working with parents. Tami decided to create a questionnaire to create a knowledge baseline. She found that her preservice students had few professional experiences or a practical knowledge to draw from. She then modified an electronic resource assignment to help fill in some of the information gaps. In the following semesters, Kathy plans to join Juan and Tami as they put together parent literacy nights where preservice teachers will be able to interface directly with parents.

Juan's Take

As I consider my past interactions with the preservice teachers I work with during the last semester before student teaching (Araujo et al, 2015), I have come to realize that my students also need more explicit instruction about communicating with parents, one-on-one experiences with parents that they can draw from during their first professional year of teaching, and an actionable plan they can use as a reference.

I do think that our preservice teachers do eventually learn to build those relationships and involve parents in a constructive way in year two or three. Ideally what I hope to accomplish in my class is for students to use the research they completed in RDG 350 as a baseline to develop a *how to* plan that they can use as a framework during their first year of teaching. My objective is for them to simply build expertise and consider reaching out to parents early on during their first year.

In spring 2016, after speaking to Tami about possible modifications to my class I made the decision to make the "How To" key assignment the instrument under which to carry the parental advocacy/involvement work because its purpose was already for students to create an actionable plan. First, I held informal collaborative conversations about their philosophies of education (i.e., Constructivist/Socio-Cultural/Behaviorist). Next students were tasked to find current research relating to parental involvement, and finally we spoke about the ways technology (i.e., Google, Wix, Facebook, Twitter, E-mail, Texting) was making it easier to broadcast news to parents. What I learned after reading the submissions was that students still needed more explicit directions about creating a plan. For the most part students wrote about their philosophies, reported their research findings but seldom developed a cohesive action plan.

In summer 2016, I provided a mentor text to better guide the conversation in addition to what I mentioned for spring. Moreover, I created a thinking tool to help as they wrote with the following questions: 1) What is your philosophy of parental involvement in your literacy classroom, 2) What does the research say about parental involvement, 3) What do you plan to do at the beginning/

middle/end of the year to involve parents, 4) How might you involve parents with reading activities, 5) How might you involve parents with writing activities, and 6) What technology might you employ to aid with your work? Although this was helpful I need to find time toward the end of the semester to get them to share their findings with the other students. I plan to do in summer 2017 when I teach the course again.

In the meantime, I plan to share my insights with the other professors who teach other sections of the course to share my insights. My hope is that I can encourage the other professors to contribute to the planning, promoting, and delivering of the parent literacy night.

Tami's Take

I have been teaching at the university level for almost ten years. As a novice professor, I spent much of my time honing in on building content knowledge and teaching skills. More recently, however, I have found that this is not enough (to know the content) to fully engage with pre service teachers. This became especially fitting when my students talked about classroom parents.

I teach a reading foundations course (RDG 350). This course provides students with their first experience with reading and literacy pedagogy, and perhaps even their first in the teacher education program at this university. My students usually have little to no background knowledge about dealing with parents. They may recall experiences they had with teachers as past students, or as parents of young children. Hence, the perspective of being the teacher that has the answers to questions that parents want to know about their individual children is a bit daunting.

While teaching this class in spring 2016 to 22 students, I began to focus on the conversations that my students were having about parents. Admittedly, I had even shared a negative experience that I had had as a classroom teacher with a parent when I was teaching first grade. After listening to the various comments, I realized that I should have also discussed the several positive relationships that I had built with parents over my years of teaching at the elementary level.

I decided to create a questionnaire to give to the entire class. It was important for me to determine how many students had negative perceptions of their future parent relationships since that was the focus I gathered from classroom conversations. I was able to gather responses that clarified my students' perceptions about parent interactions. Ultimately, I realized that I needed to make sure my preservice teachers understood three ideas:

1. Parents support their children's teachers.
2. Parents are willing to help teachers.

3. Parent volunteers can aid with activities; however you are the instructional professional in the classroom.

Through my experiences as a classroom teacher, and as a liaison to student teachers, it is clear that a majority of parents support their children's teachers. They all want what is best for their own child, so they in turn will help the teacher make the necessary accommodations. Parents will also volunteer time and/or funding for upcoming classroom events. Last, parents should not be expected to provide instruction or serve as helpers to special needs students (outside of their own).

In addition to the questionnaire, my undergraduates were also required to complete an assignment that indicated their knowledge about parents and parent advocacy. In RDG 350, students are required to complete a live binder (www. livebinder.com), an electronic binder of information about the essential elements of reading and literacy. During this semester, students also had to identify at least 10 websites that provided helpful information about utilizing parents in their classrooms. This assignment, in turn, helped developed my own personal schema about utilizing parents in the classroom.

As I prepare for teaching RDG 350 during the spring 2017 semester, I cannot help but to reflect on the importance of encouraging parent interactions in K-6 classrooms. I plan to continue to have students create a tab for parent advocacy in their Live binder projects. My goal is to have students also attend a school related event in an elementary school, such as a Family Literacy Night and report back to our class. All students in the RDG 350 class are required to observe in a classroom for 15 hours, so I am expecting them to use their schools as a resource. I am anxious for my students to have these experiences so they may see parents in a great light, and look forward to working with all children as well as their families.

Kathy's Take

The next step in the project is to extend the parent involvement component to a third literacy course in spring 2017, which focuses on word study and analysis. The course content is primarily based on Bear et al. (2015) *Words Their Way* spelling development stages, but also includes context-based phonics instruction through the use of children's literature. Students in the course participate in hands-on activities, mini-lessons, and assessment practices. A major component of the course is the creation of activities and games for each of the five spelling stages. At the conclusion of studying each spelling stage, students work in groups to create a hands-on activity that reinforces the skills and concepts for

that particular stage. They bring the completed activities to class and the groups rotate through literacy centers and play each of the games. After participating in all of the activities, I lead the class in a debriefing session, during which we discuss which skills were reinforced, what modifications we might make to strengthen the activities, and possible challenges we anticipate students facing.

For the parent involvement project, my students (preservice teachers) will plan a family literacy night at a local elementary school during which they will lead children and families in the activities they created for our own class. The family literacy night will be held toward the end of the semester, after the preservice teachers have completed the majority of the course curriculum and created all of the activities for each of the five spelling stages. This will give them the opportunity to make adjustments to the games after playing them in class and prior to introducing the activities to the elementary school students and their families. The preservice teachers will also prepare step-by-step instructions for each activity and copies of the games for families to take home at the end of the night.

Martha's Take

As a researcher and proponent of parent involvement and family literacy's beneficial impact on a student's development of language and literacy, I was immediately eager to hear more about the reading faculty's intentional effort to infuse our three basic reading courses with opportunities for preservice teachers to think deeper and learn more about partnering with parents and families. While our program does include parent involvement in other courses, such as our exploratory ELED 200: Schools and Community in a Global Society and our Early Childhood Education courses which require development of a "Family Literacy Backpack" (Hammack, Foote, Garretson, & Thompson, 2012), I knew that more focus in this area with a consistent strand throughout the program was needed. Through study of some of the major theorists, researchers, and practitioners in the field (Heath, 1983; Epstein, 2002; Diffily, 2004; Edwards, Gandini and Forman, 2012) my own stance has evolved to view the highest level of functioning for schools to be situations in which parents are real partners. When parents, or whoever serves as a significant person in a child's life, are true partners, their role becomes essential to the learning that is taking place.

I want our students, preservice teachers (PSTs), to understand that there are myriad ways a parent or family member can work collaboratively with the school. Parent involvement can take many forms and all forms are of value. We've seen from many schools that parents participate by providing resources or services, such as suggesting ideas to support a project, providing demonstrations

of a skill or special talent, and serving on various boards and parent/teacher committees. These usual ways of engaging and interaction a are of course needed and important. Structures, such as the formation of parent committees or the creation of a thoughtfully organized "communication board" for parents are paramount to assuring parents find ways to participate. However, we are interested in going beyond these steps. Looking to the preprimary schools of Reggio Emilia, Italy, we see that the parent-school partnership takes it to a deeper level as parent participate in reflection about the child's work, current theories about their world, and ways of representing their ideas. In these schools, parents are invited to view and reflect upon children's creations, projects, or transcribed conversations. Transcribed conversations are particularly revealing as to the child's understanding about a topic as well as their language development. The children are also invited to revisit their conversation since the transcribed conversation is often posted on a chart and the teacher will redirect the students to re-read what they said and often to elaborate more on their ideas. Parents often observe and participate in these class discussions and or dialogue within small groups.

At the other end of the spectrum, we know that some parents in today's society are simply not able to be at school during the day. My goal for our preservice teachers is to help them view this as a reality but not as a sign of the parent's disregard for their child's education or school. The challenge is to help our PSTs consider how to still involve these parents. One way is often through newsletters or digital communication. Also, through family meetings held in the evenings (preferably with childcare provided for the students or siblings), teachers can let family members know that one important way to participate in their child's learning at school is to simply commit to read the newsletter or perhaps a regularly sent e-mail or updates to a website providing information, photos, reflections and perhaps videos of the child's work in progress, with the child. Finding a way for the child to discuss their day and encouraging the parent to keep the conversation going is another vital activity that allows any parent to be a part.

These members of uur reading faculty are taking positive steps to assure that our PSTs will see the role of parents and families as valuable—see them as people who have knowledge and skills on which to build authentic family-school relationships. The progression of assignments and activities they are implementing should allow our students to gradually develop their schema toward a valuing of "parents as partners," beginning with the questionnaire in Tami's Reading 350, proceeding to learning specific literacy activities and word study games (such as an approach that makes sounds visible for students by adding motions) (Kindervater, 2010; Padak & Rasinki, 2008) that parents could do at home in Kathy's RDG 360 class, and proceeding to articulating their Parent Involvement

philosophy and plan in Juan's RDG 370 class. Each of these phases of instruction should serve to scaffold a philosophy of two-way communication and a valuing of wisdoms that authentic parent/family partnerships can provide. Through this curriculum sequencing, the PSTs should first develop an awareness of their existing perspective, including biases; next, they will receive instruction and feedback as they develop the knowledge and skills needed to support literacy through word study and practice in how to share many of these strategies/activities with families for use at home. Ways to provide timely and specific feedback and keep the focus on comprehension would also be shared with families through the family meeting or literacy night event. In the final course of the three in the pre-field series, the students will be challenged to synthesize this learning to form a plan, based on their philosophical beliefs about literacy and parent involvement, for the ways they intend to involve parent/families of their students in their own classrooms.

The diversity of today's families, including culture, socio-economic levels and various configurations mandates that teachers work even harder to connect the school to the home activity. Yet, a common bond among all is usually a concern about their child's needs and ability to succeed in school. The call for educators and teacher educators is to broaden and enrich the existing family literacy practices and to provide opportunities for parents/families to engage in authentic ways with their child's school experience. We must move away from a focus on only providing "parent training" or expecting parents to teach high level skills (Torres, & Hurtado-Vivas, 2011) to a recognition that we have much to share and learn together. Listening to one another is key. The following comment from a parent in Reggio Emilia perhaps says it best,

> For me it's a looking for growth through times of shared reflection, through opportunities for exchange, comparing points of view, taking our reflection further, so that I am closer to my child as a parent, so that we grow together as people (From minutes of the Anna Frank Preschool Council, quoted in Charter of the City and Childhood Councils, 2002) (Edwards, Gandini, & Forman, 2012, p. 118).

The city of Reggio Emilia has extended the practice of parent partnerships and involvement to include the entire community. The city has councils and services, such as a recycling service that sends recycled products from the town back to the schools as paper and other useful materials, to support the schools. The schools are partially municipally funded and documentation panels of student projects, conversations and artistic creations (their "hundred languages") are displayed in a special facility and throughout the town. This is a city that honors the

potentials of all its citizens. Recognizing the benefits of this kind of solidarity of community and schools, our university is embarking on a partnership with our local school district to see what kind of programs and opportunities we can build together to further support the students' ultimate success in school and in life. Sparked by a charge and commitment from our new university President, our university has begun meetings with various groups from the local schools and Project A.S.P.I.R.E. has been launched this year. ASPIRE stands for A School Partnership for Inspiration, Recreation, and Education and initial collaboration with a team of curriculum leaders form the district has indicated that a focus on literacy as well as parent involvement are two of the highest priorities. Aligning well with our work to create deeper understanding of how to form partnerships with parents/families and to support literacy development, the teams have begun brainstorming and numerous ideas have been offered. The challenge will be to truly listen to each other and to build our processes and next steps in a way that honors the community, the school, and the parents. Our PSTs will be one of the beneficiaries if we succeed!

Findings and Discussion

During the process of our inquiry we have come to the understanding that to more appropriately prepare preservice teachers professors might consider revisiting course objectives to ensure that we are preparing teachers for parental involvement. As it turns out, we were able to make significant changes to course assignments to meet these needs. Other institutions like University of Central Florida offer courses that focus on parental involvement. Some universities invite new teachers to come speak to students about their experiences with parents. These experiences allow preservice teachers to have a reservoir of knowledge from day one.

Preservice teachers can also benefit from direct interactions and practical applications to build confidence and reduce anxiety prior to graduation. We can invite parents to visit our classrooms and set up mock parent/teacher meetings or we can use technology like Zoom (https://zoom.us/) or Google Hangout to set up live videoconferences between preservice teachers and parent volunteers. These conversations can be fully scripted or open-ended depending on the objectives and mission of the assignment.

As professors we should strive to set the conditions where students create assignments/games/activities that they can use with parents while they are still enrolled in the reading methods classes. These literacy events (Heath, 1983) will provide students rich opportunities to put their practices (games/activities) into action.

In addition, our graduates can incorporate the New Literacy Studies (NLS) framework to emphasize the perspectives and interplay of local events that take into account historical, discursive, geographical, and cultural practices (Gee, 2005; Street, 1993).

It is our view that first year teachers are aware of the importance of parental involvement but are to inundated with meeting other pressing local, state, and national mandates.

Advice to Teacher Educators

We concur with Hattie (2013) in his call for expert teachers to give a hand up and share their knowledge to new and seasoned teachers. Remember, there are experts at the local level, national level, and across the world. We must advocate for one another. Below are some of our major takeaways from our experiences. We hope they make a difference to you, too.

1. Be willing and ready to share your experience and expertise that made a difference in communicating or advocating for parents.

2. Discuss parental involvement in a positive light, recognizing the richness and value of diverse family cultures and configurations.

3. Parent partnerships are essential and should involve a two-way street; truly listening to our parents/families and welcoming the integration of wisdoms from home and school.

4. Help students identify and leverage electronic resources. 21st Century communication has changed the landscape about how we communicate with parents.

5. Consider the cognitive, social linguistic, and cultural demands of the student.

6. Plan experiences where parents/preservice teachers can interact in meaningful ways and build relationships.

7. Aid our PSTs in the creation of parental involvement plans.

In conclusion, we believe teacher educators need to support the professional development of first year teachers and remember that they are new to the profession. We must strive to advocate for parents and their partnership in and out of school—it is essential to building sustained relations with your students.

Delimitations

There are delimitations that are inherent to our action research. The findings of this study are descriptive for this setting. In other words, our conclusions cannot be generalized to other settings. The findings in this chapter are particular to this faculty and student body, and therefore cannot be generalized to other teachers or faculty members. Nevertheless, the sharing of our experience in intentionally focusing and reflecting on our efforts to familiarize our PSTs about the need, benefits, and best practices of parent involvement could most likely be insightful for others in similar school populations and circumstances. The processes we used to exam our practice could also provide possibilities to others as well.

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