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Scaffolded Discourse Within a Comprehensive Literacy Model

By

Kimberlee Wagner

A Dissertation

Submitted in Partial Fulfillment

of the Requirements for the Degree of

Doctor of Education

National College of Education

National Louis University

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i

SCAFFOLDED DISCOURSE WITHIN A COMPREHENSIVE LITERACY MODEL

Submitted in partial fulfillment of the requirements of Doctor of Education in the National College of Education

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ABSTRACT

Research has shown that successful models of school change have several common features: a balance of teacher autonomy and accountability, high-quality professional development, quality leadership, and the support of an outside partner. One model that has these features is the comprehensive literacy model within the Partnership of Comprehensive Literacy model. This mixed methods study examined the language of scaffolding that occurred in three settings within the model: grade level meetings, coaching and mentoring, and small group instruction. Participants in this study included the literacy coaches, interventionists and firstgrade teachers at two schools within the PCL network. Three levels of scaffolding were identified in the three activity settings at both schools: Telling and Teaching, Directing and Demonstrating, and Prompting and Guiding. Quantitative data analysis found that participants in all three activity settings used Directing and Demonstrating prompts significantly more than the other two types of scaffolds, with the exception of the literacy coach at one school who used Directing and Demonstrating significantly less that the other two types of scaffolds. Three themes emerged from the qualitative data: Time, Identification of Student Strengths and Weaknesses, and Situated Identities. The findings suggest that coaches and interventionists use scaffolded language with teachers just as teachers use scaffolded language with students. Analysis of this scaffold use could be beneficial for building collective expertise among school staff.

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I have had so many mentors along my path who just knew I could get to the place where I am right now. My very first principal, Susan Harris probably does not even know the impact she has had on my journey. She supported me and believed in me and at the same time, put up with absolutely no nonsense. I am indebted to her for being that very first role model for me. Roberta Pantle mentored me in my first curriculum job. I appreciate the friendship we still share today so many years later. Rebecca Gerdis taught me how to be a mentor. Oh, the stories we could tell...

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conversations about reading, writing, and of course, Running Records, helped me grow tremendously as a professional. From Lou I learned how to keep curiosity alive, how to keep my mind open, and how to say no to some of the ever- increasing demands on my time (okay...I am still working on that one...).

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DEDICATION

This dissertation is dedicated to my amazing family: Brent, Tatum, Reilly, Abigail, and Natalie. You have been my biggest cheerleaders and my biggest supporters. I love you all more than you could ever know.

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CHAPTER ONE

"If children are apparently unable to learn, we should assume that we have not as yet found the right way to teach them."—Marie Clay

Introduction

For many years, schools in the United States have worked to raise reading achievement, particularly for those students who come from low socioeconomic status families and for children for whom English is not their first language. Through various laws and government programs, from the Elementary and Secondary Act (ESEA) of 1966 to No Child Left Behind (NCLB) of 2001, to the recent passage of the Every Student Succeeds Act (ESSA) in 2015, the United States federal government has sought to hold schools accountable for student achievement by tying accountability to the availability of millions of dollars of funding and with the threat of its removal should schools not be able to demonstrate improved student performance (Allington, 2012). This raises the question as to whether the infusion of millions of dollars into schools resulted in marked improvement of student achievement. The most recent scores on the National Assessment for Educational Progress (NAEP), an assessment given every four years, show that in 2015, 36% of fourth grade students in the United States scored at the proficient level or higher in reading. This score that has remained relatively flat since 1971, despite massive government spending and increased governmental programs during this time (NCES, 2016).

One of the largest and oldest sources of government funding for low-income schools, Title I, was created by President Johnson in 1965 as a significant part of the Elementary and Secondary Education Act (ESEA). Its purpose was to provide financial assistance to schools and

districts with high numbers of low-income students (Thomas & Brady, 2005). In 1988, Title I was amended to include accountability measures for schools. In other words, schools were required to document proof of academic achievement for their poorest students (Thomas & Brady, 2005) or risk forfeiture of government funds.

With the passage of the No Child Left Behind Act (NCLB) in 2001, the stakes became even higher. Not only did schools have to prove academic achievement for all subgroups of their student population (e.g. low income, special education, English language learners), but they also needed to provide evidence of researched-based practices (Husband & Hunt, 2015; Thomas & Brady, 2005) and that instruction was being delivered by highly-qualified teachers. The cornerstone of NCLB, the Reading First grant program, was authorized by the United States Department of Education in 2002. Reading First was established to provide financial assistance to school districts based on the percentage of children in their student body ages five through seventeen who were from families living below the poverty line. The purpose of this grant was to establish "scientifically-based reading programs" for children in Kindergarten through third grade. Unfortunately, the definition of "scientifically-based" was so narrowly defined that legitimate, research-proven instructional frameworks and methods were dismissed as not meeting the requirements of the Reading First initiative (Cummins, 2007). These approaches, such as Reading Recovery and programs published by Rigby and the Wright Group were more balanced in nature, as compared to the scripted programs that taught phonics in a fixed, sequential order (Cummins, 2007).

Similarly, with the aid of publishing companies, districts translated this demand into the requirement to purchase prepackaged programs with highly scripted, direct instruction lessons supposedly suitable for all students, and supporting what Allington (2012) calls "long-standing

federal enthusiasm for packaged reading reform" (p. 16). These programs, delivered by identified Title I teachers, are typically implemented in pull-out formats with large numbers of students (Gaskins, 1998), and result in very little student achievement (Allington, 2012; Allington, 2013; Gaskins, 1998), particularly in the area of reading comprehension.

The results of the government-funded Reading First Impact Study confirmed this (United States Department of Education, 2008). This study examined data across three years of Reading First Implementation and found that while there was a statistically significant impact on the amount of time teachers spent on reading instruction, there was no corresponding statistically significant impact on student reading comprehension scores as measured by the Stanford Achievement Test. Although Reading First was no longer funded after 2008, the impact of this failed program is still being felt due to the continued use of prescribed reading programs and interventions still popular in schools and districts even at the time of this study in 2017.

If these scripted, one-size-fits-all, boxed reading programs do not produce student achievement, the question remains as to where schools can look to find effective instruction for struggling readers. Research in the field of effective reading instruction points to the development of the teacher rather than to the fidelity of program implementation (Forbes, 2015; Pinnell, 1994; Taylor, Raphael, & Au, 2010). For example, Bond and Dykstra's (1967) first grade studies found that, "No one approach [to teaching reading] is so distinctly better in all situations and respects than the others that it should be considered the one best method and the one to be used exclusively" (p. 123). They also noted that, "it is necessary to train better teachers of reading rather than to expect a panacea in the form of materials" (p. 123). Voices in the field of reading have been consistent regarding the importance of effective teacher development. Darling-Hammond (2011) stresses the importance of capacity building in schools, where

teachers take charge of their learning about the practice of teaching through collaboration, inquiry, and on-going problem solving. Allington and Johnson (2015) state that "expanding teacher expertise is the only way to minimize the number of students becoming learning disabled" (p. viii). In other words, if children have access to expert teaching during their early years of school, many of the reading difficulties they encounter could be eliminated. This expertise is gained through continuous learning experiences that start in teacher preparation programs and continue throughout a teacher's career (Dorn, 2015) Additionally, these learning experiences need to be collaborative and ongoing in nature in order to be the most effective (Dorn, 2015; Taylor, Raphael, and Au, 2010).

One of the hardest things to do well as a teacher is to teach reading, particularly to students who struggle. It is not enough to instruct children to decode—teachers must also instruct students how to monitor their understanding of text, as well as how to proceed when the meaning of the text is lost for some reason. What teachers say to students as they work through a text matters (Clay, 2005; Dorn & Soffos, 2005; Johnston, 2004; Tharp & Gallimore, 1988).

I did not really understand this until I engaged with colleagues in the systematic professional development design of Reading Recovery® and learned how to talk with children about literacy in ways that are more productive. Through Reading Recovery, a one-to-one tutoring program for low-achieving first graders, I learned how to carefully observe children's reading and writing behaviors and then lead them to discoveries about text through meaningful verbal scaffolds. It was during this initial experience as a Reading Recovery teacher that I started to become very thoughtful about what I said to a child, as well as when I said it during a lesson. As I applied this same approach to the small group reading intervention groups I also worked

with, I saw children start to take charge of their own thinking and begin to make gains in their reading and writing.

The more experience I gained as a Reading Recovery teacher, the more I became keenly aware that the teachers around me who had not had this same professional development experience were not talking with students about literacy in the same ways as the teachers I interacted with during my Reading Recovery seminars and subsequent required continuing contact sessions. Although these teachers were implementing guided reading and small group reading interventions, they seemed unsure about how to proceed with instruction when children were not progressing. Through conversations with some of these teachers, I realized that many seemed uncertain how to assist children stuck on a word while reading, other than to tell them to "sound it out". These educators often asked students to predict what would happen next in the story, while neglecting to dig deeper into the meaning of books during the guided reading lessons.

More alarmingly, decision-making teams, including administrators, school psychologists, and teachers, were relying heavily on one-minute fluency checks to determine the need for intervention, with equally heavy reliance on prescribed programs to deliver those interventions. I quickly discovered that dependence on scripted, boxed programs prevented teachers from carefully observing students' reading behaviors in order to discover what they *could do* well in addition to identifying exactly where assistance and instruction were needed. The scripted nature of these programs interfered with teacher decision-making during reading instruction. I also became aware of the fact that if teachers were going to be able to move past such ill-conceived notions of diagnosis and instruction, they would need guidance from a more knowledgeable other as part of a professional learning community (Tharp & Gallimore, 1988; Vygotsky, 1978).

Marie Clay, best known as the creator of the Reading Recovery program, calls on teachers of young children to be "noticing teachers" (Lyons, Pinnell, & DeFord, 1993). Noticing teachers carefully observe students and look for the times when they become confused. She also insisted that teachers engage in initial and ongoing structured learning seminars with colleagues conducted by teacher leaders with additional training in literacy instruction. Such professional development opportunities allow educators to observe one another while teaching in order to notice the instructional moves that are the most powerful for student growth, as well as provide input on areas for improvement.

Statement of the Problem

With reading scores remaining relatively flat since 1971, school districts have been looking for ways to increase these scores. Under No Child Left Behind (NCLB), the United States Department of Education attempted to assist districts with raising achievement through federally funded programs such as Reading First. Despite the requirement within these programs for districts to adopt tightly-scripted reading curricula that focus on constrained skills (Stahl, 2011) implemented with high teacher fidelity (Allington, 2013; Cummins, 2007; Olsen & Sexton, 2009), these federal programs appear to have failed, as reading scores have not increased overall (NCES, 2016; United States Department of Education, 2008).

On December 10, 2015, President Barak Obama signed the reauthorization of ESEA, now known as the Every Student Succeeds Act (ESSA). This new law appears to acknowledge and amend the flaws of NCLB. Where NCLB placed tight restrictions on assessments and instructional materials (Allington, 2013; Dennis, 2017; Husband & Hunt, 2015), ESSA gives more leeway for districts to use "age-appropriate, valid, and reliable screening methods…to inform instruction, and to monitor the child's progress and the effects of instruction" (ESSA act,

2015, p. 179). More importantly, ESSA changes the language around professional development. Under NCLB, professional development provided by school districts needed to be supported by scientifically based research. This narrow definition of research eliminated any professional development activities not supported by empirical studies. Under ESSA, professional development need only be evidence-based. This new definition could potentially allow support for comprehensive literacy design models that show evidence of effectiveness (Taylor, et al., 2010).

Research on comprehensive literacy design models, which emphasize collaboration among school personnel in an effort to build "collective efficacy" (Elmore, 2009 as cited in Forbes, 2015), supports the theory that the way to increase reading achievement is to expand the knowledge of teachers through ongoing professional development (Dorn, 2015; Elmore, 2004; Lyons & Pinnell, 1999; Taylor, et al., 2010). Specifically, the professional development in these models is done in a way that encourages discourse among teachers in what is called an apprenticeship model (Rogoff, 1990), where novice educators collaborate with expert teachers regarding best practices in literacy instruction. Rogoff (1990) describes this model as "active learners in a community of people who support, challenge, and guide novices as they increasingly participate in skilled, valued sociocultural activity" (p. 39). While these types of collaborations do exist in schools around the United States, little research has been completed that specifically looks at the language of scaffolded discourse that occurs during school-wide teacher collaboration within an apprenticeship model, specifically within professional learning communities, as well as in small-group reading instruction at the first-grade level.

Reading Recovery is one example of an apprenticeship model that occurs within a community of learners. Although Reading Recovery has proven to be an effective intervention

for first-grade struggling readers (What Works Clearinghouse, 2007), the program is more than just an intervention. One crucial component of Reading Recovery implementation is ongoing professional development for teachers that occurs before, during, and after the first year as a Reading Recovery teacher. On its own, Reading Recovery can increase the reading achievement of individual students. However, research indicates that when Reading Recovery is part of a comprehensive literacy model such as Partnership in Comprehensive Literacy (PCL) established by Linda Dorn, it becomes one aspect of a powerful system of change that can produce dramatic results for students school-wide (2015). The comprehensive literacy model, or CLM, is built around an emphasis on the development of both individual and collective expertise (Dorn, 2015), so that teachers learn with, and from each other, in the sociocultural context of collaborative learning communities, and then bring that knowledge into the sociocultural context of individual and small-group instruction.

It is important then, to study this apprenticeship model in order to be able to fully describe how teachers use language to support one another's learning in a sociocultural context, and whether this language translated into their instruction with students. By so doing, we can begin to define the qualities of discourse that contribute to collective expertise and professional capital in a school.

Research Purpose and Questions

This mixed-methods study focuses on the language of scaffolding within a comprehensive literacy model in two different school settings in order to develop a description of how teacher scaffolded discourse is used in various settings within that model. Thus, its purpose is to describe and explore the discourse that occurs during three components of a comprehensive literacy model as implemented in these school settings, namely: a) collaborative teacher learning

communities, b) educator coaching and mentoring, and c) small-group first-grade reading instruction. It is within these settings that scaffolded discourse occurs among teachers and students interacting within an apprenticeship model. The close observation and analysis of this discourse allows for a detailed description of the language of assisted performance through verbal scaffolding in the various settings of these two schools, both of which have adopted a model of school change that emphasizes the importance of "system-wide coordination and shared knowledge" (Dorn, 2015, p. 3).

This research study was guided by the following general question: What are the patterns of discourse, specifically the language of scaffolding, that occur across activity settings within a comprehensive literacy model designed for school improvement? Related to the general question are four specific research questions for this study:

- What are the patterns of scaffolded discourse among literacy coaches and teachers during first-grade team meetings in two schools implementing a comprehensive literacy model?
- 2. What are the patterns of scaffolded discourse between literacy coaches and first-grade teachers during one-to-one mentoring sessions in two schools implementing a comprehensive literacy model?
- 3. What are the patterns of scaffolded discourse between teachers and students during first-grade small group reading lessons in two schools implementing a comprehensive literacy model?
- 4. What degree of similarity is there in the percentages of the patterns of scaffolded discourse across the three settings?

Significance of the Study

This study is important because an understanding of how the language of scaffolding as situated in a model of school-wide collaboration increases the knowledge of teachers regarding literacy instruction. Having an understanding of the patterns of scaffolding that occur between coaches and teachers and teachers and students can help to better define models of school change. The process of making transparent the scaffolding language of teachers that occurs in a variety of settings within a school community can also help to reveal more about why the apprenticeship model has been a successful approach to school improvement. Many studies define the language of teacher to student scaffolding (Beed, Hawkins, & Roller, 1991; Holton & Clarke, 2006; Rodgers, et al., 2016; Wood, 2003), but none has attempted to describe the language of scaffolding among and between teachers and coaches in a school setting. These collaborative relationships result in high-quality literacy lessons occurring all day and in every setting, whether individual, small group, or whole-class contexts.

Scope of the Study

This case study focused on two schools in two Midwestern states that are currently implementing a comprehensive literacy model with a larger partnership, specifically Partnerships in Comprehensive Literacy (PCL). At each school, I limited the study to the first-grade teams, which are comprised of Literacy Coaches, Reading Recovery teachers, and first-grade classroom teachers. The purpose of this study was to describe the language of scaffolding that occurred when groups of teachers come together. The study also examined the unique ways two different schools choose to implement the comprehensive literacy design. By limiting the study to just two schools, as well as to solely one grade-level team for each, I was able to create rich description without diluting the study analysis (Creswell, 1998). Additionally, I chose to focus on the first-grade team because that is the grade level where Reading Recovery occurs. While this study was

not about Reading Recovery itself, the Reading Recovery framework is the foundation for the PCL model.

Definition of Terms

Apprenticeship Model: A system in which novices and experts work together as a community to actively engage in learning (Rogoff, 1990). Sometimes it is the novice learning from the expert, but there are also times in this model where groups of novices learn from one another and serve as resources for each other (Rogoff, 1990).

Collaborative Learning Communities: Teacher learning teams within a school led by trained peer facilitators, usually literacy coaches. The goal of the collaborative learning communities is to generate theories of action, reflect on theories in use, and develop understanding of processes of learning (Forbes, 2015).

Comprehensive Intervention Model (CIM): A portfolio of interventions designed to improve student literacy outcomes that are mapped out with predictable lesson components and established routines. CIM interventions include Reading Recovery, Guided Reading Plus, Assisted Writing Groups, Targeted Interventions, and Comprehension Focus Groups (Dorn, Doore, & Soffos, 2015). The current study only focused on teachers who taught first-grade interventions.

Comprehensive Literacy Model (CLM): A model for school change that encompasses ten integrated features, resulting in system-wide coordination and shared knowledge (Dorn, 2015). This model is further delineated in Chapter 2 of this study.

Guided Reading Plus: A small-group intervention for readers in grades one through three who lag behind their peers in reading. Teachers design lessons that support development of self-monitoring strategies, as well as to increase comprehension, vocabulary, and reading fluency.

Language Workshop: A block of time during the school day used for teachers and students to investigate the use of language. Mini-lessons and conferences during this time are focused on concepts of language such as sentence structure, text structure, and writing styles and genres (Dorn & Soffos, 2005; Dorn & Jones, 2010).

Model Classrooms: Clinical settings where literacy coaches and classroom teachers work together to implement the literacy framework. Other teachers observe in these classrooms in order to observe teaching and learning in real time (Dorn, 2015).

Partnerships in Comprehensive Literacy (PCL): Partner schools in PCL include those schools that utilize a comprehensive literacy model within a supportive relationship with a university partner. PCL schools have school and district coaches that have completed a year-long, post-graduate program through a PCL University Training Center and who engage in ongoing professional development with that university (Forbes, 2015).

Professional Capital: The development of professional expertise of school administrators and teachers for the purpose of collective responsibility (Hargreaves & Fullan, 2012).

Reading Recovery: A system-wide intervention with a network of support that includes teacher education, professional development, and collaboration (Lyons, Pinnell, & DeFord, 1993). The support for children includes a one-to-one, early intervention program designed for first-graders who struggle with reading (Clay, 1993; Dorn, 1996), while the support for teachers includes a year of college coursework, followed by ongoing collaboration within a network of university trainers, teacher trainers, and other Reading Recovery teachers.

Reader's Workshop: A block of time during the school day used for teachers and students to focus on problem solving during reading and comprehension strategies. The mini-lessons, small-group lessons, and conferences are focused on reading and problem-solving strategies.

Students practice these skills using independent reading, paired reading, listening to reading, and Thoughtful Logs (Dorn & Soffos, 2005; Dorn & Jones, 2010).

Thoughtful Logs: A journal or notebook in which students respond to the reading they are doing. The log is divided into topics, which may include: My Thinking, Reading Strategies, Powerful Words/Phrases, and Text Maps (Dorn & Jones, 2010).

Writer's Workshop: A block of time during the school day in which teachers and students focus on the craft of writing. Mini-lessons are implemented that model writing strategies, and students practice these skills by writing pieces on the topics of their choice.

Organization of the Study

This dissertation is written in five chapters. Chapter One provides background for this study, including the statement of the problem and the purpose of the research. This is followed by the research questions that guided the study, as well as the definition of terms that are used throughout the study. Chapter Two is a review of the literature on sociocultural learning environments, including Reading Recovery and effective collaborative literacy models, including Partnerships in Comprehensive Literacy (PCL). Chapter Three describes the research methodology used in this study. Chapter Four provides an in-depth description of the two participating schools, including the setting and the participants. It also describes both the qualitative and quantitative data collection and analysis measures employed. Because of the distinctness and uniqueness of each school, I have chosen to write Chapter Four in two parts. In Chapter Five, I discuss the findings of the study by case and as a whole. Chapter Five also includes implications for practice as well as thoughts on future research.

CHAPTER TWO

A REVIEW OF LITERATURE

"We become aware of our questions when our answers fail to match with something on the page before us."—Marie Clay

The purpose of this study was to examine the language of scaffolding that occurs within the Partnerships in Comprehensive Literacy (PCL) model. This chapter reviews the theoretical and historical influences of PCL through the lenses of Reading Recovery® and theories and models of school change. There are seven sections in this chapter; the first outlines the theoretical underpinnings of PCL, specifically the construct of social constructivism and scaffolding, grounded in the theories of Vygotsky. The second section defines both discourse and scaffolding, and describes the discourse of scaffolding that occurs from adults, specifically teachers to children. The third section gives a brief history and description of Reading Recovery then situates scaffolded discourse within its implementation. The fourth section develops the concept of guided reading, particularly models of guided reading that are based on Reading Recovery. The fifth section moves to the language of scaffolding that occurs between adults within schools, while the sixth section situates this scaffolding within models of school change. Finally, the seventh section describes the development and components of the Partnerships in Comprehensive Literacy (PCL) model of school change, with a particular focus on three settings where scaffolded discourse occurs: collaborative team meetings one-to-one coaching and mentoring sessions, and small group first-grade reading instruction.

Vygotsky and Social Constructivism

Learning theories can be classified into three basic domains: behaviorism, cognitivism, and constructivism (Yilmaz, 2011). Through the first half of the twentieth century, behaviorism

constituted the only learning theory relevant to education. It relies on observable and measureable student behavior that occurs in response to teacher stimuli (Yilmaz, 2011), the sort of learning that prepares students for lives as obedient laborers in fields and factories, and that takes no mental processes into consideration. The inability of behavior theorists to describe how people were able to process new knowledge led to the rise of cognitivism (Yilmaz, 2011).

Beginning in the 1950s, cognitive theorists became interested in how mental processes such as memory, concept formation, and learning took place (Yilmaz, 2011). Cognitivist theory posits that the learner is an active participant in the learning activity, bringing prior knowledge and experiences to the learning that are used to process and store new information (Powell & Kalina, 2009; Yilmaz, 2011; Zuckerman, 2003). One of the most influential theorists in constructivist theory is Lev Vygotsky. Although Vygotsky is considered one of the greatest contributors to the field of psychology, he had no formal education in psychology (Gavelek & Breshahan, 2009), although he was extremely interested in the humanities and social sciences. Vygotsky was admitted into Moscow University, where he began studies in medicine at the insistence of his parents. After his first semester, however, he transferred to the school of Law. At the same time, Vygotsky was also enrolled at the Shaniaysky University where he studied history and philosophy (Kozulin, 1986).

Vygotsky was heavily influenced by the writings of many European and American intellectuals (Gavelek & Breshahan, 2009), which differed from those of the Soviet behavioral scientists. He challenged the position of these scientists who "viewed consciousness as an idealist superstition" (Kozulin, 1986, pg. xxxi). Vygotsky believed in a more developmental approach to scientific psychology, although he recognized that this viewpoint might not be considered "scientific" (Kozulin, 1986, pg. xxxviii). He saw mental functions as mediated in a

social realm through the use of tools and interpersonal communication (Gavelek & Breshahan, 2009; Vygotsky, 2012). This view of development led to the suppression of his work after Stalin came to power; and whether luckily or unluckily, Vygotsky's death from tuberculosis in 1934 at the age of 38 meant that he never had to "incur the wrath of Communist hardliners" (Gavelek & Breshahan, 2009, p. 141).

According to Vygotsky's social constructivist perspective, meaning is constructed through active engagement in social interactions (Au, 1998; Gavelek & Breshahan, 2009). He viewed children as active participants in their own learning who make use of the psychological tools available to them, particularly human and symbolic tools he referred to as mediators (Kozulin, 2003). He also believed that every function of a child's higher psychological development must occur twice: first on the social level or interpsychological level between two people, and then on the internal or intrapsychological level. At the interpsychological level, the child relies on reactions from another person as opposed to an object. This does not mean, however, that she passively receives cultural tools from her environment. Instead, the child appropriates these tools in an active and dynamic way in order to successfully accomplish the task at hand (Cole, 2010). Vygotsky (1978) gives the example of the development of the pointing gesture used by children to attain the objects they desire. The child does not begin immediately by pointing, but rather, she eventually discovers that unsuccessful attempts at grasping for an object are interpreted by the external other to mean the child wants the object. Eventually, the child refines the grasping gesture to a pointing gesture to get what she wants--a process called internalization (Vygotsky, 1978). Over time, children internalize the psychological tools unique to their culture—signs, symbols, texts, etc.—in a way that allows them to function therein (Kozulin, 2003).

Dorn (1996) refers to this process as the move from "other-regulatory (external) to selfregulatory (internal) behaviors" (p. 16). That is, children construct knowledge in social contexts through interactions with a more knowledgeable other, such as a teacher, and then engage in selfcontrol and self-evaluation of this knowledge (Kozulin, 2003; Zuckerman, 2003). Such learning is said to occur within the "zone of proximal development," an important construct in Vygotsky's cognitive theory.

The Zone of Proximal Development

Vygotsky (1978) defined the zone of proximal development (ZPD) as "the distance between the actual developmental level as determined by independent problem solving and the level of potential development as determined through problem solving under guidance or in collaboration with more capable peers" (p. 86). When a child is learning how to read, there are some tasks that she can do independently, such as identify the sound of the first letter of an unknown word. He must then rely on the guidance of the teacher to help with the unknown—the rest of the word. The teacher's role, then, is to not only help the child with this particular word, but to show him how to problem solve on *any* unknown word. Effective prompting (i.e., "does that look like another word you know" or " what sound does the next letter make"), will help the reader not just on the current unknown word, but also to develop strategies that he can use on any unknown word. While working in the zone of proximal development, the child is able to work towards mastery in collaboration with an adult or a more knowledgeable peer, and can do things he would not be able to accomplish alone (Au, 1998; Chaiklin, 2003).

ZPD and the gradual release model. Depending on the context, the learner can be at different stages within the zone of proximal development. Early on, the student may, in fact, not be very aware of the goal of the situation or the task, and therefore, the role of the more

knowledgeable other is to demonstrate or model (Tharp & Gallimore, 1988), while the role of the student is to imitate (Chaiklin, 2003). For example, the teacher may have a child who is not able to point to words place his hand over hers as she reads, pointing to the words while reading (one-to-one matching).

As the students gains more knowledge of the task, the role of the teacher shifts to one of assistance and guidance as the learner takes on increased responsibility for the task (Tharp & Gallimore, 1988). The task is gradually released to the learner (Meyer, 1993; Vygotsky, 1978). This "gradual release of responsibility" (Pearson & Gallagher, 1983) is that which takes place as the student takes on more responsibility for task completion through the process of guided practice. During this time of guided practice, the teacher takes on the work that is out of the grasp of the learner, such as the teacher who points at the words in the example above. As the learner gains more control over the task, the teacher begins to pull back her support. Finally, as the learner gains full control of the task, the learning is "fossilized", and assistance is no longer needed (Lyons, 2003; Pearson & Gallagher, 1983; Tharp & Gallimore, 1988). In the above example, the teacher asks the child to point to the words while she reads them, helping the child do so only if he loses his place. Once the reader has full control of one-to-one matching, he is able to read the text accurately without pointing at the words at all. The child can then be said to have reached the zone of actual development (Lyons, 2003). Once the child has full control of the learning event, he is ready to move on to new learning, and the cycle begins again.

The role of the more knowledgeable other. In any educational setting, the teacher plays the role of the "more knowledgeable other," whether she realizes this or not. In this role, she assigns work, provides guidance, and evaluates student learning. However, she may not be as effective as possible because she is unaware of the needs of the learner. That is, she does not

work within the learner's zone of proximal development because she does not understand this important component of instruction. During reading instruction, the teacher must be aware of the child's understanding of the tasks involved in the reading process itself. If there is an aspect of this process that the student does not grasp, the teacher must step in and provide the guidance and support needed at that time. If that does not happen, then the child will not gain any new understanding of reading and will not move forward in her knowledge about reading. For example:

Text: You were so little I could hold you up over my head.

Child: You were so little I could h—

Teacher: That word is "hold".

In this example, the teacher has simply told the word to the child instead of guiding the reader to a new understanding about text. While this does solve the immediate problem of the unknown word, it does not help the reader to gain additional knowledge about the reading process. Notice the difference in this example:

Text: You were so little I could hold you up over my head.

Child: You were so little I could h---

Teacher (knowing the child has successfully read the word "sold"): Does this look like another word you know?

Child: It looks like "sold".

Teacher: If you know "sold", then that word must be...

Child: hold!

Teacher: Try that and see if it looks right and makes sense.

Child: You were so little I could hold you up over my head.

Teacher: Did that look right and make sense?

Child: Yes!

In this example, the teacher led the child to use known information to solve an unknown word. The interaction between the teacher and the reader has added new information to the student's knowledge about reading: patterns in words often remain the same from word to word. This teacher was operating solidly within the child's zone of proximal development.

ZPD and literacy development. It is important to note that Vygotsky did not mean for this to be interpreted as a skills-based approach to learning. Chaiklin (2003) noted that the zone of proximal development is not concerned with specific skills, but rather, the development of the whole child. This is particularly important distinction for the field of literacy development. If one believes that reading is not a skills-based activity, but rather, a "message-getting, problem-solving activity, which increases in power and flexibility the more it is practiced" (Clay, 2001, p. 1), then the concept of the ZPD makes sense. In other words, the way children learn how to decode and make meaning from text is to experience text in its entirety, as opposed to "skill and drill" practice often seen in worksheet form. As the child encounters known words in a text, he is able to build confidence in his reading, allowing him to engage in problem-solving behavior on partially known or unknown words. It is critical then, that teachers engage young readers in the actual reading of text while closely observing their reading behavior, ready to assist only when necessary.

Clay (1972) also recognized reading as an ever-increasingly complex task, where the child can, "on the run, extract a sequence of cues from printed texts and relate these, one to another, so that he understands the precise message of the text" (p. 8). Through careful observation and thoughtful use of language, an astute teacher can aide this process. For example,

if a child misreads the word "came" as "come" in the sentence, "The dog came running across the field", the observant teacher knows whether to prompt the him to think about the structure of the story ("You said 'the dog come running across the field'. Does that sound right?") or to prompt the child to look more closely at the word ("You said 'the dog come running across the field'. Does that look like the word 'come'?). While the intended outcome is the same—the correction of the word "came"—the language used by the teacher needs to be what will help *this* child pay closer attention to a cuing system that he or she may be currently ignoring.

In reading instruction, the teacher acts as the human mediation agent for the child's learning. It is the responsibility of the adult, in this case the teacher, to determine the type and level of involvement most effective for enhancing the child's performance during a particular reading event (Kozulin, 2003). This is done through careful observation of what the child can do on his own and what the child can do with support (Clay, 2005c; Lyons, et al., 1993; Watson, 1999). Once this is determined, the teacher must choose her words carefully in order to be most efficient and effective (Clay, 2005a). The language through which a teacher supports a child through a new learning task is often referred to as "scaffolding"

Scaffolding: The Language of Assistance for Children

The concept of scaffolding was first explored by Vygotsky, although he did not call it as such. The term itself was brought into use by Wood, Bruner, and Ross (1976), who define scaffolding as a "process that enables a child or novice to solve a problem, carry out a task, or achieve a goal which would be beyond his unassisted efforts" (p. 90). Scaffolding allows the adult to control what is out of the reach of the learner, letting the learner's focus concentrate on "those elements that are within his range of competence" (Wood, Bruner, and Ross, 1976, p. 90).

This scaffolding can be found in the discourse that happens between and among teachers and students.

Discourse and Situated Identities

Gee (2014) defines discourse as "language-in-use" within specific contexts. When studying discourse, researchers must take into consideration the utterances of the speakers as well as the context in which they are spoken. Gee brings speaker identity to the foreground of analysis, where "we speak and listen, write and read, as particular kinds of people" (p. 20). In a school setting, for example, teachers speak and listen differently when interacting with peers than they might when interacting with students. Speakers must consider both the recipient of their words and how they wish the recipients to be positioned. In other words, to whom are we speaking, and what is it that we want that person to do with what we are saying?

In a typical classroom, the teacher has the ultimate authority to speak whenever she chooses simply because she is the teacher (Cazden, 2001). It is important then, to make sure that the words being spoken position the listeners, the children, to be learners in the classroom. It is the teacher's job to help children make sense of "learning, literacy, life, and themselves" (Johnston, 2004, p. 4). Teachers do this through their language in general, and through scaffolding specifically.

Literacy coaches, on the other hand, have a more complicated role when it comes to the language they use. Unlike the classroom teacher who has authority over the children in a classroom, literacy coaches must position themselves differently depending on the context in which they are operating (Rainville & Jones, 2008). According to Rainville and Jones (2008), coaches may use language to "wield power and position themselves in various ways as friend, colleague, authority, expert, learner and so forth (p. 441)." Gee (2014) refers to this as "situated

identities". With situated identities, individuals assume different identities within different activities. Literacy coaches may inquire about a colleague's children, ask a teacher to complete a document by a certain deadline, or make a suggestions for instruction in the classroom. In collaborative settings like grade-level meetings or coaching sessions, the literacy coach may assume the role as the more knowledgeable other, offering support using the language of scaffolding, much like a classroom teacher would for her students.

Scaffolding in the Classroom

Even though many scholars initially developed the notion of "scaffolding" to describe the role of parent to child (Meyer, 1993; Wood, Bruner, & Ross 1976), others soon saw its implications for teaching. In the classroom, the teacher assumes the role of the "more knowledgeable other" who provides guided support, or scaffolding, for each student in ways meant to enhance the learning of that particular student (Dorn, 1996; Rodgers, 2004). Scaffolded instruction allows teachers to assist students in the process of moving through the ZPD to eventual independent application of skills such as reading (Palinscar, 1986).

In scaffolded instruction, the teacher must first identify a skill or understanding about reading that is beginning to emerge for a student. Then, through careful attention and explicit instruction that makes the task simpler, the teacher creates a learning situation in which the child can successfully participate. For example, when young children begin writing, they may not recognize the need to put space between words. When teachers show them how to put two fingers down and start the word on the other side, or give students a physical tool like a popsicle stick to mark the space between words, they are providing a scaffold. This assumes that along with the tool, the teacher is also providing the verbal scaffold. It would not be enough to simply hand a popsicle stick to the writer; the teacher would need to explain what it is used for, saying

something like, "When we write, we put spaces between our words to make them easier to read. After you write a word, put your popsicle stick down like this (teacher demonstrates) and start your next word on the other side." One student may only need the popsicle stick for a day or two. For another student, the teacher may need to sit alongside the child and model the use of the popsicle stick several times before she understands the concept of putting spaces between words. The key to successful scaffolded instruction is the flexibility of the teacher to create a truly interactive learning context for the child (Palinscar, 1986).

Researchers have further developed this concept of scaffolded instruction in the classroom by exploring ways to describe not just the immediate interactions between teacher and student, but also the processes by which these scaffolds move learners from short-term problem solving to long-term understanding.

The domains of scaffolded instruction. Holton and Clarke (2006) define scaffolding as instruction that addresses both the immediate need for knowledge construction, as well as the long-term need for future independent learning. They refine these concepts by placing scaffolding into two domains: a) *conceptual scaffolding*, or the promotion of conceptual development and b) *heuristic scaffolding*, or development of problem-solving skills that transcend specific content. In reading instruction, conceptual scaffolding could occur in a first grade classroom where the teacher is instructing the letter names and their sounds. She tells the class that vowels can make two sounds: short and long. The children practice the two sounds for the vowels, and can produce them on demand. Heuristic scaffolding then, is teaching young readers to use those two sounds to figure out an unknown word. If a child reads "scat" for "skate", she could tell the child, "try the other sound for "a". The goal for the child in this

example is to use the vowel sound in a flexible way in order to produce a word they know makes sense in what they are reading.

Contingent scaffolded instruction. While Holton and Clarke (2006) define scaffolding by the intended outcome of the scaffold, other researchers have explained it in relationship to the level of support given by the teacher to the student. Beed, Hawkins, and Roller (1991) describe contingent scaffolded instruction as a way for teachers to both characterize their scaffolds by level of abstractness and to vary the levels of scaffolding in such a way as to gradually withdraw support from the student until the student achieves independence. Beed, et al. identified five levels of support, ranging from Level E (highest level) to Level A (lowest level). At Level E, the teacher simply models the expected response. For example, she might say, "When I read this word (skate) (pointing to the word in the sentence) as 'scat', I need to stop because it doesn't make sense. I am going to try the other sound for "a." Skate. I like to skate on the frozen lake. That sounds better." Level D invites student performance. Here the teacher models with some verbal explanation, then invites the child to try. For the child who reads "scat" for skate, the teacher may say, "Remember yesterday when we looked at how adding an 'e' to the end of a word will often change the vowel sound from short to long? Look at this word (points to 'skate'). What do you see at the end?" The child replies, "e". The teacher then responds, "Yes. That 'e' is going to make the 'a' in this word say its long sound. Try it." At Level C, the teacher cues specific elements of the task. She may say to the child who says "scat" for "skate", try the other sound for a. At Level B, the teacher cues strategies instead of specific elements ("Is there another sound you could try there?"). At Level A, the lowest level of support, the teacher simply provides general cues, such as, "What can you try?"

In order to successfully use contingent scaffolding, a teacher must constantly monitor student responses to text in order to adjust the scaffolding accordingly. If, for example, a Level B scaffold is not enough to help the child successfully decode the unknown word then a higherlevel scaffold must be used. Conversely, the teacher must also be aware of when a child is ready to take on more of the work on his own, requiring a lower-level scaffold. This flexibility of assistance on the part of the teacher, which occurs in the ZPD, is meant to move the reader toward independent problem solving.

Scaffolding as contingent tutoring. Wood (2003) further delineated the concept of scaffolding by identifying three conditions of what he calls "contingent tutoring":

- Instructional contingency, or deciding how to support the learner;
- Domain contingency, defined as deciding what to focus on next; and
- *Temporal contingency*, defined as the decision of if and when to intervene.

In the tutoring setting, the tutor needs to decide how to adjust support based not only on the current actions of the tutee, but also on previous attempts at the same task. At the same time, the tutor also has to determine rather quickly what to focus on next. This could mean either during the current task a decision that must be made immediately, or on future tasks, dictated by what is happening at the current moment. This requires a certain amount of flexibility on the part of the tutor (Wood, 2003), and a willingness to act in the moment (Clay, 2005a). In other words, while the tutor may start the reading with one tentative plan for instruction in mind, if something happens--maybe the reader is not using visual cues to help with partially known words when he has frequently used them in the past--the plan may need to suddenly shift to address the current misunderstanding.

A more recent study completed by Rodgers, D'Agostino, Harmey, Kelly, and Brownfield (2016) examined the scaffolding that occurred during the reading of the new book during one-toone reading intervention lessons. In this study, the researchers were interested not only in what the teacher said, but also how the students responded. Using fall, winter, and spring results of the Observation Survey of Early Literacy Achievement (Clay, 2005c), the researchers grouped the intervention teachers as having either higher or lower student outcomes. Next, they studied existing videos of intervention lessons in order to identify "talk cycles", defined as "periods of interaction between the teacher and a student during the first reading of the new book when the teacher helped the student problem solve a difficult word" (p. 350). Using Wood's (2003) three conditions for contingent tutoring, temporal contingency (when to offer help), instructional contingency (how much help to give), and domain contingency (what to focus on when giving help), these cycles were coded for the three types of contingencies.

When the low outcome group was compared with the high outcome group, the only type of contingency that was found to be statistically significant was domain contingency, which emphasizes the "what" over the "when" and the "how". Findings indicated that teachers who focused on the particular domain that challenged the student were eight times more likely to prompt the student to use the source of information (meaning, structure, visual) that he or she initially ignored. In other words, in order for a teacher to provide more effective scaffolds to students, they appear to need a strong domain knowledge (Rodgers, et al., 2016). This means that teachers are more aware of the cueing systems that students are not using as effectively, and are better able to draw students' attention to these cues.

Scaffolded instruction as assisted performance for children. Tharp and Gallimore (1988) call this mediation of the learning task "assisted performance" (p. 30). That is, in the zone

of proximal development, instructional conversations between teacher and student allow the student to perform at higher levels than could be accomplished alone. These researchers identified several forms of mediation in the classroom, each with a specific purpose to help assist children through the ZPD to independent performance of a particular strategy or skill. These include:

- *Modeling*. This is the act of imitating a behavior. While modeling of psychomotor skills is common in the classroom, modeling of cognitive skills is crucial as well.
- *Contingency management*. Here, the use of reward or punishment after a behavior has occurred is intended to either encourage or discourage the behavior. Praise and encouragement after a behavior can strengthen the behavior, allowing for purposeful movement through the ZPD.
- *Feeding-back*. Feeding-back allows teachers to guide student performance, and can take many forms, such as test scores, grades, or conversation in interactive teaching.
- *Instructing*. This involves asking for a specific action, and tends to take two forms in the classroom: Matters of behavior ("sit down in your seats") and assignment of tasks ("complete this worksheet"). Instructing can also be used to help guide the desired behavior ("read this paragraph again to find the answer").
- *Questioning.* A form of assisted performance, questioning requires a linguistic response. Questions can be either for assessment or assistance. Assessment questions determine the level performance without assistance, whereas assistance questions guide the student to produce mental operations that he or she could not produce independently.

• *Cognitive structuring*. Cognitive structuring is the means by which a teacher provides structures for thinking and acting. A teacher can define ideas and concepts for students using cognitive structuring. For example, through conversation, a teacher can help a student understand themes, such as "friendship" or "perseverance".

The deliberate use of these forms of mediation enables a teacher to scaffold students in all areas of literacy instruction, from basic decoding skills to higher-level thinking about text. The key to assisted performance is the contribution of both teacher and student to the learning task, which takes place in the form of dialogue (Ankrum, Genest, & Belcastro, 2014; Lyons, Pinnell, & DeFord, 1993; Palinscar, 1986; Rodgers, 2004; Tharp & Gallimore, 1988).

Scaffolding and the Apprenticeship Model

Literacy activities that occur in the zone of proximal development involve a teacher and a student interacting to construct meaning from text, specifically, working to develop problemsolving behavior and self-regulation (Clay, 2001; Clay, 2005b; Dorn, 1996; Lyons, Pinnell, & DeFord, 1993). Because the act of reading is not an innate concept (Clay, 2005a), the child is dependent on the more knowledgeable other, whether it be the parent or the teacher, to scaffold him or her into and through this complex task. During this time, the goal for the child is to take control of his or own thinking about text under the guidance of the teacher. This guidance of a novice by a more skilled other has often been referred to as an apprenticeship relationship (Dorn, French, & Jones, 1998; Dorn & Jones, 2012; Egan & Gajdamaschko, 2003; Rogoff, 1990). Dorn and Jones (2012) identify seven principles of the apprenticeship to literacy:

- observation and responsive teaching
- modeling and coaching
- clear and relevant language for problem solving

- adjustable and self-destructing scaffolds
- structured routines
- assisted and independent work
- transfer

In order to model and coach through appropriate scaffolds, Dorn and Jones (2012) note that the teacher must first and foremost be observant in order to know what the child can do unassisted, as well as what he or she can do with assistance. This is best discovered through careful observation and responsive teaching that is meticulously documented so that this information can be referred to as each lesson is planned. During instruction, the teacher models the desired literacy behaviors for the student, while also providing instruction through explicit explanation. (Clay, 2005b; Dorn & Jones, 2012). Such instructional guidance supports the child's efforts to be successful by allowing him or her to assume more of the responsibility for the task. The teaching moves provided during this coaching must be carefully chosen—just the right amount of support at just the right time (Dorn, et al., 1998; Rodgers, 2004). As the apprenticeship continues, the teacher must be observant enough to notice when the child is able to take on more of the task for him or herself, and therefore, provide less support. At the same time, the she must also recognize when some part of the task has become difficult, and be willing to provide more support as long as is necessary (Rodgers, 2004). Finally, the educator must teach for transfer, that is, opportunities must be provided for the child to try his or her new problemsolving behaviors and skills across a variety of situations (Dorn & Jones, 2012). This apprenticeship model is highly evident in one framework for literacy instruction, namely, Reading Recovery[®].

Reading Recovery

Reading Recovery: A Brief History

Reading Recovery, an early intervention program for low-achieving first graders, can trace its beginnings back to the doctoral work of Marie Clay in her native Auckland, New Zealand. Clay began her teaching career as an educator of children with special needs. While researching for her master's degree, Clay found that, although students with special needs in other countries were able to learn to read above their "mental age," the same was not true in New Zealand (Ballantyne, 2009). She came to the conclusion that instruction for children with reading disabilities in New Zealand needed to change in three ways: a) instruction needed to be individualized, b) the focus of instruction needed to be on prevention rather than remediation, and c) instruction should be designed to increase children's confidence and motivation (Ballantyne, 2009).

Clay's Early Work. Clay began her doctoral work in the early 1960s, a time when reading instruction was heavily based on behaviorism; the materials of choice for reading instruction included stories with highly controlled vocabulary and skill-drill phonics exercises (Alexander & Fox, 2008). In contrast, Clay took a more developmental perspective on how children learned to read (Ballantyne, 2009; Clay, 1978). For her doctoral work in 1963 and 1964, Clay observed reading and writing behaviors of 139 children in their first year of school. The purpose of her research was to describe their response to instruction in an effort to find ways to prevent difficulties from beginning. What she found was a wide variety of responses to instruction, and that teachers delayed instruction with children for whom progress was slow (Ballantyne, 2009). While Clay did recognize the correlation between general intelligence, reading readiness scores, and later reading achievement, she did not find these correlations

strong enough to delay formal reading instruction nor the process of identifying reading difficulties (Ballantyne, 2009; Clay, 1972). She theorized that early identification and intervention of children for whom the reading process has become problematic could lead to fewer students with reading difficulties two to three years after starting school (Clay, 1972; Clay, 1979).

Clay spent the next several years working to develop assessments designed to identify early reading difficulties. During this time, she created and validated several assessment tasks: a running record of reading behavior, the Letter Identification Test, the Clay Word Test, and the Conventions of Written Language Test, which eventually became the Concepts About Print Test (Ballantyne, 2009). After using these assessments on five-year-olds at the beginning, middle, and end of their first year of school, Clay began to find large gaps in the literacy development between low- and high-scoring children (Ballantyne, 2009). Even though she attempted to share her work widely at the national level to push for changes in the way young children were instructed in reading, her work was largely ignored by the New Zealand government (Ballantyne, 2009) throughout the late 1960s.

The Beginnings of Reading Recovery. Starting in the early 1970s, interest in early literacy instruction began to grow among New Zealand's teachers and parents. Marie Clay, as an active member of the International Reading Association, advocated both home and abroad for remediation and *recovery* of early reading difficulties along with specialized training for teachers of reading (Ballantyne, 2009). In early 1975, Clay was able to secure grant funding for a small study focusing on ways teachers could work one-on-one with students (Ballantyne, 2009). She spent a year closely observing and documenting one teacher who worked with low-achieving students. Clay found that with careful observation, teachers could respond effectively to student

behaviors and cues as they instructed on literacy tasks (Ballantyne, 2009; Pinnell, 1994). She then recruited a team of observers, and together, they focused on the student-teacher interactions that were most effective in helping children make gains in reading (Ballantyne, 2009; Reading Recovery Council, 2000). Over a span of two years, eight team members worked with two six-year-olds two to three times a week. Some of those lessons occurred behind a one-way viewing window to allow for observation and discussion of teaching procedures and student progress. Throughout the study, various teaching procedures were tried, modified, and even discarded. The team discovered that when the focus of instruction was on the strengths of the students, individualized lessons could be planned which were quite effective in accelerating six-year-old students in reading and writing (Ballantyne, 2009).

In 1977, Clay requested permission from the New Zealand Department of Education to complete clinical trials in the Auckland schools, which then offered the services of five full-time teachers to aid in the implementation of Reading Recovery in five schools in Zealand. One experienced teacher from each school was chosen to train in this intervention, now called Reading Recovery. From September 1977 to September 1978, the five teachers tutored 122 children, meeting every two weeks with the research team, where they were gradually introduced to the teaching procedures that had been found to be most effective during the previous clinical trial. At each session, one of the teachers brought a student to teach in front of the one-way viewing window as had been done in the previous study, to allow for observation and discussion of teaching procedures. Finally, all participating teachers kept diaries or log books where they reflected on each teaching session (Clay, 2009).

The field trials resulted in great success, with most below-level students moving quickly into the average range of their classrooms (Clay, 2009; Reading Recovery Council, 2000).

Furthermore, follow up studies on these same students showed that they were able to maintain their gains, and remain in the average performance band of their peers in subsequent years (Clay, 2009). Clay brought Barbara Watson, a member of the development team, into the project full-time and by the end of 1979, she had trained almost 100 teachers, launching Reading Recovery in New Zealand (Ballantyne, 2009).

Reading Recovery in the United States. Reading Recovery was first introduced in the United States in 1982 when it was brought to the attention of the Ohio State University literacy department by graduate student Moira McKenzie. After months of research and a trip to New Zealand to study the program, Gay Su Pinnell and Charlotte Huck were able to bring the program to Ohio State using a variety of grant funds. In 1984, Marie Clay and Barbara Watson trained the first U.S. Reading Recovery team, and Reading Recovery lessons began in the Columbus, OH school district in 1985 (Reading Recovery Council, 2000). By 1987, 79% of lowachieving first-graders were reaching average reading levels across the state of Ohio (Lyons, 1998). In response to these positive results, the U.S. National Diffusion Network (NDN), a government project that funded effective instructional programs in U.S. schools, recognized Reading Recovery as an "exemplary research-based program" (Lyons, 1998). NDN provided funding to other states that wished to train teachers in Reading Recovery, with Clemson University in South Carolina, National-Louis University in Illinois, and Western Michigan University some of the first established university training centers (Reading Recovery Council, 2000). As of 2016, over 1.9 million children have been taught in either Reading Recovery or Descubriendo la Lectura (the Spanish version of Reading Recovery), with over 46,000 students provided instruction during the 2014-2015 school year (D'Augostino & Brownfield, 2016).

Research has shown Reading Recovery to be one of the most successful interventions for at-risk first-graders (Lyons, et al., 1994). This is most likely due to its balanced approach to phonological awareness, phonics instruction, and use of contextual information while reading. When taught together, these aspects of reading allow teachers to work toward the goal of creating self-regulating systems in children that allow them to monitor their own reading for accuracy and understanding (Clay, 1991; Hobsbaum, et al., 1996; Pinnell, et al., 1994). This balanced approach is evident across all the components of the Reading Recovery lesson.

Scaffolding in Reading Recovery Instruction

Marie Clay never clearly identified the work of Vygotsky as the basis for her Reading Recovery framework, and in fact, states, "no thought was given to Vygotsky's theories during this program development" (Clay & Cazden, 1990, p. 353). However, the collaboration between teacher and student during the Reading Recovery lesson is reminiscent of the work of Vygotsky and other constructivist theorists and researchers, and Clay does concede that "it is possible to interpret features of [Reading Recovery] in Vygotskian terms" (Clay & Cazden, 1990, p. 353). American researchers who have studied and written about Reading Recovery have made a much stronger link to the writings and work of Vygotsky (Dorn, 1999; Doyle, 2013; Lyons, Pinnell, & DeFord, 1993), particularly when focusing on the teacher-student interactions.

During each part of the Reading Recovery lesson, the teacher acts as the mediator for the child through conversations (Clay, 2005b; Pinnell, 1994). Each of the lesson components is designed to give the student the opportunity to participate successfully in the acts of reading and writing (Lyons, et al., 1993) with the support of the Reading Recovery teacher. Throughout the lesson, the teacher analyzes the child's strategies, providing support through carefully chosen scaffolds as needed. While there may be times when less teacher involvement is required, such

as during the rereading of the familiar books, other portions of the lesson require much more involvement and scaffolding.

Although Clay may not have been drawing directly from the work of Vygotsky, she understood the importance of gathering information about what a child knows, both full and partial, before beginning the series of Reading Recovery lessons. This information is gathered through *The Observation Survey* (Clay, 2002, 2005).

The Observation Survey. *The Observation Survey* (Clay, 2002, 2005) is a valid and reliable series of tasks that explore what young children know about sounds, letters, words, and text reading. Clay designed this series of task to give children the opportunity to work with written language in a variety of ways. These tasks, when performed by early readers, tell teachers something about how children search for and use the information in printed text (Clay, 2005c). The tasks are not meant to be used as assessment tools in isolation; but rather, taken as a whole to create a picture of what the reader knows about how text works. The tasks of *The Observation Survey* are as follows:

- *Letter Identification*. Used to find out what letters a child know, as well as his preferred method of identification. Acceptable responses include letter names, letter sounds, or words that start with the letter.
- *Word Test.* Students read a list of high frequency words known as the Ohio Word Test. The purpose of this task is to determine to what extent a child is building a reading vocabulary.
- *Concepts About Print.* Used to find out what a child knows about print. This includes concepts of letters and words, directionality, and punctuation.
- *Writing Vocabulary*. Used to determine to what extent a child is building a basic writing vocabulary.
- *Hearing and Recording Sounds in Words*. Used to find out how a child represents sounds in words.

• *Text Reading*. Used to find out what a child does while reading continuous text and also to determine the child's instructional reading level.

Once the tasks of *The Observation Survey* are completed, the Reading Recovery teacher uses the information gathered about the child's understanding of literacy and begins the series of lessons. The first ten days, dedicated to discovery, is called *Roaming Around the Known*.

Roaming Around the Known. Reading Recovery as an approach requires a specific framework of instruction that is used as a scaffold, and that can be varied based upon the immediate needs of individual learners. Lessons take place daily over the course of 12-20 weeks, with the first two weeks of lessons spent Roaming Around the Known, a time that is meant to be "an in-depth observational period" (Dorn, 1996, p. 17) where the focus is on what the child already knows (Clay, 1995). The goal of the roaming period is to find out what the child knows about reading and writing through conversations and observations (Dorn, 1996) and build upon that knowledge through reading, writing, and talking. It is also used to build a relationship of trust and collaboration between the child and the teacher. The instruction that occurs at this time is carried out in a firm manner within the child's known competencies, and not based on the teacher's preconceived agenda (Clay, 2005a). Another goal of the roaming period is to allow the child to feel comfortable with the teacher and to experience reading and writing as enjoyable activities. At the same time, the teacher is closely observing the child's reading and writing behaviors in order to attain a fuller understanding of what he or she knows and can do, as well as to uncover any unhelpful behaviors that the child may have already learned (Clay, 2005a).

During the roaming period, the child is invited to participate in shared activities in ways the teacher knows he or she is able based on the results of *The Observation Survey* (Clay, 2005a). Teacher and student can share the reading of simple texts or the writing of simple stories. During this time, the teacher makes deliberate choices of texts to ensure success on the part of

the child. These texts contain words that are already known to the child, or simple patterns that the child will be able to read after one or two presentations. When moving from the roaming period into lessons, Clay (2005) reminds teachers to link something easy with something hard, always asking oneself, "What is the most facilitating thing I can call for (for this child)?" (Clay, 2005a, pg. 39). Prompts to the child are chosen carefully, and are meant to "send the child in search of a response in his network of responses" (Clay, 2005a, pg. 39). This mindful attention to cuing to what the child knows allows the teacher, the more knowledgeable other, to work with the child in his or her ZPD.

Dorn (1996) examined teacher and child talk and action within the context of the ten-day *Roaming Around the Known* portion of the Reading Recovery series of lessons. The participants of this study were one Reading Recovery teacher and two students receiving individual lessons. Data collected and analyzed in this study included audio and video tapes, teacher observation notes, student writing samples, researcher notes, and several hundred pages of transcribed teacher-student interactions.

Through data-analysis, Dorn found that the children in this study were able to move some construction of literate awareness and behavior from the interpsychological plane to the intrapsychological plane due to the teacher's scaffolded language, both feedback and feedforward talk, along with the participatory language and actions of the child. In other words, when these two children participated in social interactions with their Reading Recovery teacher during *Roaming Around the Known*, they were able to participate in literacy tasks that were slightly above their independent level of reading, and in fact, were able to take on more of the responsibilities of the literacy tasks as the lessons progressed. One example of this occurred during text reading. At the beginning of the series of lessons, the teacher simply read the text to

the child. The following day, the child initiated the reading of the author's name, noticed that the dedication page had been skipped, and read the words "For Margaret" by himself. As the child took on more of the task himself, he demonstrated his ability to self-regulate the literacy task with progressively less help from his teacher.

The findings of this study support the theory that careful observation of a child's understanding of literacy concepts is important for regulation of the type of scaffolding language and actions that a teacher provides (Bruner, 1976). If the teacher provides various degrees of support based on these observations, then language and action can work in complementary fashion to shape and regulate a child's understanding of the various concepts of literacy (Dorn, 1996).

Towards the end of the two-week roaming period, the teacher begins to shift higher levels of responsibility for learning to the child through a more formal lesson structure. While Reading Recovery is not a scripted program, every Reading Recovery lesson contains the same components, usually completed in the same order every day. During each of these lesson segments, the teacher carefully observes the child's reading and writing behaviors, and provides scaffolds as necessary. The components of a Reading Recovery lesson are described below, and are designed as a cohesive, consistent, and predictable structure that allows the teacher to help the child achieve fast, independent processing systems while reading and writing.

Rereading familiar books. Each child has a collection of books that have been introduced and read during previous lessons. At the beginning of the lesson, the child reads two or three of these familiar books as this allows her to put together all that she has learned about print into a successful reading experience. Rereading is an excellent way to build fluency as well (Clay, 2005b; Lyons, et al., 1993). Because the text being read at this point in the lesson is

familiar, the child has the opportunity to practice strategies "on the run" (Clay, 1972; Pinnell, 1994) with a text that is easy. Less support is needed from the teacher, although she should be prepared to lend assistance if needed. For example, if the child hesitates while reading, the teacher can give a low-support, general cue (Beed, et al., 1991; Rodgers, 2004) such as, "What can you try?"

Rereading yesterday's new book. After the child has read one or two familiar books, he then rereads the book that was introduced at the end of the previous day's lesson. While the child reads this book independently, the teacher takes a running record, which is a "systematic procedure for recording reading behaviours observed during text reading" (Clay, 2001). In other words, this assessment is a way for teachers to record what the child says and does during the reading of this text. The teacher annotates these behaviors with a common set of marks that indicate when the child has read the text accurately and when he has veered from the printed text. On the running record, the teacher also records the cues the reader appears to have used when a miscue or a self-correct is made (Lyons, et al., 1993). During the reading of yesterday's new book, the teacher does not intervene, but rather, observes and records the child's strategies while reading (Clay, 2005b; Lyons, et al., 1993), analyzing the behavior, looking for patterns, and planning her teaching points for this book (Clay, 2001; Clay 2005).

This reading gives the child the chance to practice independently what has been taught throughout the series of lessons, and provides the teacher with the opportunity to observe the child's independent processing on a relatively novel text. Upon completion of the reading, the teacher identifies a few teaching points for the child, both things that were done well and things that need extra attention (Clay, 2005b; Lyons, et al., 1993). For example, a teacher may show the student a place in the text where he successfully used a strategy. The teacher's words here affirm

what the child has done well, contributing to his self-extending system. She then takes the reader to another place where he did not use that strategy and prompts the child to practice the strategy there. This is evidence of Woods' (2003) concept of scaffolding through contingent tutoring: the teacher has decided to intervene (temporal contingency), has decided what to focus on within this text (domain contingency), and has chosen her words carefully to best improve this child's competencies on text (instructional contingency).

Letter identification and breaking words into parts. This lesson segment is where the teacher focuses on letter identification and discrimination, as well as word building and analysis. Using tools such as magnetic letters and writing boards, the teacher directly and explicitly links what the child knows to new features in letters and words, leading the child to improved rapid recognition of letters and word building. The level of scaffold is determined by the child's familiarity with the letters and words the teacher has chosen. For example, the teacher may ask the child to use letters to assemble a word that has been frequently encountered in print, and that the child knows fairly well. Very little teacher scaffolding is necessary here because the word is within the child's known sight vocabulary. The teacher may then use the known word to scaffold the child to an unknown word that will be encountered in the new book later in the lesson. Here, the teacher assumes more of the work, with the child first observing and then helping. For example, the teacher has the child build the word *and* with magnetic letters. This is a word the child knows well, so he is able to do it quickly and without teacher assistance. Now the teacher is ready to introduce the word sand, which is in the new book. The teacher first models adding the s to the front of *and*, creating the word *sand*, and then has the child do the same thing. This gradual release of responsibility allows the child to gain understanding of how the known can be used to solve the unknown. When the word sand is encountered during the reading of the new book, the

teacher will observe the child's attempts on this new word, prompting and supporting the child as necessary.

Writing a story. Next, the child and the teacher engage in authentic conversations in order to compose an oral message, which is then translated into a written message. Usually, the message is something the child has produced during conversation with the teacher (e.g., "Yesterday I went to my brother's soccer game."). Once the message is orally composed, the child, with the help of the teacher, writes the message in the writing notebook, which contains a page for practicing letters and words and a page for composing the text (Clay, 2005b; Lyons, et al., 1993). With carefully chosen scaffolds, the teacher leads the child to discoveries about directionality, letter formation, and listening to sounds in words. She then invites the student to write the parts he knows, but will write what is not known herself. This scaffolding process is beneficial in two ways: it allows the task of writing a message to be within the child's capabilities, where he is only responsible for what he knows how to do (Clay, 2005b); and it provides an opportunity for the teacher to model writing of both letters and words that are not yet know to the child (Rodgers, 2000).

After the student's story is written, the teacher records it on a sentence strip, which is then cut up word-by-word. Next, the child reconstructs the sentence word-by-word in order to see how messages come together. He then reads the reconstructed sentence, demonstrating phrasing and fluency.

Introduction and reading of a new book. With the introduction of the new book, the teacher prepares the student for a successful first read of the text. There may be a discussion about the plot of the story, new vocabulary, and tricky sentence structures. Any unusual language structures are practiced ahead of time in order to prepare the child to read the story. New stories

give the student the opportunity to practice his new understandings about text. As the child reads the story for the first time, the teacher scaffolds as necessary, instructing for strategies and problem-solving behavior (Lyons, et al., 1993). The reading of the new book is one example of a time when more teacher involvement is necessary because it is meant to be within the child's control, but at the same time, include new learning for him (Clay, 2005b). The new book must be chosen very carefully by the teacher (Clay & Cazden, 1990; Dorn, et al., 1998; Lyons, et al., 1993) in order to meet both of these requirements. When choosing a book for the student, the teacher is mindful of his strengths and challenges with reading (Clay, 2005b). The new book should present opportunities for practicing newly acquired skills, while simultaneously be interesting and engaging for the reader (Clay, 2005b).

During the book introduction, the teacher increases the accessibility to the text through carefully chosen utterances: new or unusual words are given in context, unexpected or unusual language structures are practiced (Clay, 1991; Clay & Cazden, 1990). Because she has been keeping careful records, the teacher is aware of words that are fully known, partially known, and not at all known to this reader. The teacher points out a few fully known words to the child during the book introduction in order to give the child an anchor on the page. Partially known words are pointed out and practiced. Words that are not at all known may simply be told to the child, particularly if they are not easily decodable for this child. In addition, new or unusual language structures are identified and practiced. For example, in the text, a parent may tell a child to "Come away!" which, if this is not an utterance that is used by this child may cause confusion and loss of meaning while reading. Finally, surprising or unexpected plot lines may be discussed so that the child is prepared for what is coming in the book. These activities not only

prepare the child to read the new book, but also invite him into the language of the culture of literacy and books (Clay, 2005b).

The role of the teacher during the introduction and first read of the new book is to help the child develop comprehension and word-reading strategies through a continuum of language prompts ranging from high to low support depending on the immediate needs of the child. High support might take the form of explicit explanation and demonstration of reading strategies, while low support might be a simple celebration of student participation (Dorn & Soffos, 2005; Hobsbaum, et al, 1996). This strategic scaffolding is important to the development of a selfextending system of literacy: the system that good readers develop that allows them to apply what they know about reading and writing to any text they may encounter. The support must be enough that the child can successfully read the text, but at the same time, not so much that the child ceases to be the one in charge of the task (Hobsbaum, et al., 1996). As the child reads the text for the first time, the teacher closely observes the reading behavior (Pinnell, et al., 1994) and responds to the reading as necessary to keep the reader focused on the meaning of the text.

While Reading Recovery has been found to be an effective method of instruction for young readers who lag behind their peers in reading, these lessons make up only a small part of their instruction in reading, given that they receive the bulk of their reading instruction in the regular classroom. One way in which a teacher can provide good first teaching (Fountas & Pinnell, 1996) for all children in a classroom is through small group reading instruction, or guided reading.

Guided Reading

Guided Reading: A Brief History

While research has supported the notion that scaffolded instruction can accelerate the learning of at-risk children in a one-to-one setting like Reading Recovery, can the same be true in a small group setting? Small group reading instruction, often called "guided reading", has been in existence in a variety of formats for over 100 years (Ford & Opitz; 2011; Pinnell & Fountas, 2010). Early guided reading was traditionally conducted whole-class and was presented as a model for conducting a reading lesson (Ford & Opitz, 2011) which involved four components: 1) prepare the students to read the text by setting a purpose for reading and activating background knowledge; 2) allow the students to read the text silently, in its entirety in order to get the wholeness of the story and practice reading skills; 3) reread for new purposes; and 4) complete follow-up activities and answer the motivating question.

From the 1950s until the mid-1990s, guided reading groups were organized as static, homogeneous ability groups (Ford & Opitz, 2011). Research conducted during the 1990s, however, gave evidence of the problems with this type of grouping, namely, low-quality instruction followed by a plethora of worksheets and ongoing negative social stigma (Allington, 1983; Ford & Opitz, 2011; Fountas & Pinnell, 2010).

Contemporary Guided Reading

In 1996, Fountas and Pinnell published *Guided reading: Good first teaching for all children*. This text, grounded in Fountas and Pinnell's work in Reading Recovery (Fountas & Pinnell, 2015), defined guided reading as "a context in which a teacher supports each reader's development of effective strategies for processing novel texts at increasingly challenging levels of difficulty" (Fountas & Pinnell, 1996). In this model of flexible small-group instruction,

teachers work with children who are able to read similar levels of text using similar processes. As with earlier guided reading models, the teacher sets the purpose for reading through a brief book introduction then allows the children to read the text in its entirety. As the students read, the teacher works with each student, providing scaffolded support as needed by each child as they begin to apply reading strategies to a novel text (Dorn, French, & Jones, 1998; Fountas & Pinnell, 1996). As with Reading Recovery, the scaffolds provided by the teachers are very important for moving the child toward independent strategy use while reading. For children who are not progressing as quickly as their peers, the format of guided reading can be combined with the constructs of Reading Recovery to create effective small-group reading interventions, particularly when taught by trained Reading Recovery teachers.

Small Group Reading Interventions

Effective small-group instruction as an intervention is particularly important for schools that do not wish to commit to a one-on-one intervention like Reading Recovery or do not have the resources to employ enough Reading Recovery teachers to work with all children who need early intervention (Dorn & Allen, 1995). In three different studies described below, the Reading Recovery lesson was modified and administered to small groups of children with promising results.

Pinnell, Lyons, DeFord, Bryk, and Seltzer (1994) conducted a study comparing results of Reading Recovery with three other treatment models: Reading Success (RS), a one-to-one tutoring program similar to Reading Recovery taught by teachers with an abbreviated Reading Recovery training plan; Direct Instruction Skills Plan (DISP), a one-to-one tutoring program with an emphasis on skills instruction taught by teachers who received three days of in-service training in skills instruction; and Reading and Writing Group (RWG), a small-group intervention

taught by trained Reading Recovery teachers. There was also a control group, which consisted of existing Chapter One programs for first graders in the schools where the previously listed treatments were applied. Teachers in the control group received no additional training, and were instructed to teach their small-group lessons as they normally would. Pretest data included the Mason Early Reading Test, a dictation task, and a text reading level assessment. Posttest data included another dictation task, text reading level assessment, Woodcock Reading Mastery, and the Gates-MacGinitie Reading Test. Qualitative analysis was also completed on videotapes of several lessons in each treatment. Pinnell, et al. (1994) wanted to know which components of these models contributed to student success. Was it the one-to-one setting? The professional development provided to the teachers before and during instruction? or Was the lesson framework the important piece? The four models were chosen in attempt to contrast these different components.

Results of this studied showed that Reading Recovery was the only method that resulted in significant effects on posttest measures. Although the time frame of the lessons was similar, when compared to the RS teachers, RR teachers were more effective, most likely due to the difference in length and type of professional development and instruction in Reading Recovery teaching procedures received by the two sets of teachers (Pinnell, et al., 1994). For example, the Reading Recovery teachers spend an entire year in training, compared to just two weeks of intensive training (70 hours) at the beginning of the school year for the Reading Success teachers. Reading Recovery teachers also participated in behind-the-glass demonstrations, where they were able to observe and discuss lessons as they happened. The Reading Success teachers did not have this opportunity.

Posttest data showed that while the RWG children did not score as high as the Reading Recovery children, they did outscore the Reading Success children, the Direct Instruction Skills Plan children, and the control group. When the researchers examined the data from RWG teachers, they found that these teachers were more likely to use interactions with students as demonstrations for the other members of the group than as individual teaching moves. While the RWG teachers were not in training during the year of the study, they had received Reading Recovery training previously and were in fact working as Reading Recovery teachers for part of their day.

Pinnell, et al. (1994) concluded that while one-on-one instruction is still the best approach for the neediest of students, the modest success of the RWG groups indicates that with modifications, the Reading Recovery framework can be successful with small groups of students, particularly when those small groups are taught by Reading Recovery-trained teachers. This may be because of the type of training and professional development Reading Recovery teachers receive. Professional development for Reading Recovery teachers is ongoing and experiential; it encourages teachers to learn, practice, reflect, and collaborate on an ongoing basis.

In a three-year study conducted by Dorn and Allen (1995), a small-group intervention model was implemented to meet the needs of 28 public schools in Arkansas. These schools were not able to hire as many Reading Recovery teachers as were needed to serve all first graders who qualified for Reading Recovery, so the existing Reading Recovery teachers were given extra training in small-group reading instruction based on the Reading Recovery model. Each Reading Recovery teacher then worked on a daily basis with five Reading Recovery students and two small groups consisting of five first-graders who qualified for Reading Recovery, but were on the waiting list due to lack of space in the Reading Recovery program..

By year three of the study, the small groups were meeting for 45 minutes per day using a lesson model very similar to Reading Recovery, but which included extra work with letters and word building to address students' limited print knowledge. This particular study analyzed the outcomes of 231 children who received intervention services: 95 who received Reading Recovery only, 93 who received small-group instruction only, and 43 who received both small group instruction followed by Reading Recovery lessons. Of the 93 students who received small-group instruction only, 28 were able to reach the average level of their class and therefore did not need Reading Recovery services. More than half of the children (56%) who went into Reading Recovery after the small-group instruction were able to discontinue lessons after a much shorter period of time—an average of 25 lessons as compared to the average of 65 lessons needed for discontinuation by the children who received only Reading Recovery. In addition, during the school year of this study, Reading Recovery teachers were able to work with an average of 21 students per year compared to the 10 students per year these teachers might average if that was all he or she did all day (Shanahan & Barr, 1995).

Finally, Iverson, Tunmer, and Chapman (2005) conducted both a pilot study and an experimental study to find out the effect of group size on the Reading Recovery teaching model. In the pilot study, six Reading Recovery trained teachers in New Zealand worked with a Reading Recovery trainer to develop a modified lesson plan for using Reading Recovery procedures with pairs of students. One modification made was the addition of a component called *fluent reading and writing practice*. This procedure expanded Clay's (1993) recommendation that only a few seconds be spent on recently learned words to a full two to three minutes on intense review of words chosen based on individual children's needs. The authors of this study do no indicate exactly what this review component looked like. Another modification made by these teachers

was the addition of daily work on analogy training, which occurred after the reading of familiar books but before the reading of the previous day's new book. Here, the teachers chose words from the students' familiar books to use during the analogy training. This training was conducted in a variety of ways, starting with onset/rime and moving into manipulation of medial and final letters as well as embedded clusters. During the text reading and writing portions of the lesson, the teachers worked with a focus child each day, including the other child when appropriate. The teachers were surprised to find that the children actually worked in competition and cooperation with one another during the lessons, leading to a positive group dynamic.

The experimental study was completed in five schools in Florida, where ten teachers were selected to participate in the study, none of whom had previously received Reading Recovery training. These teachers were trained to administer the *Observation Survey* (Clay, 1993), which they then used to identify the 75 first-graders who participated in the study. All of the children were placed into matched triplets, with one child receiving individual lessons and the other two receiving small-group lessons. The ten teachers participated in Reading Recovery training throughout the study. The results showed that while both groups made statistically significant (p < .001) growth throughout the year when compared to nontreatment comparison groups, the difference between the groups was not statistically significant (p > .05). Thus, the results of these two studies show that the Reading Recovery format can be successfully modified for groups of more than one student.

Two-Tiered Scaffolding

The common thread through the success of these small-group reading interventions appears to be the professional development that teachers received before and during the time of the studies. In each case, the teachers who provided instruction to the groups of children that

made the most growth were engaged in Reading Recovery professional development. Reading Recovery teachers engage in ongoing professional development, beginning in their first year as a Recovery Teacher. Gaffney and Anderson (1991) refer to this model as a two-tiered model of scaffolding, where the first tier is the teacher-to child support and the send tier is the teacher-toteacher support. In this model, the second tier of scaffolding is driven by the first (Gaffney & Anderson, 1991) and is interactive in nature (Wilkinson & Gaffney, 2015). In other words, as teachers are engaged in providing reading instruction for students, they themselves are receiving ongoing support from a more knowledgeable other at the same time in order to extend their own knowledge. In the Reading Recovery model, first-year Reading Recovery teachers participate in graduate level classes while simultaneously providing Reading Recovery lessons to students. This professional development continues even after the series of graduate level classes concludes, as they continue to meet regularly with other Reading Recovery teachers, as well as with their university-prepared teacher leaders (Lyons, Pinnell, & DeFord, 1993). The thread of interaction and collaboration is woven throughout these sessions, as teachers work together to analyze and reflect on their teaching practices (Lyons & Pinnell, 1999), while at the same time, enlisting the expertise of the more knowledgeable other, in this case, the teacher leader. The sociocultural nature of these interactions among adults closely mirrors those that occur in classrooms among teachers and students. Rogoff (1990) describes this relationship as an "apprenticeship model," where active learners work with more skilled partners on problemsolving activities.

Scaffolding: The Language of Assistance for Adults

The apprenticeship model of learning is not confined to the teacher-child or parent-child relationship. If the purpose of scaffolding is to bring a learner to a new place of understanding

through mediation from a more knowledgeable other, then certainly this relationship can occur among adults. Rogoff (1990) identifies the apprenticeship model as a place where a group of novices, or peers, serve as a resource for one another as they develop skills and understanding in a new domain. Within this group of peers is one person who is more skillful than the other novices and, as an expert, holds the broader vision of the new domain of learning, while also still developing a greater understanding of the new domain.

Theory of Assisted Performance for Teachers

Just as children require varied amounts of assistance as they move through the zone of proximal development, so also do teachers who are working in a setting of collaboration and support. Tharp and Gallimore (1988) recognized that although theories of assisted performance often refer to the adult-child relationship, they can readily be applied to situations of adult learning as well. In Reading Recovery, for example, teachers bring a student "behind the glass," which means that while she is working with the student on one side of a two-way mirror, the teacher leader is observing and discussing the lesson with other Reading Recovery teachers on the other side. The intent of this process is not to critique the educator who is teaching, but rather, to "analyze and discuss specific actions and behaviors" (Lyons, et al., 1993) that are occurring during the lesson. It is during these discussions that the teacher leader and the other Reading Recovery teachers co-construct a view of teaching and learning while simultaneously revising their theories about instruction with the support of the more knowledgeable other, the teacher leader (Lyons, et al., 1993). After the lesson is complete, the colleague who was teaching is brought into the conversation as well. This behind-the-glass teaching is one example of an activity setting, where collaboration and assisted performance occurs.

Activity Settings

Tharp and Gallimore (1988) define sociocultural activities of learning as "activity settings," or the "contexts in which collaborative interaction, intersubjectivity, and assisted performance occur" (p. 72). Activity settings are deliberately created within a larger social setting driven by the context of goal-directed activities, and defined by the interlocking nature of the five W's: who, what, when, where, and why. In an activity setting, participants work collaboratively on activities that are unique to the setting. For example, in a guided reading lesson, teachers and students work together to co-construct meaning of a text through the dialogue they have about it. This dialogue, also known as the script of the activity setting, describes the patterns of behavior that occur within settings. In the guided reading group, the teacher introduces the text, listens to the child read the text, assisting the reader as necessary, and makes teaching actions designed to move the child toward self-regulation. The children, in turn, attend to the book introduction, then read the text, either independently or with some assistance from the teacher. Once the book has been read by all the children in the group, a quick discussion of the text ensues, led by the teacher.

While activity settings in schools are often used to describe teaching and learning in classrooms with teachers and children, these settings can also be formed by the adults in a school building. When teachers come together intentionally to collaborate and learn from each other, they are creating activity settings where the goal is to "design a school organization in which assisted performance occurs at all levels" (Tharp & Gallimore, 1988, p. 80). Gee (2000) defined these settings as a type of *affinity group*. The members of an affinity group hold allegiance to a set of "common endeavors or practices (p. 105)". In schools, groups of teachers come together in

this intentional way to focus on collaborative learning and distributed knowledge (Gee, 2000). These affinity groups may also be known as Professional Learning Communities (PLCs).

While the term "Professional Learning Communities" has been around since the 1960s (allthingsplc.com), PLCs in their more current form were researched and developed in response to a report stressing the importance of schools functioning as communities in order to enhance school effectiveness (DuFour, 1997). While many iterations of collaboration have been called PLCs, there are three very distinct core principles that must be present in order for a collaborative group to be considered a true Professional Learning Community (DuFour, 2004).

The first core principle of the PLC is a shift from "a focus on teaching to a focus on learning" (DuFour, 2004, pg. 8). The PLC must ask itself, "What do we want students to know?", "How will we know when the students have learned?", and most importantly, "What will we do if students have not learned?" The response to the learning difficulty must be quick and directive. Students are not invited to seek help if they struggle—they are required to do so. The second core principle is a focus on collaboration. DuFour (2004) emphasizes the importance of systematic and powerful collaboration that goes beyond congeniality and camaraderie to a place of analysis and cycles of questioning that leads to learning by the professionals. Finally, true PLCs have a laser focus on results. Not only do the teams collect data and identify levels of student achievement, but they use that data to make changes to teaching procedures in order to have a bigger effect on student achievement. PLCs are just one activity setting in which teachers learn from and with one another. Another important activity setting is found in professional development that is intentional and ongoing.

The concept of professional development for teachers in the area of reading is not new; indeed, Bond and Dykstra (1967), in their seminal first grade studies, identified the need to focus

on teacher training in order to improve reading instruction. This conceptual model of professional development was established around the idea that the best professional development is collaborative, positive, and ongoing (Fullan, 2011; Garet, Porter, Desimone, Birman, & Kwang, 2001; Kennedy & Shiel, 2010; Kinnucan-Welsch, Rosemary, & Groga, 2006). When teachers participate in collaborative approaches over a longer period of time, they feel strongly about their ability to make positive changes to their instruction (Kennedy & Shiel, 2010). This concept of best practices in professional development is part of a larger push to improve schools through systemic change, where schools "create learning conditions that challenge educators to revise old ideas and create new ways of thinking" (Dorn, 2015).

School Change

Educational Reform: A Brief History

Although the idea of "educational reform" is not new, as it dates back to the turn of the last century (Taylor, Raphael, & Au, 2010), the beginnings of current policies and understandings regarding school change can be traced to the publication of *A Nation at Risk* in 1983 (Elmore, 2004; Fullan, 1993). This publication, produced by the National Commission on Excellence in Education at the behest of then-Secretary of Education T. H. Bell, outlined the dire straits of American education, declaring American educators guilty of "committing an act of unthinking, unilateral educational disarmament" (US Department of Education, 1983). The committee recommended reform in five areas: content, standards and expectations, time, teaching, and leadership, and fiscal support (US Department of Education, 1983).

In 1989, then-president George Bush met with state governors in order to develop a strategy of educational reform (Elmore, 2004). From this meeting, a new policy emerged in which the federal government would focus on results of student learning, while schools would

utilize the skills and expertise of their staffs to produce those results (Elmore, 2004). This eventually led to the reauthorization of ESEA known as No Child Left Behind in 2002. With the adoption of this policy, accountability was tied to test scores, with stiff penalties for schools that did not meet expected benchmarks (Husband & Hunt, 2015). School reform was defined by the adoption of programs that met the narrow definition of scientifically-based research, taught by teachers that met the NCLB requirements of being highly qualified. Specifically, teachers were required to be certified in the area in which they taught, have an earned bachelor's degree, and demonstrate competence in subject knowledge, usually through testing (Husband & Hunt, 2015). While these requirements did increase the number of teachers identified as "highly qualified" in their areas of instruction (Husband & Hunt, 2015), some studies found a decrease in teacher morale, particularly in urban, rural, and underperforming areas (Husband & Hunt, 2015). This decrease in moral could have an impact on another important aspect of change—school culture.

School culture contributes to the change process, including how open the school stakeholders are to change. Culture is an integral part of a school (Deal & Peterson, 1999; Reeves, 2009). School culture consists of the relationships, rituals, beliefs, and assumptions that are held by the members of a school, from administration to staff to students and parents (Deal & Peterson, 1999; Dorn, 2015; Reeves, 2009). The culture of a school is found by looking past the rhetoric of mission statements, school improvement plans, and school goals to the acts and interactions that occur on a daily, weekly, and yearly basis.

School culture can have a tremendous impact on the success or failure of school improvement initiatives. In a review of several studies, Deal and Peterson (1999) found that culture was "the key factor in determining whether improvement was possible" (p. 5). The experience of one school, Skyline High School, demonstrated the detrimental effect of poor

leadership on school culture (Thiesen-Homer, 2015). At Skyline, instability in school and district leadership in addition to budget issues led to a drastic change in school culture, from a culture of pride and achievement to one of distrust and uncertainty. This change of culture resulted in a reduction in test scores, despite several previous years of growth. (Thiesen-Horner, 2015).

In contrast, Deal and Peterson (1999) tell the story of Ganado Primary School, which changed its trajectory from one of failure to one of success. The school placed a stronger emphasis on the cultural values of the community, which was predominately Navajo. The staff, led by the principal, established rituals of collaboration, including inviting parents into the school on a regular basis and also encouraging weekly "curriculum conversations" among the staff (Deal & Peterson, 1999, pg. 19). These changes resulted in a tight-knit community with a common goal: to provide a child-centered education to the students in the community.

There are many reasons why a school might undergo some type of change. The impetus for change might be a change of leadership within the school who brings new ideas for the school. The change could be district-driven—low or declining test scores, public pressure to do something different, or, as in the case of Skyline High School, a result of budget issues at the state level. Schools are expected to continuously change to meet new federal requirements (i.e., IDEA or NCLB) or district mandates. Schools also need to change in order to prepare students for a changing society and workforce, as well as to ensure equal access for all students to highquality education (Taylor, Raphael, & Au, 2010). Fullan (1993) adds moral purpose to this list; schools change in order to make a difference for all students as they prepare to enter "dynamically complex" (p. 4) societies. As the world changes, so teachers and schools also change in order to adapt.

While positive change can occur when all stakeholders are working toward a common goal through agreed upon measures, there are times when a mismatch of stakeholder goals occurs. For example, policy-makers and practitioners may both focus on change that is effective, but policy-makers tend to emphasize popularity of an initiative with the public as well as fidelity to program, while practitioners look for initiatives with a certain amount of adaptability and longevity (Taylor, et al, 2010). Under NCLB, for example, schools were mandated to purchase only curricular materials that were research-based, using a very narrow definition of research (Husband & Hunt, 2015; Thomas & Brady, 2005). This legislation led to the return to the purchasing of commercial core reading programs for primary reading instruction. These commercial programs provided their own research claiming to prove effectiveness; however, the only reading program, according to What Works Clearinghouse, to have strong evidence of effectiveness in teaching children how to read was Reading Recovery (Allington, 2012). At the same time, researchers continued to examine school practices and outcomes in order to identify factors that lead to successful school change.

This research in school reform has identified several distinguishing features of successful schools: strong leadership, high expectations of teachers and students, a focus on cognitive development, teacher choice and judgment for both teaching practices and assessments, and students' self-efficacy (Taylor, et al., 2010). Over the years, these qualities of successful schools have been studied and refined, specifically in the area literacy.

School Reform in Literacy

In an analysis of several reform initiatives, Taylor, Raphael and Au (2010) identified two approaches to school reform in the area of literacy: curriculum-based reforms and professional development based reforms.

Curriculum based reform. In curriculum-based reform, schools rely on externally developed change models that stress effectiveness and fidelity with an emphasis on curriculum. McCombs and Quiat (as cited in Taylor, et. al., 2010), notes that the goal of the Comprehensive School Reform (CSR) model was easy implementation into any school. In order to be considered a CSR model, the following criteria were necessary: (a) comprehensive curriculum, professional development and technology;(b) research-based teaching strategies; (c) ongoing professional development; (d) measureable goals for student achievement; (e) support from school personnel; (f) parent and community involvement; (g) coordination of resources from a variety of levels. Of the many models of curriculum based reform, the following three were used most often.

Accelerated Schools. Accelerated Schools was designed in 1986 by Henry Levin, a professor at Stanford University. With an emphasis on cultural control, Accelerated Schools attempted to accelerate learning with disadvantaged students through a constructivist approach to teaching and learning. While the program did show modest student growth after five years of implementation, the lack of specific learning targets did not lead to lasting changes in teaching practices.

America's Choice. This model, developed by the National Center on Education and the Economy in 1998, sought to implement standards-based instruction and assessment in addition to the culture-building model introduced by Accelerated Schools. While these schools also showed improvement in the areas of reading and writing, the lack of the ability to vary the program for students as needed led to sustainability issues.

Success for All. Success for All was the most tightly controlled of these three models of school reform. Teachers were given scripted lessons to be delivered in strict 90-minute reading blocks. Although schools implementing Success for All did show gains in reading scores, this

tight procedural control did not allow for flexibility to meet students' needs, and therefore, led to a decline in sustainability.

Professional development based reform. Professional development based reform focused resources on teacher development, as opposed to the curriculum focus of CSR models. Successful professional development-based reform models share six common elements: (a) an understanding of the key principles of the reform framework; (b) an internal commitment to change; (c) an understanding that reform changes over time; (d) strong leadership within the building and support from the district; (e) high quality professional development; (f) development of deep content knowledge by the teachers in the building (Taylor, et al, 2010). In these professional development based reform models, organizational changes are made regarding shared vision and ownership, leadership, use of school data, and collaboration within the school community. In their meta-analysis of reform models, Taylor, et al. (2010) identified several successful models of school change in the area of reading.

Standards-Based Change Process (SBC). In this model, external facilitators worked with 33 high-poverty schools in Hawaii and 10 school in Chicago to develop a shared vision for student outcomes. In addition, researchers worked with schools to develop leadership teams that, might have included the principal, but did not require day-to-day leadership from him or her (Au, 2005), but rather, utilized a curriculum leader to oversee the SBC process (Au, Strode, Vasquez, Raphael, 2014). Grade level teams were established to set and monitor learning goals for students based on school assessment data (Au, et al., 2014). Cross-grade collaborations worked together to build a shared vision for the school, including the development of a staircase curriculum (Au, et al., 2014) that was aligned to external documents such as the Common Core State Standards (CCSS). Finally, teachers and administrators worked together to create a

multiyear plan for professional development (Taylor, et al., 2010). The focus of the professional development was on the creation of Professional Learning Communities (PLC), the development of high-quality instructional practices and curriculum guides, and guidance in the creation and use of portfolios to measure and document student growth.

School Change in Reading Framework (SCR). This model was implemented in 46 moderate to high poverty schools in Minnesota, as well 13 high poverty schools across the United States. In the SCR framework, outside facilitators instructed teachers in the most effective methods of reading instruction through collaborative learning experiences (Taylor, et al., 2010). The facilitators stressed the importance of staying with the model for several years in order to develop ownership of the changes. In order to encourage this internal motivation, leadership within the schools was developed in a three-year workshop process. These leadership teams met once a month with the goal of developing school-wide collaboration processes. They also met yearly in a data retreat to examine school-wide formative data to look for strengths and weaknesses in student learning.

Literacy Professional Development Model (LPD). This New Zealand initiative started with goals established by the Ministry of Education, namely: (a) increase reading achievement, (b) implement effective literacy instruction, (c) develop professional learning communities, and (d) modify instructional practices based on evidence-based inquiry (Taylor, et al., 2010, p. 604). External facilitators worked with school personnel to put together a professional development program in which teachers and administrators learned how to use data to adapt instructional practices to meet the goals set forth by the Ministry of Education. In this project, teachers and administrators worked collaboratively to analyze student data and then adapt classroom instruction to meet the literacy needs identified by the school data. Although each school had an

identified literacy leader, the goal through the multi-year project was to develop effective leaders throughout schools. The collaborative efforts of these schools resulted in the co-construction of effective instructional practices and the development of professional learning communities (Taylor, et al., 2010).

Literacy Collaborative. Literacy Collaborative was established in 1993 at the Ohio State University by researchers and Reading Recovery teachers Fountas and Pinnell (Biancarosa, Bryk, & Dexter, 2010). This model of school change was built on the work of Marie Clay and Reading Recovery, with a strong emphasis on school-based coaching and ongoing training in the theories and procedures of sound reading instruction. There are six core components to the instructional component of the LC model: interactive read aloud, shared reading, guided reading, interactive writing, writing workshop, and word study (Biancarosa, et al., 2010). Coaches are trained to work one-on-one with teachers in their classrooms to effectively implement these six components. LC schools must make a five-year commitment to the collaborative: year one is dedicated to the training of the literacy coach and the literacy team, years two through four are to classroom implementation, and year five is to ongoing professional development and program feedback (www.literacycollaborative.org).

A recent study completed in eighteen schools in eight states showed positive results for LC schools. The study was done over three years: year one was established as a baseline year while the coaches were receiving training, followed by two years of implementation. At the end of year two, researchers found 16 and 29 percent improvement in scores on DIBELS and the Terra Nova test of reading comprehension in years one and two respectively (Biancarosa, Bryk, & Dexter, 2008).

Factors of Sustainable Change

Whether change models were curriculum based or professional development based, several common themes of success emerged from their study. Models that have had the best results share the following characteristics: (a) a balance of professional autonomy and flexibility as well as accountability for student learning (Au, 2005; Giles & Hargreaves, 2006; McCombs & Quiat, 2002; Reeves, 2004), (b) a shared vision and a high level of collaboration among stakeholders (Au, 2005; DuFour, 2004; Fullan, 2008a; Fullan, Cuttress, & Kilcher, 2009; Gile & Hargreaves, 2006), (c) high-quality professional development that leads to deeper understanding of effective literacy instruction (McCombs & Quiat, 2002; Fullan, 200 8a), (d) both strong leadership and a system of capacity building (Au, 2005; Fullan, 2008a; Fullan, Cuttress, & Kilcher, 2009), and (e) support from an external partner, particularly at the beginning of a significant change process (Au, 2005; McCombs & Quiat, 2002). Furthermore, the most effective changes processes are those that are systemic in nature; that is, the process of change is intentional and occurs through collaboration and interaction among stakeholders (Dorn, 2015). One approach to school reform, Partnerships in Comprehensive Literacy, incorporates these characteristics in a model of collaboration and school improvement grounded in sociocultural theory with a focus on both student learning and teacher learning (Allington & Johnston, 2015).

Partnerships in Comprehensive Literacy

Partnerships in Comprehensive Literacy (PCL) is a school-reform model that originated at the University of Arkansas Little Rock in 1998. The model measures school improvement in four areas: student learning, teacher perceptions, school climate, and school processes.

PCL: A Brief History

University professors, Linda Dorn, Cathy French, and Tammy Jones (1998) state that the PCL model began as The Arkansas Literacy Coaching Model, with a goal of helping teachers become self-regulated learners and collegial problem solvers. These literacy experts recognized the importance of building teams of teachers who work towards common goals of literacy achievement in schools, while also learning from and supporting one another. Eventually, Dorn and her colleagues were able to secure grant funding from the Arkansas Department of Education, which was used to incorporate this apprenticeship model of learning for teachers and students in seven high-poverty schools in Arkansas (Dorn, & Soffos, 2001).

The model proved to be quite successful, with 88 percent of first graders scoring at advanced, proficient, or nearly proficient on a state writing assessment. In addition, 85 percent of these students were reading at proficient or advanced levels based on national standardized tests (Dorn & Soffos, 2001). With such promising results, Dorn and colleagues were able to expand this model to twenty-two new schools.

Program reports in 2002 from Arkansas schools showed additional success. One study of 21 schools in Arkansas found that 84 percent of first grade children in schools with an average poverty rate of 80 percent were meeting or exceeding proficiency levels in reading (Bell-Hobbs, 2008). More importantly, a follow-up study conducted in 2005 in 40 PCL schools across four states showed that students who had participated in PCL model classrooms maintained their reading proficiency levels. When second, third, and fourth grade students were given their district's reading assessment, 83 percent of second graders, 88 percent of third graders, and 84 percent of fourth graders were scored at proficient or better (Dorn, Soffos, & Behrend, as cited in Bell-Hobbs, 2008). In Illinois, six schools in five districts also showed good results with the PCL

model. Results of the Illinois Standard Achievement Test (ISAT) at the end of year one of implementation of the PCL model in those six schools showed improvement in the number of students meeting and exceeding in reading, with five of the six schools meeting Annual Yearly Progress (AYP) goals by the end of the 2009-2010 school year (Poparad, 2015).

The goal of this model is to create dynamic and continuous improvement where all stakeholders are committed to the change process. This apprenticeship model relies on each member of the school and district team to bring his or her strengths to the table and participate in the routines and procedures that are the strength of the model. It has ten integrated features (Dorn, 2015) that include:

- *A Framework for Literacy.* This framework utilizes the workshop approach to literacy, and includes whole group, small group, and individual instruction.
- *Coaching and Mentoring.* Coaches use contingent scaffolding in a gradual release model when working with classroom teachers.
- *Model Classrooms*. These classrooms are considered literacy labs or clinical settings where expert teachers model the literacy framework and peer teachers observe teaching and learning.
- *High Standards*. These standards are based on state and national standards, and are aligned with a literacy continuum that allows support for students as they work to meet these standards.
- *Comprehensive Assessment System for Accountability.* This system, which includes both formative and summative assessments, utilizes student portfolios and data walls school-wide.
- *System-Wide Interventions.* Interventions are provided in two waves. The first, K-3, includes Reading Recovery and small-group interventions. The second, 4-12, provides classroom interventions and supplemental small-group interventions. These interventions are found within the Comprehensive Intervention Model (CIM).
- *Collaborative Learning Communities.* There are a variety of learning teams within a school, including literacy team meetings, book clubs, data meetings, peer observations, and professional learning communities.

- *Well-Designed Literacy Plan.* The literacy plan includes both short-term and long-term goals that are continuously monitored through the use of benchmarks.
- *Technology and Research*. Both students and teachers use technology to collaborate and conduct research in a variety of contexts.
- *Spotlighting and Advocacy.* The model uses several techniques to share information and results with stakeholders. These can be news releases, conference presentations, or school visits, among other things.

For the current study, I will focus on just three of these features: Collaborative Learning Communities, Coaching and Mentoring, and K-3 Interventions, particularly the Guided Reading Plus model for small-group reading instruction.

Collaborative Learning Communities. The purpose of the collaborative learning community with the PCL model is to develop "collective expertise and knowledge" (Forbes, 2015, p. 8), also known as "collective efficacy" (Elmore, 2009). Common language and routines within a school not only help build school culture and make schools more effective (Dorn, 2015), but also ensure teacher expertise. This expertise is necessary for significant and meaningful change within a school (Elmore, 2004; Fitzharris, Jones, & Crawford., 2008; Gaskins, 1998; Taylor, et al., 2000).

In the PCL model, building collaborative learning communities is more than just coming together at scheduled meeting times. While teachers are involved in such meetings, there is also a very deliberate purpose to them. Collaborative learning communities are generally facilitated by a literacy coach who has gone through a year's training at a University Training Center (Forbes, 2015). There are five key features of these collaborative learning communities that are based on the work of Gallimore and other researchers (Forbes, 2015). These include:

- Job-alike teams of teachers
- Inquiry-focused protocols that guide improvement efforts

- Trained peer facilitators
- Stable settings and allotted times for meetings
- Perseverance to progress

It is the job of the literacy coach to work with school and district administration to ensure that these five features are present in the school's collaboration plan.

The purpose of these meetings is not to create "groupthink," where the members of the group passively comply with the ideas put forth by the literacy coach (Forbes, 2015). Instead, the purpose is to bring teachers together to study and learn about best literacy practices, talk about implementation of this practices (both positive aspects and challenges), and reflect on these literacy processes and individual learning. It is a place for active dialogue, where every teacher works toward both personal learning and a common goal: improvement in literacy for all students. Through these collaborative meetings, there is great potential for teachers to develop and expand both literacy knowledge and instructional expertise.

Coaching and Mentoring. While the collaborative nature of the Professional Learning Communities can be very powerful for building professional capital, there are times when oneto-one coaching sessions are extremely beneficial as well. Because the PCL coaches have completed a full year of post-graduate work at a University Training Center (Forbes, 20150, they are uniquely prepared to bring the apprenticeship model to individual coaching sessions with teachers. This allows the coach and the classroom teacher to problem-solve in a more intimate setting, where the focus can be on the specific needs of one teacher.

This mentoring is reminiscent of the role of the teacher leader in the Reading Recovery setting. During the Reading Recovery training year, the teacher leader comes to the teacher-in-training to observe lessons and problem-solve. Pinnell, Lyons, DeFord, Bryk, and Seltzer (1994)

describe this as a parallel setting of "learning to reading and learning to teach (p. 12). The teacher leader works in a coaching capacity: encouraging, demonstrating, questioning, giving feedback, redefining, and redirecting as necessary (Lyons, et al., 1993).

Guided Reading Plus. Guided Reading Plus is a small-group reading intervention for students reading at the emergent to transitional levels (Dorn & Soffos, 2012). The lesson plan in this type of instruction is based on the Reading Recovery model, and takes place over two days, with 30 minutes of instruction each day. Like Reading Recovery, Guided Reading Plus uses leveled texts for scaffolding, writing about reading, and visual resources to promote automaticity with words.

On day one, or phase one, the lesson begins with a quick word study based on the needs of the group. This is followed by a group orientation to the new text, where students and teacher work together to construct meaning. The students then read the text independently with individual support from the teacher as needed. Finally, the group participates in a discussion of the text, with carefully chosen teaching points based on the first reading of the text.

On day two, or phase two, students read independently while the teacher takes one or two running records with individual students. After the completion of the running records, the teacher provides a writing prompt as a response to the previous day's reading. Students then compose a response to the prompt, first orally, then as written text while the teacher works individually with students in the group. These prompts are meant to "provide opportunities for students to assemble their knowledge from language experiences and apply their strategies to deal with the goals of the writing task" (Dorn & Soffos, 2012, p. 85).

During both the reading and writing tasks, it is essential for the teacher to pay close

attention to the students' reading and writing behaviors in order to most effectively use strategies and procedures meant to move children quickly to self-monitoring behaviors. Just as when working one-on-one with children, teachers working with students during the Guided Reading Plus lesson must carefully prompt children for the most effective teaching.

Summary

This chapter has positioned the Partnerships in Comprehensive Literacy model in the context of successful school reform models. Although there are many models of school reform, the models that have proven to be most successful are those that are systemic and include: a shared vision, a high level of collaboration, high-quality professional development, and support from an external partner. The Partnerships in Comprehensive Literacy model incorporates all of these qualities.

Many of the components of the PCL model are built around sociocultural learning theory, particularly the collaborative learning communities, the coaching and mentoring component, and the Guided Reading Plus lessons. The language routines and procedures that occur within these contexts of learning in PCL schools are grounded in the research of Vygotsky, Clay, and Tharp and Gallimore: learning occurs in a social context, and what is said during these social interactions matters for instruction.

The studies discussed in this literature review define the qualities of effective school reform. They also demonstrate the effectiveness of Reading Recovery, including the types of scaffolding that occur in the Reading Recovery lesson. The current study will attempt to describe and analyze the scaffolding language that occurs in multiple places within a school reform model: collaborative learning groups made of first-grade teachers and coaches, mentoring

sessions between literacy coaches and first-grade teachers, and Guided Reading Plus lessons taught by those first grade teachers.

CHAPTER THREE

RESEARCH METHODS

"If we become observers of our own conversations—noting when they go well, when they get into difficulties, how we negotiate over our difficulties, and when and why conversation fails this may help us understand a little better how children learn."—Marie Clay

Purpose of Research

The purpose of this study was to analyze and describe the discourse, specifically the language of scaffolding, that occurred during three components, or activity settings, of two schools within the Partnerships in Comprehensive Literacy Model (PCL) who utilize a comprehensive literacy model. The components included in this study were: first-grade collaborative learning communities, one-to-one coaching and mentoring sessions, and first-grade small group reading instruction. Chapter One provided the introduction to this study. Chapter Two outlined the research on the components of a comprehensive literacy model. This chapter describes the research design, including (a) research questions, (b) research design, (c) context and research sites, (d) participants and roles, (e) data collection, (f) data analysis, (g) limitations, and (h) ethical concerns.

Research Questions

This mixed-methods research study was guided by the following general question: What are the patterns of scaffolded discourse that occur across activity settings within a comprehensive literacy model designed for school improvement? Related to the general question are four specific research questions for this study:

- What are the patterns of scaffolded discourse among literacy coaches and teachers during first-grade team meetings in two schools implementing a comprehensive literacy model?
- 2. What are the patterns of scaffolded discourse between literacy coaches and first-grade teachers during one-on-one mentoring sessions in two schools implementing a comprehensive literacy model?
- 3. What are the patterns of scaffolded discourse between teachers and students during first-grade small group reading lessons in two schools implementing a comprehensive literacy model?
- 4. What degree of similarity is there in the patterns of scaffolded discourse found across the three activity settings?

Research Design

The purpose of a mixed methods study is to use "all methods possible to address a research problem" (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2011, p. 13). In this study, when considering discourse that occurred within the various activity settings, mixed methods allowed me to report the instances of scaffolding quantitatively across settings and school sites, as well as to further define or describe the scaffolding events where and when they did occur through qualitative methods. Greene, Caracelli, and Graham (1989) define this approach as *complementarity*, a design that gave me the opportunity to elaborate, illustrate, and clarify the quantitative results of the study with descriptions and language from two distinct school settings. This in turn created a more complete picture of how scaffolded discourse was used in a variety of activity settings in the PCL model in two different schools. To understand the depth and complexity of this process, I analyzed and described the discourse that occurred during three components of a

comprehensive literacy model: a) collaborative teacher learning communities, b) educator coaching and mentoring, and c) small-group reading instruction for first-graders.

In order to gain insight into the scaffolded discourse that occurred in each of these activity settings, as well as any interconnectedness between them, a convergent parallel design was adopted that made use of both qualitative and quantitative data collected concurrently, analyzed separately, and merged (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2011). During this process, I was able to "illustrate quantitative results with qualitative findings, synthesiz[e] complementary quantitative and qualitative results with quantitative findings to develop a more complete understanding of a phenomenon, and compar[e] multiple levels within a system" (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2011, p. 77). The goal of the quantitative analysis was to describe the types and number of scaffolds that occur through statistical measures, which were then compared across activity settings within each school to see if there was a pattern of scaffolds within each school.

Research Approach

Case Study

The data were collected using a multiple case study design. In such research, multiple cases are examined to find similar results, literal replication, contrasting results, or theoretical replication (Barone, 2011). Merriam (2001) stresses the importance of defining the case in order to determine the appropriateness of case study design. If what a researcher desires to study cannot be "intrinsically bounded" (Merriam, 2001, p. 27), then what is being done is not actually case study. In this research study, the case is clearly bounded by the identification of the unit being studied: the first-grade team, including classroom teachers, small-group intervention teachers, and literacy coaches within a school implementing the PCL model for school

improvement, thus fitting Merriam's definition of "case". In the current study there were two cases examined in this investigation—Washington Elementary and Irving Primary.

Creswell and Poth (2018) identify several defining features of case studies. Case studies must present an "in-depth understanding of the case (p. 98)" through the gathering and analyzing of multiple forms of data including interviews, observations, documents, and audiovisual material. Once the data have been collected and analyzed, the researcher generates themes and makes assertions about the data. By examining multiple cases that share a common thread, in this study the membership in a PCL, I was able to complete both a within-case analysis for each case and a cross-case analysis (Creswell & Poth, 2018). Using both of these analyses creates an in-depth description of each school as a unique case and at the same time, highlights the common themes that may be found across schools that have invested in the PCL model.

Context

The current study took place in two school sites in the Midwest that are members of the Partnerships in Comprehensive Literacy. These schools were selected in cooperation with the director of the Reading Recovery Center at a local university. I contacted key district personnel in each district in order to obtain permission to complete this study in their districts. In the first district, Lincoln School District, I spoke with the district Reading Recovery Teacher Leader/CIM Coach. After hearing a brief explanation of the study, the coach identified one school in her district that she thought would be a good match for this study, namely Irving Primary School. In the second district, Washington School District, I contacted the district PCL coach, who then put me in touch with the Comprehensive Intervention Model (CIM) Specialist at the elementary building, Washington Elementary. It should be noted that all names of school districts, schools, and teachers have been given pseudonyms to protect the identity of the participants.

Irving Primary School

This school is located in a mid-size town in a Midwestern state, and is one of ten schools in an elementary school district of approximately 3,700 students. There are 184 students enrolled in this K-3 school, with three sections of first grade, and two sections each of Kindergarten, second grade, and third grade. According to the state school report card, 89% of the students are White, 8% identify as two or more races, 1% are Black and 1% are Latino. Teacher demographics at this school are: 97.8% white, 1.3% Hispanic, .4% Asian, and .4% identifying as two or more races. The school is also identified as being 75.3% low income, with students receiving free and reduced lunches. Irving Primary was in its eighth year of PCL implementation at the time of the study.

Washington Elementary School

This school is located in a small Midwestern town in a neighboring state to that of Irving Primary School. Washington is part of a four-school district comprised of an elementary school (preschool age 4-first grade), an intermediate school (grades two through six), a middle school (grades seven and eight), and a high school (grades nine through twelve). The district has a total population of 917 students. According to the district report card, 91.7% are white, 4.5% are Latino, 1% are black, and 1% are two or more races; districtwide, while 100% of the teachers and support staff are white.

There are 187 students at the elementary school and, according to the school report card, 85.3% are white, 6.3% are Latino, 1.6% are black, and 5.8% are two or more races. At the elementary school, 24.6% are identified as economically disadvantaged. During the year of this study, there was an interim principal and an associate principal who served both the elementary and the intermediate school. In the elementary school, there were two preschool teachers, three

kindergarten teachers, three first grade teachers, and one special education teacher. There was also a Comprehensive Intervention Model (CIM) Specialist who taught several different interventions, including Reading Recovery, Interactive Writing, and Guided Reading Plus, and a building Literacy Coach/Interventionist. Both of these teachers provided services to the elementary and the intermediate school. More descriptive information, including the history of Reading Recovery and PCL in each district can be found in Chapter Four of this dissertation.

Participants and Roles

Participants in this study included the Literacy Coach and the interventionist in each school who taught first-grade interventions, as well as one first-grade teacher at each site. The first-grade teachers were invited to participate based on the recommendation of the School Coach at Irving Primary and the CIM Specialist at Washington Elementary. The district-level PCL coaches and school principals were also interviewed for this study. The roles of each participant are outlined briefly below. More complete descriptions of these participants appear in Chapter Four.

Irving Primary School

School Coach (SC). The School Coach, also known as the Instructor of Student Support and Learning (ISSL), gives instructional support to teachers and staff. This person is also responsible for organizing times for Literacy Leaders and classroom teachers to collaborate and plan.

Literacy Leader (LL). The Literacy Leader, also known as the Reading Recovery Intervention Specialist, spends the school day primarily working with children. She conducts one-on-one Reading Recovery lessons, as well as small-group reading interventions with first grade students. Irving Primary employs one full-time and one part-time Literacy Leader.

Classroom Teacher (CT). First-grade teachers are responsible for the primary literacy instruction for all of the children in their classrooms. In Irving Primary, first-grade teachers conduct small-group reading instruction for all children in the class within a workshop model.

Washington Elementary School

Literacy Coach (LC). The Literacy Coach for Washington Elementary is responsible for the professional development at the elementary building (grades PK-1). She also provides more intense professional development through model classrooms and coaching cycles. The Literacy Coach also teaches intervention lessons to kindergarten and first grade students at the elementary building and second grade students at the intermediate building.

CIM Specialist/Reading Recovery Teacher (RR). The CIM Specialist/Reading Recovery teacher splits her time 50/50 between the responsibilities of the CIM position and Reading Recovery. As the CIM Specialist, she is responsible for developing, supporting, and maintaining the intervention and data systems in the elementary and the intermediate schools.

Classroom Teachers (CT). At Washington Elementary, first-grade teachers provide small-group, guided reading instruction to their students. They also develop and teach cross-curricular units of study within a workshop model.

Researcher Role

As a trained Reading Recovery teacher, I entered the PCL setting as someone familiar with Reading Recovery and Guided Reading Plus; however, as the researcher, my focus was on understanding how these components operate within the context of schools who were members of the Partnerships in Comprehensive Literacy. Because I did have some background knowledge in the processes I was observing, my role ended up being that of an observer as participant (Glesne, 2016). Glesne (2106) places the roles of the participant-observer on a continuum from

"mostly observation to mostly participation" (Glesne, 2016, p. 65). I stayed closer to the "mostly observation" side of the continuum so as to not interfere with the collaboration process and so I would be free to take notes as I observed. According to Glesne (2016), the participant observer's main objective is to better understand the setting, the participants, and their behavior through the observations that occur. For this reason, I did not participate in any of the meetings that I attended or observed, nor did I interact with the children during their small group instruction. There were times, however, when I engaged in conversation with the participants because of our shared knowledge and my genuine interest in early literacy instruction. These conversations were informal in nature, taking place in some of the free time of the participants, including before school, between meetings, and during lunch.

Data Collection

Because this study was a parallel convergence design, common data sets were used for both qualitative and quantitative analysis. These common data sets were analyzed through qualitative methods on an ongoing basis. At the end of data collection, I analyzed and described the data through qualitative methods, and at the same time, compared through quantitative methods. Identical data sets were collected at both school sites.

Literacy Coach and Teacher Surveys

I used researcher-created surveys to gather descriptive data about each participant. The survey was used to gather information about a participant's professional life, including the number of years teaching, the types of teaching they did over the years, and any reading-related education the participants have received (see Appendixes A and B).

Interviews

Interviews are one of the most common ways to collect data in qualitative research (Merriam, 2001) as they allow insight into a phenomenon through a particular participant's lens. When considering whom to interview, the researcher must take into consideration what a participant can add to the study through an interview, and also what type of interview to use: highly structured, semi-structured, or unstructured (Merriam, 2001). In the current study, I first conducted semi-structured interviews with the Literacy Coaches, Reading Recovery teachers, and classroom teachers at each site. These interviews were based on a set of pre-determined questions while allowing the respondent some freedom to take the conversation in a direction that was of interest to them. (Hesse-Beber & Levy, 2011)

After spending time at each site, it was apparent that the principals were also active participants in the literacy models in both schools, so after consulting with my committee, I also interviewed the principals at each school. I used the same questions for these interviews as I used when interviewing the literacy coaches and interventionists at each school. In addition, each school has access to district-level personnel who were also trained in specific PCL coaching roles, so I interviewed them as well using the same questions I used with the literacy coaches.

I established a set of guiding questions for each interview (see Appendixes C and D), using a semi-structured format that allowed the conversation to be guided by the respondent, which was particularly important for this study, since the implementation of the comprehensive literacy model, including the roles of the participants, varied between the two schools. In addition, interviewing the Literacy Coaches and the teachers who provided small-group firstgrade reading instruction enabled me to provide a richer and "thicker" description (Hesse-Biber

& Leavy, 2011) of how the comprehensive literacy model was being implemented in each school as defined by these individuals.

Video and Audio Recording

Each team meeting, coaching session, and small-group reading lesson was either video or audio recorded. A recording allowed me to fully transcribe each session in order to identify, code, and describe the scaffolding language that occurred between and among participants. Video recording also allowed me to watch for nonverbal actions that I may not have noticed during in-person observations. There were times that I only audio recorded in order to capture spontaneous conversations that occurred between participants. This was done with participant permission. There were three sessions for which I was not present at Washington Elementary one grade level meeting and two days of an intervention small-group lesson. These sessions were recorded by the CIM Specialist and uploaded to a private, password-protected shared Google drive.

Field Notes

Field notes are considered to be one of the cornerstones of qualitative research (Dyson & Genishi, 2005; Merriam, 2001). These are used to describe people, settings, and activities (Merriam, 2001). In this study, the focus of the field notes were on what participants said to each other, on the setting in which these conversations took place, and on any nonverbal cues that may have occurred. I kept hand-written field notes in a notebook dedicated to each school. The field note data was then triangulated with the recordings and the interviews to create a complete picture of the discourse patterns that occurred during grade-level meetings, coaching and mentoring sessions, and small-group reading instruction at each school. Use of multiple data sets

to describe these discourse patterns helped to deepen interpretations and understandings (Glesne, 2016).

Data Collection Procedures

Data collection began in August as soon as I obtained approval from IRRB as well as the two districts. I first collected consent forms for adult participants (see Appendix E), and because I was collecting data in classrooms, I also collected parent permission for the first grade students in the focus classrooms (see Appendix F). I collected the data in three stages: contextual, observational, and exit (see Figure 1).

Figure 1: Stages of Data Collection



Stage One: Contextual Data

The first stage of data collection was to gather data useful for the description of the context of the two settings. On my first visit to each site, I introduced myself and described the study to participants. I then administered Literacy Coach and Teacher Surveys (see Appendixes A and B), in order to develop a rich description of the school site, as well as of the participants themselves. I sent the surveys by email, which gave participants the choice to complete it and return it electronically, or to print it out and fill it out by hand.

This stage of data collection also included initial interviews with Literacy Coaches, reading intervention teachers, and first-grade classroom teachers (see Appendixes C and D). These semi-structured interviews allowed me to gather additional data about each school site relative to its PCL model implementation, as well as about each participant. After the initial

interviews, I added two participants at each site: the school principal and the district-level coach. I conducted semi-structured interviews with these participants as well, using the same set of questions I used with the literacy coaches.

Stage Two: Observational Data

During stage two of data collection, I conducted observations and recordings of firstgrade team meetings, coaching and mentoring sessions, and small-group reading lessons. I visited each school seven times during the time of the study.

During observations, I recorded my field notes as thoroughly as possible in a notebook I designated for each school. Each recording was then transcribed. I watched the videos with the transcription in front of me. While watching each video, I took notes on an Observation Protocol (see Appendix G). An observation protocol is the place where researchers log information from observations in predetermined categories (Creswell, 1998); in this case, I used the categories of "descriptive notes" and "reflective notes" as recommended by Creswell (1998). The descriptive notes described what was happening at the time and the reflective notes were my thoughts as I watched the recording.

Stage Three: Exit Interview and Member Checks

Exit interviews are important for qualitative research for several reasons. First, conducting exit interviews gives participants the opportunity to share insights and information from the study, and to ask questions that may have arisen during the study (Glesne, 2016). Exit interviews gave me as the researcher the opportunity to address any questions that may have arisen for me as a result of the interviews and observations. I asked my questions through email, which were then answered by the appropriate participant. Although email correspondence eliminates any nonverbal cues that may be present (Merriam & Tisdale, 2016), most of the

questions I asked had to do with procedural issues or timelines, and therefore, were easily answered through email.

Member checks, or respondent validation, allows a participant to give feedback on some of the initial findings of a study (Merriam & Tisdale, 2016). I completed these member checks at the end of the school year at each site. Before traveling to the schools, I sent the preliminary results to the participants for review. Then during my visits, I spent time with each participant reviewing the results for accuracy of both events and representation of participants' thoughts and feelings.

Data Analysis

Using a parallel convergence research design, I analyzed the data sets using both qualitative and quantitative analyses. Through the process of *quantizing* (Hesse-Biber & Leavy, 2011), I took the results from the first round of data analysis and coding and transformed them into numerical data using frequency charts. I then used these charts to conduct my quantitative analysis. At the same time, I continued my second and third rounds of data analysis, recoding the data as described below.

Qualitative Data Analysis

Creswell and Poth (2018) describe qualitative data analysis as a "spiral" (p. 185) leading from data collection to findings in a nonlinear fashion. I followed this spiral in my data analysis. The first loop in Creswell and Poth's spiral is data management. I used two types of data management: electronic and paper. My electronic data management system involved file folders labeled by school. Within each folder I kept transcripts both by date and by activity setting so that I would be able to find them quickly as needed. My paper management system included a notebook for each school for by field notes and other observations and a binder for each school

used for holding documents I accumulated during my visits, including itineraries, schedules, running records, and lesson plans. I also used these binders to house all consent forms and student permission forms.

The next steps in Creswell and Poth's data analysis spiral involve reading through the data, creating memos, and classifying codes into themes. I separately analyzed each case in its entirety using three rounds of data analysis. For the first round of data analysis, I applied a set of pre-determined categories based on the work of Rodger, et al. (2016). These existing categories can be found in Table 1.

Table 1

Category (least to most information provided)	Definition	Sample teacher moves <i>Text</i> : "A teddy bear picnic…" <i>Child</i> : "A teddy bear put…"
Prompting (P)	The teacher provides no information about anything helpful to use or do; calls on the student to solve the problem.	 "What can you try?" "Check that word."
Prompting with Information (Pi)	The teacher provides some general information; the student must still decide what to use or do.	"You wrote that word yesterday.""Do you remember what I said that word is?"
Directing (Di)	The teacher provides specific information about what the student can use or do to solve the problem; the student must solve the problem.	 "Does that make sense?" "Reread that sentence and think about what would make sense and look right."
Demonstrating (De)	The teacher provides all of the information needed to solve the problem by taking the student role and modeling; the student must still solve the problem.	 "A teddy bear /pi/." "A teddy bear what?"
Telling (T)	The teacher provides all the information needed; the student does not need to do anything.	 "That word is <i>picnic</i>." "Yes, that's <i>picnic</i>."

Categories of Teacher-to-Student Scaffolds (Rodgers, et al., 2016)

From the original five, I created three categories for teacher-to-student scaffolding (see Table 2). Like Rodgers, et al. (2016), I focused this study of scaffolding on the word-solving components of the small-group lessons. As with the above-mentioned study, these categories reflected a move from high levels of scaffolding to low levels of scaffolding meant to show the release of responsibility from teacher to student. While there were some scaffolds that occurred around comprehension, I found most of those to be known-answer questions asked by the teacher, which seldom allowed for any problem-solving by the students. I decided that while interesting, this phenomenon would best be addressed in another study.

Table 2

Category (least to most information provided)	Definition	Sample teacher moves <i>Text</i> : "A teddy bear picnic…" <i>Child</i> : "A teddy bear put…"
Prompting (P)	Teacher calls attention to general information about literacy that has been previously learned; the student must decide what to do to solve the problem	 "What can you try?" "Check that word." You wrote that word yesterday "Does that make sense?"
Directing and Demonstrating	The teacher provides specific information about what the student can use or do to solve the problem; the student must solve the problem.	 "Reread that sentence and think about what would make sense and look right." "A teddy bear what?"
Telling (T)	The teacher provides all the information needed; the student makes no contribution to the problem solving.	 "That word is <i>picnic</i>." "Yes, that's <i>picnic</i>."

Modified Categories of Teacher-to-Student Scaffolds

Although there is much research on teacher-to-student scaffolding, there did not appear to be any research done with applying these particular categories to teacher-to-teacher scaffolding. Using the teacher-to-student scaffolds, I then created three categories of teacher-to-teacher scaffolds (see Table 3), again reflecting a range from high levels of scaffolding to low levels of

scaffolding. I applied these to the grade-level meetings and the coaching and mentoring sessions. While completing my initial coding and analysis, I found that the language of scaffolding within each category appeared slightly different while still being a similar enough level of scaffold that did not require a new category. For this reason, I created subcategories within each category (see Figure 2) in order to better describe the data.

Inter-rater Reliability. Because I was working with codes that I had created, I asked one of the committee members to check my codes with some of the data. We went through transcripts together, identifying and discussing the language of the participants as it related to the codes I had created. As we discussed the data and the codes, we adjusted the names of the categories to better reflect what the data was showing.

As I was coding the data using these predetermined categories, I found other categories of talk begin to emerge so I created memos as I went in order to be able to go back and create the

Category (least to most information provided) Prompting and Guiding	Definition Open-ended or guiding questions or statements which invite the participants to think collaboratively about problem-solving or instruction	 Sample language "What do you think is causing that child's confusion?" What do you feel your strengths are in your small group instruction?
Directing and Demonstrating	Specific information provided which invites participants to approach instruction in a specific way, either by giving an example of a procedure already successfully tried by the speaker or by giving a suggestion of something that might be tried	 "Remember when I showed you the trick to using the masking card to uncover the word little by little in order to help the child look carefully through the word?" You could try writing books in the lesson using the child's name and his known words.
Teaching and Telling	Explicit information is provided, either about literacy instruction or about school procedure; one-way information	• "The Elkonin technique is used to help students 'glue sounds in place'. These sound boxes give students a tangible tool to help

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Table 3

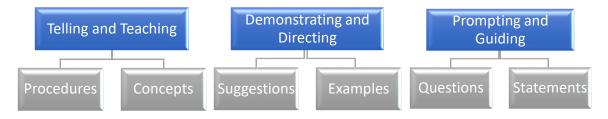
Teacher-to-Teacher Scaffolds

them keep track of the sounds in a word."

• Students in kindergarten and first grade tend to be able to work less independently than students in higher grade levels.

next set of categories. In the second round of data analysis, I coded the utterances of the participants that were not considered to be instructional scaffolds according to the new set of categories so as to create a context in which the instructional scaffolds were situated. Finally, in the third round of data analysis, I identified larger themes that emerged across all activity settings within each case.

Figure 2: Subcategories of Scaffolds



Quantitative Data Analysis

Once the first round of data was coded through qualitative measures, I tallied the number of times each of the three scaffolds was observed being used by each participant at each school site both within each activity setting in which they participated and overall, then conducted a series of chi-square tests for "goodness of fit". This statistical measure was used to test whether the actual number of observed uses of each scaffold was significantly different from the expected number of observed uses for each scaffold (Ravid, 2011). For this study, I assumed equal use for the three types of scaffolds. This was because I could find no research regarding distribution of scaffold types when studying teachers using scaffolds with other teachers. Therefore, there was no reason to believe there would be anything other than an equal distribution of scaffold types.

The null hypothesis is that there is no statistically significant difference between the actual number of observed uses of each scaffold and the number of observed uses of each scaffold that would be expected to occur by chance. To aid in the interpretation of the findings, the frequency of observed uses for each of the three scaffolds was converted to a percentage for each participant within each activity setting in the study. I then compared percentages of observed uses across scaffolds for each participant. Separate chi-square tests were completed for each school, since each school is its own case study.

Time Frame of the Study

The data were collected during the first semester of the school year. I first met with the teachers at each site before collecting any data and visited each site seven times between September and December. I continued to communicate with the participants throughout the second half of the school year, and completed member checks at the end of the year.

Limitations of the Study

One limitation of the study was the small number of cases being examined. The data reported in the study were based on observations, teacher surveys, and interviews in only two schools. While PCL gives a well-defined framework for comprehensive literacy partnerships, instruction, and professional development, not all schools implement these components identically due to factors related to personnel, time, and finances. Therefore, the results gained from this study may not be able to be extrapolated to other sites.

Time was another limitation of this study. I only collected data over the first half of the school year. This meant not seeing the model in action across an entire school year. Time was also a factor in relation to the amount of data collected. Because I was only in each building twice a month, there were many things I did not see: daily lessons in the classroom and

interventions, informal conversations that may have occurred between coaches and teachers, and simply the daily workings of a school implementing a collaborative literacy model.

Finally, all data collection and analysis were completed by me as the researcher. It is possible that I may have had biases that would impact the data collection, analysis and outcome of the study due to my experiences as a Reading Recovery teacher.

Ethical Concerns

This study presented very little risk to participants. All attempts were made to protect the identity of the schools and participants involved. Participants signed informed consent documents (see Appendix E), and were told that they may withdraw from participation at any time. Students who were in the small groups that are part of the study were also required to submit signed parent permission forms (see Appendix F) which informed parents that students' identities would be protected. These permission forms were sent home via the classroom teachers, who collected the signed forms and gave them back to me.

Team meetings, coaching sessions, and small-group reading lessons were video and audio recorded, but viewing of those sessions was limited to me, the participants, and to my committee members.

Summary

This chapter described the research design for this mixed methods study that examined the patterns of scaffolded discourse in two PCL schools implementing a comprehensive literacy model. At each school, I collected biographical data from the school literacy coach, the firstgrade interventionists, the first-grade teachers, the principals, and the district PCL coaches. I then interviewed the literacy coaches, interventionists, district PCL coaches, principals, and one focus

first-grade teacher from each school. Over the three months of the study, I observed grade-level meetings, coaching sessions, and small-group instruction at each school.

This study utilized both qualitative and quantitative data analysis on common data sets collected in the two schools. Qualitative analysis included three rounds of data analysis. The first round was done using predetermined codes of instruction scaffolds. The second round included coding of the utterances not identified as instructional scaffolds. The third round of data analysis included the identification of the larger themes that emerged from the data. Quantitative analysis included series of chi-square tests of "goodness of fit" to determine whether the actual number of observed uses of each scaffold was significantly different from the expected number of observed uses for each scaffold The next chapter presents the research findings in each of the two schools.

CHAPTER FOUR

FINDINGS

"Literacy learning is complex and that complexity, like a drive to a large city, might begin at any one of several different starting points and be approached in any of one of several different ways."—Marie Clay

The purpose of this mixed methods study was to analyze and describe the discourse that occurred during three components, or activity settings, of a comprehensive literacy model (CLM) as implemented in two school sites, which included: a) first-grade collaborative learning communities, b) one-to-one coaching and mentoring sessions, and c) first-grade small group reading instruction.

This research study was guided by the following general question: What are the patterns of scaffolded discourse that occur across activity settings within a comprehensive literacy model

designed for school improvement? Related to the general question are four specific research questions:

- What are the patterns of scaffolded discourse among literacy coaches and teachers during first-grade team meetings in two schools implementing a comprehensive literacy model?
- 2. What are the patterns of scaffolded discourse between literacy coaches and first-grade teachers during one-to-one mentoring sessions in two schools implementing a comprehensive literacy model?
- 3. What are the patterns of scaffolded discourse between teachers and students during first-grade small group reading lessons in two schools implementing a comprehensive literacy model?
- 4. What degree of similarity is there in the percentages of the patterns of scaffolded discourse across the three settings?

Because this was a multiple case study design, each case was examined as its own entity, with its own data sets analyzed, or what Merriam and Tisdale (2016) refer to as the "within-case analysis" (p. 234). Because CLM is a social model, it is important to acknowledge what each participant brings to the table; that is, the individual history and experiences each participant add to the "collective expertise and knowledge" (Forbes, 2015, p. 8) needed to create collaborative learning communities. In this study, the histories and experiences of the participants have been brought together in unique and distinct ways in these two schools, each of which has its own unique journey to PCL.

For each case, I first gave a description of the school and its participants, including a history of the implementation of Reading Recovery and Partnerships in Comprehensive Literacy

as well as the histories of the participants themselves. This history is important to the study because each school, or case, has a unique implementation of PCL, possibly due to the way PCL was implemented in each school, the length of time the school has been a part of PCL, and the background and knowledge of the participants. This history may help explain the results of the study, particularly the qualitative data. The data was then reported by research question, with qualitative findings followed by quantitative findings.

Case One: Irving Primary School

"When the interactions between individual and society are complex and changing it is the tentative decisions operating in a flexible system that provide the suitable base from which to get change."—Marie Clay

Setting

Irving Primary School is located in a mid-size town in a Midwestern state, and is one of ten schools in the Lincoln School District, a K-8 district of approximately 3,700 students. There are 184 students enrolled in this K-3 school, with two sections of kindergarten, three sections of first grade, and two sections each of second and third grades. According to the 2017-2018 school report (the year of this study), 89% of the students were white, 1% were black, 1% were Latinx and 8% were multiracial. In addition, 20% of the students had Individualized Educational Plans (IEP) and 64% of the students were considered low-income. Reading achievement for K-3 was determined by the Benchmark Assessment System, which was administered in fall, winter, and spring. According to spring 2017 benchmark assessments, 66% of the students in K-3 were meeting or exceeding the benchmark for reading.

Irving shares a building, built in 1976, with one of the district's junior high schools and is located in the former sixth grade wing of the building. The two schools share a cafeteria,

although their lunch times do not overlap. The design of the primary school is the "pod" concept, typical of middle schools built in the 1970s and 1980s with all of the classrooms open into a common area, which is the school's Learning Center that houses the school's library and computer lab. The classrooms are situated around the three outer walls of this wing, with the exception of the third and newest first grade section, which was added during the 2017-2018 academic year to accommodate a growth in enrollment. This first-grade classroom is located in a smaller, interior room, and while it too opens into the Learning Center, it has no windows. The fourth side of the learning center is what the teachers call "Intervention Row", because it is where the building coach, the reading interventionists, the social worker, and the special education teacher's rooms are all located. Because this side of the school shares a wall with the junior high, there are no windows in any of these rooms either, and you can often hear the older students moving through the hallway on the other side of the wall. The two reading rooms are actually half classrooms as they occupy a space originally designed as a regular classroom where, at some point, a wall was constructed to divide the space. Part of this wall holds a twoway window allowing for "behind the glass" lessons during Reading Recovery training classes. All of the classrooms have windows that look out on the Learning Center and all classrooms have doors that close.

Reading Recovery. Irving's parent school district, Lincoln, was one of the first in the state to implement Reading Recovery, training their first teachers in the early 1990s. In 1997, the Lincoln School District Teacher Training Site was established, offering Reading Recovery coursework and ongoing teacher support to several smaller surrounding districts as well as their own. Jill Walker started as the district's first Reading Recovery Teacher Leader at this time.

Over the years, the number of districts affiliated with the Lincoln Reading Recovery site has ebbed and flowed; currently, there are seven other districts associated with it.

The district remains fully implemented at all six of its primary schools even when other schools, both locally and statewide, have moved away from Reading Recovery. Long-time Lincoln Reading Recovery Teacher Leader Jill Walker laments the fact that smaller districts have abandoned Reading Recovery. She states, "I don't know what it is. Maybe it is the structure of the district, maybe the leadership...and maybe it's the size.... It has broken my heart. We are hoping they come back around."

From Reading Recovery to Partnerships in Comprehensive Literacy. The implementation of the comprehensive literacy model and partnership in PCL developed over a period of many years as evidenced in Figure 3 on page 100 (Note: The figure is placed at the end of this section so as not to interrupt the description below).

Jill first became familiar with the Partnerships in Comprehensive Literacy (PCL) model in 2005. She heard about a neighboring district partnering with Dr. Linda Dorn of the University of Arkansas and her network of Reading Recovery Teacher Leaders to implement a comprehensive literacy model (described in Chapter 2 as the Arkansas Literacy Coaching Model). With permission from district administrators, Jill and another Reading Recovery teacher, Katie Straight, visited that district and were very impressed with what they observed. Katie reflects:

We saw this model where these coaches were being trained by Linda Dorn and they had these model classrooms. The coaches were generally Reading Recovery teachers already and so a lot of their days were spent working in partnership with classroom teachers along with a little bit of intervention as well. And we thought, "That's incredible."

The two came back to the district and shared what they had seen with school administrators who were themselves passionate about literacy education.

In the summer of 2006, Jill Walker and Katie Straight, along with their school principals and two first-grade teachers, were granted funding through the district to attend the week-long CLM Summer Institute at the University of Arkansas Little Rock. Upon return, the team presented the information they learned to the administrators in the central office, highlighting what their own district schools were already doing that aligned with CLM. In the fall of 2006, with district support, the two schools who sent teams to Arkansas began to implement some of the components of the CLM, starting at the classroom level with support from the two Reading Recovery teachers.

Around this same time, the state began offering competitive block grants to help districts implement the Response to Intervention (RtI) process. Jill was a key player in writing the grant application for the Lincoln School District. The three-year grant was awarded to the district in fall 2007, one of only nine in the state to receive this competitive funding.

Winning this grant was a critical piece in the successful district-wide implementation of a comprehensive literacy model. With this new source of funding, two more teams of teachers and administrators from Lincoln were able to attend the CLM Summer Institute in Arkansas. During the second year of the grant, Jill Walker transitioned from the Reading Recovery Teacher Leader position to the District Facilitator and Coach.

As implementation continued throughout the district, the teachers, coaches, and administrators spent a lot of time "building awareness, piloting things, and setting goals" (J. Walker, personal communication, October 26, 2017), not necessarily following the model with complete fidelity, but using the resources provided at the Summer Institutes and from ULAR..

Jill states, "I don't know if you could see our children's state assessment scores increase that much as a result of those efforts, but I think it was more teachers could see the difference in the way they taught, so they felt empowered." She notes that teachers noticed students becoming more engaged in the reading and writing processes, which resulted in an increase in text reading levels, although at the time, the data was not systematically organized or analyzed.

During the 2009-2010 school year, the third year of the grant, Jill Walker, along with two other teachers, completed CLM/CIM coaching coursework at a university in the state that had recently become an affiliate university training site. The three teachers transitioned into newly created district-level coaching positions: primary, middle school, and junior high. These new literacy coaches began working with teachers and district administration to create a district-wide literacy curriculum that transitioned from simply reviewing unit expectations and assessments to closely examining student data to determine how specific groups of children were responding to instruction and adjusting unit content and instruction accordingly.

At the end of the 2009-2010 school year the grant funding ended. With no grant writer on staff, there were no opportunities to seek new grant money. However, the assistant superintendent at the time, with the support of the school board, decided to continue funding the coaching positions with the rationale that all professional development could be done in-house utilizing these positions. Coaches would continue working with existing teachers to work toward full implementation of the workshop model, including guided reading, particularly in the primary classrooms. Coaches were also able to mentor new teachers to the district who might not have been familiar with these unscripted approaches to literacy instruction.

In 2010, Lincoln became a partner in the Partnerships for Comprehensive Literacy, which allowed them to offer coursework for school coaches and CIM interventionists on-site as

well as host their own CLM Summer Institutes. During this same year, Jill Walker's role in the district changed once again, as she moved back into her role as the Reading Recovery Teacher Leader. Although she was no longer the Primary Literacy Coach, Jill did maintain her role and responsibilities as the CIM Coach for the district.

Current Implementation of CLM

While Irving Primary School actively utilizes all ten features of the CLM model, the focus of this study was on three of the features: Coaching and Mentoring, Systems Interventions, and Collaborative Learning Communities.

Coaching and mentoring. The coaching and mentoring roles at Irving Primary School have evolved over time. Before PCL, there were no literacy coaches, although there were positions in the district, namely, Instructional Student Support and Learning (ISSL) positions created to support student learning. In 2010, the district made the decision to train the people holding the ISSL positions as school literacy coaches through PCL. This was the year that Brooke Vonavich completed the coaching coursework and become the Instructional Coach at Irving.

While there is a mandatory two-year coaching cycle for new classroom teachers, most of Brooke's coaching opportunities come from requests by classroom teachers. Many of these are the result of collaborations that occur at grade-level problem-solving meetings. Other times, Brooke strategically selects a "lab classroom" in which she and the teacher try out new curriculum initiatives. Finally, informal coaching sessions often happen "on-the-run" as Brooke visits classrooms to observe students or ask the teacher a question. These visits result in conversations about students and instruction, and sometimes lead to more formal coaching cycles around the needs of the students in the classroom. Currently, there are no formal ways for

teachers to request a coaching cycle with Brooke, although she is very interested in working with her administrator to create an avenue for teachers to access this support in a more structured way.

Coaching cycles at Irving involve an initial collaboration about particular students or more general classroom instruction, followed by co-teaching of lessons, and a debriefing between the teacher and Brooke to discuss the lesson and plan next steps. For example, during one coaching cycle I observed between Brooke and Natalie, a first-grade teacher at this school, the two teachers were planning for a unit in Writer's Workshop that Brooke and Natalie were going to co-teach in Natalie's classroom. They held a pre-observation conference discussion where they set the goals for the unit, designed its pre-assessment, and established the grading rubric for the pre- and post-assessments. On another day, Brooke taught the first lesson of the unit in Natalie's class, after which the two met to debrief the lesson. Brooke and Natalie continued to meet weekly to plan the writing unit, while simultaneously co-teaching the unit from beginning to end.

Systems Interventions. Irving Primary School utilizes the interventions that are part of the Comprehensive Intervention Model (CIM), including Reading Recovery, Guided Reading Plus, Interactive Writing, and Comprehension Focus Groups. These interventions are taught by the school coach and the Literacy Leaders/Reading Recovery teachers. If a teacher at the school is going through the Reading Recovery coursework, he or she will also teach Reading Recovery. During the time of this study, the speech pathologist was completing Reading Recovery coursework, so she taught Reading Recovery to one student as well.

Collaborative Learning Communities. The teachers at Irving have many opportunities to participate in collaborative learning communities. Once a month, each teacher meets individually with the intervention team which consists of the school instructional coach and the

Literacy Leaders, in what the school refers to as "problem-solving meetings." The principal attends these meetings whenever she can, and sometimes the district CIM coach as well, usually at the invitation of one of the interventionists. According to the instructional coach, Brooke, the purpose of these meetings is "for the teachers to be able to collaborate together to set short term goals and adjust goals as needed." (B. Vonavich, personal communication, February 10, 2018). The team also uses this meeting time to update intervention groups and to determine the need for additional testing for students who are not responding to intervention.

In addition to these problem-solving meetings, the teachers at Irving also meet by grade levels for curriculum planning, either during a common plan time during the school day or after school. These meetings occur once a month and last thirty minutes. During School-Wide Improvement (SWIP) days, teachers across the district come together by grade levels to examine resources and co-plan lessons and units. During the year in which this study took place, grade levels met to take a closer look at the Common Core State Standards, particularly student outcomes and expectations around these standards.

The teachers at Irving also participate in district-level Collaborative Learning Communities. Grade levels meet together four times a year during Curriculum and Reflection meetings (CP & R) to reflect on curriculum and assessments that are common across the district. Additionally, there are district-wide professional development opportunities provided by the instructional coaches on topics ranging from technology to small group instruction to math.

The Instructional Coaches and Literacy Leaders, have opportunities to participate in learning communities as well. Brooke, Jessica, and Katie, all Reading Recovery teachers, attend ongoing professional development specifically related to Reading Recovery as their schedules allow. This professional development gives them the opportunity to interact with other area

Reading Recovery teachers under the leadership of their Teacher Leader, Jill. Within this community, the Reading Recovery teachers have the opportunity to read new research in the area of literacy, talk about the students with whom they work, and take turns teaching "Behind the Glass".

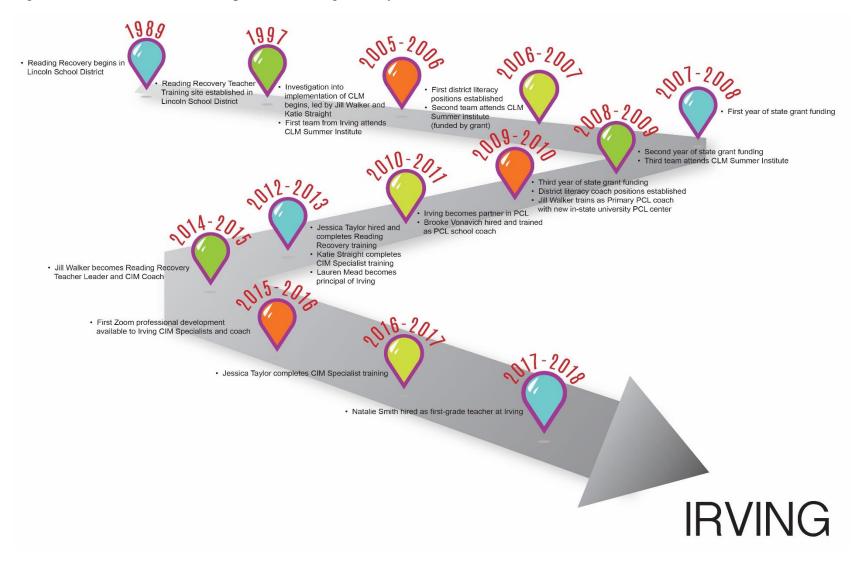
As a partner in PCL, the coaches and interventionists also have access to Zoom sessions with a broader network of CIM Specialists known as the Comprehensive Literacy Learning Network (CLLN). Like the Reading Recovery ongoing professional development, these sessions present new learning opportunities through book studies and other readings as well as the opportunity to present lessons to the group for feedback. During the time of this study, in fact, Jessica and Katie each presented lessons for feedback from the CLLN members.

Participants

Table 4 provides detailed biographical information on all participants in this study discussed below.

School Instructional Coach. As noted above, Brooke Vonavich is the Instructional Coach at Irving Primary School. Prior to stepping into the role as instructional coach at Irving, Brooke worked eight years as a kindergarten teacher and four years as a first-grade teacher at another school in the district. She has been the Instructional Coach at Irving for eight years and holds many responsibilities such as running monthly grade-level problem-solving meetings, daily intervention instruction with one Reading Recovery student (30 minutes), and collaboration and co-teaching with classroom teachers upon request. At the time of the study, Brooke was coplanning and co-teaching Writer's Workshop with a first-grade teacher who was new to the district. In addition to these instructional responsibilities, Brooke attends school and district level

Figure 3: Timeline of PCL Development for Irving Primary School



meetings on a regular basis, including a weekly meeting with the district coach and principal, as well as a weekly district-level meeting with the other district coaches. Brooke spends the rest of her day checking in with teachers to see how her intervention students are doing in the classroom and seeing if there is anything the teacher needs from her.

In her role as the instructional coach, Brooke tries to "look from all sides and perspectives" as the school continues its work in the CLM. She enjoys working with adults and "hearing teachers voice their opinions on what they are doing." She looks for ways to bridge what is happening in classrooms to best practices in literacy and looks forward to seeing these practices take place in classrooms. Brooke is always thinking from the perspective of "Where are you now? Where do you want to be and what do you have to do to get there?" One of Brooke's challenges is helping people understand her job. While she is often very busy with the different aspects of her position, there are times when she just needs to sit at her computer and work. Because of the school layout, anyone walking by can see when she is sitting at the computer, which sometimes causes her to feel guilty, as she worries that others may think she is not working. She recognizes that this is often her own self-perception in that it is actually what she worries others might be thinking, and yet, she is acutely aware of the vast needs across her school, and always wonders if she could be doing more. Thus, Brooke openly shares her schedule with the teachers so they can see where and how she spends her time and where she has time available for coaching or observations. This practice also helps Brooke hold herself accountable for the way she uses her time and simultaneously aids her to maintain a balance between her required paperwork, the needs of the teachers in the building, and the needs of the

students at Irving Primary School.

Table 4

Participant	Years at Irving	Years in Lincoln District	Previous experience	Master's Degree	PCL Training
Brooke Vonavich (School Instructional Coach)	8	20	8 years, kindergarten 4 years, first grade	Reading	RR coursework RR ongoing PD CIM training PCL coaching coursewor
Katie Straight (Full-time Literacy Leader)	2	27	2 years, kindergarten	Reading	RR coursework Continuing Contact CIM training
Jessica Taylor (Part-time Literacy Leader and CIM Specialist)	6	6	1 year 3-4 split (co-taught) 2 years, kindergarten 2 years, 2 nd grade 5 years, RtI Coordinator/Interventionist	Teaching and Leadership	RR coursework CIM training
Natalie Smith (Focus First Grade Teacher)	1	1	2 years, 5 th grade 2 years, 1 st grade 1 year, kindergarten	None	None
Sarah Tilton (First Grade Teacher)	8	8	1 semester, 5 th grade	In progress—Curriculum and Instruction (Tech)	Professional developmen for CIM, 4 summers
Savannah Johnson (First Grade Teacher)	4	4	NA	In progress—Teaching and Learning (Reading)	RR coursework
Lauren Mead (Principal)	6	13	4 years, Assistant Principal, JH 1 year, at-risk instructor (K-3) 3 years, 5/6 teacher 4 years, 5 th grade teacher	Educational Administration	Numerous Professional development conferences in CIM, CLM, and RR
Jill Walker (Reading Recovery Teacher Leader and CIM District Coach)	NA	25	4 years, CLM District Coach 13 years., Literacy Coordinator 7 years, classroom teacher	Reading	RR coursework RR ongoing PD CIM training PCL coaching coursewor

Irving Primary School Participant Demographics

Although she spends the majority of her time working with adults, Brooke greatly enjoys the time she gets to spend working with students.

I was able last year to get into a first grade classroom almost daily during Reader's Workshop time. We really worked together on how to get the kids to read independently. I also did some guided reading with them. Having those opportunities to sit down with kids and listen to them read and hearing what they are doing and seeing that progression—I love that. I love getting to work with them.

Working with intervention groups and co-teaching allow Brooke to keep a connection to the classroom and to the students that is so important to her.

Full-Time Literacy Leader. Katie Straight is the full-time Literacy Leader and interventionist at Irving Primary School. While she had only been at Irving for two years, she had been in the Lincoln School District for 27 years, with the first two years as a kindergarten teacher at Central Elementary school, another in the district. After training as a Reading Recovery teacher in 1994, she moved into the interventionist role at Central, where she remained until 2016. Then, due to budget restructuring, she moved to the interventionist role at Irving.

Along with her Reading Recovery training, Katie also completed the coursework for CIM Specialist several years ago. The additional coursework and the accompanying Zoom sessions have greatly contributed to Katie's teaching repertoire when working with struggling readers. She likes having a variety of research-based interventions to choose from to meet the needs of her students, whether it is building phonological awareness or increasing a child's vocabulary. She is willing to bring her lessons and her teaching to the Zoom sessions as she seeks feedback from her peers in order to enhance her teaching. During this study, Katie presented her work with

one of her small groups to the nationwide network of PCL literacy leaders and teachers. Her lesson plans and recorded lessons were viewed and critiqued by the teachers in the network. Katie was nervous about the process while at the same time, eager to receive feedback that could help improve her teaching.

Katie's daily schedule at the time of the study included working with four Reading Recovery students and several small intervention groups for students in kindergarten, first, second, and third grade, utilizing the components of the Comprehensive Intervention Model. For example, during the time of this study, Katie was working with a group of third graders who still needed the structure and support of Guided Reading Plus. She also had a group of first-graders doing an Interactive Writing intervention.

Although Katie's role does not include any formal coaching, her training in CIM and Reading Recovery, as well as her many years of teaching experience, make her an excellent resource for teachers. At her previous school, Katie was the person the teachers went to for help with particular students, especially during her last year when Central did not have an instructional coach. Because she is relatively new to Irving Primary, Katie knows it will take some time for the teachers in this building to use her as a resource on a regular basis. To help this process, she freed up some time on Thursdays to be available to the teachers during their afternoon preparation period. Additionally, Katie works with the teachers on scheduling to make sure that children are not being pulled from the classroom during guided reading instruction. "I want to make sure I am not supplanting any instruction...I'm just supplementing instruction," she says. "I don't want to take the place of your instruction—I'm adding on to your instruction. So, don't let me take them when you are going to be taking them [for guided reading]."

Part-Time Literacy Leader. Jessica Taylor is the part-time Literacy Leader and interventionist at the school. She has been in the Lincoln district for six years and splits her time between Irving and another K-3 school in the district. She worked previously in a neighboring school district as an RtI coordinator and interventionist, and had not heard of PCL until starting in the Lincoln district. Part of the condition of her employment at Lincoln was the completion of Reading Recovery training, which she found to be very eye-opening given that it was a new way of thinking about literacy instruction in terms of what children are capable of doing.

Jessica has continued to increase her expertise in reading instruction, spending the 2016-2017 school year completing the CIM Specialist certification through a university PCL center in the Midwest. She shared that she has enjoyed the mindset shift and self-examination that both Reading Recovery and CIM have brought to her teaching.

Good teaching is good teaching, but when you are applying it to a different type of format and really delving into the reasons why we are instructing the way that we are has been pretty important. And when you are really being held to it in a training, or you are being examined in a more specific way it is an accountability piece.

Both Reading Recovery and CIM coursework have led Jessica to greater self-examination of her teaching. She is always looking for ways to improve the structure of her lessons or the way she prompts the children in order to help them be more successful in their lessons. She also appreciates the constructive criticism that she has received from her teacher leader and from other teachers in her CIM Specialist coursework. "It's allowing yourself to be part of the process and not feel self-conscious about it," she reflects. "It is a huge thing to get over but it is all for the betterment of yourself and to improve the student learning." Jessica welcomes visitors into her classroom because she sees it as an opportunity for sharing of knowledge among teachers.

First-Grade Focus Teacher. Natalie Smith, while not new to teaching, was new to Irving Primary School and the Lincoln School District at the time of this study. In addition, she was new to the concept of a comprehensive literacy model. As part of her first year of teaching at Irving, Natalie worked closely with Brooke, the instructional coach, on all aspects of literacy instruction, but particularly on writing. During the first half of the 2017-2018 school year, Brooke and Natalie co-taught a unit on writing, partly because Natalie would be on maternity leave for six weeks during the second half of the year. By putting the co-teaching model into place, the two hoped to keep the momentum and continuity in writing going during Natalie's absence when Brooke would continue to go into the classroom and co-teach with the substitute.

Natalie's experience with CLM has been very positive, as she appreciated having a mentor to share ideas with, or to have come in for a second set of eyes to observe the classroom, particularly as she transitioned back into teaching guided reading in a first-grade classroom. "I just need to get back into the swing of things, of doing guided reading groups," she said. "I try to remind myself that last year (in her previous district); I met with everyone, especially the low readers, every day. So, I feel like if I can meet with everyone, 26 kindergarteners, then I can meet with 21 first graders in small groups."

Although Natalie's classroom is small and windowless, it is quite a pleasant place. She incorporates alternative seating with no traditional sets of tables or desks where students must sit for most of the day. Instead, there is a variety of spaces in which students work, including a few desks in the classroom where students can choose to sit if they wish. There are also large, open spaces on the carpet where some children gather during work time. Still other students may choose to sit on cushion-covered crates. Finally, there is an area of the room where students can stand and work at tables. Natalie's bulletin boards are covered with student work and pictures of

the students and their families. The children have access to many books that they can select to read during the times they read either to themselves or with a buddy.

I was able to observe both Reader's Workshop and Writer's Workshop in Natalie's classroom. At the beginning of her Reader's Workshop, Natalie conducts a mini-lesson with the whole class on some aspect of reading. She usually starts with a read aloud where she models a reading strategy for the students to think about. Then she sends the students off to work for about fifteen minutes while she meets with a guided reading group on the carpet at the front of the room. Here Natalie gathers small groups of children around her with their book boxes. While she works with a small group, the rest of the children are working in self-selected centers, including computers, read to self, read with a buddy, working with words, and writing.

Writer's Workshop starts in a similar way with either Natalie or Brooke modeling a writing strategy. After this quick mini-lesson, the students work independently on their writing pieces. Brooke and Natalie then circulate throughout the room, working with individual students on their writing.

Other School Personnel. Although the following individuals were not primary participants in the study, their roles within the school and the district placed them in the problemsolving meetings with the primary participants. The other two first grade teachers at Irving, the school principal, and the Reading Recovery Teacher Leader / CIM District Coach all interacted with the school instructional coach and the interventionists during problem-solving meetings. In addition, the Reading Recovery Teacher Leader/CIM District Coach provided valuable information on the history of CLM at Irving Primary School, as well as how the Lincoln School District came to participate in the Partnerships in Comprehensive Literacy, first with the University of Arkansas at Little Rock and then with the local university PCL center.

First grade teacher Sarah. At the start of the study, Sarah Richardson had been a firstgrade teacher at Irving Primary for eight years. She was working on a Master's Degree in Curriculum and Instruction with a technology focus, which she expected to complete in May 2018. Sarah reports a high level of engagement in PCL implementation in her building. Along with participating in the weekly problem-solving meetings, she meets regularly with the interventionists who work with her students, as well as monthly with the literacy coach. Sarah has also attended four summers of professional development sessions that are a part of the Comprehensive Intervention Model.

First grade teacher Savannah. Savannah Johnson is in her fourth year of teaching first grade, all at Irving. She was also enrolled in a Master's degree program, but in Teaching and Learning with a focus on Reading, with an anticipated completion date of May 2019. Savannah reports that she has not participated in the PCL process much, other than attending the monthly problem-solving meetings.

School principal. Lauren Mead has been the principal at Irving for six years, and was the assistant principal at the junior high school that shares the building with Irving before that. She was also a fifth-grade teacher, a sixth-grade (self-contained) teacher, and an at-risk instructor in the district. In fact, she attended Irving Primary school as a child, and so in her words she has "come full circle". Lauren participated in CLM Summer Institute in Arkansas with one of the teams during her second year as an administrator. She has also attended CIM training as an administrator and tries to attend the summer professional development sessions whenever she is able. While Lauren is a very active member of the team, she is always aware of her role as administrator and evaluator, and chooses not to attend some of those meetings so as not to "hinder the process."

Lauren gives some of the credit for the strength of CLM implementation to the previous principal, who had a strong background in Special Education, and therefore, understood the importance of thorough and accurate documentation. Lauren also acknowledges the strength of her relationship with Brooke and understands the importance of relationships among the members of strong teams, hoping that such relationships will continue to grow and strengthen in her building. "Plants can't grow without rain," she said as she talked about the continued growth for both the staff and the school as a whole within the CLM model. "Digging deeper into what we are doing with literacy can ruffle feathers sometimes, but we are always going to be for the better for it. I feel like that is my role—to sometimes push a little bit, but not too much. And it's hard sometimes to decide where that is and then also support, support."

Reading Recovery Teacher Leader and CIM District Coach. Jill Walker has been a teacher for thirty-two years, twenty-five of which have been in the Lincoln School District. She has been involved in the implementation of the comprehensive literacy model since its beginnings at both the district and Irving Primary school levels, and her role has evolved and changed over the years. Jill began her career in the district as a part-time Reading Recovery teacher and starting in 1997, a part-time Reading Recovery Teacher Leader. Since then, she has worked as a district Literacy Coordinator, a full-time Reading Recovery Teacher Leader, and more recently, the district Comprehensive Intervention Model Specialist. When Jill completed her PCL coaching coursework during the 2009-2010 school year, Irving Primary was her lab school so she has seen the development of CLM at Irving first-hand.

As one of the original team members to bring PCL to the Lincoln School District, Jill has been an important part of its process of implementation and growth, and her passion for her work is clear. She believes in the process, and that despite the ever-changing landscape of education in

general, and her school district in particular, the team at Irving is strong, led by a responsive and supportive principal who cares greatly for the school and the students. Jill feels a deep connection with the comprehensive literacy model within the Partnerships for Comprehensive Literacy. "It's who I am as a professional. When I think about the comprehensive literacy model, I just feel very fortunate that I get to continue to learn. To be able to be part of that process is just thrilling to me."

Research Question One: Language of Scaffolding in First Grade Team Meetings

The first research question sought to find the patterns of the language of scaffolding among participating literacy coaches and teachers during first-grade team meetings. In this school, the first-grade teachers met individually with the intervention team, which consisted of the first-grade teacher, the interventionist or interventionists who worked with the children from that classroom, and the school literacy coach. The school principal and the district Reading Recovery Teacher Leader also participated in some of the problem-solving meetings, although neither was present for all meetings. During these meetings, three types of scaffolds emerged: Telling and Teaching, Directing and Demonstrating, and Prompting and Guiding.

Telling and Teaching. This type of scaffold is defined as instructions or information given by someone in the group to the classroom teacher with no collaboration expected. This telling was divided into two subcategories: telling about procedures and teaching about literacy concepts. These scaffolds represent the highest load of responsibility on the speaker, and the lowest load of responsibility on the receiver; that is, the speaker holds and imparts the knowledge to the receiver with no expectation of action.

Telling about procedures. This scaffold was most common during the first set of problem-solving meetings. The language of this scaffold focused on the "how to" of Irving

Primary data systems and classroom instruction, and was mostly given by the school coach and the principal. For example, in the September problem-solving meeting with Natalie (new to Irving in 2017), Brooke (coach) and Lauren (principal) spent the first few minutes of the meeting familiarizing her with the Lincoln School District's data system and how it connected to classroom instruction, specifically Tier I instruction. There were fewer instances of this type of scaffold for the other two teachers since they were not new to the school and presumably knew how to navigate the district's data system. The scaffolds were very similar across all three problem-solving meetings. For example, in Natalie's meeting, Brooke and Lauren explained the tiers of instruction in this way:

Lauren:	At the primary level, all principals got together and identified this as our Tier I at the primary level, and we are all working
Brooke:	on the process
Lauren:	Working that way. And we want to get the core identified. Obviously that is our curriculum, our units of study, but then this is the Tier I of the classroom.
Brooke:	And so, this first layer, you can see, is universal. So, these would be things that pretty much everyone in your classroom would be receiving. And then the intervention comes here, and you can see that this is where your level of support intensifies, or it might be the frequency that sometimes intensifies.
Natalie:	OK.
Brooke:	And so. before where you might have been getting conferences once a week, twice a week in the classroom, maybe they are getting them daily or maybe three or four times a week. Or in a small group, where maybe there were in a group of six, but down here they are in a group of three. And it might be daily versus someone you are only going to see twice a week. SO, it's just thinking about that maybe you are differentiating for everybody, but what is the intensity of the groups for those strugglers that we have.
Lauren:	But it is not a comprehensive checklist necessarily, so you don't have to feel like, "Oh, I have to check all of these off." It just depends on the

student and what their needs are. Don't feel like you have to check all of these boxes before you get to another layer of intervention.

In Sarah's meeting, the information about what constitutes tiers of instruction was

consistent with what Brooke and Lauren shared with Natalie, but with acknowledgement that she

was probably already doing some of these things in her classroom, which she confirmed.

- Brooke: These are some of the core components in your classroom, and this is where we are thinking of those degrees of intensity. Tier I interventions could be those daily reading and writing conferences or it could be a word study, or they are writing about reading and thinking about the intensity of the group. The number of students might be smaller or how often you are seeing them. And I know you already have got some of that going on. You even said you have already started putting it into the data reporting system.
- Sarah: I've got it all in and we will be starting Monday because I am done with the benchmark.
- Brooke: And we have even taken some of this and personalized it to Irving. These are sections that fall within independent, so if they score here it is independent. So. if you are filling out your data, these are some things to consider as a Tier I that we could give teachers to help them think through that as well.
- Lauren: And that is something at the primary level that everybody is doing in Tier I, and all teachers are entering Tier I [into the data system]. That is the kind of thing we are trying to clean up—being more consistent district-wide, at least at the primary level. So, when we say Tier I, this is what we mean.
- Brooke: You and I, Sarah, have been talking about ways to do progress monitoring. Ultimately, it comes down to whatever notes you are taking.
- Sarah: So it doesn't have to be as specific as we had talked about?
- Brooke: No.

In both meetings, Brooke distinguished the tiers by levels of intensity, but the explanation of each tier was more explicit for Natalie, who was new to the district as well as the school. With Sarah, who had been in the district for several years, not as much time needed to explain the tiers of instruction; therefore, Brooke and Lauren simply stated the desire for consistency across the district, and then clarified what exactly needed to be entered in the system for progress monitoring.

Teaching about literacy. This type of scaffold focused on more general literacy

instructional practices. For example, Natalie, Brooke, Lauren, and Katie discussed a benchmark assessment for one child in Natalie's class while collaborating to interpret the child's reading behaviors on a particular text.

Natalie:	I think she relied heavily on the pictures, which we did talk about in our reading
Brooke:	But it still made sense.
Katie:	So, "My little dog likes to play" is the first thing she says, right? So, she's going for meaning and structure there and she is probably, like you said, relying really on that picture. Now then, did she go back and go s-l-ee-p?
Natalie:	Yes. Okay. SO, she self-corrected on that one.
Katie:	So she did, so she is noticing, and she is doing multiple attempts here. She knew it wasn't "play" and she sounded it out and got the word "sleep".

In this exchange, Natalie and Katie were working together to construct the interpretation of the child's reading. Natalie's hypothesis was that the child relied heavily on the pictures. Katie added a piece of literacy knowledge—the use of the cueing systems of meaning and structure—to support and confirm Natalie's hypothesis. During this conversation, Katie and Natalie made direct eye contact with one another as they co-constructed this interpretation. Both were fully engaged with one another as they discussed the child's running record.

They next try to figure out why the child might have said "jump" for "he".

- Katie: OK. Then she says "Jump" for "He", so probably something in the story is making her...something in the picture is making her think he's jumping.
- Natalie: That's when he is playing.

Lauren:	Oh, he was jumping for the ball.
Katie:	He likes to play with the ball.
Natalie:	Mmm-hmm.
Katie:	But that's funny because structurally, "jump" rarely comes at the beginning of the sentence. We often start with "the" (looks at Lauren)
Natalie:	And as soon as she got "he" she did (points at running record)
Lauren:	She held on to it.
Katie:	She did, and then she held on to that.

In this conversation, the literacy leader, Katie, acknowledged the principal's engagement in the process by looking directly at her as she talked about typical structure of early texts (*jump rarely comes at the beginning of the sentence*) and included her in the co-construction of meaning as well.

In another instance, during the problem-solving meeting with Savannah in September, the team discussed one student's deficit in letter identification. On three different occasions, Brooke inserted instruction about how to teach young children letter identification. First, she told Savannah, "…just thinking that if he's going to be working on letters, we want him working on ones he knows." Later in the meeting, Katie and Brooke discussed the difference in difficulty of retrieving letters during reading versus during writing as follows:

Katie:	So today is the last day of roaming so I think I'll do quick naming of letters and see if that is increasing in speedhe's monitoring more for it in reading it's just a more difficult task.
Brooke:	It's a different process. Because in reading it's there in front of him, in writing, it's the retrieval.
Savannah:	Yep.
Katie:	Yep. He's got to bring it up [from memory]. So

Lauren: So maybe we're just not there yet.

Savannah: Yes.

Savannah was attending to the conversation by agreeing with her team members, but not necessarily participating in the discussion. She simply acknowledged what the others said. This limited participation supports Savannah's statement that she did not participate much in the PCL process.

Finally, Brooke summarized the group's decisions about the instruction for this student in both intervention and in the classroom in regarding letters. She reiterated that the teachers would work on letter formation with the student and also interjected her own thinking, saying, "I was even thinking diagonals are hard, so might want to avoid diagonals for a little bit...the Y and the U, the Y and the W, and the J and the G are confusions, so might want to hold off until he's had a little more experience with those." This statement supports her earlier assertions that instruction for this student needs to start from what he knows, and to avoid difficult letters while he is increasing his letter retrieval speed in both reading and writing.

Quantitative patterns of telling and teaching. Each type of scaffold was counted and recorded in a frequency distribution table (see Table 5). This table was then analyzed for patterns of scaffolds: how many scaffolds occurred in total for that category, how many of each scaffold occurred, who gave each type of scaffold, and if relevant, to whom the scaffolds were given.

There were 47 total Telling and Teaching scaffolds across the three months: nineteen Telling about Procedures (TAP) and 28 Teaching about Literacy (TAL). All nineteen of the TAP scaffolds were given during the September problem-solving meetings. Of the 28 TAL scaffolds, 71 percent (n = 20) were given during the September meetings, 21 percent (n = 6) were given at the October meetings, and seven percent (n = 2) were given at the December meetings.

Table 5

Brooke provided 43 percent (n = 20) of the total Telling and Teaching Scaffolds. 60 percent (n = 12) of these scaffolds were TAP and 40 percent (n = 8) were TAL. Katie provided 34 percent (n = 16) of the total Telling and Teaching scaffolds, all of which were TAL scaffolds.

	<u>September</u>		<u>October</u>		December		
	Procedure	Literacy	Procedure	Literacy	Procedure	Literacy	Total
Natalie's r	neeting						
Brooke	6	0	0	0	0	0	6
Katie	0	9	0	0	0	1	10
Natalie	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Lauren	3	0					3
Jessica					0	0	0
Total	9	9	0	0	0	1	19
<u>Sarah's m</u>	eeting						
Brooke	3	1	0	0	0	0	4
Katie	0	2	0	1	0	0	3
Sarah	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Lauren	3	0					3
Jill			0	4			4
Jessica					0	0	0
Total	6	3	0	5	0	0	14
Savannah'	s meeting						
Brooke	3	6	0	0	0	1	10
Katie	0	2	0	1	0	0	3
Savannah	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Lauren	1	0					1
Jessica	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Total	4	8	0	1	0	1	14
Total	19	20	0	6	0	2	47

The school principal, Lauren, provided 15 percent (n = 7) of the total Telling and Teaching scaffolds, all of which were TAP. Finally, Jill provided eight percent (n = 4) of the Telling and Teaching scaffolds, all of which were TAL. It is important to note that Lauren only attended the

September problem-solving meetings for all three first-grade teachers and Jill only attended one problem-solving meeting during the study—the October meeting with Sarah. Only Brooke and Katie attended all three teachers' problem-solving meetings during all three months.

Directing and Demonstrating. The focus of this type of scaffold was on instructional practices as they related to literacy instruction. While the Telling and Teaching scaffolds were meant to give information *about* procedures or literacy instruction, these scaffolds seemed to *invite* other participants to try these procedures, either because they had already been successfully implemented by the speaker, or because the speaker thought they might be valuable for the focal child of the meeting. These scaffolds seemed to fall into two categories: describing a procedure that could be tried in the future (Directing) or explaining how a procedure had already been enacted (Demonstrating).

Directing. This scaffold occurred more often than did that of Demonstrating, and occurred when a speaker gave a suggestion for instruction. Sometimes the suggestion was offered to the classroom teacher, and at other times, occurred between literacy interventionists. Finally, there were occasions where the speaker gave a suggestion that she herself was going to try in the future. This was usually an interventionist mentioning some instructional procedure that she would try during the intervention lessons with that child.

In one problem-solving meeting, the team discussed Jenna, a girl in Natalie's class, who was having difficulty producing correct language structure in both reading and writing. Natalie noticed that Jenna often made structural errors in reading that she did not notice. Although Natalie had been trying to be more explicit in her language with Jenna, there had not been much change in Jenna's reading.

Natalie: She's reading, but then what she says doesn't make any sense at all. So, we are working on ... I tell her, "Stop. Does that make sense? No? So, we

never say that."

Katie: So you are working on that structure.

Natalie: Yes.

Katie: We can't nitpick over every little page, right? So, if it's something that's pretty close and it make sense, let's keep going with that, especially if there was some kind of visual similarity too. But if it doesn't make sense, those are going to be the errors we have to stop at. We could wait until the end of the sentence or the end of the page, but then it has to be ... this is what you said. Does that sound right? Does that make sense? We don't ever say it that way.

Natalie: Sometimes I feel like when I ask her that ...

- Katie: She's not sure?
- Brooke: She doesn't recognize it?

Natalie: Yes, she doesn't.

Katie: So if it's something we are not sure about, we just have to say, "We don't say it that way." Instead of asking her. "That's not the way a book is going to sound." Or "That's not the way we say that." So, you are right. Sometimes you can't ask because she doesn't know." If she's reading something and there is no way that would go with the story then we have to stop her and say, "That doesn't fit in the story." Or, "That doesn't sound like something that the author would write or something that we would say."

Brooke: She kind of does that in her writing too, when she is writing in the classroom. She's not writing real, complete sentences or structurally accurate sentences. She's throwing in "a" where it doesn't need an "a". I noticed that yesterday.

This was an excellent example of suggesting a shift in instruction to help a child

strengthen a cuing system that she was not using well. The teacher identified the problem (child is not reading with structural accuracy), then explained how she was addressing the problem (asking the child if what she had just read made sense). The team then worked together to establish that when the child was asked if what she had just read made sense, Natalie was not sure that Jenna knew that it did not. Finally, Katie suggested a stronger teacher scaffold (don't ask the child if what she read made sense—tell her that what she just read did not match how we would say that).

For one of Sarah's meetings, the problem-solving team was joined by the district's Reading Recovery Teacher Leader, Jill. In this case, the team was discussing Charity, a child in Sarah's classroom who was also one of Katie's Reading Recovery students. In the following conversation, Jill suggested that Sarah she could use the cut-up sentence procedure, a daily component in Reading Recovery lessons, to help solidify the connection between writing and reading for this child.

Jill:	I am wondering if just using her writing as something to read and even make use of would be helpful. You know we have the cut-up sentences and having her match—rewriting her sentence, and then not to put it back together without a copy. That will help her to look at the print a little bit more. And that will give her an experience not only with writing it but then reading it.
Sarah:	She tries to rely on her memory a lot.
Katie:	But for the most part, she can put back a simple sentence. I will do like three or four words as individuals and then I will put the rest in phrases. Because if I have too many words for a cut up sentence that is overwhelming. But she can put it back together. At that point, she is using beginning sounds, she is using her memory.
Sarah:	She doesn't use what she knows across the board.
Jill:	She isn't transferring?
Sarah:	She knows when you are doing the cut up, "Now I have to pay attention to this." But in the text, she doesn't think to do that. "That isn't something I need to be doing for this task. It's just for that one."
Katie:	And she can tell me, like if she said, "We put on" and then she will look and I will say, "Can this be on?" and she will be like, "No, that can't be on. There is an "s"." She can tell me that, but then she will just start guessing. So, she knows it starts with "s", and she knows s has the /s/ sound, but she doesn't

Jill: Apply that term.

From this exchange, it was evident that the cut-up sentence technique was a good place to start given that it was a task that Charity could do with some success. Jill continued the conversation by giving suggestions for activities and procedures that could be done in the classroom to support the reading and writing procedures that occurred during Charity's daily Reading Recovery lessons.

Jill's first recommendation had to do with the opportunities for learning present during Sarah's daily interactive read alouds, which then segued into the isolation and identification of beginning sounds, which Charity could use to locate unknown words while reading in both the classroom and in the Reading Recovery lessons.

Jill:	That makes me also think about the opportunity that she has in regards to your interactive reading, the opportunity to hear stories and engage in a story and the author's purpose for writing a story and things like that. And how we need to back up and model, knowing that we are starting in a different place with Charity, giving her that opportunity to develop that phonemic awareness.
Katie:	And every day I do literally like thirty seconds to a minute of phonemic awareness activities from a book. Beginning sounds and ending sounds I am doing right how.
Jill:	That's what I am thinking. You don't have to articulate the first sound.
Katie:	Just hearing it.
Jill:	I think there is so much she is confused about. Everyone is moving on and we need to keep it concrete for her as much as we can do that, and be repetitive too. So, the more that you guys can work together even on the same tools. That is going to be tricky in the classroom with that many more, but knowing that is where you are, I think that these early things like articulating the first sound and keeping in there and not trying to
Katie:	Absolutely. I mean, if she just gave me the first sound, that is all I am looking for.

- Jill: And another one that starts like that. And keep spending time on that in all places and whatever your goal is, just keeping it that way. Not deviating, I guess. Not expecting more.
- Brooke: So, she writes the first sound. Her reading strategy is that she says the first sound when she comes to an unknown word.
- Jill: She identifies the first sound when she comes to a picture. Just teach her that this stands for that. Because it is just not happening. And then the idea of using the writing ... the reciprocity between the writing and reading and using what she is doing in writing and vice versa. And then the cut up will help with that too. That is where my mind is going.

Brooke also suggested borrowing a beginning sounds center activity from the

kindergarten teachers, a suggestion which Sarah accepted with an "Okay."

Demonstrating. In one example, the interventionist, Katie, spoke to the classroom

teacher, Sarah, about helping a student understand the concept of a word. Katie gave examples of

two teaching procedures: Stretching words out to hear their sounds and using a masking card, a

tool often used by Reading Recovery teachers.

Katie:	It's more the phonological awareness of "I can articulate a word
	slowly and isolate a phoneme and write down that letter." She doesn't get
	the act of doing that, so it's hard for her to say words slowly, so we do a
	lot of saying words slowly; we do a lot of clapping syllables.

- Sarah: We've been doing syllables.
- Katie: Thinking more about the concept of a word and how long words are. She loves my masking card. So, I have a card with a little window on it, and we slide it ... and the nice thing about it is that it blocks out everything except for what I want her to see.

Katie and Sarah identified a common activity they had been working on with the student—the clapping of syllables. Katie then added the information about the masking card, including what it is (a card with a little window on it), how to use it (slide it), and what it is for (it blocks out everything except for what I want her to see). A little later in Katie's utterance, she told the

group about coming to the word "hippopotamus" with the masking card, during which the child noticed how long the word was—that it took up the whole window of the masking card.

In another problem-solving meeting, Katie was sharing her concerns over a child's speed of processing and responding with Savannah, the child's classroom teacher.

Katie: For a few words I've been throwing magnetic letters out [and told him] "Make it quickly. What are those letters?" That's the only thing I have been doing in isolation. But we'll start to do a bit more of that now that we are moving into instruction.

Savannah: Okay.

In this instance, Katie provided an example of something that she did, having the student spell words quickly with magnetic letters in isolation, and stating that she planned to do more of this activity as the child moves from Roaming in the Known (the first ten days of a Reading Recovery series of lessons) into formal Reading Recovery lessons.

Quantitative patterns of Directing and Demonstrating. As with the patterns of Telling and Teaching, each type of scaffold was counted and recorded in a frequency distribution table (See Table 6). This table was then analyzed for patterns of scaffolds: how many scaffolds occurred in total for that category, how many of each scaffold occurred, who gave each type of scaffold, and if relevant, to whom to scaffolds were given.

There were 163 total Directing and Demonstrating scaffolds across the three months: 89 Directing and 74 Demonstrating. Of the 89 Directing scaffolds, 45 percent (n = 40) were given during the September meetings, 40 percent (n = 36) were given at the October meetings, and seventeen percent (n = 15) were given at the December meetings. Of the 74 Demonstrating scaffolds, 43 percent (n = 32) were given at the September meetings, 22 percent (n = 16) were given at the October meetings, and 35 percent (n = 26) were given at the December meetings.

Katie provided 58 percent (n = 95) of the total Directing and Demonstrating scaffolds,

and 49 percent (n = 47) of these scaffolds were Directing, while 51 percent (n = 48) were

Demonstrating. Brooke provided fifteen percent (n = 24) of the total Directing and

Demonstrating scaffolds, of which 92 percent (n = 22) were Directing and eight percent (n = 2)

were Demonstrating. Jessica provided 13 percent

Table 6

Directing an	nd Demonsti	rating Frequer	ıcy Distribu	tion Irving Pr	oblem-Solvi	ng Meetings	
	<u>Septe</u>	ember	Octo	<u>ober</u>	Dece	<u>mber</u>	
	Direct.	Demons.	Direct.	Demons.	Direct.	Demons.	Total
Natalie's me	eeting						
Brooke	8	0	3	0	2	1	14
Katie	9	2	10	3	4	1	29
Natalie	0	2	1	1	0	0	4
Lauren	2	0					2
Jessica					0	7	7
Total	19	4	14	4	6	9	55
Sarah's mee	ting						
Brooke	1	0	2	0	0	0	3
Katie	6	10	1	6	ů 0	$\overset{\circ}{2}$	25
Sarah	Ő	0	0	1	ů 0	0	1
Lauren	0	0					0
Jill			11	0			11
Jessica					0	1	1
Total	7	10	14	7	0	3	41
Savannah's	meetings						
Brooke	4	0	0	0	2	1	7
Katie	5	11	5	4	7	9	41
Savannah	0	0	0	0	0	2	2
Lauren	2	ů 0					$\overline{2}$
Jessica	3	7	1	1	0	2	14
Total	14	18	6	5	9	14	66
Total	40	32	34	16	15	26	163

(n = 22) of the total Directing and Demonstrating scaffolds, eighteen percent (n = 4) of which were Directing and 82 percent (n = 18) were Demonstrating. Lauren provided two percent (n = 4) of the Directing and Demonstrating scaffolds, all of which were Directing scaffolds. Natalie and Savannah each provided four scaffolds during their problem-solving meetings, while Sarah provided one during hers.

Prompting and Guiding. This level of scaffold, defined as open-ended questions or statements meant to invite the classroom teacher to participate in the identification or creation of teaching, moves to increase student learning and was the least utilized by the teachers at Irving Primary School. In most of the examples of prompting and guiding at Irving Primary School, the questions were not necessarily open-ended, in that they were phrased as yes or no questions. The intent of the questions, though, appeared to be to get the teacher thinking about what the child was or was not doing during reading instruction in order to find an instructional procedure that would work to meet the needs of that child at that time.

In this example, Brooke talked with Katie and Natalie about Jenna, the student mentioned above, and the three teachers were looking at what cueing systems the child was using on the benchmark assessment at the point of frustration.

Brooke: So just thinking about some things as you are starting to work with her and you are continuing to work with her, to be looking for and to be thinking about the Benchmark Assessment. Was she pointing to words as she was reading?

- Natalie: Yes.
- Brooke: And was she pointing right to the beginning? You think about that crisp pointing or pointing to the first letter because she's got this confusion of "no" and "on" so is she always looking to the first letter of a word or does she still point to the middle?
- Natalie: When she got to the one she knew, it was more like ... (demonstrating fast

pointing at words) ... so I feel like it's more, she would point to the beginning of the words like, "I'm really not quite sure what that is." But as soon as she got towards the end when it was, "He likes to..." It was, "He likes to..." (*indicates slower pointing*).

- Brooke: And you want some of that to be more fluent for what she knows ... I was just thinking about using what she knows consistently because then she got to the harder one and she was just inventing, so was she using any of her knowledge on words to help her continuously through that text, or was she even thinking about the text?
- Katie: I think she is just thinking about ... and that's so hard because if we start to analyze hard texts, c it's just ... everything breaks down and falls apart on hard texts. I think she goes back to meaning and picture at points of difficulty.

During this exchange, Brooke asked both Natalie and Katie to think about what cueing

systems Jenna was using during the reading of the text. Brooke's guiding questions (Was she pointing at words? The beginning or the middle? Was she thinking about the text or inventing?) were meant to get these two teachers to come up with some common language for instruction to use with Jenna as she experienced reading instruction in the classroom with Natalie and Reading Recovery instruction with Katie. Finally, Katie identified a teaching procedure that would likely work to get Jenna to attend to text during both reading and writing, ending with a plan to follow up with Natalie:

Katie:	So when you are working on looking for an unknown word, or even writing, "What letter would you expect to see?" If she is stuck. But she is pretty good at slowly articulating and recording some sounds, so I think it's the meaning piece for her that we need to focus on.
Brooke:	I think it's that carryover really. She's getting the beginning sound in her writing but she's not carrying over into the reading. So, it's just getting her to see that she can do that in both places.
Katie:	And I feel like in another week I'm going to have more, and I'll check in with you.
Natalie:	Thank you.

Quantitative patterns of Prompting and Guiding. As before, the prompting and guiding scaffolds were counted and recorded in a frequency distribution table (See Table 7). This table was then analyzed for patterns of scaffolds: How many scaffolds occurred in total for that category, how many of each scaffold occurred, who gave each type of scaffold, and if relevant, to whom to scaffolds were given.

Table 7

	ag and Guiding Frequency Distribution Irving Problem-Solving Meetings <u>September</u> <u>October</u> <u>December</u>						
	Question	Statement	Question	Statement	Question	Statement	Total
Natalie's 1	meeting		-				
Brooke	3	0	3	0	0	0	6
Katie	4	0	2	0	0	0	6
Natalie	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Lauren	0	0					0
Jessica					0	0	0
Total	7	0	5	0	0	0	12
<u>Sarah's m</u>	eeting						
Brooke	0	0	1	0	1	0	2
Katie	0	1	0	0	0	0	1
Sarah	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Lauren	0	0					0
Jill			3	1			4
Jessica					0	0	0
Total	0	1	4	1	1	0	7
Savannah	's meeting						
Brooke	1	1	4	0	0	0	6
Katie	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Savannah	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Lauren	2	0					2
Jessica	0	0	0	0	1	0	1
Total	3	1	4	0	1	0	9
Total	10	2	13	1	2	0	28

Promotion and Guiding Fraguency Distribution Inving Problem Solving Mastings

There were 28 total Prompting and Guiding scaffolds across the three months of meetings. Of these, 50 percent (n = 14) were provided by the literacy coach, Brooke, 25 percent (n = 7) were by Katie, the full-time interventionist, and fourteen percent (n = 4) by Jill, the District Reading Recovery Teacher Leader. Lauren provided seven percent of the scaffolds (n = 2) and Jessica provided four percent (n = 1). It should be noted that Lauren only attended the September meetings and Jill attended only Sarah's October meeting. Jessica was present all three of Savannah's meetings, but only the December meetings with Natalie and Sarah.

Contextual Considerations. As stated previously, the purpose of these problem-solving meetings was to bring together the teachers who work with the first-grade students, particularly those who struggle with reading and writing, in order to collaborate to set and adjust short-term goals for these students. During the second review of the data, the following themes emerged: Time, identification of student strengths and weaknesses, and situated identities within the problem-solving setting.

Time. Time was referenced in several ways during the problem-solving meetings. In the September meetings, Brooke defined time as one way to determine intensity of intervention. For example, she talked in all three meetings about how increasing time with students can signal an increase in the intensity of intervention from Tier I to Tier II. Students who are in Tier I may only meet with the teacher twice a week, while a student in Tier II might meet with the teacher every day.

Allocation of instructional time was also addressed during the problem-solving meetings. For example, in Sarah's September meeting, the team discussed Charity's ability to monitor known words and word parts. Katie considered spending more time on writing in order to help Charity use known words to monitor her reading, stating her belief that writing using Charity's own language "is one of the best things we can do for her." Since there were not many books that Charity was able to read successfully, Katie wanted to be able to produce books written by

Charity that she would be able to go back and reread. Sarah then asked if Charity could write pattern books using her known books. This would then support the writing in the classroom as well, theoretically making better use of everyone's time, including that of Charity.

Time was also frequently mentioned during interviews with the participants in relation to the problem-solving meetings, most often in terms of not having enough of it. When I asked whether the teachers ever met as a grade-level with the team, Brooke told me they used to do this, but due to the inability to cover all the teachers' classrooms in the allotted timeframe for the meeting, they had to move away from that model. Brooke lamented the lack of time for the grade level to meet as a whole, particularly to collaborate on the direction the teachers wished to go within the comprehensive literacy model, as follows:

There is a form—one for CIM and one for CLM—it's the one where are you now and where do you want to be and what do you have to do to get there? We haven't done that in our building for a really long time. Sometimes you really want to do all of those pieces but having the time to sit down and the time to get everyone together to do that ... Lauren and I could sit down and fill it out but there is more value if we have our team fill it out, just to get the number of people invested.

Lauren agreed that time is always a factor, and sees the value of the time the team comes together, wishing there was more of it. When asked about the first-grade team coming together as a whole, Lauren said,

I feel like if there was a way to make that work, or if there was a need for that, like when we start getting into the small group conversations where there are multiple kids from multiple classrooms I almost wonder if we should try that because that just seems more efficient. I would like to open up that flexibility.

She did acknowledge, however, that with Irving's current classroom coverage configuration, someone else would have to step away from the meeting in order to cover the second teacher's classroom.

Jessica also talked about time and its relationship to the problem-solving process. She thinks about the development of the CLM process much in the same way as a Reading Recovery teacher thinks about the development of students: as a process or change over time. Jessica likes the current problem-solving model because she sees it as a more streamlined process pared down to "specific kids and specific teachers, coming in with Brooke [who was], recording for us ... trying to expedite the process." She recognizes that one of the biggest challenges of implementing a comprehensive literacy model is time-- allowing time for people to really think about the purpose and goal of that collaboration time and to see their own accountability for what they need to bring to the table.

Identification of student strengths and weaknesses. While the focus of the problemsolving meetings was supposed to be on collaborative goal-setting, a lot of the discussion time was spent simply talking about the students in terms of what they could or could not do in reading and writing. These positive and negative statements were often part of long utterance that contained multiple positive statements and multiple negative statements. For example, one utterance by Katie contained the following positive (P) and negative (N) statements about a child:

- He is beginning to use beginning sounds. (P)
- He is beginning to self-monitor for known words while matching one-to-one. (P)
- When he begins to say something wrong he's starting to notice. (P)
- He's picking up more and more reading known words. (P)
- Writing is more of a struggle for him. (N)
- The handwriting is such a struggle. (N)
- His fluent response to known words is getting quicker. (P)
- He is constantly pausing like, "Go back and read what?" (N)

- Sometimes I think when I say the word "story" he is looking around for a book. (N)
- Sometimes he wants to guess at what his next word is going to be as we are writing. (N)
- Attention for him is so difficult. (N)
- I wonder if it's because, "I've forgotten what I've even written here and I don't even know..." (N)

At other times, the participants would go back and forth trading positive and negative statements

about the child. Here is one exchange from Natalie's October meeting.

Natalie:	So, I was like, "Go and sketch out Walmart." And then she went and I went to check on her and I was like, "Oh, what is that?" And she said, "Oh my bedroom." And I was like, "Oh…" (N)
Katie:	I wonder if she noticed what somebody else was doing and thought, "I'm not doing the right thing. I am supposed to be drawing my bedroom." I wonder if somebody near her was drawing?"
Natalie:	She is very unsure, just with her surroundings. (N)
Katie:	So if somebody does something, she thinks she has to copy it. She doesn't know when it's okay to be off on your own and when it's not. (N)
Natalie:	When I am working with her and another kiddo and I am right here, she Always (mimics looking over at someone else's paper) and I say, "Nope. Don't look at that. (N)
Brooke:	So, is that [writing] from the beginning of September? I was just looking at the date on there.
Natalie:	No, that date is wrong. See? She put 10=10. (N)
Brooke:	So, knowing how to record the date.
Natalie:	She doesn't know that. (N)
Brooke:	And the only reason I was asking was that yesterday when I walked in, she already had her idea for the story, Chuck E. Cheese. (P)
Natalie:	That was a good one because that was major. That was her birthday, so I think that one really stuck with her. (P) But the past couple times she has been writing about a small moment. If she doesn't have something that was awesome, then it's really hard for her.

These types of utterances were common throughout all problem-solving meetings in this study.

Situated identities. This theme emerged not only in the words spoken during the interviews and problem-solving meetings, but also through the body language and actions of the participants during these meetings. While titles are clearly defined—instructional coach, interventionist, classroom teacher—each participant appeared to have a perception of what her roles and responsibilities were during these meetings.

Brooke. During the problem-solving meetings, Brooke first situated herself as the moderator and note taker for the group. She kept notes on the *Collaborative Goal Sheet* (Dorn & Soffos, 2012) and at the end of each meeting, repeated back what she heard the group say for each area on the form (see Figure 4). This was not always easy to do, especially given the number and length of comments that occurred during these meetings. In these meetings, Brooke sat at the head of the rectangular table with the others on the two sides. In September, it was Brooke, with assistance from Lauren, who told the classroom teachers about the data collection and recording procedures, positioning herself as the data keeper and administrator. At other times, Brooke positioned herself as coaching colleague. With each of the first-grade teachers, Brooke asked prompting and guiding questions, gave suggestions for instruction, and shared literacy knowledge with the teachers.

Katie. Katie positioned herself as first and foremost an advocate and teacher for the children. She reported that she hates being gone from her classroom even to attend the problem-solving meetings. She would in fact attend just part of a meeting that had to do with her specific children and then rush off to take students for instruction, even if she knew she could not fit the whole lesson in. Katie also positioned herself as an informal coach for the teachers with either their own classroom instruction or with specific students. She reported using her planning time to

check in with teachers and students and she made herself available for teachers before and after school. Katie also took on the identity as a learner. She sought out learning opportunities even though she is at the top of the pay scale and cannot advance any more. For example, Katie volunteered to be one of the model teachers for the nationwide Zoom session. It made her nervous knowing that her work would be viewed and critiqued by many other teachers, but she was willing to do it to get feedback on her teaching from multiple sources.

Katie's knowledge and passion for teaching was evident in problem-solving meetings as she took on the identity as a literary expert. She had many things to say about each student's work during her interventions. She was very specific about what the strengths and weaknesses for each child, giving examples from the student work samples she brought to each meeting, including Running Records and writing journals. She also had many suggestions for instructional practices, giving an average of ten suggestions or examples at every meeting.

Natalie. Natalie primarily took on the identity of teacher. In problem-solving meetings, she shared events from her classroom and always brought student work to share with the team. Natalie was also willing to take on the role of learner. She responded positively to suggestions for instruction (I like that idea) and reported back when she tried something previously suggested (I have tried to do what was on the sheet that we discussed last time).

Research Question Two: Language of Scaffolding in One-to-One Coaching Sessions

The second research question sought to find the patterns of scaffolded discourse between the literacy coach and one first-grade teacher during coaching meetings in two schools implementing a comprehensive literacy model. This study focused on the language that occurred during coaching meetings between Brooke and Natalie, the focus first grade teacher. As mentioned above, these two teachers decided to co-teach writing starting in October and

continuing until Natalie left for her maternity leave in January. The results reported here came from the meetings that occurred in October and December, with analysis of the formal meetings in those months, although these two teachers also met informally at other times. During these mentoring sessions, the same three themes emerged: Telling and Teaching, Directing and Demonstrating, and Prompting and Guiding.

Telling and Teaching. As defined above, telling and teaching occurred when explicit information was provided, either about literacy instruction or about school procedure with no expectation of collaboration. In the mentoring sessions, these prompts were often embedded in conversations about instruction, with none of the prompts having to do with school procedures. All of the teaching prompts were given by Brooke.

Brooke and Natalie used Lucy Calkins' *Units of Study* as the basis for their co-teaching in writing. As they began their collaboration in October, the two teachers used this guide to help them organize their schedule, their topics, and their assessments. For the first focal piece of writing, Brooke and Natalie chose "All About" books. Brooke then lead Natalie through the process of setting up the unit, using the projector in the room to show the working documents from the Calkins book:

Brooke:	This is an example of an anchor chart. This one goes all the way down to PreK through second grade.
Natalie:	I just don't understand the scoring of it.
Brooke:	I am just looking at the continuum of scoring. So, they are doing this 2.5. If they are in between here, they have this in place but not really anything here, you would give them the 2.5 Just a way to score it.
Natalie:	It just differentiates for them too. For your lower writers, you will hopefully see growth. It's not a checklist—yes they have it, no they don't. So that would probably be good for you to use.

Brooke:	The thing about that then, when you look at the other ones, it should line up.
Natalie:	Because they "wrote an ending" is on there, part by part.
Brooke:	Writer told, drew, and wrote about a topic. That's overall kindergarten. That's the same. I told what my topic was. So, these match up here on the rubric.

Brooke was able to help Natalie clear up her confusion about how to score the students' writing using the anchor chart and the scoring rubric. The two planned to administer an ondemand writing, where students would write about something they know a lot about, the following week, which would then be scored by Brooke using the rubric. This same rubric would then be used on the final piece of writing in the unit, with the hope of showing growth for all students regardless of where they started on it.

During their next meeting, Brooke and Natalie compared one student's on-demand writing to the rubric. There were fewer instances of teaching scaffolds in this meeting since the focus was on scoring the pre-assessment to prepare for instruction. There were three instances of teaching that occurred in this meeting. In the first and second, Brooke clarified for Natalie what the grade level expectations were for some of components of writing. In the first, Brooke told Natalie that the concept and label of "topic" comes in kindergarten instruction. In the second, Brooke told Natalie that ending punctuation is not an expectation until first grade, and in the third instance, Brooke and Natalie were looking at the student's writing in comparison to the expectations of PreK and kindergarten:

Brooke: She's got some words in there. Let's move her to at least the middle. Because when we look in here at what a Pre-K example is, there is hardly anything. There is just a picture and nothing. Now in their kindergarten examples, there is a lot there and it make sense. So, I think she is right here. She is definitely starting to draw or say something. It is still the beginning, but there is something different on each page. She has a little

bit more that she just tried to write words. You were able to decipher a little bit because you know her better. It's not really information.

Natalie: It's like a made-up story.

In this example, Brooke is teaching Natalie how to use the rubrics while looking at student work in order to determine where the student fits on the continuum. Brooke explains to Natalie how she will score students using the categories of "overall, lead, transition, ending, organization, elaboration, and craft", and from there, determining an overall score for comparison from the beginning of the unit to the end. By doing this as a think aloud, Brooke makes her thought process transparent to Natalie as she works through the scoring rubrics using what she knows about children's writing development.

Table 8

				Scaffolds			
	<u>Telling/</u> 7	<u>Ceaching</u>	Directing/D	<u>Demonstrating</u>	Prompting	<u>g and Guiding</u>	
	Procedure	Literacy	Directing	Demons.	Statement	Question	Total
Meeting	One						
Brooke	0	4	11	0	4	0	19
Natalie	0	0	4	2	0	0	6
Total	0	4	15	15 2 4 0			
Meeting	Two						
Brooke	0	3	4	0	0	0	7
Natalie	0	0	3	0	0	0	3
Total	0	3	7	0	0	0	10
Meeting	Three						
Brooke	0	1	7	0	1	0	9
Natalie	0	0	1	0	0	0	1
Total	0	1	8	0	1	0	10
Total	0	8	30	2	5	0	45

Discourse Frequency Distribution Irving Coaching and Mentoring Sessions

Quantitative patterns of Telling and Teaching. Over the course of the three coaching and mentoring sessions that were included in this research, there were eight instances of Teaching about Literacy, all of which were given by the literacy coach Brooke (see Table 8).

Directing and Demonstrating. As in the problem-solving meetings, Directing and Demonstrating scaffolds centered around instructional practices to be tried with students. In the mentoring sessions, both Brooke and Natalie offered suggestions for instruction, often building on each other's ideas as they worked together to plan for their writing unit. In their first meeting in October, Brooke and Natalie discussed the way they would be keeping track of student progress in writing as follows:

Brooke:	We could try making a common recording tool for each student. Each student has their own file folder. On the inside of it is a piece of paper that has squares on it, nine squares like a table. It has a place where you could write the date and you could put your teaching point and what you conferenced about.
Natalie:	Okay.
Brooke:	Then on the other side, we could put this in there (the rubric from Units of Study). We could mark off on a certain writing piece if we had more than one writing piece, and you could mark off, yes, this is present, or no, this is not present, and then on our notes section what we conferred with about for "not yet".
Natalie:	I created something like that for one-on-one conferencing for reading so you could check that and see if you want to use that too.
Brooke:	Okay.
Natalie:	But that sounds good. I think it will help me focus on what they need to work on. I think this will be really good for the higher writers too. It will help me to push them.
Brooke:	And if you have a student that already has all of these in place, then you know you have another rubric you can go, "Okay, what do they need next?" You can slip this one into their folder and start thinking about the things they can build on to. That is what's nice. It builds.

In this example, it is clear how the two teachers build on one another's suggestions to plan for assessment as well as instruction. Brooke's recommendation to use a common tool starts with something she had done in a previous year, which was accepted by Natalie. Then Natalie remembered that she had also used a similar tool for reading that might work for this setting. The addition of the rubric into the writing folder will help them not only track what students are currently able to do, but as Brooke suggests, it will also help the teachers think about where the students are going next. Natalie recognizes the value of this, especially for her more advanced writers.

In their December meeting, Natalie expressed concern that when students are asked to pick their best piece of writing for publishing, they might pick their favorite composition, which might not necessarily be their best writing.

- Brooke: So maybe they want to pick something that you have either already finished, that has some of these pieces to it, or something that you are close to finishing that has these pieces in it. And then that might help narrow down. Because when we think about, we are going to use these published pieces to assess their writing and how they have grown as writers. So, we are going to say to them, I want you to pick something based on, does it have these things that we have been teaching because we are going to use this to see how you have grown as a writer.
- Natalie: Okay, let's word it like that. I feel like that would steer them in a better...I think some of them have a favorite or one that they really, really like but it won't show as much growth.
- Brooke: So if we still find that he is grabbing that one, we would have an individual conference with them and put them side-by-side and say, okay, which one has a table of contents? Which one is more readable?

In this example, Brooke suggests telling the students explicitly to read their own writing

pieces while comparing them to the anchor chart that the class used throughout the unit. The goal

for the students was to pick one piece that met the requirements on that anchor chart. Brooke and

Natalie then planned how Brooke would first model the use of the checklist with one of her own

pieces of writing, one that happened to be missing some of these requirements. Once students chose their best piece of writing, Brooke and Natalie would use the original rubric to measure students' growth in writing. Working together, these teachers created a learning experience for the students to help them look at their own writing through the lens of the anchor chart in order to choose their best piece of work instead of relying on the teacher to make the decision for them.

Quantitative Patterns of Directing and Demonstrating. Over the course of the three observed meetings, there were 32 Directing and Demonstrating scaffolds. 69 percent (n = 22) were given by Brooke, all of which were suggestions for instruction. The other 31 percent (n = 10) were given by Natalie; 80 percent (n = 8) of her scaffolds were suggestions and twenty percent (n = 2) were examples (see Table 8).

Prompting and Guiding. As stated above, this type of scaffold involves the use of openended questions to get a teacher to think about potential instructional moves that may help a student in reading or writing. As with the first-grade problem-solving meetings, this type of prompt occurred the least often. However, this was not unexpected since these two teachers were collaborating in a co-teaching model, and therefore, creating the instructional plan together, bouncing ideas off of one another, and building on each other's suggestions while planning. In the following conversation, Brooke asks Natalie two open-ended questions.

Brooke:	And if you have a student that already has all of these in place, then you know you have another rubric that you can go, "OK, what do they need next?" And you can slip this one into their folder and start thinking about the things that they can build on to. That is what's nice. It builds. <i>What do you think about using something like this for their own reflection?</i>
Natalie:	I think we could try it.
Duo altat	At loss this line shout we sould nut them in their folders. And they

Brooke: At least thinking about...we could put them in their folders. And they would have them. We could even put it on an anchor chart. Thinking

about when introducing it with an anchor chart that they can use when they are at the carpet. If they can't see it where they are in the room then they've got it to pull out and use.

- Natalie: Or teach them to go back especially when ... they still come up and say, "I'm done". I'm like, "No, look at the chart." What are you supposed to do? Start a new one. It's like they know, but at least teach them to go back—did you do this? Yes. Did you do this? Sometimes I feel like you ask them that, and they think that they did and really, they didn't. Especially with punctuation and end marks. I'm like, "All of your pages have end marks?" "yeah!" and then I look and no...So I don't if they are not actually going back to look or if it's...I don't feel like it.
- Brooke: It's that, how do we hold them accountable for what we ask them to do?
- Natalie: I think this will help. Even just to say, I am looking for this. I feel that would help some of them.
- Brooke: And I feel like this is kind of like our version, and this is their kid-friendly version. And the other thing to think about is what if at some point in time in the unit asking them to work with their partner...

Natalie: And have them check.

In both cases, Brooke is asking Natalie to think about how the tool they are putting in place, the writing folder containing the anchor charts and rubrics, will work for these students. This is particularly evidenced in her statement emphasized above, "It's that, how do we hold them accountable for what we ask them to do?" Yet Natalie is tentative in both of her responses, starting with, "I think..." Although she is able to support her thoughts by expressing how she sees the tool helping her students, namely, by giving them some accountability for their own work.

Quantitative patterns of Prompting and Guiding. There were five instances of prompting and guiding scaffolds across the three meetings. All of them were given by Brooke. Four of the five occurred during the first meeting in October, and the fifth was given during the last meeting in December (see Table 8).

Contextual Considerations. Although manifested differently in the mentoring sessions, the same three themes emerged as important as those from the problem-solving meetings: time, identification of student strengths and weaknesses, and situated identities of Brooke and Natalie during observed coaching and mentoring sessions.

Time. Brooke and Natalie had to work with time constraints at both the daily level and the unit level. For day-to-day instruction, the two had to carve out time in the day for writing instruction that worked for both of their schedule. They also had to work with the time they had to complete the unit. This was particularly true with the second unit they were planning, persuasive writing. Not only was the Winter holiday break coming, including all of the concert practices and parties that preceded that, but Natalie's maternity leave was going to start in January, although she was not sure exactly when that would be.

Adding to the time challenge was the fact that although the unit called for students to bring in groups of items from home that could be considered collection, Natalie and Brooke were unsure if they would be able to get full participation from the students' families. They collaborated to find time during the school day to teach this concept of what a collection is to the children in the class.

Natalie:	They have to come up with some sort of collection. It says they have to come up with a collection of something they are passionate about. Each child's shoe box collection of his or her favorite things.
Brooke:	If we know we aren't going to get home support, how can we work in learning center time, or even thinking about between now and break looking up some images?
Natalie:	A favorite collection. Like Shopkins?
Brooke:	It could be Barbie, Lego sets, it's just a collection of objects.
Natalie:	They judge them.
Brooke:	Are they judging others' collections? Or their own collections?

- Natalie: They are asking which is my favorite and which is next? And they are talking about telling others their opinions. So, if we can't get a bunch of collections just pictures of something? How would you ask them that?
- Brooke: What is something you have a lot of? Like some kids collect Pokemon cards. Some kids with Legos don't collect the whole set, but get just the little figurines. Some might collect video games. So, you might have to do a lesson on what a collection is. Because a lot of them, if you say, what do you collect or what is a collection, they are not going to know. But if you turn it into an investigation for them, and say, I want you to go home and look for what might be something that is collected at your house.
- Natalie: The on-demand for this, I would do that on Tuesday before any of this, correct?
- Brooke: Yes. That is at your discretion. So, I am wondering, when do you want to set this up? Is it even something on ... setting them up separately outside

of writing time, introducing what a collection is? I don't know your schedule well enough to know if there is time to do that? Or at the end of the day if there were 15 minutes to find and show them pictures of collections and send them out the door, and then take another ten minutes another time and say what did you find that were collections and jot those down on a chart? And then during learning center time, pull some over and talk about what their collections might be, and then spend time compiling images of those collections.

- Natalie: Is this just for that first?
- Brooke: Yes, and then sometimes if you Google something, like rock collections you just hit images and it will give you a whole page of images and you can do a screen shot.
- Natalie: That is what I was thinking.

Brooke: And then that would be the easiest way to do it with the kids.

Identification of student strengths and weaknesses. While Brooke and Natalie did talk

about specific students, particularly when comparing student work to the scoring rubrics, the focus during these meetings was more on the class as a whole as opposed to twenty individual students. During the first meeting I observed, Brooke and Natalie spent time talking about the ways in which they would record and track student progress. They eventually agreed to create folders for students into which they would place the scoring rubric and conference note-taking

form. They also created folders for students to use during the writing unit which would eventually contain the anchor charts and all student work.

Brooke and Natalie used this planning time to prepare for whole-class instruction. They made sure to address vocabulary for writing that they thought the students might not understand, like the concepts of "topic" and "collection." They also discussed what the students had covered in writing in kindergarten (*All About* books) and made plans to build on that using the rubrics from Calkins' *Units of Study*. Throughout each meeting, Brooke and Natalie considered the strengths and weaknesses not only of the class as a whole, but of each individual student. They used the rubrics to score each student's writing and then talked about how the results of the rubrics would influence the one-to-one conferencing that would happen during the writing time. As they planned for the final mini-lesson on selecting one's best piece of writing for final revision, Brooke and Natalie put together a lesson meant to model choosing one's best work as opposed to one's favorite work with certain students in mind, hoping to help those students see their own work through that particular lens,

Situated identities. During these planning meetings, the identities of both Brooke and Natalie appeared to shift seamlessly from expert and novice to co-teachers and back again as needed. In the conversation below, the two teachers talked about how they would start the new unit of nonfiction writing, "All About" books.

Brooke:	Are you thinking of doing the on-demand writing on Monday?
Natalie:	I am. I am ready to move on and I think they [the students] are ready too.
Brooke:	You have to think of writing as they are never going to be completely finished; it's a process. So, some of those things that they are still working on in this unit they will still be working on in the next unit.
Natalie:	I like that it's nonfiction in reading and now we are going to nonfiction in writing.

Brooke:	So this week you have had a chance to get out some of your nonfiction books and introduce them as mentor texts and now we can talk about those books as, "Hey! We are going to write like the authors that we have been reading about and tell all about what we know."
Natalie:	So are we going to start on Monday? Because I feel like if you wait until Tuesday to see if they are going to bring in a book. Can't we just say there are nonfiction books in your book bins if you would like to use them?
Brooke:	Because we aren't going to use the whole 45 minutes, so what if we gave them the first 15 minutes to look at informational-type books?
Natalie:	I feel like that would be more productive for the outcome. If you are going to give them resources it would be better to do it right before.
Brooke:	And I want to remind them too that they wrote "All About" books in kindergarten so we can remind them, "Remember when you were in kindergarten you wrote these types of books. Some of you might have done this." And give them reference back to what they remember, hopefully. I don't want to be tricking them because the whole point is to give them enough information to see what they know about that type of writing. So, the more we can remind them of the experiences that they have had, the more they can demonstrate that in their own work.

The flow of this conversation allowed Brooke to give Natalie some information about writing (it's a process) and the use of mentor texts. At the same time, Natalie was an equal contributor to the plan for how to start the unit—it would start on Monday and students would use the books in their book bins for mentor texts. Brooke then ended this segment of the conversation with her idea to remind the students about what they had done the previous year in kindergarten. This is an important contribution to this conversation because Natalie was not at Irving during the previous school year, and might not know what her students had done in writing during kindergarten.

Figure 4 Collaborative Goal Sheet

		Appendix G5		
	С	ollaborative Goal Sheet		
tudent Name:			Date	; Grade:
eachers:			_	
Reading Behaviors Guided Reading Leve	el:			
The student currently controls:	The stu	dent needs to control next:		Common language for teachers to use:
Writing Behaviors			_	
The student currently controls:	The stu	ident needs to control next:		Common language for teachers to use:
Word Work				L
The student currently controls:	The st	udent needs to control next:		Common language for teachers to use:
Oral Language Development: Circle All Th	at Apply			
The student currently controls:		The student needs to control next:		
 Asks/answers questions to express und Uses specific vocabulary to express ide Uses age-appropriate grammar Understands concepts used in verbal di Uses age-appropriate speech sounds Produces complete sentences 	as			

Next Meeting Date:

Question Three: Language of Scaffolding in Small Group Instruction

The third research question sought to find the patterns of scaffolded discourse that occurred during first-grade small group reading instruction. Small group instruction was analyzed in two settings: Natalie's classroom and Jessica's classroom. The purpose of using these two settings was to compare the small group instruction in the focus teacher's classroom (Natalie) with the instruction of an experienced Reading Recovery teacher (Jessica).

The focus of the analysis was on word solving in both reading and writing, because as noted in Chapter Three, the comprehension questions asked by the teachers were mostly known answer questions. Sometimes the word solving in reading occurred in isolation, like reading words on cards or writing them on white boards, and sometimes the word solving occurred during the reading of the text. The word solving in writing occurred only in Jessica's group while students were writing in their writing journals. Three levels of scaffolding were present during these small group lessons: Telling, Directing, and Prompting.

Telling. This type of scaffold represented the highest level of teacher responsibility. With a tell, the teacher provided all of the information about letters or words while the student made no contribution to the problem-solving. During one lesson, Jessica was working with Brad and Cameron (both names are pseudonyms) on the letter "b". First, she showed them how to write the letter:

We are going to start at the top and we are going to pull down and around. Watch. You are going to start at the top and you are going to pull down and around. We are going to practice a few of these on our dry erase boards.

After the boys tried a few on their white boards, Jessica moved to the sound of the letter "b". She gave them some examples of words that start with the /b/ sound like blueberry, beach, and bear. Again, she was not yet asking them to identify the first sound or to come up with words that start

the same. She told them the sound the letter made and then gave them several examples of words that start with the /b/ sound.

Natalie also used Telling scaffolds in her small group instruction. In one lesson that I observed, she started by showing the children words that were going to appear in the book they were about to read.

Natalie:	So this word, Jason, is steps (shows card). Can you say steps?
Jason:	Steps.
Natalie:	Andrew, this is "steps".
Andrew:	Steps.
Natalie:	Very good. The last one that is in here starts with $/p/-/a/$ and has a "th". And when we put it together we get $/p/-/a/-/th/$. Path.

In another lesson, the children were reading a book about houses. One child, Alison, was stuck on the word "new".

Alison:	(reading) Here is my house. My house is
Natalie:	That is the letter "n". It says $/n/$.
Alison:	/n//n/
Natalie:	Let's think about it. If this house is sold to this person, this house is $\dots/n/\dots$ new. Go back and reread it.
Alison:	(reading) Here is my house. My house is new.

In the above examples, the teachers took on the responsibility of writing the letters and reading the words. The students were expected to watch and listen and then mimic what the teachers had said and done.

Directing. With this type of scaffold, the teacher provided some of the information needed for a student read or write words, but the child was expected to contribute to the problem-

solving and ultimately come up with the word he or she was attempting to read or write. While most of the telling prompts above were statements, the directing prompts of these two teachers were often questions meant to guide the students to solve a problem. As with the scaffolds that occurred in the teacher problem-solving meetings, the directing scaffold, in which the speaker encourages the listener to participate in the problem-solving activity, was the most used scaffold.

With one particular boy, Brad, Jessica was using lines to represent words in a sentence. Brad used this support to count the words in his sentence, as well as to ensure that he put spaces between his words. Before Cameron began writing, Jessica had him count the number of words in his sentence, draw the lines to represent those words, and then write the sentence. She wanted to make sure that the student understood why he was putting those lines on his paper. Instead of just telling him the reason, Jessica prompted him to come up with it himself:

Jessica:	What do we do first? Watch (imitates drawing lines).
Brad:	Put lines under it.
Jessica:	What do lines have anything to do with writing? Why do we do that?
Brad:	'Cause it will help.
Jessica:	Help you to do what? What are those lines for? Why do we do that?
Brad:	So, you can put your words on them.
Jessica:	Let's look back at one old story. What did you, like, help you do?
Brad:	You put lines on it.
Jessica:	The lines are on the paper to help you remember what?
Brad:	Words.
Jessica:	Remember where to
Brad:	Put them at.

Jessica: Where to put them. We count them out, don't we? Let's look. How many words are in your story right here?

Brad: One, two, three, four, five, six.

Jessica: He had six.

As the conversation continued, Jessica helped Brad plan out his story by counting the words and drawing the lines before he began writing. It would have taken up less time for Jessica to simply tell the student how many words he would be writing, but by asking the child to talk about the rationale, Jessica helped him build capacity in writing.

Natalie also used Directing scaffolds with her students during small group instruction. In one group, the children were reading a book about food. One student, Alice, was stuck on the word "factories", which was also the heading on the page. Natalie gave Alice several prompts to help her solve that unknown word.

Alice:	What's this word?
Natalie:	Let's stretch that out.
Alice:	/f/
Natalie:	(points to heading at top of the page). What's this? What is this word up here?
Alice:	Farms.
Natalie:	Not farms. Stretch it out.
Alice:	I'm stuck on this word.
Natalie:	But what is this word?
Alice:	Factories?
Natalie:	It is factories. Good.

While Natalie could have simply told Alice what the word was, she instead gave Alice two scaffolds to help her with that unknown word. First, she told Alice to stretch the word out. When that still did not help Alice solve that word, Natalie gave her a cross-checking scaffold, where the reader compares the current word to another word on the page. In this case, "factories" was at the top of the page, so Natalie was assuming Alice had already read that word, since she specifically talked about reading the headings on the page first during the book introduction. When Alice said "farms", Natalie gave a stronger scaffold by telling Alice it was not farms. Alice appealed again, but Natalie again turned the word-solving work back to the student, who then read the word correctly.

Prompting. For this study, prompting during small group instruction was defined as times when the teacher called attention to general information about literacy and solving unknown words during reading that had been previously learned while still expecting the student to solve the word. During this study, these prompts occurred in three places: prior to writing, at the point of difficulty, and after the child solved an unknown word.

Prior to writing. Jessica prepared her group for writing by having them think about what they wanted to write and then plan out the story before putting marker to paper.

Jessica:	We got to talk about capital letters and something that goes at the end of your writing. Now listen. Another important thing—when you come to a word you don't know, what can you do?
Cameron:	Stretch it out.
Jessica:	You could stretch it out. What else could you use to help you? What else did we put on this chart?
Cameron:	You can look.
Jessica:	You can use this (points to word chart).

Jessica got the students thinking about what they know how to do if they get to an unknown word while writing. She first asked a very open-ended question: When you come to a word you don't know, what can you do? This question allowed the students the opportunity to think about what they already know about solving unknown words, opening the possibility for several different ideas. This particular child immediately responded: stretch it out. Jessica confirmed that, and then asks them about what else they can do. When the children paused, she gave them a less open-ended question (What else did we put on this chart?), increasing her scaffold slightly to accommodate the individual student. The child was able then to respond to that question (You can look). By activating what they already knew about writing unknown words, Jessica enabled the students to keep going if they encountered a word that might not be in their known vocabulary.

At point of difficulty. During one of Natalie's small group sessions, the students were reading a book about houses, and the following exchange occurred between Natalie and one of her students, Mitchell:

Mitchell:	(reading) Here is my house. My house is real.
Natalie:	Does that sound right?
Mitchell:	Real big?
Natalie:	What does this letter say?
Mitchell:	/w/
Natalie:	/w/. My house is /w//w/What do you notice? What color is the house?
Mitchell:	White.
Natalie:	Does that look like the word white?
Mitchell:	Yes.

Natalie: Does that make sense?

Mitchell: Yes.

Natalie's level of scaffold for this student did not start at the word level. Instead, she asked Mitchell to think about how the sentence sounded overall (Does that sound right?) He then attempted to correct by adding a word to the sentence. At that point, Natalie increased her support by directing the child's attention to the first letter of the word as well as the picture. Mitchell was then able to make the correction. Although Natalie did have to increase her support and give a more direct scaffold, she started with a much broader scaffold, allowing the student the opportunity to go back and make the correction on his own.

After the child solved an unknown word. In one lesson, Jessica drew a child's attention to the place where he made a self-correct in his reading.

Brad:	(reading) Here I am in—at—home.
Jessica:	You just fixed something up. Do you know why you did that? What were you doing?
Brad: I was I	looking.
Jessica:	You were careful looking.

Brad: Yes.

In this example, the student was able to identify what he did when he made the correction from "in" to "at" while reading. Because he was able to identify for himself what he used to make that correction (I was looking), he is more likely to use that same strategy again.

Quantitative Analysis of Small Group Instruction. Because the children in the small groups were not participants in the study, and because there was no expectation that they would use these scaffolds with either their teacher or one another, I did not include student responses in the quantitative analysis. Each scaffold type was counted and recorded in a table for each of the teachers, Jessica (Table 9) and Natalie (Table 10).

Jessica. Over the course of the two lessons I observed, Jessica had 101 total scaffolds.
These lessons occurred a month apart and were with the same two students. Overall, 41 percent
(n = 41) were Telling scaffolds, 52 percent $(n = 53)$ were Directing scaffolds, and seven percent
(n = 7) were Prompting scaffolds. There were 64 total scaffolds in the first lesson and 37
scaffolds in the second lesson. From the first lesson to the second, the percentage of Telling
prompts dropped from 48 percent ($n = 31$) to 27 percent ($n = 10$). At the same time, the
percentage of Directing prompts <i>increased</i> , from 45 percent ($n = 29$) in lesson one to 65 percent
(n = 24) in lesson two. Prompting scaffolds remained about the same from lesson one to lesson
two, with six percent $(n = 4)$ in the first lesson and eight percent $(n = 3)$ in the second lesson.

Table 9	Ta	bl	le	9
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Discourse Frequency Distribution for Jessica's Small Group Instruction						
Date	<u>Telling</u>	Directing	Prompting	<u>Total</u>		
10-3-17	31	29	4	64		
10-26-17	10	24	3	37		
Total	41	53	7	101		

Natalie. Over the four lessons I observed, Natalie had a total of 99 scaffolds. Overall, 34 percent (n = 34) were Telling scaffolds, 62 percent (n = 61) were Directing scaffolds, and four percent (n = 4) were Prompting scaffolds. There were 31 scaffolds in the first lesson, 32 scaffolds in the second lesson, seven scaffolds in the third lesson and 21 scaffolds in the fourth lesson. I did not do a lesson-to-lesson analysis for Natalie because the groups of children were different each time.

Table 10

Date	Telling	Directing	Prompting	<u>Total</u>
10-3-17 (grp1)	9	28	2	39
10-3-17 (grp2)	10	21	1	32
10-17-17	3	4	0	7
12-5-17	12	8	1	21
Total	34	61	4	99

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Contextual Considerations. When considering and analyzing the context around small group instruction, I used Natalie and Jessica's interviews, the transcripts from the problemsolving meetings, and the videos and transcripts from the small-group instruction that I observed. Again, I was able to see the same three themes emerge around small-group instruction: time, identification of student strengths and weaknesses, and identity.

Time. As with the other two settings, the importance of time was clear in this setting as well. This was evident in all of the small group lessons that I observed. Both teachers were focused on the children sitting in front of them, and wasted very little time with management issues. This was easier for Jessica since she was able to teach her lessons in her classroom away from the rest of the class. There was another small group in the room with another teacher, but the noise was minimal and the two students Jessica was working with did not appear to be distracted by it. At the same time, Jessica did occasionally have to redirect the two boys back to the lesson. In one lesson, one of the students, Cameron, began to give her silly answers to her question about words that start with the letter "b". Jessica ignored him at first, then simply shook her head at him, not deviating from the lesson at all. The two lessons I observed in Jessica's room lasted about thirty minutes each, and the two boys were engaged in reading and writing activities for the majority of the time.

Natalie taught her small groups sitting on the floor of her classroom while the rest of the class worked in centers around the room. As stated earlier, the room was not quiet, but most children stayed on task so Natalie was able to stay focused on the group in front of her. The few times that a student approached Natalie, she simply waved them away without a word, although in one case she told a child she would tie his shoe later. Natalie occasionally scanned the room while the children in the small group were reading, but her attention was primarily on the group she was with, and she kept the lessons moving at a good pace. The length of Natalie's lessons were shorter than Jessica's, ranging from about nine to twelve minutes.

In their interviews, both Jessica and Natalie addressed the challenges related to time. Jessica talked about the importance of spending time wisely with kids, and making sure time is spent doing the things that match the needs of the students. Because her time was split between two schools, Jessica was acutely aware of time and tried to keep as closely to her schedule as she could. In other informal conversations, she talked about the challenge of keeping busy children on task. That challenge was evident when observing her groups. Even with just two students, Jessica worked very hard to make sure they were staying on task.

Because she was new to comprehensive literacy model and the workshop format, Natalie had to learn a new way of managing time. In her previous school, Natalie did not see small groups as she only did one-on-one conferences. At Irving, Natalie was still adapting to a different kind of schedule, while simultaneously trying to teach her first graders the concept of stamina, or staying on task and working independently for extended periods of time. Their stamina was necessary for her to be able to work uninterrupted with her small groups. Even within those small groups, usually made up of four or five students, Natalie had to make sure she had time to work with each child individually as they read their guided reading books—listening

to the reading, offering scaffolds and supports as needed, and then recording her observations to help guide future instruction.

Identification of student strengths and weaknesses. This theme is the crux of smallgroup instruction. Being aware of student strengths and weaknesses is what should guide instruction. During problem-solving meetings, the team discussed the strengths and weaknesses of particular children. Jessica, as the interventionist, was able to take that information and let it guide her instruction. "I am always one who thinks that if the child isn't moving ahead and being successful, it is something I am doing and not everyone thinks in that way," Jessica reflected. "We can look at different ways to change the lesson structure or go back into our texts and think how we can work to prompt kids." This positive attitude and focus on students was also evident in the lessons that I observed Jessica teaching. She was very positive with the children, praising them and giving them high fives at the end of each lesson. She was also quick to point out what they are doing well, and encouraged them to watch one another. In one lesson, Brad and Cameron were reading a book about an accident, and both boys were having a difficult time with the word "hospital"; Brad kept saying "ambulance" and Cameron kept saying "hopsital".

Jessica:	You know what I noticed Brad doing? Pointing to every word. Actually, I heard you a couple of times try a first sound. When you came to this word, what's the first sound?
Brad:	/h/
Jessica:	/h/. Hospital.
Cameron:	Hospital.
Jessica:	What did you think about his [Brad's] reading today and the way he sounded when he read?
Cameron:	A hospital.
Jessica:	How did he sound?

Cameron: like...

Jessica: Was he telling the story? Did he sound like a storyteller?

Cameron: Yeah.

Jessica focused Brad's attention on the first sound of the word instead of focusing on the word itself, which was difficult for him. By getting him to attend to the first sound, Jessica thought he would be more likely to remember it the next time he read the book. She also allowed Cameron to repeat the word "hospital" correctly once he figured out how to say it, even though he did not directly answer her question at first. She then quickly moved the lesson into the next component, which was the writing. In a conversation after the lesson, Jessica shared some of the challenges that one particular student was facing, but said, "He has the heart to learn, and it's coming together. I am giving them tools because they need to feel successful. They seem to be feeling so much better about what they are doing, so that makes me happy."

Natalie was also aware of what her students were able to do, and worked with them accordingly. In her small group instruction, Natalie adjusted her scaffolds as necessary as students were working with words and with texts. She began each lesson with a review of the sight words they had been working on and that would appear in the guided reading text. During each lesson, Natalie listened to each child read individually. There were times that she simply told them the words, and there were times that she gave them sound cues or meaning cues to help them. Sometimes she reminded them of the strategies they had already worked on (stretch it out), or ask them to think about whether or not what they said made sense instead of just telling them it did not. One day a student seemed to be struggling with being at school and working in his center. Natalie recognized his need, and instead of pulling his guided reading group, she read one-on-one with that student. In problem-solving meetings, Natalie was able to contribute

information about what her students could and could not do, and made an effort to try some of the suggestions in her small group instruction and then reporting back to the group the following month.

Identity. Both Natalie and Jessica were able to articulate their roles and responsibilities with small group instruction. They each presented themselves not just as teacher but also as facilitator and helper. Both teachers planned lessons and chose appropriate texts that match the needs of the students in their groups. During group instruction, both Jessica and Natalie were able to attend to one child at a time, working with that particular child on some immediate struggle the child appeared to be having. In interviews and conversations, Jessica defined her role as being an advocate for students above all else. She showed this by coming to each problem-solving meetings with student work samples. She was also quick to turn the conversation back to what students were able to do if it appeared that the discussion was either going off-topic or was becoming negative.

Summary. Three rounds of qualitative analysis were conducted using the data that was collected. In the first round of analysis, I identified three types of scaffolds: Telling and Teaching, Directing and Demonstrating, and Prompting and Guiding. In the second round of data, I analyzed the discourse that was not considered to be instructional scaffolds to see what other types of talk was being used in the three activity settings. Then on the third round of analysis, I identified three overarching themes that described the context in which the instructional scaffolds occurred. These three themes were: Time, Identification of Student Strengths and Weaknesses, and Situated Identities of the Participants.

Question Four: Degrees of Similarity

Question Four sought to find the degree of similarity of scaffolds used across the three activity settings at Irving Primary School: grade level problem-solving meetings, coaching and mentoring sessions, and small group instruction. In other words, it sought to determine if there was similar use of the three types of scaffolds—Telling and Teaching, Directing and Demonstrating, and Prompting and Guiding—in the three activity settings. For this study, I assumed equal use of the three types of scaffolds. This is because I could find no previous research Using the codes from the first round of data analysis, I created frequency tables for each participant in each setting. I then used those tables to conduct the quantitative analysis of the data. The following tables report the chi-square values for the coach and the interventionist during the problem-solving meetings, the coach and the teacher during coaching sessions, and the first-grade teacher during small-group reading instruction.

Tables 11 through 13 contain the actual frequencies (f), along with percentages, and expected frequencies (f) of the scaffolding category observed for a) the coach, Brooke, and interventionist, Katie, during problem-solving meetings, b) for Brooke during coaching and mentoring sessions, and c) for the teacher, Natalie, during small group instruction. Separate chisquare (X^2) analyses were conducted for each participant. The expected frequencies were obtained by dividing the total frequency of scaffolds by the number of categories (3) for each participant, assuming equal use of the three types of scaffolds. If the expected frequencies dropped below 5, Yates' correction for continuity was used to calculate the final chi-square value.

Problem-solving meetings. Table 11 contains the frequency of observed scaffold category use for the coach, Brooke, and Literacy Leader, Katie, during problem-solving meetings

at Irving Primary School. The most frequent scaffold category used by Brooke was Demonstrating/Directing (41%), followed by Teaching/Telling (35%) and Prompting/Guiding (24%). To determine if one category was used significantly more or less frequently than another category, a chi-square value was calculated. The X^2 value based on the frequency of use by Brooke was 2.62, which was not statistically significant. Thus, the use of the three categories by Brooke did not differ from would be expected by chance.

The most frequent scaffold category used by Katie during the problem-solving meetings was also Demonstrating/Directing (80%), followed by Teaching/Telling (14%) and Prompting/Guiding (6%). To determine if one scaffold was used significantly more or less frequently than another scaffold, a chi-square value was determined. The X² value based on the frequency of use by Katie was 119.2, which was significant (p < .0001). Chi-square tests for the individual categories indicated that Demonstrating/Directing scaffolds were used significantly more frequently than Teaching/Telling or Prompting/Guiding scaffolds, both of which were used significantly less frequently than expected.

Scaffolds							
Participant	Teaching/Telling		Demonstrating/Directing		Prompt/Guiding		Totals
	<u>Act f (%)</u>	<u>Exp f</u>	<u>Act f (%)</u>	<u>Exp f</u>	<u>Act f (%)</u>	<u>Exp f</u>	
Brooke	20 ^a (35%)	19.3	24 (41%)	19.3	14 (24%)	19.3	58
Katie	16 ^a (14%)	39.3	95 ^b (80%)	39.3	7 ^c (6%)	39.3	118
Column Totals	36		119		21		176

Chi-Square Analysis Comparing the Actual (Act.) and Expected (Exp.) Frequencies (f) of Scaffold Use

for the Coach and Interventionist during Problem-Solving Meetings

Table 11

^a $X^2 = 13.8$, p < .001; ^b $X^2 = 78.8$, p < .001; ^c $X^2 = 26.6$, p < .001

Coaching and mentoring. Table 12 contains the actual and expected frequencies of discourse category use for the coach, Brooke, and the teacher, Natalie, during coaching and mentoring sessions. The most frequent scaffold category used by Brooke was Directing and Demonstrating (63%), followed by Telling and Teaching (23%) and Prompting and Guiding (14%). To determine if one category was used significantly more than another category, a chi-square test was used. The X² value based on the frequency use by Brooke was 14.11, which was significant (p < .001). Chi-square tests for the individual categories indicated that Directing and Demonstrating scaffolds were used by Brooke significantly more than Telling and Teaching scaffolds or Prompting and Guiding scaffolds. The X² value based on the frequency use by Natalie was 20.00, which was significant (p < .001). Chi-square tests for the individual categories for the individual categories indicated that Directing and Eaching scaffolds were used by Brooke significantly more than Telling and Teaching scaffolds or Prompting and Guiding scaffolds. The X² value based on the frequency use by Natalie was 20.00, which was significant (p < .0001). Chi-square tests for the individual categories indicated that Directing and Demonstrating scaffolds were used by Natalie significantly more that Telling and Teaching scaffolds were used by Natalie

Table 12

Scaffolds												
Participant	Teaching/Telling		Demonstrating/Directing		Prompt/Guiding		Totals					
	<u>Act f (%)</u>	<u>Exp f</u>	<u>Act f (%)</u>	<u>Exp f</u>	<u>Act f (%)</u>	<u>Exp f</u>						
Brooke	8 (23%)	11.6	22 ^a (63%)	11.6	5 (14%)	11.6	35					
Natalie	0 (0%)	3.3	10 ^b (100%)	3.3	0 (0%)	3.3	10					
Column Totals	8		32		5		45					

Chi-Square Analysis Test Comparing the Actual (Act.) and Expected (Exp.) Frequencies (f) of Scaffold Use for the Coach and Teacher during Mentoring

Small-group instruction. Table 13 contains the frequency of observed scaffold category use for the first-grade teacher, Natalie, during small-group instruction. The most frequent scaffold categories used by Natalie was Directing and Demonstrating (52%), followed by Telling and Teaching (41%) and Prompting and Guiding (7%). To determine if one scaffold category was used significantly more than another scaffold category, a chi-square test was used. The X^2 value based on the frequency of use by Natalie was 33.82, which was significant (p , .0001). Chi-square tests for the individual scaffold categories indicated that Directing and Demonstrating scaffolds were used significantly more frequently than expected, while Prompting and Guiding scaffolds were used significantly less frequently than expected.

Table 13

Chi-Square Analysis Test Comparing the Actual (Act.) and Expected (Exp.) Frequencies (f) of Scaffold Use for the teacher during small-group instruction

Participant	Teaching/Telling		Demonstrating/Directing		Prompt/Guiding		Totals
	<u>Act f (%)</u>	<u>Exp f</u>	<u>Act f (%)</u>	<u>Exp f</u>	<u>Act f (%)</u>	<u>Exp f</u>	
Natalie	41 (41%)	33.7	53 ^a (52%)	33.7	7 ^b (7%)	33.7	101
Column Totals	41		53		7		101

Scaffolds

Summary. In all three activity settings Directing and Demonstrating scaffolds were used most often, followed by Telling and Teaching and then Prompting and Guiding, resulting in a similar pattern of use across the three activity settings. This was statistically significant for Katie during the problem-solving meetings, Brooke and Natalie during the coaching and mentoring sessions, and Natalie during small-group instruction. Katie used Prompting and Guiding scaffolds

significantly less often than expected during problem-solving meetings, as did Natalie during small-group instruction.

Case Summary

Irving Primary School is a K-3 elementary school located in the Midwest. It is one of ten elementary schools in the district. Irving has been part of the Reading Recovery network since 1989 and a part of the PCL model since 2010. Three of the participants—Brooke, Katie, and Jill—have been employed in the Lincoln school district for twenty years or more, while the focus teacher, Natalie, is in her first year in the district.

In this study, I examined the scaffolding language in three activity settings: grade-level problem solving meetings, coaching and mentoring sessions between the instructional coach, Brooke, and one first-grade teacher, Natalie, and small-group reading instruction in Natalie's classroom and in one intervention classroom. Across all three settings, the teachers and coaches utilized three types of scaffolding: Telling and Teaching, Directing and Demonstrating, and Prompting and Guiding. Every participant in the study at Irving Primary School used the Directing and Demonstrating scaffold the most often, followed by Telling and Teaching. Every participant in the study at Irving Primary School used the least often. When assuming equal usage of the three types of scaffolds, The Directing and Guiding scaffold was used significantly more often, and the Prompting and Guiding scaffolds were used significantly less often.

Case Two: Washington Elementary School

"Confidence, ease, flexibility, and with luck, discovery are the keynotes of this period which I have called 'Roaming around the known'."—Marie Clay.

Setting

Washington Elementary School is located in a small Midwestern town in a neighboring state to that of Irving Primary School. Washington is part of a four-school district of the same name comprised of an elementary school (preschool age 4-first grade), an intermediate school (grades two through six), a middle school (grades seven and eight), and a high school (grades nine through twelve). According to the 2017-2018 enrollment data (the year of the study), the district had a total population of 904 students. 86.8% were white, 6.2% were Latino, .9% were black, .5% were Asian/Pacific Islander or Native American, and 5.6% were two or more races; districtwide, 100% of the teachers and support staff were white.

At the time of the study, there were 187 students at the elementary school and, according to the school report card, 86.7% were white, 6% were Latino, .6% were black, 6.6% were two or more races. At the elementary school, 19.3% were identified as economically disadvantaged. At the time of the study, there was a principal and an assistant principal who served both the elementary and the intermediate school. In the elementary school, there were two preschool teachers, three kindergarten teachers, three first grade teachers, and one special education teacher. There was also a Comprehensive Intervention Model (CIM) Specialist who taught small group interventions and Reading Recovery, as well as a Literacy Building Coach/Interventionist both of whom serviced the elementary and the intermediate school.

Reading Recovery and Partnerships in Comprehensive Literacy. While Irving's history with Reading Recovery and PCL goes back many years, Washington is relatively new to both, as it was only in its fourth year of implementation at the time of this study (see Figure 5 at the end of this section). Under the vision of the new superintendent at the time, Washington moved quickly from exploration to full implementation. In late fall 2013, that superintendent was put in contact with Alma Nachreiner, a literacy consultant with one of the state's educational

service agencies. Alma had recently completed her PCL coaching coursework through UALR and was supporting districts in her state implementing comprehensive literacy models through her role at the state agency. The superintendent in Washington was familiar with the concept of a comprehensive literacy model due to her previous experience with the Literacy Collaborative (described in Chapter 2). After meeting with Alma and learning about UALR's model for comprehensive literacy, the superintendent decided to move forward to bring the comprehensive literacy model through PCL to the Washington school district and began the process to garner teacher approval. In early 2014, Alma conducted three half-day information PCL and comprehensive literacy model sharing sessions with the teachers, and in March 2014, the teachers took a consensus vote about bringing the PCL model to grades 4K-6. The goal was 80 percent in favor, which would allow the district to forward with the model and begin implementation the following year, and the vote was 84 percent in favor.

The first step prior to implementation at the school level involved establishing the coaching positions in both the elementary and the intermediate schools. Although there were two reading specialists in the district, neither had any formal coaching training nor did they work with teachers in that capacity as they primarily worked as interventionists with students. Both teachers were presented with the job description and responsibilities of the new school coaching positions, but neither was interested and both teachers subsequently left the district.

During the same summer, a nearby district had recently abandoned the PCL model in favor of a commercial "canned" curriculum, so several of the teachers from that district were anxious to leave. In the end, two coaches from that district came to Washington as building coaches: Susan Williams as the intermediate (3-6) literacy coach and Terry Johnson as the primary (4K-2) literacy coach. One of the requirements of PCL is the implementation of Reading

Recovery, which Washington did not have at the time. District administration, in consultation with Alma, decided to combine the Reading Recovery teaching responsibilities with a CIM Specialist position and Carrie Larson, a Reading Recovery teacher from that same nearby district, was hired to take on this role. Finally, a new principal, Shawna Earl, was also hired away from the other district to oversee the implementation of the new model in the elementary building.

Over the summer of 2014, Alma conducted a two-day training for the 4K-6 staff to familiarize teachers with the ten principles of PCL, the schedules that they would be expected to follow, and the first piece of instructional implementation, Language Workshop. In addition to the in-house training, Washington teachers also attended a multi-day workshop where they were introduced to another feature of CLM, the model classroom.

The 2014-2015 school year was the first full year of PCL implementation, during which the foci were: building teacher capacity in the Language Workshop, the use of Thoughtful Logs to support instruction, and the implementation of a comprehensive assessment system. Language Worship is the foundation of literacy instruction--its heartbeat. According to Alma, Language Workshop brings buy-in from the teachers because of the quick engagement with students. It is the place where teachers find joy and excitement for being teachers again.

In addition to the professional development for the classroom teachers, Carrie Larson completed her CIM Specialist coursework during this first year of implementation. The two building coaches, Susan and Terry, worked closely with Alma, who was still employed by the state educational service agency, to support teachers in this radically different way of teaching. Alma remembers what it was like at Washington Elementary before CLM.

Washington was operating very traditionally and they were using basals. There was no coaching. Their professional development was very traditional PD, which was potpourri and it was different every single time. They did not have balanced literacy. It was mostly whole group instruction with desks in rows. They had book rooms in both buildings that they were not using. When the model began, the coaches literally came in and blew dust off the books in the book room.

During that first year of implementation, Alma worked with the two coaches and with Carrie to update and develop the book rooms at the elementary and the intermediate school. The team also helped the teachers to establish classroom libraries, which few teachers had before CLM.

In the second year of implementation (2015-2016), Alma became an employee of the Washington district as the district PCL coach. In conjunction with Linda Dorn from UALR, Alma established the first state PCL center, which was housed in Washington since there was not a university training center in the state. Although she worked primarily as a coach for the district, Alma began supporting other districts around the state as they also moved to implement the collaborative literacy model. At the administrative level, the elementary principal moved into the Curriculum Director position, and a new associate principal, Amber Harrison, was hired. Amber was familiar with the PCL model, as she had worked with Alma and Susan in her previous district.

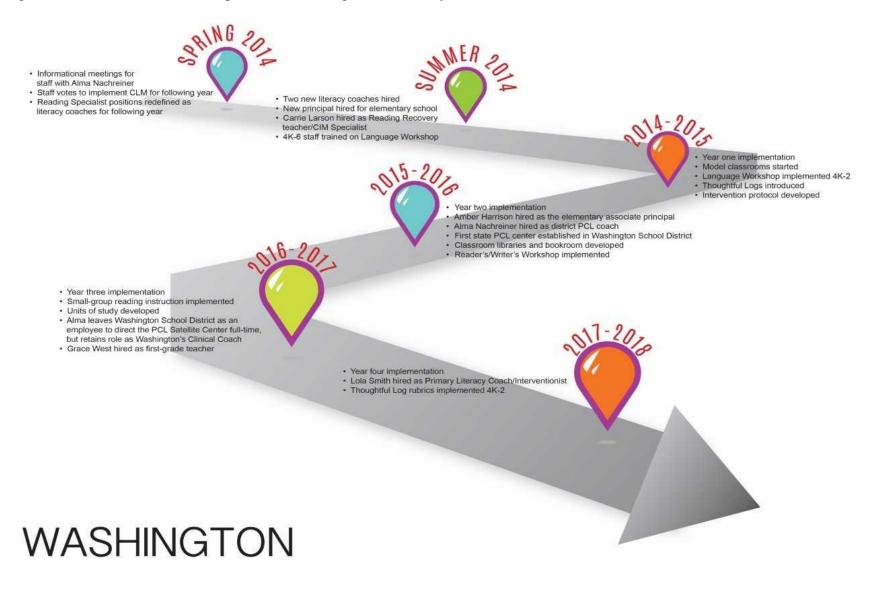
At Washington Elementary, the teachers added Reader's and Writer's Workshops in the first and second semesters of the year respectively. Although the teachers were eager to jump in and start all model components, the leadership team believed in the concept of "move really slow to go fast" (A. Nachreiner, personal communication, October 19, 2017), focusing on one component of instruction at a time. Before PCL came to Washington, there was very little

sustained professional development being done around literacy instruction. With attention and support suddenly focusing on literacy, there was a definite sense of urgency around reading and writing instruction. While there was the temptation to add many new initiatives to the teachers' already full loads, the coaches pushed back, holding on to the "go slow to go fast" motto.

In year three (2016-2017) the coaches focused primarily on small group instruction, particularly guided reading. Throughout the year, teachers learned how to take and analyze Running Records and how to use the Fountas and Pinnell Benchmark Assessment System (BAS) to measure student progress in reading. At the end of year three, the primary coach retired, and Lola Smith was hired in her place. In the meantime, the state PCL center established at Washington was expanding rapidly, and Alma found that she could no longer devote enough time to the Washington school district as both their coach and the center director, so she left to focus full time on the newly renamed state PCL Satellite Center. Although she is no longer employed by the Washington School District, Alma still works closely with their coaches in her role as the UALR clinical coach.

The next major change for Washington will happen after the completion of this study in fall 2018 when students and staff of the 4K-1 building will relocate to a new addition being built onto the intermediate school. A new principal will replace the interim principal who was there during the 2017-2018 school year (the year of this study). While yet another new administrator

Figure 5: Timeline of PCL Development for Washington Elementary School



brings challenges to the model, all of the coaches, the CIM Specialist, and the Curriculum Director will remain in their positions for the 2018-2019 school year, bringing some muchneeded stability in a time of significant change.

Current Implementation of CLM

Washington Elementary School actively utilizes all ten features of the CLM model. Some of these features are discussed in-depth during the first-grade grade level meetings and while they are not the focus of this study, it is important to understand what they are in order to make sense of the grade level discussions around them. Below is a brief description of the following features of the CLM at Washington Elementary: workshop approach, Thoughtful Logs, and the Environmental Scale for Assessment Implementation Levels (ESAIL).

Workshop Approach. A workshop approach to instruction utilizes guided release of responsibility ranging from the highest teacher responsibility to the lowest teacher responsibility through five components: 1) mini-lessons, 2) small-group instruction, 3) independent practice or working with peers, 4) one-to-one or small-group conferences, and 5) share time. The purpose of the workshop framework is to "enable learners to acquire strategies for self-regulating their learning (Dorn & Soffos, 2005, p. 66). Washington incorporates three different workshop times into their schedule: Language Workshop, Reader's Workshop, and Writer's Workshop.

Language Workshop. Language Workshop focuses on investigations of language strategies and uses. Teachers use mini-lessons to teach the children concepts about language such as sentence structure, text structure, and writing styles. During work time, students examine texts to find examples of these uses of language, operating as "language investigators" (Dorn & Soffos, 2005, p. 71). The teacher can also use this time to meet with individuals or small groups of students.

Reader's Workshop. Reader's Workshop focuses on problem-solving during reading and comprehension strategies (Dorn & Soffos, 2005). The mini-lesson is used to model these strategies, which students then practice through guided reading, literature discussion groups, and individual or small-group conferences with their teacher. While the teacher is meeting with small groups of children, the rest of the class is practicing these strategies using independent reading, paired reading, listening to reading, or response logs (also called Thoughtful Logs).

Writer's Workshop. Writer's Workshop focuses on the craft and strategies of writing. Mini-lessons are used to model good writing, from generating ideas to varying word and sentence lengths. Teachers use read alouds to model a variety of genres and authors. During independent work time, students create pieces of writing on topics of their choosing while teachers conference with individual students or small writing groups.

Thoughtful Log. A Thoughtful Log, or response log, is the journal in which students respond to the reading they are doing. The log is divided into topics, which may include: My Thinking, Reading Strategies, Powerful Words/Phrases, and Text Maps (Dorn & Jones, 2010). Students record their thinking in these logs during their workshop time, and they can refer back to it during conferences or sharing time. During the school year in which this study took place, the first-grade teachers were working together to refine the rubrics they were using to assess the Thoughtful Logs.

ESAIL. The ESAIL is an instrument designed to help schools assess the level of implementation of the various aspects of the comprehensive literacy model (Dorn & Soffos, 2012) There are ten criteria by which schools are assessed:

- 1. Creates a Literate Environment
- 2. Organizes the Classroom

- Uses Data to Inform Instruction and to Provide Research-Based Interventions
- 4. Uses a Differentiated Approach to Learning
- 5. Uses Assessment Wall for School-Wide Progress Monitoring
- Uses Literacy Coach to Support Techer Knowledge and Reflective Practice
- 7. Builds Collaborative Learning Communities
- 8. Creates and Uses School Plans for Promoting Systemic Change
- 9. Uses Technology for Effective Communication
- 10. Advocates and Spotlights School's Literacy Program

At Washington Elementary, observers completed walk-throughs of all classrooms 4K-5, specialists, and reading rooms. Each of the above criteria was rated as Meets, Approaching, or Below. The data was shared with the teachers and also reported in the Year-End Report compiled by the elementary and intermediate PCL coaches.

The focus of this study was on three of the features: Coaching and Mentoring, Systems Interventions, and Collaborative Learning Communities.

Coaching and mentoring. As noted, prior to the implementation of the collaborative literacy model, there was no formal coaching system in place in Washington. During the year of this study, Washington was in a unique position primarily because Lola Smith was in her first year as a coach, simultaneously completing coaching coursework and learning the role and the school environment. Therefore, the limited coaching that she did during the study was through the model classroom, namely, a second-grade classroom, which was outside the scope of this study.

In previous years, the literacy coach conducted coaching cycles throughout the year. Teachers were expected to complete at least one coaching cycle per year, pertaining to whatever the school-wide instructional focus was for a given year. For example, during the previous year, the teachers learned about Reader's and Writer's Workshop, so one cycle focused on smallgroup reading instruction and a second on Writer's Workshop. Once all the kindergarten and first-grade teachers completed the coaching cycle, they observed Writer's Workshop all together in the model classroom.

Grace described the coaching cycles as they have been conducted at Washington since the inception of CLM. A typical cycle begins with a pre-observation meeting between the coach and teacher during which they decide together what the coach will look for while observing a literacy lesson. During the observation, the coach takes notes about this specific focus. These notes serve as the basis for providing the teacher with specific lesson feedback, which is given during a post-observation meeting.

At Washington, some informal coaching also occurs between the CIM Specialist and the classroom teachers. During the time of this study, the CIM Specialist and the focus teacher met several times to discuss their shared students. This was due to Carrie's strong literacy background, which resulted in some organic coaching sessions. I was also able to sit in on a coaching session between the regional coach, Alma, and the CIM Specialist, Carrie. This coaching relationship serves as continuing professional development for Carrie, who also meets via Zoom with the CIM network, a community of PCL trained coaches and interventionists.

Systems interventions. Like Irving Primary School, Washington Elementary utilizes the interventions that are part of the Comprehensive Intervention Model: Reading Recovery, Guided Reading Plus, Interactive Writing Groups, and Comprehension Focus Groups. Reading Recovery

is mainly taught by the CIM Specialist, although the Primary Literacy Coach does instruct one Reading Recovery student in order to maintain her Reading Recovery certification. The other interventions are taught by both the CIM Specialist and the Literacy Coach.

Collaborative Learning Communities. There are many different collaborative learning communities at work throughout the Washington School District. These collaborations occur at all levels of the district, from district leadership teams to grade level teams. For the purpose of this study, I outlined the collaborative communities of which the primary literacy coach, the first-grade teachers, and the CIM Specialist were members.

Grade level team meetings. At the school level, each grade team met biweekly with the literacy coach to talk about instructional practices based on data collected through the ESAIL walkthroughs and district assessments. These grade level meetings were led by the school literacy coach, who created an agenda for each meeting. The collaborative conversations, discussed in more detail later in this chapter, centered less around individual children and more on whole-class instruction. For the year in which this study took place, the first-grade team specifically concentrated on their use of the Thoughtful Logs. They refined the rubrics for these logs, and under the leadership of their coach, discussed ways in which they could better utilize the students' work in these logs.

While there was an agenda for each grade level team meeting, it was very general and only indicated the overall topics of discussion. These meetings seemed to have a predictable order, with the coach asking a guiding question about the day's topic, followed by time for the teachers to reflect on, and engage with any data that they may have brought to the meeting (e.g., Running Records or Thoughtful Logs). After a few minutes of reflection, each teacher responded to the prompting question, which often led to a conversation about classroom practice. In the

meetings I observed, Carrie generally ended each meeting with information for the teachers about what they could expect from her in an email regarding the system interventions. This could be a schedule, a collaborative goal sheet to look at, or assessment results.

First-grade team. The first-grade team at Washington Elementary also operates as a collaborative learning community separate from the biweekly meetings with the Literacy Coach. Team members meet frequently together to plan lessons and units. "They are a very organized team and thrive because they are supportive of one another," said Carrie. After collaborating on the creation of multidisciplinary units, the team uploads them to a shared drive that each member of the team can access and make changes as necessary. The first-grade teachers often meet during their planning time to create detailed mini-lessons for use in Language Workshop and Reader's Workshop. Carrie would like to be able to use this team as a model for how grade levels can operate efficiently and cohesively within the comprehensive literacy model.

District-level teams. Both the literacy coach and the CIM Specialist also participated in three district-level learning communities, namely, the Leveraging Literacy Leadership (L3) Committee, the PCL team, and the data team. Each is briefly described here:

Leveraging Literacy Leadership. This committee was formed to work with a private consultant not associated with PCL hired to lead Washington through the planning process of developing school improvement goals. The committee created a cyclical action plan for setting goals, planning instruction, gathering data, and adjusting instruction based on data results. The team consisted of a representative from each grade level, the literacy coaches, the CIM Specialist, the Bilingual Resource Teacher, Library Media Specialists, Social Workers, and administrators, including the Curriculum Director and the school principals.

PCL Team. The purpose of the PCL team was to maintain the integrity of the comprehensive literacy model from preschool to grade six. The team used this time to look at the big picture of model implementation, seeking alignment with the ten principles of the model and making decisions around issues that may impact the system as a whole. This team was made up of the CIM Specialist, the literacy coaches, and the school principals. This is also the time that school principals brought forth any discussions, decisions, or questions that came out of the district leadership team.

Data Team. The Data Team, led by the CIM Specialist, met quarterly to review student data and to determine which students would receive interventions, what interventions they would receive, and who would teach those interventions. This team consists of interventionists, coaches, the elementary and intermediate principals, and at times, the curriculum director.

At the system level, the literacy coach and the CIM Specialist also participate in Collaborative Learning Communities with other coaches and CIM Specialists across the country. Carrie, the CIM Specialist, meets with other CIM Specialists throughout her state under the direction of Alma. They meet to problem solve and learn from each other as they implement the various interventions within the PCL model. Lola meets via Zoom with other coaches in training, as well as the network of coaches that report to the university training center at UALR.

Participants

Table 14 gives a comparative description of the participants in this study from Washington Elementary School.

Primary Literacy Coach. Lola Smith was not only in her first year at Washington Elementary, but also in her first year as a literacy coach at the time of this study. Prior to coming to Washington Elementary, Lola worked in a nearby school district as a Reading Recovery

Table 14

Washington Elementary School Participant Demographics

Participant	Years at Washington Elementary	Years in Washington District	Previous experience	Master's Degree	Additional CIM Training
Lola Smith (Primary Literacy Coach/Interventionist)	1	1	2 years, Second Grade 1 year, Data-Point Person/RR 2 years, Reading Recovery	Curriculum and Instruction with Focus in Literacy Instruction	RR coursework Continuing Contact CIM training CIMS Specialist training
Carrie Larson (CIM Specialist)	4	4	8 years, RR/Intervention 1.5 year, Title I .5 year, 2-3 multiage 1 year, K-1 multiage 1 year, Third Grade 4 years, Preschool	Curriculum and Instruction with Focus in Literacy	RR coursework Continuing Contact CIM training
Grace West (Focus first grade teacher)	2	2	1 year, 2/3 split plus technology specialist 4 years, Third Grade	In progress—English as a Second Language	None
Elise Harris (first grade teacher)	5	5	NA	Leadership and Learning	None
Jenny Jones (First grade teacher)	3	3	5 years, Kindergarten 1 year, Second Grade	Curriculum and Instruction	CIM training
Amber Harrison (principal)	3	3	Director of Instruction Literacy Coach Instructional Coach Classroom teacher	Educational Leadership	CIM training
Alma Nachreiner (Clinical Coach for UALR)	5	2 (not employed by Washington at the time of the study)	6 years, Middle School ELA 14 years, Title I (K-5) 5 years, Reading Recovery 2 years, building PCL coach 4 years, district PCL coach (in Washington)	Reading	RR coursework Continuing Contact CIM training PCL coaching coursework

teacher and Data Point Person, and more recently as a second-grade teacher Although Lola previously was Reading Recovery teacher in a school that participated in CLM, she said she knew almost nothing about the PLC model before starting her role at Washington. "I knew it was a thing going on and I knew that there were Thoughtful Logs and that was probably about the extent of my knowledge," Lola said. "I was in my Reading Recovery world, and when you are in that, you are in this bubble."

As a coach in training, Lola's schedule was very busy. She attended a university class two nights a week via Zoom and also participated in three full-day professional development trainings per month, one of which occurred during the time of the study. In addition to her coursework, Lola also worked a full-time schedule as a coach and interventionist, including teaching three interventions: one early intervention boost for Kindergarten, one Reading Recovery student, and one group of second-graders.

In addition to her small groups, Lola also spent an hour three days a week in her secondgrade model classroom during Reading Workshop time. Because second grade was housed at the Intermediate School during the time of the study, this added travel time to and from the intermediate school a few blocks away. Lola noted that she enjoys this part of her job, as she loves being able to plan and read with kids, especially in those "a-ha" moments. Lola says, "You might struggle for weeks and then all of a sudden it's *snap* and you are like, 'Yes! That is what I wanted!' I have always lived for those moments."

Lola attends several district meetings on a regular basis: weekly meetings with the intermediate school building coach, weekly meetings with the principals, bi-weekly meetings with the PCL team, and the occasional student support team meeting. At Washington, the grade level teams meet twice a month for 45 minutes, and so Lola must also prepare for and conduct

those sessions. Despite all of these pulls on her time, Lola makes it a priority to keep time in her schedule open and flexible in order to be available to teachers as needed.

Although she has only been a part of the CLM at Washington for a short time, Lola appreciates the child-centered focus of the model. Her own children started attending the school the year prior to the study, and she remembered being impressed with the gains they made during that year, even as a preschooler and a Kindergartener. Now that she is enrolled in the coaching coursework, Lola is amazed by the theory and learning behind the model as well.

To have the time to do that professional reading and really look at research and what people are saying and apply that to teaching has been really powerful. When you are in the classroom, you don't always get time for that, and that is a priority of the model continuing that professional reading because things are always changing and you want to make sure you are using evidence-based research. I am sitting and having conversations and thinking about neural networks and things that were not even in my mind before. That has been a really cool shift for me even though it is early [in my coursework].

At the same time, Lola recognizes some of the challenges that come along with such a model. "No one is telling you what to do. There is not as much consistency as if you had a specific scope and sequence with a boxed basal system. While there is a lot of flexibility and responsiveness, it is very intensive for the teachers." Lola already sees the challenge in finding time for purposeful planning and responding to teachers' needs while they do that planning. As a new coach, Lola finds the teachers to be "pretty open" to this rigorous model of instruction, although there is the usual grumble about assessments—there are too many and the deadlines are too soon.

Lola is excited to be part of such a child-centered and rigorous model. She considers herself a life-long learner, and looks forward to continuing her education—not just in this year of training, but throughout her time as the literacy coach at Washington. She noted:

Everybody looks at me like I am absolutely crazy. I have four little kids and I'm in this extensive training and new job. But the training doesn't worry me because even though it is a lot of reading, and yeah, I am tired, I love learning new things and I love begin able to try it out. I love being able to support other teachers and share that knowledge. I am super excited about this role—having the time to step back and support classrooms and still work with kids but have more of that leadership role to support teachers.

As she considers her first year at Washington, Lola likens her experience to the first ten days of Reading Recovery, "Roaming Around the Known." Just like in Roaming, Lola is taking the time to learn what her teachers already know about literacy instruction while also determining what is partially known. It is there that Lola knows she can make a difference, stating, "I feel like the coaches are there to give a lot of support to the implementation of the model."... We have the knowledge of what it should look like and the best practice. So how can we provide the professional development to lift what is happening in the classroom to the best practices of the model?" Just like in Roaming, Lola knows it takes time to build relationships and trust with a coach, particularly one that is new to the building and to the comprehensive literacy model itself.

Comprehensive Intervention Model Specialist. As reported above, Carrie, the CIM Specialist, came to Washington as the Reading Recovery teacher when the model was first implemented four years prior. She has had a wide variety of teaching experiences in her 17 years of teaching, including preschool, multiage classrooms, Title I Reading, and Reading Recovery. She has participated in many of the trainings offered through PCL, which to date were

completion of Reading Recovery, CIM training, and CIM Specialist training. Although she often steps informally into the coaching role at Washington, Carrie has not yet completed the PCL Coaching coursework.

In her role as the CIM Specialist during the study, Carrie interacts and collaborates with many people across the district. It is a complex and sometimes confusing role, both to Carrie and others in the district as well.

I believe some of the misunderstanding is the teachers think I am [only] an interventionist. We put a very big priority on making sure our intervention students are served and in doing so, it keeps me doing as many interventions as possible. I think a lot of it is not fully knowing, beyond intervention, what the CIM Specialist role is, what the coach's role is, and where that line is drawn.

Part of that confusion may stem from high administrative turnover, resulting in some loss of understanding of responsibilities tied to the various roles within the model. "I think any time you have a new person at the table," she says, "there is a new person who is less familiar with what the model is. I think everyone is trying to figure out what this new person is thinking too." Since Carrie started in the district four years ago, she has had four new principals, including an interim principal for the 2017-2018 school year who was brought in to help with the transition from two schools to one school. Carrie is quick to emphasize that even with the changes, the administration has been, for the most part, supportive and involved in the planning and implementation of CLM in the district.

According to her job description, Carrie's time should be split 50/50 between Reading Recovery and the CIM Specialist role, which also includes small group instruction. Each day, Carrie teaches six intervention lessons: four Reading Recovery students, one first grade

intervention group, and then either a second-grade group or a kindergarten group, depending on the time of year (the first half of the year is spent with second grade and the second half of the year with Kindergarten). Although her CIM Specialist role spans prekindergarten through sixth grade, Carrie provides intervention services primarily to kindergarten through second grade, although she could pick up students from other grade levels if the need arises. She calls it a "shared system" that maintains flexibility based on the needs of the students.

Besides these six daily intervention lessons, Carrie is also responsible for the oversight of the implementation and development of the intervention system for preschool through sixth grade. This involves running data meetings where team members (e.g., interventionists, special education teachers, and administration) collaboratively analyze student data to determine which students will receive interventions, who will provide the interventions, and when they will occur. Scheduling is one of the biggest challenges for the Washington intervention team. The team maps out interventions on a white board, much like putting together an intricate puzzle, given that they have to work around core classroom instruction, recess and lunch, and one another's schedules.

Carrie has also developed a system for data triangulation, utilizing district technology systems to store the testing and intervention data. These data tracking systems make it easy for anyone in the district to monitor the effectiveness of the model, as well as helps teachers and administrators examine their processes to see where they can strengthen instruction.

Carrie also saves time in her schedule to meet with the school coaches at both the elementary and intermediate buildings, as well as with the administration. She regularly attends first-grade level meetings, and kindergarten and second grade meetings as she is able.

Additionally, Carrie participates in Continuing Contact for Reading Recovery, as well as ongoing CIM training with Alma several times a year.

Despite her hectic schedule, Carrie finds joy in the time she spends working with the students. "Right here at the table is what I love. Working with the kids and seeing the excitement that goes on when they start making the connections, and just having fun with books and writing." She looks forward to moving the model forward, particularly as the elementary and intermediate schools become one. She also looks forward to being able to do more with the classroom teachers, and give them the support they need to be successful in their classrooms as they take on more of the tasks and responsibilities of being a PCL school.

First-Grade Focus Teacher. Grace West is in her third year of teaching first grade at Washington Elementary. Before that, she taught a second-third grade multiage classroom for one year, and third grade for four years in the same district nearby where Lola, Carrie, and Alma had worked. When that district decided to move away from CLM to a more scripted curriculum after a year of piloting both, Grace left and came to Washington. At the time of the study, Grace was finishing her last semester of a Master's Degree in English as a Second Language (ESL).

Grace appreciates the collaborative nature of CLM, particularly the structure with an onsite coach constantly available to answer questions or trouble-shoot with a particular child. She also likes the built-in professional development that is part of the bi-weekly grade level meetings, together with the opportunity to follow up on some of those ideas through more formal coaching cycles and/or informal after-school conversations. Grace especially likes the concept of the model classroom, where teachers have the opportunity to work closely with the coach during the reading block, a level she hopes to attain soon, namely model classroom.

Like all the teachers at Washington Elementary, Grace uses the Reader's Workshop format for reading instruction. She always begins the year by establishing routines and expectations for this workshop time, starting with independent reading. During the lesson I observed, Grace clearly defined independent reading for her students, telling them "Reading independently is reading all by yourself and with zero voices." She had one student demonstrate what that looked like before the whole class tried it. When one student took longer to settle in to reading, Grace simply walked over and stood by that student until he started reading by himself. The class was able to read for 52 seconds with zero noise, a good start for the first week of school. Grace then took the time to praise the students who were able to do it well. Grace believes that the time at the beginning of the year spent on teaching routines and procedures is time well spent since it allows her to move quickly into small group instruction once they understand what is expected of them.

Grace starts each rotation of the workshop with a short read aloud, getting students prepared for their individual work time. After dismissing them into predetermined rotations, she meets with small groups at a kidney table in the back of the room. Each lesson is structure in a very similar way: read through letter charts, practice writing sight words on whiteboards, introduction of the new book, and silent, independent reading the new book. During this time, Grace goes around the group and listens to each child read, giving support and scaffolding as needed.

While Grace meets with small groups, the rest of the children are scattered around the room working on a variety of activities, including listening to reading, reading to themselves, reading with a buddy, and working on words. While it is not silent in the room, most of the

children appear to be on task and Grace rarely needs to avert her attention away from her group to attend to the behavior in the classroom.

Other School Personnel. While they were not primary participants in this study, there were other teachers and administrators who interacted with the participants within the activity settings of the study.

First-grade teacher Jenny. Jenny Jones has been a teacher for nine years, working for the last three years with first grade at Washington Elementary. Her previous experiences included five years at kindergarten and at second grade. She has a Master's degree in Curriculum and Instruction, and attended the Comprehensive Intervention Model training. In addition to the biweekly grade level meetings, she meets regularly with the special education teacher to discuss the progress of her students with special needs. Jenny was a model classroom two years ago and was looking forward to building on the knowledge she gained from that experience with her new class at the beginning of the school year (and the beginning of this study).

First-grade teacher Elise. Elise Harris is the third member of the first-grade team at Washington. At the time of the study, she had been teaching for eight years, five of which were with first grade Washington. Elise has a Master's degree in Leadership and Learning, but had not yet experienced having a model classroom, nor completed the Comprehensive Intervention Model training. She reported working regularly with small groups and individual students during her reading block.

School principal. Amber Harrison is one of two principals at Washington, and has been in the district for three years. Prior to employment at Washington, Amber was a classroom teacher and an instructional coach and literacy coach in the same nearby district as the others. Although she does not have a formal literacy background, she served as a PCL model classroom

for three years in her previous district before moving into an instructional coaching position and then on to a district-level curriculum position where she worked to develop district-created units of study using a balanced literacy approach. She has attended many summer institutes with PCL including training in the Comprehension Focus Groups intervention.

Amber brings her understanding of the CLM to her position as a school administrator. As the principal, she sees the model as a strong, comprehensive system that supports teachers and their learning process. She also appreciates the complexity of a framework that does not follow a manual and relies heavily on student data.

It's the data; its standards. That is what drives what teachers are doing and it takes time. It takes time to think about an interdisciplinary unit of study so that you are not just teaching literacy in literacy, but that in a way that the Language Workshop mini-lesson supports what they are doing in Reader's Workshop, which supports what they are doing in Writer's Workshop. It is something that requires a lot of thought, a lot of planning, a

lot of intentionality, and lot of purposeful targeting thinking, and that takes time. Amber sees Washington at a "tipping point", where teachers are starting to see that the time spent collaborating actually reduces the amount of time needed for planning. She recognizes collaboration as an essential component to what her teachers are doing and works hard to make sure that collaboration time is valued and honored.

Amber has also seen positive changes in student learning spill out into the community outside school hours. Parents are noticing the carryover from school to home and comment to her about it, and stated: "I get comments all the time of how excited kids were because they were able to read and they were reading for meaning. They were reading for a different purpose than just learning how to read—they were reading to learn and that's a really exciting thing." Students

are going home and recreating the charts they made in school. One preschooler noticed how he could apply his new mapping skills out into the community. These deeper thinking skills are starting to become evident in the data as well, with rising test scores over the last three years that this comprehensive model has been in place.

University clinical coach. Alma Nachreiner has a unique role, not just within the Washington school district, but within the PCL model as well. Unlike Jill Walker, who works as an employee of the Lincoln School district, Alma is not employed by the Washington school district, but rather, is a self-employed clinical coach who works closely with the Literacy Center at UALR. Because her state does not have a university center affiliated with the Partnerships in Comprehensive Literacy, Alma operates in that capacity, providing CLM support to districts across her state.

Alma's involvement with the Washington School District began when she was working as a literacy support person for one of her state's regional service agencies. In November of 2013, Alma was contacted by the Washington curriculum director who asked her to provide some information about the PCL model to the teachers in the district. Once the decision was made to move forward with implementation, Alma started training the coaches, providing professional development, and assisting in the kick-off of the model during the 2014-2015 school year.

Alma began her teaching career as an eighth-grade Language Arts teacher. She realized quickly that while she felt confident working with the students who were at grade level, she was not sure what to do with those working both above or below grade level. Within six months of starting her first teaching job, Alma began a Reading Specialist Master of Education degree program. After teaching for a few years, she took off several years from teaching to stay at home

with her young children. When she returned to teaching, it was as a Title I Reading Teacher and she began taking university classes at night taught by a local Reading Recovery teacher.

Shortly after returning to teaching, Alma won a teaching fellowship, which came with a cash prize, which she used to pay for Reading Recovery training. Alma then went on to teach Reading Recovery for five years. In her fifth year, Alma again began to seek out new ways to improve her teaching, and contemplated training as a Reading Recovery teacher leader. But at the urging of her principal, she chose to complete the PCL coaching coursework with Dr. Linda Dorn at the University of Arkansas Little Rock instead.

When I trained with Dr. Dorn, it took my Reading Recovery training to a whole new level. I don't know if I would have been able to go to that level had I not had that foundational Reading Recovery coursework. It enhanced it by leaps and bounds. I don't think I could be an excellent coach without it.

Alma went on to work as a district coach before moving into the position at the regional service agency and then to her current role as the director of the PCL Satellite Center. To Alma, the greatest strength of this model is its embedded professional learning and systemic approach to continuous school improvement. She sees her role as helping the Washington teachers and administrators keep a "laser beam focus" on the ten features of the model as a way to discern what to say yes to and what to say no to in order to see progress.

Outside of her work with the Washington School District, Alma sees herself as the individual who must keep her state on the right track with literacy instruction. Three times a year, she brings together superintendents, curriculum directors, and principals from across the state to help them understand enough about the model so that they will be "wise decision makers with resource and time and focus." She maintains a website filled with resources for schools to

access and conducts professional development for all levels of district stakeholders: teachers, interventionists, principals, and administrators.

Curriculum director. Shawna Earl started in the Washington school district as a principal at the elementary school in 2014 when CLM was first implemented in the district. She moved into her current role as the Curriculum Director in 2016. Shawna had experience with CLM in her previous district, which is the same district in which Alma, Carrie, Lola, and Grace worked. **Research Question One: Language of Scaffolding in First Grade Team Meetings**

Again, the first research question sought to find the patterns of the language of scaffolding among participating literacy coaches and first-grade teachers during grade level meetings. In this school, the first-grade teachers met together as a grade level with the literacy coach and the CIM Specialist. The grade level met biweekly sessions started in September, and met consistently except for one week in November when the literacy coach and the CIM Specialist were participating in a Zoom conference. The school associate principal and the district curriculum coordinator also participated in one of the meetings during this study. During these meetings, the three types of scaffolds previously discussed with Case A were present: Telling and Teaching, Directing and Demonstrating, and Prompting and Guiding.

Telling and Teaching. To recap, this type of scaffold is defined as instructions or information given by someone in the group to the classroom teachers with no collaboration expected. This telling was divided into two subcategories: telling about procedures and teaching about literacy concepts. These scaffolds represent the highest load of responsibility on the speaker, and the lowest load of responsibility on the receiver; that is, the speaker holds and imparts the knowledge to the receiver with no expectation of action.

Telling about procedures. While this scaffold occurred most frequently during the September grade-level meeting, it was present in each of the subsequent meetings as well. In the first-grade meetings at Washington Elementary School, the language of this scaffold focused on scheduling concerns, assessment, and the work that would be done throughout the year on the Thoughtful Logs.

Since Washington was only in its fourth year of implementation, there were still scheduling issues to work out, such as when students would leave the classroom for interventions and how soon teachers would have small-group instruction up and running. In the first gradelevel meeting, Lola (literacy coach) checked in with the teachers to see when they would have their groups going, starting with the lowest performing group of children who would need the most attention from the teachers.

Lola:	Do you have a plan on when you are going to start with them?
Jenny:	Hopefully, either by the end of next week or the following week. We have to make sure the routine is sort of set before I start—that's the big thing.
Lola:	Just remember we are trying to get all groups started by the end of September, so if you have to take a little bit of extra time in the beginning for the routines, just be thinking that as you are setting that plan and that timeline for yourself. Maybe instead of [adding] one [group] a week, how can you bump up that timeline a little bit quicker?
Jenny:	And that's all small groups wanting to start by the end of September?
Lola:	Yes. Keep in mind too that in the beginning they may not be full groups. Just make sure you are meeting with each group of kids by the end [of September].

In order to stay true to the model, it was important for small-group instruction to start occurring as soon as possible. Prior to CLM implementation there had been no formal small-group reading instruction so this concept was still relatively new to this school. Therefore, the urgency to get the groups going as soon as possible, while supported by the administration and the teachers, was

still a new concept for classroom teachers and not yet fully engrained into the school culture. As the coach, Lola recognizes that this gentle nudging must come from her.

In October, the first-grade team had the opportunity to share some of their concerns regarding assessment with the Curriculum Director, Shawna, who attended the first half of their meeting. The first round of district-level reading assessment was just two weeks away, and the team felt as if they had not had enough time yet with their small groups to be able to do accurate assessment, particularly those working above grade level. Shawna, Lola, and Carrie were able to address the teachers' concerns while at the same time recognizing the need to adhere to state assessment requirements and the district comprehensive assessment plan.

- Lola: We had a goal of all the groups going by the end of September. It has been three weeks since then.
- Jenny: I will admit, I didn't have all of my reading groups going until the end of September and that was pushing it. Knowing where my kids were behavior-wise, trying to get them settled it, getting the reading rotations going, including what's expected of them during reading centers and monitoring them closely those first few weeks, making sure they are doing it correctly, and are able to do it within their groups.
- Lola: Three weeks of instruction, not three weeks of testing in August.
- Carrie: When you started to roll it out, you started with that focus group, and then adding more to the other groups after that, so it has been three weeks that all of them have been up and going versus the first one.
- Shawna: You don't want to put poor structures in now because then you just have to back track, so that definitely makes sense. From a data standpoint though, just for my clarification, the last real hard data that you have would be from back in August. Thinking about conferences coming up and when you are thinking about communicating at those conferences where kids are at—it's going to be a little tricky. I think it would be nice to share with parents some updated data. I also think we need some data because we have to have it for intervention groups. I am just wondering how we can support you. I am wondering if some sub release time would work to get these assessments done.

Lola:	The letter ID and letter sounds are completed on all kids below the proficiency, so that is part of our diagnostic assessments.
Carrie:	So we are going to do that for you this year.
Lola:	Anyone that is below proficiency at quarter, we have to diagnostic test all of them to potentially pick them up for interventions.
Grace:	So if someone doesn't meet [level] F, since F is the next benchmark, we are going to let you know and you will be doing the assessment?
Carrie:	Yes.
Lola:	Once you retest, anyone that is lower than F, we will do their letter ID and recording sounds because that means they should be picked up in a group.

Lola and Carrie clarified the procedure for assessment of students not meeting the district benchmark, which removed some of the assessment load from the teachers. During this same meeting, Shawna informed the first-grade teachers that the previously state-required early literacy screening was no longer required. Districts were now able to use their own early literacy screening and, therefore, this would be the last year they would use that screener.

Teaching about literacy. This type of scaffold was used to give information about literacy instruction to the first-grade team. Because CLM was relatively new in the district, the teachers were still learning the theory behind the components of the model's Tier I instruction. Lola used the grade-level meetings to do some intentional teaching about literacy practices. At the beginning of the year, the first-grade team decided they wanted to use their grade-level time to work on their use of the Thoughtful Logs in terms of both instruction and assessment. Lola addressed the topic of the Thoughtful Logs during the first October meeting. Using a PowerPoint, she laid out the research behind the use of the logs, first stating:

From *Teaching for Deep Comprehension*, Dorn and Soffos talk about how writing helps students learn how to organize their thinking more fluently and flexibly and it makes thinking visible, more tangible and it promotes more conscious awareness and deeper

comprehension like you were talking about. When they are writing in their logs, they are becoming more conscious of their thinking; they write to describe events, summarize information, formulate believes, and explore new ideas. So, there is really so much value in the logs and you can use them in so many different ways.

Lola spent about ten minutes going through her PowerPoint, noting that she connected the writing the students do in their logs to the state writing standards in her own instruction, as well as to the research of the National Commission on Writing. She also spoke about the integration of the Thoughtful Logs into Reading and Writing Workshop, as well as to Project Lead the Way, an integrative approach to math and science recently adopted by the district. She then moved into specific student use and gave the teachers some examples of student work. Finally, she transitioned from teaching about literacy instruction into a procedural focus as she shared about the rubric they would be using to score the Thoughtful Logs.

At other times, the teaching was not as intentional, such as when the first-grade teachers met with Shawna regarding assessment. The conversation turned from talking about the students who were below grade level to those above grade level. Jenny expressed some concerns about the efficiency of doing reading assessments on students who may not move up a text level given the complexity of the work at the higher levels. Shawna was unsure of the reading levels for first grade.

Shawna:	Is J an advanced level right now?
Grace:	J is our goal level at the end of the year, so maybe if they are K or higher, then advanced would be maybe if they are L or something. Maybe if they are already at L.
Lola:	Because J is end of first grade going into second. K is quarter one second grade, L is quarter two, and M is end of year, second.

Lola shared this piece of literacy knowledge to ensure that everyone in the room, including the curriculum director, understood the text level expectations for first grade. Later in

the conversation, Carrie added information about some typical literacy behaviors in first grade that could help the teachers make decisions about instruction, saying:

We know there are a few places where kids plateau, and we know one of them is about that E/F range as they are just starting to get into those stories and their how-to write words. There is that place where they often plateau around G, where again we are breaking words that are a little more complex, and our high frequency words should be a little bit more automatic and fluent, and sometimes that interferes.

By the end of this conversation, the team agreed to start the assessment time with the students who were below the expected benchmark, then moving up to get as far as they could during the assessment window. The Curriculum Director also agreed to take another look at the assessment windows, as well as the writing assessment.

Quantitative patterns of telling and teaching. Each type of scaffold was counted and recorded in a frequency distribution table (see Table 15). This table was then analyzed for patterns of scaffolds: how many scaffolds occurred in total per category, how many of each scaffold occurred, who gave each type of scaffold, and if relevant, to whom the scaffolds were given.

There were a total of fifteen Telling and Teaching scaffolds across the four meetings: sixteen Telling about Procedures (TAP) and nine Teaching about Literacy (TAL). Of the sixteen TAP scaffolds, 44 percent (n = 7) were given at the September meeting, thirteen percent (n = 2) were given at the first October meeting, 25 percent (n = 4) were given at the second October meeting, and 19 percent (n = 3) were given at the December meetings. Of the nine TAL scaffolds, none were given at the September meeting, 44 percent (n = 4) were given at the first

October meeting, 33 percent (n = 3) were given at the second October meeting, and 22 percent (n

= 2) were given at the December meeting.

Table 15

Telling a	nd Teach	ing Frequ	ency Distr	ribution W	ashington	Grade-L	evel Meeti	ngs	
	September		October 5		October 19		December		
_	Pro	Lit	Pro	Lit	Pro	Lit	Pro	Lit	Total
Lola	7	0	2	3	3	2	2	2	21
Carrie	0	0	0	0	1	1	1	0	3
Grace	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	1
Elise	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Jenny	0	0	0	0	0	0			0
Total	7	0	2	4	4	3	3	2	25

Lola provided 84 percent (n = 21) of the total Telling and Teaching Scaffolds, with 67 percent (n = 14) of these scaffolds being TAP and 33 percent (n = 7) TAL. Carrie provided twelve percent (n = 3) of the total Telling and Teaching scaffolds, in which 67 percent (n = 2) were TAP and 33 percent (n = 1) were TAL. Grace was the only teacher to provide a singular Telling and Teaching scaffold, a TAL scaffold which occurred at the October meeting.

Directing and Demonstrating. This type of scaffold focused on instructional practices as they related to literacy instruction. At this level of scaffold, the speaker's intent was to invite others to try certain procedures, either because they had already been successful in the speaker's classroom or because she thought they might be valuable to the other teachers in the group. These scaffolds fell into two categories: explaining an instructional procedure that had already been tried (Demonstrating) or suggesting a procedure that could be tried in the future (Directing).

Demonstrating. The team spent a lot of time during the first meeting in October talking about the Thoughtful Logs. As stated above, this conversation started with a guiding question from Lola, followed by responses from the classroom teachers. In the following example, Lola

poses her question about the Thoughtful Logs and two of the teachers responded with a

reflection and then a suggestion for instruction:

Lola:	Just to start, we are going to do a brief inclusion where you can share the purpose of the Thoughtful Logs and how you can use them, as well as anything that you still want to know or that you are unsure of. Anytime you have an idea to answer those questions, feel free to shout them out.
Jenny:	I would say the main purpose of a Thoughtful Log, well a couple purposes, is to incorporate writing and clear reading and going deeper into comprehension and thoughts on a book and incorporating basically their thoughts into that writing piece and how writing and reading are so mined together - that's not exactly how I want to word it. Just building that piece between writing and reading and that comprehension piece of digging deeper into a book or story or even a writing piece.
Grace:	I like how it holds them a little bit accountable too. Every day in Language Workshop you are reading something but you're also going to be expected to write about it. You can be thinking while we are reading and participating. Also just something to look back on sometimes, "Remember when we read this book" and you can flip back and look at that or you can refer back to some of the things that we've done and recorded in there.
Lola:	Anything you want to add Elise?
Elise:	Something I still want to know would be for my higher readers, would be finding different ways to have them independently use a Thoughtful Log because I'm not meeting with them daily as a guided reading group. What are some things that I can do so they are still building those independent

Here, Jenny gives the suggestion of expanding a Thoughtful Log entry into a writing piece during Writer's Workshop. Grace talks about the opportunity to use the Thoughtful Log as a resource to remember what students have done with a book or a topic. When Elise sat quietly for bit, Lola engaged her in the conversation by asking if she wanted to add anything. While Elise did not have a suggestion for instruction with the Thoughtful Logs, she did respond to the second part of Lola's prompt, which was to think of something that she was still unsure of. Although no

skills and yet incorporating the writing part with what they are reading?

one answered her query directly at the time, Jenny eventually answers it with an example of something she did with her previous students (see below).

During the December meeting, the team discussed the use of anchor charts related to the prompts given for the Thoughtful Log entries as visible evidence of learning. While everyone found the anchor charts to be useful for students, finding space to put them up in the classroom seemed to be an issue. The group did some collaborative problem-solving to come up with suggestions for how to use the anchor charts.

Carrie: I know I appreciate the anchor charts that I'm seeing because I can go in and snap shots of photos of them and then be really aligned with the interventions since that's really my focus is right now, to be aligned with intervention and what you guys are doing in the classroom, so that's really helpful thank you. Grace: I thought co-constructed anchor charts about small group procedures. We did some in the beginning of the year, but I don't have them posted. I also think I want to do some more, within that group ... make their chart about their reading strategies or something where each group has something posted or can create some things together I think would be nice. Lola: Whatever you do, if you take a picture of it, then you have it on the table. Grace: That's a good idea. That's the other thing, it's the space. Where to put it. Lola: That's the other thing we recognize, that we do lots of anchor charts and space is a precious commodity in our room. Elise: That's probably what I should do with what I started with the LDG group, having a picture of it and having it on the table to look at. I've just had my other two groups say, "What's that? What's slant?" it's stuff that other kids haven't seen that they are curious about. Is it okay to leave it up? Lola: It's okay, yeah. You just say "This is a way that we are learning to talk about books." Then it is an easy way for the kids to have as a reference. I've also thought about having the strategy posted somehow, like a picture Grace: of it. Something that you can just be today, "Here is our strategies," and stick it up so they can see it. I have our *I Can* board for the whole class.

But I don't have something like that, but I think it would be helpful to have a visual.

Again, this group of teachers worked together to find solutions and give examples for one another as to how to solve even simple things, like how to manage the large number of anchor charts used in the classroom. Lola provided specific language that the classroom teachers could use with their students when she said, "This is a way that we are learning to talk about books." The recognition of one another's good work and creative ideas is an excellent example of collaboration around instruction.

Directing. There were only three instances of Examples of Instruction during the four meetings included in this study, none of which occurred in the September meeting or the second October meeting. However, during the first October meeting, Lola gave some specific examples of Thoughtful Log entries she uses during instruction. Then at the end of the meeting, Jenny responded to Elise's earlier question about what to do with higher students, providing an example of something she had tried with her students:

Jenny:	It was last year, for my higher kids, not being able to meet with them all
	the time to check where their comprehension was when I would assign
	them Thoughtful Log entries.

- Elise: When you did that did you have a prompt or...?
- Jenny: I usually had a prompt, yes. It doesn't quite go with the book they were reading; it would usually go with their reading mini-lesson. So, this week we are talking about schema, so I would say to the higher group, "What book did you read and how did you use your schema in that book?" That is how they would have to respond in that log.

Quantitative patterns of Directing and Demonstrating. As with the patterns of Telling

and Teaching, each type of scaffold was counted and recorded in a frequency distribution table (see Table 16). This table was then analyzed for patterns of scaffolds: how many scaffolds

occurred in total for each category, how many of each type of scaffold occurred, and who gave each type of scaffold.

Table 16

Directing and Demonstrating Frequency Distribution Washington Grade-Level Meetings									
	<u>September</u>		October 5		October 19		December		
	Direct	Demons	Direct	Demons	Direct	Demons	Direct	Demons	Total
Lola	0	0	2	1	0	0	3	0	6
Carrie	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Grace	0	0	1	0	0	0	2	1	4
Elise	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	1
Jenny	0	0	3	1	0	0			4
Total	0	0	6	1	0	0	5	2	14

There were fourteen total Directing and Demonstrating scaffolds across the four meetings: eleven Directing and three Demonstrating. Of the eleven Directing scaffolds, 44 percent (n = 6) were given at the first October meeting, and 36 percent (n = 5) were given at the December meeting. There were none at either the September meeting or the second October meeting. Of the three Demonstrating scaffolds, 67 percent (n = 2) were given at the December meeting and 33 percent (n = 1) were given at the first October meeting, with none occurring at the September meeting and the second October meeting.

Lola provided 43 percent (n = 6) of the total Directing and Demonstrating scaffolds, five of which were Directing. Two of the classroom teachers provided the rest of the Directing and Demonstrating scaffolds: Grace with 28-percent (n = 4), of which three were Directing; Jenny provided 28 percent (n = 3) two of which were Directing; and Elise provided seven percent (n = 1), one Demonstrating.

Prompting and Guiding. This type of scaffold involves open-ended questions or statements meant to invite the classroom teachers to participate in the identification or creation of

teaching moves to increase student learning. Most of these types of scaffolds were given by the coach, Lola. At each grade level meeting, Lola asked at least one guiding question for the teachers to consider, and then gave them time to think about their responses, following up with an optional chance to share. Below is Lola's first prompt at the first grade level meeting of the year. She set the tone of the meeting by asking the teachers to think about a goal they had for themselves. This is a true open-ended question as there was little chance that Lola could have known what sorts of goals these teachers might have had for themselves given that she was new to the building and had not worked with them before.

- Lola: We are going to take a little moment to do some reflecting, so I had you guys bring your journals. I want you to think about a goal or two that you have for yourself, if you want to think for the whole year or just the next quarter or a half a year or whatever makes sense for you. Just so you have yourself focused on what you want in the beginning. Be thinking also about some of the things coming this year with project Lead the Way, BBD, creating Units of Study, working on small group instruction. Just take a few minutes to break those thoughts down. (*waits a few minutes*) Does anyone want to share anything they wrote? You don't have to.
- Jenny: One of the things that I'm really excited about this year, especially with the class I have, is getting back into doing more with the CLM and things that Terry and I worked on and adding to them. Two years ago when I was model classroom with last year's class, it was really hard to add onto those things and build off of it, but I feel like this class, I can really build off of it and really keep it going and really adding more to being the model. That's what I'm looking forward to and a goal of mine.
- Lola: Yeah, that's great.
- Grace: I'm really wanting to go deeper into the Thoughtful Logs this year. I feel like the last two years I've been good at doing it every day and having the kids use it all the time, but also having them revisit or use it during their independent time is something I really haven't gotten into yet. Using the rubrics, doing more with the three sections-I feel like I do a lot with the "My Thinking" section but I want to start doing more of the structures and vocabulary section. With guided reading groups, I really like how we have all of our assessments mostly done, which is really exciting. I feel like I can put more time now at the beginning of the year into really planning

them and going deeper into the assessments and making them very tailored to what they need. So that's what I am excited about.

Lola: That's great. And we will be doing some work with Thoughtful Logs.

Elise: I put mostly small group instruction. This week I played around with grouping kids and seeing how I could group them, like you mentioned assessment scores and trying to figure that out. I am overall trying to create a rotation that works in the classroom and stay consistent with that as much as possible. Also being more mindful myself of time frames with mini-lessons and really digging deeper with those so that when they do head toward their independent work time they are able to dig deeper with that eventually without as much of my guidance.

Lola: That's great!

After considering the prompt, each of the teachers not only stated their goal for the year, but they gave a justification for why they wanted to work on that particular goal. For example, Grace's goal was to go deeper into her use of the Thoughtful Logs. She then explained her answer, telling Lola, "I think I do a lot with the *My Thinking* section but I want to start doing more of the structures and vocabulary sections." This kind of information will help Lola as she grows into her coaching role. Because she knows exactly what Grace wants to focus on within the Thinking Logs, Lola can ask more pointed questions when she works with Grace during coaching sessions.

Quantitative patterns of Prompting and Guiding. The Prompting and Guiding scaffolds were counted and recorded in a frequency distribution table (see Table 17). This table was then analyzed for patterns of scaffolds: The total number of scaffolds which occurred in total for that category, the number each scaffold that occurred, and who gave each type of scaffold.

There were 22 total Prompting and Guiding scaffolds across the four meetings in this study. Of these, 95 percent (n = 21) were provided by the literacy coach, Lola, with the only other Prompting and Guiding scaffold given by the CIM Specialist, Carrie.

Table 17

	<u>September</u>		October 5		October 19		Decer		
	Quest	Stat	Quest	Stat	Quest	Stat	Quest	Stat	Total
Lola	1	2	4	2	3	1	5	3	21
Carrie	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	1
Grace	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Elise	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Jenny	0	0	0	0	0	0			0
Total	1	2	4	3	3	1	5	3	22

Prompting and Guiding Frequency Distribution Washington Grace-Level Meetings

Contextual Considerations. At Washington Elementary, the grade-level team meetings were times set aside for the teachers to come together as a group twice a month to talk about the instructional components of CLM. These meetings were led by the literacy coach and attended by the CIM Specialist. Most of the discussion in the meetings revolved around Tier I instruction, with very little time spent talking about individual students. As I reviewed the data, the same themes emerged as did for Irving, although in slightly different contexts. These themes were: time, identification of student strengths and weaknesses, and situated identities of the participants within the grade-level meetings.

Time. Time was considered in different ways during these grade level meetings. Lola mentioned time on more than one occasion in relation to small group instruction. In September, she reminded the teachers that they needed to get their reading groups up and going by the end of September, encouraging the teachers to set up a plan and a timeline to make that happen as quickly as possible. Lola specifically asked Elise if she had a plan, then if she had a timeline. Later in that same meeting, Lola reiterated that feeling of urgency, telling the teachers, "Time is of the essence". She even gave them a few minutes during the meeting to plan for their first group.

Time came up again during the second October meeting when the team was meeting with the curriculum director, Shawna. In fact, Shawna attended that meeting at the request of the firstgrade teachers, who had two concerns regarding time and assessments: the short amount of instructional time they had with their small groups before having to give the district assessment, and the amount of time it would take to administer that assessment. These concerns came out in the following conversation:

Shawna: First of all, you guys shared with me a little bit about your tight time frame or how you're feeling about assessments and what you're soon to be working on. Grace: I think some of the frustration is coming from when we do it because we are doing reading groups right now, so we can't stop reading books. We can't take Project Lead the Way out and do it at science. What are we going to give up so that we can get it done, and this is our third week of reading groups only, so it just feels really fast that you want to see growth after we tested. Jenny: Especially with our higher readers. I get doing those that are way below proficient, but all the ones that are proficient or above, is there going to be a lot of growth within those three weeks? Elise: Especially with those higher groups, those are the kids we don't meet with every day. Jenny: Not only doing the Running Records, but then also finding time to do the letters with them, letter sounds, hearing the sight words, all that and finding time to do that as well. Shawna: Yes, yes I completely understand. When you say three weeks, did you do additional assessments or assessments after your summer time work with kids? When you say three weeks... Grace: We did PALS, and then we also had to skip and set up for learning how to do rotating through centers, and that takes a while.

The teachers then detailed for Shawna the amount of time per child each assessment takes.

Shawna and Carrie offered a solution: Substitute teachers would be brought in for part of the

time and Carrie and Lola would assume the responsibility for some of the assessment. In

addition, Shawna extended the assessment window for the teachers, giving them an additional week to complete their assessment. The group then agreed to work over the course of the current school year to resolve some of the issues for the following school year.

This respect for teachers' time was also evident in the way the time was used during the grade level meetings. At each meeting, Lola gave the teachers space to reflect and respond to the topic of the meeting. For example, at the first meeting in September, Lola gave the teachers about five minutes to reflect on their goals for the first half of the year. She then allowed time for them to share these goals with one another. In October, Lola asked the teachers to take some time to analyze one Running Record and then share their findings with the group, including the instructional goal for that student based on the analysis. In December, the group took time to look at classroom assessment data. Lola asked the teachers to make notes and notice what the data told them, after which she allotted time for them to share what they noticed with one another.

Finally, Lola, Carrie, Amber, and Alma all talked in their interviews about the amount of time that it takes to implement the model well. When asked about the challenges related to CLM, Lola acknowledged the amount of time teachers needed to put into their planning because there is no boxed curriculum to tell them what to do. This sentiment was seconded by Amber, who added that this planning must be driven by data, so time must be taken to examine and interpret the data that comes from daily classroom assessments as well as district-wide assessments. Carrie spoke of her desire to have more time for teachers to observe in one another's classrooms and also to observe their students' intervention lessons. Alma spoke of time from the perspective of the big picture. She recognized that time is one of the factors that may cause a district to move away from a comprehensive literacy model.

The problem with this is, how do you move a whole system at a level that needs initially pragmatics and structure and scaffolds? How do you make decisions about what those scaffolds are because that's very, very tricky. That's why people dump this model and go to packaged programs because they can't handle the patience and time it takes to develop [the] teacher expertise that you need to do this and they lack the understanding that you want to put your money into professional thinking and resources in that regard instead of putting your money into a program. That's really hard, and it takes an iron gut and an iron will to own that and to know that and to see it and believe it.

She believes that this understanding is present in Washington from the superintendent down to the classroom teachers, but particularly in the curriculum developer, the coaches, and the CIM Specialist. They can see the payoff from the time invested in an increase in test scores, as well as an increase in deeper thinking by the students as evidenced in their Thoughtful Logs. This data that is gathered is analyzed by administrators, coaches and teachers to determine next steps for instruction based on the strengths and weaknesses of the students.

Identification of Strengths and weaknesses. When considering the strengths and weaknesses of the student in their classes, the first-grade teachers at Washington tended to think about their students in cohorts. For example, at the first meeting of the year, Lola asked the teachers to think about the positives of what was happening in the classroom. Here are the teacher responses:

- Grace: I feel like just seeing the kids figure out the routines. It is so hard in the beginning of the year when you forget how much at the end of the year they knew, so you just have to be more patient throughout the day. They are starting to get there; just breathe. They are going to need all their reminders, but they will get there.
- Jenny: Taking that step back that they just came from kindergarten and they are all still six except for those few.

Elise: I guess a little moment today was being able to get into our second reading station without a whole lot of chaos in the transition. I even had some students that were reminding others that seemed a little lost or deer in the headlights or "What do I do next?" and taking that role and guiding each other a little bit, but also I keep reminding myself that it is only day six of school.

From each of these teacher's perspectives, the children in their classrooms are still learning the classroom routines and how to "do" first grade, and at the same time, they remembered that the children are still young, and the routines will come eventually with some work. These examples of looking at students came not from a deficit stance, but rather, from a viewpoint of student success.

The one meeting where there was more of a focus on student weaknesses came in October. At this point, the guided reading groups had been going for three weeks, and students had been chosen for interventions. The teachers were asked to choose a focus student and to bring his/her data to the meeting where each teacher was given time to talk about the specific needs of that student. During the meeting, the teachers worked with the student data and set specific instructional goals for him/her to be revisited during the next meeting two weeks later. At that next meeting, the teachers looked at the same focus students' Thoughtful Logs and began analyzing it with the rubric they had previously created.

Situated identities. Because the implementation of CLM is relatively new at Washington, the teachers themselves recognize the shifting nature and adaptations that have occurred over time in the roles they hold within their school and their district.

Lola. Because she was in her training year as coach when Lola was very aware of her identity as coach, as this was the topic of her weekly classes. Lola often assumed the identity of literacy expert and she brought information about things like data collection and Thoughtful

Logs to these meetings. She prepared agendas and PowerPoints to keep herself on track. Lola often assumed a coaching identity, asking open-ended questions of the teachers and giving them time to think and respond. If teachers had questions, Lola switched back into teacher mode and gave thoughtful answers. In the very first meeting of the year, Lola acknowledged her role as a co-learner, and made herself vulnerable to the group, telling them:

I've also had to take some moments to breathe. Coming in and trying to find my own footing and being unsure about some things, attending quite a few meetings, and learning things at the system level and then getting to work with some students.

In addition, Lola often shifted into the role of helper as she made many offers of assistance to the teachers, from things like showing them how to enter data into the district program, to observing in their classrooms and assisting with assessment administration. She made these assistance offers at least once every meeting. Finally, Lola assumed the identity of supportive colleague. When she went through the district assessment data showing the largest gains in their county, she said, "I think this is really affirming, with the amount of work that you have all been doing with the model in the classroom for the past few years. It is showing and it's coming out."

Carrie. Although Carrie has been at Washington from the beginning of implementation, she is still trying to figure out exactly what her job entails. She has a job description, but the variability of each day, and indeed each year, does not lend itself to a neat breakdown of time based on that description. During the grade level meetings, Carrie often assumed the identity of co-learner as Lola shared her PowerPoints and engaged the teachers in discussion. Sometimes during these meetings Carrie would shift to her coordinator identity as she worked with the classroom teachers to plan intervention times. Finally, Carrie would occasionally assume the

identity of literacy expert as she shared information about what reading behaviors the teachers might see in their readers at different levels.

Grace. In grade-level meetings, Grace often exhibited the identity of a collaborator. She willingly shared her thoughts around Lola's open-ended prompts, and shared documents with her colleagues when they were examining rubrics for the Thoughtful Log. Although one of the other first-grade teacher would sometimes challenge Lola' authority and decision-making, Grace never did, choosing instead to try and make Lola's decisions work for her classroom.

Research Question Two: Language of Scaffolding During One-on-One Coaching Sessions

The second research question sought to find the patterns of scaffolded discourse between the literacy coach and one first-grade teacher during coaching meetings. For this study, I collected data during collaborations between Carrie and Grace, the focus first grade teacher. Although Carrie is not the school's literacy coach, she met with the first-grade teachers regularly for problem-solving around specific students as part of her role as the CIM Specialist. Additionally, during the year of the study, Lola was not providing one-on-one coaching with first grade teachers because her model classroom was in a second grade room. These collaborations between Carrie and Grace did not start occurring regularly until November due to scheduling conflicts. The data collected during this study took place in November and December, and Carrie recorded the conversations for me and uploaded them into a shared drive given my own time constraints with their meeting times. During these problem-solving meetings, the same three themes emerged: Telling and Teaching, Directing and Demonstrating, and Prompting and Guiding.

Telling and Teaching. As defined previously, telling and teaching occurred when explicit information was provided, either about literacy instruction or about school procedure

with no expectation of collaboration. During both collaboration meetings, Carrie and Grace used the Literacy Collaboration checklist from *Interventions That Work* (Dorn & Soffos, 2012), shown in Figure 6, to guide their conversation around students from Grace's class that were also in an intervention. All of the Telling and Teaching prompts were given by Carrie, and most were from the Literacy Collaboration checklist. The following example is a conversation that occurred between Carrie and Grace as Carrie introduced the concept of using the Literacy Collaboration checklist as a way to guide the instructional conversations about their shared students.

- Carrie: If I'm doing my correlation right, we are in eights which is in.... E. Upper E. Some things we are looking for is self-monitoring reading with greater ease, uses known words and patterns to check on her reading, searches through words in left to right sequence, blends letters into sounds, repeats words to confirm. We talked a little bit about that at conferences last night. "Takes words apart at larger unit analysis" and "Reads high frequency words fast, fluently, and automatically. Becomes faster at noticing and initiates multiple attempts to self-correct."
- Grace: Are we going through each one and deciding if she does that?
- Carrie: Yes, so let's take a look at her Running Records here. Take a look at the first one: the self-monitoring reading, using known words and patterns to check on her reading.
- Grace: I think she is doing some self-monitoring. She is going back to reread once or twice on a page.
- Carrie: I think where she falls behind a little bit is using known words and patterns to check on herself in reading. She's beginning, but because there are so few patterns that are known right now. Known words, yes, but patterns I think that's where she's still developing--to be able to identify that. There was an example here. Where she had tried the word behind, she had said *un*—I think she was thinking *under*—checked *un* again, and then repeated. It was like she was identifying that something wasn't quite right, was trying to use the meaning to support herself but visually it was like she didn't quite know what to do with that first part of *behind*. So I gave a told. Then in other cases, *inside*. She says *in*, then goes on and says *side*, so she is starting to break that. But in seems to be a more common word part, or word. One thing has been tricky is the word *today*. She knows the word *to*.

Grace: Yes, she was stuck on that yesterday in her book.

Carrie started this conversation with the reading behaviors that they were looking for based on the Literacy Collaboration checklist as they analyzed the student's Running Record. Carrie then modeled for Grace what that analysis might look like as she found examples of the child doing some self-monitoring in the Running Record (e.g., "Where she had tried the word *behind*, she said *un*—I think she was thinking *under*—checked *un* again, and then repeated"). Grace acknowledged that the child had some difficulty with that same word during the first read of the book the previous day.

Figure 6: Literacy Collaboration checklist

do.	Appendix G6 (continued)											
	Early Level (Levels D–G) Literacy Collaboration											
Stud	dent Name:						G	rad	le:_			_
Clas	ssroom Teacher: Interventionist:											
Che	ck all behaviors below that the student uses consistently.											
Re	ading Behaviors: Teaching for Transfer and Self-Regulation	14		1 i		1 2		1.11	1			_
	Date											ļ
	Self-monitors reading with greater ease; uses known words and patterns to check on reading						\vdash	+	_	\vdash	-	ł
Į	Searches through words in a left-to-right sequence; blends letters into sounds; repeats word to confirm							1				
Early	Takes words apart at the larger unit of analysis					-	\vdash	\vdash	\vdash	+	-	╞
	Reads high-frequency words fast, fluently, and automatically					\vdash	1	-	\vdash	+	-	╀
	Becomes faster at noticing errors and initiates multiple attempts to selfcorrect				-	-		15	15	15	15	╀
	Total	/5	/5	/5	/5	/5	/5	/5	/5	/5	/5	L
Wri	iting Behaviors: Teaching for Transfer and Self-Regulation			2	1				_			Т
	Date				-	-	-	-	-	-	-	╀
2	Begins to notice common misspellings; circles words that do not look right; uses a simple dictionary to self-correct; uses resources to check work; acquires a writing vocabulary that reflects reading		1					100	-	82		
Early	Analyzes sequences of sounds and records corresponding letters; segments and blends sounds in words with greater ease							1				
-	Constructs words using the larger units of sound-to-letter patterns for writing unknown words			-	-	-	-	+	\vdash	-		╞
	Applies knowledge of onset and rime patterns for writing unknown words			-	-	-	-	+	\vdash			┝
					-		15	15	15	15	15	┝
	Notices similarities between word patterns	10						1/5	1/3		10	Ľ
Öth	Total	/5	/5	/5	/5	/5	1/3			110	1	
	Total	/5	/5	/5	/5	/5						
	Total er notes: hographic Behaviors: Teaching for Transfer and Self-Regulation	/5	/5	/5	/5	/5	75					
	hographic Behaviors: Teaching for Transfer and Self-Regulation Date	/5	/5	/5	/5	/5						
	Total ter notes: hographic Behaviors: Teaching for Transfer and Self-Regulation Date Spells most unknown words phonetically, including embedded sounds in two- or three-syllable words; later, moves into transitional spelling, noticing common patterns from reading and writ- ing: letter knowledge fast and automatic	/5	/5	/5	/5	/5						
Ort	Total hographic Behaviors: Teaching for Transfer and Self-Regulation Date Spells most unknown words phonetically, including embedded sounds in two- or three-syllable words; later, moves into transitional spelling, noticing common patterns from reading and writing; letter knowledge fast and automatic Knows that letters come together in a left-to-right sequence; says words slowly to match letters to sounds; acquires knowledge of interletter relationships from building familiar words (sh/she; th/the)	/5	/5	/5	/5	/5						
Ort	Total hographic Behaviors: Teaching for Transfer and Self-Regulation Date Spells most unknown words phonetically, including embedded sounds in two- or three-syllable words; later, moves into transitional spelling, noticing common patterns from reading and writing; letter knowledge fast and automatic Knows that letters come together in a left-to-right sequence; says words slowly to match letters to sounds; acquires knowledge of interletter relationships from building familiar words (sh/she; th/the) Notices relationship between letter patterns and clusters of sounds; uses known words as a base for adding inflections	/5	/5	/5	/5	/5						
	Total hographic Behaviors: Teaching for Transfer and Self-Regulation Date Spells most unknown words phonetically, including embedded sounds in two- or three-syllable words; later, moves into transitional spelling, noticing common patterns from reading and writing; letter knowledge fast and automatic Knows that letters come together in a left-to-right sequence; says words slowly to match letters to sounds; acquires knowledge of interletter relationships from building familiar words (sh/she; th/the) Notices relationship between letter patterns and clusters of sounds; uses known words as a	/5	/5	/5		/5						
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Quantitative patterns of Telling and Teaching In the two coaching and mentoring collaboration sessions that occurred between Carrie and Grace that were included in this research, there five Telling and Teaching scaffolds: one Telling about Procedures and four Teaching about Literacy. All of these were given by the CIM Specialist Carrie (see Table 18). Four of the five Telling and Teaching scaffolds were given at the first collaboration meeting in November.

Table 18

Discour	se Frequency	Distributio	n Washington	i Coaching an	d Mentoring	Sessions	
	Telling/7	Teaching	Directing/D	emonstrating	<u>Prompti</u>		
	Procedure	Literacy	Directing	Demons.	Statement	Question	Total
Meeting	One						
Carrie	1	3	2	0	1	0	7
Grace	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Total	1	3	2	0	1	0	7
	т						
<u>Meeting</u>	Iwo						
Carrie	0	1	8	1	1	0	11
Grace	0	0	0	1	0	0	1
Total	0	1	8	2	1	0	12
Total	1	4	10	2	2	0	19

Discourse Frequency Distribution Washington Coaching and Mentoring Sessions

Directing and Demonstrating. As previously stated, Directing and Demonstrating

scaffolds were intended to give information about instructional practices to be tried with students. Most of these were given by Carrie, with only one by Grace during the December meeting. Carrie not only offered suggestions for Grace to try in her small group lessons, but also suggested some practices that she herself would try in her Reading Recovery lessons with the student.

Grace:	I would say he's not breaking apart words yet from left to right.
Carrie:	I guess the good thing is he's looking left to right, he's noticing that first letter, but now becoming more efficient with noticing a bigger part of it.

- Grace: I've been working on that in group a lot with endings the last few weeks, -ing endings, -ed endings, -s endings to see if I can get them to look across. I don't know if he's doing that yet independently.
- Carrie: Another thing I've been thinking about with him is trying to build his.... When I looked at my recent chart online on his writing vocab, I feel like I really want to build his writing vocabulary with words that would help him access other words in text. For example, the word *are*. You know, you have that "a-r" sound that makes that /ar/ sound together. Later on, one of the other kids that I was reading with came across the word *hard*. It was "hard at work" that grasshoppers were hard at work... or the ants were hard at work. If he were to know that 'a-r" makes that /ar/ sound because he knows the word are or another example. Then he might have more success with then breaking that word hard more efficiently.
- Grace: So chunks that eight year olds are going to use.
- Carrie: Yes, picking words that are working on high frequency words or words that would lend themselves to being able to be used towards other words through analogy.

In this exchange, Carrie gave two suggestions for instruction to Grace: building up his writing vocabulary with words that would help him access other words in text, using "ar" as an example and picking high frequency words for instruction that would lend themselves to being used towards other words through analogy (word families). If Grace uses these suggestions during her small group lessons, not only will it help this child, but also the other children in the group who may also need to build their writing (and reading) vocabularies.

Later in that same meeting, Carrie and Grace talked about the possibility of exiting this child from Reading Recovery a few weeks early. However, Carrie felt that in order for that to happen, she would need to work a bit longer with that particular child on breaking longer words apart more efficiently. She then offered to videotape herself doing some of this type of work with this child in his Reading Recovery lesson so that Grace could see, and possibly try it in her own

small groups. Carrie ended the meeting by giving Grace a specific example of the language she might use:

Sometimes when I'm prompting with the kids when we are breaking words, I might use the prompt...if I am pretty sure they can break off the first part or the first two letters, I can say, "Say this much." And I will show him how much I want him to say I think he is going to be able to produce it. I might say, "Show me the part that says..." so I am producing it, but then he is having to locate. Those are two things we can use.

This type of language invites Grace to take the collaboration into the classroom since the two teachers will be using the same language with this student, and thus, making both instructional settings stronger.

Quantitative Patterns of Directing and Demonstrating. During the two meetings included in this study, there were twelve Directing and Demonstrating scaffolds in which 92 percent (n = 11) were given by Carrie, ten of which were suggestions for instruction. The other scaffold was an example provided by Grace (see Table 18).

Prompting and Guiding. This type of scaffold uses open-ended questions or statements to encourage the teacher to think about potential instructional moves that may help a student in reading or writing. This scaffold occurred the least often. In this conversation, Grace and Carrie are talking about a particular student who is still having difficulty blending words together.

Grace:	I don't really see her blending yet.
Carrie:	I don't see her blending either. She's definitely searching left to right but
Grace:	She had one word in this whole book where she tried to blend. Otherwise she is usually just replacing or waiting for a told.
Carrie:	Okay.

Grace:	There's another.
Carrie:	"Egg" she said <i>e-e-e-gg</i> .
Grace:	Once in a while, but I don't see it very often.
Carrie:	It goes back to what you were saying yesterday about, one thing I've just been wondering about is just, can she link a sound with the letter or link an item with the letter?
Grace:	I still think she's confusing a lot of her letters. Especially U and W and V and Z, so sometimes it's not automatic so she's not sure. She's not comfortable blending yet.

Carrie referred back to a previous conversation about the child, wondering if this child can link a sound or an item with a letter. Since Carrie was able to give information about a specific instructional procedure, this guiding thought should encourage both teachers to revisit the child's letter knowledge, including names and sounds.

Quantitative patterns of Prompting and Guiding. There were two total Prompting and

Guiding scaffolds. Both were given by Carrie, one at each meeting (see Table 18).

Contextual Considerations. When I looked through the data from the one-on-one collaboration meetings, the same three important themes emerged from the data: time, identification of student strengths and weaknesses, and situated identities.

Time. As with the grade level meetings, time certainly had an impact on the one-to-one collaboration at Washington Elementary. This was first evident in the length of time it took for Carrie and Grace to start meeting regularly. Although school started at the beginning of September, the two teachers did not start formally meeting until November. As described previously, many tasks and meetings took up Carrie's time during the school day. Her first priority was meeting with her intervention students on a regular basis, followed by supporting Lola in her new role as coach. Then there were the biweekly grade level meetings to attend:

always first grade, and then kindergarten and second grade whenever she could. Carrie and Grace also needed to consider Grace's schedule. Grace's first priority was also student instructional time and she tried be away from her students as little as possible. Grace also needed time for planning, preparation, and to develop new units, including those related to Project Lead the Way, a new curriculum introduced during the time of the study. Grace and Carrie ended up scheduling their meetings for Thursday mornings before school.

Identification of student strengths and weaknesses. The purpose of the collaboration meetings between Grace and Carrie was to problem-solve around student needs and plan for common instruction to help students progress at a faster pace. During the two meetings that occurred during this study, these two teachers maintained a laser focus on doing just those two things. Because their time was limited, they stayed focused on the student, particularly the student's strengths and weaknesses.

Using the Literacy Collaboration checklist and a recent Running Record assessment for this student, Grace and Carrie went through each of the reading behaviors listed and determined whether the student was using them consistently, partially, or not at all. In this example, Carrie and Grace are analyzing the Running Record for evidence of how the child processes high frequency words in text.

Carrie:	"Reads high frequency words fast, fluidly, and automatically." That was something else you mentioned in our meeting yesterday.
Grace:	Some of them. In this book, every time it said <i>we</i> she said <i>I</i> , and that was on every page. She had tons of errors just with that one word.
Carrie:	That might be a structural thing. She's thinking it's going to say <i>I</i> and not, hasn't quite looked.
Grace:	Then again, that W sound isn't secure for her so she picked I.
Carrie:	What she might be doing is <i>Mr. Brown plays games with us. I</i> then she looks, then she or did she self-correct?

Grace: She never self-corrected. She just kept going with *I*. Maybe with the picture it looks like there's one child or something, I don't remember. There's times where missing that sight word is really, causes a lot of error. She has some of them. She got *like* and *to*. I think she has more than she did at the beginning of the year.

Carrie: It's developing. Do we want to say partial for that?

Grace: Sure.

Using the Running Record, Carrie and Grace are able to identify student strengths (she has some high frequency words, and more than she did at the beginning of the year) and student weaknesses (The W sound still was not secure for her and she never self-corrected.) to determine what they should do with this child moving forward.

Situated identities. While Carrie and Grace were co-collaborators in their meetings,

Carrie's training in CIM and Reading Recovery allow her to take on more of an "expert" role.

This was evident in the scaffolding language that occurred--of the 19 total scaffolds recorded, 19

were offered by Carrie. She also integrated literacy instruction with suggestions for instruction,

while at the same time prompting and guiding Grace to make her own hypotheses about the

child's literacy understanding using the Running Record data.

Carrie:	I think you were also thinking about the fluency with that, how quick and automatic the words were, you were mentioning last night. "Becomes faster at noticing errors and initiates multiple attempts to self-correct."
Grace:	Maybe partial. She is noticing, that goes with the self-monitoring, same thing. She's noticing, but there's other times too where she's just replacing and not noticing. That's why I think it would be a partial.
Carrie:	We see that wait for a told that surfaces too. She's noticing then
Grace:	Sometimes she is asking me what's this word, and I've been giving it to her if it's a sight word I know she doesn't know. Is that appropriate or should I be trying to have her figure out the sight word?

Carrie: I think that would depend on the word. It could depend on whether or not structurally, she could get to it with rereading.

While talking with Carrie one morning before school, she reported to me that she can see the results of these conversations as she observed snippets of Grace's small group lessons. Although she did not do any formal observation of Grace's teaching, Carrie was often in Grace's classroom while picking up intervention students. She gets excited when she hears Grace using the language of instruction that they have talked about during their collaborations.

Research Question Three: Language of Scaffolding in Small Group Instruction

The third research question sought to find the patterns of scaffolded discourse that occurred during first-grade small group reading instruction, and was observed in two settings: Grace's classroom and Carrie's classroom. The purpose of using these two settings was to compare the small group instruction in the focus teacher's classroom (Grace) with the instruction of an experienced Reading Recovery teacher (Carrie).

The focus of the analysis was on word solving in both reading and writing since I felt that analyzing scaffolds in relation to comprehension might be a different research question and study. Sometimes the word solving during reading occurred in isolation, like building words with magnetic letters or writing them on white boards, and sometimes it took place during the reading of a text. There were also times in both Grace and Carrie's groups where students worked on words while writing continuous text. I was able to observe and analyze data from the same group of students for all three lessons in Grace's room, and the same students for two lessons in Carrie's room. In addition, two of the students in Carrie's intervention group were also in Grace's guided reading group. Across the two settings, three levels of scaffolding were identified: Telling, Directing, and Prompting.

Telling. This type of scaffold represented the highest level of teacher responsibility. With a tell, the teacher provided all of the information about letters or words while the student made no contribution to the problem-solving.

Grace usually used a tell in two different situations: when she was teaching the group a new concept or when she had already giving a directing scaffold that did not result in a correct student response. In one lesson, the group was preparing to read a book called *Jake and the Big Fish* (Smith, 2005). She set the purpose for word solving in this book by telling the students "When we read today, we are going to look for ending sounds." She reminded them of a previous book in which they had read words with the "–ing" ending, and then gave them an example from the book about Jake, writing the word "fishing" on the white board. Next, she showed the children a word with "–ed" at the end, teaching for transfer to words that have other such endings:

Grace: Jake and Dad went ... this is a long word but I see the "-ing" there. If I cover up the "-ing," I see the word "fish". Jake and Dad went fishing. So sometimes looking for an "-ing" can help you. I am going to write that word here—fishing. Sometimes words have other endings too. Sometimes words have these two letters at the end "-ed." If you notice an "-ed" at the end, you might be able to cover up that ending to help you too. I am going to show you that. "They sat on the dock and ... this is a really long word, but I see "-ed" at the end. If I cover up "-ed" do you know that word?

Students: Look.

Grace: They sat on the dock and looked. The "–ed" makes the /t/ sound. Looked at the water.

Later in the same lesson, one of the students was stuck on the word *today;* she was able to read the first part of the word, *to*, but could not get the second part, *day*. Instead of just telling the word to the child immediately, Grace tried to help her see the two parts of the word in the same manner in she had demonstrated at the beginning of the lesson.

What is this (pointing to the word <i>today</i>)?
I bet you could cover up this part and see a part of the word (covers <i>day</i>).
То.
What about this part (uncovered <i>day</i>)?
(No response.)
This word is <i>day</i> , so <i>today</i> .

Grace realized that the child did not know day, so she simply told her what it was.

Carrie also used the telling scaffold in her lesson when the group was trying to solve the

word both.

Carrie:	Were both sad. If we were to write that word both
Whitney:	It would start with a B.
Carrie:	It would start with a B. Do you want to make our B for us because I know you haven't been to the board yet? Think about your space. Good. Good. Good. Let's say it slowly with our finger, ready?? Slowly both.
All:	Both.
Carrie:	So you heard?
Sam:	0.
Whitney:	O and then an F.
Carrie:	Watch my mouth when I say it this time now. Listen. Both. Can you stick your tongue out at me like that? What two letters make that /th/?
Jason.:	О-о.
Whitney:	S-h.
Carrie:	Like thumb.
Students:	S-h.
Jason:	W-h.

Carrie: Close. it's a t-h.

There were two places where Carrie provided a telling scaffold. When Whitney thought that there was an F at the end of both, Carrie realized she needed to correct the way Whitney was making the sound and so she showed her the correct mouth placement (e.g., "Can you stick your tongue out at me like that?"). She then realized that she needed to tell the students that the /th/ sound was made with the letters t and h. The students were on the right track as they were naming the other diagraphs, but Carrie did not want to take the lesson in that direction so she gave them the told.

Directing. With this type of scaffold, the teacher provided some of the information needed for a student to read or write words, but the child was expected to contribute to the problem-solving, and ultimately, to come up with the word he or she was attempting to read or write. Much like the teachers from Irving, the directing prompts of the Washington teachers were often questions meant to guide the students to solve a word. As with the scaffolds that occurred in the teacher problem-solving meetings, the directing scaffold, in which the speaker encourages the listener to participate in the problem-solving activity, was the most used scaffold. In her lesson, Carrie wanted her students to be able to identify the word *naughty* in the text because it was not a word that was known to them. She used both the sound of the initial letter in the word and the letter itself to help the students identify the word in the text.

Carrie:	Yes, because the cat was being naughty, right?
Whitney:	Oh.
Carrie:	Say naughty with me everybody.
All:	Naughty.
Carrie:	What did you hear at the beginning of naughty?

Students:	/n/.
Carrie:	Show me where naughty would be (<i>asks each of the students</i>). What are you looking for? What letter did you expect to see at the beginning of naughty?
Jason.:	N.
Carrie:	Yes, can you find it there?

By asking them what they hear and what they expect to see, Carrie is directing them to locate the unknown word by the first letter.

Grace also used Directing prompts during the writing portion of her guided reading

group. In this lesson, the group worked together to compose a sentence for their writing book and

Grace sought to have students work on writing conventions:

Grace:	Birthday party. Let's count those words. Brown mouse said, you can come to my birthday party.
Whitney:	Ten words!
Grace:	We have ten words to write. I'm going to give you your booklet. Tell me about how you're going to make a correct sentence. What is your sentence going to need to have. Jason?
Jason:	Upper case letter and lower case letters.
Grace:	Wait a second, where does it have an uppercase letter?
Jason:	At the start.
Grace:	In the beginning of the sentence. Whitney did you hear what Jason said?
Whitney:	The beginning of the sentence.
Grace:	Has an uppercase letter. Does anything else need an uppercase letter?
Jason:	The name.
Grace:	Whose name?
Troy:	Brown Mouse.

Grace:	Brown Mouse. What about at the end of the sentence, what are you going to need to have?
Troy:	Periods!
Grace:	What about in between words?
Troy:	Commas.
Grace:	Sometimes we have commas, but usually every single time we have a finger
Jason:	Space.
Grace:	I'm going to be looking for correct sentences.

Grace could have simply made a list of expectations for the writing, but instead, she had the students come up with the correct conventions for a sentence, including proper capitalization, spacing, and punctuation.

Prompting. For this study, prompting during small group instruction was defined as times when the teacher called attention to general information about literacy and solving unknown words during reading that had been previously learned while still expecting the student to solve the word. During the small group instruction analyzed during this study, there was only one instance of prompting which occurred during one of Grace's guided reading lessons, and was embedded within other levels of prompting.

Grace: Let's see, put your finger underneath. I like how you brought your finger up to look at it. Do you see an "-ed" or "-ing" ending like we were looking for?
Whitney: (*Shakes head no.*)
Grace: Nope. That one doesn't have "-ed" or "-ing," so we might have to try something else. What else could we try? It does have an "-er" ending. So it does go /er/ at the end. Let's look at the beginning. What sound do you need to make first?

After Grace asked Whitney what else she could try, Whitney reached for her alphabet chart and looked there for something, but did not appear to find anything to help herself. At that point, Grace increase her level of scaffold, saying, "It does have an –er ending, so it does go /er/ at the end." She then sent Whitney to the beginning of the sentence to reread.

Grace:	Okay, let's reread and see what makes sense.
Whitney:	More.
Grace:	That doesn't make sense. Check again. You said it right. You said at. Looked at
Whitney:	The water.
Grace:	Good job!

By starting with the lowest teacher responsibility and then increasing the support incrementally, Grace was able to help Whitney work through the unknown word, "water," and figure it out. Even though looking at the alphabet chart did not help her, Whitney still had the opportunity to seek out other resources on her own first, which could potentially encourage her to seek out those resources without teacher prompting at another time.

Quantitative Analysis of Small Group Instruction. Because the children in the small groups were not participants in the study, and because there was no expectation that they would use these scaffolds with either their teacher or one another, the quantitative analysis of the three types of scaffolds were counted only for the teachers. Thus, each scaffold type was counted and recorded in a table for each of the teachers, Carrie (Table 19) and Grace (Table 20).

Carrie. Over the course of the two lessons I analyzed, conducted a month apart and with the same students, Carrie had 38 total scaffolds. Overall, 34 percent (n = 13) were Telling scaffolds and 66 percent (n = 25) were Directing scaffolds. Carrie had no prompting scaffolds. There were 21 total scaffolds in the first lesson and seventeen scaffolds in the second lesson.

From the first lesson to the second, the percentage of Telling prompts dropped from 43 percent (n = 9) to 24 percent (n = 4). At the same time, the percentage of Directing prompts *increased*, from 57 percent (n = 12) to 76 percent (n = 13).

Table 19

Discourse Frequency Distribution for Carrie's Small Group Instruction

	Telling	Directing	Prompting	Total
10-19-17	9	12	0	21
11-13-17	4	13	0	17
Total	13	25	0	38

Grace. Over the three lessons I observed, one per each month of the study and with the same students, Grace had a total of 79 scaffolds (see Table 20). Overall, 38 percent (n = 30) were Telling scaffolds, 61 percent (n = 48) were Directing scaffolds, and 1 percent (n = 1) was a Prompting scaffold. There were nineteen scaffolds in the first lesson, thirty-six scaffolds in the second lesson, and 24 scaffolds in the third lesson. Like Carrie, Grace also decreased her percentage of Telling scaffold from the first month to the last month—53 percent down to 33 percent—and increased her percentage of Directing scaffolds—from 47 percent in October to 67 percent in December.

Table 20

Discourse Frequency Distribution for Grace's Small Group Instruction							
	Telling	Directing	Prompting	Total			
10-19-17	10	9	0	19			
11-13-17	12	23	1	36			
12-7-17	8	16	0	24			
Total	30	48	1	79			

Contextual Considerations. To consider the context around small group instruction at Washington Elementary School, I analyzed the transcripts from my interviews with both Carrie and Grace and from the grade level meetings, as well as small-group instruction videos and their

transcripts. Once again, I found that the same three themes emerged in relationship to smallgroup instruction: time, identification of student strengths and weaknesses, and perception of roles and responsibilities.

Time. Both Carrie and Grace were well-prepared for the small-group instruction they conducted. They each used prepared lesson plans, and followed very similar formats: reading familiar books while the teacher took a Running Record, word work, introduction to the new book, and then the reading of the new book. Carrie had the advantage of teaching her small groups in her own classroom where there were no distractions. Thus, she was able to utilize a "reading corner", where two students from the group could go and read away from the table while Carrie took Running Records at the beginning of the lesson, creating even fewer distractions for the children. One of Carrie's desires was to have enough time for the classroom teachers to come in and observe the intervention lessons so as to improve the consistency of instruction for the children; however, she recognized the lack of funding for substitute teachers to cover the teachers' classrooms would probably prevent that from happening. Thus, she compensated for this situation by offering to videotape her lessons for the classroom teachers to watch.

Grace's time with her small groups was somewhat brief, as lessons with each group of students averaged about fifteen minutes, compared to the 25 minutes Carrie spent with her groups. Some of this was due to the scheduling of the day—group time was sometimes cut short by recess or lunch or other subjects such as math and Project Lead the Way that had mandatory times imposed on them. Because it was early in the year, the children in Grace's room also did not appear to have the stamina to work independently for much longer than fifteen minutes. Grace was often interrupted at the guided reading table by the other students in the class, either

when they came up to the table to talk to her, or were disruptive in their independent work, which resulted in diverting her attention away from the guided reading group to attend to the others.

Identification of student strengths and weaknesses. The conversations in both the grade level meetings and the one-on-one collaboration times allowed Grace to really delve into the strengths and weaknesses of her students. During grade level meetings, time was dedicated to plan for small group instruction, as well as to analyze student Running Records. The teachers were asked to set goals for instruction for these students. In the first October meeting, Grace selected her focus student, Maria, who was in the group analyzed for this study. She set the following goals for this student, who was also an English Language Learner (ELL):

I have chosen Maria for my focus student. Hers is a little more complicated with being an ELL and speech layered on top of those things, but mine is pretty similar: Identifying letters and letter sounds. I think she needs extra practice with that because she is not pronouncing her sounds correctly yet, so it is more confusing for her. Also in Spanish vowels are totally different, so she is noticing vowels in words and putting them in when she is writing, but I don't think she has those correctly yet, so that might be another area to focus on with that.

In small group instruction, Grace started every lesson with a review of letters and sounds using a letter chart. She covered individual letters, diagraphs, and blends. When the students built words with magnetic letters, Grace always had them name the letters first. By doing these activities, Grace was following through on her plan for Maria.

During one-on-one collaborations, Carrie and Grace discussed instruction for two students: Maria and Troy. Carrie mentioned working with Maria on words with inflectional

endings. That was something I also observed in Grace's instruction with Maria's small group. With Troy, Carrie and Grace agreed to work on the fast identification of sight words and breaking apart longer words quickly. Although I did not observe any small group lessons after this meeting (it was in December at the end of the study), the open communication between Carrie and Grace, as well as their desire to provide instruction that remained consistent between the two settings and teachers leads me to believe that Grace will incorporate these suggestions for instruction into her guided reading lessons.

Teacher identity. Both Grace and Carrie see their role as helping their students become independent readers and writers. The gradual release of responsibility is visible in both settings, as evidenced by the decrease in their Telling scaffolds and an increase in their Directing scaffolds over time. They both speak about the children with long-term goals in mind. For example, when discussing Troy, Carrie was already putting together a plan to accelerate his progress in order to exit him successfully from Reading Recovery, maybe even a few weeks before the end of the 20 weeks of lessons.

Summary. Three rounds of quantitative analysis were conducted using the data that was collected. In the first round of analysis, I identified three types of scaffolds: Telling and Teaching, Directing and Demonstrating, and Prompting and Guiding. In the second round of data, I analyzed the discourse that was not considered to be instructional scaffolds to see what other types of talk was being used in the three activity settings. Then on the third round of analysis, I identified three overarching themes that described the context in which the instructional scaffolds were situated. These three themes were: Time, Identification of Student Strengths and Weaknesses, and Teacher Identity.

Question Four: Degrees of Similarity

Question four sought to find the degree of similarity of scaffolds used across the three activity settings at Washington Elementary School: grade level team meetings, coaching and mentoring sessions, and small group instruction. In other words, it sought to determine if there was similar use of the three types of scaffolds—Telling and Teaching, Directing and Demonstrating, and Prompting and Guiding—in the three activity settings. Using the codes from the first round of data analysis, I created frequency tables for each participant in each setting. I then used those tables to conduct the quantitative analysis of the data. The following tables report the chi-square values for the coach and the interventionist during the problem-solving meetings, the coach and the teacher during coaching sessions, and the first-grade teacher during smallgroup reading instruction.

Tables 21 through 23 contain the actual frequencies (f), along with percentages, and expected frequencies (f) of the scaffolding category observed for a) the coach, Lola, and CIM Specialist/Interventionist, b) for Carrie, during problem-solving meetings, Carrie during coaching and mentoring sessions, and c) for the teacher, Grace, during small group instruction. Separate chi-square (X^2) analyses were conducted for each participant. The expected frequencies were obtained by dividing the total frequency of scaffolds by the number of categories (3) for each participant, assuming equal use of the three types of scaffolds. If the expected frequencies dropped below 5, Yates' correction for continuity was used to calculate the final chi-square value.

Grade-level meetings. Table 21 contains the frequency of observed scaffold category use for the coach, Lola, and CIM Specialist/Interventionist, Carrie, during grade-level meetings at Washington Elementary School. The most frequent scaffold categories used by Lola were Telling and Teaching (44%) and Prompting/Guiding (44%), followed by Directing and

Demonstrating (12%). To determine if one category was used significantly more or less frequently than another category, a chi-square value was calculated. The X^2 value based on the frequency of use by Lola was 9.38 (p < .01). Chi-square tests for the individual scaffold categories indicated that Directing and Demonstrating scaffolds were used significantly less frequently than the other two scaffold categories.

The most frequent scaffold category used by Carrie during grade-level meetings was Telling and Teaching (75%), followed by Prompting and Guiding (25%) and Directing and Demonstrating (0%). To determine if one scaffold was used significantly more or less frequently than another scaffold, a chi-square test with Yates' correction was used. The X² value based on the frequency of use by Carrie was 2.40, which was not significant.

Table 21

Chi-Square Analysis Comparing the Actual (Act.) and Expected (Exp.) Frequencies (f) of Scaffold Use for the Coach and Interventionist during Grade-Level Meetings Scaffolds

Participant	Teaching/Telling		Demonstrating/Directing		Prompt/Guiding		Totals
	<u>Act f (%)</u>	<u>Exp f</u>	<u>Act f (%)</u>	<u>Exp f</u>	<u>Act f (%)</u>	<u>Exp f</u>	
Lola	21 (44%)	16	6 ^a (12%)	16	21 (44%)	16	48
Carrie	3 (75%)	1.3	0 (0%)	1.3	1 (25%)	1.3	4
Column Totals	24		6		22		52

Coaching and mentoring. Table 22 contains the actual and expected frequencies of discourse category use for the CIM Specialist, Carrie, and the teacher, Grace, during coaching and mentoring sessions. The most frequent scaffold category used by Carrie was Directing and Demonstrating (61%), followed by Telling and Teaching (28%) and Prompting and Guiding

(11%). To determine if one category was used significantly more than another category, a chisquare test was used. The X^2 value based on the frequency use by Carrie was 14.11, which was significant (p < .001). Chi-square tests for the individual categories indicated that Directing and Demonstrating scaffolds were used by Carrie significantly more than Telling and Teaching scaffolds or Prompting and Guiding scaffolds. The X^2 value based on the frequency use by Grace was 1.0, which was not statistically significant.

Table 22

Chi-Square Analysis Test Comparing the Actual (Act.) and Expected (Exp.) Frequencies (f) of Scaffold Use for the CIM Specialist and Teacher during Coaching and Mentoring Scaffolds

Participant	Teaching/Telling		Demonstrating/Directing		Prompt/Guiding		Totals
	<u>Act f (%)</u>	<u>Exp f</u>	<u>Act f (%)</u>	<u>Exp f</u>	$\frac{\text{Act f}}{(\%)}$	<u>Exp f</u>	
Carrie	5 (28%)	6	11 ^a (61%)	6	2(11%)	6	18
Grace	0 (0%)	.33	1 (100%)	.33	0 (0%)	.33	1
Column Totals	5		12		2		19

Small-group instruction. Table 23 contains the frequency of observed scaffold category use for the first-grade teacher, Grace, during small-group instruction. The most frequent scaffold categories used by Grace was Directing and Demonstrating (48%), followed by Telling and Teaching (38%) and Prompting and Guiding (1%). To determine if one scaffold category was used significantly more than another scaffold category, a chi-square test was used. The X² value based on the frequency of use by Grace was 42.7, which was significant (p < .0001). Chi-square tests for the individual scaffold categories indicated that Directing and Demonstrating scaffolds

were used significantly more frequently than expected, while Prompting and Guiding scaffolds

were used significantly less frequently than expected.

Table 23

Chi-Square Analysis Test Comparing the Actual (Act.) and Expected (Exp.) Frequencies (f) of Scaffold Use for the teacher during small-group instruction

			Seam	5145			
Participant	Teaching/Telling		Demonstrating/Directing		Prompt/Guiding		Totals
	<u>Act f (%)</u>	<u>Exp f</u>	<u>Act f (%)</u>	<u>Exp f</u>	<u>Act f (%)</u>	<u>Exp f</u>	
Grace	30 (38%)	26.3	48 ^a (61%)	26.3	1 ^b (1%)	26.3	79
Column Totals	30		48		1		79
^a $X^2 = 17.9$, p	$0 < .01; b X^2 = 2$	24.3, p < .00	001				

Scaffolds

Summary. In two of the three activity settings, coaching and mentoring and small-group instruction, Directing and Demonstrating scaffolds were used significantly more often than either Telling and Teaching scaffolds or Prompting and Guiding scaffolds. During grade-level meetings, however, Lola used Prompting and Guiding scaffolds as well as Telling and Teaching scaffolds more frequently than Directing and Demonstrating scaffolds, which were used significantly less. Therefore, there was not a pattern of scaffold use across all three activity settings, although the pattern was consistent from the coaching and mentoring setting to smallgroup instruction by the focus first-grade teacher.

Case Summary

Washington Elementary is part of a four-school district in a small town in the Midwest. Washington is relatively new to both Reading Recovery and PCL, both of which were implemented in the district in 2013. Although the participants in this study have not been in the district long, Most of them, including Lola, Carrie, Grace, Alma, and Amber, all worked in a

nearby district that utilized Reading Recovery and PCL, although that district abandoned PCL before it was fully implemented district-wide. These participants brought their knowledge and expertise to Washington because they wanted to be part of a district that valued the comprehensive literacy model.

While all three scaffold types were being used across activity settings at Washington, there was no pattern that emerged from setting to setting like there was at Irving. Carrie used Directing and Demonstrating scaffolds significantly more than the other two scaffold types in her coaching and mentoring sessions with Grace and Grace used Directing and Demonstrating scaffolds significantly more than the other two scaffolding types in her small group instruction. Lola, however, used Directing and Demonstrating scaffolding significantly *less* in the gradelevel meetings. She used Telling and Teaching scaffolds and Prompting and Guiding scaffolds about the same number of times, but neither results was statistically significant.

Chapter Summary

This chapter presented the findings of the study which examined the patterns of scaffolded discourse in three activity settings at two different schools in the Midwest that utilize a comprehensive literacy model as a member of the Partnerships in Comprehensive Literacy. Multiple sources of data were collected and analyzed using both qualitative and quantitative methods.

While both schools in this study utilized the Comprehensive Literacy Model that is the central tenant of the Partnerships in Comprehensive Literacy Model, each implemented the model in a unique way, resulting in different patterns of scaffolding within the three activity settings where data was collected. For example, while the participants in both schools used the Directing and Demonstrating scaffold the most often, this result was not statistically significant for all

participants. At Irving Elementary, all participants used the Directing and Demonstrating significantly more than the other two types of prompts except for the coach, who used it as often as would be statistically expected. At Washington, on the other hand, the coach used this type of prompt significantly less than would be expected. The possible reasons for these difference will be explored in Chapter Five.

In the final chapter of this dissertation, the findings and conclusions from the study will be discussed, including the connection to existing literature. I will also discuss the implications for practice as well as implications for future research.

CHAPTER FIVE

SUMMARY, DISCUSSION, AND IMPLICATIONS

"We all like to simplify things, but many things must remain complex."—Marie Clay

The purpose of this chapter is to provide a summary of this study and to discuss its findings and implications for both practice and future research. As previously noted, this mixed methods study was conducted in a multiple case study design and examined the following overarching question: What are the patterns of scaffolded discourse that occur across activity settings within a comprehensive literacy model designed for school improvement?

Summary of the Study

This inquiry was conducted in two Midwestern schools that are members of the Partnerships in Comprehensive Literacy (PCL). Under the direction of Dr. Linda Dorn, PCL has grown into a nationwide network of schools staffed by highly trained literacy professionals. This model of school reform encompasses the qualities of successful school reform models: a shared vision, high levels of collaboration, high-quality professional development, and support from an external partner (Taylor, B.M., Raphael, T.E., & Au, K.H, 2010). It is important to remember that the success or failure of each of these qualities rests on the people who are working to make it happen. The purpose of this study was to closely examine and analyze the language of the key individuals on site who work together to bring the comprehensive literacy model to life in their particular context(s).

Marie Clay recognized the importance of exemplary first teaching for students conducted by well-trained teachers (Clay, 2005). She designed Reading Recovery to not just be a program for students who are not performing at the average of their peers, but to also be a continuing education and support system for the teachers who provide the lessons. A comprehensive literacy

model such as the Partnerships in Comprehensive Literacy (PCL) extends that support system beyond Reading Recovery to entire schools and even districts, creating a network of systemic expertise (Allington & Johnston, 2015).

I specifically chose to focus on the language of scaffolding that occurred within three specific activity settings within the two schools, namely, first-grade team meetings, mentoring and coaching with first-grade teachers, and first-grade small group reading instruction because of the connection between Reading Recovery and first grade. Dorn (2015) states, "a theory of change can be viewed as a theory of assisted performance (p. 5)". The results of this study bring to light the language of that assisted performance across a variety of activity settings within a comprehensive literacy model in two very different school contexts.

Discussion of the Findings

The overarching research question guiding this study sought to determine what patterns of scaffolded discourse might occur between educators across activity settings within a comprehensive literacy model designed for school improvement, and whether and how this might translate into instructional scaffolds as classroom teachers worked directly with students in their classrooms. In the following section, I present an overview and discussion of this study's findings as related to this question, organized by the inquiry subquestions, and then by each school individually and collectively. Finally, I discuss the three overarching themes that emerged from further analysis of the language of the participants in the two schools, namely, 1) time, 2) identification of student strengths and weaknesses, and 3) teacher identity.

Use of Scaffolded Discourse in First Grade Team Meetings

The first feature of the PCL model that I examined was collaborative learning communities (Feature 7), specifically, grade level meetings. Although the use of the first-grade

team meeting was quite different between Irving and Washington, there was evidence of scaffolded discourse in both schools.

Irving Primary School. At Irving, the first-grade teachers met individually with the team which included the Instructional Coach, the Literacy Leaders, and occasionally, the school principal and the district Reading Recovery Teacher Leader/CIM Coach. The majority of this time was spent discussing specific students, although at the beginning of the year there was time spent talking about school literacy procedures. Most of the scaffolds regarding both school-wide and district-wide literacy procedures were given by the Instructional Coach, Brooke, as Telling and Teaching, the highest level of scaffolding. Brooke is the most logical person to disseminate this information since she regularly meets with both school and district administration and, therefore, can give consistent information to her teachers.

There were also several instances of literacy knowledge shared in the monthly meetings with each teacher. These important pieces of information were often embedded within longer utterances, mostly by Brooke and Katie, the interventionist. It is possible that these were missed by the classroom teachers because of the length of the utterances, which is unfortunate because, while it is important for teachers to know what to do with these young emergent readers, it is also important to know why. Indeed, the first item on the list of assets necessary to develop teacher expertise in PCL is "knowledge of literacy development" (Dorn, 2015, p. 10). While each teacher in this team has knowledge of literacy development, Brooke and Katie, as well as Jessica, the part-time interventionist, have advanced knowledge due to the graduate-level coursework they completed within the PCL model. Through conversations about instruction, as well as conversations about students, Brooke, Katie, and Jessica could help deepen the knowledge of literacy development in the first grade teachers at Irving.

As the meetings turned to talking about the needs of the individual students, Katie, the full-time Literacy Leader at this school brought her experience and expertise to the table. She had many suggestions for instructional moves both for the classroom teacher and even for herself. In fact, Katie's use of the Demonstrating and Directing scaffolds was significantly higher than her use of the other two types of scaffolds, and significantly higher than any other participant's use of it. Because she is an expert in this field as both a Reading Recovery teacher and a CIM Specialist, Katie's suggestions were research-based and directed towards the needs of the students. This is an excellent example of the in-house professional development on instructional practices that the administration desired when they made the decision to continue to fund participation in PCL. Furthermore, the congruence of instructional activities from intervention to classroom is crucial in helping students transfer newly acquired skill and strategies from intervention to classroom (Dorn, Doore, & Soffos, 2015). Although Katie is an expert literacy teacher due to her years of experience and training, she did not simply tell the teachers what to do. Rather, she offered assistance through instructional procedures and time. Such scaffolded support is crucial for developing the expertise of classroom teachers, and can lead not only to the success of the students, but also of the system (Forbes, 2015).

It is possible, however, that the number of suggestions she provided might have been overwhelming to the teachers. As the quantitative analysis showed, Katie's offers of Demonstrating and Directing were significantly higher than her other two levels of prompting. With so many different suggestions to try, the teachers may have had difficulty keeping up with what instructional moves might work with which students. Indeed, there was no evidence of follow-up in subsequent meetings as to whether or not the teachers had tried any of the suggestions with those students, and if so, whether they proved helpful or not. It could be to the

benefit of this grade-level team for the coach and the interventionists to record their meetings, then watch the recordings, paying attention to the length of utterances and the suggestions embedded within. This might help them to be more aware of the amount of information they are passing on to the teachers with a focus in reducing the number of suggestions given in any particular meeting. With fewer suggestions to try, the classroom teachers

The use of Prompting and Guiding was the least utilized scaffold during first-grade team meetings at Irving Primary School, representing only 12 percent of the total scaffolds. Thus, the classroom teachers were generally not being asked what *they* thought might work for particular students. This may have occurred for a few different reasons. First, it is possible that the intervention team did not think the teachers capable of coming up with instructional procedures beneficial to students. Second, given the short amount of time the team had with each teacher, the coach and the interventionists may have wanted to make sure that the classroom teachers knew what was happening in the intervention room or wanted to give them ideas to try out. Finally, it is possible that the coach and the interventionists were simply unaware of how little they invited the classroom teachers into the problem-solving process. This last thought seems the most plausible, as each expressed surprise at how little they used this type of prompt during member check conversations with the intervention team when they reviewed the initial study findings.

Lyons and Pinnell (1999) state that teacher development is most effective when:

- there is a balance between demonstration of teaching and time for analysis and reflection
- complex ideas are experienced, analyzed, and discussed
- it is based on the teaching of children

- it involves conversations about the act of teaching
- it is supported by a learning community.

The coach and interventionists at Irving Primary School are knowledgeable and supportive of the first-grade teachers, and have the time set aside for these conversations. It seems that with some adjustments to how this time is spent, the team could examine their language in an attempt to include some discussion of the complex ideas of teaching.

Part of this discussion could be an investigation into the reasons teachers and coaches are using scaffolding in this way. It is possible that the teachers at Irving are using the scaffolds with which they are most comfortable. In a study of interactions of five tutors and twenty struggling sixth graders, Hedin and Gaffney (2013) found that the tutors seemed to adhere to their preferred patterns of scaffolding rather than the full range of prompts and strategies in which they had received training. It is possible that the teachers and interventionists at Irving may be following this same pattern: teaching through routine rather than responsiveness (Rodgers, 2017). Just as these teachers use Running Records to monitor the sources of information their students use or neglect during reading, they have the opportunity to take a "running record" of the scaffolds they are using or neglecting: interventionists and coaches with teachers and teachers with students. By coding and analyzing this record, this team has the opportunity to examine their own practices of scaffolding in order to determine how they might want to change their scaffolding language.

Washington Elementary. The development of collective expertise among the first-grade team at Washington Elementary looked different from that of Irving Primary School as the first-grade team met as a whole with the Primary Literacy Coach and the CIM Specialist twice a month. Instead of focusing on individual children during this time, Lola, the Literacy Coach, led the team to think about their instruction from a whole-class perspective. Like Brooke, Lola spent

time during the first meeting of the school year talking about school- and district-wide literacy procedures. Her approach to instruction, however, was quite different. Lola used Prompting and Guiding scaffolds just as often as Telling and Teaching scaffolds, both of which were higher than her Demonstrating and Directing prompts. By using open-ended prompts, allowing the teachers time to reflect, and then giving everyone time to share their thoughts, Lola invited and empowered the teachers to think collaboratively about instruction.

It is possible that the teachers at Washington Elementary want more ideas for instruction from Lola during this grade-level meeting time. Because it was her first year as a coach, as well as at Washington, she was still "*Roaming Around the Known*," as she called it during one interview—learning about the school, the teachers, and even her own role as coach. Because she is a Reading Recovery teacher, Lola has knowledge about reading instruction that she gained during her graduate coursework, and that she was learning through attendance as weekly classes for coaching training. It would seem that as she becomes more familiar and comfortable with her role at the school, Lola may start to share more instructional strategies with the first-grade teachers as she deems necessary.

Use of Scaffolded Discourse in Coaching and Mentoring

The next feature of PCL that I examined was coaching and mentoring (Feature 2). As with the grade-level teams, each school utilized the coaching and mentoring sessions differently during the time of this study.

Irving Primary School. The mentoring relationship that was examined during this study was that which occurred between Brooke, the school literacy coach, and Natalie, a first-grade teacher new to the school. During the study, Brooke and Natalie used the mentoring time to plan for co-teaching of Writer's Workshop. The two teachers met weekly during their lunch period to

plan lessons, develop scoring rubrics, and score student work using those rubrics. Brooke also spent time in Natalie's classroom where she taught mini-lessons and worked one-on-one with specific students.

During these meetings, Brooke used a higher percentage of Demonstrating and Directing scaffolds than she did in the problem-solving meetings, possibly due to a few different factors. First, Brooke was responsible for note-taking during the problem-solving meetings and may have been so focused on making sure she captured what others were saying, that she did not add her own suggestions in that setting. Second, she did not spend as much time instructing first-grade students as the other interventionists, so when Katie and Jessica talked about specific students, it made sense for them to do more of the talking since Brooke did not work directly with them. Since she worked with Natalie's students during the co-teaching of Writer's Workshop, it made sense that she would have more suggestions for this type of instruction during their meetings. Lastly, Brooke had prior experience with the first-grade Writer's Workshop curriculum, format, and expectations, whereas Natalie's experience with this pattern of instructional practice was at the Kindergarten level. Thus, it made sense for Brooke to naturally allowed her to offer more suggestion scaffolds, as opposed to Telling and Teaching. Since Natalie had some knowledge about writing instruction that she brought to the discussions and planning, Brooke was able to build on that knowledge.

Washington Elementary School. At Washington Elementary, Lola spent a fair amount of time in her second-grade "model classroom" as part of her coaching responsibilities during the year of this study. Since this grade level was outside of the scope of this study, this component of coaching was not included in this study. Carrie did some informal mentoring with Katie even though she was not the official literacy coach for her building. This mentoring occurred during

discussions about students to whom they both provided instruction. Carrie's extensive graduate coursework and training as both a Reading Recovery teacher and a CIM gave her specialized knowledge about literacy instruction, particularly for those students not working at the average of their peers, making her uniquely situated to share this knowledge with Grace. Carrie used the informal mentoring time to share instructional strategies and practices with Grace in an attempt to help Grace accelerate the progress of her struggling first graders.

Although Carrie did not provide any Demonstrating and Directing scaffolds during the grade-level meetings, she did contribute ten such scaffolds across the two meetings with Grace that were analyzed for this study. During these meetings, she provided Grace with instructional strategy suggestions to try with the students they discussed, and even offered to video herself doing them with the students so Grace could see them in action. In addition to instructional strategies, Carrie also gave Grace specific language to use with her students.

In her interview, Carrie expressed the desire to have time for the classroom teachers to come in and observe Reading Recovery lessons with their own students. This would be an excellent way for her to use the apprenticeship approach with these teachers. Tharp & Gallimore (1988) state, "define teaching as assisted performance in the ZPD and provide effective training, and teachers' thinking will become strategic, driven by responses of students, and implicitly theory-based (p. 260)". If Grace were able to watch Carrie teach in real-time, she would receive the knowledge she needs to accelerate the progress of her struggling readers. To move Grace forward even father in her teaching, the next step would be to have Carrie come in and watch her teach so as to give Grace immediate feedback on her teaching. This could then potentially lead to an increase in the number of Prompting and Guiding scaffolds given by Carrie to Grace, inviting

Grace to participate at higher levels in the problem-solving activities of working with the struggling readers.

Use of Scaffolded Discourse in Small Group Instruction

The analysis of small-group instruction focused only on the scaffolds surrounding wordsolving. As previously mentioned, while there were some instances of scaffolding around comprehension, the majority of the questions asked appeared to be known-answer questions, which could be explored in another study.

Irving Primary School. The analysis of small group instruction was done in Natalie's classroom with her small groups and with one of Jessica's first-grade intervention groups. Jessica's lessons lasted thirty minutes each, whereas Natalie's were shorter, ranging from nine to twelve minutes each. Although Natalie was new to Irving Primary School, she was not new to teaching. She had previous experience with guided reading with small groups of children, but it was not her most recent teaching experience.

Jessica and Natalie both used Directing scaffolds most often with students, followed by Telling scaffolds and then Prompting scaffolds. In short, they were both sharing the responsibility of the word work with the students in the group. According to Dorn and Jones (2012), "The ultimate goal of word study is for the student to apply strategies for solving unknown words within texts while maintaining their focus on the message (p. 3019)". By allowing the students to do some of the work during word solving within authentic reading and writing tasks, both of these teachers were moving their students toward independence in word solving. There were times during Natalie's lessons when a Prompting scaffold may have been more appropriate in order to more quickly move the children toward independence. As Natalie continues to work collaboratively with Brooke, Katie, and Jessica, as well as the other teachers at

her grade level, she will have the opportunity to expand her own professional expertise in the area of literacy, increasing the likelihood that she will be able to identify those times and use a wider variety of appropriate prompts.

Washington Elementary School. Just as with the teachers at Irving, Both Grace and Carrie utilized Directing scaffolds most often, followed by Telling scaffolds and then Prompting scaffolds. Both teachers worked individually with the students in their groups which allowed them to respond immediately to students' needs. During the exit interviews and member checks, Grace and Carrie both expressed surprise at how little they used Prompting scaffolds. It is possible that this type of scaffold, which asks for the highest student responsibility, was evidenced less often due to the timing of the study at the beginning of the school year, and because the first-grade students had limited literacy knowledge at that stage in school. Clay (2005) states, "A prompt is a call for action to do something within his control (p. 39). If the child has very little in his control, then it would make sense for the teacher to be responsible for more of the work on the text.

It is also possible that Grace and Carrie were adhering to the scaffolds they were most comfortable with like the teachers in the Hedin and Gaffney (2013) study. In their collaboration sessions, Grace and Carrie were using Running Record data to analyze student reading behaviors as they completed the Literacy Collaboration checklist. It is in this meeting, in fact, when Carrie uses a Prompting and Guiding scaffold with Grace. But for some reason, the use of this type of scaffold within the mentoring session does not seem to transfer to instruction by either Grace or Carrie.

Similarities Within Cases

This study also sought to find out if there were degrees of similarity in the patterns of discourse used at the two schools, both of which incorporate a comprehensive literacy model. As previously noted, three activity settings were examined in each school: grade-level team meetings, one-to-one coaching and mentoring sessions, and small-group reading instruction. I used chi square analysis to determine if there was any statistical significance regarding the participants' use of the three types of scaffolding within the three activity settings. The assumption was that all three types of scaffolds would occur with equal frequency within each setting.

Irving Primary School. At Irving, the use of the Directing and Demonstrating scaffold was statistically significant across all three settings. During the problem-solving meetings, Katie used Demonstrating and Directing prompts significantly more often than the other two types of scaffolds. During the coaching and mentoring sessions, Brooke used Demonstrating and Directing scaffolds significantly most often, and Natalie used Demonstrating and Directing scaffolds significantly more than the other two types of scaffolds.

While this does demonstrate some consistency across the settings, it does not indicate why this might be. It is possible that because Demonstrating and Directing are being modeled for Natalie in the other settings, she is more likely to use that type of prompt in her small group instruction. It could also be that these three teachers have similar teaching styles, which becomes visible in the types of scaffolds that they use. It is also unclear from this small amount of data whether or not this consistency is true for all teachers who are part of this first-grade team. More research is needed to determine if this is a pattern across the grade level. Finally, the significance of these findings can best be determined by the members of the first-grade team at Irving. Are

they getting the results they want from each activity setting or is there something else they would like to accomplish that could be done by attending to the type and/or amount of scaffolds each team member is using within the various activity settings? While the quantitative data shows significant use of the Directing and Demonstrating scaffolds within each setting, this might not be the most appropriate scaffold for those settings. For example, if the teachers feel overwhelmed by the number of suggestions they are given for working with their students, they might not keep these suggestions in mind as they teach their students, and instead, continue to rely on the instructional practices that they have been already using. A closer examination of practice through the lens of scaffolding could help this team to develop and refine the support they are currently giving one another, the classroom teachers, and the students.

Washington Elementary School. At Washington, the use of Directing and Demonstrating scaffolds was also statistically significant across the three activity settings. However, while Carrie used this type of prompt significantly more than the other two teachers during coaching and mentoring sessions, and Grace used it significantly more during instruction, Lola employed Demonstrating and Directing significantly *less* than the other two types of prompts during grade-level team meetings. This is not surprising, considering the structure of these meetings, as generally Lola focused on one specific aspect of instruction, such as the use of Learning Logs, and spent time giving instruction using Telling and Teaching scaffolds. She then asked open-ended questions of the teachers, or Prompting and Guiding scaffolds. Interestingly, when the teachers responded to these prompts, it was often with a suggestion for instruction being shared at the grade level meetings, it was usually the classroom teachers who were doing the sharing, not the coach. At Washington, just as at Irving, it must be up to the coach, the

interventionist, and the teachers to decide the significance of these results for themselves. By examining these findings, they can decide if they are satisfied with the balance of scaffolds in each setting or whether they wish to take a closer look at the language they are using to support one another.

Summary. While the quantitative analysis is able to show the statistical significance of the patterns of discourse within each activity setting at each school, these findings do not explain the importance of the results for each school. Because the two schools are each unique in implementation of the PCL model, there is no one way or even a right way to interpret these findings. However, they can be used to examine their support systems through a different lens than has been used in the past. The deep analysis of quantitative patterns of discourse across activity settings within a comprehensive literacy model adds another layer of complexity onto how schools can use data to analyze program effectiveness.

Overarching Themes

As I was coding the data looking for the language of scaffolding, other themes began to emerge, which although not directly related to scaffolding language, I determined were important due to their potential impact on the participants. In other words, the themes of time, the identification of student strengths and weaknesses, and teacher identity may have influenced the language each participant used within the three settings. Therefore, I also analyzed how the participants talked about and within these themes.

Time

The theme of time emerged across both schools, and many of the participants felt that there was not enough time for instruction, mentoring, meeting, and planning. Yet one of the benefits of the comprehensive literacy model is the requirement that time be set aside for these

things. For example, being part of the partnership means that schools and districts are committing the necessary instructional time for the different workshop models, including reading workshop, writing workshop, and language workshop. Such instructional patterns of practice engaged students in reading and writing across a variety of settings. The first-grade teachers in both schools began the workshop times with whole-class mini-lessons, then moved to smallgroup and independent work time as they conference with individual students, or worked with guided small groups. During the workshop time, children were reading and writing independently, as well as working with their teachers in small groups. This dedicated time allowed the children to work on developing habits of reading and writing—both necessary tools for lifelong learning (Dorn & Soffos, 2005).

Although there were differences in how the teachers at the two schools used the gradelevel meetings, in each building, both time and space were allowed for teachers to come together as a team to collaborate and problem-solve. Without this time, teachers and coaches may have difficulty finding opportunities to "ask questions, identify problems, create solutions, and transform knowledge (Dorn, 2015, p. 6)."

Time may also be a factor in how each of these schools utilizes their patterns of scaffolds. Given more collaboration time, for example, the coach and literacy leaders at Irving might be able to probe more deeply with the classroom teachers into how their suggestions for instruction might impact certain students in the classroom. One potential issue with this monthly collaboration time is that the students that are brought forth by the classroom teachers for collaborative problem solving are not necessarily the same from month-to-month. This may make it difficult for any follow through on the success of the implementation of suggested instruction procedures for certain students. With more collaboration time, the coach and the

literacy leaders could follow up with teachers around these instructional practices, even coming into the classroom to model them if necessary.

Identification of Student Strengths and Weaknesses

Both Irving Primary and Washington Elementary have systems in place to identify students' strengths and weaknesses in literacy. In first grade in particular, the presence of Reading Recovery in the two schools meant that the Observation Survey (assessment) was administered to those students most at risk at the beginning of first grade. Coupled with the classroom teachers' administration of a grade-level Benchmark Assessment to all students, educators at both Irving and Washington were able to begin instruction in students' Zones of Proximal Development almost from the beginning of the school year. Furthermore, these common assessments gave teachers and interventionists common language to use while discussing student progress, as well as instruction that connected from intervention to classroom. This resulting high level of collaboration is one of the themes that has consistently emerged in successful models of school change (Au, 2005; DuFour, 2004; Fullan, 208a; Fullan, Cuttress & Kilcher, 2009; Gile & Hargreaves, 2006). In the PCL model, this collaboration around assessment meets the requirements of both Feature 7, which was included in this study and Feature 5 (Comprehensive Assessment Systems), indicating high fidelity to the model in both schools.

It is possible that with some awareness of the language of scaffolding that is being used in collaborative settings, teachers, coaches, and interventionists can use more intentional language around specific instructional strategies for specific students. If coaches are not using Prompting and Guiding scaffolds very often in these conversations about the strengths and weaknesses of students, teachers may feel as if their opinions and their teaching strategies are not

valued, leading to a weakening of the collaborative relationships. If, on the other hand, there are more opportunities for teachers to talk about strategies they have tried, that have either worked or not worked, the relationships among colleagues may strengthen as the feelings of trust and worthiness grow among and between colleagues.

Situated Identities

Educators take on different identities depending on the setting in which they find themselves (Gee, 2000). For example, a teacher does not view first-grade students as peers, and thus will take on a leadership role and a teacher identity when working with those students. In a peer setting, such as grade-level meeting, a teacher's identity changes depending on how s/he views herself within that peer group. A teacher with many years of experience and additional educational professional development, particularly through graduate coursework, may view him or herself as a leader or an expert; whereas a brand-new teacher may feel intimidated or shy in the new setting. This study did not focus on teacher identity, and thus, the identities discussed in this study were based only on observations of teachers in different settings, as well as information the participants provided in their initial survey and interviews.

The focal teachers at each school were active members of each professional learning community in which they participated. For example, both Grace and Natalie interacted with the interventionists who worked with their students, bringing student work samples, examples of classroom instruction, and questions about instruction to both the grade-level meetings and the mentoring and coaching sessions in which they participated.

The two coaches took slightly different roles during the grade-level meetings. At Irving, Brooke took on the identity of facilitator, taking notes and verifying team goals at the end of each meeting. At Washington, Lola had an agenda for each meeting and led discussions on the

various topics. Additionally, the teachers at her school were encouraged to share on these topics in turns, while Irving teachers were not specifically asked to share on predetermined topics. In both schools, however, the coaches positioned themselves as experts in the field of literacy, sharing their knowledge with peers—informally in Brooke's case and more formally in Lola's. Such development of collective expertise is yet another hallmark of successful school progress and change (Dorn, 2015; Fullan, Cutterss, & Kilcher, 2009). In these cases, although the collaboration, or affinity group, is mandated through school practices, each of these participants appears to be willing to adhere to the common set of practices, namely, the ten features of the collaborative literacy model.

Implications for Practice

While there is extensive research focusing on teacher-student scaffolding discourse (Clay, 2005a; Clay, 200b; Rodgers, 2004; Rodgers, et al, 2015; Wood, Bruner, & Ross, 1976), very little has been done that closely examines the types of scaffolds teachers provide one another within their learning communities. This type of scaffolding has been deemed necessary for teacher success (Wilkinson & Gaffney, 2015), but only goes so far as to report the importance of "discussions fueled by the teachers' observations and interpretations of real-time interactions of a colleague tutoring a child" (Wilkinson & Gaffney, 2015, p. 231). Dorn and Jones (2012) discuss the importance of collaborative language, but do not reference the specific types of scaffolds teachers may use with one another as they collaborate. Using this study as a guide, coaches and teachers at schools that utilize a comprehensive literacy model can take a close look at the actual language of scaffolding within collaboration, and use this type of discourse analysis to strengthen the use of scaffolding at all levels within the model.

Programmatic Implications

Even within the PCL model, the close analysis of the language of scaffolding among teachers is valued, but not studied. Coaches in this study reported that while they recorded themselves and then analyzed their videos during their training year, this practice did not continue after that first year. Upon viewing the results of this study, coaches and teachers in both sites were surprised at how few times they used Prompting scaffolds.

It would make sense then, that within a comprehensive literacy model that coaches be educated about the importance of examining the scaffolds they use within the learning communities and contexts in which they participate. At the grade level, for example, coaches can give suggestions and examples for instruction while allowing teachers to do likewise. These types of conversations would lead to a more consistent instructional plan for students as they move from the classroom to literacy interventions. This practice has the potential to give teachers more ownership over the instruction of students who struggle, instead of placing that ownership primarily on the interventionists. In other words, by taking more time to analyze the use of scaffolded discourse throughout a school year, coaches can use this data to improve their own coaching, as well as to help teachers improve their teaching. Comprehensive literacy models in general, and the PCL model specifically, hold collaboration as one of the core principles. By using discourse analysis, schools within this model have the potential to strengthen this collaboration by building the expertise around scaffolded instruction for both coaches and teachers.

Participant Implications

Because each school in this study is unique in its implementation of a comprehensive literacy model, the findings of this study can be uniquely applied to the two schools, and more

generally considered at other sites. These implications take into consideration the patterns of scaffolded discourse as they appeared in each school, as well as the overarching themes that emerged from the data analysis.

Irving Primary School. At Irving, each first-grade teacher meets individually with the intervention team which includes the school coach, the full-time interventionist, the part-time interventionist, and occasionally, the principal. During grade-level problem solving meetings, the discussions focused on individual students, with many suggestions for instruction given by the full-time interventionist. By spending some time analyzing the patterns of discourse of the participants in these meetings, this grade-level team may be able to find ways to reallocate the time in order to better include the classroom teacher in the discussions. For example, if the fulltime interventionist were to examine the number of suggestions she gave to the teachers over the course of a thirty-minute meeting, she may be able to find a way to streamline her suggestions, narrowing them down to a manageable few. This could then be follow-up with the classroom teacher, including a report at the next meeting on how the implementation of those suggestions went, supported by student data. Implementing something like this has many potential benefits: 1) the classroom teacher remains engaged in the meeting, 2) the teacher is held accountable for classroom instruction for struggling readers, 3) it will be easier for the note keeper to track the suggestions for instruction, together with student outcomes, 4) it keeps consistency between classroom and intervention instruction, and 5) it frees up more time in the meeting to discuss instructional practices specifically focusing on improving whole-class literacy instruction.

There are also benefits to examining the scaffolded discourse within the coaching and mentoring sessions. The process of analyzing scaffolds in the coaching relationship allows the school coach to examine her coaching practices to see if she is using the guided release model

with the teachers she is coaching. For example, analyzing her coaching through the lens of scaffolds will help Brooke see if the classroom teacher is taking on more of the responsibility for the implementation and development of specific teaching practices.

Finally, as Natalie reacclimatizes to teaching first grade, it would be beneficial to examine her own scaffolding practices. As students move through reading levels, she should find herself moving through the cycle of scaffolds with her students: Teaching to Demonstrating to Prompting, all as students take on more responsibility for their work.

Washington Elementary School. As Lola becomes more comfortable in her role as a coach, she may also want to spend some time analyzing her own use of scaffolds during the grade level meetings and consider questions such as: Does she want to give more suggestions for instruction or is she happy with the teachers doing that in response to her open-ended prompts? How can she help the other teachers in the grade level, including Carrie the interventionist, become more adept at using Prompting and Guiding scaffolds?

In interviews and conversations, Carrie talked about her desire to do more coobservations with Grace, the focus first-grade teacher. Although it takes time from instruction to do this, there are benefits to the practice of observing one another teach and then reflecting on those observations that outweigh the loss of instructional time. Research has shown that the best professional development happens within schools using real classrooms and real students (Elmore, 2004; Lyons & Pinnell, 1999), and where teachers work collaboratively to develop collective expertise (Dorn & Jones, 2012). Carrie and Grace have the opportunity to use the coobservation model that is part of PCL not only to examine their teaching practices, but also their language of scaffolding, and more specifically, to do so during the actual teaching of the lessons

and pre- and post-observation discussions, thus making the co-observation protocol that much more powerful.

Future Research

This study examined the language of scaffolded discourse at two schools utilizing a comprehensive literacy model. One of the limitations of the study was its short time frame, in that it took place over the first half of one school year. It would be interesting to see how the observed scaffolding might change over the course of the year, possibly in just one aspect of a comprehensive literacy model, such as the grade-level meetings. For example, as the school year moves forward, does the language of scaffolding used by the literacy coach change? As the teachers spend more time with their students, are they able to take on more of the task of making suggestions for instruction?

Future research might also entail the examination of the relationships among the members of the learning communities as related to teachers' identities within the various learning communities. At Washington, for example, Lola is not only new to the role as coach but also new to the school. As she spends more time in the role and in the school, will her relationships with the CIM Specialist and the classroom teachers change? A study of this could include more research into teacher identity through reflection journals and interviews.

Conclusions

The purpose of this study was to examine the language of scaffolding that occurs in three settings in a comprehensive literacy model: grade team meetings, coaching and mentoring, and small group instruction. The two schools that were a part of this study have implemented these components in different ways and yet there was extensive evidence of scaffolding in each of the

settings. There was something else evident in both settings: the belief that all students can learn and a willingness to work together to find the right ways to teach them.

The PCL model is both multi-faceted and complex. There is collaboration at every level: classroom, school, district, and network. The model works for these two schools because of the people involved in these schools. Their histories, experiences, and beliefs help bring this model to life. These multi-faceted complexities are brought together not to simplify, but to enrich teaching and learning in schools that utilize a comprehensive literacy model.

This model brings together all the components of a successful model of school change and marries them together with the most successful intervention program: Reading Recovery. The collaboration that happens within PCL is meant to build teacher capacity and collective expertise. But while there is evidence of scaffolding and support occurring at each level of the model, this study was the first time this scaffolding had been examined closely in an attempt to identify the patterns of scaffolding that were happening among teachers and between teachers and students.

Adding this analysis of the language of scaffolding by teachers and literacy interventionists and coaches, both qualitatively and quantitatively, is an important next step for schools within the PCL network. Examining the patterns of the language of scaffolding within the features of the PCL model will only add to the expertise of these teachers.

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APPENDIX A

Literacy Coach Background Survey

Name:

Selected Pseudonym (the name you have always wanted to go by; if duplicates are selected you will be contacted so as to provide an alternate name): ______

Work email:

Please answer each question below about your teaching and educational background.

1. How many years have you been teaching? _____

2. What is your position at this school?

3. How many years have you been in this position?

- 4. What positions have you held at other schools, if any? For how long?
- 5. Do you have a Master's Degree?

If yes, what is the focus of that degree (Reading, Curriculum and Instruction,

etc.)?

- 6. Are you currently working on, or do you hold another graduate level degree?
 - a. If yes, what type and in what area of focus?
 - b. When is your projected completion date?
- 7. Check each of the following in which you have participated:

_____ Reading Recovery coursework

_____ Continuing Contact

_____ Comprehensive Intervention Model Training

_____ PCL Coaching Coursework

- 8. Check any of the following that you participate in as part of your weekly work schedule:
 - _____ Meeting with other teachers related to reading instruction*
 - *If checked, please list by title (e.g. intervention teacher, special education teacher) the teachers you meet with regularly related to reading instruction, other than during grade level meetings
 - _____ Meeting with school administration related to reading instruction
 - _____ Grade level meetings related to reading instruction
 - _____ Working with small groups of students in reading instruction
 - _____ Working with individual students for reading instruction
 - _____ Other work related to reading instruction
- 9. Rate your engagement in the PCL implementation process in your building.

1	2	3	4	5
low				high

10. Explain your rationale for the rating you chose in #9 above:

APPENDIX B

Teacher Background Survey

Name:

Selected Pseudonym (the name you have always wanted to go by; if duplicates are selected you will be contacted so as to provide an alternate name): ______

Work email:

Please answer each question below about your teaching and educational background.

- 1. How many years have you been teaching?
- 2. What is your position at this school?
- 3. How many years have you been in this position?
- 4. What positions have you held at other schools, if any? For how long?
- 5. Do you have a Master's Degree?

If yes, what is the focus of that degree (Reading, Curriculum and Instruction, etc.)?

- 6. Are you currently working on or do you hold another graduate level degree?
 - a. If yes, what type and in what are of focus?
 - b. When is your projected completion date?
- 7. Check each of the following in which you have participated:
- _____ Reading Recovery coursework
- _____ Continuing Contact
- _____ Comprehensive Intervention Model Training
- _____ PCL Coaching Coursework

8. Check any of the following that you participate in as part of your weekly work schedule:

_____ Meeting with other teachers related to reading instruction*

*If checked, please list by title (e.g. intervention teacher, special education teacher) the teachers you meet with regularly related to reading instruction, other than during grade level meetings

_____ Meeting with school administration related to reading instruction

_____ Grade level meetings related to reading instruction

_____Working with small groups of students in reading instruction

_____Working with individual students for reading instruction

____Other work related to reading instruction

9. Rate your engagement in the PCL implementation process in your building.

1 2 3 4 5

low

high

Explain your rationale for the rating you chose in #9 above:

APPENDIX C

Literacy Coach Interview Guide

- 1. How long has your school been implementing the PCL model?
- 2. Please describe how literacy coaching was conducted before the implementation of PCL.
- 3. Please describe the professional development you have received as the literacy coach in this school as part of the PCL model.
- 4. How are coaching and mentoring structured at your school?
- 5. From your perspective, what are some of the positive aspects to the PCL model that you have seen in your school?
- Describe any positive changes, for yourself or your work, you experienced with the PCL training you have received.
- 7. From your perspective, what are some of the challenges your school has encountered with the implementation of PCL?
- 8. What are some challenges that you personally have encountered with the implementation of PCL?
- 9. What does your weekly schedule related to reading instruction entail?
- 10. What aspects of your job related to reading instruction do you enjoy the most?
- 11. What aspects of your job related to reading instruction do you enjoy the least?
- 12. What else would you like to share in relationship to reading instruction, PCL, or your role that I may not have asked about?

APPENDIX D

Teacher Interview Guide

- 1. How long has your school been implementing the PCL model?
- Please describe the professional development you have received from your school or district related to reading instruction.
- 3. How are coaching and mentoring structured at your school?
- 4. From your perspective, what are some of the positive aspects of the PCL model that you have seen in your school?
- Describe any positive changes, for yourself or your work, you experienced with the PCL training you have received.
- 6. From your perspective, what are some of the challenges your school has encountered with the implementation of PCL?
- 7. What are some challenges that you personally have encountered with the implementation of PCL?
- 8. What does your weekly schedule related to reading instruction entail?
- 9. What aspects of your job related to reading instruction do you enjoy the most?
- 10. What aspects of your job related to reading instruction do you enjoy the least?
- 11. What else would you like to share in relationship to reading instruction, PCL, or your role that I may not have asked about?

APPENDIX E

Participant Informed Consent

Dear Participant,

My name is Kimberlee Wagner, and I am a doctoral candidate in the field of Language and Literacy at National Louis University. As part of my doctoral work, I will be completing a dissertation study titled, "The language of apprenticeship during teacher collaboration in a Comprehensive Literacy Design Model" and I am asking you to participate in this study. This form outlines the purpose of the study, and provides a description of your involvement, as well as your rights as a participant.

The purpose of this study is to describe the apprenticeship model and scaffolding that is an integral part of the Partnerships in Comprehensive Literacy (PCL). I specifically want to study the scaffolding that occurs between teachers in first-grade team meetings and in coaching sessions between literacy coaches and first-grade teachers, together with the scaffolding provided by first-grade teachers in small group reading instruction with students at schools that have implemented the PCL mode.

Participation in this study will include:

- A survey of professional background and involvement with PCL (i.e., years you have been a teacher and your teaching experiences)
- One-on-one interviews
- Observations of first grade team meetings
- Observations of first grade coaching sessions
- Observations of first grade small-group reading lessons

Audio and visual recordings of these sessions, together with observational notes, will help me to accurately depict the interactions that occur during each of the sessions listed above.

Your participation in this study is voluntary and can be discontinued at any time without penalty or bias. The results of this study may be published or otherwise reported at conferences, and employed to inform practices in teacher discourse. However, participants' identities will in no way be revealed as data and findings will be reported in aggregate and bear no identifiers that can be connected to individual participants. To ensure confidentiality, I will secure surveys, audio recordings, transcriptions, and interview notes on a password-protected computer. I alone will have access to this data, and any data that is printed on paper will be kept secure in a locked cabinet.

Participation in this study does not involve any physical or emotional risk beyond that of everyday life. While you are not likely to have any direct benefit from being in this research study, taking part in it may contribute to a better understanding of the teacher scaffolding and professional development that is part of the PCL model for literacy instruction.

Upon request, you may receive a summary of results from this study and copies of any publications that may occur. Please email the researcher, Kim Wagner at <u>kwagner5@nl.edu</u> to

request results from this study. In the event that you have questions or require additional information, please contact the researcher, Kim Wagner by email or phone: 1-815-226-4178.

If you have any concerns or questions before or during participation that have not been addressed by the researcher, you may contact Dr. Ruth Quiroa, dissertation chair, at <u>rquiroa@nl.edu</u> or the co-chairs of NLU's Institutional Research Review Board: Dr. Shaunti Knauth; email: shaunti.knauth@nl.edu; phone: 312-261-3526; or Dr. Carol Burg; email: cburg@nl.edu; phone: 813-397-2109. Co-chairs offices are located at National Louis University, 122 South Michigan Avenue, Chicago, IL.

By signing below, you agree that you have read and understood the information provided regarding this study. A copy of this consent form will be given to you.

Educator Signature: _____

Date: _____

Researcher Signature: _____

APPENDIX F

Parent Permission for Minor Participation

Dear Parent or Guardian,

Your child is invited to participate in a research study conducted by Kimberlee Wagner as a part of my dissertation work at National Louis University in Lisle, Illinois. In this study, I hope to learn about how first grade teachers and literacy coaches mentor one another, and how the language that teachers use may help students in small group reading instruction. Your child was selected as a possible participant in this study because he or she participates in first-grade smallgroup reading instruction.

Your child's participation in this study will involve possible appearance on video and/or audio recordings of teachers and students in small-group reading instruction. Any information that is obtained in connection with this study and that can be identified with your child will remain confidential. Your child's identity will be kept confidential at all times through the use of pseudonyms in the write-up of the study, as well as in the safeguarding of any information related to your child. In fact, all video and/or audio data collected will be secured in a locked cabinet, and all other data and transcripts will be kept on a password-protected computer. I alone will have access to this data.

Your child's participation is voluntary. Your decision whether or not to allow your child to participate will not affect his or her relationship with his or her teacher or school. If you decide to allow your child to participate, you and/or your child are free to withdraw your consent and discontinue participation at any time without penalty or bias.

Participation in this study does not involve any physical or emotional risk beyond that of everyday life. While your child is not likely to have any direct benefit from being in this research study, taking part in it may contribute to a better understanding of teacher talk and mentoring that is part of his/her school's model for literacy instruction.

If you have any questions about the study, please feel free to contact Kimberlee Wagner at <u>kwagner5@nl.edu</u>. You can also contact my committee chair, Ruth E. Quiroa, at <u>rquiroa@nl.edu</u> You will be offered a signed copy of this form to keep.

Your signature indicates that you have read and understand the information provided above and willingly agree to allow your child to participate in this study. By signing this form, you are not waiving any legal claims.

Parent/Guardian Signature	 Date:
Researcher Signature:	 Date:

Estimado padre o tutor,

Su hijo/a es invitado a participar en un estudio de investigación realizado por Kimberlee Wagner como parte de mi trabajo de tesis en la Universidad Nacional Louis en Lisle, Illinois. En este estudio, espero aprender cómo los maestros de primer grado y los instructores de alfabetización se ofrecen tutoría entre sí, y cómo el lenguaje que usan los maestros puede ayudar a los estudiantes en la instrucción de lectura en grupos pequeños. Su hijo/a fue seleccionado/a como posible participante en este estudio porque participa en la instrucción de lectura en grupos pequeños de primer grado.

La participación de su hijo/a en este estudio involucrará posible aparición en grabaciones de video y / o audio de maestros y estudiantes en instrucción de lectura en grupos pequeños. Cualquier información que se obtenga en relación con este estudio y que pueda identificarse con su hijo/a permanecerá confidencial. La identidad de su hijo/a se mantendrá confidencial en todo momento mediante el uso de seudónimos en la redacción del estudio, así como la protección de cualquier información relacionada con su hijo/a. De hecho, todos los datos de video y / o audio recopilados serán asegurados en un gabinete cerrado, y todos los demás datos y transcripciones se mantendrán en una computadora protegidos por contraseña. Solamente yo tendré acceso a estos datos.

La participación de su hijo/a es voluntaria. Su decisión de permitir o no a su hijo/a no afectará la relación de su hijo/a con su maestro o escuela. Si usted decide permitir que su hijo/a participe, usted y / o su hijo/a son libres de retirar su consentimiento y descontinuar la participación en cualquier momento sin penalización o sesgo.

La participación en este estudio no implica ningún riesgo físico o emocional más allá de la vida cotidiana. Aunque es poco probable que su hijo/a tenga algún beneficio directo de participar en este estudio de investigación, participar en él puede contribuir a una mejor comprensión de la charla y tutoría del maestro que es parte del modelo de instrucción de alfabetización de su escuela.

Si tiene alguna pregunta acerca del estudio, no dude en ponerse en contacto con la Profesora Kim Wagner por <u>kwagner5@nl.edu</u>. También, puede ponerse en contacto con la presidenta de mi comité, la Dra. en educación Ruth E. Quiroa, por <u>rquiroa@nl.edu</u>. Se le ofrecerá una copia firmada de este documento para tenerlo guardado.

Su firma indica que usted ha leído y entiende la información proporcionada arriba y está dispuesto a permitir que su hijo/a participe en este estudio. Al firmar este documento, usted no renuncia a ninguna reclamación legal.

Firma del padre / tutor	Fecha:
Firma del investigador:	Fecha:

APPENDIX G

Observation Protocol

Location:				
Date:				
Time:				
Length of Activity:				
Members Present:				
Descriptive Notes	Reflective Notes			